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LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY

IN

UTTAR PRADESH

with special study at

KANPUR

BY

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
Foreword	i
Preface	v

SECTION I

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH	1
--	---

SECTION II

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY AT KANPUR

Chapter

I. Introduction	11
II. Workers engaged in the Craft	13
III. Tools and Implements	16
IV. Raw Material, Technique and Designs	17
V. Cost of Production	20
VI. Marketing	22

Appendix

I. Tables	24
II. Schedule of Industries and Crafts	26

LIST OF TABLES

I. Number of Industrial Units and Persons employed in Production	24
II. Distribution of Artisans	24
III. Distribution of Articles by Materials used	24
IV. Designs	24
V. Marketing	25
VI. Cost of Production	25
VII. List of skilled Craftsmen	25

MAPS, PHOTOGRAPHS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

SECTION I

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH

Map of Uttar Pradesh (Rural) showing the number of workers engaged
in the manufacture of leather footwear

Facing page 1

PHOTOGRAPHS

Plate

1. The cobbler	<i>Facing page 1</i>
	<i>Between pages</i>
2. A typical village tannery	6 — 7
3. Dipping the hide in lime solution	6 — 7
4. Scrapping the hair and flesh from the hide	6 — 7
5. Squeezing out the water and moisture from the hide	6 — 7
6. Sewing the leather with <i>moonj</i> (a grass twine) into a bag	6 — 7
7. Bags hung up filled with tan mixture	6 — 7
8. Rubbing the hide with impure salt and bark dust	6 — 7
9. Shoe-makers at work	6 — 7
10. 'Q' seal, a popular symbol for the 'U. P. Government Quality Certification Mark'	8 — 9
11. Trainees at the Pilot Project for footwear at Agra	8 — 9

CHARTS

1. Workers in the craft	2 — 3
2. Workers by caste and communities	4 — 5

SECTION II

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY AT KANPUR

PHOTOGRAPHS

Plate

12. Workers in a workshop	12—13
13. Single worker working in his home	12—13
14. Apprenticeship	14—15
15. Sewing the upper	14—15
16. Tools	16—17
17. Iron Last	16—17
18. Shoe Last	16—17
19. A modern tannery	16—17
20. Upperman at work	16—17
21. Fixing the sole	18—19
22. Attaching and smoothening the heel	18—19
23. Cutting the curves of sole and heel	18—19
24. Stitching the upper	18—19
25. Old and the new	18—19
26. New cut shoe	18—19
27. Peshawari <i>sandals</i>	18—19
28. <i>Chappals</i> —Ladies and Gents	18—19
29. Samson <i>Chappals</i>	18—19
30. Cottage worker in the market	22—23
31. Higgling and bargaining	22—23

FOREWORD

One of the first steps to be taken in the First Five Year Plan was the establishment of six Boards for the promotion of handicrafts, village and small industries : (1) The Khadi and Village Industries Board ; (2) The All-India Handicrafts Board ; (3) The All-India Handloom Board ; (4) The Central Silk Board ; (5) The Coir Board ; and (6) The Small Industries Board.

The rapid expansion of the activities of these Boards which concentrated not only on production and techniques, but also on organisation, extension, credit, marketing, and export, consolidated and enlarged the position that the household industries sector had so long enjoyed in the nation's economic life. It was this fact that forced itself upon the preparations for the 1961 Census and demanded that household industry should be separately investigated for a proper accounting of the nation's manpower, resources and its specific contribution to the national income. The 1961 Census therefore asked a special series of questions on household industry, input of family and hired labour, and the periods over which household industry is conducted. It was felt, however, that an enumeration of the total number of establishments and their industrial classification would be incomplete without a proper description of what they produce and how they produce. It was important to make an assessment of the limits of rigidity within which traditional skill operates. This could be obtained by studying the caste, occupational, social and economic stratifications, the limitations of credit and marketing facilities, the dominance of custom over contract, the persistence of traditional tools and design forms, the physical limitations of transport, communication and mobility, the inability to adopt new lines or adapt to changing circumstances. It was important also to make an assessment of the limits of flexibility that traditional skill is capable of, because the transformation of traditional skills to modern skills is easier said than done and a thorough study may well reveal that it is perhaps cheaper from the social point of view to develop industrial skills from scratch than to try to graft traditional skill on alien soil. A rather tragic case of failure to make what would on the face of it seem a minor adjustment cast its heavy shadow on the nation when it was discovered that goldsmiths used to working on 22-carat gold all their lives felt sadly helpless when asked to work on 14-carat, so narrow and unadaptable were the limits of their skill and proficiency and so rudimentary the tools and equipment with which they and their forefathers had worked. This fiscal accident revealed that tools are even more important than skills.

An early opportunity was therefore taken in February 1960 to suggest to State Census Superintendents, that the Census provided a unique opportunity for conducting and documenting a survey of this kind. As such a survey was quite outside the usual terms of reference of Census work it was thought prudent cautiously to feel one's way with the thin end of the wedge of what would, it was hoped, prove to be an exciting pursuit. It was therefore considered the wiser course

to wait until the State Census Offices felt so interested that they would no longer take the inquiry as an imposition but rather want to do it on their own and ask for the necessary staff and equipment. This office, too, in its turn, could make use of the interval to organise and elaborate the design of inquiry in order to feed the appetite that work in progress would serve to whet. Because it was a labour of love, sought to be unobtrusively thrust on one's colleagues and because the inquiry itself was so vast that normally it would demand in any country as big a set-up, if separately established, as the Census organisation itself and that over a much longer period, and because it was almost a pioneer venture, nothing like it having been undertaken since the 1880's, it was decided to move towards a build-up by stages, to let the inquiry unfold itself only as fast as my colleagues chose to ask for more.

Thus, in the first circular of 18 February 1960, it was suggested that the inquiry might be conducted through the agency of the Development Department, the State Director of Industries, the Director of Tribal Welfare, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, and other organisations concerned with the promotion of household industry. A draft questionnaire containing 30 questions in three parts was recommended for canvassing. It was suggested that information on this questionnaire, village by village and area by area, might either be obtained through the regular departmental channels of the State Government, or through the newly set up Census organisation, or through the hierarchy of the newly-created Panchayets. Stress was laid on the need of photographic documentation and illustration of designs, shapes and forms not only by photographs but with the help of line drawings or sketches together with a full description of the materials used.

Almost the whole of 1960 and the first half of 1961 were spent in organising and taking the census count, although several States even during this period had not allowed the grass to grow under their feet but made exploratory studies and decided in their minds how the inquiry should be organised. A series of regional conferences held in Trivandrum, Darjeeling and Srinagar in May and June, 1961 revealed much enthusiasm among State Superintendents to proceed with the survey, but the need of separate staff and equipment was felt at the same time as the realization dawned that this was much too serious an inquiry to be treated casually and left to be achieved through the usual administrative channels and State Census Superintendents proceeded to augment their staff with qualified research and investigating officers, technical persons, photographers, artists, draughtsmen and other trained personnel.

This was followed by rapid progress in coordination between the Central and State Census offices in the matter of exchange and processing of information, documentation and investigation, of assisting each other with trained investigators and in editing and finalizing drafts, layouts, presentations.

Mention has been made of a questionnaire in three parts and thirty questions. The idea was to make a beginning with empirical, analytical studies based on a structured questionnaire which would replace general descriptive accounts that had obtained so far. The primary aim was to obtain a picture as much of the artisan himself as of his craft, to obtain a perspective of the artisan and his craft in his social and economic setting, the extent to which tradition bound him and the winds of change ruffled him, the extent of his mobility and immobility, the conditions of market, credit, new contacts and designs in which he operated, the frame of new as well as traditional producer-customer relationships in which he still worked, and how far he was ready to pierce his own caste-tribe socio-economic cocoon and make a break through to new opportunities promised by the Five Year Plans. The aim was to hold up the mirror to hereditary skills struggling with the dialectics of tradition and change.

Thus the first part of the questionnaire, purporting to be a village schedule, sought to take account of the size and population of the village, its remoteness from or proximity to centres of trade and commerce, in short, the degree of isolation in which the artisan worked, and the relative strengths of various communities in the village which would afford clues to social interdependence and the prevalence of the *jajmani* system. The second part was devoted to artisan communities in the village: the several castes of artisans, the number of families in each, the total number of workers, males and females, the extent of co-operative activity among them, the extent of dependence upon employers and of wage or contract labour. There were questions on the raw materials used, the means of their procurement, the possible extent of dependence on others for raw materials, the extent of the material that artisans can handle within the limits of their skill. There were other questions on the exchange and flow of designs, the use of colours, the ancientness of the craft and legends associated, the colonization of the craftsman, on patrons and customers and on social and economic contact with the world inside and outside the village. There were specific questions on the workshop itself and particularly the tools and the source of supply of these tools, because it was felt that tools decide everything and are the surest index of inertness or flexibility. Separate blocks of questions were designed to bring out the ramifications of artisan castes throughout the country and the ways they sustained themselves, the type of clientele they catered for, the extent to which they operated on money or barter or service, how specialized their craft was, how wide the market, how dependent they were on their socially preordained clientele and how restricted the latter was by the seemingly unalterable laws of social custom; the extent to which they could operate in the open market, the range of their wares and the sizes to which these were ordinarily restricted, either by the limits of their own skill or the length of their customers' pursestrings. Inquiries were to be made about the operation of middlemen and of cooperative societies, the people who gave new designs and demanded new products. Finally the several stages of production of the articles themselves were to be fully described including the final and finishing stage and

a list of very skilled craftsmen of each community was to be furnished. The third part was devoted specially to tribal communities and designed to find out how self-sufficient or dependent they were on the production and supply of manufactured goods, the extent to which they produced themselves or depended on others, their contacts with other communities and the specific forms of production and commerce through which these contacts were maintained.

Particular emphasis was laid on the need of obtaining as full an account as possible of unique regional design differentiations as they reflect not only the very culture patterns of the country but the persistent inventive faculties of the craftsmen. The importance was emphasised of giving full attention to articles of domestic use as it is in their shapes, designs and forms that the culture patterns and traditional skills persist most tenaciously.

Simultaneously with the investigation of specific crafts, State Superintendents proceeded to compile a comprehensive list of all types of handicrafts obtaining in their State. As for the specific Crafts to be investigated several tables were devised from the structured questionnaire in order to guide investigators toward pointed observation and analysis, to enable them to write, not just general descriptions, but with their eye on the object and on facts.

Investigations conducted between September 1961 and May 1962, including a study group of all States and the Social Studies Division in December 1961 at Delhi, stimulated many of the States into going in for a much enlarged schedule. The revised village schedule itself, the counterpart of the first part of the February 1960 schedule, contained 19 large sections containing elaborate and probing questions. The Family Schedule for practising artisan families similarly contained 19 main questions each subdivided into many questions. The Family Schedule for non-practising artisan families contained 21 questions. There were schedules for the study of cooperative societies, of production-cum-training centres, and of consumer's preference. This enlarged schedule of investigation, in the formulation of which the States themselves actively assisted, was greatly welcomed. The surveys that will appear in this series will therefore consist of two main types: (a) those based on the original short schedule and (b) those based on the much enlarged schedule. In some cases Census Superintendents felt enthused enough to scrap the work based on the original short schedule and do it over again on the enlarged schedule. In the meantime much experience was gained on the analysis of facts and figures to clothe each observation with plenty of authentic information so that the reader could make his own judgement instead of being expected to see all the time through another pair of eyes.

This programme of survey of handicrafts and household industries has been fortified by several ancillary surveys, each one of which would deserve major attention. Along with the survey a compilation has been made of all handicraft centres in each State and an inventory prepared of skilled craftsmen. Photographic and other documentation has been built up to constitute what may now be regarded as the most consi-

derable repository in the country. Elaborate and accurate maps of craft centres in taluks, tehsils and districts are either ready or under preparation. A full census of all fairs and festivals, weekly hats and markets, throughout India, has been taken and is being published for the first time. Andhra Pradesh has embarked upon a project of chronicling the social and religious antiquity and uniqueness of every fair and festival. A separate volume will be devoted to each district which promises to be of the utmost value to sociologists and orientalists. A full and complete

New Delhi
July 30, 1964.

inventory, replete with sketches and measurements of every object, has been prepared of exhibits in museums of tribal crafts in India. There has been a fairly satisfactory survey of houses and buildings, indigenous architectural designs and use of local building material of the whole country. All this has been entirely a labour of love, patiently organised and executed under great strain and in disregard of health and comfort, for which I take this opportunity of expressing my appreciation and grateful thanks to my colleagues.

ASOK MITRA
Registrar General, India.

PREFACE

At the 1961 Census a detailed study of household industries and industrial establishments was undertaken. Special questions on household industry and working establishments were introduced in the Household Schedule and the Houselist with a view to obtaining a sort of frame for all kinds of industries in the country. This information was further supplemented by the detailed survey of a few handicrafts. For Uttar Pradesh the following handicrafts were selected :

- (i) Cotton Textiles
- (ii) Silk Textiles
- (iii) Pottery
- (iv) Woollen Carpets and Blankets
- (v) Leather Footwear
- (vi) Basketry
- (vii) Brass and Copperware

2. This survey was conducted in two parts. One was a General Survey carried out in every village, and the other was a Special Survey undertaken at the following selected places noted for these handicrafts :

- (i) Cotton Textiles at Maunath Bhanjan, District Azamgarh
- (ii) Silk Textiles at Mubarakpur, District Azamgarh
- (iii) Pottery at Khurja, District Bulandshahr, and Chunar, District Mirzapur
- (iv) Woollen Carpets at Shahjahanpur, and Woollen Blankets at Muzaffarnagar
- (v) Leather Footwear at Kanpur
- (vi) Basketry at Allahabad
- (vii) Brass and Copperware at Varanasi

3. The General Survey was conducted by the Planning staff, *viz.*, Block Development Officers, Assistant Development Officers (Industries), Assistant Development Officers (Panchayats), Panchayat Inspectors, Village Level Workers and Panchayat Secretaries to

whom training was imparted by the regional Deputy Superintendents. A draft Village Schedule for collecting the desired information had been circulated by the Registrar General, India in February, 1960. Its printed copies in Hindi together with instructions were supplied to districts by the middle of 1961. Regional Deputy Superintendents remained in close touch with the work and undertook the scrutiny of filled-up Schedules. The information contained in the Schedules was processed and analysed in the Social Studies Unit at Lucknow for being utilised in the writing of monographs.

4. Investigators were appointed for the Special Survey. The Village Schedule was adopted with necessary modifications. It was decided to fill up one Schedule for every establishment except where it was impracticable on account of the large number of establishments. In such cases it was thought sufficient to conduct the Survey on Stratified Random Sampling basis, covering 150-250 randomly selected units. Samples were drawn from the Houselist after correcting it through an actual count in *mohallas*.

5. This volume has two Sections, *viz.*, Leather Footwear Industry in Uttar Pradesh, and Leather Footwear Industry at Kanpur. Sarvashri Karori Mal and S. C. Sharma, investigators collected the data in 1961-62 by filling up Schedules of all units engaged in the manufacture of leather footwear at Kanpur. Shri R. I. Verma, Deputy Census Superintendent, of the Uttar Pradesh Civil Service personally visited the centre for acquiring first-hand knowledge of this handicraft. He is responsible for supervising the investigation, analysing the data and drafting the report. The draft monograph was revised by him in the light of comments received from Dr. B. K. Roy Burman, Officer on Special Duty, (Handicrafts and Social Studies) in the office of Registrar General, India.

6. Opinions expressed and conclusions reached by the author of this monograph are based on the results of the investigation. They are his own and do not reflect the views of Government in any way.

Lucknow,
The 27th May, 1964.

P. P. Bhatnagar
Superintendent of Census Operations,
Uttar Pradesh.

SECTION I

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH





The Cobbler

By Courtesy
Government Arts and Crafts College, Lucknow.

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH

The leather footwear industry occupies an important place in the economy of Uttar Pradesh. The handmade shoes and sandals made in the villages meet the needs of the simple masses of the vast countryside. The shoe-maker is found in almost every village of the State. He makes the country-fashioned shoes and sandals of ordinary quality because of the poor quality of leather. His method of working is old for he receives no technical training in the craft. The *mochies* in the towns have, however, taken to new methods and make shoes and sandals of different types to suit tastes of the people. Although produced in large number, the handmade footwear lag far behind in artistic qualities and workmanship as compared to the products of the factories.

