CHAPTER II
HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Before the annexation (of 1849), there were no institutions for higher learning and no suitable buildings for schools in Punjab. Usually a portion of a temple or a mosque served the purpose for three types of schools, namely Gurmukhi Schools, Pathshalas and Maktabs. At the time of annexation, the average income of a teacher hardly exceeded Rs. 2 a month in cash, but offerings in kind and fees for performing religious ceremonies formed a material addition to their means of subsistence. Once Punjab became a British province, the British Government declared the educational policy for educating the masses. In accordance with the recommendations of the Woods Despatch, the Department of Public Instruction in Punjab was set up in January 1856. "A cess amounting to one per cent of the land tax was attached to education, and within two years 456 village schools were opened from this source while grants-in-aid

1. Sir Thomas Raleigh, Lord Curzon in India, Being a Selection from his Speeches, 1898-1905, p. 347.
3. Education Commission Report of the Provincial Committee for Punjab, 1882. During the first four years, the new province was governed by a Board of Administration, "Education" being placed in the charge of the Judicial Commissioner. In February, 1853, the system of government was changed and John Lawrence (afterwards Lord Lawrence) was appointed the Chief Commissioner of Punjab. In September 1854, education was transferred to the charge of the Financial Commissioner.
were contributed to the support of various mission schools in the Province. The education department so set up was administered at first by a director and 2 inspectors of schools.

The first director of public instruction, Lieutenant Delafield Arnold, launched in May 1856, a scheme for the establishment of a school at the centre of six villages, 30 zilla schools, 4 normal schools and a central college. For matters of inspection and superintendence the director and European inspectors were helped by tehsildars until the year 1868. From 1856 to 1860, the director corresponded with the Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab through the Financial Commissioner, but it was only in 1860 that he got the right of direct access to the Lieutenant-Governor. When the provinces attained the status of a governor's province, the director of public instruction also combined the post of the education secretary to the government. Unlike many other provinces, the director enjoyed this double status till recent years. He was entrusted with three basic functions, e.g., direction, supervision and control. The province was divided into two circles, Eastern and Western, each having one European inspector. The inspectors were further assisted by 11 deputy inspectors and 17 sub-deputy inspectors. The inspectors were in charge of one or more districts and this system worked till 1860 but ultimately the inspectorate failed to do justice because of the increasing number of schools, lack of

cooperation from the public and noncooperation of the revenue authorities who controlled and managed the schools earlier.

In 1860, Captain Fuller became the director and government decided to secure the benefit of the influence of the revenue officers. All vernacular schools were transferred to the management of revenue officers, thereby abolishing the supervisory staff of the department of education. The vernacular schools, which formed the great majority, were transferred to the charge of deputy commissioners, the Indian deputy inspectors were dismissed and each district was provided with a district inspector or chief school muharir, who was subordinate to the deputy commissioner.

The appointments, transfers and dismissal of teachers rested with the deputy commissioner, although the director of public instruction and the inspectors could recommend candidates.

The combination of skilled agency of the chief muharirs and the unskilled agency of revenue officers soon proved ineffective and unsound because the revenue officers had no special experience of school supervision and were ignorant of the standards required in the different classes. The teachers exploited the situation and deluded the non-professional examiners by presenting them specimen boys to represent the school. The suggestions made by the supervisory staff were seldom adopted and they themselves could not adopt suggestions. The interference of the deputy commissioner was

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so much that they even passed comments on the educational curricula although this was, technically speaking, within the jurisdiction of inspecting staff.

In 1866, the chief moharirs were substituted by district inspectors but with the growth of educational institutions the work of supervision increased manifold. The supervisors had to travel long distances and their circles were too large to be supervised effectively. In addition to inspection work, the supervisors were supposed to conduct normal and middle school examinations and do other jobs such as writing of reports, drawing of curricula, advising the methods of teaching and even preparing the schools' books. This adversely affected the supervision work.

The expenditure upon education continued to increase but there was no satisfactory progress in education - the blame for which rested on the shoulders of educational officers.

The policy of the government in regard to education till 1881 was to bring primary education to all doors, but in regard to higher education, it aimed at affording the means of attaining proficiency to those only who were ready to bear a fair share of its cost.


