

URBANIZATION IN PUNJAB DURING COLONIAL PERIOD: A STUDY OF MALWA REGION (1849-1947)

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In
History
By
Taranveer Kaur

41500051

Supervised By
Dr Tariq Ahmad Sheikh



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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled “URBANIZATION IN PUNJAB DURING COLONIAL PERIOD: A STUDY OF MALWA REGION (1849-1947)” submitted for the award of PhD degree to the Lovely Professional University, Punjab is my original work and all ideas and references have been acknowledged. This thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any degree or diploma.

Countersigned by:

Dr Tariq Ahmad Sheikh
(Supervisor)
Professor in History, Lovely
Professional University
Phagwara, Punjab.

Taranveer Kaur
Regd. No. 41500051

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms Taranveer Kaur, Regd. No. 41500051 of Lovely Professional University, Punjab has completed the PhD thesis entitled “URBANIZATION IN PUNJAB DURING COLONIAL PERIOD: A STUDY OF MALWA REGION (1849-1947)” under my guidance and supervision. To the best of my knowledge, the present work is the result of his original investigation and research work. No part of the research has ever been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma.

The thesis is fit for the submission for the award of a PhD degree in the subject of History.

Place: Phagwara, Punjab.

Supervised by:

Dr Tariq Ahmad Sheikh

Professor in History

Lovely Professional University, Phagwara, Punjab.

ABSTRACT

Urbanisation across the world varies in nature and degree. It generally reveals the standard of living in terms of socio-economic and socio-cultural spectrum. Census of India have several criteria to declare a place as 'Urban' all of which sum up not only the mere size of the population but its qualitative aspects as well, that involves the economic activities and a certain percentage of the total population being served by the secondary and tertiary sector activities. Besides being the foci of economic activity and administration, urban centres, by and large, cater to the needs of people in a better way than their rural counterparts. Urbanisation is a process, which not only involves a demographical change from villages to cities and occupational changes from agriculture to non-agriculture stream but it involves a change in attitude, beliefs, values, and behaviour of the people. It is a common phenomenon evident in every civilization, as it is a process by which villages develop into towns and towns into cities. The study based on the following objectives:

1. To study the process of Urbanisation in pre-colonial Punjab.
2. To find out the social, economic, and political condition of Punjab during the Colonial Period.
3. To analyse the various factors responsible for the Urbanisation in Punjab.
4. To study the demographic change and the composition of the population in urban areas of the Malwa region of Punjab.
5. To highlight the infrastructural changes and pattern of town planning in the process of Urbanisation in Punjab.
6. Malwa region as an urban centre and the role of education, medical facilities, law and order.
7. To trace out the contribution of industry and trade in the urbanisation of the Malwa region.

The research methodology adopted for the study of the current theme is historical and analytical which is an analysis of historical records and documents. Both Published and unpublished data is searched and used in this research. In the present research Qualitative method is used to explore the theme. Punjab state archives (Chandigarh & Patiala) has been visited for the collection of primary data like census reports of various years, Gazetteers for the comparative study. Along with that Local and University Libraries have been visited for collecting the secondary data.

Though interdisciplinary in orientation, this study remains embedded in the discipline of history. The colonial context provides the setting for studying the new pattern of urbanization and new urban forms that emerged in British Punjab. Demographic change due to urbanization, and reorientations in economic, cultural, and administrative functions, as well as the political role of urban centres, are brought into sharp focus. The present study spread over five chapters. The first chapter gives the introduction of the urbanisation process in India. The history of civilization is the history of urbanisation, as urbanisation in India has a long history since the Indus valley civilisation. It includes the process of urbanisation that originated with the arrival of the British, their colonial policies and economic attitudes. It presents how urbanisation is the result of economic growth, they formed new urban centres for their interest. It also found that after winning the battles they began their political move.

The second chapter presents a study that tries to understand the trend of urban population growth in the state. Punjab is the frontier state of India, it occupies a significant position in the entire northeast region concerning its major share of the absolute size of the urban population. With such a peculiar urban scenario, the study is extended during the phase of 1849 to 1947 i.e., at the times of Maharaja Ranjit Singh's death till Indian independence. The factors responsible for urbanisation in the state at district, classes and individual levels have been examined. Moreover, the way of life of the urban dwellers and the influence of rural-urban migration

Upon their urban lifestyle has been presented. Along with that, the contribution of Britishers in the development of towns by introducing different type of new towns like indigenous towns, Anglican towns and model towns have also been discussed. Understanding the concept of urbanization and urban development involved a great amount of data that have been collected from both primary and secondary sources. The data so gathered have been processed, analysed, and presented by using meaningful statistical and analytic techniques. It was found that there was an increase in population after 1921, because of better medical facilities provided by the British government. But before 1921 the mortality rate was high due to several epidemics and lack of medical facilities.

Chapter three gives a detailed description of urbanisation in Punjab and its evolution in different phases of time. This chapter also provides detail of urban centres developed in Punjab over different millennia, how old urban centres survived and new urban centres originated, along with the major infrastructural changes introduced by Britishers. A progression was found in the field of manufacturing seen along with the growth in agriculture due to the establishment of canal colonies like Sidhnai Colony, Sohagpara Colony, Chunian colony and Chenab colony during the decade of 1891-1901, there was a 0.69 per cent increase in the population of territory and 0.38 increase in Punjab state. This represents that these canal colonies were one of the factors of urbanisation in Punjab, as these new urban centres developed as model towns.

Chapter four provides information regarding the contribution of political and economic factors. The board of administration was established by Governor-General Lord Dalhousie, having three members John Lawrence, Henry Lawrence, and Charles Mansel. Subsequently, with the growth and development of administrative functions, medical and educational institutions, banks, railways, etc. emerged which in course of time, transformed rural centres into towns and potential urban centres. Along with that the growth of trade, the industry also contributed to the

growth of urbanisation. But it is significant to note that the urban centres, which gained recognition during the British period, were different both in nature, size, and composition from many of the earlier urban centres.

The growth of urbanisation of the Malwa region of Punjab was discussed in the fifth chapter by analysing several factors like the increase in population, the collapse of various Ilaqas and villages, along the reforms done in the field of administration. Like the Districts of Ferozepur and Ludhiana lies under the administration of Jalandhar division and the headship of the Commissioner, assisted by an Additional Commissioner. Advancement in the field of trade and industry; transportation; education with special emphasis to English, high, technical and girl's education. Medical facilities provided was also a focused factor of the growth of urban centres in this region. New urban centres of various sizes in the Malwa region were traced and found that in 1881, none of the towns in the Malwa region had a population of one lac. But in 1941- Ferozepur i.e., one out of nine urban centres of Punjab had a population of one lac and it came under the class I town. Some town showed extensive growth like Abohar, Amloh, Fazilka, Bathinda, Jalalabad, Mansa, Moga etc. along with that there were several towns, remained untouched or had very little growth that were- Sangrur, Giddarbaha, Jagraon, Sirsa, Nabha, Patiala, Ropar, Patiala, Bassi Pathana of Fatehgarh Sahib. According to the comparative study on the census reports, there were 82 new small towns in 1941 and the population increased by 10%.

The work is entirely different and new. As no such work has been done on the Malwa region of Punjab, as to how urbanisation emerged in this area during the colonial period. As in 1881, 89.6 per cent of people were living in the rural areas and the urban population of Punjab was 10.4 per cent which increased to 12.8 per cent. so, we found an increase in the urban population. so, this study investigates the relevant determinants of urbanization in Punjab. Through the process, it is found that amongst the new urban centres of Malwa Punjab there were mostly Mandi Towns.

In other words, these towns were originated because of the development of Mandis. There was a rapid growth of urban centres in the areas around Satluj rather than others and it was because of canal irrigation facilities. Along with that the migration of people from within and outside Punjab because of the opening of the railway, the establishment of industry in Ludhiana district provide employment opportunities, big provision of Mandis in Ferozepur district facilitated with metttled roads, a new educational institute for lower to higher education and better medical facilities were the major factors of Urbanisation in the Malwa region of Punjab during the colonial period.

So, an attempt has been made in the present work to study the process of urbanisation and its impact in Punjab during the colonial period. In this work urbanisation has been taken in general and the factors leading to the growth of urban centres. It is done with a hope that the study would illumine, first, the nature of the towns, their institutions, their composition, and the newly evolving culture. Secondly, it is expected that the study of the quality and volume of urbanisation would help in understanding the economy, society, and culture of the region. It provides a further scope of the study for the urbanisation process in the region in the later phase that is after independence till now.

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Introduction

Urbanization refers to modernization, a changing attitude of people towards socio-economic life by which they are approachable to the modern facilities of livelihood. It comprises higher education, a better job, superior prospects and higher quality of life, and an easy approach to technological development. It is said that urbanization advances when the people of different communities shift their work from agriculture to trade, manufacture, or associated interests¹. Anderson states urbanization as a bipolar course, which not only involves a demographical change from villages to cities and occupational changes from agriculture to non-agriculture stream but it involves a change in attitude, beliefs, values, and behaviour of the people. So, it involves the migration of population, changes in occupation, and changes in the uses of land. Economic growth is one of the important factors of urbanization that facilitates the easy flow of goods from local to national or international markets and this linked with urbanization in a global context. Politico-administrative and religion are also important factors because the capitals and important administrative centres, as well as the famous religious places, are the most populous centre which facilitates urbanization².

Urbanization is a common phenomenon evident in every civilization and this practice, villages grow into towns and which grow into cities. It can be said that in every history of civilization the history of urban life has the main concern. Archaeological records showed that the beginning of urbanization was found between 9000 BC and 6000 BC in the Neolithic Age and it was in the lower Middle East in the Neolithic Age. The contemporary civilizations appeared in Northern China near the river Hwang Ho, Harappa civilization near river Indus, and Egyptian civilization in the Lower Nile Valley. U.N. Day examined the process of urbanization based on iron, with the help of which cities grew and how it was helpful for agriculture. During the development of human civilization every invention was a milestone, from hunting to agricultural production and

domestication of animals; and from uncertain survival to surplus production. So, the agricultural revolution is the root of urban development which upsurges to industrial development³.

The term Urbanization has been defined variously by different disciplines. Specialists in various academic disciplines, however, use this concept only in combining it with their specialized approaches to the problem. According to the sociologist's point, urbanization is a process of transmission of certain modernizing features in a population⁴. While Geographers confer urbanization as a procedure of increase in the density and increase in the concentration points. Economists, on the other hand, treat urbanization as a process whereby secondary and tertiary functions replace the primary functions of production. Economic activities and land values are the main focus of urban economists although in recent years they have tended to be more interdisciplinary in their approach and Historians viewed urbanization as the study of the expansion of urban centres in due course of time and studying those factors that contributed in the growth of these urban centres and also studying the ecology of these urban units with different dimensions like environment, economic structure, political machinery, and social setups⁵. The diversity in the definition of urbanization is so great that Me Gee called it "a balloon into which each scientist blows his meaning"⁶. But the simplest and most accepted definition refers to the proportion of the population living in urban areas to the total population or else to a rise in this proportion. In short, we can say, the process of urbanization changes with changes in demographic aspects, social life, economic growth, technological advancement, and environmental changes in society. These changes are evident in the increase of concentration of population along with the changing interests of people from primary to secondary and tertiary economic activities and the adoption of some social characters which are strange to rural society⁷. So, several factors contributed to urban growth. Since the early historic period, the rural settlement was based on agriculture production and they

have the least interest in industry, trade, and Commerce, so agriculture became the backbone of the country's economy but trade and commerce gave people the opportunity of movement to both inland and oversea⁸.

There has been a tendency to treat urbanization as a co-terminus with development and modernization, in consonance with the western model of urbanization. But this does not always stand true. It is only one of the several processes which constitute development and is a continuous and secular process of change.

Some factors which foster urbanization are figured as:

- Creation of opportunities for non-agricultural occupations in trade and commerce, industries and professions, banking, and transport, etc.
- Establishment of administrative setups of social importance, educational institutions, development agencies, and medical and public health facilities.
- Establishment of marketing facilities.
- The emergence of transportation and communication facilities like railways, roadways, waterways, and airway and development of postal and telecommunication facilities;
- Establishment of religious place of worship with regular large-scale gatherings.

In the framework of the above explanation on urbanization, an attempt has been made in the present work to study the process of urbanization and its impact in Punjab during the colonial period with special reference to the Malwa region of Punjab. Under the colonial administration, developments were geared to meet the requirements of imperial interest. The colonial state was a decelerator and not an accelerator of industrialization in India. Therefore, instead of being considered as an index of modernization, in many cities and towns of India, it was the result

of an influx of population from other areas and reducing opportunities in rural areas. The rate of urban growth was estimated as both natural increases by birth and migration from other areas.

Punjab is one of the important parts of India with a pre-historic civilization. Stretching from the Khaiber Pass in the north-west to the river Yamuna in the south-east. Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and the Sutlej rivers (as well as the river Saraswati/Ghaggar flowed through the Sutlej- Yamuna divide) of the Punjab region comprises the five interfluves⁹ (Doabs) like Sindh Sagar Doab, Chaj Doab, Rachna Doab, Bari Doab, and Bist Doab respectively. The urbanization in Punjab came in different phases over the millennia. Starting from the Indus valley civilization we noticed there were emergence, decline, and revival of towns in the Punjab region. Indus valley civilization is the earliest and foremost urban civilization in India mostly concentrated in Punjab. It is said to be the first urbanization in the south-eastern region of Asia. During 600 B.C. to 600 A.D., second urbanization was observed with the emergence of janpadas¹⁰. With the advent of Turkish rule in India, the next phase of Urbanization was witnessed. The impetus given by the Delhi Sultanate has been characterized as an 'urban revolution'¹¹. Under the Mughals, Punjab became the third most urbanized region of the sub-continent, with a proliferation of small towns and revival of some old ones. European travellers noticed the abundance of towns in Mughal India and they were astounded by their large size. There was a quarter to half a million people living in the large cities of the Mughal Empire during the sixteenth century¹². Later, the expansion policies of Ranjit Singh also added to the urbanscape. The new state of Punjab was stretched from river Satluj to Peshawar and the hills of Kashmir¹³. But a significant boost in the number, size, and functions of the towns and cities was noticed after the annexation of Punjab in 1849¹⁴. Along with the surroundings, Bist-Jalandhar doab was annexed by Britishers to their empire in 1846 and Jalandhar became the headquarter of the districts. The board of administration was established by Governor-

General Lord Dalhousie, having three members John Lawrence, Henry Lawrence, and Charles Mansell (later Robert Montgomery was appointed instead of him). Subsequently, with the growth and development of administrative functions, medical and educational institutions, banks, railways, etc. emerged over in course of time, transformed rural centres into towns and potential urban centres. But it is significant to note that the urban centres, which gained recognition during the British period, were different both in nature, size, and composition from many of the earlier urban centres. It is in this context that the present study has been conducted¹⁵.

Urbanization is characterized by economic development and it can be measured with the help of per capita income, growth of peoples, and increase in the number and size of urban centres. All these developments increase the demand for various commodities which results in the reallocation of the land of resources. In urban settlements, the importance of manufacturing and other services was based on the density of the population¹⁶. Like the ancient civilizations develop near the water resources, but during the medieval period agriculture was one of the essential proximities for the development of the urban centre. Very few examples were known of towns growing based on military or trade and commerce. This was because of the reason of inefficient means of transportation and even fewer sources of transport. So, the towns grew in well-cultivated regions. The north part of the region was good in agriculture so it was the most urbanized part of Punjab. This was because the village provides them with food and raw material in abundance for their various types of manufacturing activities. So, the towns were parasitically dependent upon the countryside¹⁷. But on the other hand, some social sections of the countryside had also demanded urban manufactured goods. In this way, urban centres ensured the prosperity of some rich sections of the villages and these people were also dependent upon urban commodities. There was a symbiotic relationship between urban and rural areas of

Punjab. For instance, the town grew in the Northern sub-montane region i.e., north to the Lahore were agricultural town like Gujrat, Wazirabad, Attock, Sialkot, and Machhiwara and the towns grew the dry uplands that are south to Lahore were Eminabad, Goindwal, Sultanpur, Nakodar, Ludhiana, Sirhind, and Ambala¹⁸. But during the Mughal period towns got importance because they were the centre of administration or they were markets or transit points for traders. It was said that the urban centres during the Mughal period were determined by the presence of the ruling class, as higher ministers of centre lived in large towns while middle-level ministers lived in middle or small towns. Another aspect that affected urbanization was the constructional work executed by the ruling class like palaces, gardens, bazaars, etc. Barnier also admit that the grandeur of the city was due to the emperor and his nobles¹⁹.

While in the modern period people more likely lived near the workplace that's why in this period Industrialisation played an important factor in the growth of urbanization. This Industrialisation attracted rural attributes and they transformed into urban ones. This contribution brings a productive change in the population. There was also an increase in rural population when the rural settlement met with reclassification. So, the migration of population from the rural to urban areas was the chief component in the process of urban development as well as the imperative mechanism in the trend of urbanization to accomplish²⁰. No single definition does justice with the concept of urbanization because it is a sophisticated concept of knowing socio-economic, political, and cultural parameters of an area as it connotes some important aspects of settlement especially their behavioural pattern during different ages. Urban centres served as the nucleus for human settlement, so the concept of urbanization is important because these urban centres played a multi-faceted role in the development of any region.

Becoming urban is the process that depends upon demographic transition from one place to another along with the enhancing concentration of population in the large urban sectors, ended upon a completely urbanized

society. The process of demographic transition also brought structural changes in the society in the form of residential areas, their standard of living, mode of transport and communications, and also with the development of industrial capitalism because cities were the foci of manufacturing, trade, and commerce.²¹ It also served as great change in the social aspect like the beliefs of people, their values, attitude and behaviour towards it along with the spread of all these changes to the rest of the country and with the social inequalities and imbalanced structure of the society within the different classes and communities of the urban settlements. So, in the process of urbanization, there was an increase in the size of people concentration and the demographic sense, it was the rise of the urban population over total population in a particular period. So, with the increase of the urban population, urbanization also grows.²²

In modern studies, urbanization is being studied systematically as it plays an important role in the progress of the region as well as the society. Kingsley Davis presents the three aspects of urbanization, firstly urbanization means a large proportion of the population lives in urban centres. Secondly, urbanization is the basis of revolutionary changes in the whole pattern of social life that came from economic and technological development. Thirdly, urban centres were the foci of power and influence for the whole of the society, despite it may be agricultural and rural but now showing some potential of urban growth rather its future possibilities are still doubtful.²³ Urban centres served as the focal point of the politico-administrative and socio-economic life of a civilization and its development symbolized the development of civilization. Though it varies from land to land, from time to time, and economy to economy. Every aspect of development plays a vital role in the growth of the process of urbanization, this process is the indicator of the growing concentration of an individual. When the urban population grows out of the total population, urbanization grows as urban centres are the heart of human civilization and

culture and an important index of the socio-economic structure of a nation as they play a multi-faceted role in its development.²⁴

Urbanization is a universal phenomenon working behind every economic and social change of every region and helpful in various social and cultural changes of the society as it brings multi-dimensional modifications like its population. Urbanization is the process of multiplication in the number of points of concentration or agglomeration of the population. Evaluation of the degree of urbanization denotes the study of the number of urban places and their respective size along with the proportion of an accurate number of people livings in urban places.²⁵

Presently India is in second place in the list of the population of the world but its urbanization is not growing at the same pace of population increase during the nineteenth century. The twentieth century reflects some changes in this pattern and reflects the expansion of the urban domain. So, the present study aims at the growing population in Punjab along with the growth of different towns in respect of their sizes in various census counts and examine the forms and infrastructural changes introduced by Britishers and their impact on the administration, economy, and on the growth of urbanization. The study specifically highlights the history and pattern of urban centres of the Malwa region of Punjab.

With the foundation of British rule, an important economic transition has been noticed, by introducing a variety of cash crops like indigo, tea, coffee, tobacco, groundnuts, jute, etc. They transformed agriculture from subsistence to commercial benefits and gradual industrialization of the economy. Along with that, the new means of transportation paved the way for foreign trade which subsequently helped in urbanization. In this work urbanization has been taken in general and the factors leading to the growth of urban centres. It is done with a hope that the study would illumine, first, the nature of the towns, their institutions, their composition, and the newly evolving culture. Secondly, it is expected that the study of the quality and

volume of urbanization would help in understanding the economy, society, and culture of the region.

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¹⁸ Chetan, S. (1991). *Region and Empire Punjab in the seventeenth century*. New Delhi: Oxford University press, p. 173-75.

¹⁹ Ibid, p.180-81.

²⁰ Bhalla, G. S. (2005). *Urbanization: Some basic Issues*. (R. Grewal, Ed.) New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 33-34.

²¹ Johnston, R. J. (1955). *The dictionary of Human Geography*. UK: Blackwell.

²² Bose, A. (1973). *Studies in India's Urbanization*. Bombay: Tata Mc-Graw hill Publishing Co., p. 3-4.

²³ Kingsley, D. (1955). The Origin and Growth of Urbanization in World. *American journal of Sociology*, LX. P.

²⁴ Murya, S. D. (1988). *Urban Environment Management-A Functional Study*. Allahabad: Chugh publication, P. 36-7.

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1 The Influx of British in India and the Urban Change

Urbanization is a transition of society from traditional rural to urban and of economically from traditional agricultural to industrial. Kingsley Davies has described the process of urbanization as a spreading out of human settlement and concentration in urban units and it is a progressive concentration of inhabitants in the urban units¹. Urbanization is a global phenomenon behind dynamic modernization and social change, it brings several changes in the socio-cultural life of society as well as economic progress. Urban areas have various types of actions like transmission and interpretation of foreign effects. In today's world, a city implies its acceptance for foreign and cross-culture influence and it is a pot in which people from diverse backgrounds of ethnicity, languages, and religion meet at one place². While Davis presents three features of urbanization, by first it means urbanization is a shift of a sizable amount of population to live in cities, secondly, he describes the economic and technological development brings social change and thirdly he describes cities as the foci of power and political influences no matter it may be agricultural or non-agricultural sector³. A distinguishing factor in the process of urbanization is between the growth of population or population itself becoming urbanized. This phenomenon is based upon the fact of natural increase or increases due to demographic transition⁴.

In India urbanization has a long history since the Indus valley civilization, where we found well-planned big cities. There were three important ecological units based on which we can measure the growth of urbanization in India since ancient times.

- Northwest India
- The Gangetic Plains and
- The South Indian Plains

The Indus valley civilization flourished in the upper one ecological unit, so the units were the pioneer of urbanization in India. In the Gangetic plains, there was a dense monsoonal forest area for which iron technology was discovered and used to establish human settlements. The southern parts of India were still in the Neolithic age⁵ whereas the northern part had Indus valley civilization. So, iron technology was used for the growth of urbanization in south Indian plains.

Indus valley civilization is the first phase of urbanization in India founded as early as 5000 years ago. The urban centre flourished for about 600 years. We found no urban development during the 1000 years followed by the Indus valley civilization⁶. Some historians have viewed urbanization differently like some argued that this field is yet to explore and finding its existence in India. Even the historians like R.S. Sharma had a different point of view about the cities of Indus Valley civilization and called it the first civilization of the continent. According to him, not much work has been done so far to describe the true face of Harappa urbanization. It was merely based on literary sources. In the last 3-4 decades, nothing as much has been done based on which we can analyze the rise and growth of urban centres of these cities.⁷ Another historian S.N. Mukherjee described that urban history in India has not given a place as a subject with its rights, it was merely a neglected area so far⁸. When the Aryan civilization flourished in Northern India during 600 B.C there was Dravidian civilization flourished in the Southern part of India. During the Mauryan and post-Mauryan period, cities grew rapidly in number and size in North as well as in the Southern part of India. Some cities also flourished during the Gupta period, said to be decline after a post-Gupta period, were revived during the sultanate period, and continued till the Mughal period along with the advent of colonialism in India.