A General Survey of the leather footwear industry of the State was undertaken through the agency of the Planning Department. The particulars were collected through a Village Schedule of Industries and Crafts prescribed by Registrar General, India. The Schedules in Hindi were sent to districts and were filled-up by the Village Level Workers or Panchayat

Secretaries. Shoe-makers working in the urban areas were not covered by this survey. On the basis of the information contained in the filled-in Schedules, a set of seven Tables was prepared and used for interpreting the data so collected. In addition, the information contained in Table B-IV Part C (showing Industrial Classification by Sex and Divisions, Major Group and Minor Group of Persons at work, other than Cultivation) prepared in connection with the 1961 Census was also utilised.

An intensive study of leather footwear industry at Kanpur was taken up separately by the Census Organisation through a well-trained investigator.

WORKERS IN THE INDUSTRY

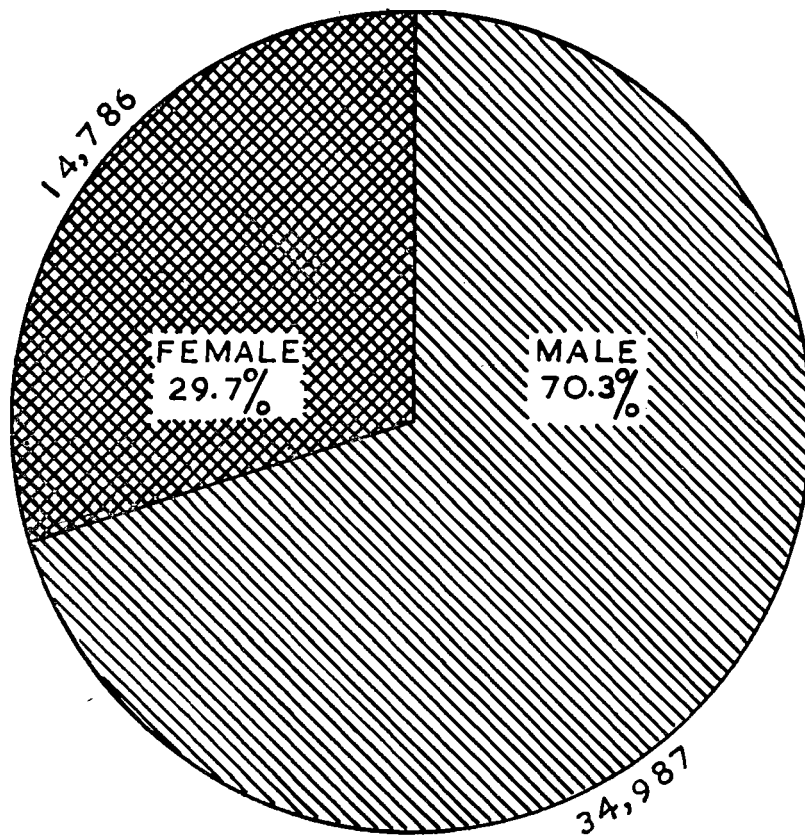
Workers engaged in the manufacture of leather footwear in the rural areas of the State were alone taken into account in the General Survey. Child workers were omitted from enumeration. The Table given below gives the number of villages surveyed, the number of households and the workers engaged in the craft with sex breakdown:

District	Total No. of Villages	No. of Families	WORKERS		
			Persons	Males	Females
UTTAR PRADESH	3,007	21,538	49,773	34,987	14,786
1. Uttarkashi	42	191	319	255	64
2. Chamoli	19	256	631	420	211
3. Pithoragarh	14	61	168	105	63
4. Tehri Garhwal	37	235	533	391	142
5. Garhwal	8	17	26	19	7
6. Almora	15	123	221	172	49
7. Naini Tal	18	124	385	239	146
8. Bijnor	23	146	204	178	26
9. Moradabad	43	360	976	693	283
10. Budaun	25	235	302	284	18
11. Rampur	5	18	24	22	2
12. Bareilly	7	15	29	27	2
13. Pilibhit	5	54	127	96	31

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH

District	Total No. of Villages	No. of Families	WORKERS		
			Persons	Males	Females
14. Shahjahanpur	8	47	68	61	7
15. Dehra Dun	29	58	144	99	45
16. Saharanpur	78	427	840	690	150
17. Muzaffarnagar	53	300	1,417	901	516
18. Meerut	195	2,840	5,620	4,094	1,526
19. Bulandshahr	104	1,058	2,035	1,490	545
20. Aligarh	158	949	1,802	1,301	501
21. Mathura	67	717	1,939	1,203	736
22. Agra	48	960	2,143	1,705	438
23. Etah	31	484	884	612	272
24. Mainpuri	43	395	760	569	191
25. Farrukhabad	31	199	536	363	173
26. Etawah	38	353	1,115	720	395
27. Kanpur	86	666	1,253	873	380
28. Fatehpur	51	563	1,649	962	687
29. Allahabad	58	396	685	566	119
30. Jhansi	124	1,195	3,108	1,942	1,166
31. Jalaun	78	380	456	327	129
32. Hamirpur	116	1,125	2,849	1,833	1,016
33. Banda	90	830	2,306	1,390	916
34. Kheri	39	97	237	164	73
35. Sitapur	67	102	603	494	109
36. Hardoi	10	104	142	138	4
37. Unnao	110	594	1,250	944	306
38. Lucknow	83	286	678	530	148
39. Rae Bareli	164	1,004	1,842	1,393	449
40. Bahraich	35	116	220	158	62
41. Gonda	62	164	342	265	77
42. Bara Banki	19	128	232	186	46
43. Faizabad	98	450	1,002	728	274
44. Sultanpur	239	673	2,758	1,996	762
45. Pratapgarh	53	203	490	319	171
46. Basti	47	304	613	434	179
47. Gorakhpur	24	141	264	186	78
48. Deoria	15	86	157	134	23
49. Azamgarh	29	138	228	178	48
50. Jaunpur	45	186	335	255	80

WORKERS IN THE CRAFT



LEATHER FOOTWEAR

District	Total No. of Villages	No. of Families	WORKERS		
			Persons	Males	Females
51. Ballia	30	327	719	504	215
52. Ghazipur	30	165	1,209	743	466
53. Varanasi	3	5	11	7	4
54. Mirzapur	58	488	889	629	260

The leather footwear industry was found in 3,007 villages of the State. The number of families involved is 21,538 with 49,773 persons (34,987 males and 14,786 females) engaged in it as a household industry. The organised co-operation of the artisans is absent. The number of workers who are members of co-operative societies is small. The districts with the highest number of families engaged in this craft as household industry are Meerut (2,840 families with 5,620 workers), Jhansi (1,195 families with 3,108 workers), Hamirpur (1,125 families with 2,849 workers), Bulandshahr (1,058 families with

2,035 workers) and Rae Bareilly (1,004 families with 1,842 workers). On an average the family unit consists of 2-3 workers. The percentage of male workers is 70.3.

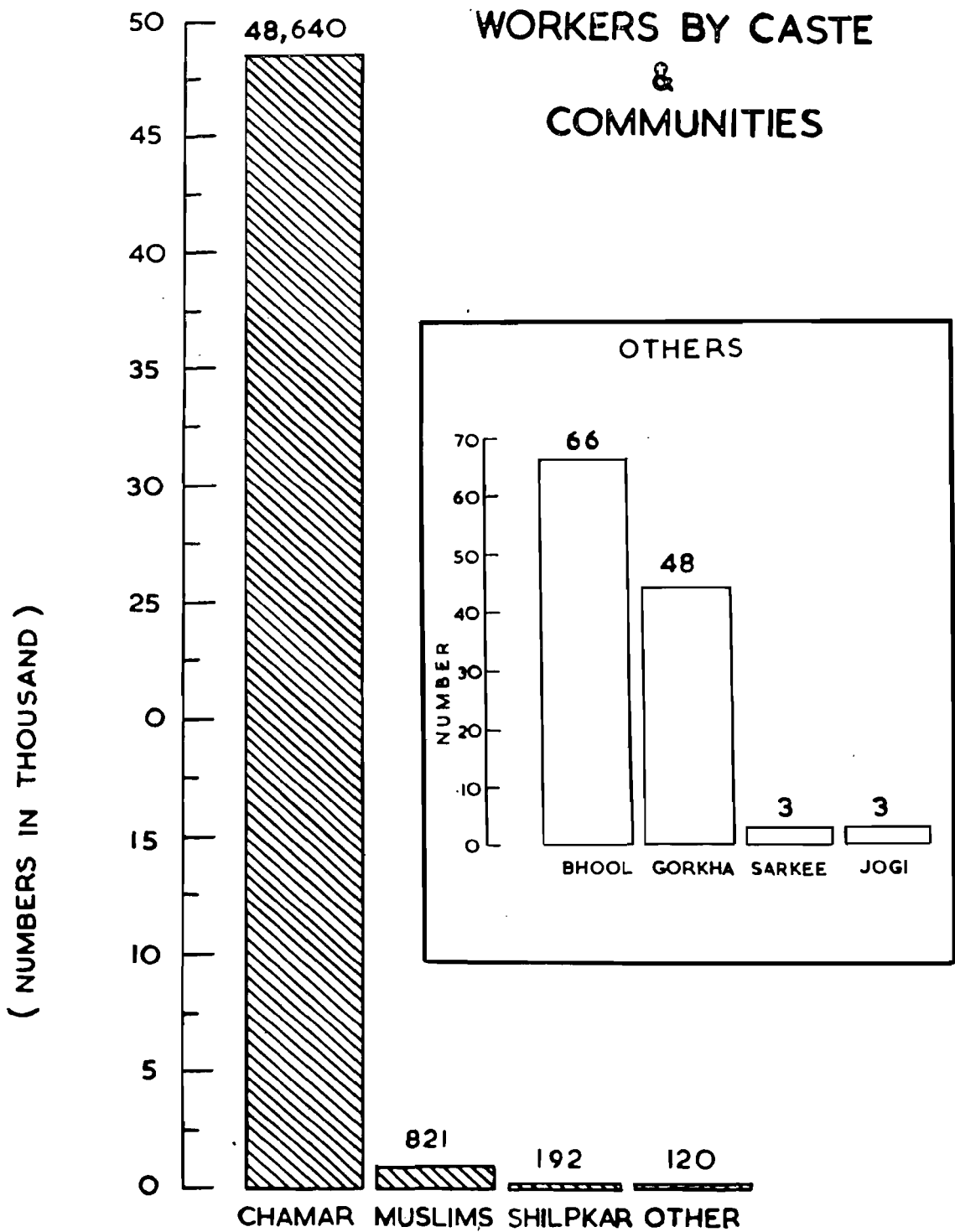
The Table given below based on the Table B-IV Part C prepared for the 1961 Census gives the number of workers engaged in the manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear (Industrial Code No. 311) by sex, both at Household and Non-household industry, in the rural and urban areas :

State/Division/District	Rural				Urban				Total
	Household Industry		Non-household Industry		Household Industry		Non-household Industry		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
UTTAR PRADESH	30,480	1,236	3,869	67	13,462	709	24,364	115	74,302
<i>Uttarakhand Division</i>	268	33	7	..	2	310
1. Uttarkashi	56	16	2	74
2. Chamoli	85	3	5	93
3. Pithoragarh	127	14	2	143
<i>Kumaun Division</i>	536	73	37	4	142	1	128	..	921
4. Tehri Garhwal	225	62	15	2	4	..	14	..	322
5. Garhwal	68	8	13	2	20	..	22	..	133
6. Almora	92	2	9	..	6	..	49	..	158
7. Naini Tal	151	1	112	1	43	..	308
<i>Rohilkhand Division</i>	1,807	14	167	2	1,641	9	1,552	1	5,193
8. Bijnor	571	1	41	..	58	..	249	..	920
9. Moradabad	633	12	24	..	672	5	334	..	1,680
10. Budaun	338	1	8	..	62	..	126	1	536
11. Rampur	18	..	10	..	147	..	242	..	417
12. Bareilly	109	..	38	2	654	..	466	..	1,269
13. Pilibhit	23	..	24	..	14	4	25	..	90
14. Shahjahanpur	115	..	22	..	34	..	110	..	281

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY IN UTTAR PRADESH

Sate/Division/District	Rural				Urban				Total
	Household Industry		Non-household Industry		Household Industry		Non-household Industry		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
<i>Meerut Division</i>	8,336	434	630	27	1,389	135	1,596	8	12,555
15. Dehra Dun	239	18	12	..	22	..	218	..	509
16. Saharanpur	922	54	118	2	460	74	459	4	2,093
17. Muzaffarnagar	1,155	64	105	..	337	9	101	3	1,774
18. Meerut	4,349	235	279	24	389	49	594	1	5,920
19. Bulandshahr	1,671	63	116	1	181	3	224	..	2,259
<i>Agra Division</i>	6,932	110	2,078	3	5,262	227	11,550	58	26,220
20. Aligarh	1,848	29	134	1	263	..	224	1	2,500
21. Mathura	1,246	15	22	..	79	..	212	..	1,574
22. Agra	2,510	47	1,826	2	4,586	192	10,878	57	20,098
23. Etah	723	17	21	..	189	35	125	..	1,110
24. Mainpuri	605	2	75	..	145	..	111	..	938
<i>Allahabad Division</i>	2,418	83	284	1	1,264	89	6,680	32	10,851
25. Farrukhabad	510	2	90	..	188	1	92	1	884
26. Etawah	464	9	51	..	70	24	74	..	692
27. Kanpur	766	36	77	1	695	45	6,166	31	7,817
28. Fatehpur	273	32	24	..	84	18	83	..	519
29. Allahabad	400	4	42	..	227	1	265	..	939
<i>Jhansi Division</i>	2,702	123	32	..	1,140	48	361	3	4,409
30. Jhansi	714	21	23	..	500	11	175	2	1,446
31. Jalaun	324	6	6	..	313	15	112	..	776
32. Hamirpur	979	29	2	..	98	2	45	..	1,155
33. Banda	685	67	1	..	229	20	29	1	1,032
<i>Lucknow Division</i>	2,233	113	152	3	800	54	1,642	5	5,002
34. Kheri	133	1	9	60	4	207
35. Sitapur	228	2	9	..	48	..	145	..	432
36. Hardoi	260	..	2	..	47	..	114	..	423
37. Unnao	685	31	49	..	23	..	30	..	818
38. Lucknow	240	17	2	..	625	54	1,274	1	2,213
39. Rae Bareli	687	62	81	3	57	..	19	..	909
<i>Faizabad Division</i>	2,017	94	167	11	784	5	468	..	3,546
40. Bahraich	49	..	1	..	34	1	52	..	137
41. Gonda	255	..	2	..	84	1	49	..	391
42. Bara Banki	313	12	9	..	295	..	87	..	716
43. Faizabad	273	3	74	1	336	3	251	..	941
44. Sultanpur	945	71	72	10	18	..	16	..	1,132

WORKERS BY CASTE & COMMUNITIES



LEATHER FOOTWEAR

5

State/Division/District	Rural				Urban				Total
	Household Industry		Non-household Industry		Household Industry		Non-household Industry		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
45. Pratapgarh	182	8	9	..	17	..	13	..	229
<i>Gorakhpur Division</i>	642	44	101	8	322	75	147	7	1,346
46. Basti	378	36	20	..	11	5	46	..	496
47. Gorakhpur	71	6	40	..	210	68	70	6	471
48. Deoria	55	2	14	..	9	..	14	..	94
49. Azamgarh	138	..	27	8	92	2	17	1	285
<i>Varanasi Division</i>	2,589	115	214	8	716	66	240	1	3,949
50. Jaunpur	94	1	27	..	132	13	67	..	334
51. Ballia	811	24	77	..	28	..	4	..	944
52. Ghazipur	311	16	21	..	41	..	15	..	404
53. Varanasi	256	6	42	8	324	37	101	1	775
54. Mirzapur	1,117	68	47	..	191	16	53	..	1,492

Males predominate in the craft. The percentages of male and female workers are 97.1 and 2.9 respectively. The workers in the urban and rural areas respectively are 52.1 per cent and 47.9 per cent. The percentage of workers working in their homes is 61.9. 49.4 per cent of workers in the urban and 88.1 per cent in the rural areas were found engaged in the household industry.

