CHAPTER-III

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

The progress in the field of primary education from 1854-1882 could not keep pace with the hope and aspirations of the people. The results achieved, appeared paradoxical when compared with the declaration of official policy made from time to time. The Despatch of 1854, for instance, recommended that the attention of the government should be directed towards the education of the masses. The educational survey held between 1865-66 and 1870-71 echoed the same view. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 also recommended that the strenuous efforts of the state should be directed towards the elementary education of the masses, its provisions, extension and improvement. But in spite of all these declarations, the progress in primary education continued to be slow and halting. Lewis, an educationist, felt the state of affairs so keenly that he wrote, “When a people cry for education and cannot get it, we may call it a tragedy”. Thus the mass education had not been properly dealt with.

During the last decade of the nineteenth century, attempt was made to give effect to the recommendations of the Education Commission and the official efforts secured success to some extent. Firstly, clarity was given to the organization of the primary schools. Schools for general education, whether departmental or aided, were classified as vernacular or English and as primary or secondary.\(^1\) Primary schools afforded a course of instruction, extending over five years and terminating with the examination called the Upper Primary Examination. There were five classes of which the first three formed the

\(^1\) Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1882-83, p. 259.
Lower Primary School and the remaining two the Upper Primary School. In the lower primary division of English as well as vernacular school, there was a uniform course of study, which included vernacular reading and writing, arithmetic up to the compound rules, a little Persian and the maps of the Punjab and India. In the IV and V classes English was studied in English schools and menstruation in vernacular schools.²

By and by, some changes were brought about in the curriculum of the primary schools. These changes were the result of continuous adjustment between three conflicting forces, the first of these was the ambition of the departmental officers who wanted to imitate the development in England, where subjects after subjects were added to the curriculum, second was the limiting factor; viz. the capacity of the teacher to handle the ever expanding curriculum; and the third was the desire of the average parent who demanded an instruction analogous to that of the indigenous schools with which he was familiar.³ This desire required a simplification of the curriculum and an emphasis on the three R’s—a demand that ran directly contrary to the official desire to enrich and expand the causes of study. Ultimately, a richer and varied curriculum was adopted.

In 1901-02, the lower primary courses comprised of reading and conversation, writing and dictation, arithmetic including the four compound rules and mental arithmetic, geography of the district and of the province, object lessons and elementary drill and gymnastics. Half the series of object lessons were fixed by the director for the whole province, the other half were selected locally is the District Inspectors or head masters of high schools with the approval of the Circle Inspector. This assured diversity and the adoption of the lessons to local

² Ibid.
³ Syed Nurullah, and J.P. Naïk, A History of Education in India, Bombay, 1961, p. 204.
environment.\textsuperscript{4} Broadly speaking, it can be said that the primary curriculum of 1902 was far richer than that of the indigenous schools of a century earlier.

Another significant achievement of the period was the improvement brought about in the general education and training of primary teachers. "We should enormously improve our present primary staff by weeding out incompetents, by employing none but trained men in future".\textsuperscript{5} The teachers of the new schools were better educated and a large percentage of them were also professionally trained - an idea hitherto unknown. Adequate arrangements were made for the training of teachers in the Central Training College, Lahore, which was the first institution of its kind established in India. In local board, municipal or government schools, teachers were definitely better paid but the position in aided schools was not equally happy owing to the inadequate rates of grants-in-aid.

A few changes were also brought about in the methods of teaching. The pupil-teacher system was introduced under which senior pupils were required to work as assistants to teachers in return for small stipends and were later on absorbed in the profession and trained. This system was prevalent in England for a considerable time and had assisted the expansion of education by reducing its cost. But it was later on abandoned in England and the same was done in India. On account of employment of trained teachers and adoption of new techniques like object lessons in the lower standards, teaching became more attractive.\textsuperscript{6} The crude and harsh mode of punishments tended to disappear and a more humane treatment of the child began to be noticeable. The school

\begin{itemize}
\item[2] \textit{Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department}, (Education, 1885), Secretary to Government of the Punjab to Secretary to the Government of India, Lahore, 29 November, 1884.
\end{itemize}
equipments also improved and assisted in raising the standard of education. While this achievement was a definite gain, it was counterbalanced by loss in another direction. The indigenous schools were so small in size that individual attention was paid to each pupil which could not be done in new schools.

Some other improvements brought about are as follows:

(i) Lady Inspectors were appointed to visit the female schools.

(ii) Every year two conferences, one departmental and one general, were held. The first was to be attended by the official in the department and the second by such officers together with the managers of the aided schools and other gentlemen interested in education.

(iii) The grant-in-aid rules were thoroughly revised in consultation with the managers of aided schools.

(iv) Rules were laid down for the award of grants on a liberal scale to indigenous schools.

A cursory glance over the statistical data of the Education Reports shows that finance was a great handicap in the development of education. The Secretary to the Government of the Punjab wrote to the Indian Government:

_The importance and necessity of extending the rudiments of education to the masses have been so fully recognized and so often insisted upon by His Excellency the Governor-General in Council, the Lieutenant-Governor is strongly of the opinion that this is the great and pressing educational need of the province and it is to the furtherance of this end alone that he solicits the aid of the supreme government._

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7 Sanaullah Khan, _A History of Primary Education in the Punjab_, Vol. I, Lahore, 1932, p. 76.

Still the number of schools and scholars increased every year. The number of scholars in the primary department increased from 1,06,580 to 1,11,830.\(^9\) Although the fevers during the autumn in the eastern part of the province interfered with the extension of primary education yet the number of primary schools rose from 1562 to 1672 during the year 1886-87.\(^{10}\) The large increase in the number of upper primary department schools showed that the schools in general had made satisfactory progress during the period. By 1889-90, the number of aided schools had arisen to 300 with 10,000 pupils.\(^{11}\) Still the progress was far from satisfactory.

"Only one Punjabi out of 26 living in British Punjab was literate in 1901".\(^{12}\) Thus the task of educating the masses was immense; the progress made in the mass education was poor. Still it could not get priority in the government scheme. It was Lord Curzon who, with all the solicitude of a distinguished reformer, nourished it. His penetrating eye visualized the importance of primary education. "By the end of the 19\(^{th}\) century, the Government of India fully accepted the proposition that the active extension of primary education was one of the most important duties of the State".\(^{13}\) The Resolution of 1904 concluded that the primary education had received insufficient attention and inadequate share of the public funds. It recommended that primary education "possesses a strong claim upon the sympathy both of the supreme government and of the local government and that in those provinces

\(^9\) Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1884-85, p. 16.
\(^{10}\) Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1886-87, p. 140.
\(^{11}\) Imperial Gazette of India, Provincial Series, Punjab, Vol. I, p. 139.
\(^{13}\) A. Samuel, Raj, India’s Educational Policy, New Delhi, 1984, p. 18.
where it is in a backward condition, its encouragement should be a primary obligation".  

In the field of primary education, the viceroy pushed forward his favorite plan of reform, but with a slight change in it. The assumption of the official policy ‘a few schools’ were better than ‘no school’ was entirely changed. In higher education, he emphasized quality against quantity, but in primary education, he laid stress upon expansion side by side with improvement. He felt that need for expansion of primary education then was greater than at any other time in the past. Moreover, Curzon thought that the extension of primary education was a measure which would demonstrate to the people that British bureaucracy really spoke for the ignorant and illiterate people of India. At the back of all these policies, he claimed, were the interests of “the patient, humble and silent million”.  

It was also to refute the accusation of the Indian leadership that Curzon took up the cause of primary education. Since the opposition to the British rule had come in the main from the educated classes in the cities, it seemed to him necessary to shift the emphasis from higher to primary education, from urban to rural areas and from professional to the peasantry.

With a view to improving quality of primary education he took certain measures. Firstly, he felt that the principal cause of the slow progress of primary education was the inadequacy of grants from government funds. He therefore, sanctioned non-recurring grants to primary schools. It enabled the provincial government to raise the grant-in-aid to local boards and municipalities from one-third to one half of the total expenditure and to pay these grants to private schools. Hitherto,

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the expenditure had not kept its pace with the increasing number of pupils. In 1883-84, the increase in the former was $2\frac{1}{2}$ times while in the latter it was four times.\textsuperscript{16}

Secondly, Curzon emphasized the necessity of providing a number of training institutions for primary teachers. He also directed that, as a rule, the total period of training should not be less than two years. His greatest contribution to the subject was to emphasize the training of rural primary teachers in elementary agriculture, which he desired to be taught in all the rural primary schools. These schools were mostly attended by the children of agriculturists. The salaries of these trained teachers were also increased. It was to gain better hands in the field. "It is satisfactory to note that during the year 1903-04 over 300 trained teachers left the training institutions to go to work in the different schools".\textsuperscript{17} Apart from the Government Central Training College Lahore, which imparted training to Anglo-vernacular teachers and to vernacular secondary teachers, there was a normal school at the head quarters of each circle namely at Jullundhar, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan for giving training to primary vernacular teachers.

Thirdly, Curzon emphasized the necessity of imparting liberal education in primary schools which would go much beyond the 3 R's. He desired an enrichment of the curriculum. He felt that primary education was essentially a rural problem as a great majority of the population lived in villages. The zamindari schools established in 1886 could flourish only for a short span and they were replaced by Rural Schools. The curriculum prescribed for a rural school was a compromise between the curriculum of a zamindari school and that of an ordinary

\textsuperscript{16} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1883-84, p. 155.
\textsuperscript{17} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1903-04, p. xiii.
primary school. The distinguishing feature of the new course of study was the omission of Persian and the inclusion of the native system of accounts. There was a satisfactory increase in the number of these schools. At Lahore and Multan, extra aid was arranged for practical work in agriculture.

The most important reform brought about by the viceroy was the complete abolition of the disastrous payment-by-result system recommended by Indian Education Commission of 1882. This was replaced by more scientific advanced methods of grant-in-aid.

Curzon’s move for expansion had its effects. During the succeeding years, the number of schools rose from 3,151 to 3347 in 1907-08 and the number of pupils from 106,481 to 158,312 in 1909-10. This expansion was also due to great socio-political awakening which was brought about as a result of struggle for freedom. It ushered in an era of advancement and civilization in the province along with the growth of political consciousness. The whole angle of vision was changed and outlook transformed. As a result, a beginning in the growth of the spirit of nationalism in the country had ensued. But in comparison to other states the increase was far from satisfactory, which is clear from the following table:

**TABLE-1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Primary Schools</th>
<th>High Schools</th>
<th>% of male Scholars to male population of the school going age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>38,210,362</td>
<td>23,108</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>12,373,014</td>
<td>10,686</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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18 Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1907-08, p. 47.
20 Government of India, Department of Education, Calcutta, 10 March 1911, Notification No. 310.
During the period i.e. 1911-1919 development was reported under every head. A number of changes administrative and otherwise carried out to simplify the working of departmental machinery the motive in view was to systematize the financial arrangements to strengthen the position of inspecting officers to attract better class of teachers to the institutions, to recast the courses of study and to make the institutions directly control by the department, as efficient as possible.\textsuperscript{21}

A rearrangement of the jurisdiction given to inspectors was carried out. The circle as a separate jurisdiction was abolished. The authority's sphere of an inspector was made conterminous with the commissioner's division\textsuperscript{22} The object of the change was to bring inspecting staff into closer touch with civil authorities and to make it possible for the commissioners and inspectors of irate in the educational administration of a division. The department laid down Curricula and a certain disciplinary and general rules for the whole province to check the arbitrary designs of boards. The Improvement in the pay and status of the teachers were also affected. It was also decided to check the arbitrary designs in the whole of province.

With all these efforts number of schools increased. The number of new schools added annually during the quinquennium (1912-17) were:\textsuperscript{23}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912-13</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913-14</td>
<td>468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914-15</td>
<td>394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915-16</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916-17</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{21} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 2, p. 84.
\textsuperscript{22} Sanaullah Khan, \textit{op.cit.}, p. 81.
The following figures indicate that the rate of expansion in the various districts had been very uneven and depended partly on the financial condition of the district boards and partly on the interest taken in education by the local authorities, which is clear from the following figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number of New Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lyallpur</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhang</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahpur</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhelum</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sialkot</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amirtsar</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kangra</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ludhiana</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus it was estimated in 1916-17 that five years ago there was a school for every ten villages, now there was one for every seven. But this progress was not as rapid as one time hoped. In many districts decrease in the number of pupils was reported. Many causes were attributed to this fall.

Firstly, the poor quality of much of the teaching was found to be a weak point in the primary schools and was an obstacle in the spread of education. M. Chailley, in his ‘Administrative Problems of British India’ has placed the mediocre quality of the primary school master as the first reason for the lack of reform. The comments of the Inspector of Schools, Jullundur division, also presented a gloomy picture as regards teaching in the primary schools was concerned. He observed, “of the quality of teaching generally in primary schools, it is difficult to form an estimate, efficient they certainly are not......”

24 Ibid.
The teachers were also guilty of dereliction of their duties. Imparting of education was not in any way considered to be obligatory by them. The inspector of Rawalpindi Division gave a Surprise visit, “only to find no teacher and no pupils. On enquiry from the villagers, he learnt that the teacher lived some miles away and only turned up at the school once a week, marked the registers and went away”. This was perhaps, an extreme instance but it reflected the irregularity and inefficiency on behalf of the teachers of aided elementary schools.