1.1 Colonialism in Developing Country

Colonialism is the practice of the domination of a developed nation over under developing country by controlling their economy and political scenario and in its historical part it contained the idea of ‘development differential’ because of control of one people by an alien people⁹. This is also related with imperialism, though differ in some aspect. The word colonial is derived from the Latin word *Colonus* which means the establishment, extension, or adding up of colonies by one territory over another territory by maintaining the unequal relationship between the colonist power and the exploited territory usually with the help of trade. While the term imperialism defines the power to command and extending the rule with the help of military forces or extending the boundaries of the nation by war and diplomatic activities even between equal countries. Colonialism in Europe began in the 1500c when the European countries began to explore different parts of the world to full fill their need for trade through sea route around African, American, and Asian countries. Amongst these European nations, the leading was the Portuguese, the Spanish, the Dutchess, and the Britishers. They discovered various countries by travelling around the world and founded settlements in these newly discovered countries with the help of spreading European culture and institutions. Asia was the pleasant choice of these countries and India became the battlefield to serve as a colony amongst various European countries and in which Britishers won the field. The expansion policy of Britain instrumentally created exploitation of the indigenus economy. With the establishment of British colonial rule the structure of the Indian economy was disrupted and provided it distorted economy, social destruction, de-urbanization, the desolation of small scale industry, lack of raw material, failure of traditional mercantile and pauperized the Indian society.¹⁰ The British colonial period in India can be divided into three phases- the first phase denotes the rise and growth of British trade in India before 1757, the next was the expansion of their political power with the

help of wars and controlling territories from 1757-1857 and the third phase was the investment stage when the colonial government invested in different fields like the introduction of railways, expansion of canals, the establishment of new urban centres, investing in irrigation, brought in new agrarian technique and plantation to compete with a new global market. So, the process of urbanization initiated during a modern period with the influx of British, their colonial policies, and economic attitudes.

Urbanization has some vibrant factors like internal population growth factor which aimed at the rising expectation and higher standard of living, pull and push factor that affects migration of population, changing economy from agriculture to industry and their multiple effects and interconnectedness of cities with new means of transport and communications. Townscape elements during the ancient period were defence, religion, domestic, and administration and these elements were the same in the medieval period but during the modern period, the elements were defence, trading factories, administration, and domestic. Though historians viewed that British policy to develop the cities of India took a sharp turn after the revolt of 1857 and they emphasized the three basic requirements for the development of the city i.e., pacification, sanitation, and taxation, and the townscape elements became mills and factories. After independence new elements added on like the steel town, industrial town, megacities, and residential differentiation.

The first European country to reach India was the Portuguese, Vasco-de-Gamma, to establish commercial relations with India. For these purposes, they established some towns near the coast like Panaji in Goa in 1510 and Bombay in 1532¹¹. After the Portuguese, Dutchess was the next who came for commercial benefits and settled at Patapuli in north Coromandel Coast and Masulipatnam in 1606. Another factory was founded in 1610 at Pulicat. With these factory towns at Masulipatnam urbanization started its manifestation. With the growing economic activities and factory towns of European countries urbanization also grew in the region.

Portuguese also founded an urban centre in 1658 at Nagapattinam¹². During Sixteenth and Seventeenth-century many European powers took interest in trade and commerce with India, among these France was also one, he entered trade relations with India in the latter half of the Seventeenth Century and founded two important towns Pondicherry and Chandornagore in 1674 and 1676 respectively¹³. Among all these trading European powers Britishers won the battle and emerged as the powerful merchant company by getting the special privilege of the trade from Mughal Emperors and settled themselves in Madras in 1639 and Calcutta in 1690 to trade in cotton, silk, indigo, spices, etc. and gradually settled themselves in India to reap the benefits of Indian merchandise¹⁴. They also earned supremacy over all the foreign competitors in the Indian merchandise trade. As a result, urbanization got some stimulus during the late 18th and early 19th century with the progress in the commercial and industrial areas. But soon a decline was witnessed in the urbanization process of India. Because the British East India company started aiming at their commercial profits. For the sake of continuity of their own country's industrial progress they ruined and disregarded the Indian domestic commerce by draining Indian wealth to Britain. So, with these urban resources in India began to lose their charm and they could not have regained the status of their sustaining commerce and manufacture. In this period urbanization in India took a new turn and the process of de-urbanization and thinning of the town began¹⁵.

Britishers proved Marx's view true, according to which, "England had a double mission in India, one destructive, the other regenerative"¹⁶. During the early phase of the British policies like a monopoly over trade, transforming Indian economy to British economy by a regular supply of raw materials to their England-based industries and one-way free trade, hit-harder the trade and industry-based towns in India¹⁷. A new era of economic exploitation was initiated with the 'Act of 1813'. By which British monopoly over Indian trade was ended¹⁸ and it also ruined the occupation of various Indian artisan and craftsmen with the ruination of Indian

manufacturing industries. By this, the old glory of towns like Surat, Lucknow, Dacca, and Murshidabad had lost¹⁹ as these were important centres of manufacturing during the medieval period. After the battle of Plessey and Buxar in 1757 & 1764²⁰ Bengal, Bihar, Orissa were subjugated by Britishers and they completely overpowered their trade, industry, and even political and social scenario. They imposed many obstacles to their local trade and manufactures by introducing heavy taxes, assured the decay of cities. They hit firmly the Indian industries, most importantly the cotton industry by importing raw cotton to England and exporting finished goods to the Indian market with this discouraging attitude developed towards the Indian market²¹. Indian cities were degraded and slowly depopulated like Agra an imperial city in its times was ruin all around, Vijaynagar, Cambay, and Broch (the port cities) also lost their earlier position. Another factor that helped in urban decay was natural calamities. The policy of commercialization of agriculture was itself very harmful along with the contribution of famine of Orissa and Bengal in 1860 and 1870 extended the harmfulness and depopulated the major cities²².

Somehow a new trend of urbanization originated in the latter half of the nineteenth century by building new roads, the extension of the railway, construction of canals, opening of Suez Canal in 1869, introduction of steam navigation; all these helped in the opening of new channels of trade and the value of Indian trade increased with the help of rising and growth of new industries, new banking system, insurance facilities, coal mining, shipping, and plantation, etc. Before all this British established a new administrative structure to consolidate their power in India. They manufactured various levels of control units on imperial, provincial, and district levels. They also founded a new form of urban units like civil lines, cantonments, military headquarter and model towns etc. These urban units are structured with police stations, jails, treasury, Gardens, post offices, schools, dispensaries, and municipal committees. So, these administrative units designed the most important cities and towns of India. The most

important urban units of the British period were Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. In these cities, Britishers made the central commercial area the city's focal point encircled with European-style buildings Banks and a big trade market²³. They also gave their name to various lands, chunks, and various products like Dalhousie square in Calcutta and fort George in Madras and products like Liverpool salt, etc. Suburban railway, trains, and double-decker buses also gave a new status to the traditional cities. Another example of the most important urban unit that originated was the capital city New Delhi, with a transfer of the capital of the empire from Calcutta in 1911. Britishers gave a new look to its structure very much different to Shahjahanabad²⁴, according to their taste (like narrow streets, neglected drainage and water supply, poor health & sanitation facilities).

With the advent of the railway in the latter half of the nineteenth century, cities got inter-connected with each other even large cities were linked with small towns, which created the national network to the urban units. Even with the help of rail links some new towns came into a form that contributed to urbanization²⁵. Railway also contributed to the advancement of trade and modern industry. To accumulate railway staff many towns and railway colonies also came into existence. New railway towns emerged in the country e.g., Jamalpur in Bihar, Bareilly, and Meerut in Utter Pradesh, Nagpur in Maharashtra, Bolpur, Alipurduar in Birbhum & Jalpaiguri.²⁶ Jalpaiguri also become famous for Tea plantation with the help of new commercial products. These new market towns worked as the channel of distributors and supply between rural areas, distant market, and producer also accelerate urbanization in India. With the extension of the railway after 1853 port cities came closer to the other cities or areas from where raw material could be available in abundance along with the availability of cheap labours. Some cotton and Jute factories were established after the 1850s in Bombay and Calcutta, former by Indian merchants and lateral by English merchants. This industrial development began in India but India never became an industrial country because of the

biased nature of colonial power. They did not want to flourish industry in India if they do, then their industrial progress should suffer. New culture and infrastructure manifested in the newly developed Commercial towns founded by the colonial government for their convenience. This building includes offices, banks, transport depots, administrative officers, insurance agencies, parks, clubs, racecourses, and theatre, etc. These buildings were even built by Indian agents of rich Indian elites. The Indian brokers and rich merchant-built buildings and bazaars in Indian old towns or black towns. They also brought up land use their surplus money and invest in property.

Historians viewed urbanization in different phases over time and they came with different perspectives. In ancient times, a place is said to be an urban unit if it was a seat of any king, an administrative officer, feudal lord, or group, and had suitable trade relation with other countries. In medieval time an urban city should have connected to villages for the easy flow of raw materials and food grains but in the modern period, an urban centre should possess a definite amount of population mostly indulge in non-agrarian work such places are known as big cities model towns, cantonments, Mandi towns, civil lines, Railway station towns, and Hill Stations.

Bombay, Madras and Calcutta were villages in previous times they become big cities only when European countries found their Settlement over there in 1661, 1639, and 1690 respectively. After the downfall of the Mughal empire, the Mughal capitals also lost their grandeur, and with the weakening of centralized Mughal power the regional rulers gained their power in their respective regions, and as a result of this various new big urban units came into existence like Hyderabad, Poona, Broada, Nagpur, Tanjore, Lucknow, etc. Malthus and Doubleday give us the theory for population increase. He is having an idea that there is the law of nature works behind the growth of the population. Firstly, population increase where the sources of life were in abundance and then when the area became

overpopulated nature maintain the balance by some calamities, famine, or epidemics²⁷. These new towns lured the people from other regions especially the traders, artisans, etc. to come there for settlement. Some nobles and Mughal officers of northern India also contributed to the establishment of new gambas, town or Ganj (whereas Qasba refers to a small town, also mentioned by Ganesh Das wadera in his books Char Bag-I- Punjab and Ganj refers to small field market). Due to competition faced from the trading companies of other countries, the British East India Company built their places of importance like mercantile offices known as factories. For the reason of protection, they also fortified their factories like Fort St. George at Madras, Fort William at Calcutta, and marked out of the area for the fort in Bombay. These places were also named white towns and the Indian people living outside these areas were named Black towns.

1.2 British Policies in India

The attitude of Britishers towards the people of India was changed after the revolt of 1857. They felt the need for a more secured area for the residence of English people for this colonial government cleared the field outside the old town and established a new clean area for themselves known as civil lines along with that cantonment were made for residence of military troops. These areas were built in separate enclaves connected to the town through a railway or road. They also did so because they want to save themselves from the epidemic disease by which several English men died off²⁸. In search of their native environment, they founded hill stations. These hills station contributed to their health recovery as well as in economy like they started plantation of tea and coffee on the hillsides.

The industrial revolution has played a major role in the history of urbanization because Industrialisation also goes hand in hand with urbanization. It began in the 18th century in Europe which brought about a magnificent change in urbanization because people migrated from village

to town and town to cities for a new opportunity of work. British also introduced a factory system in India but not at the equal level of Europe because they did not want to develop Indian entrepreneurship. They develop cash crop culture for their benefits like cotton, Jute, Sugarcane, Tea, Tobacco, indigo, etc. These cash crops have juxtaposition with the higher rate of revenue which ruined Indian farmers as well as India's economy. They transferred raw materials to run their factories in England. The higher rate of customs duty also destroyed the famous Indian textiles industry. Many rural areas are converted into urban units. It was witnessed in the latter half of the eighteenth century in Europe especially in England and as well as in American countries and the rest of the world. This newly industrialized Europe need raw martial in abundance for their factories. They also needed a market to sell their finished goods. For this purpose, they started looking in the outer world like Africa and Asia. So, England started to control the Indian market in 1600 and their first factory was established in Surat (Gujarat) in 1613, afterwards in Agra, Ahmadabad, and Broach in 1615. The Mughal Emperor was Jahangir, who accepted this European open-heartedly and allowed Mr Sir Thomas Roe to establish factories in Gujarat. After that, they moved to Madras and established their first proprietary holding building as a fortified factory called fort St. George. In 1639 and later, they moved to Bengal, where they built Fort St. William and urbanized three villages and named it Kolkata. The battle of Plessey (1757) and Buxar (1764) opened the gate of political success for Britishers in India.

After winning these battles company acquired so much confidence that it started struggling for more political power to satisfy its ambition. So, they fought for another area to build their own Kingdom in 1799, they won the Anglo-Mysore wars in 1817-19, and defeated Peshwa and annexed the Maratha confederacy and in 1849 they annexed Punjab by defeating Sikhs in Anglo-Sikh Wars. With this British captured a large area of Indian Subcontinents but they want to annex more, for this they adopted some

policies like the Doctrine of lapse by which the territory of those dependent states whose rulers died without leaving any natural heirs would be controlled by the British after coming under the British Confederacy. Several small states annexed to British rule under this rule viz. Satara, Sambalpur, Udaipur, Nagpur, Jhansi, Oudh, etc. Along with that subsidiary, the alliance was also applied to those Indian states that were under British Patronage, they had to surrender to the British control for their foreign affairs and had to reduce their army and had fallen at British prey for their external protection by this. Till the mid-nineteenth century, no powerful state remained that could challenge British authority in India. This type of urbanization was termed dependent urbanization by the scholar Atiya Habeeb.

The rural-urban paradox that prevailed in India during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century was the product of colonial politics which ruined the basic connection between agriculture and manufacturing i.e., domestic Industry. The colonial government laid their type of Novel system by which they granted the ownership of land to the Zamindars and they interlinked their market with Indian trade and destroyed India mercantile. Though the British government built trade relations of India with outer world i.e., European nations but independent mode. This means British policy was to transform India's economy from an exporter to an importer of manufactured goods. They initiated their policy by converting Indian agriculture into a capital in European countries. Historical facts clear that it was necessary to destroy Indian textile manufacturing if they want the growth of British industry and for this purpose, they forced their finished goods to the Indian market with no taxes and did not accept Indian traders to England. Till 1813 Indian industry was at its growing position, its cotton textile and silk were in heavy demand in European countries. When Napoleon Bonaparte banned British export into Europe then they have no other choice, they had a life and death game to save British industry so they exported their manufactured goods to India. These new types of

change destroyed the self-sufficient economy of the nation to the dependent economy. This Dominance had ruined the dependent relationship along with the small-scale production of goods and geographic uniqueness of India.²⁹ The port cities acted as the suction centre of raw material for Britishers. Through these port cities of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, India cotton, rice, jute, tea, etc. were exported to European countries, and textile, manufactured goods were imported in return. Dada Bhai Naoroji presented forward their drain of wealth theory in 1860, according to which he said that India is being impoverished despite the abundance of raw material and because of export surplus. That's why India was facing debt in her current account during 1898-1914. Britain had put several troublesome duties over the Indian export in the form of invisible services like shipping, insurance, etc. of about 5% and covering this trade deficit. The Indian villages in the late nineteenth century mounting the British empire and its worldwide trade and commerce in India.³⁰ The famous economist Ranadive argued in 1987 that the Pre-colonial period was the period of stagnation of the Indian economy. Although the rural sector was figured as the linkage to the newly developed towns for the supply of agriculture products as well as labour class but these newly formed cities did not owe to the rural sector for their contribution to their growth. So, these new cities originated as an enclave i.e., different from old towns dependent upon the rural sector but delinked from them and finally grow into a metropolitan city³¹.

The industries developed in India were termed proto-Industry by scholars because they could not develop on the line of European industrialization due to colonial policies. That's why this sector remained unable to cater to employment or to create a progressive sector of tertiary activities. To develop a balanced growth, regional inequalities should be reduced and market factors should be integrated with the economic development³². Perhaps one should not believe the factor that economic development favours a few geographical areas. Some regions cater more

economic activities and attract the population more than others. It means some regions have a unique feature for the development of industry, some have commerce and others have agriculture tendencies.³³ Based on this very feature it can be said that some regions were growing dynamically while others were declining. So, the urban centres nowadays considered as the 'heroic engines of growth' in the context of not only creating economic growth for the nation or wealth but also generating new employment sector with a balanced distributed urban growth, is required for the development of a region. Urbanization is a natural and inevitable result of economic development³⁴.

1.3 Economic Growth and Development of Urban area

Urban growth and economic growth go hand in hand. But economic growth is not only dependent upon the growth and development of the urban areas but also of rural areas of the country. Some economists favoured that agricultural growth cover industry, they argued that to increase rural income agricultural sector should be made more productive and along with this a significant amount should be spent on industrial development also others had the idea that industry should be developed for the development of agriculture units. But one cannot deny that the rural and urban sector are interlinked or dependent on each other for their growth and development but on the other hand, the mutual co-relation between the cities was also required for industrial development. It can be said that modernized agriculture with the help of farm machines, pesticides, etc. was also pre-request for urbanization. Industry-required free labours from rural areas and this mobilization of persons in search of employment from rural to urban sector contribute to urbanization and the farm machines, fertilizers produced in industries accelerate agriculture. So, industry and agriculture developed at a rapid pace and hence helped in the development of urbanization³⁵. Undoubtedly people from rural areas moved first to small or medium-sized towns because these types of towns were less expensive and had employment opportunities, they less likely to go straight to big

cities this was the reason that the number of the small and medium-sized town increased at the rapid speed than big towns. The rural-urban migration of the population plays a significant role in the growing urbanization. Better means of transportation are the key factor in the migration of population. That facilitated people to move quickly and easily move from one place to another place of their interest. Push and Pull factors also contribute to the migration of the population. They moved to another place which pulls them with better opportunities of earning, living and infrastructure facilities and they move because of the push factor of their poverty, low or no means of medical facilities, earning, opportunities to progress, etc. During the colonial period, the push factors that affected the village community were land deterioration, high land revenues, rural indebtedness, draughts, lack of adequate land, lack of medical facilities, lack of market availability, etc. The colonial government provided them pull factor of several types of new market or mandi towns, colony towns, Railway suburbs, Anglican towns with the clean and spacious environment, educational facilities, medical hospital and dispensaries, industry, railway, new employment opportunities, etc. The better lifestyle of the newly developed urban centres was the bright light for the people of rural areas. That is why the urban population of India increased during the colonial period. In 1881 the population of India was 253,577,619. In which 229,939,894 was rural population and 24,637,447 people were living in urban areas. So, the percentage of the urban population was 9.1% and 90.9 per cent of people were living in villages³⁶. It increased to 388,997,955 in 1941 while 49,696,053 peoples were living in urban areas and 339,301,902 peoples were living in rural areas. The number of towns in 1941 was 2,703 and villages were 655,892 while in 1881 there were approximately 2250 towns and 602,467 villages in India (66 towns have population more than 50,000 inhabitants³⁷ in 1941, 87.2 people were living in rural areas and 12.8 people inhabited urban areas. The urban growth is slower than the western countries. But in 1951 the number of towns rises to 2843 with 17.29% urban population.

Table 1-1 Population of the Indian Sub-continent, 1881-1941

Census year	Area per Sq. Mile	Population	Average annual growth rate
1881	1,382,164	253,896,330	2.07 %
1891	1,560,160	287,314,671	1.11 %
1901	1,766,597	294,361,057	0.15 %
1911	1,802,657	303,156,396	0.65 %
1921	1,802,332	305,837,778	0.09 %
1931	1,808,679	338,837,788	1.01 %
1941	1,581,410	388,997,955	1.04 %

Census of India, 1931, fifth and sixth general report

The growth of Indian cities was regularly monitored with the help of census data before using these detailed census reports, it should be checked that who is writing the census report, how the data was collected, and with which objective. It was also difficult to come to actual results because people did not like to share their actual information and even sometimes, they were not knowing of actual information. So, we must use census data with very much caution. The first census data in India was conducted in 1824 of Allahabad town on the methodology of the census conducted in Britain and afterwards, in 1827-28 James Princep conducted the census of Banaras. Henry Walter boasts of the census work with complete coverage of Dacca in 1830, and of Fort St. George in 1836-37, in 1852, the census of North West area was reported and next was done in 1866-67, which was merged in the imperial census of 1871. So, the census of 1866-67 was done in most of the part of the country known as census operation was undertaken on 17th Feb 1881 by W.C. Plowden. Which was the Indian census commissioner at that time it was based on full coverage as well it includes. After 1881 the census operation becomes a decennial operation, which means census report will be conducted after every ten years based on geographical, political, social-economic, and demographic characteristics, all most the pattern of 1881³⁸. The next census of 1891 was

conducted on 26th February 1891. Full efforts were undertaken to make it 100% coverage of all the parts of India as well as an area of Burma, Kashmir, and Sikkim March 1901³⁹. This time the area of census report was wider than before because of the addition of the area of Baluchistan, Rajputana, Andaman Nicobar, and Punjab. These time population statistics were done based on the number of houses rather than headcounts. The census of 1911 was started on 10th March 1911, covering all the fourteen British Provinces and native states. The scope of the census was extended along with the addition of questions like age at last birthday and of religion and about their knowledge of English also⁴⁰. The census of 1921 was started on 18th March 1921 and the next census report was conducted on 26th Feb. 1931⁴¹.

Table 1-2 Percentage of Urban Population in India

Census Year	Urban population in contrast to the total population
1881	9.1 %
1891	9.4 %
1901	10.6 %
1911	9.8 %
1921	10.3 %
1931	11.2 %
1941	12.9 %

Census of India 1921, vol.5, Punjab, and Delhi, p-107 and census of India 1941

During 1940 the condition of India was not recommendable for the census report because of Second World War despite all difficulties the census report was conducted with the addition of employment information. So, these census reports gave very important information regarding every aspect of the country. Firstly, it provides information about the population of the country along with the area and the percentage of people living in urban sectors. As the population of India in 1851 was 177.8 million and it was 203.4 million in 1871. In 1881 the population raised to 253.9 million but this census report also suffered from certain drawbacks like the areas

of central India, Rajasthan, Hyderabad, and Punjab was not counted in this report and in 1881 about 9.1 per cent of the Indian population was living in urban areas and it was increased to 10.6 per cent in the first decade of twentieth-century and further, it rose to 12.9 per cent in 1941⁴². The population distribution of India was also different based on age groups. There were three tiers of age groups, the first was from 0 to 20 years of age, the second was 20 to 60 and the third was above 60.

Table 1-3 Percentage of population-based on different age groups of India

Age groups	1881	1891	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941
Below 20	38.9	39.2	38.6	38.5	39.2	38.9	38.5
20 to 60	55.8	55.6	56.3	56.4	55.5	57.4	57.1
Above 60	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.2	5.3	4.7	4.4

Based on the census of India 1891 and 1941

The population count was maximum in the age group of 20 to 60, average in the age group of below 20 but the people of age group above 60 contribute very less i.e., four to five per cent in comparison to 55 to 57 per cent of the age group of 20 to 60 and 38 to 39 per cent of below twenty years.

Europe was the continent with Britain and other European countries, which witnessed the urbanization firstly. Though the process of urbanization in these countries was relatively slow. So, the city itself was not a unique thought but its growth process over different time and region was a different phenomenon. As an estimate, 97% of the world population was rural in 1800 and it increased to a minimal increase of 2.5% by 1900. But in the twentieth century, the growth was considerable in the developed nations. Nowadays the developing countries were also experiencing rapid growth of cities, because of spared of the industrial sector as well as because of the need for the industry.

¹ Kingsley, D. (1955). The Origin and Growth of Urbanization in World. *American journal of Sociology*, LX, p. 429-437.

² Ramachandran, R. (1989). *Urbanization and Urban system in India*. New Delhi: Oxford press, p. 76-77.

³ Kingsley, D. (1955). The Origin and growth of Urbanization in World. *American journal of Sociology*, LX, p. 429-437.

⁴ Bose, A. (1973). *Studies in India's Urbanization*. Bombay: Tata Mc-Graw hill Publishing Co, p. 3-4.

⁵ *The term Neolithic Age refers to the last stage of Stone Age, one of the Palaeolithic, Mesolithic, and Neolithic ages. During this age man increased their agricultural practices along with the use of polished stone tools.*

⁶ Grewal, R. (1983). Urban Patterns in Punjab (1881-1931). *Indian History Congress*, 44, p. 513-521.

⁷ Sharma, R. S. (1947). Iron and Urbanization in the Ganga basin. *Indian Historical Review I*, p. 98.

⁸ Mukherjee, S. N. (1977). *Calcutta: Myths and History*. Calcutta, p. 77-78.

⁹ Stuchey, B. (2011). Colonialism and Imperialism, 1450- 1950. *EGO*.

¹⁰ Habib, I. (1975). Colonization of Indian economy, 1757-1900. *Social Scientist*, 23-53.

¹¹ Ramachandran, R. (1989). *Urbanization and Urban system in India*. New Delhi: Oxford press, p. 77-78.

¹² Parkash, O. (Ed.). (2007). *The Dutch Factories in India, 1624-1627*. New Delhi: Manohar, p. 24-30.

¹³ Malleon, G. B. (1984). *History of the French in India*. Delhi: Renaissance Publishing House, p. 17-19.

¹⁴ Ramachandran, R. (1989). *Urbanization and Urban system in India*. New Delhi: Oxford press, p.78-79.

¹⁵ Bala, R. (1986). *Trends in Urbanization in India, 1901-1981*. Jaipur: Rawat Pub., p. 17-19.