The districts having the largest number of workers engaged in this craft are Agra (20,098), Kanpur (7,817), Meerut (5,920) and Lucknow (2,213). Agra and Kanpur are famous for their leather footwear and provide employment to a large number of skilled shoe-makers. Meerut has also made considerable headway in the craft. The hill districts have the smallest number of workers—Uttarkashi (74), Chamoli (93), Garhwal (133) and Pithoragarh (143). Agra Division is at the top with 26,220 workers followed by Meerut with 12,555 workers and Allahabad with 10,851 workers.

The figures given in the two Tables—Table B-IV Part C and the Table prepared from the information available from filled-in Schedules—show wide variations which may be due to the following reasons :

- (i) The survey and the Census figures do not relate to the same period of reference. Table B-IV Part C was prepared from the figures collected at the 1961 Census. The survey was conducted after the Census enumeration was over.

- (ii) It is likely that some of the villages where the number of artisans was too small or the existence of the craft was not within the knowledge of the Panchayat Secretaries or Village Level Workers were inadvertently left unsurveyed. There was almost no possibility of any such omission at the time of Census enumeration.

- (iii) In Table B-IV Part C only those persons were included who returned manufacture of leather footwear as their main occupation but in the survey those persons were also included who practised it as a secondary occupation. In some districts, the number of persons enumerated at the survey was, therefore, larger than that entered in Table B-IV Part C.

The Table given below shows the number of workers of various castes in the craft. It is based on the information collected through the schedules of General Survey :

Name of Caste	Persons
Chamar	48,640
Shilpkar	192
Bhool	66
Gorkha	48
Muslim	821
Sarki	3
Jogi	3

Chamars are mainly engaged in the manufacture of shoes. About 98 per cent (48,640) workers engaged in the craft belong to this community. This occupational group belongs to a well defined class in the social order and may be traced back to very early times. Chamar occupies a low social status. He is a skilful worker and not only makes shoes according to country pattern but also boots and shoes of modern style. The shoe-maker calls himself a *mochi*, a purely occupational offshoot from the Chamar. It denotes occupation rather than caste. A *mochi* considers himself socially superior to the Chamar or tanner and as a class is well off.

Some Muslims have also taken to the manufacture of leather footwear. The number of Muslim workers is 821. The other castes engaged in the craft are Shilpkar (192), Bhoor (66), Gorkha (48), Sarki (3) and Jogi (3). The higher castes have not taken to the manufacture of shoes due to the low social status accorded to leather workers.

TANNING

Leather commonly used in the manufacture of footwear is from hides and skins of domestic animals mainly cows, buffaloes, goats and sheep. Tanning is done by indigenous methods in the villages. The method is crude and may be described as follows :

“The preparation of buffalo, bullock and cow hides, which occupies about a month, consists of two processes, liming and tanning. The hides are soaked, split into sides, and limed. They are left in the pits for from six to eight, or from twelve to fourteen days according to the season. For each hide one seer (about two pounds) of slaked lime is used and enough water to cover the hide. For every ten seers of lime one of impure soda is added. After three to four, or six to eight days the skins are removed, and unhaired with a *khurpi*, or scraper. They are then placed in a new lime solution of the same strength as before, but without the soda. When the skins are sufficiently swollen they are taken out and fleshed on a stone slab with a *rampi*, or currier's knife. They are then laid in clean water for from four to six hours. Bating (*hanga*) follows. This process is designed to remove the lime and to open the pores so that the hide may be grained and coloured. The first solution consists of ten measures of very old tan liquor and ten seers of the same three times as strong and one seer of *kan*, or rice husk. This is put into earthen vessels and allowed to ferment for about a week. Each vessel holds four sides, which are handled frequently. This process lasts four days. A second bating is done in a solution of water mixed with molasses and *mahua* flour or with *mihwa* refuse from a distillery. A third bating is then made in a solution the same as the first, except that scraps of fleshing are used in the place of rice husks. The hide is now pliable. It is laid on a slab, scraped on the grained side, and wrung dry. It is then rinsed with old tan liquor, kneaded, rubbed, and wrung dry. Again it is laid in strong tan liquor for from twelve to

twenty-four hours being kneaded and wrung by hand at frequent intervals. The leather is now sewed up with *munj* (a grass twine) into a bag, hung up, and filled with tan mixture. This consists of fifteen seers of new and ten seers of half-spent tan bark (*babul*), water and weak tan liquor. To this mixture are added two to four pounds of small twigs of *bumda*, powdered and mixed with water. The bag is suspended by the neck from a wooden tripod over a *namd* (a large earthen vessel). As the liquor drips through the pores it is poured back into the bag. After twenty-four hours the bag is taken down, the neck is sewn up and the bag is hung up reversed for twelve hours. The hide is then taken down, opened and laid out. It is sprinkled with four ounces of impure salt (*khari*) and four ounces of bark dust, which are then well rubbed in. The hide is then set out on the grain side with a sleeker. This last, and even the bating, process is often neglected by Chamars. The currying of leather is almost entirely neglected.

Another native process consists chiefly of liming. First, the hides are laid on the floor and roughly fleshed, smeared over with lime-paste and folded up. Each hide is then tied at both ends and placed in a *namd* containing lime solution. The hides are kept in position by means of a large stone. After three days the hides are removed, unfolded and rubbed with lime, after which they are replaced in the *namd* and left for four or five days. They are then taken out, rubbed, scraped, cleaned, and washed with clean water. When the hair and flesh have been completely removed the hides are fit for tanning. The hides, which are now white, are soaked in clean water to which is added a handful of fermented bark-dust paste, and allowed to lie for two nights. The hides are then folded lengthwise and twisted until all the moisture is squeezed out of them. They are then unfolded, wet, and twisted in the reverse way. This process of wetting and squeezing takes the place of bating. The hides are then treated with tanning materials as above described. After the tanning process has been completed, the leather is curried with salt curds and ghi. This completes the process.

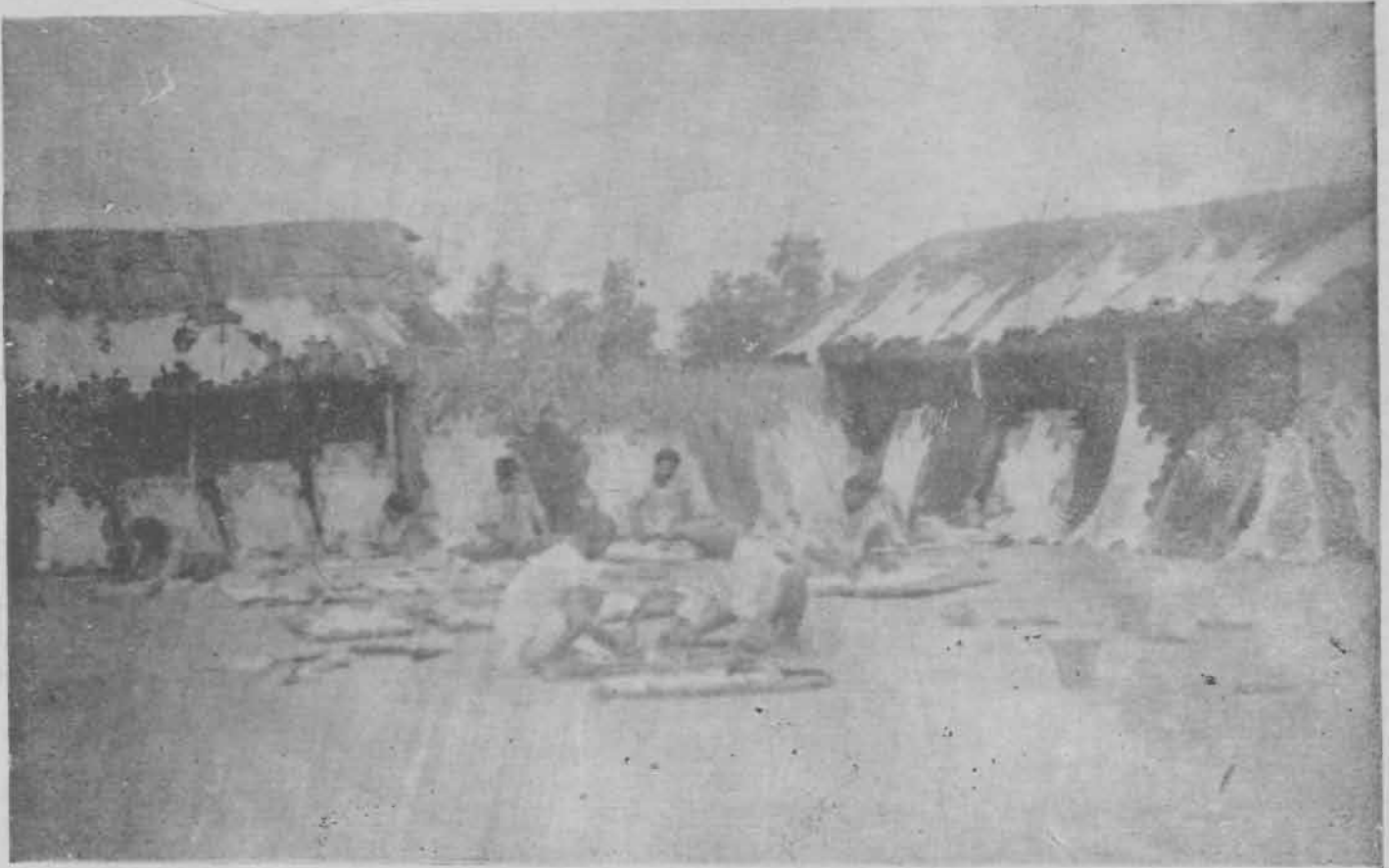
Owing to the excessive use of lime, the leather produced by the Chamar is very porous and of an inferior quality. The tanning is scarcely more than a colouring process. The object of tanning is to produce, by a combination of tannin with the gelatine of the hide of skin, an insoluble, impenetrable substance. The lime destroys to a considerable extent the fibres upon which the tannin acts.”*

The process of tanning of sheep and goats skin is, briefly, as follows :

“The skins, which are received whole from the slaughter-house, flesh outside, are smeared with lime, left for a day, and then turned right-side out. They are then washed and limed, being allowed to lie in the lime for from five to fifteen days, and then washed and fleshed. A thick paste is then made by boiling down *mahua* flour. When it has cooled it is spread over the skins, which are then allowed to stand for eight days ; or a gruel of lentil and barley meal and

*The Chamars : Geo. W. Briggs, 1920.

Plate No. 2



A typical village tannery

Plate No. 3



Dipping the hide in lime solution

Plate No. 4



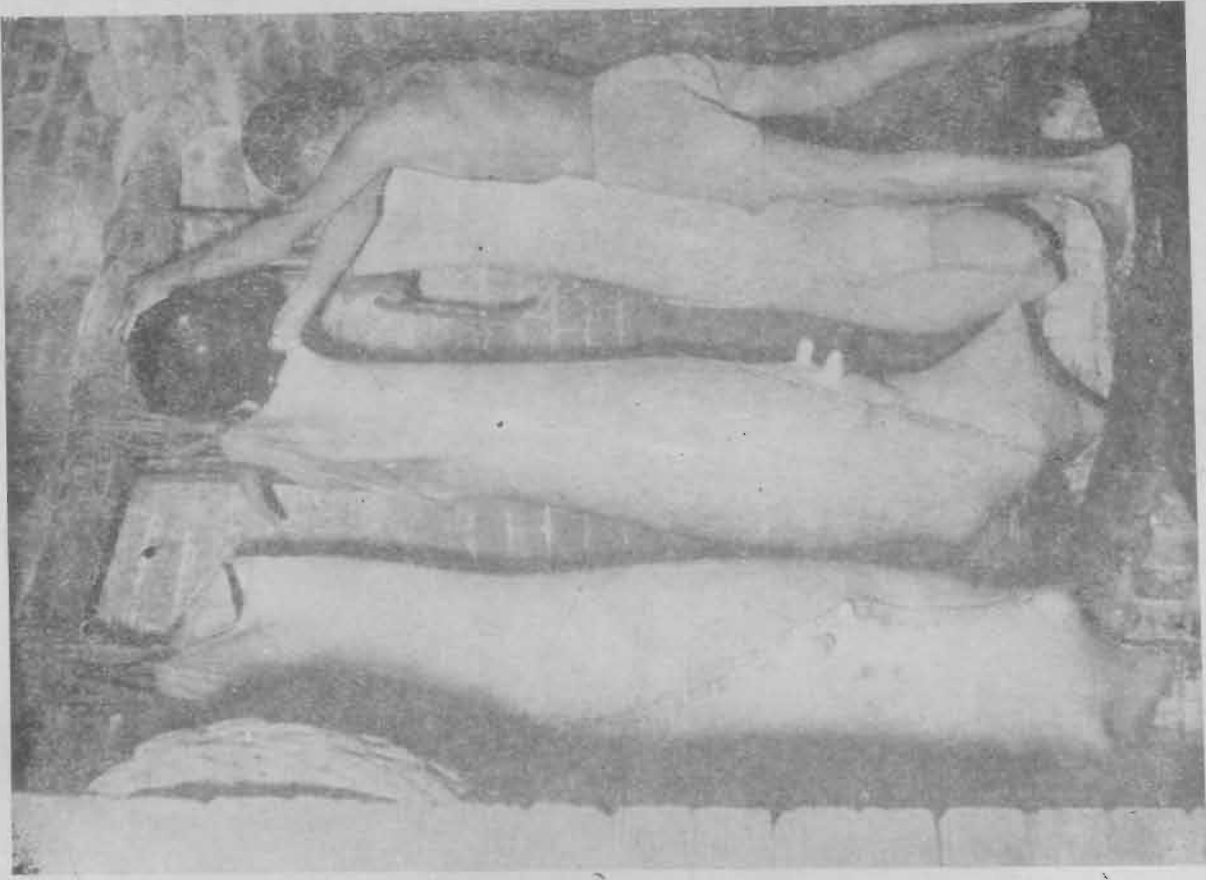
Scrapping the hair and flesh from the hide

Plate No. 5



Squeezing out the water and moisture from the hide

Plate No. 7



Bags hung up filled with tan mixture

Plate No. 6



Sewing the leather with *moonj* (a grass twine) into a bag

Plate No. 8



Rubbing the hide with impure salt and bark dust

Plate No. 9



Shoe-makers at work

water is prepared, in which the skins are laid for a week, and occasionally handled. The skins are then washed, and laid in tan liquor, being passed from weak to strong solutions in a series of *namds*. This process lasts from eight to fifteen days, during which time the skins are handled two to three times a day, hand-rubbed, and wrung to make them pliable. They are then rubbed with *sajji* (impure soda) on the flesh-side and dried in the sun”.

There is scope for effecting improvement in the indigenous methods of tanning. Small tanning schools may be established in suitable localities where the supply of hides is large. They may demonstrate improved methods in tanning to the people who may be ready to learn. Once the new processes have been popularised the school may be moved to a fresh locality. Some capitalists may also establish tanning factories on a moderate scale and train the tanners in improved methods of tanning.

MANUFACTURE

The method of manufacture of shoes by the village *mochies* may briefly be described as follows :

“The shoemaker begins with the sole. A thin piece of leather is smeared with a paste of mustard oil. Over this are laid, first, odd scraps of leather, second, a heavy layer of mud, and third, a thin piece of leather. The curved toe of the shoe forms part of the inside of the sole of leather. The heel-piece is attached in the same way. The maker now puts a couple of stitches of leather thong through the middle of this composite sole to keep it in position for the next step, which consists in stitching on the upper. He begins at the toe, working round with a plain running stitch, boring holes for the thong to pass through. The heel-piece is then trimmed and sewed on to the upper, which is then closed. The toe part is likewise treated. Additional stitching and ornamentation may be added. The commonest kinds of country shoes are called *golpanja* and *adhauri*. The latter is generally made for hard work. Other styles of shoes are the *hafli*, something like the English slipper; the *sulmshahi*, a long narrow shoe with a slender *nok*; the *panjabi*, similar to the former but with characteristic decorations; the *ghetla*, an ugly shoe with an exaggerated curl over the toes, and apparently without a heel; the *gurgabi*, which has no *nok*, made with a buckle over the instep; the *charhawans*, made of black velvet, with *nok* and heel-piece of shagreen; and the *zerpai*, or half shoe, with a point and no heel, which is worn by women only.”