But it will be unfair to thrust the entire blame on the teachers. They had to work under difficult conditions. A single teacher had to struggle manfully with some forty boys, whose ages ranged from 4 to 16 whose capacities varied accordingly. The Multan Inspector described the average school masters as “more of a machine than an intelligent and thoughtful educator”. He further pointed out “he often labours under the disadvantage of being set to teach five classes. The newer subjects of study, such as practical menstruation, land records, native accounts and nature lessons are as before, the worst taught. Educational reformers are apt to regard the school as an agency for imparting a great deal of miscellaneous information which is beyond the capacity of the average teacher, who cannot always be trusted to teach the three R’s efficiently”.

Another obstacle to the extension of primary education was the lack of interest evinced by the agriculturists. For the indifference of the agriculturist to education, three reasons were generally assigned:

(a) His conservation i.e. his inability to see the advantage of education for a boy destined to become a farmer,
(b) His disinclination to spare the services of his children from field work:
(c) The unsuitability of primary school curriculum. On this subject the Jullundur Inspector wrote:

_The question of the adoption of village schools to the needs of the rural population is doubtless the most important problem in connection with primary education. The difficulty, however, was not in devising suitable time table, but in overcoming the village school master’s traditional predilection for a whole day school. As things too often are, the village school teachers set one class to do so many sums from one book, another to write so many lines of dictation, another to cram up so many pages from a geography or a grammar book, and so on under the monitor’s supervision while he himself is engaged on postal work; in setting stamped papers, writing letters or petitions for people, smoking the ‘huka’ or doing other work, and now and then taking a class in this subject or that. In this way a whole day is passed, the boys getting a short recess for meals, and when they are often useless to their parents in the fields there is no other alternative but to send them to an Anglo-vernacular school to complete their education, or to let them sit at home doing nothing till they have outlived the effect of their schooling._

All these causes retarded the development of primary education. Attempts were made to remedy these defects as far as possible. Due

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attention was paid towards the training of the teachers. It was felt that “unless there is a solid foundation, the superstructure must be worthless. What are pre-eminently required in order to improve the condition of school education, are teachers with higher qualifications, with better pay. They must also be required to reside in or near the school premises. A scheme was prepared and submitted to the Government of India in 1911. The scheme included the proportionate additions to the training institutions and the inspecting staff. Sir Louis Dane attached particular importance to the former as he believed that educational progress must largely depend on the possibility of supplying a sufficient number of good teachers. An important step forward was taken in 1910-11 by the introduction of a system of proportioning the grants made to District Boards for the extension of primary education on the basis of teachers’ salaries. The imperial and provincial grants had hitherto been distributed on rough and ready methods, lump sums being handed over to the boards according to an estimate of their probable requirements, but without any guarantee that payments on the same scale would continue. The government undertook to defray two-thirds of the salary of every teacher in a vernacular school, plus all contributions made by the boards; to teachers provident funds and half the cost of school repairs; provided a teacher for whom a salary grant was claimed should be in receipt of a minimum salary of Rs. 15/- as a head teacher and of Rs. 12/- as an assistant. During the year 1916-17, the number of trained teachers employed showed a satisfactory increase. In the district board primary school, they constituted two-thirds of the total. The training classes for teachers of lower primary schools were started in

32 Sanaullah Khan, op.cit., p. 84.
connection with vernacular middle schools, to supplement the normal schools. Some changes were made in the curriculum of the normal schools with a view to making the instruction as simple and practical as possible.

The out turn of various normal schools and training classes was fairly adequate for existing needs. The improved pay and provident funds had also checked the teacher’s tendency to desert education in pursuit of better employment. “One no longer hears the complaint”, the Jullundur Inspector observed “of teachers leaving this service to become patwaris”.  

It was further felt that no great improvement could be looked for till the number of classes taught by a single master was reduced. The committee on District Educational Finance thus recommended that “a second teacher should be employed when the average attendance in any school exceeds forty; and that no teacher should be permitted to have sole charge of more than four classes”.  

Improvements were brought about in the inspection of the institutions also. The Royal Commission recommended that “the control and the management of primary schools must be more and more that of local boards and village Panchayats and less and less that of the government”. Department boards should in the opinion of the commission, maintain their own inspecting staff, while a separate inspection on behalf of the government was necessary in order that the government might be informed of the character and working of the institutions and be able to interfere in case reform was called for.

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35 Sanaullah Khan, op.cit., p. 81.
Suggestions were also made that rural boards, should as far as possible, promote or provide education by grant-in-aid to private institutions rather than through board schools. It was required to stimulate private enterprise for the promotion of primary education in the rural tracts. In particular localities, private enterprise was ready enough to raise subscriptions to build and start schools which were made over to the district boards for management. The new rate of grants-corresponded to the popular demand for encouraging an increase in the so called indigenous type of school and consequently many of these improved up to grant-in-aid standard. The Ambala and Multan Inspectors perceived an increase in the number of the elementary schools due to the new rates of grants. "It is a hopeful sign", the Lahore Inspector said, "that all communities, Hindu, Sikh and Mohammedan in the division have begun to open elementary schools and local bodies are never slow to subsidies them". Similar views were put forth by Ambala Inspector in 1915-16, when he said, "the chief extension of primary education in the division every year is due to private enterprise. A number of schools are opened every year by the different Anjumans, Sabhas and societies".

During the year 1916, a change in the system of distributing grants to local bodies for the extension of vernacular education was introduced. The variable grants formerly assessed from year to year on the basis of salary payments and other local expenditure was converted into fixed grants. With regard to new grants from provincial revenues the Finance Committee decided the amount to be allotted for the opening of vernacular schools by local bodies and this sum was

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37 Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1915-16, p. 16.
subsequently distributed to the Boards most in need of assistance. The revision of grant-in-aid rules led to an increase in the number of aided primary schools from 744 to 41,325.\(^{38}\)

With the increase of trained teachers and strengthening of the district inspecting staff, the quality of teaching improved considerably. To meet the criticism that education spoils a ploughman, a new curriculum for primary schools was formulated. Its distinctive features were a combination of literary training with practical instruction in certain subjects. Sericulture continued to be tried in eleven primary schools in the Ambala district.\(^{39}\) Furthermore endeavors were made to shorten hours so as to give boys time to help their parents in the fields. Boys were taught to think and observe for themselves and not merely to cram text-books in such a manner as to kill the power of thinking.

In spite of these improvements, the old question of the adaption of the courses and hours of instruction in primary schools remained unsettled till 1915. The Lt. Governor regretted, “to find that Mr. Wyatt’s half time-tables which were tried in some of the schools of the Ambala Division are reported to have proved unsuccessful. The question will, doubtless, receive further consideration at the hands of the department, for till it is successfully solved; primary education will not be looked on with favour by large masses”\(^{40}\).

The question of financing primary education never received the attention which it deserved. Much was said about schemes and programmes, but too little was done in practice for carrying them into effect. Consequently in 1917, the local government issued a circular on

\(^{38}\) Ibid.
\(^{39}\) Ibid.
\(^{40}\) Ibid., p. 2.
the subject of vernacular education in district boards’ areas, in which it pointed out the need for a consistent policy for the improvement and expansion of rural education and called for an educational survey of each district in the Punjab.

In October 1907, the Governor appointed a committee on District Board Educational Financing under the chairmanship of Mr. P.J. Fogan, C.S.I. Financial Commissioner.\footnote{Sanaullah Khan, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 89.} On the basis of the survey of the province which the committee completed in March 1918, it formulated a comprehensive scheme. Following were the important recommendations of the committee pertaining to primary education:

(i) That the improvement and expansion of education in rural areas should proceed in accordance with definite five-year programmes administratively sanctioned by district boards.

(ii) The government should meet a fixed proportion to vary in accordance with the financial resources of each district board.

(iii) The status of district inspectors should be assimilated to assistant inspectors.\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}}

These recommendations were given effect to as far as circumstances permitted. With a view to having a thorough supervision of primary schools, the system of placing Assistant District Inspectors in direct charge of \textit{Tehsils} was more widely extended which proved to be satisfactory.

The recommendations of the committee, about grant-in-aid system were accepted by the government. The responsibilities of municipal boards in the matter of education were much increased. Hitherto, they were largely confined to the payment of grants to aided
primary departments according to rigid rules. The local bodies could not as yet be said to be conscious of their responsibilities. They neither took any initiative to open new municipals schools nor provided the existing schools with better accommodation.

The scheme for the expansion and improvement was further intensified in April 1918. The local government outlined its policy as follows:

_Ultimately board schools should be established at every centre an average attendance of not less than 50 children may be expected, provided that the least distance of two miles should ordinarily be between two board schools._

The year 1918-1919 was marked by the adoption of a vigorous forward policy in the matter of vernacular education. Some important alternations were made in the educational system of the province. The school classes were henceforth to be numbered from I to X. Classes I to IV were to form the primary department, V to VIII the middle department and IX and X the high department.

The change involved the reduction of the classes from five to four in the primary schools. The then Director of Public Instruction justified this measure stating that nearly half the schools were ‘single-teacher schools’. It was the unsuccessful attempt of the single teacher to cope with five classes which was largely responsible for the stagnation of pupils in the first two classes and for the other unsatisfactory features of the primary schools. It was decided that henceforth no teacher would be entrusted with more than four classes or forty pupils. The distinction between upper and lower primary schools and the term elementary

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_44 The Change was in accordance with the recommendations of the Director’s Conference of 1917, Sanaullah Khan, op.cit., p. 92._
school was abolished in 1919 and it was decided that hereafter there would be one standard primary school containing four classes.

Another concomitant change was the postponement of the teaching of English to the middle department, i.e. the fifth class, in all government and board schools. This step was taken in order to overcome the handicap from which rural boys suffered in the matter of secondary education. Hitherto English had been commenced from the fourth primary class with the result that boys starting their education in a vernacular school had to spend an extra year, when going into Anglo vernacular school, in a ‘Junior Special Class’ learning English which their more fortunate fellow pupils had learnt in the fourth and fifth classes. Latitude was given to school under private management to start English at an earlier stage in order to cater to the more highly educated classes. This change however met with some opposition, the principal argument of the critics being a probable deterioration in the standard of Matriculation English. But the opposition was repudiated on two grounds. First, educational experience showed that a shorter concentrated study of a foreign language produced better results than a longer less intensive course. Secondly, both the parents and the managements benefited by it, for the English education had always proved costly to both. By eliminating English in the lower primary classes, the parents saved school fees on the one hand and the management were relieved of the burden of extra staff on the other.

The revised scheme was adopted by most of the schools which formed a uniform standard of a primary school or primary department of a secondary school. The new primary schools opened by the local bodies in pursuance of the programme of expansion numbered 254, “a very fair figure when it is remembered that the year under report was one of considerable financial strain. Multan with 72 new schools claims credit
of opening the largest number of primary schools". It was also estimated that the Punjab compared well with the advanced provinces of the country in the field of primary education, "The upper section of the primary stage in Punjab to the total number in that state is next only to that in Bombay Presidency. We are in advance even of Bengal. In Bombay, the proportion is 31; in the Punjab it is 14.1, in Bengal it is 6.9 of the total number in the primary stage". The quality of work done in these schools also improved. The object contemplated was not merely to give literary education to the child in his own language but also to train him for his work in life to broaden his outlook.

It would have been impossible for the government to achieve so much, had the private enterprise-the Anjuman's, Sabhas Samities, Missionaries and public spirited gentlemen - not jumped in the arena of primary education. Invariably, in all the annual reports of the Educational Department, their contribution was lauded. The report for the year 1914-15, for instance records, "the various denominational agencies continue to evince much interest in the spread of education and have shown much activity in opening new schools and hostels. In the Ambala division were opened Jat High School, Rohtak, The Bengali High School, Simla, the Muslim Anglo-Vernacular primary schools, Kaithal and Simla, and the Vaish Vidyala, Bhiwani".

The activities of the Sikh community in this connection deserve special mention. Realizing the importance of primary education, the Sikh Educational Conference in 1908 paid special attention to it. It rightly understood that primary education was the foundation on which

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46 Proceedings of the Educational Conference, held at Jullundur on 11 and 12 January, 1927.
the whole edifice was to be built. During the year 1914-15, the number of primary schools for boys connected with the Chief Khalsa Diwan, rose to 49. About 2000 students were studying there, out of whom 1600 were Sikhs while 400 were non-Sikhs.\(^{48}\) No less than seventy five Sikh teachers were working in these schools. The number of primary schools rose considerably in the following years. The report of the 12\(^{th}\) session of the Educational Conference held in the year 1918, shows that about 200 Khalsa primary schools had been opened in towns and villages, though the primary education had not been started in each and every village as desired by the conference. Even then, Sikhs were definitely leading in primary education as compared with sister communities. The Chairman, Punjab Educational Conference wrote in his report:

*The time has come when private bodies should pay more attention than they have hitherto done to the establishment of elementary schools, especially in rural areas. I am glad to say that in this respect the Sikhs are decidedly ahead of other communities with the consequence that their general literacy is as high as 7%, while the male literacy for the province is only 6.3%. I understand that more than 200 primary schools are maintained by the Sikhs and the number is increasing every year.*\(^{49}\)

*Arya Samaj* was another important society in the province to promote education among the masses. The real educational work of the *Arya Samaj* started after the death of Swami Dayanand in 1883. The leaders of the moment felt that the prevailing official system of education was unsuited to their national interest. “A new system of


education wedded to the ancient ideals and traditions, was according to them, the most burning need of the day”.