¹⁶ Dutta, R. P. (1989). *India Today*. Calcutta: Manisha Granthalaya (p) Ltd., p.92-93

¹⁷ Hunter, W. W. (1909). *The Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1908* (Vol. XVII). Oxford: Clarendon Press, p. 40-42.

¹⁸ Ramachandran, R. (1989). *Urbanization and Urban system in India*. New Delhi: Oxford press, p. 98-99.

¹⁹ Dutta, R. P. (1989). *India Today*. Calcutta: Manisha Granthalaya (p) Ltd., p.93-94.

²⁰ The battles of Plessey, was fought between the Nawab of Bengal Mir Jafar and Britishers because British east India Company taking over advantages of their trading benefits. And the battle of Buxar was fought between Mir Qasim (The Nawab of Bengal), Siraj-ud-daula (Nawab of Oudh) and the Mughal Emperor Shah-Alam-II but they defeated in this war from British east India Company.

²¹ Habeeb, A. (1985). *Economic Structure of the Colonial Cities in India: A Review of Sectoral Trends, 1872- 1921*. (S. C. Grewal, Ed.) Amritsar: GNDU, p. 198-99.

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- ²² Bhattacharya, B. (1979). *Urban Development in India since Pre-historic Times*. New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company, p. 25-26
- ²³ Banga, I. (1984). *Polity, Economy and Urbanization in the Upper Bari Doab, 1700-1947*. (S. C. Grewal, Ed.) Amritsar: GNDU, p. 181-82.
- ²⁴ Previous name of New Delhi.
- ²⁵ Grewal, R. (1983). Urban Patterns in Punjab (1881-1931). *Indian History Congress*, 44, p. 513-521.
- ²⁶ Ramachandran, R. (1989). *Urbanization and Urban system in India*. New Delhi: Oxford press, p. 67-68.
- ²⁷ Hutton, J. H. (1931). *Census of India* (Vols. I, Part-I). Delhi: Manager of Publication, p. 40-45.
- ²⁸ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar.
- ²⁹ Raza, M. (1981). *India Urbanization and National development*, p.76
- ³⁰ Kemp, T. (1978). *Historical patterns of Industrialisation*. London: Longman Group Ltd., p.140-41.
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- ³³ Gilbert, G. (1987). *Cities, Poverty and Development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 151-53.
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- ³⁶ Plowden, W. (1883). *Census of India, 1881* (Vol. I). London: Erye and Spottiswoode, p.272.
- ³⁷ Ibid., p. 271.
- ³⁸ Ibid., p. 275.
- ³⁹ Risley, H. H. (1901). *Census of India* (Vols. I-A). Calcutta: Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, p.289-95.
- ⁴⁰ Gait, E. A. (1913). *Census report of India, 1911* (Vols. I, Part-I). Calcutta: Superintendent Government Printing, India, p. 305-11.
- ⁴¹ Hutton, J. H. (1933). *Census of India, 1931* (Vols. I, Part-I). Delhi: Manager of Publication, p. 191-98.
- ⁴² Yeatts, M. W. (1943). *Census of India, 1941*. New Delhi: The Manager of Publications, p. 221-29.

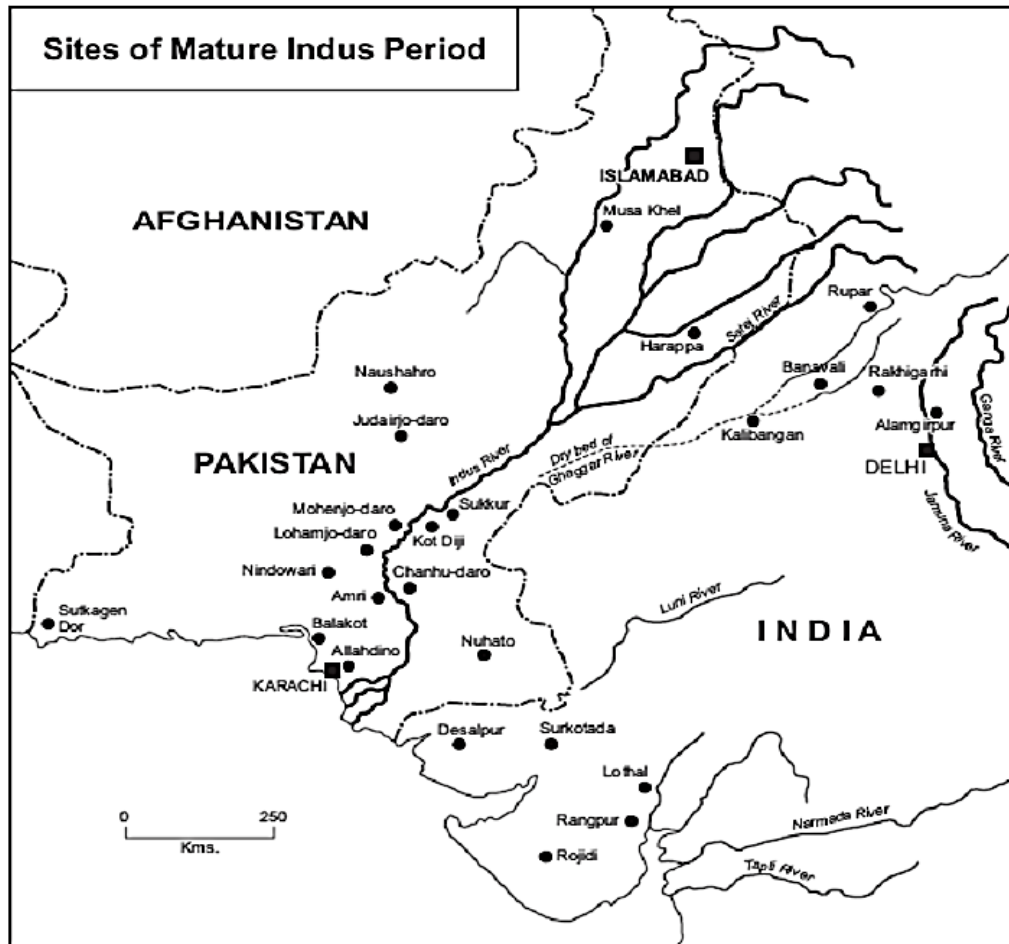
2 Evolution of Urbanization in Punjab and its Phases

2.1 Urban centres in Punjab during different Phases

2.1.1 Ancient Phase

Urban centres have been in the Punjab region for nearly five thousand years. The first urbanization of the sub-continent emerged in this area i.e., since c.2350 BC, lasting for about 600 years up to c.1700 BC in the Indus valley known as Harappa or Indus valley civilization¹. Stretching from the Khaiber Pass (north-west) to the river Yamuna (south-east), the region comprises of five interfluves constituted by the rivers Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and the Sutlej as well as the Sutlej-Jamuna divide through which the river Saraswati/Ghaggar flowed. The most important urban units were Harappa, Ganeriwala, Dholavira, Mohanjodaro now located in Pakistan, Lothal, Rangpur, Rojdi located in the state of Gujarat, Kalibanga, Pilibanga in the state of Rajasthan, Rupar, Sanghol, Siswal, Bnawali, Rakhigarhi, etc. in Punjab, India. Urbanization had its beginning in the Indus civilization some 4500 years ago. The archaeological evidence points towards the existence of settlements that exhibit the use of metals like copper, bronze, gold, and silver; stone and metal sculptures; wheel-turned pottery; cotton textiles; elaborated and varied seals; and beads and semi-precious stones. The manufacture and use of these articles can be assumed as the existence of long-distance trade on those bases towns and cities were emerged². The early Harappan sites are concentrated in the areas of the Sutlej-Jamuna divide, east of the river Ravi, as the western parts were arid and not favourable for agriculture and development of large human settlements. In the Sutlej-Jamuna divide, several sites were located like 17 in the Saraswati valley and 16 in the Ghaggar valley³. It is quite probable that some of these had urban characteristics. With the decline of the Indus civilization in c.1700 BC, the urban centres tended to disappear from the urbanscape of the region, though some continued to survive at a lower level of urbanization. The Indus civilization is understood to have ‘merged into the mainstay of Indian

cultural development’, and moved eastwards to the Ganga-Yamuna plains, also finding out from its earlier concentration, though not in its urban form but as a rural economy in different regions.



Map 2-1 Based on Bridgit and Raymond Allchin, *the rise of civilization in India and Pakistan*, Cambridge: CUP, 1966, p-168

Second urbanization appears to have taken place in the Indian sub-continent between c.700 BC and c.300 AD. In this phase, too, many urban centres can be identified in the Punjab region. Among the urban settlements of the early historical period in this region, several new towns were Charade, Purusapura (Peshawar), Sakala (Sialkot), Taxila or Takshasila, Calamba, Sugh (Srughna), Sunetra or Sunet, Agroha, Thaneshwar, Rang mahal, Karni ka Qila, Ghuram, Daulatpur, Ajaram and Chawinda. The urbanscape had extended to the north-western parts, though

it became more intensive in the Sutlej-Jamuna divide, reflected an increased level of urbanization for the region. Though small, some of the previous towns also continued as well like Ropar, Sanghol, Bhagwanpur, and Bara, among others. Around thirty towns were identified during this period.⁴ Most of these urban units were new ones with just some of the earlier centres surviving into the early historical period. Significantly, even when the total number of urban settlements had not appreciated much, the area which became urbanized had expanded. The renewal of the urban process was marked by the emergence of new towns. The reason behind the emergence of new towns mainly traded with Arabian countries. It may be noted that new centres had even sprouted in the south-east, replacing the earlier units here, while the Sangrur-Bathinda track which was previously a well urbanized one, remained unrepresented on the urban map of the early historical period. Thus, compared to the first, the second urbanization in the Punjab region presented a different urbanscape.⁵

Taxila, Sirkap, and Sirsukh were the important towns, Taxila was the most important urban unit of the Mauryan period, it was famous for trade and manufacturing as well as for religious and educational activities, but Sirsukh was the important town during the period of Kushanas.⁶ Some other urban centres had importance because of their trade and manufacturing features, like, Sanghol, Sunet, Ropar, Agroha, etc. these were important in making beads, pottery, terracotta objects, seals, shells, toys, glass bangles, copper coins, etc. Literary sources state this early rural-urban collaboration as ‘definite urban consciousness.’⁷ In the post-Gupta period with the invasions of Hunas, the urban centres of Punjab faced a decline.

2.1.2 Medieval Phase

Punjab region became relatively more intensively urbanized during the Turko-Mughal period. We found references from Al-Beruni’s travel account, who accompanied Mahmud Ghaznavi on his invasions during the early eleventh century, entitled Kitab-al Hind. Al-Beruni visited many parts of Punjab and referred to urban centres in the parts he visited. For example, Multan was said to be an old pilgrimage centre; Lahore had one

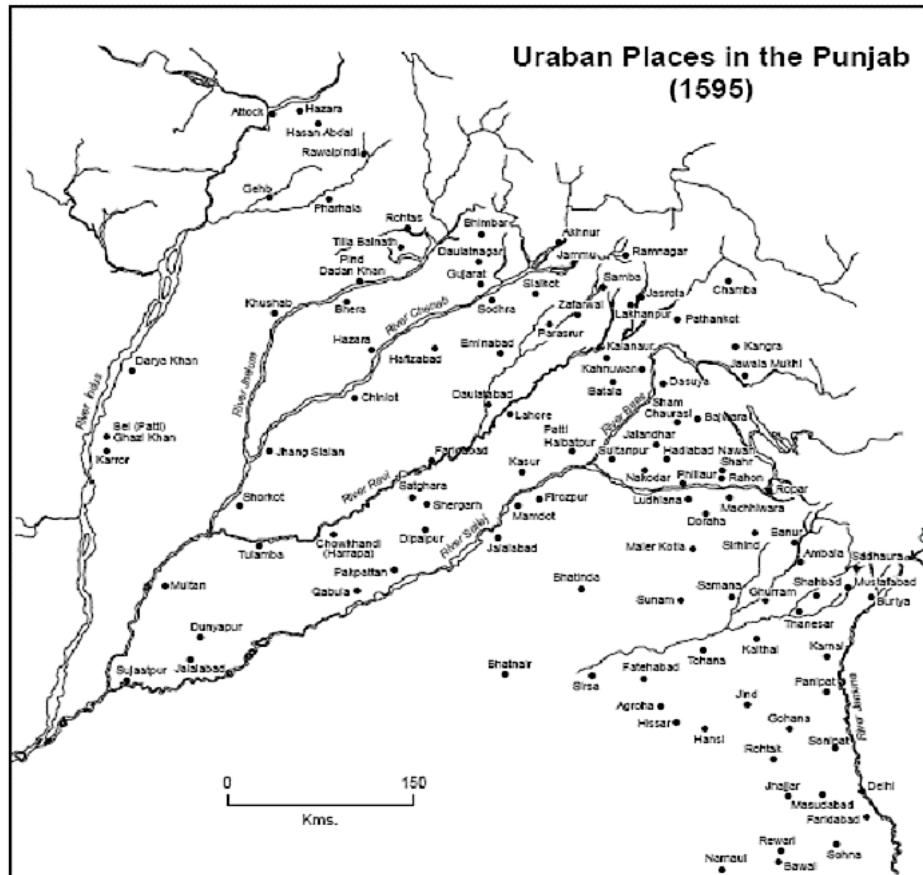
of the strongest forts; Alore, Mansurah, and Debal were centres of learning; and Thanesar or Kurukshetra was a land of divine miracles. He also refers to Sialkot, Nandanah, Dunpur, Lamghan, Purshawar, Waihind, Jailam and Mandkakkar.⁸

Another account is *Tabaqat-I-Nasiri* of Minhaj-us- Siraj, written in the late thirteenth century, adds some other urban places identified as Uchh, Tabarhind, Kuhram, Sarsuti, Khushab, Makhiala, Fatehjang, Pind Dadan Khan, Shahpur, Rawalpindi, Bhakkar, Attock, Wazirabad, Sadhaura, Sarhind, Kasur, Qabalah, Hujra, Dipalpur and Chamba. Ibn Battuta in his travel account *Rehal* of the early fourteenth century adds Abuhar, Hansi, Masudabad, Akroha (Agroha), and Ajodhan to the earlier list. Hansi is described as one of the finest towns, thickly populated and perfectly built with huge ramparts, Akroha, situated between Hansi and Sarsuti (Saraswati), is recorded as the original habitation of the Aggarwal Banias. Akroha is also mentioned as 'now a village', pointing to its earlier urban status. Bhakkar, founded by Kishlu Khan, is said to be a handsome city with canals, bazaars, and many new buildings under a noble. Uchh is noted as a religious place of Shaikh Qutubuddin Haider Al-Alavi, known for his piety. In the early decades of the thirteenth century under Iltutmish, it had become a centre of learning as well. Ajodhan was linked to Shaikh Farid-us-din Ganj-I Shakar and is known as a holy place.⁹

The *Tarikh-I Firuzshahi* of Zia Uddin Barani, another fourteenth-century work, made further additions to the list of towns in the region. Barani records the existence of Dipalpur, Gujrat, Samana, Panipat, Dhatrath, Safidon or Tughlaqpur, and Jwalamukhi. Firuz Shah himself founded the towns of Fatehabad, Firuzabad, Harnikhera, and Hissar Firuza. The *Waqiat-i Mushtaqi*, a contemporary source of the fifteenth-sixteenth century, talks of many towns of the Punjab region and adds Jhajjar, Kalanaur, Khamaon, Machhiwara and Nagarkot to the earlier list.¹⁰

During the eleventh century, a new phase of urbanization had arisen. Towns became bigger in number, size, and economic activity, and exhibited sharp socio-cultural features and functions. Collectively, these centres

reflected a further expansion of the urbanscape towards the north-western parts. Certain towns like Fateh bad, Sikandrabad, etc. were established during the thirteenth century.



Map 2-2 Based on Irfan Habib, *An atlas of Muslim Empire*, Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1982

The Mughal period can be seen as ‘a veritable golden age of urbanization’. The Babarnama refers to the country as extensive and full of men and produce. Its towns, its cultivated land, its people are all different. Writing towards the end of the sixteenth century, in the records of *Ain-i-Akbari*, Abul Fazl characterized the Punjab region as the third most urbanized area of the Mughal empire. He identifies many of the previously existing towns and cities of Punjab, with some new entrants like Sohna, Sirsa, Sanghera, Hazara, Shamsabad, and Zafarpur. The *Ain-i-Akbari* also confirms the existence of Mankot, Narnaul, and Phillour.¹¹

Badauni also mentions several towns and cities of the region, adding Bhera, Bhimnagar, Narela, Sonipat, Ganaur, Karnal, Asamabad, Manikiala, Bhatia, and Ropar to the already identified urban centres of the medieval period. Of these, Bhatinda (present Bathinda) was an administrative centre with a strong fort; Bhimnagar, Sonipat, Bhatia, and Nagarkot also had forts; Thanesar and Pak Pattan or Ajodhan are mentioned as religious places.¹²

The *Tabaqat-i- Akbari* of Khawaja Nizamuddin Ahmad adds Sunam and Ambala to the list of urban centres of the period. Taking a deeper interest in the urban dimension, modern historians notice some more urban units of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries: Daryabad, Khairabad, Rohtas, Patti, Sheikhupura, Bajwara, Ludhiana, Rewari, Dhankot, Nilab, Miani, Dhonkal, Purmandal, Kheora, Balanath Jogi, Sodhra, Chiniot, Attock, and Naushehra. Among the new towns identified are Bhera, Ibrahimpur, Kartarpur, Nurmahal, Phul, Daska, Phagwara, Maler Kotla and Barnala. There were also referred to the revival of towns, such as Jalalpur, Banur, Shahabad, Sri Hargobindpur, and Shergarh. By the seventeenth century, Hasanabdal, Goindwal, Nakodar, Maham, Rahon, Wazirabad, Jahangirabad, and Qabalah functioned as urban units.¹³

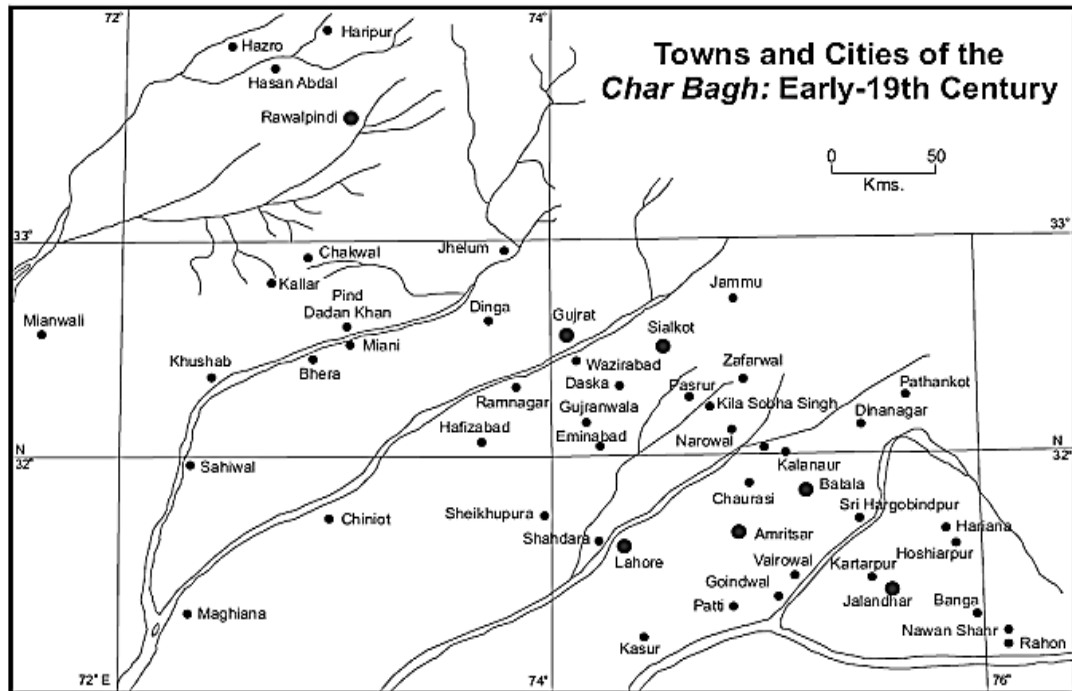
Significantly, the Sikh Gurus also promoted urbanization by establishing towns like Kantipur, Khadar Sahib, Goindwal Sahib, Ramdaspur (now name Amritsar), Sri Hargobindpur, Tarn Taran, and Anandpur Sahib and motivated traders and artisans to settle in these newly established towns. At the same time, deurbanization was not minor to the urban process, and quite a few towns declined during the medieval period or even ceased to exist. Several urban units which had existed at the beginning of the sixteenth century are not mentioned as towns in the later phase, for example, Agroha, Bhardwaj, Gharounda, Fazilabad, Bhatnir, Doraha, Samalkha, and Tabarhind¹⁴. Several small towns that probably came into existence in the sixteenth century themselves cannot be traced to the seventeenth century. The emergence of small towns, it seems, was a short-lived process, about a third of them could not survive over a long period and were soon replaced by other nascent small units in a continuous

process of emergence, disappearance, and re-emergence of urban centres in the region. It is evident from the political histories of the period that several towns in the region suffered plunder by the invading armies, particularly of Nadir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdali. As a result of the contest between the Sikhs and the Mughals towns also suffered, with the latter supported by the Marathas. It is not unlikely that the period started as a phase of decline and even de-urbanization for some centres. Significantly, however, the second half of the century saw revival and re-urbanization taking place on a large scale.

2.1.3 Modern phase

The rise of new rulers entailed the rise of new centres of power as capital towns. By the late 1760s, over a hundred small and large autonomous principalities came into existence. To mention the dominant among them were: Jassa Singh Ahluwalia, set up his capital at Kapurthala, Gujjar Singh Bhangi ruled from Gujrat, Charmat Singh Sukarchakia from Gujranwala, Jassa Singh Ramgarhia from Sri Hargobindpur, Jai Singh Kanhiya from Batala, Ala Singh from Patiala, Hamir Singh from Nabha, Gajpat Singh from Jind, Walidad Khan Sial from Jhang, and Ranjit Dev from Jammu. So, during the last quarter of the century, the new rulers endeavoured to found towns such as Patiala, Nabha, Jind, Fatehabad, Narot Jaimal Singh, Daska, Rasulnagar, Alipur, Qila Suba Singh, Qila Sobha Singh, Shujabad, and Muzaffarabad. An interesting example of urban growth was the creation of several small townships in the latter part of the eighteenth century by the Sikh chiefs at Chak Ram Das, and their eventual unification into the city of Amritsar by Ranjit Singh (1780-1839) in the early nineteenth century¹⁵. The decline that took place in the first half of the eighteenth century was more than reversed towards its end.

In addition to the information on urban units in Ganesh Das, who gave the urban picture of Punjab by differentiating them based on their sizes. He was having the view that it was not cultivators but the merchants, artisans, and professionals who constitute an urban place.¹⁶

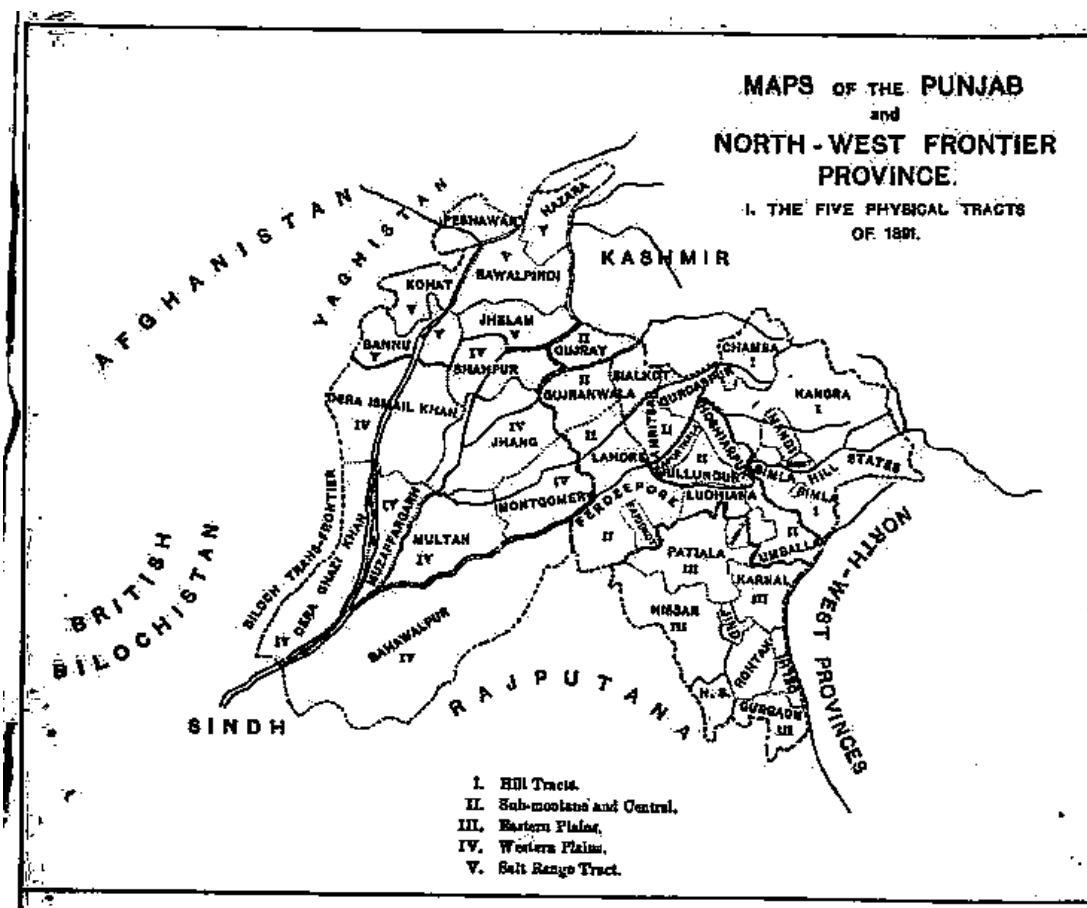


Map 2-3 Based on Ganesh Das's Char Bagh- I- Punjab

Further, he said that more than a hundred and thirty centres can be identified in the five doabs: 45 in the Bari Doab; 36 in the Rachna Doab; 27 in the Bist Jalandhar Doab; and 25 in the Sindh Sagar Doab in the early nineteenth century.¹⁷ After the annexation of the state of Ranjit Singh in 1849, the British brought about its politico-administrative unification with the territories to the south of the Sutlej which had been taken under their protection in 1809.