8. Rahbar-i-Hind, September 2, 1876.

9. Administrative Reports of the Government of Punjab, 1880-81, p.45. The definite policy in regard to elementary education was for the first time enunciated by the Despatch of 1854, popularly known as Wood's Educational Despatch. It recommended that the indigenous schools should be given grants-in-aid and improved under a system of government supervision. Of S.Nurallah and J.P.Naik, A History of Education in India (Bombay:1951), pp.321-27.
On the recommendations of Hunter Commission of 1882, the number of inspectors was raised to seven and district inspectors were appointed in the districts. Two assistants were attached with each district inspector in 1891 due to rush of work. The assistant inspector visited all the primary schools and the anglo-vernacular schools, not visited by the inspector. District inspectors acted as chief agents of the local bodies in the management of their schools. They used to visit each school twice a year.

It was in the year 1882 that Punjab university was established at Lahore, prior to which, the colleges and schools had been affiliated to the Calcutta University. In the eighties of the 19th century, people began to take more and more interest in education. Lord Ripon hailed with the greatest satisfaction the circumstances that "this university has been established by the contributions of the native provinces and gentlemen of this province." The net achievement was however discouraging. It was only the privileged class of traders and the professionals among the people, who had availed the opportunity the best and that too not as much for the actual learning as from the habit of mind which regarded education merely as a stepping stone to a government appointment or a clerical career. Some critics

10. Act XVII of 1882. The Punjab University was incorporated and received the power of conferring Degrees for Oriental Learning and Arts on October 14, 1882. Administrative Reports of the Government of Punjab, 1892-93, p.326. Also Imperial Gazetteer of India, Provincial Series, Punjab, pp.135-36.
feel that the system of education introduced by the British laid too much emphasis on the worldly ambition at the cost of moral and religious education. The first important aim, according to them, was the elevation of the people at large, but second or the underlying aim was to raise a class of officials. According to the critics, it was the second rather than the first aim, "which worked better, as is clear from the fast progress of English - which was the only avenue to the lucrative government employments - even at the cost of other indigenous languages."

During the nineteenth century, the essence of the British policy lay in a conflict between two schools of thought, one intending to impose a cheap and slavish imitation of the British educational system in India and the other resolved to create a system to meet the peculiar needs of the country. The indigenous system so evolved did have initial successes but soon the feverish efforts of the missionaries who were joined by the state officials and some enlightened Indians achieved for India, the modern system of education. It thrived and flourished because the Britishers believed in the superiority of their system. To the critics, the sole aim of imparting the education to Indians was to transmit the western influence on Indian life through the channel of education so that their stability in India is secured. However, the social

and religious basis of the Indians were so strong that all such attempts were foiled. The Hinduism is supposed to have the marvellous capacity of absorbing the foreign ideas without allowing any change in its basic features and it assimilated the western models. The prediction of Macaulay, says Sir Philip Hartog "that with European education India would be automatically converted into Christianity was a palpable 15 error in judgment." The emergence of private managements and simultaneous grants of franchise to graduates in university elections towards the end of the nineteenth century, led to an increasing Indian representation in university bodies and strong reflection of nationalist sentiments in the fields 16 of education and culture.

To ensure a wider diffusion of elementary education among the masses, in 1906, the Government of India considered a scheme for the abolition of fees in all primary schools which were neither under public management nor in receipt of grants from public funds and invited the views of the 17 local governments on this. The main object was to relieve certain classes of the community from "a form of taxation", 18 which payment of fees was regarded as amounting to. The government of Punjab took up the stand that the fees levied

18. Ibid.
in the province was not excessive and consequently did not press heavily upon any section of the community. To remove illiteracy the primary education was made compulsory for boys. The scheme of free and compulsory education did not make much headway. Reports from various districts revealed that the measure had proved ineffective and inefficacious. In the opinion of the Compulsory Education Committee appointed by the Punjab Government in 1930, poverty of the rural population was "perhaps the most serious obstacle to compulsion". The other causes of failure were the lack of strict enforcement of the penal clauses of the Act and dilatory, intricate and expensive procedure for the conviction of defaulting and recalcitrant parents.