With this aim in view the Samaj started its educational activities in India and in the Punjab. “Of all the societies the Arya Samaj remains the most active and has an organization in each of the five districts”. The organization rapidly covered the whole of the province and spread a network of schools. The pioneer educational institution, founded by the Arya Samaj, was the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic School, Lahore in 1886. In 1894, degree classes were added to the school. Attached to the school was Dayanand Model School for the infants. The other schools existed at Shahbad, Ambala, Kangra, Haryana, Hoshiarpur, Dasuya, Daulatpur, Nur Mahal, Nakodar, Ludiana, Patti, Amritsar, Sialkot, Dhariwal, Rawalpindi, Montgomery, Lyallpur, Multan, Simla, Kathgarh, Jullundur, Moga and Firozpur. Brahm-Maha Vidayala was another institution to the credit of the organization. It was started with the double object of providing instruction in Sanskrit and preparing missionary workers of the Arya Samaj. Diwan Narendra Nath, Deputy Commissioner of Gujranwala, gives the following account of the movement, “The Arya Samaj movement is not a new one, but there has been considerable progress made within the last ten years. A number of schools have been opened under its auspices. Indeed where a local body does not see its way to raising the status of a school, the leaders of the Arya Samaj come to the help of the people.”

The Arya Samaj paid due attention to the education of the so called untouchables or depressed classes. “Here too we entered the field,

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52 Diwan Chand, The Arya Samaj, Lahore, 1942, p. 91.
when there was none else. The first school for untouchables was ours. We took up the work at a time when there was no political impetus and when the work had to be done for work's sake''. Today D.A.V. College Managing Committee, New Delhi alone has been governing more than 500 institutions.

Missionary societies played a very conspicuous part in the spread of education in the province. They were verily "the pioneers of education in the Punjab." In the Lahore division, missionaries showed a considerable activity. Besides, high schools, "they have opened a network of elementary schools for the benefit of their low caste converts, and have established training classes to supply men and women teachers".

Besides these societies, many local bodies at certain places also undertook the work of educating the masses. The activities of the Rupar Primary School Association, which opened a number of schools, deserve mention. The association consisted of a small body of public spirited gentlemen who prepared a regular scheme for the multiplication of village schools in the Rupar tehsil of the Ambala district. "This very useful pioneer movement, the success of which had been in large measure due to the financial support of Rai Sahib Lala Banarasi Dass of Ambala, was one that deserved to find imitators in other backward parts of the province".

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56 H.R. Mehta, *op cit.*, Monograph No. 5, p. 15.
All these efforts of the government and the private enterprise resulted in the increase of the number of schools. But the fall in the attendance in spite of the increase in the number of such institutions, was serious. The decrease in the number of students was attributed by the inspectors to two main reasons; firstly, the heavy rains of the year 1916-17, which were followed by an epidemic of malaria. It was of "unusual severity, succeeded by an outbreak of plague, most severe in the Multan, Montgomery and Rawalpindi districts". These epidemics affected the school attendance very seriously, especially in the Multan Division.

Secondly, due to the Great War (1914-18), a certain number of the older pupils in the Rawalpindi Division were enlisted. A large number of senior pupils were withdrawn to work on the land owing to the absence of their fathers or elder brother on war service. A school boy of about thirteen whom the inspector found attempting to plough, explained that he was the sole male representative of his family left at home.

Moreover, the primary education during the period was far from universal. All these years, Gokhale earnestly pleaded for compulsory primary education. But the government held that for an alien government, it is "awkward and difficult, if not impossible to compel people to send their children to schools. A government of the people can more easily force them to do certain things which they do not approve of but an alien government does not want to offend the people unduly".

But the demand for free elementary education throughout India grew in insistence and intensity. It was advocated in Legislative

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59 Ibid.
60 Ibid.
Councils, at public meetings and in press; by landowners, no less than by lawyers and philanthropists. This demand was further strengthened by the fact that Gaekwar of Baroda had introduced compulsory education throughout his state in 1906. The public was not slow to point out that what was done by Gaekwar for his state, may easily be done by the British Government for its own territories. Accordingly, on 19 March, 1910, Gokhale moved a resolution in the Imperial Council that “a beginning should be made in the direction of making elementary education free and compulsory throughout the country and that a mixed commission of officials and non officials be appointed at an early date to frame definite proposals”.

The resolution was withdrawn on an assurance from the government that the whole question would be examined most carefully. The following year he introduced another bill to make better provision for the extension of elementary education. The bill was based mainly on the Compulsory Education Acts of England, 1870 and 1876 and on the Irish Education Act of 1892. The object of the bill was stated to be: to provide for gradual introduction of the principle of compulsion into the elementary education system of the country. The experience of other countries had established beyond dispute the fact that the only effective way to ensure a wide diffusion of elementary education among the mass of the people was by a resort to compulsion in some form or the other. And the time had come when a beginning at least should be made in this direction in India.

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63 Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education-A), May, 1910, Nos. 33-44.
The bill was circulated for opinion. Mazharul Haque gave his whole hearted support to the scheme of Gokhale and said,

_Our ideal is that education should become universal in India, and that every unit of the community—young or old, man or woman or child—should know how to read and write his own language and to keep his own accounts. That is our ideal and we intend to work for it, live for it, till we secure it. We may not succeed today; we may not succeed tomorrow; but we are bound to succeed sooner or later, if only the full force of public opinion is brought to bear upon the government._

The first reaction of the Government of India to Gokhale’s bill was by no means unfavorable. Some officials like Mr. Butler, Secretary to the Government of the Punjab, Education Department, agreed in principle to the proposal. But even then the bureaucracy at large ruled out the idea of compulsory education as utterly impracticable on account of financial and administrative difficulties, which in their opinion, were too formidable to be overcome. Mr. Montagu pointed out that the

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66 "Personally, I regard the provision of free elementary education as a matter of real urgency and vital consequence, not only because I foresee that we shall be forced to concede it within a year or two nor because I think that more than any measure it will remove the deep rooted belief in India and outside it, that we are afraid of education and put difficulties in the path, but mainly because I am convinced that economic and political conditions of the country require it. I am convinced that it is necessary to break down illiteracy in a country over which railways, roads and telegraphs are spreading material civilization so rapidly that it is difficult to recognize the India of today with India of twenty years ago. And I am convinced that unless we move in harmony with popular opinion in this matter we shall find control slipping through our fingers, while unaided schools of Bengal, and the Schools of Arya Samaj and the Khalsa are only a foretaste of what may come to pass in a not distant future". _Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education),_ July, 1911, No. 79. Letter; Simla, 13 May, 1911.
greatest expansion of education could be secured, not by making it free or compulsory at once but by the improvement and multiplication of schools. Disagreeing with the policy of Gokhale, Montagu has given a detailed note.\(^67\)

In spite of the official explanation, Gokhale made heroic efforts to make government accept the principle of compulsory education. Debate on his bill, lasted for two days and it became evident that the government was not then prepared to accept even a modest bill like this. As the official members were in a clear majority in the Central Legislature of that time and non-official members also were opposed to it for one reason or the other, the bill ultimately was thrown out by 38 votes against 13. This did not of course, come as a surprise to anybody, least of all to Gokhale himself. He had read situation correctly and earlier in the debate, had already referred to the expected result of the voting.\(^68\)

\(^{67}\) Mr. Gokhale thinks that Primary education as it exists at present in India is sufficiently valuable to force if on the whole school-going population of India as early as possible. We do want that universal and free education in India must come as it has come in all other countries, but the time is not yet, and I am confident, Government of India has a policy dictated for the present by the same hopes and aims as the hopes and aims of Gokhale, whose Bill, which will have a better result. We have no attitude of hostility towards the principles which inspire his bill, we and he together are working for same end, breaking down illiteracy in India. No one who knows anything about the matter can deny that his energy and his speeches have helped us to create the public opinion, without which our activity would be useless, but we believe that the greatest expansion of education can be secured not by making it free or compulsory at the present moment, but by improvement and multiplication of the schools". Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education), March, 1913, Nos. 103-108. Resolution on the Educational Policy of the Government of India, p. 9.

\(^{68}\) "My Lord, I know that my Bill will be thrown out before the day closes. I make no complaint. I shall not even feel depressed. I know too well the story of the preliminary efforts that were required even in England, before the Act of 1870 was passed, either to complain or to feel depressed. Moreover, I have always felt that and have often said that we, of the present generation
This was followed by a severe criticism of the government by the nationalists. Rash Behari Gosh said, “in a country which, with an exception of Russia, is larger than the continent of Europe, yielding a percentage of barely 7 literature men out of the vast population of over 255 millions, this is the sum total of educational progress made under a benevolent disposition during a period of 160 years and yet a modest bill introduced by a Congress man for elementary education was thrown out with a few complementary platitudes”. In the same breath it was said, “The official attitude towards a bill so moderate and so cautious as that of Mr. Gokhale fully explains the halting progress in Indian education”.

This closed the first chapter in the history of compulsory education and for all the zeal and ability with which Gokhale worked at the cause, his main object was not realized. The principles underlying the bill-modest as they appear today-were really far in advance of the times and the cautious and conservative officials of those days would not accept them as practical propositions. But Ghokhale’s efforts did not entirely go in vain. They of course, led to the creation of a Department of Education under the Government of India. They considerably strengthened the movement in favour of mass education, the awakened government to their duty regarding the education of the masses. The great activity of government in the field of primary education in the quinquennium 1912-17, was largely the indirect result of the efforts of Gokhale. King George V visited India in 1911-12 and at his Coronation, in India, can only hope to serve our country by our failures. We must be content to accept cheerfully the place that has been allotted to us in our onward march. The Bill, thrown out today, will come back again and again, till on the stepping stones of its dead selves, a measure ultimately rises which will spread the light of knowledge throughout the land”.

69 Annie Besant, Private Papers, (Microfilm) N.M.M.L., New Delhi.

70 Ibid.
a recurring grant of Rs. 50,00,000 was assigned to popular education. This was followed by the Government Resolution on Educational Policy, dated 21 February 1913, which emphasized the necessity of “the widest possible extension of primary education on a voluntary basis”. Thus the Resolution expressed a hope that although improvement would be the main aim of government, it would not neglect expansion and that step would be taken to double the number of schools and pupils. This was perhaps the utmost which could be expected from alien rulers in a subject country.

Soon the work of Gokhale was taken up at provincial level by Vithalbhai J. Patel, another great leader of the Indian National Movement. His bill for the introduction of compulsory primary education in municipal areas was accepted by the Bombay Legislative Council and became the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1918. The example of Patel was imitated extensively. Based on the general plan of his bill, several acts for compulsory education were passed before 1921.

The echo of all these activities in the country, were heard in the Punjab also. The Punjab Government declared that “it is in full sympathy with the aspirations of the Legislative Council and accepts the basic principle that the ultimate aim of the government should be to make elementary education universal”. But it was also that compulsion was only possible where public opinion favored it. The government asserted that state should use its best endeavor to destroy ignorance and to create efficiency among its people. In order to achieve literacy it was essential that there should be a public system of at least primary schools. Poverty being a main obstacle, schools therefore, must be free. If the

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will to attend was still lacking, in that case compulsion may be resorted to.

The Education Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission remarked, “In our opinion responsibility for mass education rests primarily with the states”. It further emphasized that education was essential to build up character, to quicken intelligence, to arouse dormant faculties, to stimulate thought and preserve a desire for a healthy and active life. But it was a hard fact that elementary education was not given the importance it deserved. It was compared that Great Britain spent more than 93 crores of rupees annually on elementary education, while the Punjab with about half the population, spent only about 70 lakhs on its primary education.\(^3\)

By this time, the public opinion also started thinking about the compulsion in the province. *The Panjabee* (Lahore) of 26\(^{th}\) January, 1917, deplored that “the question of introducing compulsory education in the British India has been postponed for an indefinite period, not withstanding the fact that small states like Indore and Bhopal have introduced it in their territories with much difficulty”.\(^4\) It was observed that there were two important measures needed for the success of a nation-wide programme of introducing Universal, Free and Compulsory Primary Education. The first in priority was a sustained campaign for educating public opinion so that parents might send their children and particularly daughters to schools. The second important aspect of this enrolment problem was to assist the poor and needy parents by providing school uniforms, text books and school meals for the children.

\(^3\) *Proceedings of the Punjab Government Committee*, (Ministry of Education), No. 26628/A, 5 December, 1935, p. ii.

\(^4\) *Selections from the Indian Newspapers, Punjab*, Examined upto 22 April, 1916, p. 108.
It was felt that these basic needs must be met. With it the programme of compulsory education was to be made effective.

Strange as it may appear, it was during the darkest days of the Great War (1914-18) that the Punjab Government resolved to adopt two of the most important measures for the education of the masses. One of these was the great scheme of expansion and improvement of vernacular education, known as the five year programme, which was drawn up by a committee of educational experts on 1st April 1918. This measure would bring education practically within the reach of every village boy. It established a sound vernacular system in the province.

The other pertained to free and compulsory primary education. It was in the budget debate in April, 1917 that certain members of council ventured to press the desirability of introducing free and compulsory education in the provinces. After collecting materials and evidences from other provinces, a bill was drafted on the lines of Gokhale’s bill of 1911. It was circulated for public opinion and criticism. Opinions were divergent. Some officials held that the time was not ripe for the application of the scheme. A strong controversy also arose on the length of the compulsory course. Some held that it should be for four years and others that it should be for six years or at least five. The bill was finally passed in 1919.