2.2 Urban Population in Punjab

According to an estimate, during the early nineteenth century, there were probably over 200 towns and cities in Punjab of varying sizes like small towns, middle towns, and large towns of these four-fifths were small towns, 15 per cent were of middle towns of medium size and just 2 per cent were large towns also called cities. Lahore, Amritsar, and Multan were the three cities of the region were. About 60 per cent of the urban centres were in the areas east of the Ravi that created only about one-fourth of the north-western region.



Map 2-4 Reports on the census of Punjab 1901

There was a concentration of urban centres in the upper Bari, upper Rachna, and Bist Jalandhar Doabs but on the other hand, the lower doabs had relatively less rain and were arid that's why the urban centres were less and were scattered in the region.¹⁸ The pattern of urbanization is visible from the above data of urban-rural population, according to it in 1881, around 2,003,098 people were living in the urban areas and 18,790,798 people were living in rural areas with a percentage of 89.6 and 10.4 respectively. This figure rises to 2,611,904 people in urban areas and 22,689,156 in rural areas in 1921 areas with a percentage of 89.7 and 10.3 population growth respectively¹⁹. While the year 1941 showed the progress of a certain level with the population 5,045,789 in urban areas and 24,022,674 in a rural area with 12.8 and 87.2 per cent of respective

population growth²⁰. The pattern of urbanization is visible from the above data of urban-rural population, according to it in 1881, around 2,003,098 people were living in the urban areas and 18,790,798 people were living in rural areas with a percentage of 89.6 and 10.4 respectively.

Table 2-1 Urban population of Punjab in contrast to the rural population from 1881-1941

Census year	Urban Population (In millions)	Rural Population (In millions)	% Age of Urban Population	% Age of Rural Population
1881	2.48	18.8	10.4	89.6
1891	2.46	20.8	10.7	89.3
1901	2.58	22.1	10.6	89.4
1911	2.33	21.5	9.8	90.2
1921	2.60	22.7	10.3	89.7
1931	3.52	22.9	12.4	87.6
1941	5.04	24.0	12.8	87.2

- i. Census of India, Punjab 1891, p-93,
- ii. Census of India, Punjab 1901, p-169
- iii. Census of India, Punjab 1911, vol. XIV, part I, p-97,
- iv. Census of India, Punjab 1921, part I, p-34-42
- v. Census of India, Punjab 1931, Vol. XVII, Part I, p- 317,
- vi. Census of India, Punjab 1941, Vol. VI, p-51

This figure rises to 2,611,904 people in urban areas and 22,689,156 in rural areas in 1921 areas with a percentage of 89.7 and 10.3 population growth respectively²¹. While the year 1941 showed the progress of a certain level with the population 5,045,789 in urban areas and 24,022,674 in a rural area with 12.8 and 87.2 per cent of respective population growth²². With this, the number of towns in this census had increased to 292, though this had not been a steady upward movement. The number of towns in 1881 was

240 and it was declined to 221 in 1891, rose to 238 in 1901, declined again to 208 in 1911, and 203 in 1921, but rose abruptly to 249 in 1931 of all categories.

Table 2-2 Table for the number of towns in each census years

Years	Number of towns
1881	240
1891	221
1901	238
1911	208
1921	203
1931	249
1941	292

Census of India, Punjab 1911, vol. XIV, part I, p-97 and Census of India,

Punjab 1941, Vol. VI, p-51

Overall, the population of Punjab in 1941 was 34.3 million people. Which covers 292 towns and 52,047 villages living in 29 districts and 43 princely states. During 1881-1941, over 130 new towns emerged on the urban scene of the Punjab region. Some were founded afresh, some were revived as towns, while others were old settlements that had acquired urban characteristics and functions. The overall urban pattern was marked by a continuity of towns, decline of some, and emergence of the new ones. The definition of town in the census report of 1891 was quite like the census of 1881. Like in the census reports of 1881 and 1891, Every Cantonment, Civil Station, and all Municipalities were treated as town although they had a population less than 5,000, other than these an area must possess a population of 5,000 to be considered as urban, according to the census of 1891²³, on the other hand in 1881, some overgrown villages that had a population more than 5,000 but did not possess any urban characteristics also counted in the list of towns²⁴, that's why the population count was more in 1881 than 1891. Again, according to the Report on the census of the Punjab, 1911: A Town includes every Municipality, all Civil lines (not

included within the municipal limits), every Cantonment and every other continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5,000 persons, which the provincial superintendent may decide to treat as a town²⁵. This definition was different from the definition given in the census report of 1901 only in one aspect that in 1911 the provincial Superintendent had special rights to treat an area as urban or rural according to the importance of the place²⁶. Like a place that was the centre of trade or had any historical importance could be treated as a town but on the other hand, an overgrown village had a population of more than 5,000 but did not possess any urban characteristic then the provincial Superintendent could not treat it as a town. So as a result, there had been a large decrease in the total number of towns because this time it was decided based on density and character of the population and the importance of the place as the overgrown villages which have no urban characteristic were undesirable to treat as a town. So, the relative number of towns decreased in 1911. In 1891, 19 towns were abolished to the urban list from 1881, while 17 were added the next census years, but there was a decline of 30 towns in the census of 1911 and again 5 towns were declined to their status in 1921, the figures steady rose 46 in 1931, and the largest addition of 43 towns was made in 1941. So, by 1941, in the last decade of colonial rule, the urban picture was strikingly different.

In the relations of population growth, the period of 1881 to 1941 can be divided into two demographic shifts of 1881-1921 and 1921-1941. During the first phase, the death rate was higher than the birth rate because of the spread of various epidemic diseases such as plague, cholera, smallpox, and malaria along with fewer medical facilities and famines, etc. but after 1921 there was a continuous high birth rate and steadily lower death rate because of drop-in-mortality. The rate of mortality was fallen with the government check over famines, with the help of better medical facilities epidemic diseases were controlled and there was a fall in infant mortality rate and an increase in the natural rate of population. This process was faster in the Britishers' Punjab. So, the composite growth rate of the

population in the first phase was 0.47 per cent per annum and 1.57 per cent per annum in the second phase.

Table 2-3 Table for the number of towns based on population.

Sr. No.	Population	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901	1891	1881
1	Over 100,000	9	6	2	2	2	2	2
2	50,000-100,000	6	6	6	7	7	7	4
3	20,000-50,000	43	27	23	17	15	13	14
4	10,000-20,000	61	47	30	34	37	32	35
5	5,000-10,000	111	110	91	99	106	97	81
6	3,000-5,000	62	53	51	49	71	69	104
7	Total	292	249	203	208	238	221	240

Census of Punjab, 1911, p-17 and Census of Punjab, 1921, vol-5, Punjab, and

Delhi, p-122

Based on population, the town was classified into different classes like a town having a population more than or equivalent to one lac can be classified into class –I towns, class-II towns had a population less than one lac i.e. from one lac to 50,000 while population count from 50,000 to 20,000 came in the category of class-III towns, a town had population 20,000 to 10,000 were considered in the class-IV category and had population 10,000 to 5,000 were considered as class-V, while the population less than 5,000 were considered as Class -VI towns according to the census of 1901. On that basis, the number of all classes of towns in Punjab during the census of 1881 and 1941, seemed growth of urbanization. The above table shows an amazing growth in urbanization. As there was an increase in the number of each class of towns. As a class- I towns were placed under large cities, Class-II and Class-III were placed under middle towns and class-IV and Class-V were small towns, while class –VI was no more considered a town according to the census report of 1901. Every type of town was showing their growth. Like in 1881 there were only 2 class-I towns which were 9 in 1941, so there was an increase of almost 3 per cent

as seven new towns were added to the list namely Ambala, Amritsar, Jalandhar, Lahore, Ferozepur, Multan, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, and Sialkot.

Table 2-4 Percentage increase of all categories of towns.

Category of Towns	In 1881	% Age of Total	In 1941	% Age of Total
Class -I	2	0.83	9	3.08
Class -II	4	1.66	6	2.05
Class -III	14	5.83	43	14.72
Class -IV	35	14.58	61	20.29
Class -V	81	37.2	111	48.12
Class - VI	104	42.33	62	21.23
Total	240		292	

Based on the census reports of 1881 and 1941

While class -II towns showed a little progress of 0.39 as they were only two towns added on. There was huge progress shown by Cass-III towns as their percentage increase was 8.9 per cent as there were twenty new towns added from 1881 to 1941. The case of class-IV towns was similar as the percentage increase was 5.7 and 26 new towns were added to the list. Class-V town had shown maximum growth as there was an increase of 11 per cent with the addition of 30 tons from 1881 to 1941. There was a decline in the class-VI type of towns as they decrease by approximately 21 per cent from 1881 to 1941. We can also classify these towns into different natural divisions. As the number of towns in Indo-Gangetic Plains was more but in the Himalayan tract was less. But in the successive decades, their number varies a lot. The number of towns in Provinces, Indo-Gangetic Plains, and N. W. Dry Area decreased but in the hilly areas of the Himalayan tract, the number of towns increased. Punjab during the colonial period had seen astounding changes during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Census Operations was also a notable feature of this period, having two incomplete coverage of 1855 and 1868, the first census of Punjab was taken in 1855

and the report was published in the records of the government of India, Foreign Department, No. XI of 1856.

Table 2-5 Number of towns in the province based on natural division

Natural division	1881	1891	1901	1911
Provinces	13	11	11	11
Indo-Gangetic Plains	16	14	15	14
Himalayan tract	4	4	4	8
Sub- Himalayan tract	10	9	9	9
N. W. Dry Area	10	9	8	7

Census of India, Punjab 1881 and 1911

It was recommended that the next census report should be taken in 1864 but the proposal was sanctioned in 1868. No census was taken in Punjab in 1872 so the columns of the census of 1872 have been omitted. Later from 1881, it becomes a regular feature to have a systematic decennial count. Availability of the regular decennial census data from 1881 to 1941, helps us to check and analyse the different aspects of the life of its population during these periods. According to the census of 1881, caste having a population of less than one lac was not classified separately and their social position was also taken into consideration. The census report of Punjab was the part of the census of India done by the deputed officer i-e Superintend of their operation. The first census operation of Punjab was conducted on 1st January 1855 under the observation sir Donald Nucleon. In this operation, the area covered was only British territory, including present Punjab and Northern-Western frontiers province. The areas of Delhi, Hissar, Rohtak, Gurgaon, and Karnal were omitted. Next in their series was conducted on 10th January 1868 by M.A. Roberts. During their operation the British territory was covered along with NWFP of Punjab and Delhi was also covered this time.

The first full-coverage census was done on 17th February 1881 by M.D.J. Ibbetson the area of coverage was the same as of 1868 but faster

than before²⁷. Now census was recommended to be decennial operation and next report was conducted on 26th February 1891 by Mr E.D. Maclagan and afterwards on 1st March 1901 by Mr H. A Rose and the area were the same as that of 1881. The next census operation was done by Pundit Hari Kishan Kaul on 10th March 1911 counted Delhi and the Punjab state differently from Punjab. This census report was different from the previous report because this time Delhi became the Capital of India and was not included in Punjab. This census was conducted on 18th March 1921 by Mr L. Middleton²⁸, the census report of 1931 was conducted by the Superintendent Khan Ahmad Hasan Khan on 26th February 1931 it included the present Punjab and Punjab states²⁹. The census of 1941 was very important because the partition of Punjab was done based on this census report. It was conducted by Khan Bahadur Sheikh Fazl-I-Ilahi.³⁰

The census of 1855 and 1868 covers only the British territories of Punjab gives the tentative estimate for the other part. According to which the population of Punjab in 1855 was 17.6 million and in 1868 was 19.7 million. In 1881, it was recorded as 20.8 million. Almost there was a double increase in the size of the population was witnessed during the colonial period³¹.

The census of India, 1941, records the population of Punjab 34.3 million, scattered over an area of 138,105 sq. miles and made a density of 248 persons per sq. mile, and this increase was 2.5 from the previous census report. While the percentage of increase in 1868 was 1.09, in 1881 was 0.67, this increase was 2.05 in 1891 and 0.47 and declined in 1911. The region has 52,047 villages and 283 towns in 1941. The credit for the increase in population goes to the administrative resettlement of Britishers which facilitates the people of Punjab with advanced agricultural facilities, construction of canals for irrigation purposes by retrieving the wastelands; extended transportation network i.e. with the construction of railway Punjab get connected with not only with their major cities like Karachi but also with the port cities of India like Calcutta and Bombay; improved health

and sanitation facilities and better law and order situation; along with the newly raised canal colonies attracted the inflow of migrants from outside Punjab was an additional factor in the increase of population of Punjab.

Table 2-6 Population of the whole province over the census from 1855-1941

Population in millions			
Census year	Total population	British territory	Punjab States
1855	17.6	13.8	3.8
1868	19.7	15.8	3.9
1881	20.8	16.9	3.9
1891	23.0	18.7	4.3
1901	24.3	19.9	4.4
1911	23.8	19.6	4.2
1921	25.1	20.7	4.4
1931	28.5	23.6	4.9
1941	34.3	28.4	5.9

Census of Punjab, 1911, p-17, Census of India, Punjab, 1931, Part I, p. 15 and

Census of Punjab 1941, p-08

We also got the figures of the percentage of the population of Punjab based on their community composition. According to that the percentage of the population of the Muslim community was higher than Hindus, Sikhs, and Christians. They covered almost half of the total population along with that their percentage increased with the upcoming census while the percentage share of Hindus decreased with the successive census years. The population percentage of Sikhs and Christians was also in increasing trend. Towns grow with the increase and growth of population, so the number of towns was relatively different during past decades. In the 1880s, there was only one town for every 1540 square km but in 1941, the average was one centre for every 518 square km. In 1881, over 91 per cent of the urban centres were small towns, about 7 per cent were middling-sized towns and only one per cent happened to be large enough to be called cities. On the

other hand, in 1941, cities now formed 3 per cent of the total urban units and were spread in all parts of the region.

Table 2-7 Population in million for the communities of Punjab.

Census Year	Muslim	Hindu	Sikhs	Christian	Others
1881	47.6	43.8	8.2	0.1	0.3
1891	47.8	43.6	8.2	0.2	0.2
1901	49.6	41.3	8.6	0.3	0.2
1911	51.1	35.8	12.1	0.8	0.2
1921	51.1	35.1	12.4	1.3	0.1
1931	52.4	30.2	14.3	1.5	1.6
1941	53.2	29.1	14.9	1.5	1.3

Census of India 1931, Punjab, Part I, Reports, p-69 & Census of India 1941

The medium-sized towns constituted 17 per cent and small towns 80 per cent of the structure, reversing the pre-colonial pattern. The cities and medium towns were thus growing at the cost of the small towns whose number declined significantly. This somewhat inverted the urban system as it had evolved till the middle of the nineteenth century, making it ‘top’ heavy, and lacking in a sizeable urban base of small towns to support the urban structure in the region.

The concentration of towns in the eastern plains of the region of Punjab in 1881 was quite noticeable. The two large cities of the region viz. Lahore and Amritsar and most of the medium towns were in the upper Bari and Bist Jalandhar Doabs. Some urban centres, mostly small towns, were scattered in the upper Rachna, Chaj, and Sindh Sagar Doabs along the confluence of the rivers in the southwestern part of the region, and the Sutlej-Jamuna divide. The lower doabs had a few urban settlements along the river valleys, though the uplands remained relatively devoid of these. Thus, for over three decades since annexation, there was no appreciable

change in the urban pattern of the region. The urban centres in the western plains continued to be relatively scarce and widely spaced out.

In terms of location, the regional urbanscape exhibited internal shifts from the end of the nineteenth century. Towns were no longer confined to the river valleys and the eastern plains. New towns emerged in the western parts as well as in the hills. Areas with a higher degree of urbanization in 1881 declined, while the less urbanized areas showed a higher level of urban growth by the end of this period. With a few exceptions, they were situated in the western tract and southern parts of the Sutlej-Jamuna divide. Several of these centres were newly founded mandi towns and administrative headquarters in the newly irrigated areas. The previously existing towns by contrast had an average growth rate. Rather, many old towns remained untouched by the cumulative impact of colonial rule. These surviving towns were some administrative centres, state capitals, and trade centres. As small units located at a distance from the main lines of communication, they barely participated in the expanding colonial economy. Many small towns even declined to the position of village settlements. In all, over 60 towns were declassified during this time, some being designated as 'urban' later. Overall, the process of declassification and reclassification affected only a small proportion of towns. The new towns were cantonments, both in the hills and plains, educational centres for European children, and sites of new projects related to colonial necessities. Two-thirds of the new towns in 1941 came up in the newly irrigated western plains and the Bahawalpur area while others were located along with the railway linkages in the lower doabs.

The colonial period, thus, saw a significant alteration in the urban pattern of Punjab. Almost all categories of towns, except the smallest ones, followed an upward trend, with a considerable increase in the number and size of the urban centres. Cities came to be in all parts of the region in contrast to their earlier central location. New towns rose in the hills, the Salt Range tract, and the western plains, increased the overall proportion

of urban centres, though their proportion declined in the submontane and eastern plains which had been relatively well urbanized in the earlier period. The lower doabs, especially the Bari doab, became urbanized for the first time. It was not a coincidence that the fishing village of Karachi developed into the fourth largest port of British India, catering for many exports and imports for the Punjab region and linking it up directly with the metropolitan economy.

After 1921 urbanization process also saw a rise with the gradual increase in the number of towns. These new towns were built on a planned structure specialized in the market, based on agriculture and mandis along with canal colonies which attracted migrants from neighbour states like Rajputana, Jammu & Kashmir and United Provinces, for better employment opportunities, educational facilities, and better infrastructure³². Though most of the population living in villages and small towns with the introduction of administrative, commercial, and industrial facilities in developed cities, people migrated to big cities and these big cities became important urban units of Punjab. Till the 1940s several major cities were having administrative importance flourished in Punjab having a population of more than one lac. Some of these were Lahore, Amritsar, Rawalpindi, Multan, Sialkot, Jalandhar, Ludhiana, and Ferozepur. These cities have historical importance too. Amritsar and Lahore emerged as commercial cities of Punjab. The population of Amritsar increased from 152,000 in 1881 to 391,010 in 1941 and of Lahore 149,000 in 1881 to 671,659 in 1941 according to the Census of Punjab 1881 and 1941. The population of Lahore grew at a larger rate than Amritsar. Other than these two cities, Multan grew two times and Rawalpindi, Sialkot, and Ludhiana grew by two and half times³³. With the annexation of the Sikh kingdom, the British also established their control over the land revenue administration. So, to seek the loyalty and prosperity of cultivators they introduced the land alienation act of 1900, by which land could not be sold or mortgage to non-agriculturist people.

Under the capitalist policy of Britain, several places of India especially in central India were annexed to British power. They annexed Punjab as well on 29 March 1849 and were kept under the Board of Administration. After the annexation of the state, the British brought about its politico-administrative unification with the territories to the south of the Sutlej which had been taken under their protection in 1809. After the Mutiny of 1857-58, the south-eastern tract called Haryana, which had been conquered along with Delhi in 1803, was added to the province of Punjab. The Boards of Administration introduced a variety of changes and advancements to facilitate and satisfy the people of Punjab by which they turned up the people by their side. Boards introduced new means of transportation and communication, they introduced railway, metalled down roads, and canal distributaries. These changes helped in transportation as well as in trade. They worked so well on it that the transport network of Punjab came to be the best transportation network in the Indian subcontinent. Punjab got linked with the other parts of the subcontinent via railway in 1878. With the help of this advancement, cities got linked with the remotest area of Punjab, now villages were started linkage with cities to benefitted external and internal trade.³⁴

2.3 New Towns in Punjab

When we talk about town planning, we search our past, like the ancient towns of Harappa civilization had the distinctive feature of fortified and planned structure of lanes and streets that was found in various cities of Indus valley civilization like Mohanjodaro, Dholavira, Kalibanga, etc. Walled type urban forms were also found in medieval times, although walls could not confine the urban livings, urban centres were extended over the walls with other features that created countryside followed by the class system and Shilpa shastra in construction of towns and laying down buildings.³⁵ But in modern times a notable difference to the system was introduced by Britishers. They modified the town planning based on western ideas and according to the colonial military, political and

economic requirements. They formed four distinguished urban forms in Punjab namely – Indigenous towns, Anglicized towns, and Colony towns. Other than this they also formed hill stations that had combines features of Anglicized and western towns³⁶. While in other parts of India like the U.P. there were three types of urban forms were noticed that were Indigenous towns, Anglicized towns, and Modern towns.³⁷ The Indigenous towns were large as well as small and had witnessed very little change in their infrastructure during the colonial period. These towns include Lahore, Amritsar, Jalandhar, Jind, Nabha, Batala, etc. these towns had generally walled around them with four or six gates attached with main roads. The Mohalla of large cities were densely populated than small cities and even suburbs attached to them. These cities also had gardens attached to them that laid on the outer areas of the cities. But in rare cases or big cities gardens were located within the urban centres like in Amritsar and Kunja. Little improvements were introduced in these indigenous towns by the colonial government like they widened the narrow streets or roads and made the congested areas of the Mohalla spacious. Along with that, they added few structures like a Clock Tower, Town halls, Circular roads around the towns for the easy flow of trade like in Amritsar, Nabha, Ferozepur, and Batala.³⁸ Railway was another feature introduced in these towns along with the railway workshops in the large urban centres. For trade purposes, grain markets were established near railway stations like in Jalandhar, Bathinda, and Pakpattan. Though these mandis and railway workshops formed a railway suburb altering the initial setups of the towns this addition could not alter the basic structure of the city. Later, schools, colleges, offices were springing up in between the old centres and the railway suburbs. During the late nineteenth century, another residential suburb was introduced in the urban setup like Model Towns for the newly emerged professional middle class.