The village shoe-makers are faced with many limitations. They work on small scale with a limited number of ordinary tools which are antiquated. Only a few workers have sewing machines. They get no training in the

craft and feel difficulty in obtaining supplies of well-tanned leather. There is no organisation for the sale of these goods. The *mochies* in the towns are, however, better placed. They get better quality of leather and possess considerable skill in the manufacture of shoes and sandals of different designs prized for their utility and quality.

The Directorate of Industries has taken an active interest in the promotion and development of leather footwear industry in the State. The following schemes deserve special mention in this connection:

1. Industrial Co-operative Scheme
2. Loans and Grants Scheme
3. Government U. P. Handicrafts
4. Quality Marking Scheme
5. Training-cum-Production Centres

1. INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVE SCHEME

The handmade shoes are not in a position to compete with the machine-made shoes. It is necessary that the cost of production of indigenous shoes is kept low in order to compete with shoes made by machines. The multi-purpose co-operative societies help the shoe-makers in obtaining leather and other articles on reasonable rates. They can have their own tanneries and may train the tanners in improved methods of tanning. Expert advice may be available to the shoe-makers through these societies and the possibilities of development of the craft can also be shown. They can also inform the workers of new demands and of new methods of manufacture. The number of co-operative societies in the State engaged in the manufacture of handmade shoes was 91 at the time of the survey. The statement given below shows the districts with the number of societies in them :

District	No. of Societies
1. Almora	1
2. Bijnor	1
3. Moradabad	1
4. Rampur	2
5. Bareilly	1
6. Dehra Dun	1
7. Saharanpur	2
8. Muzaffarnagar	2
9. Meerut	5
10. Bulandshahr	1

District	No. of Societies
11. Mathura ..	3
12. Agra ..	42
13. Mainpuri ..	5
14. Farrukhabad ..	2
15. Kanpur ..	12
16. Allahabad ..	1
17. Hamirpur ..	2
18. Banda ..	1
19. Hardoi ..	1
20. Rae Bareli ..	1
21. Faizabad ..	2
22. Pratapgarh ..	2

The largest number of societies is in Agra (42) and Kanpur (12) as they are the main centres of leather footwear in the State. The shoe-makers get leather and other materials through these societies on cheap rates. They also help in establishing co-ordination and harmony among the workers.

2. LOANS AND GRANTS SCHEME

Under this scheme, financial assistance is given to individuals and co-operative societies for helping the development and expansion of the cottage industries in the State. The scheme was started in 1947-48. Three types of loans are advanced under the scheme according to the cost of the project. Loan for a project, the cost of which does not exceed Rs. 10,000 is sanctioned by the District Magistrate in consultation with the District Industries Committee out of funds placed at his disposal. Projects costing more than Rs. 10,000 are considered by the State Loans and Grants Committee which sanctions loans up to Rs. 15,000 only. Applications for loans exceeding Rs. 15,000 and up to rupees one lakh are forwarded with the recommendations of the Director of Industries to the U. P. Financial Corporation which is the sanctioning and disbursing authority for these amounts. The rate of interest chargeable on loans up to Rs. 25,000 is 3 per cent, above Rs. 25,000 up to Rs. 50,000, 4 per cent and above Rs. 50,000 up to Rs. 100,000, 5 per cent per annum. Loans up to Rs. 15,000 are payable in seven years in six monthly instalments and above Rs. 15,000 in ten equal annual instalments. The recovery commences from the second anniversary of the date of drawal of loan by the loanee.

3. GOVERNMENT U. P. HANDICRAFTS

The Government of Uttar Pradesh has set up the Government U. P. Handicrafts for solving primarily

the problems of workers in cottage industries, not only in regard to the marketing of goods and adoption of designs but also to guide them in planned production in close conformity with the demand and changing tastes. The State Marketing Organisation helps the craft by giving wide publicity to its products.

4. QUALITY MARKING SCHEME

The Quality Marking Scheme was introduced in the State in 1948. It aims at standardising the quality of various cottage and small scale industries as well as handicrafts. The scheme has contributed significantly towards the supply of standard goods, as well as for creating ample scope for employment. It is a voluntary scheme and provides an opportunity to the manufacturers desirous of producing goods according to prescribed standards. They have to execute an agreement bond to abide by certain terms and conditions, besides furnishing security to the satisfaction of Director of Industries. The technical personnel consisting of a superintendent, an examiner and a viewer specially trained in the line, are posted at the Inspection Depots in order to examine the raw materials and goods at various stages of production and on finish. The finished goods, conforming to the prescribed specifications only are approved and stamped by the technical staff with a special 'Q' seal, a popular symbol for the 'U. P. Government Quality Certification Mark.'

During the Second World War there was mushroom growth of manufacturers in Agra and Kanpur. The unhealthy competition among them led to gradual decline in the quality of shoes, sandals and *chappals* manufactured there. The use of cardboard, leather board, paper and split leather affected adversely the quality and the durability of the footwear. The lack of any uniform standard, inferior quality of raw materials and poor workmanship decreased their demand in the country and abroad. To revive the industry, the U. P. Government Quality Marking Scheme was enforced in these towns. The Scheme is voluntary and many manufacturers have joined it. It has restored the public confidence in the industry.

The Quality Marked Footwear Manufacturers Association Limited, Agra supplied 16,276 pairs of shoes worth Rs. 282,658 on order in 1961-62. Kanpur is also supplying Quality marked shoes and *chappals* to the tune of lakhs of rupees every year.

5. TRAINING-CUM-PRODUCTION CENTRES

The Government has given valuable assistance to the craft by establishing training-cum-production centres in different parts of the State. In Agra footwears are manufactured on cottage basis. In order to develop the industry, a Pilot Project for footwear was established at Agra in 1954-55, equipped with machines required for the manufacture of footwear and for imparting training in the use of machines.

Plate No. 10



'Q' seal, a popular symbol for the 'U. P. Government Quality Certification Mark'

Plate No. 11



Trainees at the Pilot Project for footwear at Agra

The project provided technical help to about 60 small scale manufacturing units having about 500 workers between April to December 1962. During the same period it provided training in the use of machines to 204 small scale manufacturers. Some of the manufacturers installed the machines in their own units with the assistance of the Project. It has also rendered assistance in the marketing of the footwear. It secures orders for manufacture and supply of footwears through its constituent members and co-operative societies. During April to December 1962, it executed the order for the supply of 44,800 pairs of shoes for export against the order released by the National Small Industries Corporation, New Delhi. The Project has been very helpful to the industry.

Another scheme for the establishment of Pilot Project for footwear on the pattern of the Agra Pilot Project was started at Basti in 1959-60. Under the scheme a Training-cum-Production Centre was also established there. It provides training to 20 trainees every year in the manufacture of footwear with the use of small machines. The trainees are given a monthly stipend of Rs. 40 each for a period of one year and are subsequently helped to establish themselves in the trade. The centre is expected to become nucleus for the development of footwear on cottage basis in the eastern part of the State.

Training-cum-Production Centres also exist at 21 places in the State. The following table gives the names of these centres districtwise showing the number of workers trained, the amount spent on manufacture of shoes and the amount of sale for the year 1960-61.

Location of the Centre			No. of Persons trained	Articles produced (Rs.)	Articles sold (Rs.)
1.	Ranikhet	(Almora)	7	2,160.92	2,019.83
2.	Joya	(Moradabad)	11	1,010.61	596.73
3.	Asafpur	(Budaun)	..	1,617.53	1,027.09
4.	Tilhar	(Shahjahanpur)	8	602.00	501.02
5.	Doiwala	(Dehra Dun)	9	1,014.72	480.68
6.	Saharanpur	(Saharanpur)	14	1,834.40	1,436.32
7.	Loni	(Meerut)	10	1,476.70	1,466.95
8.	Iglas	(Aligarh)	..	410.00	..
9.	Etah	(Etah)	14	1,381.90	1,178.03
10.	Barhapur	(Farrukhabad)	16	3,984.40	3,839.45
11.	Etawah	(Etawah)	11	2,487.27	2,215.91
12.	Bithoor	(Kanpur)	10	1,340.25	985.10
13.	Khaza	(Fatehpur)	10	1,705.00	1,447.16
14.	Karvi	(Banda)	—	1,654.50	1,623.48
15.	Khairabad	(Sitapur)	17	1,774.94	1,748.26
16.	Rae Bareli	(Rae Bareli)	18	1,266.01	1,111.26
17.	Nanpara	(Bahraich)	14	1,138.11	764.28
18.	Laxmanpur	(Pratapgarh)	7	1,181.98	441.27
19.	Ballia	(Ballia)	12	2,614.05	1,952.08
20.	Ghazipur	(Ghazipur)	15	2,017.92	1,693.00
21.	Sewapuri	(Varanasi)	4	2,097.86	328.76

CHIEF CENTRES OF INDUSTRY

Shoes and sandals of various qualities, designs and varieties are manufactured at Agra. The industry gives employment to thousands of workers and footwear worth lakhs of rupees are manufactured every month. Due to various reasons, it could not retain the confidence of the public and the quality of shoes began to deteriorate. It caused concern to the Government and Quality Marking Scheme was introduced. Every pair of shoe made under this Scheme, bears the number of quality allotted to the particular type of shoe, the name of the manufacture, the retail price and the quality certification mark to ensure the quality and durability of the shoes. The number of manufacturers registered under

the Scheme was 23 in 1961. More than 50,000 pairs of shoes are produced yearly under the Scheme costing more than Rs. 1,000,000. Thanks to the Scheme, the industry has re-established its reputation and executes orders for the supply of shoes for export.

Kanpur is a reputed manufacturing centre of *chappals* in the State. They are famous in the country. The industry gives employment to more than 5,000 workers. During the last World War (1939-45) the unhealthy competition resulted in the gradual decline of the quality of *chappals* affecting their demand in the country. The Government Quality Marking Scheme was introduced which has created confidence in the public about their quality.

SECTION II

LEATHER FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY AT KANPUR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Kanpur, the industrial capital of Uttar Pradesh, is the chief centre for manufacture of *chappals*, shoes and sandals. It was originally a small town but with the rapid growth of industries and establishment of factories and mills, it became industrially important. The leather industry developed in Kanpur due to the existence of natural advantages which it possesses in abundance. It is situated along the Ganga and is connected by rail and roads with Punjab, Delhi and Bihar which are the main centres of hides. The hides of cattle and goats found in large number in nearby areas are available to tanneries. They get a plentiful supply of water from the river which enables them to produce leather of superior quality. The bark of *babul* tree used in tanning is obtained from the *tarai* region. The large number of Chamars living in and around Kanpur follow the traditional occupation of shoe-making.

An intensive survey of leather footwear industry of Kanpur was undertaken by the Census Organisation in 1961-62. A well-trained investigator prepared a list of establishments by actually locating them on the spot. For this purpose, the *mohallas* were arranged in geographical order beginning from the extreme north-west and ending with the south-east corner of the city. In this way, the investigator combed the whole town and took about a month to make the list as complete as possible. The list of establishments revealed that there were as many as 1,480 units engaged in the manufacture of leather footwear as a household industry. The idea of total survey was given up partly on account of the large number of manufacturing concerns and partly because of the paucity of time and trained staff. The survey was, therefore, conducted on a sample basis. The simple random sample method based on the selection of random start was adopted. The effective samples came to 148. The investigator separately collected particulars on tanneries and institutions like co-operative societies, wholesale centres, etc.

The information was collected through a Schedule prescribed by the Registrar General, India and was adopted with some modifications to suit local conditions. The Schedule has been reproduced as Appendix II in this volume. In order to keep errors to the minimum, the investigator was given intensive training in the details in filling of schedules. Detailed discussions were held with him to ensure uniformity in the information collected through them. Written instructions were prepared explaining the concepts, definitions as well as the approach adopted in this survey and these were supplied to the investigator for guidance. All this care yielded results and the percentage of errors in the filling of Schedules was reduced substantially.

The enquiry was made by interview method. The investigator visited every manufacturing unit and explained the questionnaire to the head of the establishment for eliciting information from him. He was

faced with a number of difficulties in conducting the survey. First, the establishments did not properly maintain adequate records. Secondly, the comprehensive nature of information sought in the schedule called for minute attention. Thirdly, psychological resistance on the part of the small establishments to furnish information required a good deal of persuasion and time for creation of the requisite atmosphere. None the less, it may be said in fairness that the patient approach of the investigator created the necessary confidence in the artisans and they yielded the information without apparent reservation and the statistical data was collected without difficulty. The Schedules were scrutinised towards the close of the survey and the gaps and inconsistencies found during the scrutiny were referred back to the investigator for rectification and filling of gaps. Sometimes this entailed a revisit to the establishments in order to ensure complete information. The tabulation of the data was then taken up for analysis and for writing the report. The data relate to the year 1961.

The manufacture of shoes and sandals of western designs began in Kanpur about the close of the 19th century. Before that shoes and slippers of indigenous designs were made. Slippers made in Kanpur were popular and were worn by Muslim women. Hindu women also used them. It is open at the heel and half the upper of an unlaced shoe is sewn on to the sole. The men used a type of shoe which has a slightly raised end at the back. The toe-end is pointed and the sides of the shoe are low and the length from the back to the upper cover at the instep is more. It fits tight to the foot as one walks. They were in use before the manufacture of western style shoes with laces.

The establishment of Messrs Cooper Allen Company in 1880 and North West Tannery in 1883 gave a stimulus to the leather footwear industry of Kanpur. There was no dearth of skilled workmen in the town and gradually the manufacture of shoes and sandals of western style was taken up. It gradually developed into a *chappal* manufacturing centre.

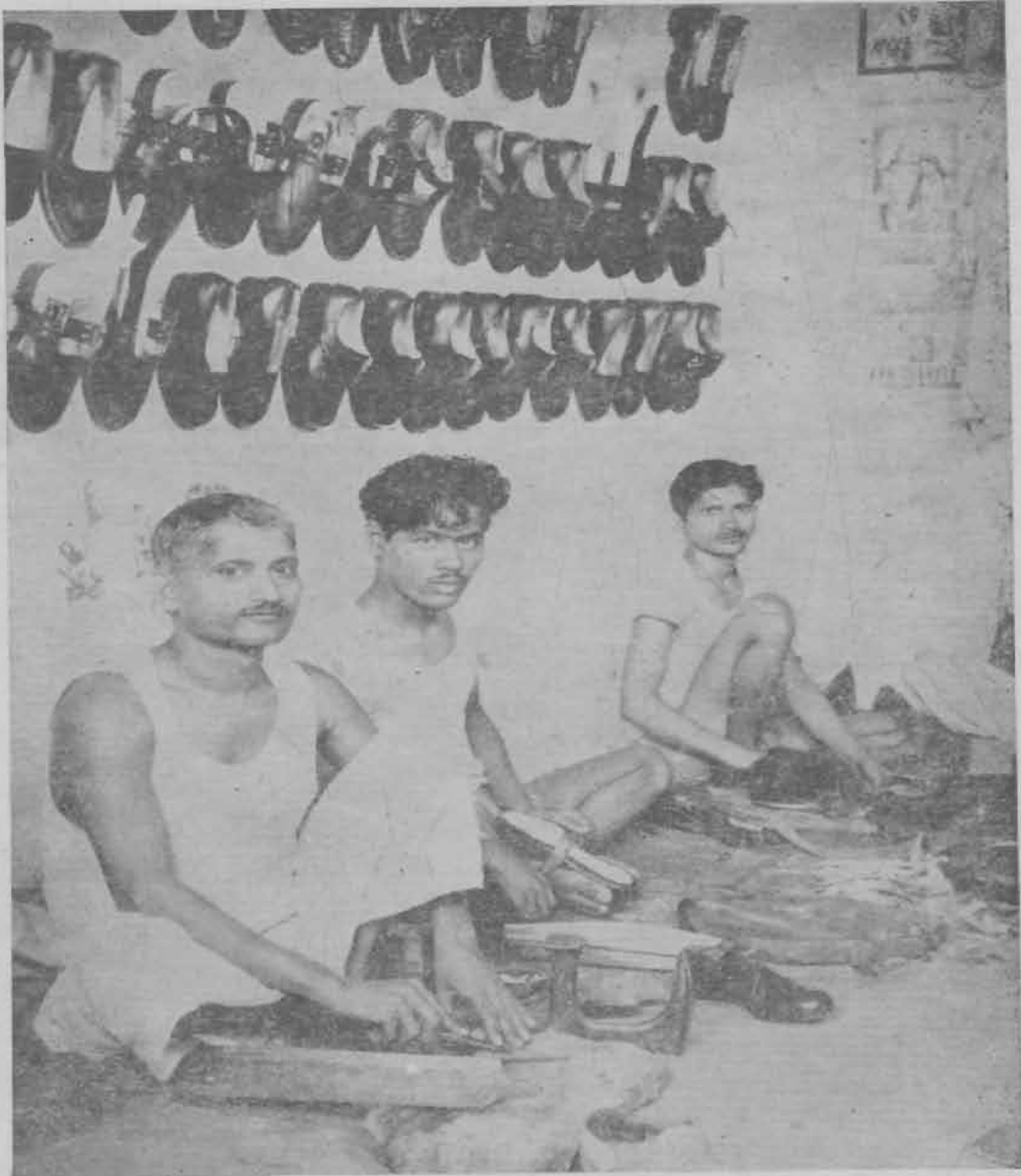
Kanpur has more than 20 well-equipped tanneries excluding the three large scale factories; the Government Harness and Saddlery Factory, the Cooper Allen Company and the North West Tannery. They are run by power and are outside the scope of this survey. In the cottage sector, footwear manufacture (shoes, sandals and *chappals*) consists purely of handmade process. The artisans work in homes on a small scale with inadequate investment of capital. Some take up employment in workshops on piece-rate basis.