The outstanding features of this act were:-

(a) That the introduction of compulsion was left to the local authority with the sanction of government;
(b) that it was confined to the age between six and eleven years or where necessary between seven and twelve;
(c) that it was not extended to the boys outside a radius of two miles from the school;
(d) And that no fees were to be charged.
Although the act was passed in 1919, no action was taken for two years. By that time the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed which introduced Dyarchy in the province. Education was made a ‘transferred subject’-its administration was handed over in every province to Indian Minister, elected by the people. It was thus placed directly under popular control. European education was kept as a reserved subject under the control of the Finance Minister Member. The persons, who held charge of the department of education as ministers during the working of dyarchy in Punjab were Sir Fazl-i-Hussain, Chaudhry Chhotu Ram, Manohar Lal and Feroz Khan Noon. Each of these ministers was keenly interested in the fast development of this “nation-building department”.\(^{75}\)

The expansion of education was considered an urgent need, for in 1920 of a total population of 20.75 million in Punjab only less than 3 percent of the total population was receiving instruction at schools or colleges.\(^ {76}\) Under the Reform Scheme, the expansion of primary education was regarded a problem of priority and a number of steps were taken for its development in the province. The curriculum was simplified and made suitable for rural conditions, school hours were adjusted to make them acceptable to the parents who found it difficult to spare their children from work in the field.\(^ {77}\) More attention was paid to the backward districts. Efforts were made to arrange for teaching staff from the particular area and community, who would take a genuine interest in the development of the children. Another important step taken in the advancement of primary education was the organization of small


groups of members of cooperative educational societies. They voluntarily agreed to bind themselves to send their wards to school for full course of four primary classes. In this way compulsion was not superimposed but efforts were made to create the initiative from within.

By 31 July, 1922 the Municipal Committees of Lahore and Multan had introduced compulsory primary education in their respective jurisdiction. By the end of the year 1925-26, compulsion had been introduced in 42 towns and 451 rural areas.78 Punjab was ahead of the other provinces in the country in introducing compulsory primary education in the rural areas. The position in 1937 was that out of about five lakh villages in India, only about 13,072 villages had been brought under compulsion, and of these as many as 10,450 were in Punjab alone. The overall results of all these measures for the development of primary education was that within six years under the reforms, secondary education had doubled and university education trebled, while primary education increased by more than ten times. In 1916-21 the increase in the enrolment of primary schools was 3.82 percent and it rose to 42.82 per cent in 1921-27.79

Yet, the actual fact was that the progress of education in Punjab during the period of dyarchy was much less satisfactory then what appears from the official’s reports and far below the expectations of the nationalists. Even at the end of the decade, no more than 5.9 percent of the total population of the Punjab was in recognized schools.80 In the field of primary education, an analysis of the statistics regarding

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80 The Tribune, Lahore, 1 August, 1934.
enrolment in various primary classes is revealing and significant. Enrolment of Pupils 1926-27 was as follows.\(^8\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Class</td>
<td>441,00 pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Class</td>
<td>178,00 pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Class</td>
<td>96,000 pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Class</td>
<td>83,000 pupils</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This shows the wastage at primary level. The situation did not improve much during the following decade. Thus the progress of primary education during the period was not satisfactory. Though education was put under the charge of the popular ministers, but they had to work under various handicaps. The biggest obstacle was the financial stringency. The financial assistance given to the provinces came to a naught under dyarchy. Moreover, the keen interest that the Central Government showed in educational matters too, came to a sudden end. A Central Advisory Board of Education was organized to co-ordinate and assists the provincial governments which unfortunately, were abolished in 1923. It is this absence of central grants and interest in education that Hartog Committee described as the ‘unfortunate divorce of the Government of India form education’.

The worst effect of the Reforms Scheme of the department of education was that it led to communal cleavage. It was alleged that appointments and promotions were made with communal point in view. So much so that grants to privately managed schools were distributed with a communal bias. Thus, the years from 1920-22 were a period of economic distress and political unrest. As a protest against the Montford Reforms, Gandhiji launched the Non-cooperation Movement. The attention of the public was concentrated more on political than on educational problems. To add to these difficulties the world came in the

\(^8\) Virinder Singh, op.cit., p. 57.
grip of economic depression which affected heavily all nation building departments and more particularly education. The number of the primary schools and pupils during 1919-29 was as given in the following table.\textsuperscript{82}

**TABLE NO-2**
Number of Primary Schools and the Pupils 1919-1929

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Scholars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1919-20</td>
<td>5162</td>
<td>228257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920-21</td>
<td>5369</td>
<td>239187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>5624</td>
<td>482394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922-23</td>
<td>5723</td>
<td>528760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923-24</td>
<td>5679</td>
<td>351446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924-25</td>
<td>5562</td>
<td>353258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925-26</td>
<td>5714</td>
<td>377169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>5908</td>
<td>393010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927-28</td>
<td>5691</td>
<td>389343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928-29</td>
<td>5516</td>
<td>363290</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As compared to other provinces of the country the progress was far from satisfactory.

**TABLE-3**
Primary Schools for the Boys 1926-27.\textsuperscript{83}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>46,389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>12,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>35,621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>5908</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1929, the Hartog Committee was appointed as an auxiliary to Statutory Commission to review the position of education in the country. In the field of primary education, the committee recommended

\textsuperscript{82} Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1920-21 to 1928-29.

\textsuperscript{83} Ninth Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India, 1922-27, p. 164.
a policy of consolidation and improvement in preference to hasty expansion, four years duration of the primary course curriculum to be liberalized, school hours to be adjusted to seasonal and local requirements be established over the local bodies to improve efficiency.\textsuperscript{84}

There was a varied reaction to the report by the official and non-official agencies. The official view was predominantly in favour of the consolidation which had already been laid down by the Government Resolution of 1913. On the other hand, the non-official opinion was in favour of expansion, rather a rapid expansion. They felt that the increase in the number of illiterates was far greater than the increase in number of literates, “that education must pour and not trickle”. About the quality, the non-official view held that in a country like India where 92 per cent of its population is still illiterate, the first attempt of the government should be to banish illiteracy and the quality should come after illiteracy has been liquidated.

Consequently, primary education could make little headway during the period 1927-37, due to the wide disparity amongst the two versions and due to financial stringency caused by world economic depression. “Expenditure has been cut down in all directions; the pace of expansion has been retarded; political life has been disturbed; communal bitterness has been accentuated”.\textsuperscript{85} In spite of this, there was some development in the field of the primary education though stress had been on improvement and expansion of the existing schools rather than on the opening of new ones.

\textsuperscript{84} Hartog Committee Report, 1929, p. 346.
In order to encourage the attendance of the students in schools, Parents’ societies were formed. Even the members of the co-operative societies did much to popularize education in rural areas. A proposal was made to provide legislation against the parents who withdraw their wards before they had been in schools till four years. It would mean compulsion applied to pupils who once admitted to the schools than to those who had not attended any school. Fall in the number of ‘Single Teacher Schools’ was the redeeming feature of the quinquennium.

Necessity to encourage education in rural areas and among the rural population was realized. The teaching was made more akin to their needs and environment. It was decided to include and provide for teaching in agriculture in ordinary vernacular schools and not to open special schools. The teaching was done by the teachers who had done a special course in agriculture. A Rural Community Board at headquarters and district community councils had been instituted to supervise and to organize these forms of activity. Annual refresher courses were held at specially selected training schools. It raised the standard of teaching and the efficiency of the schools.

The most effective means of improvement however lay in an adequate supply of well-trained and well-qualified teachers. J.A.V. classes were started in the Government Intermediate College at Lyallpur and Multan. The course of Senior Vernacular teachers was extended from one to two years. The experiment proved a success in producing men of better qualifications, deeply interested in rural uplift. The salaries of the trained teachers were increased. A trained junior teacher now began on Rs. 20/- a month and rose by increments to a maximum of Rs. 50/- a month or even more, while a senior teacher started with Rs.

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30/- a month and advanced by increments to a maximum of Rs. 70/- a month. The inspecting staff, too, was strengthened. A post of Deputy Inspector was created in each administrative division. The new officer was to assist the divisional inspector in the discharge of his duties. The angle of vision with regard to the inspection of schools had changed considerably. Mr. Man Mohan, wrote, “An inspection was no longer a dreaded event, for inspecting officers now go as friends, Philosophers and guides rather than as members of a committee of inquisition; the inspectors are helpers and guides rather than destructive critics and tyrants”.

In spite of these efforts, much could not be achieved due to financial stringency. This period was considered to be a lean period. Instead of expansion, there had been on a ruthless tendency to see where money could be saved. Mr. Wilson (Ambala) then wrote, “The financial condition of the district boards has steadily deteriorated during the quinquennium and in Gurgaon and Hissar districts, the problem is not so much how to maintain existing schools, as how to avoid bankruptcy. There was a constant fall in the numbers for some years in succession which is clear from the following statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Scholars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1930-31</td>
<td>1,385,841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-32</td>
<td>1,333,567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932-33</td>
<td>1,295,770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933-34</td>
<td>1,280,754</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

88 Ibid., p. 8.
Analyzing the causes of the falling numbers, the Punjab Government put it on record that this decline may indicate that the educational system does not entirely satisfy the requirements of the community in rural or urban areas. The decline must receive the serious attention of the Education Department, for the figures seem to indicate that the goal of compulsory education is receding.\(^{89}\) Moreover, the rise in the salaries of teachers was far from satisfactory. And more than once the teachers had to do extra work such as private tuitions or postal work to augment their finances.

In the year 1935, Government of India Act was passed. It was a step further in the onward march of India to complete political independence. The defective diarchic system of administration was abolished and the whole field of provincial administration was placed under a Minister responsible to legislature. This new system of governance came into operation in 1937 which was popularly known as Provincial Autonomy. It was hoped that the new ministers would be able to plan educational reconstruction with a bold and free hand and execute its affairs with more vigor and firmness. But after two years only, Second World War broke out. It sapped the energies and exhausted the resources of the country. Communal dissensions and financial stringency made it difficult to work out a new and uniform policy of education. The Congress Ministries were formed at various intervals. They did try to grapple with the problems of education and tried to implement schemes. Literacy movement or Adult Education Movement, education of women and similar other projects of mass

education were launched with great vigorous and zeal. The Provincial Government undertook certain bold experiments, such as Basic Education or Wardha Scheme enunciated by Mahatma Gandhi at the elementary level. It contained following proposals;

(i) Free, Universal and compulsory education should be provided for all boys and girls between the age of 7 and 14.

(ii) Education should be taught through the mother tongue of the child, and English should not be taught at this stage.

(iii) All education should centre on some basic crafts chosen with due regard to the capacity of the children and the needs of the locality. The committee suggested spinning and weaving, cardboard and wood-work, kitchen gardening and agriculture as obviously suitable crafts.

(iv) The selected craft should be so taught and practiced that it will make children into good craftsmen and enable them to produce articles which can be used and which may be sold to meet the expenditure of the school.

Thus Mahatma Gandhi aimed at a comprehensive system of education that would develop the total personality of the individual in harmony with society and nature. He believed in the type of education which would be a synthesis of mental, physical and spiritual training. In his own words, "By education, I mean an all round drawing out of the best in child and man-body, mind and spirit." The scheme, however, could not make much headway in the province due to the apathy of the government officials and lack of trained teachers who could not use

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handicraft as a medium of education. So they usually followed the traditional method of teaching.

British Government in India was now too occupied with World War II to look to a subject like education. Moreover, in 1942, Quit India Movement was launched. All important leaders were put behind the bars. So nothing tangible could be achieved in the field of primary education from 1939-44. It is thus regarded as a ‘dark period’ for the education of the country.93

In 1944, post war efforts for the development of education began. Sir John Sargent, the Educational Advisor to the Government of India prepared a scheme, known as Sargent Report. It provided free and compulsory education for boys and girls between the age group of 6 to 14 years and pre-primary schools to be opened for children between 3 to 6 years. It suggested an education to “prepare them (children) to learn a living as well as to fulfill themselves as individuals and discharge their duties as citizens”. But its recommendations could not be implemented because of lack of finance and political turmoil the country was going through. Thus fluctuating trends were witnessed in the number of schools though there was a marginal increase in the number of scholars from 1937 to 1947.94

TABLE-4
Number of Schools and Scholars 1937-1947

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Scholars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1937-38</td>
<td>5858</td>
<td>378674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938-39</td>
<td>5922</td>
<td>386929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939-40</td>
<td>6002</td>
<td>396044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940-41</td>
<td>6088</td>
<td>402736</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In 1945, war came to an end. The Congress again formed its ministry. In 1940, an Interim Government under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru was formed. The Central Education Department was now called Central Ministry for Education. Maulana Abul Kalam Azad became the first education minister of the Government of India. The Interim Government took special interest in the educational matters and many new schemes were envisaged.