Another type of new town introduced by Britishers were Anglicized towns introduced for the administrative officials, deputy commissioners,

police superintendent, judges, doctors, engineers, etc. Though these towns were not separate towns, they existed before Britishers but they acquired western extensions like civil lines and cantonments. So can be called extended towns of old towns³⁹. Britishers did not want to reside in old towns because they found them dirty and unhealthy so for their residential purposes, they built separate colonies outside the old towns. These colonies were also named civil stations or civil lines because many European businessmen and military officers started living in these areas.⁴⁰ These civil lines were built on a planned structure of roads and streets. In contrast to Indigenous towns Anglicized towns formed a grid-patterned street structure and in between formed a rectangular plot for housing. Europeans and well-to-do Indians bought sites for housing. Offices, schools, churches, and shops were constructed in between the residential areas. Racecourses, Gyms, clubs, etc. were also built there for amusements like in Lahore, Amritsar, and Jalandhar. These civil lines had very less population and were consist of Europeans. According to the census reports of Punjab of 1868, the population of European in the civil line areas was 2258 persons. In the areas of Rawalpindi, Peshawar, and Lahore there was 73 per cent population of European people. But according to the district gazetteer of Amritsar of 1881, their population was 600. A marked feature of Anglicized towns was cantonments, permanent military stations that worked as the residential place for the British officers. In the 1860s there were approximately 23 to 24 military cantonments in the Punjab region in contrast to 114 in India and two were in the Malwa region of Punjab i.e., one in Ludhiana and another one in Ferozepur founded in the early nineteenth century. These cantonments were built for the military and residential purposes of military officials and troops. These cantonments were symbolized as the posh area adjacent to the old city and gave a new look to the city. There were separate parade grounds, hospitals, markets etc. for the European troops as well as Indian military troops. Sadar Bazar was another distinctive feature of cantonments. These cantonments were well planned, having gardens, clean metalled streets divided into phases;

Street lights, schools, Hospitals, etc. were also available there. These cantonments were interlinked with other urban areas through metalled roads and railways for easy transportation of soldiers during need. They also have the provision of telegraph lines and telephonic connections. The administration of these cantonments was under a committee that works under the directions of commanding officers.⁴¹

The next form of towns were colony towns founded by Britishers based on Model settlements. Britishers brought pastoralist areas into irrigation for the first time. Some marked colony towns were Lyallpur, Montgomery, Okara, Sargodha, Toba Tek Singh, Sangla, etc. These towns include small as well as developed towns. These towns were founded in the canal irrigated tract and this was entirely a new form of urban unit. Market and Mandi sites were specially chosen for these colony towns. These towns were attached with a grid road structure with other large urban units of Punjab⁴².

Hill stations were founded by Britishers for their recuperation and holidays. They showed their interest in hill stations after the Anglo-Nepalese War in 1815 and first, they occupied Simla and Missouri. Later Simla became one of the districts of Punjab. Britishers found a cool and healthy environment at the hilltop and they also wanted to provide this environment to their troops who got homesick from the hot environment and the spread of epidemics in Punjab were affecting their health. For this purpose, they founded the cantonment of Kasauli, Jutogh, and Dagshai in the Simla hills.⁴³

Based on the importance, the old big Indigenous towns remained important commercial centres of Punjab than others. They had big bazaars, even their Mohalla's served as small manufacturing centres. With the development of the railway, another setup sprang up near the railway station like in Bathinda, Sangrur, Amritsar, etc. their old fort-like structures served as administrative offices, municipality offices, hospitals,

schools, or police stations etc. they used their buildings for several purposes. But on the other hand, Anglicized towns and colony towns build on planned structures as the market was extended along the Sadar bazaar and in the mall in civil lines. School, hospitals, and administrative offices were built at a particular place left for them⁴⁴. Every building of residence or administrative purposes was demarcated and there were more open spaces in their infrastructure. Colony towns had the features of Indigenous towns and Anglicized towns.

To make cities worked as economically well-developed urban centre it was required that the town must perform administrative functions very well and serves as well connected administrative headquarters. For this purpose, they divided subs into several administrative units like division, districts, tehsils, and pargana or taluka. According to the census report of 1868, Punjab was divided into ten divisions, 32 Districts, 128 Tehsils, and 214 Pargana for administrative purposes and further but according to the census report of 1901, Punjab was divided into 5 divisions, 29 districts, and several tehsils⁴⁵. These newly developed headquarters were interlinked through railway as well as by roads. British also led the foundation of several institutes like English schools with a western system of education, new hospitals with advanced healthcare and sanitary system, better agricultural facilities like for irrigation canals & tube wells, interlinked transport facilities like railway and roads, a new mode of communications like post and telegraph, etc.

Along with that Britishers introduced a municipal system to systematically administer cities or urban centres and to meet the requirement of European troops. These municipalities had elected members (under the local self-government act). The dependency for money of these municipalities was on excise duty. But this was not sufficient to do public work like manufacturing and cleanliness of roads, proper water supply and sanitation, primary and secondary education, and law and order⁴⁶. These municipalities had never given so much administrative power but these new

urban centres became the centres of growing political unconsciousness among the middle class. In the process of urbanization young men of age 20-40 moved to the cities for better employment opportunities but they remained underemployed because of their less education. Some of them got a job in industries, factories. Cumulatively the new professional middle class was the group of people who studied in English medium westernized school and later they got a job or the businessmen who were doing this from the time of their forefather and the big zamindars having big lands appear to have been benefited from the urban development done by Britishers by changing their standard of living and dependency on materials. There were better living conditions in the urban centres developed by the British than in the old cities. So, the old cities, middle towns, and the newly founded urban units had a difference based on improvement done in the standard of living. There was a wide gap between these. So, we can see that the British brought a significant change in the urbanization of Punjab by founding revolutionary upheaval in the pattern of population and function of government in the urban forms. The states of Punjab witnessed substantial urban development during the colonial period.

They also promoted Christian missionary societies to spread Christianity in Punjab by opening several schools, shelters homes for widows, homes for the disabled, leprosy homes, orphanages, etc., giving charities, printing press to publish European literature as well as Christian religious books. The genesis of Christian missionaries in India was in Ludhiana by the American Presbyterian missionaries in 1834, these missionary centres also helped in the urbanization of Punjab, in the latter half of the nineteenth-century people of Punjab awakened as these missionaries baptizing the young generation of Punjab. The very first school was opened by the society was at Ludhiana in 1834 and next at Jalandhar and Lahore. All the missionary societies jointly running 30 schools for girls till 1876⁴⁷. Several regional reform societies were also established under the Act of society registration act of 1860. The main

societies were the Muslim Anjumans, Arya Samaj, Singh Sabha, and the Sanatan Dharma Sabha. These regional reform societies were government English medium school, a higher institution for technical and medical education, so these societies opened, culturally safe school to educate their children by their own culture and values like Madrasas, Maktabas by Muslim Anjumans, Khalsa Tract society, and Khalsa schools by Singh Sabha, D.A.V. School, and College and Gurukuls by Arya Samaj. No doubt Europeans contributed to new health facilities by opening new dispensaries and charitable hospitals, all have an urban base. With this, they also created a new class i.e., middle class, a working-class of people who want to live in peaceful and clean areas, and western education all attracted the people of the village to move towards the urban centre which resultant the foundation of new and large urban units⁴⁸. The emergence of the middle class also contributed to the urbanization of Punjab as well as change in the attitude, lifestyle, behaviour, and standard of living.

The British policy of pushing peasants to produce cash crops accelerated the policy of commercialization of agriculture. Now peasants grow new cash crops like wheat, sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, tea, more; despite wheat, Jowar, Bajra, or other cereals. It was said that by 1920, Punjab producing one-tenth of the cotton crop that British India producing. Britishers introduced the policy of diverting the local trade to newly founded urban units. The modern banking system introduced in cities promoted internal and external trade largely in this urban unit. The goods production unit of urban manufacture must face competition from U.K based industries and goods-producing factories. The competition was major for paper and leather manufactures, metal and wood production, and textile. The factories of Punjab were doing cotton ginning, peering, and baling, and thread-making. No doubt Second World War gave a higher stroke to the industries in the subcontinent. A few chemicals, Mechanical and electrical goods factories cater to the better markets of urban units⁴⁹.

Overall, the degree of urbanization in the sub-regions of Punjab varied considerably. The broad hierarchical pattern, however, continued with a large proportion of small towns at the base and a small number of cities at the apex of the urban hierarchy. The category of cities, though, had become 'heavy'. The region does not seem to have experienced deurbanization, although internal shifts and variations are noted in the urban pattern. The pre-colonial towns showed special adaptability and resilience in surviving through the colonial period due largely to their location, role in sub-regional trade, and administrative status. New urban centres too emerged to meet the market needs of the newly developed agricultural areas in the region. Changes in the urbanscape were significant enough to be considered revolutionary, albeit brought about by western technology subserving the demands of the colonial situation. As the frontier province, it came to have many purpose-built cantonment towns in the hills and plains. The great agricultural potential of the thirsty western plains was tapped by constructing vast irrigation networks and by colonizing this tract by shifting the hardworking agriculturists from the overpopulated eastern plains. Their surplus produce was carried to other parts of India as well as to the seaports by an extensive rail network.

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- ⁴⁹ Khanna, J. S. (1980). *Lagging Industrial Development in Punjab: An Analysis*. PSE Economic Analyst, II, p. 88.

3 Urban centres and the infrastructure

An important aspect of the urban study is the study of the inner structure of towns or their morphology. The history of the growth of the towns and cities was based on the development of the physical form and structure. Knowledge of the morphology of urban areas ‘facilitates the understanding of the general characteristics of cities.’ Urban geographer has studied urban morphology with keen interest. They have taken the function of site factors, historical vicissitudes and the impact of successive cultures and economic setting and development and the street system, plot pattern, and building fabric within the town.

3.1 Punjab Geographically and Politically

The Punjab province located between 27° 39’ and 34° 2’ North and 69°23’ and 79°2’ East, in the census Report of 1901¹. The total area of Punjab was 136,330 square miles and the total population was 24,187,750 according to the census report taken on 10 January 1868².

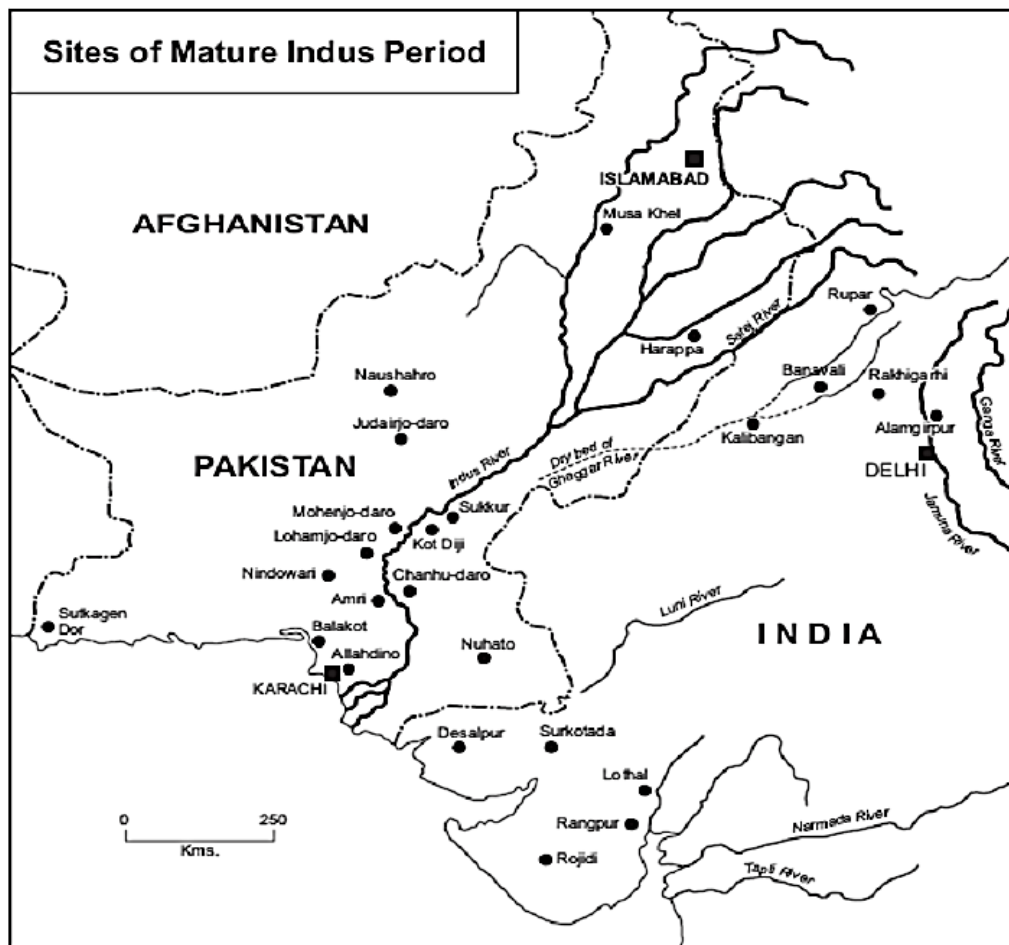
Table 3-1 Population and area of Punjab based on natural divisions

Natural divisions	Area	Population
Indo-Gangetic plains	38,526	11,027,400
Himalayan	22,050	1,724,480
Sub- Himalayans	10,033	5,803,081
N. W. dry area	66,710	5,830,689

Census report of the Punjab, 1868, p-03

Based on the distribution of the land over the natural division, it can be divided into four parts; Indo-Gangetic plains, Himalayan, Sub-Himalayans, N. W. dry area. The population division of Punjab in these

divisions is 46, 7, 24 and 23 per cent respectively. The Indo-Gangetic plains share the largest area of population that is 46 per cent.



Map 3-1 Taken from Imperial Gazetteer of India

According to the census report of the Punjab, 1911³, the Indo-Gangetic plains have twenty districts and states viz. Hissar, Loharu State, Rohtak, Dujana State, Gurgaon, Delhi, Karnal, Pataudi state, Kapurthala State, Jullundur, Ludhiana, Ferozepur, Faridkot State, Patiala state, Jind State, Nabha State, Amritsar, Maler Kotla State, Gujranwala, Lahore. So Malwa region came under the natural division of Indo-Gangetic plains. The Himalayan zone covers the British district Simla and Kangra, Some Princely states like Bilaspur, Mandi, Chamba, Sirmur, Suket, etc. while the Sub-Himalayan's area covers the district of Ambala, Gujrat, Gurdaspur, Hoshiarpur, Attock, Rawalpindi, etc. and the Northern Western dry area

also known as western Plains covers Multan, Jhang, Dera Gazi Khan, Shahpur, Mianwali, etc.⁴. The slopes of Himalaya covered with snow during winter as well in summer. But some agriculture activities can be done on the foothill's village and lower slopes with the help of water streams and small water coverers coming from Himalaya. The Himalayan slopes were also covered with forest that Provides timber wood and medicine. In this division of Himalaya, the weather is mild in summer but there was severe cold in winter and the average annual rainfall was very high in this area i.e., 62 inches. Adjoining to Himalaya the other division is sub-Himalaya or sub-montane area. The three districts of this region lie in the hilly northern part and the rest district left in the southern part are plains and the average rainfall is 31 inches, the northern-west dry division lies the Alluvial plain of Punjab. The average rain is very less in this region and decreases while going from east to west, that is why the cultivator deepened on canals for irrigation. In those regions where canal water is not available for irrigation like the District of Jalandhar and the state of Kapurthala, the irrigation was done with the help of wells. The district of Ferozepur and Hissar lies near the dry soil belt of Rajputana so their dependency for irrigation was solely on rain. The average rains fall in their region is 20 inches. The fourth division i.e., the North West dry area differs from other divisions in smaller rainfall. In the earlier days, this area was smaller inhabited by pastoral people, but with the expansion of canal network this region claims for the biggest granaries of the world. During the colonial period, the canal network was extended to benefit many cities of Punjab as well as origin & some new cities like Lyallpur and Sargodha in Shahpur District. The rainfall was very less or negligible in these regions but due to the extension of canals, the fertility of the land was increased and instead considered as more than Indo-Gangetic plains. The average rainfall is 9 inches.

This was also the influence of Aryans on Punjab came from central Asia, according to some historians. Their social, economic, political influence was so much deep-rooted that we found traces in various spheres of life till now. They gave birth to the rigid caste system of the society and responsible for the deteriorated condition of women. They were pastoral people but also indulge in agriculture and took birth to the idea of worshipping nature in the form of various Gods and Goddesses⁵. They also formed the very first political institution, "Samiti". This was the general assembly of the community. Whereas Sabha was the local council of older. They settled themselves very effectively in Punjab by establishing various Janpadas, known as small kingdoms, headed by Raja or Rajans. They also initiated schooling in the form of Gurukuls and wrote several Vedas and Epics. So, Aryans had a great impact on the life of rural as well as urban Punjab. After that Punjab remained under the influence of various religions like Hinduism, Buddhism, Jainism, and Persians etc.⁶

As it was said that Punjab is the Gateway to India and remained a battlefield because several foreign rulers attacked over there. The foremost attack was witnessed in the 6th CBC by the Persian ruler Cyrus, who was followed by king Darius. It was said that Persian ruler Darius-1 wants to know about this region and for this purpose, he appointed a diplomat to explore their area or the area around Indus. Along with that the father of History Herodotus also wrote about this region in his book *Historica* during 5th CBC he informed that the Greek ruler Darrius conquered the areas Multan, Lahore, and Gujarat of the Punjab region. During this time this area was highly populated, fertile, and of great economic importance⁷.

The next in this series was Alexander the great of Macedonia, who came from Europe via Chitral and swat valley to invade Punjab in 326 B.C. His invasions were accounted by Strabo, Arrian, and Ptolemy in 10 BC, 125 AD, and 150 ADS respectively⁸. Many Indian contemporary rules emerged to defend these foreign invasions. Subsequently, Chander Gupta Maurya did a landmark by establishing the Maurya dynasty, his grandson Ashoka, the Great also contributed to the enhancement of this empire. After

the successive decline of this empire Bactrian king and Menander invaded Punjab. Menander ruled over Punjab in the second century B.C. and later made Sagala (Sialkot) its capital. It remained an important political and economic centre of Punjab. In this series, Kushanas were next to invade Punjab and established Taxila as their capital. This continuous series of invasions carried on by Huns in 484 A.D.⁹. All these invaders played an important role in shaping Punjab. As we got social-cultural blend matched with different nations of the world.

The contribution of Muslims in this series should not be left. Muhammad Bin Qasim was the first Muslim invader to conquer the region. But Mahmud Ghaznavi was the famous ruler of Afghanistan, who attacked 17 times over different parts of Punjab (1000-1026) AD. Though Punjab has been ruled over by different small kingdoms and afterwards Muhammad Gouri started his invasion and defeated Prithvi Raj Chauhan in the battle of Train in 1192 AD and founded Muslim rule in India afterwards¹⁰. Five different Muslim dynasty's sultan of Delhi from 1206 to 1526 AD, these were:

- Mamluk or slave dynasty (1206 to 1290) AD.
- Khalji Dynasty (1290-1320) AD
- Tughlak Dynasty (1320-144) AD
- Sayyid Dynasty (1414-1451) AD
- Lodhi Dynasty (1451-1526) AD

Several new cities were founded by these sultans along with the development of several towns. Like Firozshah Tughlak founded the towns of Fatehabad, Firuzabad, Harnikhera, and Hissar Firuza. They also enhanced Punjab, economically and reorientation felt in the field of agriculture like canal irrigation was founded by Feroz Shah Tughlak¹¹. During this time there were fewer new initiatives to increase agricultural produce but even then, the cultivators were prospering enough and surplus goods were abundant.

With the collaboration of Turks and Mongols, Mughal came into existence who ruled over India till 1857 but effectively till 1707. The

Mughal rulers like Barbur (1526-30), Humayun (1530-40) and then (1555-56), Akbar (1556-1605), Jahangir (1605-17), Shahajahan (1627-58), Aurangzeb (1658-1707), ruled over India. During this time Punjab was named as Suba-i-Lahore because Akbar shifted his capital in 1585 to Lahore and then Lahore remained the hub of Mughal power for thirteen years¹². Najjar cited Manucci, an Italian traveller during the reign of Aurangzeb, his notable work *Storia do Mogor* (1698) was about Punjab. He said that from Lahore five rivers passed which unite with the other two at Bhakkar collectively becomes land of seven rivers¹³. That's why Suba Lahore is called Punjab, the land of five riverine channels. Invaders like Nadir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdali created anarchy in the province of Punjab in the later period of Mughal ruler i.e., after the death of Aurangzeb. India, as well as Punjab, started splitting up into small kingdoms due to the decentralization of political power. Sikhs geared up in this region by ending up the years-old strong rule of Muslims.

3.2 New Urban centres during Sikh Rule

Maharaja Ranjit Singh the first and the last powerful rule of Punjab rules from 1800 to 1839 (approx.). During his rule, Ranjit Singh extended his territories and Lahore, Multan, Peshawar, and Kashmir were the main subs of his province. So, Punjab was extended from plain to hills. In the latter half of the eighteenth century, a big number of Sikh chiefs were ruling over a big part of Punjab along with that non-Sikh rulers were also holding territories in plains and hills and they all came under the domination of Ranjit Singh in the early nineteenth century¹⁴. The Sikh chiefs were doing well in the development of these centres as said by Policer in 1770 the occupation of Sikh chiefs was extremely well cultivated and populous. While George Forster referred to the Sikh territories as the extensively fertile areas. On the other hand, William Franklin said that there was an abundance of grains, wheat, rice, and pulses¹⁵. Ganesh Das wadera, a Khatri and hereditary qanungo in Char Doab, wrote the book *Char – Bagh-I- Punjab* in 1849, in which he gave valuable data and facts

on the various aspects of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth-century Punjab. As we can say that the book is based on the pre-British period of Punjab and about its society and polity¹⁶. It also provides the basic information regarding urban centres of five doabs (Bist, Bari, Rachna, Chaj, and Sind Sagar Doab). He differentiates the city based on its size by using the terms Qasba, Shahr and baldah. He used Qasba for a small city and town, Shahr for a city, and baldah for a very large city. Ganesh Das used the term baldah for Lahore, Amritsar, Peshawar, and Multan. He cited several Qasba and shahr, which is 90 in five doabs out of which 60 were situated above Rachna doab and 20 were below of it. The main emphasis of Ganesh das Char-Bagh-I- Punjab was the four doabs Bari, Rachna, Chaj, and Sindh Sagar Doab. He admits that he had not adequate knowledge of Bist Doab or the lower Satluj area.

The nobles of Sardar Ranjit Singh developed small towns into big cities for example Hari Singh Nalwa founded the city of Haripur, which was in the area of Hazara. Gujrat owed some of its splendid buildings by Sardar Gujar Singh, in his rule Gujrat was his capital and people were satisfied and prospered. The fortune of Rawalpindi was linked to Sardar Milkha Singh who made it his headquarter. So, people and traders from far being areas came and settled here. Another centre was Gujranwala, a small village before, but after its adoption by Sardar Charmat Singh and adopting it as his capital it becomes a large city. These cities flourished and expanded during the reign of Ranjit Singh. Maharaja himself and his courtier ministers and nobles laid out several gardens, constructed some tanks, and built new smiths. Ganesh Das himself absorbed Dera Baba Nanak, where people from far places came as pilgrimage and pay their offerings and so it rose to be an urban centre¹⁷.

Ganesh Das illustrated in detail the glory of Lahore. In which the officials of Mughals purchased land and encourage the skilled craftsmen of all kinds from distant places to come and settle there. They also raised many beautiful buildings, mansions, and statues in the city. Ganesh Das

also told that it was Lahore, earlier a Mughals city, was despoiled by the Khalsa army in the early 1760s, but Sardar Gujjar Singh tried to restore it by building new forts, gardens, and mansions. Ranjit Singh won Lahore in 1799 and adopted it as his capital and his Kingdom was known as Lahore Suba. The location of Lahore was very advantageous to it and it was a place of trade and commerce during and before the Sikh rule, it becomes the largest city of the North-West region before British rule. Several towns and cities of Punjab that disappeared during the seventeenth century were revived not only by Sikh rulers but also by some Muslims. During the invasion of Ahmad Shah Abdali, the Khalsa army plundered the city of Sialkot and deformed its buildings. People of Sialkot left their houses and migrated to other parts of Punjab. But after some time Khalsa leader jointly adopted it and repopulated it by bringing the people back. Ranjit Singh also contributed to the re-establishment of Sialkot when he occupied it in 1808. He repaired and restored the old building and ensured the rehabilitation of people¹⁸.

The case of Wazirabad was rather more interesting, it was founded by Alam – Ud – Dina popularly known by Wazir Khan during the rule of Mughal emperor Shah Jahan, but the major contribution in its restoration was Sardar Gurbaksh Singh Waraich along with his son Sardar Jodh Singh helped him to put the city near to his original line and length. It became a proper place again under the rule of Ranjit Singh. After 1832 it becomes a beautiful place.

The city of Amritsar, earlier known as Ramdaspur, named after his founder Guru Ramdas Ji, was developed at a successive rate during the nineteenth century, revolving around Golden Temple several bunches were constructed. In the early nineteenth century, Ranjit Singh used to live at Amritsar and it served as his residence. During the nineteenth century, Lahore and Amritsar were densely populated cities of Punjab. But the population of Amritsar was more than in Lahore. Ganesh Das confesses that no other city of Punjab was large than Amritsar. Along with Sikh rulers

some Muslim chiefs also founded towns and cities in Punjab e.g., Jalal Khan Bhatti founded Pindi Bhattias; Chaudhary Wali Dad Khan was the founder of town Dinga, and Adina Beg Khan founded Divanager.

Ganesh Das claimed that the new urban centre came into existence, re-established, or developed by the new Sikh or Muslim chiefs who adopted these cities of five doabs as their administrative headquarters or capital cities some places which emerged as a famous urban centre. Here is the list of some new capital cities of five Doabs as they were adopted by new rulers of Punjab during the late 18th century.