In the field of college education, there was considerable expansion which adversely affected the efficiency. According to the Calcutta University Commission, 1917, "the main feature of the twenty years following 1882 was the rapid creation

19. India Government, Papers regarding the question of the abolition of fees in primary schools. 1910. p.241. The children of the agriculturists and village Kamins were exempted from the payment of fees in the first five primary classes by Article 234 of the Punjab Education Code, while Article 235 authorised exemption upto a limit of 10 per cent of the total number on the rolls, in the case of boys whose parents were too poor to pay fees. The Punjab Education Code Fifth Ed., p.58.
20. Punjab Primary Education Act (Act VII of 1919). The Act would have been a radical one had it also covered the female students. A separate bill for this purpose was introduced by Smt. Lekhvati Jain on October 29,1935, in the Punjab Legislative Council. The bill was moved for reference to the Select Committee on March 26,1936, but it was lost in the House(Punjab Legislative Council Debates, dated 29.10.1935 and 26.3.1936.
of colleges which depended mainly or wholly upon fees, and
throve as coaching institutions, rather than as places of
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learning." Lord Curzon sensed the evil and gave first place
to university reform in his programme of educational recon-
struction and summoned an educational conference which was
followed by the appointment of the Indian Universities Com-
mission in 1902 and the passing of the Indian Universities
Act in 1904. This policy of reforming and stressing quality
enunciated by Lord Curzon was fully adhered to by his success-
ors and, between 1905 when Lord Curzon left India and 1921,
when education became a transferred subject under the reforms
of 1919, this policy was worked out resolutely and in a
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zealous manner.

The position of women education was very disappointing.
In 1910, it was reported that only 0.33 per cent of the total
female population of school going age was getting education.
Again, it was Lord Curzon's administration and policies that
gave rise not only to a new militant nationalism, but to
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national education as well. The Swadeshi Movement which
was initiated after the Partition of Bengal (1905) created a
demand for Swadeshi education and gradually synchronised with
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the Indian struggle for freedom. The martial law atrocities

27. S. Nurullah and J.P. Naik, op. cit., p. 475.
28. All the national leaders condemned the official system of
education as unhelpful, and even antagonistic to national
development. Mrs. Annie Basant and Mahatma Gandhi were
vehemently opposed to it because they thought (a) it is
based upon foreign culture to the almost entire exclusion
of indigenous culture, (b) it ignores the culture of the
heart and the hand, and confines itself simply to the head;
and (c) real education is impossible through a foreign
and the inadequacy of the Montford Reforms further fanned the flame of the national feeling in the country. It was felt that the existing educational institutions because of their dependence and connections with foreign administration cannot impart the right type of national education.

At the opening of the twentieth century, the province covered an area of 110,667 sq. miles divided into 5 education circles, each under the charge of an inspector, helped by one or two assistant inspectors. Each circle was further divided into districts, each being put under a district inspector. The girls' schools of the whole province formed a separate circle headed by one inspectress. The inspecting staff consisted of 41 officers including one woman, which supervised 6,841 institutions — both public and private. Due to the large area of the circle, considerable time was wasted on travel and it was felt that the scope of inspection was limited and its method mechanical. Each inspecting officer had to visit over 200 schools, although the prescribed number was 90. The director of public instruction had no time to explain the government policies, supervise its operation and counteract the serious deviations from it. In 1904, the government appointed more staff to relieve the director and the post of an assistant director was sanctioned in 1914 which was filled in 1919. The powers of the director of public instruction were also delegated to the divisional inspectors. However, the 6 inspecting circles were reduced to 5 in order to become coterminous with the 5 administrative divisions of the province.
The post of the assistant inspector of schools was abolished and substituted by subject specialists. It was not approved by the headmasters and was soon abolished. A rule was made that inspector could approach the principal of the training college for the temporary loan of an appropriate expert, while the inspector would go on tour. The inspectors were assisted by the deputy inspectors. The status of district inspector was raised and all of them were put in Punjab Education Service. The number of assistant inspectors was increased from 67 in 1921 to 149 in 1927.

After the provincial autonomy, the new government in 1937, was enthusiastic to promote education and consequently priority was given to education. Model schools were opened and enrolment on schools increased. It was laid down that every member of the inspecting staff should spend at least 7 to 10 days each month on an uninterrupted tour.

The period 1937-47 was overshadowed by the famine and war and in 1947, came the partition. The communal holocaust and mass-migration necessitated the reorganisation of the education department de-novo, with 12 districts and two inspectional divisions in East Punjab. Each division was under the charge of inspector helped by three deputy inspectors. There was a district inspector in every district assisted by as many assistant inspectors as there were tehsils in the district. 5586 educational institutions came to the lot of East Punjab, with 5,77,614 scholars and total expenditure of Rs. 2,66,63,138.
In Punjab, there was a post of assistant district inspector of schools in each tehsil and he/she used to inspect primary schools falling in the respective beat. The girls schools were inspected by the inspectress and the boys by the inspectors, i.e., female education was inspected by the female officers and the male education by the male officers. All the schools were controlled and financed by the local bodies and the private agencies. The assistant district inspector of schools used to serve as a link between the local bodies and the education department.