Thus a peep into the above study reveals that since the Despatch of 1854, a good number of commissions were appointed which reviewed and revised the state of education, but definite results could not be achieved. The need for educating the masses was realized during the second half of the nineteenth century but no systematic effort was made to fulfill the need. Due to the increase in population a gap between the literates and illiterates kept on increasing. Compulsion was still a dream to be fulfilled. Local bodies were unwilling and incapable of carrying out the policy of compulsion due to lack of qualified teachers and financial crunch. The policy of consolidation followed by Hartog Commission further retarded the progress of primary education. Many schools were closed down on the ground that they were running under precarious conditions. With the inauguration of provincial autonomy in 1937, ministers were given a free hand in the working, but their hands got tied up with the outbreak of Second World War, for the resources of money, men and material were diverted towards war. The broader and higher ideals of education enunciated by Gandhi in his Wardha Scheme
did not get the support from the government. There was no dearth of schemes, but for their implementation, financial resources and proper environment was needed. The political atmosphere had got charged with the communal rivalry. The virus of communalism had infected almost every section of the society. Thus it was left to free India to implement the nobler policies and to frame new ones to make primary education suitable to the needs and requirements of the century.

Secondary education is that important stage of the educational infrastructure that it reflects what has been gained at the primary stage and lays foundation for the higher edifice. High schools are the feeders to the universities and the colleges. It makes a climax in the schooling of a child because what goes before it, leads up to it and what follows, flows from it. Curzon rightly observed, “Indeed we can not expect to have good colleges without good schools”.

With the establishment of the Education Department, the rate of expansion in the secondary education was rapid. A high school, besides having its high department also contained primary as well as middle departments. These high schools were either Vernacular or Anglo-Vernacular. The vernacular secondary course completed the education of the pupils who had a desire to carry their schooling in their mother tongue somewhat beyond the primary stage. The teaching of English was the prime object throughout the course and in higher classes; instruction in all subjects was given through the medium of English.

Indian Education Commission lay down that the government should withdraw as early as possible from the direct management of secondary schools. It encouraged Indian private enterprise and awakened public enthusiasm for the cause of education in the country. Consequently, the twenty years following the report of the commission saw a very rapid expansion in the field of secondary education. The yearly reports on progress of education in the Punjab show that the
expansion of secondary schools was steady and continuous in this province. At the close of the year 1882-83, the number of boys attending high schools was 674 against 502 at the close of the previous year.\textsuperscript{95} Till the close of the year the Jullundur High School was the only purely vernacular school in the province while vernacular departments were attached to the High School at Ludhiana.\textsuperscript{96} The Jullundur and Ludhiana schools had been very successful, but for a newly established special class at Ludhiana. The students who had passed the Middle School Examination in the vernacular drew away the majority of them who would have otherwise joined the vernacular high school. There were no aided vernacular secondary schools. The Ambala and Lahore Circle contained a great majority of the middle vernacular schools which numbered 129 in the province. These schools were the source from which the teachers in vernacular schools were supplied. Formerly, these schools were called Tehsil schools and later on known as Town schools.

During the year 1883-84, the number of scholars studying in vernacular secondary schools increased by 7\% and in Anglo-Vernacular schools by 19\%.\textsuperscript{97} While the numbers increased largely, the percentage of passes decreased considerably, especially in the Anglo-Vernacular side. The reason of this falling off was believed to be the difference of the standards, which were quite low in 1882-83 and markedly high in 1883-84. The progress of secondary education during the year was considerable on the whole and was almost extended to every district in the province. The advance was proportionately greater in the high than in the middle department and in Anglo-Vernacular than in Vernacular

\textsuperscript{95} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1882-83, p. 267.
\textsuperscript{96} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{97} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1883-84, p. 152.
Schools. The former fact shows that the higher education was rapidly growing in the estimation of the people.

During the year 1884-85, a change was brought about in the classification of schools in terms of the Government of India rules. Previously High, Middle and Primary departments of a school were treated as separate schools. Henceforth, all these branches made a single high school. It was a healthy step in the sense that it circumscribed the mushroom growth of the secondary schools. The statistics of the year show that the progress of secondary education throughout the province was satisfactory. In the year 1889-90, there was an increase in the number of boys in the aided schools. Having passed the vernacular examination, they joined an Anglo-Vernacular school to study English—a fact which shows the dominance of English over the whole education as it opened doors for lucrative jobs. During the year 1901-02, the number of secondary schools was 372 or 24 more than in the previous year. Out of it, 250 were Anglo-Vernacular, 119 Vernacular, 1 aided and 2 unaided schools.

Thus from the annual reports on education, it is clear that indeed there was an expansion of secondary education during 1882-92. But this expansion was not an unmixed blessing. Very early in the period, the system of secondary education developed some serious defects, like neglect of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction. The idea of teaching through the mother tongue was limited to the middle stage only. There were only four high schools imparting instruction through the mother tongue as against 181 teaching through English which shows

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how the system drifted far away from the ideals of Wood’s Despatch.\(^{100}\) The commission said nothing regarding the use of the mother tongue as the medium at the high school stage. More so, it did not make any definite recommendation to decrease the dominance of English. Thus the study of English was frequently begun even before the pupil had obtained a good knowledge of his mother tongue. The study of Indian languages was consequently, neglected.

Secondly, the recommendations of the commission about the training of teachers were too, “tame to be really progressive”. Till 1901-02, there was only one training institute at Lahore for this purpose. Up in the Secondary course there was absence of vocational training. The Despatch of 1854 contemplated the provision for pre-vocational instruction at the secondary stage.\(^{101}\) But this advice was neglected by later administrators. Passing the matriculation examination was the main objective of the students who flocked to secondary schools as it would provide them with a job or would get them admission in the university. “Here education was required not primarily as an instrument of culture or the source of learning, but as the key to employment”.\(^{102}\)

Thus the matriculation examination dominated the field of secondary education almost as exclusively as in 1902, as it did in 1882. During the closing decades of the 19\(^{th}\) century, therefore, secondary education presented a strange mixture of good and evil. On the one hand, there was considerable expansion, on the other; most of the institutions which sprang up were weak, under staffed, and incapable of


\(^{101}\) *Wood’s Despatch*, 1854, p. 8. “New schools, should provide more opportunities than now exist for the acquisition of such an improved education as will make those, who possess it, more useful members of society in every sphere of life”.

affording individual attention to the needs of the students. Many schools depended mostly on fees and thrived rather than as coaching institutions than as centers of learning. Thus the efficiency of a number of schools was far from satisfactory.

These shortcomings which have crept up in the progress, engaged Lord Curzon’s attention seriously in the opening years of the 20th century. Curzon categorically stated his new policy towards secondary education in 1904, which was put in practice during 1904-08. It had two important aspects ‘control’ and ‘improvement’. With regard to the first, the government tried to control private enterprise in a number of ways. Firstly, it was compulsory for the secondary schools to seek recognition by the department. It had been the opinion of the Indian Education Commission that the department should prescribe the conditions on which grant-in-aid would be given to private schools and that managers who did not ask for aid (or did not obtain it) should be left free to develop their schools on their own lines. During 1882-1902 the department laid down fairly comprehensive codes for the guidance of aided institutions but did not make any serious attempt to regulate unaided schools. This view was now given up and it was argued that government ought to control all private secondary schools, whether aided or unaided. The Government Resolution of 1904 explains this policy in the following words:

Whether these schools are managed by public authority or by private persons, and whether they received aid from public funds or not, the government is bound in the interest of the community to see that the education provided in them is sound. It must, for example, satisfy itself in each case that a secondary school is actually wanted; that its financial stability is assured; that its managing body, where there is one is properly
constituted; that it teaches proper subjects up to a proper standard, that due provisions have been made for the instruction, health, recreation and discipline of the pupil; that the teachers are suitable as regards character, number and qualification. Such are the conditions upon which schools should be eligible to receive grant-in-aid and will be ranked as recognized schools.¹⁰³

Secondly, in addition to the recognition granted by the department, secondary schools had to obtain recognition from the university as the Matriculation Examination was conducted by the university. This could have been a great weapon to control. But prior to 1904, it had little value in practice. The regulations on the subject were generally defective and even such regulations as existed were often loosely administered. The university had no agency for the inspection of the schools and consequently had to depend upon the information supplied by the schools themselves. As the university and the department worked independently of each other in matters of recognition, a conflict was not infrequent. Under the Indian Universities Act of 1904, however, regulations were framed by all universities for the recognition of schools. These regulations laid down the conditions which must be fulfilled by a recognized secondary school and closed the back door entry by forbidding admission of candidates to the matriculation from unrecognized schools. Similarly, regulations were also framed with a view to minimizing the conflict between the department and the university.

Thirdly, automatic transfer of pupils from unrecognized to recognized schools was prohibited in order to control the privately

¹⁰³ *Indian Universities Bill, 1904, Debate etc. Extracts from the Proceedings of the Council of the Governor-General of India Assemblies* for the purpose of making laws and regulations under the provisions of the Indian Councils Act. p. 87.
managed schools. The schools generally valued the departmental recognition for the purpose of grants and university recognition for purpose of the matriculation. But both these allurements would have had no effect on the schools which did not receive or hope for a grant-in-aid (and hence did not mind recognition by the department being refused or withdrawn) or which did not teach up to the matriculation (and hence did not come under the control of the university). As the number of such schools was fairly large, a method had to be devised for bringing them under control. This was done by prohibiting transfers of pupils from unrecognized to recognized schools. The Director of Public Instruction observed:

*The rule was quite effective for the purpose; it closed to the pupils of the unrecognized schools admission to recognized school and consequently to the Matriculation and Upper examination and under present conditions no school which does not lead to one or other of these examinations can hope to succeed.*

In the face of this disability, no unrecognized school could hope to thrive under the new system. Recognition ceased to be a mere advantage. It became a condition for the very existence of these schools. This enabled the department to bring almost all the secondary schools under its effective control and supervision.

The new policy of control by the department and the university was not framed without opposition. It was argued that the attempt of the government to control private secondary schools was political in origin and was intended to curb the growth of national feelings and private Indian enterprise. “In the small number of the educated intelligentsia lay

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the safety of the alien rule”. Even from the educational point of view, it would be difficult to justify the new policy in toto. It is of course true that the old policy of *laissez-faire* had underscored its utility and that a control over the private enterprise was needed. But the new policy carried the things too far. The control of the government was excessive, rigid and mechanical. With the result, the number of secondary schools and the pupils started falling and more so in the privately managed institutions. “During the year 1903-04, the total number of pupils in Anglo-Vernacular schools fell from 39,730 to 39,342 and in vernacular schools from 17,553 to 17,407; the decrease in the former is confined to institutions under private management whilst the government and board schools have an upward tendency, however, small”.

Next year again, there was a decrease in the number of secondary schools. During the year 1904-05, Anglo-Vernacular schools fell from 179 to 177 and Vernacular schools from 119 to 112. The number of pupils reading in the secondary stage of government and board schools has risen by 157, in aided schools by 28 and in unaided schools has fallen by 344”.

The decrease in the numbers, however, cannot be attributed entirely to the government policy. It was due partly to the effects of plague and partly, of course, to the exclusion of unrecognized institutions from the list of public schools. Nevertheless, the development in the field was conspicuous in the later years.

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105 Annie Besant, *India-Bond or Free?* London, 1926, p. 120.
The second object of Curzon’s policy in secondary education was to improve the quality of instruction. With this end in view, he adopted the following measures:

(i) Large grants were sanctioned to Provincial Governments in order to improve the efficiency of government schools so that they could serve as models to private enterprise. The additional amount thus made available was utilized in erecting buildings and hostels, improving the salaries of the staff and in purchasing necessary equipment etc.

(ii) Large funds were sanctioned for increasing the grant-in-aid to private schools so as to enable them to come up to the standard of government institutions.

(iii) The necessity of training secondary teachers was emphasized and an impetus was given to the starting of new institutions for the purpose.

(iv) The inspectorate was greatly strengthened, better paid and made more efficient, so as to be able to exercise a rigorous control over secondary schools.

(v) It was also recommended that the mother tongue should be invariably used as the medium of instruction at the secondary stage. The Resolution of 1904 made it clear that “it has never been part of the policy of the government to substitute the English language for vernacular dialects of the country”. The Viceroy emphasized the importance of the modern Indian languages because he knew that the European knowledge could be best communicated through them to the masses.

The policy of Lord Curzon found its culmination after him. During 1905-1919 witnessed remarkable improvement and expansion in

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109 *Indian Universities Bill, 1904, Debate etc.*, p. 60.
the secondary education. This expansion was achieved mainly through private enterprise and was in no small measure, due to the great social and political awakening in those days. Under Secretary to the Punjab Government reported to the Joint Secretary, Government of India, “The numerical increase in the secondary schools has in recent years been comparatively rapid and that private enterprise in the more advanced districts is active in promoting such schools”.\textsuperscript{110}

In the province, there were about 12 high schools which maintained clerical and commercial classes. “About two boys in a hundred who pass out from the high school came from these classes”.\textsuperscript{111}

The course of studies included English précis writing and correspondence, General and Commercial Geography, Book Keeping and Commercial Arithmetic. A committee under the presidency of Sir D. Masson reported that in the curriculum, short hand be included and that final courses were too technical; these subjects be taught in the higher classes and the time thus saved be used for more thorough grounding in English.

A Text-book committee was formed under the chairmanship of Director, Public Instruction. It held that the managers of the aided schools were required to prescribe only those books which were included in the list recommended by the State Government. Even the unaided but recognized schools were also required to abstain from using any book disapproved by the local government.