1. **Sindh Sagar Doab:** Ahmadabad, Kot, Kusak, Mukhad;
2. **Chaj Doab:** Dinga, Kunjah, Qadirabad;
3. **Rachna Doab:** Alipur, Daska, Doda, Ferozke, Gujranwala, Miraliwala, Naushehra, Pindi Bhattian, Rasulpur, Qila Didar Singh, Qila Sobha Singh, Qila Suba Singh, Sambrial;
4. **Bari Doab:** Adina Nagar, Chunian, Duran gala, Fatehgarh Churain, Jandiala, Kathu Nagal, Qadian, Saurian, Sri Hargobindpur and
5. **Bist Jalandhar Doab:** Banga, Kapurthala, Kathgarh, Phagwara.

The above new capital cities were generally founded in upper doabs. These territories were the capital cities or the headquarters of new rulers which were surmounted and parted by these rulers. All these territories functioned as the little kingdom of these autonomous chiefs. Almost all the Sikh chief wanted to function as a free ruler they did not want to be together or the subsidiary to the Mughal Empire. For this, they now needed a new place for their new Kingdom which was free from the shadow of the Mughal Empire. This interest in setting a new throne for their new small Kingdom was directly connected with the new urban centre in ab. They not only founded a new urban centre but also developed the old one. During their rule, small towns came forward as large urban centres and they played a significant role in the urbanization by raising its economy also.

3.3 Infrastructure of Towns

An attempt is made here to study the basic morphology of towns and cities in the region and their functional areas. In the evolution of the physical structure of the urban centres in Punjab, two basic forms can be noticed- the walled town and the open city. The basic ground plan is irregular in the case of most walled towns and regular, radial, or grid-patterned in the case of the planned towns¹⁹. Most towns, however, do not fully conform to either of these categories, as few urban centres were planned and they usually develop by a process of accretion. A continuous process of remodelling has superimposed regular geometric patterns on an irregular system. The final version became a heterogeneous structure of different basic forms. This type of town planning was found during Indus Valley Civilization. In this ancient system class division was rigidly followed in residential areas and the internal layout was determined by the regulations and specification of the building. With a notable added feature in the architecture, this pattern of town planning continued in the medieval period. A marked difference, however, was introduced by Britishers. They added western principles of extension to the already existing towns in the form of civil lines and cantonments and these new towns were planned with geometrical regulations. In Punjab under the British rules three distinct types of urban centres can be identified: 'the Indigenous', which underwent very little visible change in their forms: 'the anglicized', which had western additions and the new, planned, 'model colony towns' which were founded by the British administrators in western Punjab²⁰. Most of the small towns were in the category of indigenous towns because very little change could be visible in their structure during this period. A new addition to their structure did not alter their basic form. The indigenous small towns were generally walled, like Phul, Nabha, Farrukhnagar, Kaithal, Shujabad, Jind, Dadari, and Sunam. All walled towns and cities had four to six gates. Information on this aspect is gathered largely from the District Gazetteer, Published by the British government in Punjab in 1884, 1897, 1904, and

1912. The streets of the urban centres, other than the main roads, were a wormlike system of narrow, tortuous lanes often ending in cul-de-sacs. These irregular streets enclosed Mohalla or localities, which were walled at times and were based on caste or communal grouping. Some towns had small suburbs close to the town, as in Jullundhar, Daska, Ferozepur, etc. The British effort to improve the towns began by widening roads and adding circular roads around the town, as, in Amritsar, Batala, Nabha, Ferozepur, Rohtak brings minor change. (Based on District gazetteers). With the extension of British rule, there was the introduction of Railways, which brought a physical change in these towns as well as adding up of railway towns. The coming of the railway in the 1860s added a new railway suburb to the town and the railway colony was founded for the workers. The grain mandi was also located near the railway stations for easy trade, like in Jullundhar, Bhatinda, and Pak Patan²¹. When the British established their administrative centres in Punjab, they found the position of the towns unhealthy, noisy, and distasteful. This prompted them to start developing new independent colonies outside the towns. The government officers and professional people live in civil lines while the army officers lived in cantonments²². The civil lines and the cantonment were planned settlements and stood in sharp contrast to the indigenous towns. These Anglicised towns were not superimposed on the existing ones but sprang up like suburbs and extended in various directions to encircle the old town or city. The third category of towns was the colony towns, founded in the canal colonies developed in 1885 by the British in the arid and sparsely populated alluvial plains of western Punjab. These towns are like, Lyallpur, Okara, Gojira. The new colony towns were founded at specifically chosen mandi sites in the form of squares or rectangles.

Lord Dalhousie established the Board of Control after the annexation of Punjab in 1849, Sir Henry Lawrence, who was the president of the Board has given the matters regarding defence and relation with sardars, while his brother John Lawrence had given the department of finance and revenue

and sir Charles Grenville Mansell had to deal with the department of Police and Justice. Other than these members the board of administration got the help of the most skilled person especially British officers from all over India. Soon after the establishment of the Board the major problem which they must deal with was the problems of sardars and Sikh military chiefs. The Board had to give attention to these chiefs and disarmed them. The members of the board call them to Lahore and by giving their arrears they discharged them and add some of them to the British army²³. The other problem was to deal with Tribal people and Frontier chiefs. Henry Lawrence took a tactful move towards these people with sympathy and peace and appointed a regiment of the police force with 8000 soldiers for the protection of the frontier region and plains of Punjab. This regiment consists of both section cavalry and infantry²⁴. Along with that they also provide the people of Punjab a simple judicial system by framing a concise code of civil law. They changed the traditional old pattern of justice which was based on religion, customs, holy books of the community, etc. they want to win over the people of Punjab for this they removed the technicality and hardship of justice and made it simple and soon it becomes very popular and people liked the new judicial version introduced by the Board²⁵.

3.4 Extension of Agricultural Land

The next work which must be done is the settlement of revenue. Before this during the times of Ranjit Singh, the cultivator had to pay a high revenue share to the government. Now board done this settlement with the cultivators who were the actual tiller of the soil and now they must pay revised revenue in cash. Cultivators welcomed this settlement along with that they brought more land into the cultivation. With all these efforts the production increased in the coming years and cultivators got a good price for their cultivation. But after two years, with the higher rate of production, the market filled with the grains which result in the drop in the price, then the cultivators demanded the payment of revenue in kind rather than in cash but the officers of the Board did not accept their demands and refuse to

change the settlement plan²⁶. But the British did not want to harm the people of Punjab because they know that the people are very honest, good soldiers, and hardworking cultivators. To create cordial relations with the people and to assess a good amount of revenue, they introduced the Mahalwari system in Punjab on the line of the Zamindari system of Madras Presidency. Mahal was another name of some number of Village in Punjab²⁷, The term Pargana is used for fiscal as well as a territorial unit of a group of villages, [while the term Mahal more especially denotes a pure fiscal unit] so by this system Mahal was responsible for the payment of land revenue. Now the cultivators will pay the government share collectively²⁸. This settlement was based on the revenue share of previous years, by which the market rates were considered for the conversion of kind into cash. This system of settlement was also known as summary settlement and it remained in function till 1863 and now the cultivator named as peasant proprietors. This system extended up to 1871. With the help of these settlements, a definite shape was given to the revenue system of Punjab and the revenue did not exceed 40% till the end of the nineteenth century. However different Historians take this revenue settlement system differently. Some had viewed that indebtedness prevailed because of this system. Some had a view that agricultural land extended and peasants became happier and some said that the revenue was less than that of the revenue during the rule of Ranjit Singh²⁹. The British government also introduced the policy of extension of agricultural land with the help of Canal irrigation. Up to 1849, only 25% of the total land was used for agriculture and one-fifth to one-sixth land was irrigated by canals. The role of other means like wells, tanks was very less. The British government knows that the canal was the best source of irrigation in Punjab because of less rainfall and other means so by realizing the importance of canals they extended the canal system by constructing water distributaries from the main canals and extending the old canals. So, they started a large land project of canals.

- This project was started in 1850 with the expansion of the Bari Doad canal. Till 1895-96 this canal irrigated 861,301 acres of land and with its extension it started irrigating 1.5 million acres of land by 1945-46 in the areas of Lahore, Gurdaspur, and Amritsar.
- The Western Jamuna canal work was started in 1873 and by the 1940s it irrigated 990,826 acres of land of Delhi, Rohtak, Hissar, and Ambala.
- The Sirhind canal project started remodelling the areas between rivers Satluj and Ghaggar in 1885 and up to the 1940s, it irrigated about one million acres of land.
- The lower Chenab canal project was the most extensive cover a large area under the irrigation system. This canal project was started in 1893 and irrigated the areas of Gujranwala, Sheikhpura, Jhang, and Lyallpur in fact it gave origin to the area of Lyallpur. It irrigated 18,30,525 acres of the land of Punjab.
- Sidhnai Canal was opened in 1887 for the district of Multan the western part of Ravi. Till 1900 this canal irrigated about 169,780 acres of land.
- The Triple Canal project was the largest canal project of not only Punjab but also of India. This project started effective irrigation in 1905 under this project, the area between Ravi and Satluj was brought under extended irrigation. For this purpose, the surplus water of the rivers was used and the water of Jhelum was streamed into Chenab and the Chenab's water streamed into Ravi for the irrigation of Ganji Bar.

Other irrigation works were the Satluj valley project; Haveli Project and Thal Project begin in 1919. Now the length of extended canals was 14,827 miles in 1940 from 2810 miles in the 1870s and they were irrigating 30.7% of the land of Punjab i.e., 15,604,907 acres.³⁰ The next aspect of this project is to use the extended land and vast area of Punjab, which was used by the Jangli peoples previously.

Table 3-2 Colonies established in Doabs

Sr. No	Name of the colony	Area /District	Period of establishment	Doabs
1	Sidhnai Colony	Multan District	1886 to 1888	Bari
2	Sohag Para Colony	Montgomery District	1886 to 1888	Bari
3	Chunian Colony	Lahore District	1896 to 1898 1904 to 1906	Bari
4	Chenab Colony	Lyallpur	1893	Rachna
5	Jhelum Colony	Gujrat District	1902 to 1906	Chaj
6	Lower Bari Doab Colony	Montgomery and Multan District	1914	Bari
7	Upper Chenab Colony	Sialkot District	1915 to 1919	Rachna
8	Upper Jhelum Colony	Gujrat district	1916 to 1921	Chaj
9	Nili Bari Doab Colony	Montgomery and Multan District	1926	Bari

Based on Imran Ali- Canals Colonization and social Economic change in India

Banga Five Punjabi centuries, PP-348-354

But now British want to settle this area with the hardworking peasant community of Punjab. So, they took the peasant from the selected areas of Punjab like Hoshiarpur, Gurdaspur, Jalandhar, and Ludhiana and settled down there in the colonies. Historians observed British government had various objectives behind the establishment of these colonies. The first objective was to reduce the pressure of population in the overcrowded district of Punjab to establish a new type of urban system in Punjab and to make the peasants of Punjab prospers. For this purpose, they established nine colonies in mainly three doabs viz. Bari doab, Rachna doab, and Chaj

doab in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. These were Sidhnai colony, Sohag Para Colony, Chunian Colony, Chenab Colony, Jhelum Colony, Lower Bari Doab Colony, and triple canal project covers upper Chenab, upper Jhelum, and Nili Bari doab.

Along with the extension of canals, the British government also contributed to the growth of artificial irrigation with the help of tube wells. So, Punjab becomes an excellent Hydraulic society with the help of new engineering techniques and British capital³¹. Now there was a thought of an extension of crops. The principal crop of Punjab was wheat and after the 1860s it was demanded in the other countries of India as well as the world. British tested the various qualities of the Indian wheat among which they found the wheat of Punjab was equal lent to the wheat of England and Austria in standards. The wheat of Punjab was dry and of good quality and was best for baking bread. So, the wheat of Punjab was exported to Europe. During the late nineteenth century, Punjab was producing 42% of total wheat produced by the whole of India. This process was adding on by the Commercialization of agriculture. The crops of Jowar, Bajra were substituted with Sugarcane and cotton. This policy however brought some benefit to peasants but increased their indebtedness.

With the extension of agricultural land and agricultural commercialization, there was an increase in the rates of land. This rise lured the money Lander to invest their surplus money in buying the land. The Widespread indebtedness made cultivators sell their ancestral lands. But government want that the land should remain in the hands of its original owner or they would raise arms against the government and despite this, the moneylender was not contributing to the growth of the state. So, the government started collecting detailed reports from various districts of Punjab. They viewed in the reports that most of the moneylenders were Hindu and the peasant or cultivators were Muslims and Sikhs. So, to stop the future agrarian trouble they passed the land Alienation Act of 1900 on October 19. By this act the government want to protect the original holders

of land from the cruel moneylenders for this they restricted the sale or mortgage of land to the non-agriculturist communities especially Khatri, Arora and Bania. Now they could not able to purchases the land. The Punjab land alienation bill was passed again after the second amendment in 1938 by which all the transfer which were done without any name was declared as binary (without name) transfer and such type of transfer were cancelled and ordered as null and void after that the original landholder there was asked for the recovery of their land after giving compensation³². Along with that colonial government distributed grants for a better quality of wheat seeds, new equipment agricultural machinery construction of tube well network, all for cattle breeding in the newly established canal colonial and soon these new inventions spread in the whole of Punjab, by which the end of 1947 Punjab was the best at world level in the productions of wheat, cotton, and oil Seeds.

There were three main community groups in Punjab in the pre-colonial Era that was Hindu, Muslims, and Sikhs. All these there were indulged in the various types of economic activities like agriculture, trade, and moneylending through the large protein of agriculturalist land was occupied by the Muslim community. Jats were the chief agriculturist tribe engaged in farming activities. They were spread in the whole Punjab. The Southeast area of Punjab was invested by Hindu Jats. While Muslim Jats working mainly in Western districts of Punjab and Sikh Jats were mainly central Punjab. In the Muslim community, some castes were confined in trade activities. These castes were Khawaja, Parchas, Pathans, and Kashmiris etc. while the Majority of such were Hindus overpowered field of trade, commerce, and money lending. While the Muslim community did not take part in another field. Various money-making Muslim tribes chiefly involved in agricultural activities were Arians, Rajputs, Awans, Gujjars, Baloch, Sayyed, Qureshi, Kamboh etc. Arians were mostly agriculturist people confined in the areas of Lahore, Jalandhar, and Lyallpur etc. The Rajputs were big landlords of the areas of Rawalpindi, Jhelum and Kangra

and some in the south of Punjab in Hissar and Karnal Awans were in majority in Punjab and were employed in Military Services. Gujjars were involved in cattle breeding and found in the Lower hill slopes or Sub-Montane region like Pathans belongs to ruling class while Kamhos involved in agricultural activities. Khatri, Rajputs, Agarwal, Ahir, Aroras, Brahman were the main Castes in Punjab they were found in every part of Punjab and doing various works Among Sikh Gils, Sidhu, Barras, and Dhariwal were in majority lived in Ludhiana Jagraon doing various types of jobs especially they were involved in agricultural production, Dhaliwal mostly appeared in Patiala territory, Gills in Bhatinda, Barars founded in Kot Kapura. Most of the Sikh tribes were Jats. Other Sikh Jat tribes were Maan, Bhullar, Dhillon's, Kangas, while Buttars, Jats and Rajputs were the powerful communities of Punjab working on the best quality of land which was more productive whereas less productive land was overtaken by Arians and Gujjars. Alike these uplands were taking over by the powerful communities and the plains affected by floods were inhabited by less powerful peoples. River village was predominantly abode by Hindu and hills Slopes were the home of tribal of peoples.

¹ Rose, H. A. (1902). *Census of India, 1901, Punjab and its Feudatories and the North- West Frontier Province* (Vols. XVII- I). Simla: The Government Central Printing Office, p. 163-64.

² *The census Report of the Punjab, 1868.* (1870). Lahore: Indian Public Opinion Press, p.225-26.

³ Kaul, P. H. (1912). *Census of India, 1911, Punjab* (Vols. XIV- I). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 288-89.

⁴ Ibid, p. 275-76.

⁵ Trevakis, H. K. (1928). *The Land of Five Rivers.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, p.321-23.

⁶ Hussain, J. (1997). *History of the Peoples of Pakistan.* Karachi: Oxford University Press, p. 178-79.

⁷ Latif, S. M. (1984). *History of the Punjab.* Lahore: progressive books, p.39.

⁸ Thorburn, S. S. (1970). *The Punjab in Peace and War.* Delhi: Punjab National Press, p.69-72.

⁹ Ahsan, A. (1998). *The Indus Saga and the Making of Pakistan.* Karachi: Oxford University Press, p. 111-12.

¹⁰ Latif, S. M. (1984). *History of the Punjab.* Lahore: progressive books, p. 40-41.

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- ¹¹ Nijjar, B. S. (1979). *Punjab under the Sultans (1000-1526)*. Lahore: Book Traders, p. 141-43.
- ¹² Richards, J. F. (1993). *The New Cambridge History of India: The Mughal Empire*. New York: Cambridge University Press, p. 56-57.
- ¹³ Nijjar, B. S. (1979). *Punjab under the Sultans (1000-1526)*. Lahore: Book Traders, p. 132-33.
- ¹⁴ Grewal J.S. and Veena Sachdeva. (2005). *Urbanization in the Mughal Province of Lahore, 1550- 1850*. (R. Grewal, Ed.) New Delhi: Manohar Publisher, p. 107-08.
- ¹⁵ Ibid, p. 110.
- ¹⁶ Grewal, J. S. and Indu Banga. (1975). *Early Nineteenth Century Punjab from Ganesh Das's Char Bag-i- Punjab*. Amritsar: Guru Nanak University, p. 225
- ¹⁷ Ibid, p. 180-82.
- ¹⁸ Ibid, p. 158-59.
- ¹⁹ Gallion, A. B. and Eisner, S. (1984). *The Urban Pattern*. New Delhi: CBS Publishers, p. 11-16.
- ²⁰ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization in India: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 58-59.
- ²¹ Ibid, p. 73-74.
- ²² King, A. D. (1976). *Colonial Urban Development: Culture, Social Power and Environment*. London: Rout ledge and Kegan Paul.
- ²³ Khilnani, N. M. (1951). *The Punjab under the Lawrence*. Shimla, p. 111-12.
- ²⁴ Singh, K. (2004). *A History of the Sikhs, 1839-2004* (Vol. 2). Delhi: Oxford University Press, p. 90-91.
- ²⁵ Chhabra, G. S. (1962). *Social and Economic History of the Punjab (1849-1901)*. New Delhi: sterling Publishers, p. 325-26.
- ²⁶ Banerjee, H. (1982). *Agrarian society of Punjab (1849-1901)*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 79-81.
- ²⁷ Siddiqi, N. A. (1970). *Land revenue Administration under the Mughals*. New Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal Publisher's Pvt. Ltd., p. 76.
- ²⁸ Mathur, Y. B. (1972). *British Administration of Punjab (1849-75)*. New Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot, p. 147-48.
- ²⁹ Darling, M. L. (1947). *The Punjab Peasant in prosperity and debt*. London: G. Cumberledge Oxford University Press, India Branch, p.220.
- ³⁰ Ali, I. (1988). *Punjab under Imperialism, 1885-1947*. Delhi: Oxford University Press, p. 11-14.
- ³¹ Islam, M. (n.d.). *Irrigation Agriculture and Raj: Punjab 1887-1947*. Manohar Publishers, p. 139-40.
- ³² Rai, S. M. (1985). Legislative Polities and Freedom Struggle in the Punjab 1897-1947. *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 44(4), 248-49.

4 Urban centres and their Political and Economic Importance

4.1 Political Importance

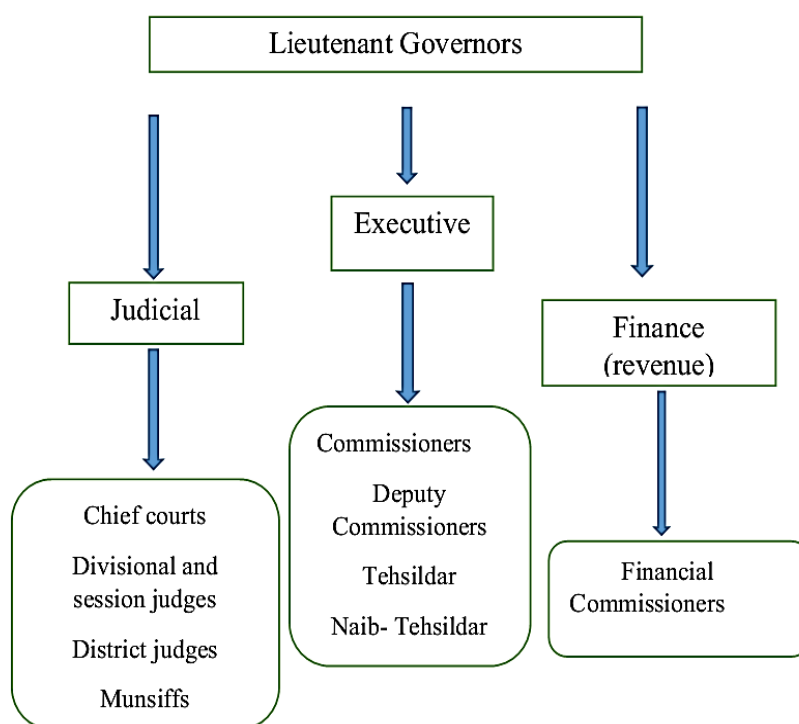
Punjab remained a place of continuous struggle between Muslim and non-Muslims. But after the martyrdom of Banda Singh Bahadur, Punjab must face an extended struggle. The Sikh tried to organize themselves in Dals like Tat Khalsa and Bandai Khalsa and later in Buddha Dal and Taruna Dal, Jassa Singh became their head by proclaiming Sikh sovereignty. The people of Punjab had to face an unending hardship now against the invasions of Nadir Shah (1739), Ahmad's shah Abdali (1748-73) and Shah Jaman (1793-98) and under the governorship of Abdus Samad Khan, Jakaria Khan, Yahaiya Khan and Mir Manu. So, to fight against Muslim atrocities Sikhs organised themselves in Misls. In the latter half of the eighteenth century, there were twelve Misls in Punjab. But Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Sukarchakia Misl took over Lahore in 1799 and became the real ruler of Punjab, he established a stable administration in Punjab. Ranjit Singh created Punjab as an influential state by annexing Multan in 1818 A.D., Kashmir in 1819 A.D. and Peshawar in 1834 A.D. and providing the people of Punjab a sound administration and modernized army¹. Although the political condition of Punjab remained fluid because of its geopolitical conditions but Ranjit Singh became the sovereign ruler of Punjab till his death i.e., 1839.

After the death of Ranjit, Singh flaws crept into the system. The major setback to the kingdom of Ranjit Singh began with the battle of Gujrat (February 21, 1849) when Raja Sher Singh with his father Sardar Chttar Singh and other 35 Sikh chiefs surrendered to the British General Gilbert on March 12, 1849, the last battle of second Anglo-Sikh War, in which the army chased to Rawalpindi and Afghan allies were withdrawn from Punjab². After Punjab was annexed by Sir Henry M Elliot, on the instructions of Lord Dalhousie, a treaty was signed by holding a durbar.

After the annexation, Lord Dalhousie handed over the administration of Punjab to the Administrative Board consist of three members Sir Henry Lawrence, the president, Sir John Lawrence, and Sir Charles Mansell. The Board enjoyed complete executive, judicial and military powers as well as the freedom to control finance and other matters till 1853³. The Punjab province is the plain area that lies between rivers Yamuna and Indus. After the mutiny of 1857, the area of present Haryana and Delhi territories were added to the region, along with that the province had almost forty princely states of varied sizes. During the beginning of the twentieth century, the process of making the province smaller began, when Northern Western Frontier provinces were created in 1901 and the city of Delhi was separated from Punjab in 1911 and took it as imperial capital. With the creation of Northern Western Frontier provinces, five districts were separated from Punjab and placed under the chief commissioner⁴. For the better administrative purpose's divisions were divided into districts and tehsils in the British territory of Punjab. So, after excluding NWFP and Delhi Punjab province was leftover with five divisions, twenty-nine districts and one hundred fourteen tehsils covered the area of 3,47,000 sq. km. Before Britishers, in the early nineteenth century, the basic units of administration were the Pargana of Taluka. By constituting Parganas British government formed districts and tehsils. As an estimate, a British district contained 1,000 to 2,000 villages and covers an area of 5,500 to 7,800 sq. km⁵.