On the 1st of November, 1956, Pepsu was merged with Punjab, thus adding to the problems of administration because erstwhile Pepsu state, had slightly different set up. The assistant district inspectors of schools, for example, were attached with the offices of the district inspectors or inspectress of schools. They used to assist them in the smooth running of schools in the district. The Pepsu state came into existence in 1948 and remained 'B' class state till the date of merger receiving direct aid from the central government. During this period, a large number of schools were opened under the various development schemes. There were no district boards in Pepsu, so all schools were controlled and financed by the government. The district inspectors/inspectresses of schools enjoyed the powers of drawing and disbursing officers. The schools, however, became unmanageable due to the expansion of education, so more posts of assistant district inspectors of schools were created and they were posted down to tehsil level. They were also given drawing and disbursing
powers in 1955. Posts of clerks were also created for their offices and these used to assist the inspectors in the inspection of middle schools falling in the tehsil.

After the merger, the local bodies schools were nationalised with effect from 1st October, 1957. From 1860 to 1957, unlike other provinces, the director of public instruction in Punjab, combined the post of the director of public instruction and the education secretary to the government. In 1957, two posts were separated and the secretaryship of education was entrusted to an officer of the Indian Administrative Service. The director of public instruction became the deputy secretary-cum-director of public instruction.

In 1958, there was a complete demarcation between the administrative and the executive wings at the departmental level. The director of public instruction no longer remained the deputy secretary and another man from the civil services was appointed instead. The increase of work at the secretariat level necessitated the creation of another officer, i.e., assistant education secretary. To bring in quick disposal, coordination and more efficiency, an educational commissioner-cum-educational secretary was appointed in the year 1960.

In 1960, the Punjab Government decided to introduce compulsory education in the state. This added to the work of the block education officers. In 1962, the men and women assistant district inspectors of schools were redesignated as block

education officers and were put under the charge of common
district education officers, which was ultimately a source of
discontentment specially among the lady block education offic-
ers.

There were many radical changes in the organisational
levels. In January 1961, an officer of the Indian Adminis-
trative Service was appointed as the director of public
instruction. The need was felt of an expert educational
advice, so two joint directors of public instruction, one for
the schools and the other for colleges-cum-planning were
appointed who were primarily educationalists. The great
expansion and reconstruction brought in quick changes and
the post of an additional director of public instructions
was created. In 1968, the post of the director was again
withdrawn from the personnel of Indian Administrative
Service and allotted to an educationist.

Thus, after partition, education in the Punjab passed
through three phases. Firstly, immediately after the parti-
tion, the education department was concerned with rehabilita-
tion and reconstruction. Secondly, the compulsory education
and the changing needs of the educational dynamics in the
context of social and political changes, brought in fresh
thinking. Thirdly, with the launching of Five Year Plans
and the idea of a welfare state more funds were earmarked
for education.

Education is a beneficent activity, and hardly brings
any cash returns, but it is the sine-qua-non of progress
in all fields, and no welfare state can afford to slacken its efforts for the dissemination of knowledge, which has aptly been described as power. Being fully alive to the importance of education government adopted a policy for promoting educational activity not only under its own aegis but also in the private sector.

The state has been steadily increasing its allocation for education during the last 14 years - starting with the budget provision of Rs.147 lakhs in 1947-48, as against the total expenditure of Rs. 2,469.62 lakhs (non-plan Rs. 2,014.65 lakhs, plan Rs. 454.97 lakhs) incurred in 1968-69, the revised estimates for 1969-70 stand at Rs.2,773.31 lakhs (non-plan Rs.2,595.35 lakhs and plan Rs. 177.96 lakhs). There is a great awareness among the masses and there is a widespread demand from all quarters for education. The educational policy of the state government is (1) to provide education to all, and (2) to make education better suited to our needs. Regarding educating the masses, there appears to be some success but in the field of secondary education, the unilateral and the monotrack system has been replaced by multipurpose education. The progress of professional and technical education has also kept pace with the needs of the state.