An interesting feature of the quinquennium ending 1907 was that even the private bodies opened Anglo-Vernacular schools. The Lahore Inspector remarked, “Wherever a secondary school is opened by the

\textsuperscript{110} Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education), 12 September, 1919, No. 209.

\textsuperscript{111} FifthQuinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India, 1902-07, Vol. I. p. 74.
people, it is always Anglo-Vernacular. That the number of pupils in vernacular schools has fallen is a proof of the strong desire on the part of the public to teach English to their children. The change was alarming and the officials started feeling that instead of spending money on English Model Schools, it was time to give some attention to vernacular secondary education which had been very much left in the cold.

A letter written by M. Subha Rao to H. Buttler, Lahore, 7 April, 1911, expressed his concern for the same.

*It is necessary that vernacular secondary schools should be started by the government, one in each district at least, instead of model English secondary schools and nursed on the same principles on which English schools were nursed. These schools, if properly organized and fostered, will become a good feeder to the professional and Arts colleges as the English secondary schools, with the advantage, that the students therein will be trained through their own vernacular without much waste of their energy.*

These views could not get a place in the Educational Policy of the Government declared in March, 1913.

*We propose in secondary education to extend our model schools where required and not to replace private or aided schools, but to co-operate with them and set an example of standard. Only graduates will be employed as teachers. It is hoped to establish a graded service with salaries from 40 to 400 rupees a month. We want to establish a school course complete in itself with a curriculum comparable to the school course on the*

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112 Ibid.
modern side of an English Public school, giving manual training and science teaching. There is to be an increase in grants to privately managed schools and we want to provide proper hostel accommodation.\textsuperscript{114}

This policy marked a clear departure from the policy recommended by the Indian Education Commission-withdrawal by the government for direct management of educational institutions. The Government Resolution of 1913 however stated that it was the duty of the government to maintain its existing institutions as ‘models’ to the private enterprise.

After this declaration, the increase in the number of secondary schools and pupils attending them was, as the Director observed, “unprecedented”. The yearly reports on education confirm that every year progress was made in one or the other fields of education. During the year 1914-15, the number of secondary schools increased to 379 or by 35 and the number of pupils from 97,870 to 101,584.\textsuperscript{115} The Jullundur Division, with 3 high and 8 middle schools headed the list of the new Anglo-Vernacular institutions. The next year, (1915-16), there were 413 secondary schools; of these 131 were high schools, 131 Anglo-Vernacular middle schools and 151 Vernacular middle schools. The number rose to 422,\textsuperscript{116} of which 136 were high schools, 135 Anglo-Vernacular middle, and 151 Vernacular middle schools. During the year there was a school for every seven villages as compared to for every ten during 1911-12.

The quality of teaching improved hand in hand with quantity. There was a marked increase in the number of trained teachers. The Lt.

\textsuperscript{114} Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education), March, 1913, Nos. 103-108.

\textsuperscript{115} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1914-15, p. 76.

\textsuperscript{116} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1916-17, p. 68.
Governor thinks that an increase of 62% in the number of trained teachers within four years shows that the needs of the province in this respect are not being overlooked.\textsuperscript{117}

With the grading of trained teachers, there was a general improvement in the methods of teaching, especially in English. The direct method of language teaching was now better understood and with understanding, it was better appreciated, so much so that the headmasters who had viewed its introduction with distrust hitherto, spoke enthusiastically in its favour at the Education Conference held at Lahore in 1917. Agriculture was also becoming increasingly popular as a subject. The weakest subjects in curriculum, however, were reported to be History, Geography and Urdu. This was primarily due to the fact that students being poor could not have an access to these books. Library facilities were not provided to them. The adoption of the vernacular medium for the instruction in the middle departments of Anglo-Vernacular schools for all the subjects was strongly recommended by the Conference. It marked a definite break with the past. The change met with practically unanimous support from all interested in education. Two more important changes in the curriculum of vernacular middle schools were under consideration:

(i) The introduction of practical agriculture;

(ii) The introduction of optional English.\textsuperscript{118} It was tentatively adopted in the Lyallpur and Jullundur Districts. There was little doubt that it would gradually be adopted in the majority of the vernacular middle schools.

\textsuperscript{117} Proceedings of the Government of India, Home Department, (Education), No. 286. Letter written by Under Secretary to Government of Punjab to the Secretary to the Government of India.

\textsuperscript{118} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1917-18, p. 7.
Among the other highlights of the period, a Manual Training Centre was opened by Mr. Buchaman in Lahore in 1915. The idea of manual training was new to the secondary schools. It was, however, demanded that subjects after subjects must not be piled up in the course. The progress achieved in these non-literary subjects was satisfactory.

The record of the secondary schools of the province during the War was commendable. It appeared that the younger generation had inherited to the full, the traditions of their fore-fathers. A splendid response was made by the teachers and pupils to the appeals made by the government. They subscribed liberally to the various war funds. In the Government High School, Amritsar for instance, the amount contributed to the Punjab Aeroplane fund was Rs. 500/-.\textsuperscript{119} In the Jullundur Division many schools were undertaking the work of supplying furniture to be used by the sick and wounded soldiers, instruction in first aid was given to the Government High School Ferozpur District. Lectures on temperance were given in some of the schools by Master Sant Singh of Amritsar.\textsuperscript{120} Numerous lectures were also delivered on the war by the staff and others. So much was the impact that the pupils in many cases wanted to forgo their prizes so that the money might be sent to the Red Cross or the Comforts Fund organized for the troops in the field. Still more, in the Rawalpindi Division alone, nearly a thousand teachers and pupils were enlisted in the army.

Improvement in the construction of building was also found during the period. New school buildings according to modern plans were erected at Jullundur, Gujrat, Gurdaspur, Sialkot, Lyallpur, Dera Ghazikhan, Montgomery and Hoshiarpur. The claim put forward in the

\begin{footnotes}
\item[119] Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1915-16, p. 13. \\
\item[120] Ibid.
\end{footnotes}
annual report for 1913-14 that “the Punjab will shortly be equipped with a set of government high schools buildings which would challenge comparison with those of other provinces” was justified by the advance made, though the fate of progress had been retarded since the commencement of War. The influence of these building operations for government high schools had also spread to the aided high schools in their vicinity. Although, these schools too were adversely affected by recent events, yet a number of fine school buildings were erected for aided schools during the quinquennium. The sufficient instances were of the D.A.V. and Islamia Schools at Ambala and Rawalpindi and the Khalsa schools at Ludhiana.

The establishment of denominational hostels at certain centres deserves mention, such as were maintained by Ahirs and Bhagwas of Rewari, the Rajputs of Ambala, the Sikhs of Ropar. Mr. Cross observed, “The hostel life in most of the schools has become quite comfortable”. Mr. Myatt of Rawalpindi also spoke in favourable terms of the conduct of the large urban hostels.

Besides getting the school buildings erected, the private enterprise was also quite prompt in starting middle and high schools. The efforts of the individuals and bodies for the cause of education were as a rule confined to the sphere of high school education.

The Educational Committee of the Chief Khalsa Diwan was much alive to the necessity of improving secondary education. About this the Director, Education Department writes in his educational Report of 1913-14:

_The activity shown by the Sikh community in starting new secondary schools has been particularly noticeable in recent_

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121 Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1916-17, p. 22.

years and several such schools e.g. at Amritsar, Kallar and Kahuta are qualifying for recognition."\textsuperscript{123}

By the year 1919, number of recognized schools run by Sikh organizations increased to 48. Even the strength of the students was increasing by leaps and bounds. About 3,531 students were getting education in these institutions. Among them, 2,309 were Sikhs and 1,222 non-Sikhs. The total number of teachers working in the high schools was 198, out of them 130 were Sikhs and 68 non-Sikhs.\textsuperscript{124}

"Twenty middle schools were also connected with the conference. The total number of students studying in the Sikh Schools was 3,000 out of whom about 1800 were Sikhs and 1200 were non-Sikhs".\textsuperscript{125}

The other private bodies also played a dominant role in the spread of high schools during the period. The Annual Educational Report of 1914-15 summarized the achievements of the private enterprises in the province and held that:

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Successful high schools were established at Multan and Dasuha by the Sanatan Hindus, Islamia Anjuman and the local Mohammedan Zamindars. The number of institutions in the Lyallpur district increased to seven. The Islamia School at Multan and Pakpattan added high departments. In the Rawalpindi division, all communities were actively engaged in the spread of education and in affecting improvements in their school buildings, and hostels with the help of liberal grants from the provincial revenues. The hostel buildings attached to the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic High School Rawalpindi and the Khalsa School, Sukho and the extension of the hostel at Dalwal were completed. In the
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{123} Educational Committee, Chief Khalsa Diwan Di Satvin Varshik Report, 1914-15, p. E.

\textsuperscript{124} Ibid., p. 38.

\textsuperscript{125} Ibid., pp. 38-39.
Lahore division, missionary societies continued to show considerable activity. In addition to elementary schools they had seven high and six middle schools for the benefit of their low caste converts. Other institutions brought into being by the various societies were the Hardinge Hindu High School, Sonepat, Hali Muslim High School, Panipat and Islamia Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, Sadhaura.\textsuperscript{126}

However, it was only during the year 1915-16 that the educationists could claim of having attained substantial success in this direction. Education was now observed to be spreading more widely as well as rapidly. It was concluded in the Annual Progress Report for the year 1915-16 stated that Mohammedan Anjumans had then 52 schools in the Ambala division, the Arya Samaj 19, the Baptist Mission 16 and the Sanatan Dharam 11. In the Jullundur division the Arya Samaj is most prominent, in the Lahore division, the Chief Khalsa Diwan is active in promoting education and the Mohammedan Anjumans maintain a large number of elementary institutions in addition to their secondary schools. A conspicuous instance of private munificence was the gift of Rs. 20,000 by Lala Bishan Das to raise the board school at Sri Gobindpur to the high grade. In the Rawalpindi division there are 4 secondary schools under Sikh Management and the Scotch and American Missions maintain several schools.\textsuperscript{127}

During the year 1918-19, the number of recognized schools for boys rose from 426 to 454 and the number of scholars attending them from 1, 10, 839 to 1, 15, 526. The Number of teachers employed in secondary schools rose from 6157 to 6538. Of these 4360 were trained

\begin{flushleft}
\textsuperscript{126} Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1914-15, pp. 4-5. \\
\end{flushleft}
as compared with 4074 in 1917-18. Proportion of pupil to teacher was 18 to 1.\textsuperscript{128}

Thus the above account clearly shows that there had been considerable progress in the field of secondary education. But all this development was not without flaws. The increase in the schools was mainly due to private enterprise. But one baneful effect was that there was a race among the different communities to have greater number of institutions to their credit. Had the race been for efficiency things would have been different. But this unhealthy competition resulted into sectarian rivalry in the province. The community could gain little by maintaining two ill-equipped and ill-staffed schools, when its educational needs could have been met with by one efficient institution. “They have sprung up” says the Inspector, “often in couples-an Arya School and a Khalsa School at Mahalpur, an Islamai and an Arya School at Dasuya, a Sanatan Dharam and an Arya School at Patti, and so on in defiance of actual local needs”.\textsuperscript{129} The evil of inefficient Anglo-Vernacular schools was most acute in Lahore Division. The existence of such sectarian schools was undoubtedly a menace to public welfare and rules of recognition could not prove a sufficient check. This communal rivalry led to the acts of gross indiscipline. “Ninety nine per cent” says S. Nagbut Shah, the Rawalpindi Inspector, “of the sins of omission and commission which our schools committed during the course of the whole year are perpetrated in the month of March and April”.\textsuperscript{130}

It was further argued that March being the month in which the annual promotion examinations were held, the inspectors took little

\textsuperscript{128} Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1918-19, p. 10.
\textsuperscript{129} Sixth Quinquennial Report on the Progress of Education in India, 1907-12, p. 81.
\textsuperscript{130} Ibid.
efforts to ensure efficient, fair and impartial results. These examinations were often conducted in a more or less perfunctory way, chiefly in mufasil schools. Few head-masters took the trouble to moderate carefully the question papers or to check the answer books. In some newly started community schools, promotions were given literally to attract boys from other schools. Thus much of the value of these examinations was lost and discipline suffered.

April, on the other hand, was the only month in which, under the rules, boys could migrate from one school to another. This was used by some schools to entice away boys from the other school or to retain those who intended to leave the school by unnecessarily delaying the issue of transfer certificates till the month is over. This caused no little trouble to many a poor school boys and their parents as well as to the Inspector.

The first evil could of course be mitigated if regular accounts of a boy’s work throughout the year were kept and taken into consideration in determining his fitness for promotion or even if house-examinations were taken more seriously.

The above criticism points to the irregularities on the part of head masters and managers. It was a relief to note that gradually these acts of indiscipline and irregularity were reduced and instances of social service were reported. The students however, were criticized for lack of respect on their part to their elders. But as Mr. Wright pointed out, “this must be expected as long as the parent regards his school-going son as a privileged boy allowed to indulge in all sorts of irregularities, provided he obtains class promotion every year and so long as the gulf between the teacher and the guardian remains as wide as it is today”.\footnote{Ibid.}

\footnote{Ibid.}
Beside there were many other shortcomings in the secondary schools. Firstly, inspectors of Rawalpindi and Jullundur generally complained of overcrowding in these institutions. Secondly, Mr. Richey commented upon the uneven distribution and frequent insufficiency of vernacular middle schools in the province. For example, in Jullundur district, there was one middle school for 68 primary schools and in the Ferozpur district; the ratio was 1:44. In Rawalpindi district, they were not only deficient in number but also badly situated.\(^{132}\) To avoid this disparity, it was suggested that the distinction between vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular middle schools be eliminated by the addition of English as a voluntary subject in the former.