All these 29 districts served as administrative headquarter and tehsils ad district headquarter. After 1859, the lieutenant governor was the head of administration having the executive, revenue, and judicial powers. For executive powers, commissioners were appointed under him with deputy commissioners, Tehsildar, Naib Tehsildar at different levels under the lieutenant governor. For revenue administration, there was a financial commissioner and there was chief, divisional and session courts under judges. Influential persons of local areas also recommended as honorary civil judges. Executive officers also perform revenue and judicial

responsibilities of varied nature⁶. Even the princely states were equally aligning to the Punjab province. For example, the state of Patiala covers an area of 14,000 sq. km. And divided into five Nizamats and sixteen tehsils. Though the areas of Nizamats and tehsils of princely states was less than the areas of district and tehsils of British Punjab. On the parallel lines, the Nabha state extended over the area of 2,600 km and was divided into three Nizams. In the context of the princely states, the larger urban area served as headquarter so-called Nizamat and the smaller areas were known as tehsils⁷.



During the annexation of Punjab, Lord Dalhousie was the British Governor-General of India. By that time the head of the British administration in Punjab was Governor. But a new era of politics was beginning after 1853 when the board was abolished and the post of chief commissioner came into existence. Till 1859 Punjab was under the administration of commissioner but after 1853 Sir John Laird Mair Lawrence was the chief commissioner of Punjab from 1853 to 1859 and after 1857. When the company rule was transfer to the British crown, the

office of Lieutenant-governor was formed in 1859, the head of the British administration in Punjab, before 1859 there was no Lieutenant-governorship for the province, it was governed by the Board of Administration (Presided by Sir Henry Lawrence) and then by Chief commissioner (Sir John Lawrence).⁸

Table 4-1 Lieutenant-governors of Punjab from 1859 to 1921

Lieutenant-governors	Years
Robert Montgomery	From 1859 to 1865
Donald McLeod	From 1865 to 1870
Henry M. Durand	From 1870 to 1871
Henry Davis	From 1871 to 1877
Robert E. Egerton	From 1877 to 1882
Charles Atchison	From 1882 to 1887
James B. Loyall	From 1887 to 1892
Dennis Fitzpatrick	From 1892 to 1897
William Macworth	From 1897 to 1902
Charles Montgomery	From 1902 to 1905
Denzil Ibbetson	From 1905 to 1907
Thomas G. Walker	From 1907 to 1908
L. William Dane	From 1908 to 1913
Michal Francis O'Dwayer	From 1913 to 1919
Edward D. Maclagan	From 1919 to 1921

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He was the head of the judicial, Executive and revenue departments. Under him, commissioners and deputy commissioners served him in the Executive department, separately finance commissioners were appointed to in charge finance departments and judges were taking care of judicial affairs in Punjab. From 1859 to 1921 several Lieutenant-governor served in Punjab.

After the government of India act of 1919, the lieutenant governors were replaced by Governors and at the district level the superintendent of police, civil surgeon were also introduced. There was a separate financial commissioner who looked after the sources of revenue and others. The system of Police and Jails also became important. After the Government of India Act 1919, was passed to increase the participation of Indians in the government administration along with the introduction of Diarchy, Punjab came under the rule of the Governor.

Table 4-2 Governors of Punjab from 1921 till independence.

Governors	Years
Sir Edward D. Maclagan	From 1921 to 1924
William M. Hailey	From 1924 to 1928
Geoffrey F. de Montmorency	From 1928 to 1933
Herbert William Emerson	From 1933 to 1938
Henry D. Clark	From 1938 to 1941
Bertrand J. Clark	From 1941 to 1946
Evan Meredith Jenkins	From 1946 to 15 August 1947

Najjar, B.S. – Punjab under the British Rule, pp-153-155, 180

Sir Edward Douglas was the first governor of Punjab. Here is the list of governors of Punjab till independence. During the period of above Britishers, various progressive work has been initiated that have an impact on the urbanization of Punjab, like the expansion of the means of transportation and communication have their importance, development of the canal, growth of English education system also the works are done by the government in the public interest have an impact on urbanization. National awakening against British rule was also a key factor for the political importance of urban centres.

According to the census report of 1868, Punjab was divided into ten divisions for the administration namely Hissar, Jullundur, Derajat,

Peshawur, Rawalpindi, Mooltan, Amritsar, Ambala, Delhi and Lahore, further administration was divided into 32 Districts, 128 Tehsils, 214 Pergunnahs and 35,740 Mouzas. The districts were Jullundhar, Amritsar, Sialkot, Delhi, Gurdaspur, Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana, Umballa, Goojranwala, Goojrat, Rohtak, Peshawar, Kurnal, Lahore, Gurgaon, Ferozepur, Hissar, Jhelum, D. G. Khan, Rawalpindi, Mozuffergurh, Bunnoo, Kangra, Mooltan, Shahpur, Sirsa, Montgomery, Jhung, and D. I. Khan. Kohat, Simla hills but according to the census report of 1901, Punjab was divided into five divisions for the administration of commissioners against ten in 1881, though no statical report had been compiled for divisions of Punjab in 1891⁹. These divisions had their headquarters at Delhi, Jalandhar, Lahore, Rawalpindi, and Multan. Their divisions further divided into twenty-nine districts and several tehsils under Deputy Commissioner and Tehsildar respectively. This adjustment was given on 9th February 1909 by the Punjab Government Notification No. 212. The villages were also connected to these offices¹⁰. But there were still two districts In Punjab that were Ludhiana, Ferozepur which fall under the Jullundhar division. Some newly grown-up towns were Jalalabad and Abohar in Ferozepur District and Jaitu in Nabha state considered as a town in the census of 1911.

Table 4-3 Divisions of Punjab and their districts in 1901

Division	Districts
Delhi division	Hisar, Rohtak, Gurgaon, Delhi, Karnal, Ambala,
Jullundhar division	Kangra, Hoshiarpur, Jullundur, Ludhiana, Ferozepur
Lahore division	Lahore, Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Sialkot, Gujranwala
Rawalpindi division	Gujrat, Shahpur, Jhelum, Rawalpindi, Attock, Mianwali.
Multan division	Montgomery, Lyallpur, Jhang, Multan, Muzaffargarh, Dera Ghazi Khan

Census of the India Punjab, 1911, p-1-2

These towns were grown up in the consequences of canal irrigation i.e., Sirhind Canal and the opening of new Railway i.e., Bathinda – Samasatta and Ferozepur Bathinda section of southern Punjab Railways. On the other hand, Machhiwara, Moga, Mudki, Makhu were no more treated as towns but were villages because of population less than five thousand and counted as merely overgrown villages with no urban characteristic.

After the Government of India Act 1935, autonomy was provided to the states with some discretionary powers to the governors. So, in 1937, the government was made in Punjab by-elections in which the Unionist party won the election and Sikander Hayat Khan came as the first Chief Minister of the state. Second World War (1939-45), death of Sikander Hayat Khan (1944) changed the whole political environment of Punjab. Later Khizar Hayat Khan becomes the chief minister of the state. The newly formed government of the Unionist party facilitates urban people by settling regulated markets in Ludhiana, Fazilka, Sargodha, Okara etc. Several rules were also framed for the sale and purchase of goods along with the rules for the transaction of money. By 1944, there were 130 such markets in the Punjab region. One of the important impacts of British politics was the introduction of public works department which dealt with buildings, roads, irrigation, education, health, police, forest, and later electricity was also added to this. Along with that, there were municipalities of different grade introduced as local self-government in different urban units to run public works effectively.

Undoubtedly national awakening evolved in the region with the introduction of new education pattern and educated professional middle class. To pacify this class Britishers created a seat in the legislative council of Punjab in 1897 based on nominations. After the government of India act of 1909, there were seats for the people of Punjab in the legislative council of Punjab especially for Muslims which become more prominent by the government of India act of 1919 by which the Idea of diarchy was introduced and the size of the provincial legislative assembly was enlarged.

Autonomy was introduced with the government of India act of 1935. Then the Punjab based unionist party won the election and formed the government in Punjab until 1946. Under the act of 1919, the number of urban constituencies was 13 and of rural were 19 and 7 special constituencies. But under the act of 1935, the number of urban constituencies was 19, of rural, were 138 and 18 special constituencies¹¹. The supporter of this party was more rural than urban. That's why the Unionists party which was a pro- rural party won the elections and Khizar Hayat khan becomes the first chief minister of the province.

The urban system cannot be thinking of without an effective administration from the lower level. Urban administration is as old as urbanization itself because a system cannot run effectively without an effectively organized administration. The root of this managed system was a municipality in cities or also known as local self-government and this existed in the pre-colonial era also. During the reign of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, there were Kardars responsible for this local government and the duties at the Pargana level. Sometimes they were more important than Nazims. Despite this, the administration of Lahore was quite different from the rest region. Kotwal oversaw the administration. He was responsible for sanitation, and cleanliness, peace and prosperity, trade, and commerce and in charge of Mohalladars.

Though municipal committees in urban centres came ineffective work in 1882 in India under the scheme of Local self-government and there was the provision of Panchayat in rural areas under this scheme. It was introduced by governor-general Lord Ripon. At the urban level, the municipal administration has the power of administration, taxation and functioning as a school for the government training¹². Before municipal committees, there were town committees probably under Deputy Commissioners. The function of these town committees was doing limited functions like maintaining law and order, public health, sanitation, cleanliness and education and the source of their income was change taxes

i.e., octroi duties. The base of town committees was laid down in Punjab in 1861 under the police act of 1861, but it came into function in 1864¹³.

The Punjab Municipal Act of 1911 categorises the urban area along with the contribution of Municipal Council and Nagar Panchayat based on the density of population and revenue generated from the area for local administration. The nature of employment (agricultural or Non-agricultural) was also given importance in the economic factors of the area. Developed a network of a commercial centre in which agriculture played a vital role. The role of agricultural production in the growth of urbanization is very less in the early British period. During the late nineteenth and early twentieth century famine and drought also affected the agricultural produce. As the result of these calamities the supply of food grain was not by the demand, so the price of agricultural commodities escalated in the most affected area of Punjab i.e., Sub Montane North-Western Punjab and present Haryana.

Table 4-4 Urban local bodies based on population and income

Sr. No.	Class of Urban Local Bodies	Population	Income
1	Municipal Corporation	3 lac and above	2 crore and above
2	a. Municipal Council, Class-I	3lac to 50,000	2 crores to 50 lacs
	b. Class-II	50,000 to 20,000	50 lacs to 25 lacs
	c. Class-III	20,000 to 10,000	upto 15 lacs
3	Nagar Panchayat	10,000 to 5,000	more than rs150 per head

The effect of these calamities was so serious that the neighbouring states which were in trade relation with Punjab were. To tackle this problem and increase production, Britishers increase the fertile feature of barren lands with the progress of Canal Colonization and brought up unused land into agriculture. Urban bodies were differentiating based on Punjab

Municipal act under Municipal Council, Class-I, Class-II and class III and Nagar Panchayat.

4.2 Economic Importance

The level of urbanization is regarded as an index of economic development. Economic activities also determined the rural-urban unity which is dependent upon the demand and supply created by the local people. According to Schultz, A specific Matrix is needed for the occurrence of economic development and in every economy, there were one or two locations of matrix and different in different locations which means economic growth varies with the various location and time¹⁴. Since ancient times the major economic activities in the region was agriculture but in modern times the attribute of the economy are Industry, Trade and Agriculture. Industry develops in urban locations; trade develops with the development of transportation and communications and agriculture development in favourable places. In the urban location, small towns produced goods to big cities with the help of dealers and outside the nation, town and cities also played important role in the growth of industry and trade¹⁵. Western Historiographers have an idea that agricultural surplus is a necessary pre-condition for the growth of industry, trade and commerce and hence urban growth occurs. Punjab is a region of an economy based on agriculture and did not have any strong industrial base. It survived on the trading web with Europe and the Middle East. In this way, they develop a network of commercial centres in which agriculture played a vital role. The role of agricultural production in the growth of urbanization is very less. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century famine and droughts affected agriculture very much. As a result of these calamities the supply of food grains was not by the demand, so the prices of agricultural commodities escalate in the most affected areas of Punjab i.e., sub-montane Northern- Western Punjab and present Haryana. The effect of these calamities was so serious that the neighbouring states which were in trade relation with Punjab also had a shortage of food. To tackle this problem

and increase production, Britishers worked to increase the fertility of barren lands with the introduction of canal colonization in Punjab and brought up unused land into agricultural production.

Table 4-5 Population of different religions living per miles in towns

Religion	People living per mile in towns
All religion	106
Hindus	118
Sikhs	54
Muhammadans	106
Jain	529
Christians	250

Census report of Punjab, 1911, p-14

Based on the census report of Punjab, 1911, only 10.61 per cent of people reside in cities, rest of the majority lives in villages. Taking the province, 106 persons out of every 1,000 live in town or city and this figure relates to every religion by their population. Very a much smaller number of Sikhs were living in the towns i.e., only 54 per cent, most of them were living in the villages because they are an agriculturist class of people. On the other hand, Christian people were purely commercial traders and industrialist people so most of them were living in the cities and in the ruler areas they were not agriculturist by profession, they represent services like railways. The Hindus were mostly bankers or money landers, they represent a large share in trade, commerce, and educational work so most of them live in cities. Based on the composition of the population in the urban centres, an average town contains 40 Hindus, 6 Sikhs, 51 Muhammadans, 1 Jain and 2 Christians in the population of every 100 peoples.

Predominantly, urban centres were indulging in secondary and tertiary economic activities i.e., production of goods in the small- and large-scale industries along with buying and selling of furnished goods i.e.,

mercantile. For raw material, cities had a dependence on villages, in this way they were directly co-relates to villages. Small cities worked as the nerve centre of the trade, as they collect goods from villages like wheat, rice, cereals, cotton, sugar etc. and further send them to big cities which send them to other parts of the region and beyond¹⁶. Similarly, goods like Ivory, dry fruits, iron goods, wooden material etc. from far areas like European countries and central Asia brought firstly to small cities and then after distributed further to big towns. For example, Silk and wool imported to Multan from Bokhara and then reached Amritsar. Villagers came to towns for these items of fine quality like clothes, tools, gold ornaments etc.¹⁷

India was opened to European countries for trade relations in the fifteenth century when a Portuguese traveller Vasco-de-Gama entered the Indian subcontinent in 1498. After these European countries began trade relations with India through the sea route. But in 1600, the British East India Company initiated a new era of trade. Britishers exported raw material like cotton, sugar, wheat to their countries and came with factory-made fine furnished goods and took over the markets of India. Undoubtedly English goods displaced Indian goods as even Zamindars buy attractive coloured, machine-made and cheaper goods coming from England. The major exports from Punjab were Wheat, from Ludhiana to Europe, by Messrs' Ralli Brothers, Sanday Patrick and Co., and J.M. Clements and Co. and during 1903, the goods which were chiefly imported to Punjab consisting, gold and silver laces, cotton, buttons made with plated gold and brass, military dress fabric and necessary goods for regiments were from England¹⁸. For this purpose, they introduced a Railway network, nearly all the towns in the plains directly or indirectly connected to the big cities or ports. To increase the agricultural produce British initiated the policy of commercialization of agriculture, production of cash crops along with the recalculated revenues and the expansion of irrigation work. The most important work done by the Britishers were the establishment of canal

colonies in the doabs for the extension of agriculture, namely; Sidhnai colony, Sohagpara colony, Chunian colony, Chenab colony, Lower Bari doab colony, Upper Chenab, and upper Jhelum colony, Nilibari doab colony. With the growth and development of new means of transportation, several distant urban units develop trade relations. For example, Ferozepur and Peshawar were connected through rail so they became new points of local trade¹⁹.

Internal trade was also prospered during this period, for example, the United Provinces and Lower Provinces of Bengal were importing moong daal, jowar, maize and rapeseed oil from Punjab²⁰. The Famine Report of 1879 gave a rough estimate of the total production, exports, and imports of food grains according to which export was done through railway which consists of wheat and grams²¹. From Delhi Brass and copper-ware were imported, Iron from Karachi and salt from Jhelum District. Trade in the province was done with the help of carts driven by oxen, camels and donkeys. Trade-in Punjab was entirely in the hands of the Jats (both Hindu and Sikhs). They brought grain in their carts, disposed of them to the regular merchants and return with sugar, gur, cotton etc. Nearly all the trade of gur and shaker was in the hands of Jats, having direct links with the cultivators. These Jats also trade with the west²².

In these newly developed urban centres, mandis and wholesale markets were coming into existence, which was the central and permanent area of daily wholesale distribution. People from villages came to these markets for the sale of their agricultural produce and buying fine finished goods. By the end of the colonial period, Punjab had 157 wholesale markets were serving villages around 55 km²³. The commission agents, Aarhatis (one who take a commission on the sale of agricultural produce) and money lenders play a key role in this type of mandis or markets in the cities they also play a significant role in the local trade of locally manufactured goods. Like they possess right over the exported things from different parts of Punjab like woollen shawls and blankets of Amritsar, the silk of Multan

and paper and brassware of Sialkot²⁴. Cumulatively urban centres of Punjab were the foci of trade during colonial rule, their size increased with the increase in trading activities. During this time trade networks developed at a wider range within and outside the region, the volume of export is larger than import. Exporting goods consists of agricultural produce, salt, cotton clothes, woollen items etc. while import consists of sugar, dyes, iron, and steel goods²⁵.

Urban centres were indulging in manufacturing one or other type of goods through this period. They settled down the various type of industries ginning, including spinning, weaving industry, woollen manufacturing industries, silk, leather, metal, wooden industry etc. These urban-based industries had employed a large number of workers for which they migrated from rural areas or small cities to big urban centres to support their livelihood. As estimated, there were 1191 industries in Punjab in 1943 having employed 132,480 workers. In the early twentieth century, the only ginning factory was in the Ludhiana district at Khanna, it was worked by steam and had employed 100 hands. There were four large flour mills at Kanpur, Chupki, Akalgarh and Akhara on the Abohar branch and one at Jaghera in the Bathinda branch. 118. Punjab State gazetteer Ludhiana District 1904, p-159. This type of work culture boosted up after the establishment of railways, a large number of workers were employed in railway workshops and rail coach factories. The first railway workshop was founded in Lahore in the 1860s and till 1925 there were nine railway workshops. Most of the workers employed there come from different traditional works like carpenters, blacksmith, leather workers and landless peasants etc. Previously these workers have their sustenance in villages, they were rural artisans.

During the fourteenth century, an urban centre was defined based on its political status as the seat of government in western Asia. While a city was defined based on its economic development in western Europe during the seventeenth century by Giovanni Botero in a congregation. So, the

definition of an urban centre is very dynamic, it changes with the change in its role over time influenced by the combination of several factors like agricultural development, growth of trade and commerce, progression in Industrialisation, socio-cultural advancement etc. Therefore, the urban centres of Punjab have their political and economic importance, in which they offered a new form of government that contributed to the growth and development of urban centres by providing effective administration, new policies of revenue management, better facilities of mercantile, reoriented trade with enhanced transportation facilities, the establishment of mandis and market towns, all contributed in the growth of urbanization process.

In the sixties of the nineteenth century, with the establishment of the railway and other means of transportation and communications the towns of Punjab were interlinked and facilitates trade and commerce. In Punjab railway starts from Lahore. The first railway line was beginning from Lahore to Amritsar in 1862 and next from to Multan and Peshawar in 1865 and 1883 respectively. The railway line between Amritsar and Delhi developed in 1870. The development of the railway in Punjab was so strategic that up to 1912 there was 6,400 km was laid and by 1932, 2,400 km more was added to it. By this time small towns or cities were connected to big cities through the mainline, even with the cities of India especially port cities²⁶. Not only the railway but roads also have importance in the transportation of goods and commerce. For this purpose, Britishers laid several metaled roads, most importantly Grand truck road from Calcutta to Peshawar. A hoop of the road was made between Ludhiana to Ferozepur and Ferozepur to Lahore²⁷. By 1930, there was about 6.400 km of metaled road in Punjab. Along with that post and telegraph was also introduced in Punjab.

No industrial development was seen in Punjab in the nineteenth century. This was because of the British policy of economic exploitation. Britishers were sending raw material to their own country to run their industry and sending the finished goods to the markets back and overtook

the market. But after First World War, the British changes their policy and began some industries for their economic advancement and security of the military. More steps were taken in the first half of the twentieth century for settling industry in Punjab. According to the government of India Act 1919, diarchy was introduced in the nine provinces of India such as Bengal, Madras, Bombay, United province, Punjab, Bihar, Orissa, Central province, and Assam. Governor was heading both powers i.e., transferred and reserved of the province. This system was abolished and autonomy was introduced later by the Government of India act 1935²⁸. By this, Punjab assembly elections were held for the first time for 175 seats in 1936-37. Sir Sikander Hayat Khan became the first prime minister of the state and considerable work has been done for the promotion of the industries in Punjab. Enough budget was sanctioned for the promotion of the industry, such as about 11 lakh rupees was sanctioned in 1935 and it was raised to 19 lakhs in 1937-38, 25 lakhs in 1941 and 35 lakhs in 1947-48²⁹. Several works, along with this has been done for the promotion of Industry. They introduced me to research in the field of industry and specialists and experts were also appointed. Loans were made available under the act of Punjab state Aid to Industries in 1940. For example, a grant of Rs. 2 lakh was given for the promotion of the manufacturing of sewing machines and their parts in 1941³⁰. With the addition of industrial schools and colleges along with the addition of technical subjects, industrial education was introduced to promote the industry. As a result of these efforts of government various large scale and small-scale industries like cotton spinning and weaving mills, Cotton ginning industry, Artificial silk factory, Hosiery industry, Sugar mills, Distilleries, Oil mills, Paper and paper printing Factory, Tea industry, Oil refineries, Match industry, Paint and Chemical factory, Glass industry, Cement Industry etc. flourished in Punjab during the first half of the twentieth century. The significant development was done in the field of the textile industry, both in cotton and woollen textile. Ludhiana was the major manufacturing centre of the Hosiery industry. Like there were 62 hosiery industries in comparison to

one in 1928 in Ludhiana and it raises to the significant number of 100 in 1941-42, this industry was boosted after the Second World War. In 1939-40 the position of large-scale industry in Punjab was as follows³¹.

Table 4-6 Number of Industries in Punjab as well percentage of employees

Sr. No.	Industry	Total Number	Per centage of workers employed
1	Textile (cotton, Ginning and Pressing)	424	48%
2	Minerals	71	4%
3	Railway transport	8	15%
4	Food, Drinks, Tobacco	107	6%
5	Chemical	32	2%
6	Paper and Dyeing	53	6%
7	Wood, Stone and Glass	20	3%
8	Engineering	68	6%
9	Others	15	10%

Reports of the Department of Industries, Punjab, 1937, p-16-40

From the above table the inferences can be drawn, such as Textile was the biggest industry in Punjab that employed 37653 employers; while 3465 workers were employed in Minerals factories; 11452 were in Railway transport; 4970 in Food, Drinks, Tobacco industry; while industry manufacturing paper and dyeing materials had employed 4550 workers; 1154 workers were doing work in Chemical factory; Various goods made in Wood, Stone and Glass industry had employed 2215 workers; 4995 workers were working in the engineering industry³². The progress of industry was shown by the figure that during the 1930s 750 factories were registered by the government out of which 588 were working and the number of registered factories increased to 1191 in 1940, in which 800 factories were working³³. [Information based on the Reports of the

Department of Industry, Punjab, 1930 & 1940]. Sugar mills and oil mills also made progress during this period, there were 16 oil mills in the various parts of Punjab. Small scale industries also made progress including Cotton Handloom Industry, Leather Industry, Metal industry, Wood carving Industry, pottery making Industry etc. The occupational structure in the cities of Punjab based on the census report of 1881. According to approximately 20 % people were engaged in the industry of cotton textile, 13 to 15 % workers were doing work of Agriculture, dairy, and production of food, 11 % were working in minerals industries, 6% entertainment, 10% were government official, while 5% were Professional including Teachers, Journalists, Doctors and 3% were doing Art and mechanical work. Rest belongs to other trade, manufacturing, transportation, and miscellaneous works. In the later period, the percentage of professional class increased and this statical figure varies in different urban centres. On the other hand, they were exploiting the peasants by taking heavy land revenue and forcing them to grow cash crops. They also made the moneylenders think of investing their money in several fields other than lands bypassing the land alienation act of 1900. The government also used the surplus money of the people of Punjab by opening The Punjab National Bank in 1894 in Lahore and registered it under the Indian companies act.

¹ Latif, S. M. (1891). *History of the Punjab*. Calcutta: Central Press Company, p. 205-09.

² Nijjar, B. S. (n.d.). *Punjab under the British Rule (1849-1947)* (Vol. 3). Lahore: Mustafa Waheed Publisher, p. 35-36.

³ Chhabra, G. S. (1960). *An Advance History of Punjab*. Jalandhar: Sharanjit, p.102-03.