The industry is faced with a number of problems. It is not an organised industry and consequently the organised co-operation of the workers is also absent. They distrust each other and the measure of co-operation for mutual advantage is excessively rare. The role of the co-operatives in the industry has been

inadequate. The absence of marketing agencies have left the artisans on the mercy of wholesale dealers and their malpractices. The shoes, sandals and *chappals* suffer for want of quality, and finish.

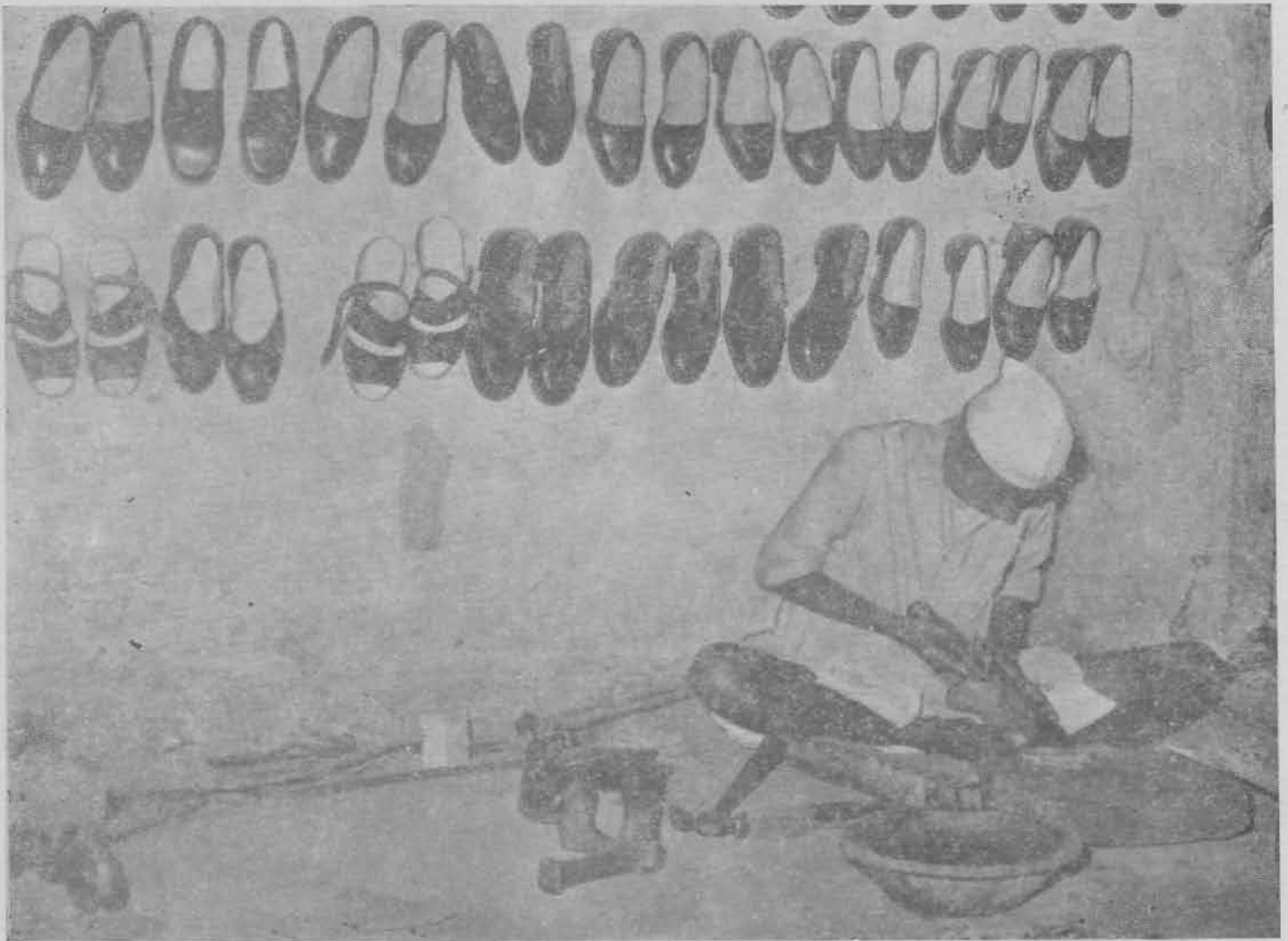
There is lack of uniform standard in these goods. An attempt has been made in the report to examine the industry and make suggestions, wherever necessary, for its development.

Plate No. 12



Workers in a workshop

Plate No. 13



Single worker working in his home

CHAPTER II

WORKERS ENGAGED IN THE CRAFT

The chief factor for the development of leather footwear industry at Kanpur is the availability of skilled labour. The partition of the country, however, gave the industry a set-back. Numerous Muslim workers engaged in the craft migrated to Pakistan. It is estimated that there are about 8,000 whole-time leather footwear workers in the town of whom

about 17 per cent are Muslims. The workers are concentrated in the city and are not drawn from neighbouring villages. The number of whole-time workers engaged in sampled establishments (148) is 807. The following Table gives the number of skilled workers in the sampled establishments castewise with sex break-down :

Caste/ Community	Workers			No. of Families	No. of Families working in homes	No. of Families working as employec
	Persons	Males	Females			
Chamar	663	663	..	622	114	508
Muslim	140	140	..	134	9	125
Chinese	3	3	..	1	..	1
Kayastha	1	1	—	1	1	..
Total	807	807	—	758	124	634

The bulk of the workers are Chamars whose traditional occupation is shoe-making. The shoe-maker calls himself a *mochi*, a purely occupational offshoot from the Chamar. He belongs to the Scheduled Caste and occupies a low position in the social hierarchy. They are skillful workers and make shoes, sandals and *chappals* of various designs. The skill is traditional and is passed on from father to son. The Muslim shoe-makers are also good artisans. The Chinese who are in small number make good shoes and sandals. The occupation of shoe-making is considered low in social scale and, therefore, the people of higher castes do not enter in it.

Workers who are poor and feel difficulty in obtaining leather, designs and other materials seek employment in workshops. They work there for eight hours daily from 10 A.M. to 6 P.M. with break on the weekly close day which varies from locality to locality. The Muslims close on Fridays. The workers are supplied raw materials and are given instructions on the designs and workmanship. They are paid on piece-rate basis.

The workshops are situated in the heart of the town near the business centres. They are generally located in the outer portion of the house of the owner and are not well lighted or ventilated. Sometimes the workers are congregated in a common shed. The owner of the workshop possesses considerable ability and adopts up-to-date commercial methods in the business. He is himself the master of the craft and exercises effective supervision over the workers. He retains the entrepreneurial functions and the financial responsibility rests with him. The success of the workshop depends on the technical knowledge and business capacity of the owner.

The individual worker works in his home assisted by his wife and children. The children help in colouring and polishing the shoes and sandals. In the manufacture of *chappals* the wife helps in the stitching work *i. e.*, sewing of the upper (straps) and stitching the insole with the bottom.

The single worker is placed in a disadvantageous position on account of poor financial position. The sources of his finance are linked up with the marketing of finished goods. Some take the shoes, sandals and *chappals* made by them to the market and sell at prices as low as the cost of the raw material used. This is due to his poor bargaining power because of his anxiety to sell his products before the market closes thus ensuring his day's living. Many workers enter into an agreement with the dealer for supply of stipulated quantity of goods in return of leather and money advanced. In such a situation, the products are sold by the artisans often at discounted rates below the market price.

Shoe-making is the only source of livelihood of the artisan working in home. He is the sole earning member of the family. The wife and children are not gainfully employed but assist the worker in work ancillary to shoe-making. Where the artisan is employed in a workshop, the wife takes to the stitching of the *chappals* in her spare time and thereby supplements the family income.

The workers do not generally get any technical education in the manufacture of footwear from a technical institute. Acting on the traditions of the family, the shoe-maker trains the child in shoe-making undergoing the period of apprenticeship in his

home. He learns the various processes of manufacture and by prolonged training acquires necessary skill in the craft. This training, in many ways, is incomplete. He follows old, under-developed, unsystematic and unscientific methods of manufacture learnt from his father. In order to train persons in the manufacture of leather footwear, the Government has started Industrial Training Institute and Central Training Institute in the town. These institutions are rendering singular service in imparting training to persons in a scientific and systematic manner in the manufacture of shoes, sandals, *chappals*, etc.

Within the craft itself a certain amount of family-wise specialisation is taking place. There are a number of establishments in the town entirely devoted to the sewing of the uppers or the making of soles. Some establishments undertake the finishing of shoes. The earnings of these specialised workers depend on their skill and workmanship. They are always in demand and are of considerable assistance to the industry.

EXPENDITURE PATTERN

Budgets of 15 households engaged in the manufacture of leather footwear were studied to examine the pattern of expenditure in these families. The budgets of three households have been discussed below :

A. N. is a skilled worker who has specialised in finishing. His family consists of his wife aged 20 years and their only son aged two years. He is educated up to the 5th standard but his wife is illiterate. He is the sole earning member of the family. The average monthly income of A. N. is Rs. 70. The details of expenditure are given below :

Items	Expenditure
1. Cereals and pulses	Rs. 20.50
2. Milk, ghee and oil	Rs. 14.50
3. Meat, vegetables and spices	Rs. 7.00
4. Fuel and light	Rs. 6.50
5. Clothing and footwear	Rs. 7.50
6. House repairs	Rs. 2.00
7. Miscellaneous	Rs. 3.00
Total	Rs. 61.00

It is a surplus budget. The expenditure on food and non-food items is 68.8 per cent and 31.2 per cent respectively. There is no expenditure on the education of the boy as he is very young. He is saving Rs. 9 per month.

B. S. aged 40 years is a skilled worker engaged in the manufacture of shoes and *chappals*. His family includes his wife aged 35 years, two sons aged 18

and 14 years respectively and a daughter aged 9 years. His two sons are studying in 8th and 6th standards respectively. The daughter is not sent to school. Except shoe-making there is no other subsidiary source of income to the family. The average monthly income of B. S. is Rs. 100. The expenditure on different items is given below :

Items	Expenditure
1. Cereals and pulses	.. Rs. 35.50
2. Milk, ghee and oil	.. Rs. 16.50
3. Meat, vegetables and spices	.. Rs. 9.00
4. Fuel and light	.. Rs. 9.50
5. Clothing and footwear	.. Rs. 12.00
6. House repairs	.. Rs. 2.00
7. Education	.. Rs. 8.00
8. Miscellaneous	.. Rs. 8.00
Total	Rs. 100.50

It is a balanced budget. The expenditure on food items is 61 per cent of the expenditure. The boys are studying in a local school. The expenditure on tuition fee, books and stationery is Rs. 8. He is not able to save anything from his monthly income. The household is, however, free from debt.

A. C. is a skilled worker engaged in making *chappals*. His family consists of his wife, a son aged 12 years and a daughter aged 9 years. The boy studies in a local school in 5th class. The daughter is not sent to school. The average monthly income of A. C. is Rs. 85. The expenditure pattern of the family is as follows :

Items	Expenditure
1. Cereals and pulses	.. Rs. 30.50
2. Milk, ghee and oil	.. Rs. 14.00
3. Meat, vegetables and spices	.. Rs. 10.50
4. Fuel and light	.. Rs. 7.50
5. Clothing and footwear	.. Rs. 12.00
6. House repairs	.. Rs. 2.00
7. Education	.. Rs. 5.50
8. Miscellaneous	.. Rs. 6.00
Total	Rs. 88.00

It is a deficit budget. The expenditure on food items is 62.5 per cent. The expenditure on books, stationery and on tuition fee is Rs. 5.50. The sources of finance are the marketing of finished goods.



Apprenticeship



Sewing the upper

The standard of living of artisans is poor. The main item of expenditure is food *i.e.*, cereals, pulses, fats, vegetables, meat, spices and salt. The expenditure on food items increases steadily on each successive lower level of income. In other words, it shows roughly an inverse relationship with the increase in income. The expenditure on consumer goods is relatively less. It increases with the increase in income. The expenditure on entertainment, medicines, tobacco and other unforeseen domestic expenses is the least.

A majority of families have income ranging from Rs. 50 to Rs. 99 per month. The proportion of families earning more than Rs. 200 per month is small.

The artisans earning less than Rs.50 a month live on the margin of subsistence. The working man's budget hardly leaves any surplus for emergencies or extraordinary expenses. He is compelled to borrow from the money-lenders as soon as he is faced by unforeseen or special events. The money-lender charges high rates of interest usually 3 Paisa per rupee per month. Most of the workers did not reveal the amount of debt incurred by them. Only a few reported to owe more than Rs. 1,000 to either the businessmen or the money-lenders. It appears that families having smaller debt did not disclose the amount borrowed by them.

CHAPTER III

TOOLS AND IMPLEMENTS

A number of tools are required by the shoe-maker in the manufacture of shoes and sandals. Some of the tools are multi-purpose and are used in different stages of manufacture. The investment on them is not heavy. They can be kept in good condition with a little attention and care.

The essential tools used in the manufacture of shoes and sandals are given below :

Shoe Last (*Farma*) is made of wood or iron. It is used for giving shape to the shoe during the process of making. It differs slightly from the shape of the foot at the top of the toe where it is somewhat longer to prevent the toes from being pressed.

Scissors (*Kainchi*) is used for cutting leather pieces. Its two steel blades are occasionally sharpened by the artisan so that it may easily cut the leather.

Hammer (*Hathauri*) is used for pushing the iron nails into the leather and for levelling the finished products. It is made of iron having a 6 oz. head with a wooden handle.

Plier (*Plas*) is a handy tool made of iron used to extract nails wrongly placed or to clinch them in position. It is also used for squeezing the leather in the process of lasting the shoe. It can be used sometimes in place of knife, shear and side cutter.

Round-nosed plier (*Jamboor*) is made of iron and is used for squeezing the leather and for taking out the nails, if not properly fixed. A round-nosed plier of 5 inches is useful and commonly used.

Awl (*Sutari*) is without a sharp edge and is like *katanni*. It is used for making small holes in the leather for the thread to pass through them in hand-sewing.

Chisel (*Ranpi*) has a wooden handle about 3 inches long at the top. It has an iron blade about 2 inches wide with sharp broad edge and is used for cutting leather, thread, etc.