Thirdly, the professional compilers of ‘notes’, ‘epitomes’ and ‘key’ were playing a brisk trade. The headmasters assured that they discouraged the use of these artificial and baneful aids. But as long the ‘oft-denounced cram’ was found to pay, no outward checks could discourage it. Fourthly, the dominance of the matriculation examination over the work of the school threw the question of vocational training into background. Lastly, the exaggerated importance attached to a command over English considerably hindered the advancement of secondary education.

It was hoped that during the period of Dyarchy, these defects will be mitigated, as education was transferred to the control of a popular minister. Literacy is not equivalent to education. It is nevertheless the first indispensable step towards it and in a country like India where 93 percent of people were returned as illiterate in the census of 1921, the extreme urgency of a drive to liquidate illiteracy needs no special pleading. It is to the credit of Indian ministers that they took the first

step in this direction. Extensive reforms were undertaken. The main thrust was on expansion and equitable distribution of facilities among the different areas and communities of the province. During 1920-21, secondary schools of all kinds rose from 828 to 969 - an increase of 17 percent over the previous year.\textsuperscript{133}

Attempts were made to cut down the wasteful expenditure wherever possible. The result was that while during the year the number of scholars in secondary schools of all kinds increased by 19 per cent, the increase in the cost of secondary education was only 8 percent.\textsuperscript{134}

The postponement of the teaching of English till the fifth class was a healthy departure. The use of vernacular as the medium of instruction was progressive favorably, though the teaching of vernacular languages needed improvement. Mr. P.J. Hartog, C.I.E. in a paper which he read before the East India Association in June 1920, impressed that a large number of students passed the examination by writing answers which they did not understand and gained marks for them in the examination. “A system which attaches such undue weight to the exercise of memory cannot but be a faulty system and therefore, we have advocated the restriction of English in secondary schools as the medium of Instruction”.\textsuperscript{135}

English was started as an optional subject in vernacular middle schools. The distinction between Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular schools disappeared. It was a natural outcome of the growing demand for English teaching by all sections of the population. By this year, the institution of the Matriculation and School Leaving Certificate

\textsuperscript{133} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1920-21, Lahore 1922, p. 134.
\textsuperscript{134} Report on the Administration of the Punjab and its Dependencies for the year 1923-24, Lahore 1925, p. 47.
\textsuperscript{135} Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1919-20, p. 2.
Examination had settled down and subjects of practical utility such as short hand, type-writing, book-keeping, agriculture etc. had attained a prominent position. A board known as ‘School Board’ was constituted to deal solely with the examination. In its several meetings, syllabus was adapted to the requirements and capabilities of the boys in schools. The board had justified its existence by evincing interest in the subject.

In spite of all these efforts, a fall was witnessed in the number of students. “That the immediate cause for the fall in numbers during the last two years was the non-cooperation movement is unquestionable”.

After the meeting of the Indian National Congress held at Nagpur in 1920, the Non-Cooperation Movement was launched by Mahatma Gandhi, which succeeded in crippling schools and colleges. In spite of the strong opposition of Pandit Madan Mohan Malvia, Mahatma Gandhi openly called for the participation of the students in the campaign. He felt that youth must fight for the freedom of their country. He advised not only gradual withdrawal of students from schools and colleges, owned, aided or controlled by the government but stressed upon the need for the establishment of parallel education and institutions of their own.

A large number of students responded to the appeal of Gandhi and the movement spread in successive waves over the whole of India. The students felt that their involvement in the movement, will display their love for their country and their eagerness for sacrifice. It is an admitted fact that “it was in the laboratory of these national institutions that the fundamental principles of a national reconstruction were first evolved”. A sea of patriotism swept the student community. They

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137 J.P. Naik and Syed Nurullah, op.cit., p. 307.
138 The Tribune, 2 June, 1906. “The students of the Lyallpur Government High School had long since up the use of foreign sugar and even so far back as
developed a critical attitude towards the present system of education. “It is probable that the large bulk of the students suddenly realized, to their intense pain and disappointment, that much of their education is ill suited to their practical needs.”

Firstly, government became nervous and then repressive. The movement was labeled as “purely destructive in character”. In Punjab, Marital Law was enforced; severe action was taken against the students by the authorities. Unfortunately, unity among the students did not last long. Several of them were recalled home by their parents and some others were persuaded to change their views. Thus by 1922, the tide had almost ebbed. Yet, the government did realize that the education system needed a change according to the changing circumstances. “In short, the crisis had left behind the conviction that our aims need restatement. If the function of education is the adaptation of the future citizens to his environment, then the content of education must change in harmony with changes in that environment. The political and economic conditions of India have been undergoing change and the national school movement can at least claim that it lent strength to the advocates of educational reform”.

The year 1921 saw the outcrop of a large number of national institutions ranging from a Mohammedan University at Aligarh to the municipal primary schools in various provinces. With the spread of education, critical attitude of the people towards the official system became pronounced and several private institutions came into existence. It was Curzon’s administration and policies that gave rise not only to a new militant nationalism but to national education as well. Almost all the national leaders felt a dire need of establishing institutions which

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140 Ibid.
141 Ibid.
should be managed by the Indians, should inculcate a spirit of patriotism amongst the students, should create self respect and love for the past and to show that Eastern culture was at least as good as, if not better than the Western.

Lala Lajpat Rai was a great advocate of national education. He believed that education was a means to attain independence and social reformation and that this education ought to be free from foreign control. He felt, “National education, being the surest and most profitable national investment for gain, as well as the best and the most effectual insurance against loss, is as necessary for national safety, as the military provision for its physical defense”.142 Annie Besant was also of the view that education of the Indians must be controlled by Indians, shaped by Indians, carried on by Indians; it must hold up Indian ideals of devotion, wisdom and morality and must be permeated by the Indian religious spirit.143

Mahatma Gandhi laid great stress on the use of *charkha* and vernacular in these schools. The government was critical of the both. The Indian Education Report ran thus, “The economic value of the *charkha* may be great, its educational value is neglible. There is little evidence that the vernacular was any more extensively used in the national schools than it is under the present regulations, in recognized institutions”.144

The primary concern of the British Government was the security of their empire. They desired to prevent the educational institutions from becoming nurseries for the growth of national tendencies. If in any school, life of Mahatma Gandhi became a course of study, the management was sure to incur the displeasure of the government. Similarly, if a national aided school was to allow the song of *Bande

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144 *Ninth Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India*, p. 6.
Matram to be sung there, the school was sure to be removed from the list of the aided schools. Ruchi Ram Sahni lamented the defects of the education system of that time and said, “It is not a surprise to learn that even a poem like Iqbal’s “Hindustan Hamara” was not considered a fit poem for inclusion in Urdu Reader”.

It must be noted, that these institutions worked within the official system, submitted to departmental inspection and received grants-in-aid. Very often, they were sectarian in character and less truly national. According to official version in 1921-22, there were 69 national institutions with 8046 pupils in the province.

The years between 1922-1929 form a period which may well be regarded as perhaps the most inspiring in the annals of Indian education. Ambitious and comprehensive programmes of development were formulated, which were calculated to fulfill the dreams of a literate India. Government with the full concurrence of legislative councils poured out large sums of money on education, which would have been regarded as beyond the realm of practical politics ten years before.

During the quinquennium, high schools had increased in number from 200 to 297, or an increase of 48.5 per cent; Anglo-Vernacular middle schools from 175 to 215, or an increase of 22.8 percent; and Vernacular Middle Schools from 672 to 2, 114, or an increase of 214.6 percent. The total number of secondary schools had increased from 1, 047 to 2, 626, or an increase of 150.8 per cent. The following tabular statements are of interest:

**TABLE NO. 5**

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145 The Tribune. 6 May. 1921.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>High Schools</th>
<th>Anglo-Ver-</th>
<th>Vernacular Middle</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nacular</td>
<td>Middle Schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>1,047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>2,114</td>
<td>2,626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Numerical Increase for each quinquennium</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917-22</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922-27</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1,442</td>
<td>1,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Percentage Increase for each quinquennium</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917-22</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922-27</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE No. 6**

The number of pupils in these schools also increased enormously.

The following tables give the enrolment figures:\(^{148}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>High Schools</th>
<th>Anglo-Ver-</th>
<th>Vernacular Middle</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nacular</td>
<td>Middle Schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>75,081</td>
<td>36,081</td>
<td>36,656</td>
<td>207,514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>114,193</td>
<td>48,295</td>
<td>328,291</td>
<td>490,799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Numerical Increase for each quinquennium</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>21,669</td>
<td>8,552</td>
<td>66,945</td>
<td>97,166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>39,112</td>
<td>11,518</td>
<td>232,635</td>
<td>283,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Percentage Increase for each quinquennium</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total expenditure on secondary education had advanced from Rs. 60, 23, 622 at the beginning to Rs. 1,01,79978 at the end of the

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\(^{148}\) Ibid., p. 41.
In 1926-27, the total number of teachers employed in secondary schools was over 70 per cent 17,614 of whom 12,316, were trained.

Thus an advance in secondary education was not without limitations. The domination of matriculation examination and the lure of the government service through matriculation were the evils of the secondary school system from the very beginning. These evils continued and the Hartog Committee condemned them in 1929. “It is the influence of the matriculation that means everything to the Indian boy, both as gate to a university course and the possession of a degree as a higher qualification for service. The lure of government service through matriculation is still potent”. To eliminate waste and the domination of the matriculation examination the committee suggested the diversion of more boys to industrial and commercial careers at the end of the middle stage, for which provision was to be made by alternative course in that stage, preparatory to special instruction in technical and industrial schools. The committee hoped that India would look forward to the day when her soldiers, policemen, builders, farmers and others would be literate and would have received that type of education which should be given in rural middle school.

The province began briskly to adapt itself to the above said recommendations. During the decade (1930 to 1940), many changes were witnessed in the field of secondary education. Attempts were made to give practical bent to education in rural areas. The policy of enriching curricula of rural schools instead of instituting separate agricultural schools was steadfastly pursued. Large farms were attached to these schools. At the end of the quinquennium, there were 72 farms and 91 plots as against 50 and 51 respectively in 1927. Class room teaching was

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149 Ibid., p. 42.
150 Hartog Committee Report, 1929, p. 345.
151 A. Samuel, Raj, India’s Educational Policy, New Delhi, 1984, p. 52.
supplemented by practical work in all agriculture processes on the land. Valentine, wrote, “Practical education is however as urgently needed for Indian agriculture as for any other form of Indian industry. The selection of land and of seeds of crops can only be brought about by practical education”.

The number of pupils selecting agriculture as an elective subject had almost doubled from 6307 in 1927 to 12,484 in 1932. It is gratifying to note that the boys took real interest in the field work and cheerfully did all the rough and toilsome operations with their own hands and parents appreciated their sons work at school. Offers of land by Zamindars for the institution of these forms provided a further evidence of the appreciation of the work. The government widened the course of vernacular middle schools by introducing Rural Science, a composite subject embracing agriculture, science, village sanitation, and elementary civics. It was provided as an alternative to English at the vernacular Final Examination. Its study was supposed to not only equip a pupil with what he should know as an intelligent and useful member of the village community, but was also to facilitate his return to his ancestral vocation of farming. “The exhibitions and educational fairs were held from time to time to demonstrate to the illiterate villager’s value of using improved implements, seeds, scientific methods of cultivation and of preserving manures”. Agricultural training at schools led to some other notable developments, like keenness for floriculture was apparent in the laying out of flower gardens in schools ‘Home Plots’ have been started by several pupils in schools and homes. Arbor days, flower shows, and old boys’ Agricultural Associations had

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152 Valentine Chirol, *Indian Unrest*, New Delhi, 1979, p. 263.
153 *Tenth Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India*, p. 122.
154 Ibid.
been organized in almost all districts. Efforts were made to harmonize, correlate and adjust instruction in rural schools to the environment and requirements of the pupils in almost all divisions. Ruralisation of village schools was attempted by requiring boys to write receipts, parwana rahdaris, money orders, petitions etc., giving sufficient practice in the reading of manuscripts; associating Geography with the local conditions; selecting topics for composition from familiar scenes of village life and basing sums in arithmetic on daily marketing and other problems of rural life.\(^{156}\) The teaching was imparted by teachers who had completed a separate course at the Lyallpur Agriculture College.

Thus these schools made a valuable contribution to the spread of literacy, to the creation of a healthy public opinion on important social, economic, educational and political matters, to the introduction of improved methods of cultivation and to the retention of village youth in their natural environment during the impressionable years of their life. "The organization, in or through these schools, of such beneficent activities as village games and recreation clubs, village libraries, centers of village handicrafts and adult classes, is likely to make these institutions potent agencies in the fight against illiteracy, ignorance and superstition".\(^{157}\)

Teachers are the engines of the education system and a principal instrument in awakening the students to socio-cultural values. It is reassuring, therefore, that the Department in its anxious efforts to see that the expansion of facilities for training keeps pace with the rapidly advancing number of schools and pupils had not overlooked the need for improving the quality of the teachers. As early as in 1912, the Indian

\(^{156}\) Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1936-37, p. 17.
\(^{157}\) Ibid., p. 3.
Government realizing the crucial role the teachers could play wrote to the state governments thus, “The rising generation of the school boys could not be expected to develop into loyal and contented citizens if they were taught by unpaid and dissatisfied teachers”.