Side cutter (*Katanni*) is also made of steel with a wooden handle at the top. The steel blade is about 4 inches long with a sharp edge. It is used for stitching the leather by hand.

Broad-based Hammer (*Sant*) is made of iron resembling T shape. It is used for fixing the nails at the bottom of the shoe.

Heel Iron is concave in shape with a wooden handle at the top and a small block of steel having surface. It is used for the finish of the heel like polishing

the heel edges and sole surface.

Hook Last (*Kanta*) is made of iron and has a pointed edge for insertion into the shoe last. There is a big ring at its top with a curve at the bottom. It is used for removing the shoe from the shoe last.

Iron Last is a triangular frame about 8 lbs in weight. There are three sides, two of which are like half sole in shape and the third has a heel shape. It is used for fixing nails on the bottom of the shoes.

Eyelet setter is made of iron and is used for fixing the eyelets on the uppers.

Sewing machine is owned by uppermen who sew the uppers on prescribed rates.

A punch made of steel is used for making small holes in leather. Bodkin (*Suja*), picking knife, rule, stitch divider, etc. are commonly used by shoemakers.

Some of the tools described above are used in making *chappals*. The tools given below are used in their manufacture.

Wooden clamp is made of wood in two pieces attached together with a screw. In between these pieces, the sole and insole of *chappals* are clamped for stitching by hand.

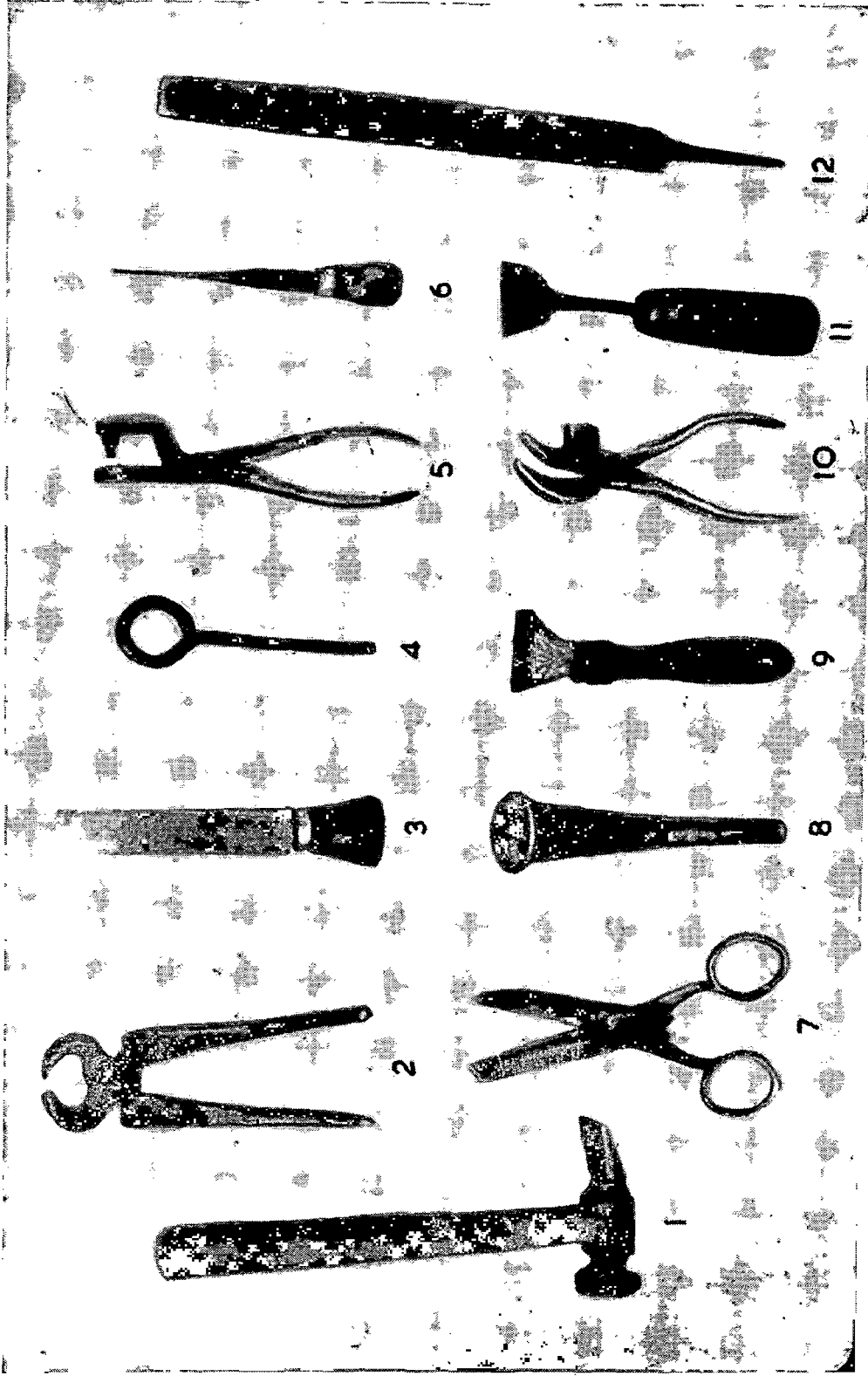
Paring knife (*Kalmi Ranpi*) is shaped like a semi-circle and is used for cutting thick leather.

Edge setter is used for setting the edge on the leather.

Chappal fitter has a wooden handle about two inches long with an iron blade having a slight curve on the bottom. It is used for fitting the straps of the *chappal*.

Wooden smoother is made of wood and is used for rubbing and smoothing the edges of the *chappal*. Glass smoother is also used for smoothing its insole.

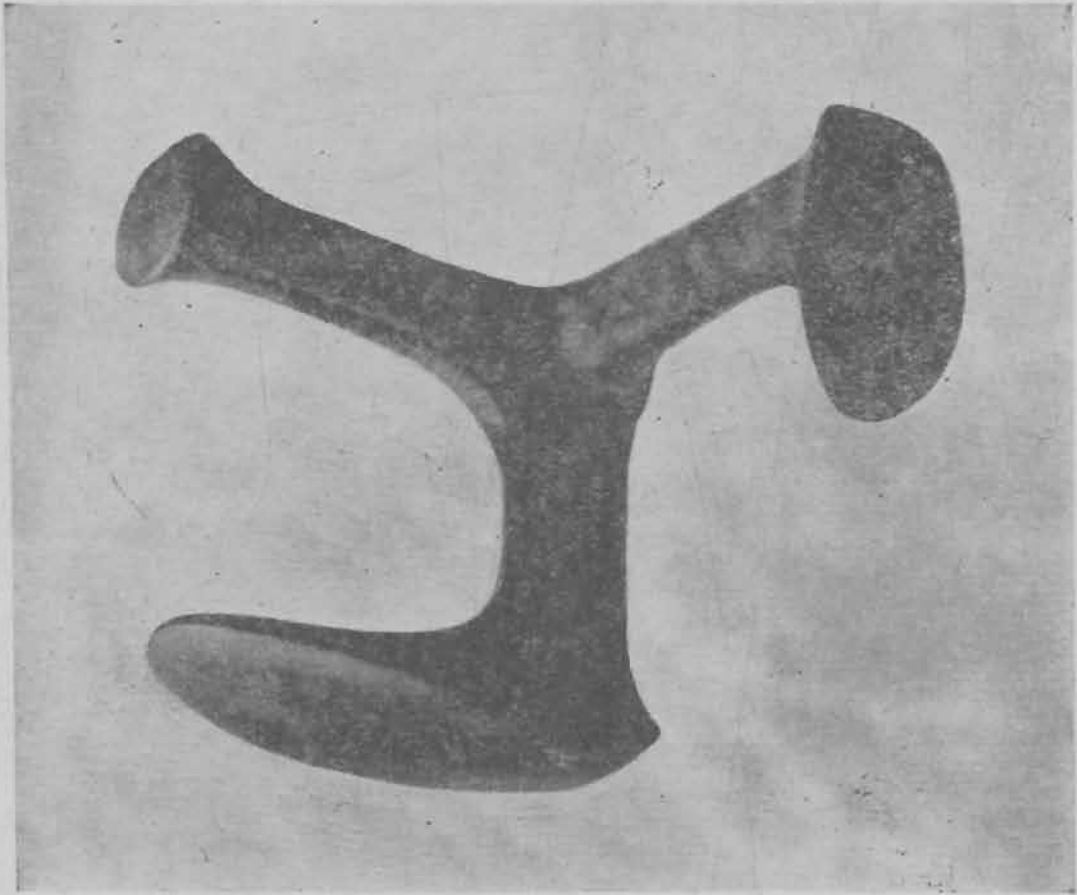
The tools used in the manufacture of shoes, sandals and *chappals* are available in the local market and are also repaired locally. They are simple and do not require heavy investment. A proper care of these tools enables them to last longer. Majority of them are of steel liable to rust which can be avoided by keeping them lightly oiled in places as dry as possible.



Tools

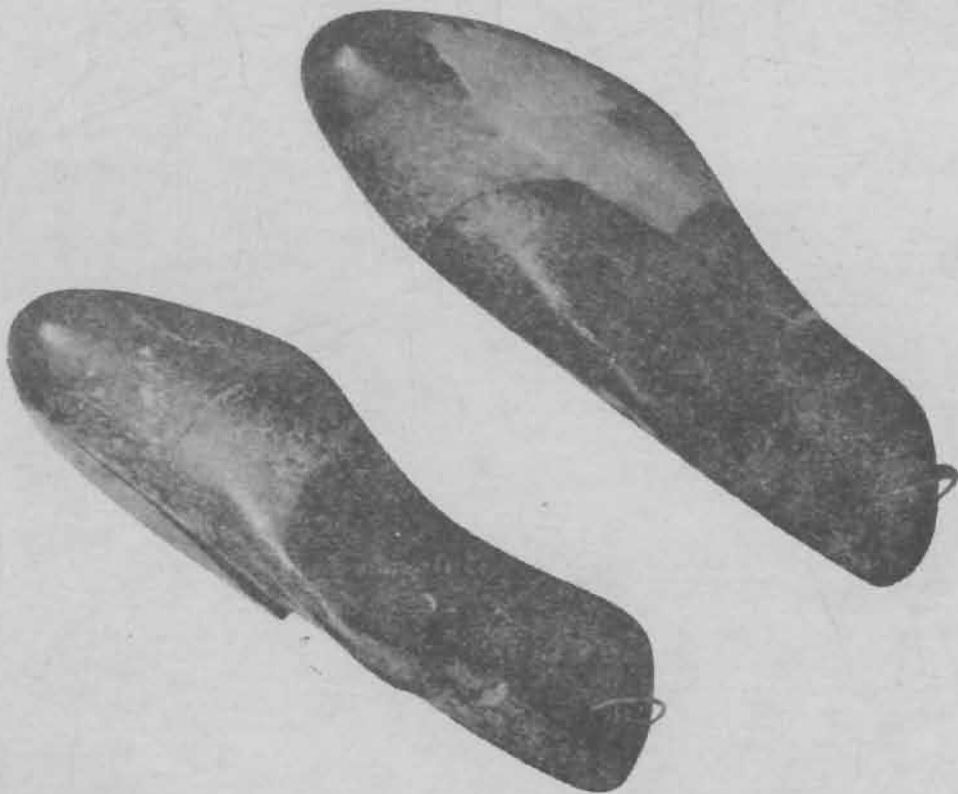
1. Hammer
2. Round-nosed Plier
3. Chisel
4. Hook Last
5. Punch
6. Awl
7. Scissors
8. Broad-based Hammer
9. Heel Iron
10. Plier
11. Broad-edged Chisel
12. File

Plate No. 17

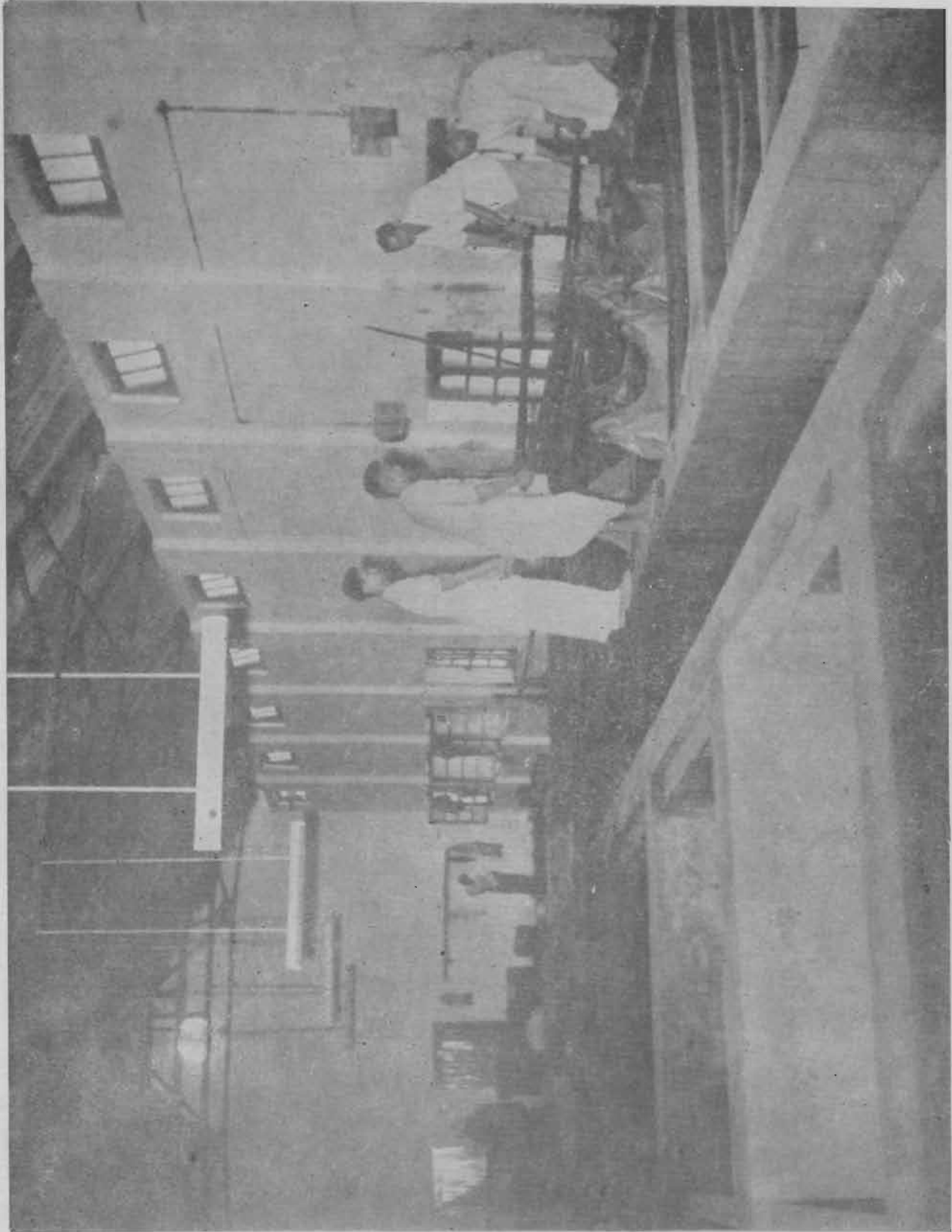


Iron Last

Plate No. 18



Shoe Last



A modern tannery

Plate No. 20



Upperman at work

CHAPTER IV

RAW MATERIAL, TECHNIQUE AND DESIGNS

The main raw material used in the manufacture of footwear is leather. The expression 'leather' is applied to hides and skins of animals which have undergone a change by treatment with a variety of tanning materials both of vegetable and mineral origin and which in the new form can stand without deterioration the action of moisture, heat and air. The fibres of the skin or hide are so changed that they do not stick or form lumps.

The distinction between hides and skins is one of size and thickness. Pelts of larger and full grown animals like cows, buffaloes, etc. are called kips. Skins are obtained from smaller animals like sheep, goats, deer, etc. Tanneries purchase the hides for tanning purpose. The tanning process is complicated. A brief description of this process is given below.

Kanpur is famous for vegetable and chrome tanning. Most of the hides are of animals which have been butchered in slaughter houses. To save the fresh hides from deterioration, they are pasted with salt and are sent to tanneries. This process of preservation of hides is called curing and they are called wet salted hides. Fresh market hides and skins are often dirty and require cleansing in clean cold water in the tannery. Wet salted and dried hides also require soaking to remove the salt cure or to restore flexibility in them.

The epidermis is destroyed in the 'liming' process. The hide is soaked in lime water of varying degrees in different pits for 3 to 6 days. The epidermis is dissolved slowly into it. The hide or the skin is loosened and the hairs are removed from it by means of a blunt knife.

The flesh side of the hide or skin is covered with a coating of pieces of fleshy tissue which are cut off by a large, flat, two-handled knife. The dehaired hide or skin is limed again to prepare it for the tanning operation.

The limed hides and skins contain some lime which interfere with the tanning process. It is removed from the surface layers of the pelt by first immersing it overnight in clean water and then for a short time in a weak boric acid solution. In order to introduce flexibility and stretch, the pelts are subjected to bating treatment. The partly delimed pelts are treated with a warm infusion of dog dung or of hen or pigeon manure. These materials have now been substituted with other materials like formic acid, acetic acid and some salts like ammonium sulphate, zinc sulphate, alum, etc.

The dirty greasy mixture of hair roots, short hairs, lime soap, etc. are removed from the surface of hides and skins by squeezing and scraping with a blunt knife. This process is known as scudding. Sheep and goat pelts are *drenched in an acid drench to remove the*

remaining scud in them. It consists of a weak solution of acetic, lactic acids, etc. and leaves them clean, white and slightly swollen.

The pelts of all types are usually pickled with salt and sulphuric acid. Pickling is also done with the tanning liquor prepared with the myrobalan and bark. The pelts are dropped in a drum filled with the tanning liquor and is moved around whereby the whole hide is soaked in it. The pelts are now ready for the subsequent tanning operations.

The aim of tanner is to permeate the pelt with a material which will prevent its deterioration, strength and flexibility as little as possible. Vegetable tanning is done with materials containing some type of vegetable tannin which has the ability to convert pelt into leather. A number of leaves, barks, fruits, etc. contain some type of tannin. These materials are used to prepare tan liquors of various strengths. The pelts are immersed in them until completely permeated by the tannin.

Chrome tanning is generally done by the one-bath process with chromium compounds. In this process the chromium is applied in the form of basic chromium salts. The upper leather of shoes is generally chrome-tanned.

The upper leathers, welting shoulders and special lining leathers are dressed or curried. The currier works with a two-handled, two-bladed knife with a reversed edge, the preparation and use of which needs considerable skill. With this the currier shaves off all inequalities and as far as possible reduces the hide to the same thickness throughout. The object is that the leather may present a level surface. After a light soaking in clean water, the hide is scoured by hand with a scouring stone or machine. This removes creases, dirt and bloom from leather. The scoured leather is retanned with suitable tanning agents to ensure a good, full tannage of pale colour. Heavier leathers are now sammed to leave the leather damp, but not so wet that drops of water can be squeezed to the surface. This is done by placing the hides in a revolving drum with sumac mixed with water for twenty minutes and then machine-squeezed half-dry. The leather may next be 'stuffed' or 'curried' with a grease compound made of a mixture of cod oil and tallow in approximately equal parts. This grease is applied as a thin layer to the flesh side of the sammed leather and is allowed to dry in a warm room. After it has dried, the surplus grease is removed, and the flesh side is levelled by means of a steel slicker with a turned edge.

The leather is now ready for dyeing. Aniline dyes which are cheap and easily available are popular. Before dyeing, the leather is examined for selecting suitable colour. The defective leather is coloured in black while fresh leather is dyed in red, green, orange,

etc. The best way of dyeing is in drums for the colour is not wasted and uniform shades come up. Many stretch the leather on a stone slab. Aniline dyes are laid and scrubbed on it with a stiff brush. The brush system is preferred when only one side of the leather is dyed or every piece of leather is to be dyed separately.

The leather is given shine with the help of albumen. It is mixed up with water and pasted over the leather. The materials used in this process are egg albumen, acid dyes, shellac, etc. Glaze is given to it through glazing machine. The machine has a rod of glass which rolls over the leather and shines it. The leather is now ready to be sold in the market.

The leather used in the manufacture of shoes and sandals in the town is chrome, calf, glazed kid, chrome patent and sheep skin. They are used for uppers in nearly all western types of shoes. The leather used for the bottom is of superior quality generally made by pit tanning with vegetable tan-stuffs. For lower portion *i.e.*, sole and heel, the thick buffalo leather is used. Rubber and crepe are also used for the bottom and heels of shoes. The crepe sole is costlier than the leather or rubber sole. It is obtained from Agra, Calcutta or Madras. In the manufacture of *chappals* the *katai* leather is also used for preparing the upper.

The other materials used in the manufacture of shoes, sandals and *chappals* are thread, nails, rivets, wax, etc. Polish in different colours is required for finish. These materials are locally available.

The shoe-maker sits on the ground with a piece of stone before him. The tools commonly used by him are shoe lasts, iron frame, *ranpi*, *katanni*, a pair of scissors, cutting plier, hammer, a set of punches, etc. The sewing of uppers is done by an ordinary sewing machine. The stitching work is done by the artisan by hand.

The shoe-maker starts with the sole. He usually has two pieces of thin leather cut according to size and are sewn together with the waxed thread. The curled front of the shoe forms part of the inside of the sole of the leather, the projecting part being afterwards trimmed into shape. The heel is prepared separately with small pieces of sole leather and is attached in the same way. The artisan now puts a couple of stitches of leather thong through the middle of this composite sole to keep it in position for the next operation which consists in stitching on the upper. The artisan begins at the toe, working round with a plain running stitch boring holes for the thong to pass through with his bradawl. The heel part is then trimmed and sewn on to the upper which is now closed. The artisan cuts the curves of sole and heel, makes them smooth and gives the finish with edge colour and heel ball. The shoe last is taken out and the shoe is polished for a perfect finish.

The upper portion of a sandal is prepared according to design and size. The sole is joined to the upper with nails and stitches by the artisan. The heel is then affixed to it. If wooden heel is provided, it is covered with coloured sheep skin and is affixed with nails. It is sent to finishman for the finishing touches.

In making *chappals*, the shoe-maker cuts the sole leather according to size. The upper straps are then made according to the pattern. Straps are sewn by a sewing machine. If they are of *katai* leather, sewing by machine is not necessary. The artisan joins the upper, the bottom and the heel by hand stitching. Press buttons, ordinary rivets, etc. are used to complete it. It is not generally polished.

DESIGNS

The leather footwear made in Kanpur may be divided into two broad groups :

1. The making of indigenous type of footwear.
2. The manufacture of western type of shoes, sandals and *chappals*.

The indigenous type of footwear is made for the simple masses. The shoe-maker understands the tastes and needs of the common folk and produces utility shoes which lack in design, workmanship and finish. The square-toed shoe is ordinarily used by them. The shoes are made by old methods and do not require any intricate designing. The designs are ordinary, of the artisan's own invention. They are usually conventional and lack in imagination. Often decorative shoes—*punjabi* and *adhauri*—usually with conventional flowers and leaves are also made. A women's *sulemshahi* is often decorated with a little *salma* (gold embroidery) over the toes. The embroidery is usually tawdry and without taste.

The western type of shoes and sandals made by cottage workers differ radically from the indigenous type. Their value depends on the quality of material and intricacy of design. The upperman in the town is the designer who mostly copies the designs given in the magazines and periodicals. The sketch is made on the paper and is taken to the artisan for approval. After it has been approved the outer frame is prepared with leather.

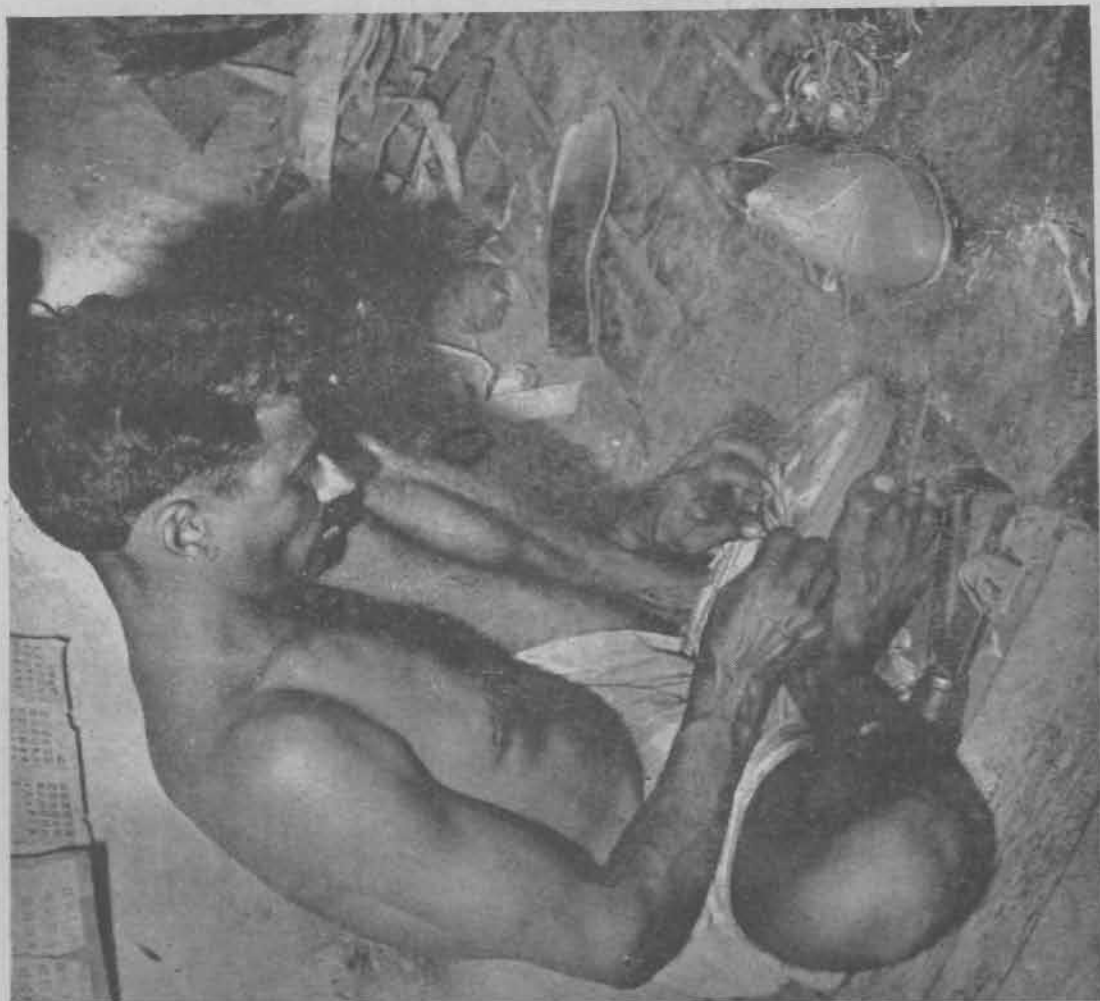
The cottage workers depend for designs on upperman. They lack in originality due to a variety of reasons. The designer is not trained in the art of designing. He works in isolation without any keenness for new ideas in designs. Whatever designs he gets are from the wholesale dealers who are not well conversant with the changing trend in designs. The shoes and sandals made by cottage workers cannot, therefore, compete with those made in workshops and factories.

Plate No. 22

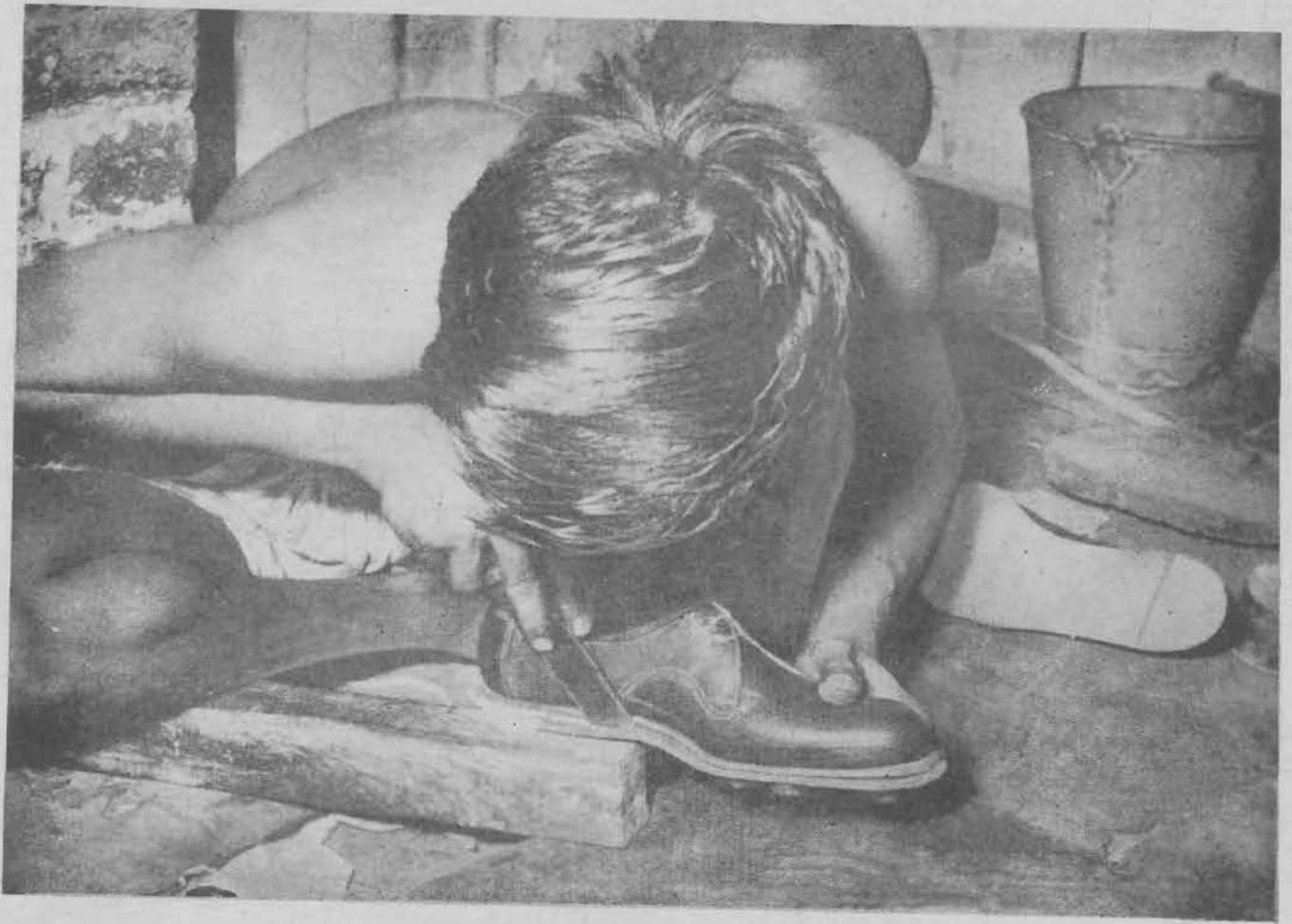


Attaching and smoothing the heel

Plate No. 21



Fixing the sole



Cutting the curves of sole and heel



Stitching on the upper

Plate No. 26



New cut shoe

Plate No. 25



Old and the new

Plate No. 27



Peshawari Sandals

Plate No. 28



Chappals—Ladies and Gents

Plate No. 29



Samson Chappals

The workshops which have joined the Quality Marking Scheme manufacture shoes, sandals and *chappals* of different designs. They make them under the supervision of technical staff. The trained designers keep in touch with the changing tastes and fashion and are always on the look out for new ideas. The designs of different types of footwear are submitted to the Indian Standard Institute, Delhi

and are adopted after approval. The products of these workshops are popular and are preferred.

Kanpur is the largest manufacturer of *chappals*. They are light, cheap and comfortable in summer. *Chappals* of many designs of leather and rubber are made by single workers according to market requirements and taste.