‘Teach the teacher of tomorrow’ the dignity of labour but also bring him into intimate touch with the life among whom he will be called upon to work was the idea behind giving them training. There is not the least doubt that imbued with the spirit of the new learning these young men were much better equipped for the performance of their duties as guides, philosophers and friends of the country folk. In the last quinquennium much attention was paid to the training of teachers, with the result the quality of trained teachers improved. In 1931-32, out of a total of 22,775 no less than 19,962 or 88 per cent had been trained against the 70 per cent in 1926-27 and in 1936-37 out of a total of 21,898 no less than 19,657 or 89.7 per cent were trained and certificated.

Teachers evinced keen interest in their work. “They take pride in their vocation and are gradually abandoning narrow notions of their professional responsibilities.”

The teachers realized that their duty did not terminate with the day’s work and was not confined to the four walls of the schools. Their participation in daily games, social clubs, school excursions, general information, literary tastes and pedagogic knowledge, extra-curricular studies were kept up by teachers. Diaries and pupil’s progress record was maintained by almost all teachers. The assignment system was tried

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159 If 703 teachers who passed special departmental certificate be excluded from the total of 2241 classed as untrained, the percentage of qualified and competent teachers could rise to 92.7. Reports on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1926-27 to 1936-37.
with success in several schools in the subjects of History, Mathematics and Science. Extra reading was encouraged and literary clubs were organized to arouse interest in public speaking. Lectures on interesting and instructive topics were delivered by teachers and outsiders. Daily news items and cuttings from illustrated papers were exhibited to add to this general information. For improving hand-writing various devices were tried. Group competitions were held in calligraphy and spelling. Increasing attention was devoted to the teaching of science and vernacular subjects.

In the case of government institutions, the scale of the salaries was uniform throughout the province, but the position of teachers working in private schools continued to be pitiable. The managing committees employed untrained teachers and made appointments, not on merit or ability, but on personal considerations and favoritism. Inspector of schools, Lahore Division wrote, "Indefinite and uncertain conditions of service lead to lack of responsibility which leads to inefficiency." However, the enforcement of departmental measures enacted from time to time was bound to improve their lot. Provident Fund Scheme was started in 1922. Each permanent teacher contributed 6½ per cent of his salary, to which half was added by the Management 3% interest per annum or the one allowed in Post Office Saving Bank Deposit was given. This gave a feeling of permanence to the teacher. Secondly with the introduction of Standard Service Rules, the position of teachers improved. They were able to tender appeals to the department in cases of injustice and unfair treatment. In spite of stringent measures, the position of teachers in private schools continued to be insecure; payment of salaries was delayed and service rules were ignored.

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Due attention was paid to the Physical Education in the schools with the appointment of a physical training instructor considerable improvement was brought about in this important phase of school education. ‘Play for all’ and ‘mass-drill’ formed a very bright feature of the schools. Games during and after school hours, were organized more carefully and systematically. Inter-school (high and middle) tournaments were revived in some districts. The assistant district inspectors of schools for physical training held a large number of refresher courses for the vernacular teachers. These courses, followed by regular and intensive supervision had brought about a noticeable change in the physical training work in rural schools. The village games clubs had helped to establish a useful social link between the rural masses and the village schools. 162

Other innovations which contributed to no small extent towards transforming secondary education were Boy Scout Movement, Music for All, institution of Village Libraries and Red Cross activities etc.

The Scout Movement had spread far and wide throughout the province and contrary to the expectations of many, found a most hearty welcome in the schools. Scouting gave to the boys much happiness in life and opened up to them avenues to new and cleaner interests. "Masters and boys alike are healthier, brisker and more mentally alert as members of the great brotherhood". 163 Development of Community Work in the schools was indeed the result of this movement. Rallies were held in several districts and proper training was given in the development among scouts of independence of character, resourcefulness and a real scout spirit. "Boy scouts from all over the Multan Division responded with more than common alacrity to the call

163 Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1926-27, p. 46.
of duty for the alleviation of human suffering, when the great Quetta earthquake tragedy occurred. Boy scouts considered it a privilege to render service to their brethren on all conceivable occasions”. The credit for developing the scouting in the province was due to H.W. Hogg, who infused a new spirit in the movement.

“Five Scouts from Multan and one from Rawalpindi represented the province at the World Jambore at Franskston (Australia) and worthily maintained the well dressed reputation which the Punjab holds in the branch of social activity”.

The movement began to be accepted well by the people. The Tribune observed:

_The movement is playing an important part in building character and in bringing together all communities to a better understanding of each other. The time has now come for us to do everything for the advancement of the movement._

Besides scouting, Red Cross Societies, which were increasing in number, were doing useful work. They were inculcating a spirit of social obligation amongst the pupils at an early age. These societies were usually run by the pupils themselves under the guidance of their teachers. They undertook beneficent activities like giving monetary assistance to deserving poor boys, distributing quinine, potassium per magnate and other medicine during epidemics, disinfecting wells, organizing first aid class, maintaining rural dispensaries and assisting in rural reconstruction. In Ambala Division, they provided eye glasses for poor scholars with defective vision.

Emphasis was laid on the encouragement of extra-mural activities in schools and teachers and pupils had shown keenness and enthusiasm for the same. Life in schools had, in consequence, become more genial.

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165 The Tribune, 18 December, 1935.
and pleasant. “The outlook of the school boy had widened; social life and humanitarian susceptibilities better developed. Fife and drum bands brightened various school activities. Mass-drill, marching and class movements were a source of healthy entertainments for boys. Some schools had music clubs which encouraged vocal and instrumental music. Hobbies such as photography, stamp, coin and picture collection, fret work, painting, preparation of pickles, jams and jellies, ink, soap and envelop making, caning of chairs, varnishing and sign-board painting afforded useful diversions. Excursion clubs organized visits to places of historical, geographical and industrial interest. The tutorial system was introduced in several schools. Some schools had magazines of their own and boys were encouraged to make literary contribution which they generally did with great interest. Floriculture was another popular feature of the schools. “One is struck by the tasteful decoration of school compounds and other small spaces with well arranged beds of seasonal flowers and perennial shrubs”.

As games had spread physical recreation, so did village libraries contribute at any rate something towards mental recreation. Their number was not less than 1500 and more than 1700. Old libraries were replenished and new ones were reasonably equipped with useful and interesting juvenile literature, newspapers, journals, pamphlets and books for adults. Publications of the Department of Agriculture and Co-operation were also supplied. The students were exhorted to assimilate the literature of olden times. Lytton had truly said, “In science read by preference the newest books; in literature the oldest. The classics are always modern”.

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166 Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab during the quinquennium ending 1936-37, p. 51.
Importance of adult education can not be exaggerated. If the parent is educated, he will not allow his child to grow in ignorance. The tenth Quinquennial review of the Government of India observed, “There is no sphere of education in India which needs more attention than the education of adults. The condition of village life being what it is, relapse into illiteracy is widespread. It is disappointing that efforts which have been made, met with unqualified success”. On the other hand, in spite of the best efforts put in, number of these schools kept on dwindling. During the quinquennium the number of adult schools had decreased from 585 to 189 and the scholars from 12696 to 4,988. This was the largest fall in the number of schools over the years. About the causes for this abnormal decrease were lack of public interest, unsuitable course of instruction and non-existence of appropriate literature for the upkeep of adult interest in reading.

Thus in the sphere of secondary education, there had been an advance, notably in the average capacity of the body of teachers, in their improved conditions of service and training and in the attempt to widen the general activities of social life. But here again, there were grave defects of organization. A well planned policy is no doubt essential, but even more essential is a well directed policy carried out effectively which was found lacking during the period.

Firstly, the problem of controlling secondary education remained unsolved. Complains from inspectors of Schools regarding unnecessary interference on the part of local bodies in the administration of education in their areas, unfortunately, increased every year. The dual control (Municipality and District Boards) tended seriously to undermine discipline amongst teachers and made reforms difficult. Secondly, a cluster of communal schools in a single place where but one school was really needed, led to an uneven distribution of schools. Moreover, competition in extravagance formed a dangerous trend.
Secondly, the domination of matriculation examination still persisted and the lower classes remained almost everywhere neglected. Overemphasis on the examination threw the question of vocational training into background. Knowledge of English led to employment and was therefore, still equivalent to vocational training. The efforts did lead to the enrichment of the secondary course but systematic vocational and pre-vocational education as suggested by Hartog Committee could not be introduced in these schools. The exaggerated importance attached to the command of English considerably hindered the advancement of secondary education. The students were still not spared from the rigor of knowing a foreign language. The dread of examination clouded the horizon of boys during their whole school career. The years at schools, in western countries were perhaps the happiest years of life, whereas in India often a time of drudgery and overstrain. It was therefore, the bent and aim of schools which required revision.

Village libraries starved owing to financial stringency and fresh literature could not be added. Adult education needed to be tackled seriously and scientifically on the provincial basis by a committee of departmental offices. The institution of co-operative societies run by students was a healthy innovation but generally it was found that where co-operative societies existed the co-operative spirit was conspicuous by its absence. The position of the teachers teaching in private schools was appalling. Lastly, increasing unemployment of the educated classes caused widespread dissatisfaction with the present system of education. What was observed in 1943 was perhaps only a slight exaggeration to say that "The Indian high school, with a few notable exceptions is much the same as it was in 1904 and has but little changed from what it was as far as back as 1884".167

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During the period 1937-47, there were no outstanding developments in the field of secondary education. Owing to the Second World War, the activities in the field had come to a naught. There was heavy and indiscriminate cut on educational expenditure. The report of the Resource and Retrenchment Committee clearly shows the withdrawing attitude of the government in the field of secondary education:

*We are not convinced of the need for retaining government high school at places where there already exist a number of denominational schools, such as those of Gujranwala and Ferozpur, nor are we in favour of retaining schools which attract a small number of students such as the one at Ropar. We recommend that at least fifteen government high schools be now closed.¹⁶⁸*

It was in 1944 "the Sargent Committee suggested significant changes in the high school, the function of which "is to cater for those children who are above the average ability".¹⁶⁹ Entry to high schools should be on selective basis". Only those pupils should be admitted who showed promise of taking full advantage of education provided. Additional places may be provided for those not selected, provided that no cost falls on public funds.¹⁷⁰ The aim of the high school education was also defined in the following words:

*High school education should on no account be considered simply as a preliminary to university education but as a stage complete in itself while it will remain a very important function of the high schools to pass on their most able pupils to universities*

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or other institutions of equivalent standard the large majority of high school leavers should receive an education that will fit them for direct entry into occupations and professions though a certain percentage of them may be expected to require further training for a period of one to three years, either full-time or part-time in order to qualify themselves for posts that require special skill.\textsuperscript{171}

The report further suggested that High schools should be of two main types (a) Academic (b) Technical.

The Academic High Schools should impart education in the Arts and Pure Sciences. The Technical High Schools should provide training in the applied sciences and industrial and commercial subjects. Free places and scholarship were proposed for all bright and deserving students.

The report is a significant document as it provided a comprehensive scheme of education. It suggested an all-around development of a student which should make him self dependent. Its recommendations about adult education and enhancement of teacher's salary are praise worthy.

The scheme, however, met with severe criticism as it envisaged a period of forty years for its implementation which meant, "India will attain a standard of education in 1984 similar to the one, which England had attained in 1939. "Moreover, it had put forward a very expensive scheme of education not withstanding the poor economic condition of the country. Due to disturbed political conditions and surcharged communal atmosphere, the recommendations of the Sargent Scheme could not be implemented though it gave a good food for thought to the future administrators of free India.

During this last phase, the number of Schools kept on declining though there was a marginal increase during the years 1943 to 45, on the

\textsuperscript{171} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 20.
other hand the number of scholars kept on increasing all through the period which is clear from the table as follows:\cite{172}

**TABLE NO. 7**

Number of Schools and Pupils 1936-37 to 1944-45.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1936-37</td>
<td>3404</td>
<td>568608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937-38</td>
<td>3479</td>
<td>573530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938-39</td>
<td>3443</td>
<td>582292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939-40</td>
<td>3444</td>
<td>596371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940-41</td>
<td>3436</td>
<td>604436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-42</td>
<td>3395</td>
<td>613378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1942-43</td>
<td>3379</td>
<td>622149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943-44</td>
<td>3395</td>
<td>659939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944-45</td>
<td>3416</td>
<td>7042147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus it can be inferred that during the last decade no tangible development could take place. Secondary education in 1946-47 hardly presented a picture which could be said to be better than that of 1936-37.

In spite of a few lapses here and there, the achievements in secondary education were both qualitative as well as quantitative. The number of schools and scholars increased considerably. The marked improvement in all the departments may be ascribed to the efforts of the inspecting staff, to the pressure of the grant-in-aid rules, which demanded a certain minimum of efficiency as a qualification for the aid and to the increased efficiency of the teaching staff. The contribution of the private enterprise cannot be overlooked for without their earnest and energetic cooperation, education could not face the hurdles placed before it, and it was mainly with the help of these managements that the schooling was made available even in the remote corners of the Punjab.

\cite{172} Report on the Progress of Education in the Punjab for the year 1936-37 to 1944-45.