CHAPTER V

COST OF PRODUCTION

The cost of production of shoes, sandals and *chappals* manufactured at Kanpur depends on the quality of leather, design and other materials used. The price of the leather used varies according to quality affecting the cost of production. A shoe made of chrome, glazed kid, patent or calf leather with crepe sole will cost more than a shoe made of a ordinary leather with leather sole. An attempt has been made to calculate the cost of production of shoes of Oxford or Derby, New Cut designs and of ladies sandals and *chappals*. It includes the amount spent on raw materials, rivets, waxed thread, nails, colour, polish and

on the charges of upperman, bottomman and the finishman. The workmen who make shoes in their homes have no fixed hours of work. Their earning include their labour charges also. Since the hand-made shoe industry is run on a small scale by cottage workers, the labour charges have not been shown separately in calculating the approximate cost of production of those wares. The unaccounted expenditure has been included under the head 'miscellaneous'.

The estimated cost of manufacture of a shoe of Oxford or Derby design (size 5-10) is given below :

Items	Quantity	Amount
1. Chrome or calf for upper	2 feet	Rs. 3.50
2. Canvas or sheep skin for lining	2 feet	Re. 1.00
3. Leather Sole	1 lb.	Rs. 2.00
4. Rivets, waxed thread, nails, colour, polish, etc.	—	Re. 1.00
5. Labour charges of upperman	—	Re. 1.00
6. Labour charges of bottomman	—	Rs. 2.50
7. Labour charges of finishman	—	Re. 0.50
8. Miscellaneous	—	Re. 0.50
Total :		Rs. 12.00

The shoe is sold for Rs. 14.50 yielding a profit of Rs. 2.50 to the workman. It also includes his labour charges. The shoe with rubber sole will cost Rs. 16 and with a crepe sole Rs. 18.

The average cost of production of a shoe of New Cut design (size 5-10) with leather sole is given below :

Items	Quantity	Amount
1. Chrome or calf for upper	$1\frac{1}{2}$ feet	Rs. 2.62
2. Sheep skin	$1\frac{1}{2}$ feet	Re. 0.75
3. Leather sole	$\frac{3}{4}$ lb.	Rs. 1.50
4. Waxed thread, nails, colour, polish, etc.	—	Re. 0.75
5. Labour charges of upperman	—	Re. 0.75
6. Labour charges of bottomman	—	Rs. 2.00
7. Labour charges of finishman	—	Re. 0.25
8. Miscellaneous	—	Re. 0.13]
Total :		Rs. 8.75

The shoe is sold for Rs. 11.50 in the market. The net profit to the artisan on the shoe is Rs. 2.75 including the labour charges. The rubber and crepe

soles are not popular in a shoe of this design.

The estimated cost of production of a ladies sandal (size 2-7) with leather sole is given below :

Items	Quantity	Amount
1. Chrome or calf for upper	1½ feet	Rs. 2.75
2. Sheep skin for lining	1 feet	Re. 0.50
3. Leather sole	¾ lb.	Rs. 1.50
4. Wooden heel	—	Re. 0.75
5. Waxed thread, nails, buckles (small), colour, etc.	—	Re. 0.50
6. Labour charges of upperman	—	Re. 0.50
7. Labour charges of bottomman	—	Rs. 1.75
8. Labour charges of finishman	—	Re. 0.50
9. Miscellaneous	—	Re. 0.25
	Total :	Rs. 9.00

The sandal is sold for Rs. 11 in the market giving a profit of Rs. 2 to the artisan.

The average cost of production of a *chappal* (size 5-10) is available in the market is given below :

Items	Quantity	Amount
1. Chrome	1 feet	Rs. 1.50
2. Buff leather	1 lb.	Rs. 2.25
3. Sheep skin	1 oz	Re. 0.37
4. Waxed thread, nails, colour, polish etc.	—	Re. 0.37
5. Labour charges	—	Re. 0.75
	Total :	Rs. 5.24

The *chappal* is sold for Rs. 6.50 yielding a profit of Rs. 1.26 to the artisan. The cost of production of *chappals* made for males and females is the same.

The average cost of production of shoes, sandals and *chappals* can be reduced by better and effective

methods of supply of raw materials through multi-purpose co-operative societies. The reduction in the cost price will yield a greater margin of profit to the artisan. Improvement in pattern and finish with reasonable standardisation would popularize the hand-made shoes, sandals and *chappals* made in Kanpur.

CHAPTER VI

MARKETING

Marketing is a major problem of the leather footwear industry of Kanpur. It affects the cottage workers adversely. The single worker is common in the town. He is handicapped for want of capital and raw materials. The dealer takes advantage of the situation and advances raw materials on the condition that he will supply finished products to him. He gives a chit by the help of which he can purchase raw materials from the market but only from those shops which are agreeable to honour the chit. This leaves little freedom to the artisan in the selection and purchase of raw materials. In such a situation, the quality of the footwear suffers. The dealer purchases them from the artisan on fixed rates which are always below the market rates. The sale of finished products to the dealer is the sole source of finance to the workman. He is almost entirely within his power and makes shoes, sandals and *chappals* to order. The dealer shares all the profits without giving commensurate share to the artisan.

Cottage workers producing 'bazaree' (unspecified) type of shoes are the worst sufferers. They bring their days produce in baskets over their heads in the late evening hours and show them round to different dealers commonly called 'factors' for auction price. Since the workers are in a buyer's market, the situation becomes all the more difficult for them. The dealer makes the best of the worker's anxiety to sell his products before the market closes. He offers him the minimum possible price for the wares. By virtue of his bargaining strength, the dealer tries to get the things at prices as low as the cost of raw materials used. He is often able to make inroads even into the justifiable wages of the cottage workers. It leads to deterioration in quality of the shoes, sandals and *chappals* made by him. When he produces his wares, he tries to protect his wages by saving on the materials used. Such a condition enters into a vicious circle and the labour of many poor cottage workers is wasted in producing shoes and *chappals* of very inferior quality lacking in workmanship and finish. Many footweares contain only card board in the inner sole and heels and a very thin piece of leather is used as outer sole.

The Department of Industries has taken interest in maintaining the quality of footwear by introducing the Quality Marking Scheme but since the scheme is voluntary, all producers do not avail of its services. Adequate and proper marketing facilities and supply of standard raw materials can solve the problems of the industry. The multi-purpose co-operative societies appear to be the best solution for supply of raw materials on reasonable rates. They can arrange for the sale of manufactured products directly to the consumers through the sale depots thus effectively curtailing the hold of the middleman from the industry. Another solution lies in tying the cottage producers to small scale workshops for control on quality and for marketing facilities. This suggestion may not be practicable as it would mean the small

workshops taking a big responsibility to provide the raw materials to the single worker and also to see that the entire volume of production is marketed.

Kanpur *chappals* are known for their durability and finish. They feed the needs of local markets and are also sent out. The town is visited by a large number of wholesale dealers from different parts of the country. The purchases are made from the wholesale dealers of the town and are sent out by rail or on trucks. The well-organised units produce quality *chappals* which are mostly marketed outside Kanpur. Often they execute orders from reputed manufacturers which do not manufacture *chappals* in a big way.

Shoes and sandals are manufactured in Kanpur on a limited scale. The sale of these products is confined to the area of production on account of their poor quality. They are produced to meet the needs of the common folk.

The role of the co-operatives in the marketing of the leather footwear in the town has been insignificant. The Government encouraged the workers to establish co-operative societies which could help in the marketing of the finished products thereby yielding adequate profits to them. As a result of these efforts, 17 co-operative societies were established in the town most of which are now defunct. The societies have not been successful due to a variety of reasons. First, the members did not grasp the advantages of the societies. Secondly, there was lack of co-operative spirit among them. The workers did not consider the societies of their own on account of departmental interference. Lastly there is powerful opposition to these societies by the wholesale dealers who dominate a substantial portion of the trade.

ADVERTISEMENT

There is no systematic arrangement for the advertisement of leather footwear manufactured in the cottage sector. The smaller units have not enough funds to advertise their products. The establishments which have not joined the Quality Marking Scheme of the Industries Department are indifferent to the advertisement of their finished products. The advertisement of goods of the bigger units which have joined the Quality Marking Scheme is done by the Directorate of Industries by issuing pamphlets containing photographs of different designs of shoes, sandals and *chappals*. A documentary film has also been prepared which would attract the eyes of the millions. In order to popularise the footwear manufactured by smaller units, it is necessary to educate the public about them. This can be done effectively by publicity and propaganda. The role of the press in their advertisement cannot be minimised. It should be given information about the types of *chappals* manu-



Cottage worker in the market



Higling and Bargaining

factured in the town. Distribution of attractive pamphlets and booklets to the public giving illustrations of processes and methods of manufacture of different designs of footwear will interest the businessmen in the country and abroad and will help to make the

industry known. The general advertisement of the industry by sending the shoes and *chappals* to the important industrial and agricultural exhibitions and fairs and through other means will put it in a strong position.

APPENDIX I

TABLE I : Number of Industrial Units and Persons employed in Production

Name of Craft	No. of Units Surveyed	Workers		
		Persons	Males	Females
Leather Footwear	148	807	807	—

TABLE II : Distribution of Artisans

Caste/Community	Workers			No. of Families	No. of Families Working in own Homes	No. of Families Working in Workshops.
	Persons	Males	Females			
1. Chamar	663	663	—	622	114	508
2. Kayastha	1	1	—	1	1	—
3. Muslim	140	140	—	134	9	125
4. Chinese	3	3	—	1	—	1
Total	807	807	—	758	124	634

TABLE III : Distribution of Articles by Materials used

Name of Article	Main Material		Subsidiary Material		Raw Material	
	Name	No. of Units engaged in Manufacture	Name	No. of Units engaged in Manufacture	Place from which imported	No. of Units engaged in Manufacture
1. Sandals	Chrome, Behri, Sole, etc.	5	Thread, Wax, Nails, Colour, Polish, Buckles, etc.	5	Calcutta, Madras and Bombay	5
2. Shoes	„	59	Thread, Wax, Nails, Colour, Polish, solution, etc.	59	Locally	59
3. Chappals	Katai	84	„	84	„	84
Total	—	148	—	148	—	148

TABLE IV : Designs

Name of Article	Name of Design	Source of Design
		Traditional
1. Sandals	Peshawari, Ladies, etc.	5
2. Shoes	New Cut, Derby, Oxford, etc.	59
3. Chappals	Samson, Jawa, etc.	84

TABLE V: Marketing

Name of Article	No. of Units producing for Sale in open Market	
	Through Middlemen	Others
1. Sandals	—	5
2. Shoes	—	59
3. Chappals	8	76

TABLE VI: Cost of Production

Name of Article	Cost of Raw Material	Cost of conversion into finished Product	Average Sale price	Profit
1. Oxford or Derby Shoe (Leather Sole)	Rs. 7.50	Rs. 4.50	Rs. 14.50	Rs. 2.50
2. New Cut Shoe (Leather Sole)	Rs. 5.62	Rs. 3.13	Rs. 11.50	Rs. 2.75
3. Sandals (Ladies)	Rs. 6.00	Rs. 3.00	Rs. 11.00	Rs. 2.00
4. Chappals (Gents)	Rs. 4.49	Rs. 0.75	Rs. 6.50	Rs. 1.26

TABLE VII: List of skilled Craftsmen

Caste /Community	Skilled Craftsmen
1. Chamar	1. Shri Dargai 2. Shri Basant Chowdhary 3. Shri Inda Bhagat
2. Muslim	4. Shri Rauf Ahmad 5. Shri Sikander Ali 6. Shri Abdul Majid

CENSUS OF INDIA 1961

HANDICRAFT SURVEY SCHEME

Village Schedule of Industries and Crafts

District	Sub-division
Tahsil	N. E. S. Block (<i>if any</i>)
Village	Census Code Number

PART A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF VILLAGE

Describe briefly

(i) Area of village in acres	(i)										
(ii) Population	(ii)										
(iii) Approximate number of families	(iii)										
(iv) Various sections in the village corresponding to communities and their names	<table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">Name of community</td> <td style="width: 50%;">Name of community</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(iv) a.</td> <td>c.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b.</td> <td>f.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c.</td> <td>g.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>d.</td> <td>h.</td> </tr> </table>	Name of community	Name of community	(iv) a.	c.	b.	f.	c.	g.	d.	h.
Name of community	Name of community										
(iv) a.	c.										
b.	f.										
c.	g.										
d.	h.										
(v) Distance from nearest railway station (<i>miles</i>)	(v)										
(vi) Distance from nearest main road	(vi)										
(vii) Distance from P. S./Tahsil headquarters	(vii)										

PART B ARTISAN COMMUNITIES IN THE VILLAGE (*Tribal & Non-Tribal*)

1. Name of caste or community	2. Approximate number of families	3. Total number of adult workers	4. Number of families working under co-operation	5. Number of families working in own houses or in workshops set up by their employers				
		<table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; border-top: 1px solid black;">Males</td> <td style="width: 50%; border-top: 1px solid black;">Females</td> </tr> </table>	Males	Females		<table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; border-top: 1px solid black;">In own houses</td> <td style="width: 50%; border-top: 1px solid black;">In employers workshops</td> </tr> </table>	In own houses	In employers workshops
Males	Females							
In own houses	In employers workshops							
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								

6. Names of articles produced. Describe the articles and mention approximate sizes and heights.	7. Main material used	8. Subsidiary material used	9. Whether raw material is imported and if so, from where? What are the main ingredients?
---	-----------------------	-----------------------------	---

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

10. Who gives the designs ?

11. Give the names of the designs.

12. Describe colours used. How are the colours obtained?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

VILLAGE SCHEDULE OF INDUSTRIES AND CRAFTS

13. Tools used (*Describe tools. Give pencil sketches and photographs separately.*)
14. Who makes these tools and from where are they imported ?
15. General description of workshop (*Use separate sheet of paper if necessary.*)

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

16. When did the community come to this village? Who were the patrons? How old is this craft in this village?
17. Describe legends or myths current on the origin of the community.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

VILLAGE SCHEDULE OF INDUSTRIES AND CRAFTS

18. Are there any villages in the neighbourhood where branches of these communities live? If so, give name of village (s) and community.

19. Do the communities produce for their own use entirely? Describe whether for domestic or ceremonial purposes.

20. Whether they produce entirely for others in exchange for money or kind. If so, who are the customers and to which communities do they belong ?
 - (i) Are they for domestic use?
 - (ii) Are they for ceremonial or ritualistic purposes? If so, for which ceremony or ritual?

21. Whether the communities produce for themselves and for sale ?
 - (i) Describe types of objects for own domestic or ceremonial use. Mention heights of objects.
 - (ii) Describe types of objects for sale. Mention heights of objects.

22. Do the communities produce for sale in open markets, *hats* and *melas*? Mention the markets, *hats* or *melas* and the occasions.
 - (i) Do they make to the order of middlemen who advance money and undertake marketing facilities ?

23. If there is a co-operative society, are there members in it who belong to different castes ?

24. Give the names of the designs and myths or stories behind the names, *i.e.*, explanation of what the design stands for and the shape or decoration of objects.

25. Describe Production.

(Please describe stage by stage and take photographs wherever possible. Photographs should be supplemented by pencil sketches of surface, forms, designs, shapes, colours and processes of paper if necessary for sketches of stages.)

(i) First stage

(ii) Second stage

(iii) Third stage

(iv) Final and finishing stage

25. (A) Cost of production, sale price and earnings

(i) Price at which raw material is available ;

(ii) Cost of conversion into finished products ;

(iii) The usual sale price of finished goods; and

(iv) Wages earned.

26. Give a list of very skilled craftsmen of each community.

PART C

FOR TRIBAL COMMUNITIES SPECIALLY

27. Is this a tribe where every household produces things for its own use or the use of the community?
28. Is this a tribe of which only particular sections produce particular things? If so, which sections produce which things? Mention names. Name of section of Tribe Name of articles produced
29. Is this a semi-tribal community and does it produce articles for neighbouring tribes? If so, mention the names of the tribes for which they produce and the names of articles. Name of neighbouring Tribes Name of articles produced for them
30. Does this tribe produce articles for non-tribal or advanced communities? If so, mention names of these communities and the names of articles. Names of non-tribal or advanced communities Name of articles produced for them