⁴ Douie, J. M. (1974). *The Punjab: Northern Western Frontier Province and Kashmir*. Delhi: Seema Publications, p.355-56.

⁵ Sachdeva, V. (1993). *Polity and Economy of the Punjab during the late eighteenth century*. New Delhi: Manohar, p-144-48.

⁶ Sohal, S. S. (2008). *The Middle classes in the Punjab (1849-1947)*. Jalandhar: ABS publications, p- 145-46.

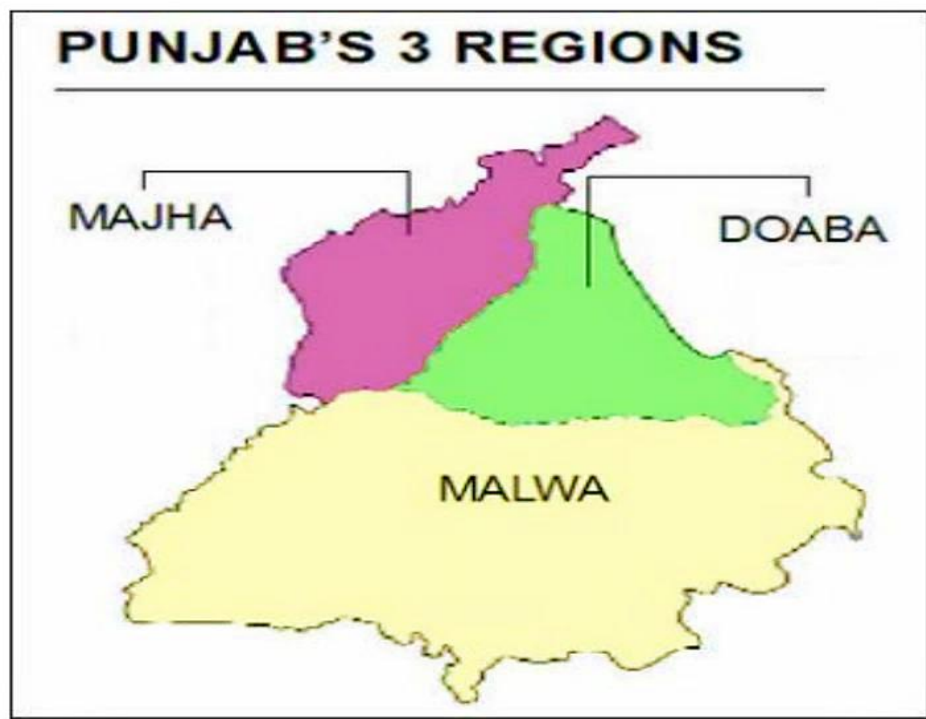
⁷ Douie, J. M. (1974). *The Punjab: Northern Western Frontier Province and Kashmir*. Delhi: Seema Publications, p. 359-62.

⁸ Foster, W. (1919). *A Guide to the India Office Records, 1600- 1858*. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode, p-69-70.

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- ⁹ Gait, H. H. (1901). *Census of India* (Vols. I-A). Calcutta: Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, p. 58-65.
- ¹⁰ Leigh, M. S. (1997). *The Punjab and the War*. Lahore: Sang-e-Meel Publication, p-69-70.
- ¹¹ Yadav, K. C. (1987). *Elections in Punjab 1920-1947*. New Delhi: Manohar, p. 11-16.
- ¹² Maheshwari, S. (2002). *Local Self-Government in India*. Agra: Lakshmi Narain Agarwal Publishers, p. 7-14.
- ¹³ Gupta, N. (1981). *Delhi between Two Empires, 1830-1931*. New Delhi: OUP, p.70-71.
- ¹⁴ Shultz, T. W. (1951). A frame work for Land Economics: The long view. *Journal of Farm Economics*, 33-34.
- ¹⁵ Ashraf, K. M. (1988). *Life and Conditions of the People of Hindustan*. New Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers Pvt. Ltd, p. 130-31.
- ¹⁶ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization in India: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 321-22.
- ¹⁷ Banga, I. (2009). *Urban-Rural Interaction: The Uper Bari Doab (c.1550-1900)*. (R. Grewal, Ed.) New Delhi: Manohar, p. 221-23.
- ¹⁸ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 158-59.
- ¹⁹ *Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures*. (1884-85).
- ²⁰ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 210-11.
- ²¹ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization in India: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 325.
- ²² Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 221-22.
- ²³ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization in India: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 323-25.
- ²⁴ (1894-95). *Punjab State Gazetteer*. District Sialkot.
- ²⁵ Banga, I. (Ed.). (1992). *Ports and Their Hinterlands in India (1700-1950)*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 34-35.
- ²⁶ Douie, J. M. (1974). *The Punjab: Northern Western Frontier Province and Kashmir*. Delhi: Seema Publications, p. 86-87.
- ²⁷ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 255-56.
- ²⁸ Philips, M. D. (Ed.). (n.d.). *The Partition of India: Policies and Perspectives, 1935-47*, p. 188-89.
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- ³³ Information based on the Reports of the Department of Industry, Punjab, 1930 & 1940.

5 Malwa Region – An Urban centre

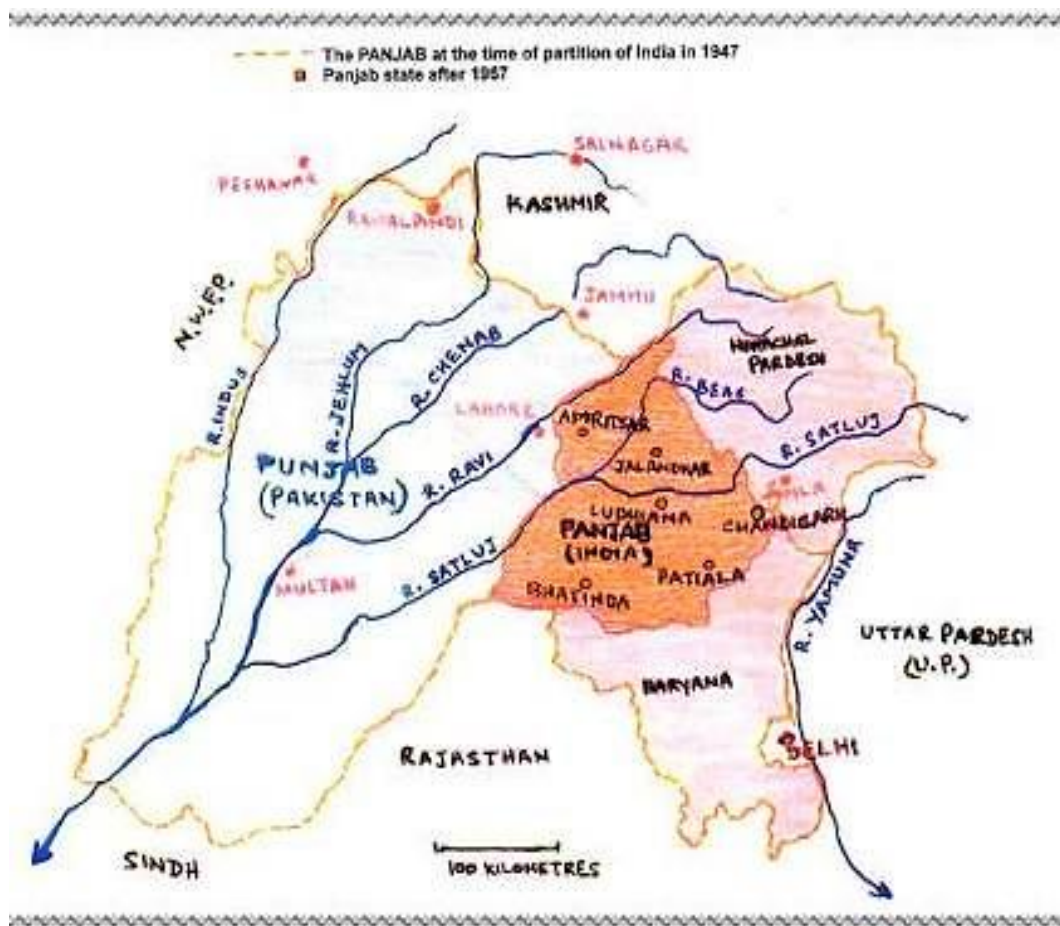
Malwa is the region of present Punjab, other than the Malwa plateau of Madhya Pradesh, lies between the Satluj and Yamuna it is the southern part of Satluj (one of the five tributaries of Punjab) and it is one of the three linguistic divisions of present Punjab, other two are Doaba and Majha. It was said that the Malwa word originated from the Sanskrit word Mallava and Greek word Maloi, name of a tribe in the ancient period, fought against Alexander, the great in the 4th century B.C. Later they migrated to the south of the Sutlej and given the name Malwa and it became their new homeland The Malwa region of Punjab lies between 29^o-30' and 31^o-10' North latitude and 73^o-50' and 76^o-50' East longitude. It is the southern-eastern region of Punjab bounded by the river Sutlej in the north, Haryana in the south-east, Rajasthan in the south-west¹.



Map 5-1 Map of three regions of Punjab

The area of Malwa is 32,808 km and its population is 11,817,142, according to the census of 2001. It is the largest region amongst Doaba,

Majha and Malwa, consisting of 10 districts of Punjab namely Ludhiana, Rupar, Patiala, Sangrur, Bathinda, Mansa, Ferozepur, Faridkot, Moga, and Mukatsar. Some of the areas of Haryana like Sirsa, Fatehabad and Kaithal and of Rajasthan like Sri Ganganagar, and Hanumangarh also covered in Malwa.



Map 5-2 Map of Punjab

The period of analysis that is 1849 -1947, covered the Malwa region of Punjab for a period of near about hundred years. According to the viewpoint of Dada Bhai Naoroji, the position of Punjab in the per-capita output of agriculture was second in 1868-69, while the first position bagged by the Bombay Presidency and in this way, Punjab was above from Bengal,

Bihar, and Central Province. This could not be because of the twenty years of Britishers rule over Punjab as they annexed Punjab in 1849.

In the seventeenth century, Irfan Habib prepared the first Atlas during Mughal Period and he marked 320 different types of urban units in the Suba of Lahore (another name of Punjab during the Sikh Period). While in 1828 Hamilton presented a Gazetteer made by him, described 208 towns of various sizes in the Punjab and Sikh Kingdom. Another Gazetteer presented by Thornton in 1854, according to which there were 462 urban units in Punjab. But the census report of 1868 of Punjab identifies 128 urban centres. The reduction in the number of towns was the changing definition of an urban centre or the perception for the town in the mind of the writer preparing the reports. The most reliable census was prepared in 1881 and according to it, there were 263 areas were listed under the category of urban units.

5.1 An Overview of Malwa Region

The major parts of the Malwa region consisted of the princely states Patiala, Nabha, Jind and Faridkot as well as the districts of Ferozepur and Ludhiana. The princely states were dependent on Britishers and the districts were directly under the control of Britishers. During the eighteenth century, the princely states mainly Patiala, Nabha and Jind were under the rule of the decedents of Bhai Phul Singh head of the Phulkian Misl. When Maharaja Ranjit Singh rose to the power and he struggled for the sovereign ruler of Punjab he took over the territories of other Misls and marched towards the cis- Sutlej area i.e., Malwa. The rulers of Malwa went to Britishers to pursue help against Ranjit Singh. Later a Treaty of Amritsar was signed in 1809 between British resident Lord Metcalf and Ranjit Singh, by which the cis- Sutlej area came under the protection of Britishers². But some of the rulers of Malwa were still on the side of Ranjit Singh. After the second Anglo-Sikh wars, Lord Dalhousie finally annexed Punjab on 29 March 1849 with a treaty of Lahore. There were two types of native states

in India as well as in Punjab that were Dependent or feudatory states and independent states. In Punjab, there were 34 feudatory states, in which 14 were entitled to gun salute by Britishers. These states were: Patiala, Bahawalpur, Kapurthala, Jind, Nabha, Faridkot, Maler Kotla, Mandi, Chamba, Nahan, Bilaspur, Suket, Loharu, and Bashahr. The state of Patiala, Nabha, Jind and Faridkot of the Malwa region of Punjab was also getting special privilege from British Government and running their own rule. But there was British government rule in the rest of the Malwa region. The three Phulkian States of Patiala, Jind and Nabha formed a political agency under the Punjab Government. Phul was the sixth in descent from Baryam, a Sidhu Jat, to whom Babar gave the 'Chaudhriyat' of the wild territory of the southwest of Delhi, making him in effect a Lord of the Marches³.

5.1.1 The State of Patiala:

Raja Ala Singh was the founder of Patiala state, it came under the protection of Britishers in 1809 during the rule of Sahib Singh after the treaty of Amritsar, signed between Britishers and Maharaja Ranjit Singh⁴. By which cis-Satluj states were no longer consider the reign of the maharaja. So, these states have cordial relations with the British government and they helped them in several ways like Raja Karam Singh helped them in Anglo- Gurkha war. The most important help was given by Maharaja Narinder Singh during the mutiny of 1857. During First World War Maharaja Bhupinder Singh offered notable help by raising three Battalions of infantry. During his times Chamber of Princes was raised and he became a lifetime member of this association. He attended the Imperial War conference in 1918 as a representative of Indian States. He also represents the prince's case before the Indian State committee. After him, Maharaja Yadwinder Singh founded Khalsa defence of India League, who sent thousands of stalwarts Punjabis to the colour. He became the pro-chancellor of the chamber of princes in 1943 and took a notable part in the negotiation with the cabinet mission in 1946. There are five Nizamat or Districts like Pinjaur, Amargarh, Karamgarh, Anahadgarh and

Mahindergarh and twelve tehsils viz. Fatehgarh, Sahibgarh, Amargarh, Patiala, Sunam, Bhowanigarh, Nirwana, Bhikhi, Govindgarh, Kanaud, and Narnaul⁵.

5.1.2 The State of Jind:

Raja Gajpat Singh was the founder of the Jind State, who was the son of sukhchain Singh belongs Phul dynasty. Her granddaughter Bibi Raj Kaur was the mother of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. Her father Raja Bhag Singh was the greatest of the cis -Satluj chiefs to seek an alliance with the British government. Raja Sarup Singh of Jind was another important ruler to offered help to Britishers during the mutiny of 1857. His son Raja Raghubir Singh helped the British in the Kuka outbreak and the Second Anglo-Afghan war⁶. Afterwards, Maharaja Ranbir Singh remained ruler of Jind till 1948. Sangrur and Jind were two Nizamat and Jind and Dadri were tehsils of Jind.

5.1.3 The State of Nabha:

The Nabha state territory was scattered in patches throughout the area occupied by Phulkian Misl. The state consists of three main divisions namely Phul, Amloh and Bawal. Raja Hamir Singh was the founder of Nabha state who was the grandson of Phul's grandson Gurditta. Britishers offered a seat in the legislative council in the government of India in 1863 to Raja Bharpoor Singh. During the rule of Raja, Ripudaman Singh Nabha state was formed as the agent to the governor-general on November 1st, 1921. He was awarded the help of Imperial service Troops to Britishers during the First World War⁷. The last important ruler of the state was Maharaja Partap Singh who ruled the state up to August 1948. ⁸. Patiala, Nabha and Faridkot were the Jat-dominated areas of Punjab.⁹

5.1.4 The State of Faridkot:

Faridkot was a small territory encircled with Ferozepur. His ruling house has also a connection with Phulkian chiefs and with Barar Jat Sikh. The territory was invaded and occupied by Maharaja Ranjit Singh in 1807

but later by the consequences of the treaty of Amritsar, Sardar Gulab Singh occupied it in 1809¹⁰. Sardar Pahar Singh was the rightful and greatest ruler of Faridkot who was rewarded with the title of Raja after his help offered to the Britishers in Anglo Sikh wars. During First World War the state of Faridkot sent various companies of the army. Raja Harjinder Singh remained the ruler till 1948 when the state acceded to India and joined PEPSU in 1948.

Maler Kotla was the smallest state having an area of 165 sq. miles and a population of 88 thousand. Along with it, Bahawalpur, Loharu, Dujana and Pataudi were the only Muslim ruled states of Punjab.¹¹

5.1.5 The District of Ferozepur:

The district of Ferozepur was under the division of Jalandhar. Ain-I-Akbari gives us the reference of the large Parganas i.e., Ferozepur which was attached to the Multan suba and paying a revenue of 11,479,404 dams which is equivalent to Rs. 2, 86,985. Along with that one more pargana was mentioned in the same work, that of Muhammadot, which is probably to be identified with the modern Mamdot, and would therefore fall within the boundary of the present district. The revenue of this pargana, as given in amounted to 34, 92,454 dams, which is equivalent to 87,311 Rs. The fort of Ferozepore is stated to have been built in the time of Feroz shah Tughlak, Emperor of Delhi, from A. D. 1351 to 1387. Nothing more than a mound, surmounted by a Muhammadans tomb marks its site. The following pages are taken from the report of Sir H. Lawrence. Which was stationed at Ferozepore during the early years of the British occupation. The strategic position of Ferozepore being located on the bank of river Satluj lies on the high road between Delhi and Lahore and a fort of some kind founded by the great ruler Feroz shah Tughlak gave it extraordinary importance.¹²

While the Manj Rajput said that the area was named after their chief Feroze Khan who lived in the mid of sixteen centuries. After the downfall of the Delhi sultanate, the city was becoming depopulated and took over by

Dogra Rajputs in 1763-64 Hari Singh Bhangi sized and plundered Kasur and its neighbouring areas, one of his Gurja Singh with his Brother Nusbaha Singh and two Nephews, Gurbaksh Singh and Mastan Singh, crossed the river Satluj and took the possession of Ferozepore. While his friend Jai Singh Gharia took over the possession of Khai, Wan and Bazidpur in the neighbourhood of Ferozepore. Later in 1717 A.D. Gurbaksh Singh took over Ferozepur and rebuilt its fort. In 1792 Gurbaksh Singh divided his possession amongst his four sons. Dhanna Singh one of his four sons got the fort and territory of Ferozepore. Maharaja Ranjit Singh tried to capture the city but could not succeed because of British interference. On the dated 28th March 1809, he begged to be admitted under Sir D. Ochterlony, the Agent for Sikh Affairs, for the Company's protection in the same manner as was his relative Bhagwan Singh Buria and Jagadhari.¹³ After the death of Dhanna Singh in 1819, his widow Lachman Kaur heiress of his possessions. But the nephew of Dhanna Singh, Bhagel Singh while came to meet his grandfather Gurbaksh Singh, usurped the fort and the territory with the help of Nihal Singh, A vessel of Ranjit Singh. Then Lachman Kaur went to Captain Ross, the Deputy Superintendent of Sikh Affairs, for help. With the help of Britishers, she got her possession back, Maharaja Ranjit Singh also agreed to the decision and called Nihal Singh back. After the death of Lachman Kaur in December 1835, the territory came to the hand of Britishers because she had no children who possess the territory of Ferozepore rightfully. In 1838, Mr W. M. Edge worth appointed as the assistant political agent of Ferozepur¹⁴.

5.1.6 The District of Ludhiana:

Ludhiana is one of the two districts of the Malwa region of Punjab and it is one of the five districts of Jalandhar divisions that lies in the south-east district of Punjab between 30⁰ 33' and 31⁰ North latitude and 75⁰ 25' and 76⁰ 27' east longitude. It was said that Rajputs were the early settlers of this region approximately 700 or 800 years before, they were followed by Jats earlier in the eastern part and later in the western parts

i.e., Jagraon but till the times of the Lodhi dynasty, the name Ludhiana was not known or mentioned. Its early history was mentioned during the time of Ball Lodhi, its name was Mir Hota a village during the time of Sikander Lodhi Baluchi's dynasty plundered the region, so the people of this region requested to Sultan to protect them against the plunderers. So Sikander Lodhi sent his Lodhi chiefs Nihang Khan and Yusuf Khan against the prayer of the people. These chiefs resorted to the position and fixed the site as Ludhiana City. Nihang Khan becomes the lieutenant of the emperor at (Mir Hota) Ludhiana while Yusuf Khan crossed the river Satluj to fight against Khokhar's in Jalandhar, one of the great-grandchildren of Nihang Khan, Jalal Khan used the bricks of Sunet and build a Fort. Sirhind was the most important centre of politics during the Mughal period to which Ludhiana was attached as a Mahal. We found the name of several Parganas of Ludhiana in Air-i-Akbari viz. Tihara, Hatur, Bhundri, Pall Doraha, Machhiwara and Ludhiana. These seven mahals or Parganas which were in the Sirhind division covered most of the areas of the present Ludhiana district and some part came in the Patiala providence¹⁵. In the later seventeenth and early eighteenth century witnesses continues to struggle between Sikhs and the Muslim governors of Sirhind because Sirhind was the place where the wife and sons of the last Sikhs Guru Shiri Guru Gobind Singh were murdered. This region later jacked by Banda Singh Bahadur in 1710. Afterwards, the region becomes a continuous battlefield for the establishment of their rule between Phulkian and other Sikh chiefs. It was said that Nadir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdali crossed Sutlej at Ludhiana and were opposed by the imperial army from Sirhind. After his victory against Maratha Ahmad's shah came to ravaged Sikhs to the ground. So, he came to Lahore in 1762 with a huge army and killed thousands of Sikhs at Kup Rahian in Maler Kotla on February 5, 1762, named as Wada ghalu ghara, the big Holocaust. Later Sikhs united themselves again and defeated the governor of Ahmad's shah, Zain khan with this Sirhind lost the imperial control and Raja Ala Singh was appointed as the governor by Ahmad's shah and afterwards Sirhind fall into the prey of Phulkian Sikhs. During the last

eightieth forties of the century, the Rais erected several forts at different places in Ludhiana. After the fall of Sirhind one of these Rai, Rai Ahmad founded the city of Raikot in 1648¹⁶.

When the British captured Delhi in 1803 they came in direct connection with Punjab including the cis-Satluj region of Punjab. On the other hand, Ranjit Singh was struggling for supremacy over the whole of Punjab. He extended his region up to the north of Satluj and went to extend beyond. This opportunity provided by the dispute created between the cis-satluj states of Patiala, Nabha and Jind and the last Rai of the region also died in 1802. So Ranjit Singh took possession of the city along with the fort of Ludhiana and interfered in the region of Malwa but the meantime, the cis-Satluj ruler went under the patronage of Britishers, and they decided to protect the region between Satluj and Yamuna and demanded Ranjit Singh to restore all the territories seized in his Malwa expeditions. Ranjit Singh yielded to their demand and signed a treaty with Colonel Ochterlony on 25th April 1809. With this Ranjit Singh and his dependents now acquired the territories of trans-Sutlej. Colonel Ochterlony held the charge of political agent of Ludhiana from 1809-15 and next was Captain Murray (1815-23). He was succeeded by Sir Claude Wade (1823-38). They enjoyed full power as a political agent. All the previous acquisitions of 80 villages came under the Britishers and hence the present District came into form. Its administration was run by an Assistant political agent¹⁷.

5.2 Urbanization Process of the Malwa Region

As we see in the formation of the Malwa region of Punjab, earlier there were three districts Ferozepur, Ludhiana and Badli. The district of Ferozepur had the ilaqas of Khai, Baguwala, Ambarhar, Zira, and Mudki with portions of Kot-Kapura, Guru-Har-Sahai, Jumbha, Kot Bhayi, Bhuchan and Mahraj. Other areas of Malwa Punjab which were under the British government, were divided between the districts of Badli and Ludhiana. In 1847, the Badli district was broken up and the Ilaqas of

Malanwala, Makhu, Dharmkot, Kot-Esi-Khan, Badni, Chuhar-Chak, Mari and Sada-Singh-wala were added to the Ferozepur district. Sultan-Khan-wala was taken from Faridkot in the same year in the exchange for a portion of Kot-Kapura. In 1852, some portion of the Ilaqas of Muktsar and Kot-Kapura were taken from the Raja of Faridkot and added to the district. Subsequently, in 1856 the estates of Mamdot were deposed and subsequently added to the district. In 1884, the Sirsa district was dissolved consisting of the tehsils Fazilka and Dabawali, which were added to the district and till 1947 the composition of the district remained the same. During the revolt of 1857, two regiments of native infantry stationed at Fazilka and Ferozepur. The cantonment of Ferozepur was built in 1839, five miles away in the east of river satluj and 75 miles away from Ludhiana¹⁸. With the establishment of cantonment, a new phase of urban development began in the Ferozepur district that altered the socio-economic ground of the region. The cantonment area had new infrastructures like the new building of schools, colleges, administrative offices, hospitals, shopping centres and recreational areas. This cantonment was interlinked with the old city via road as well as railway. This new face of the city provided it new essence of western culture and flavour that sparked the process of urbanization.

The Ferozepur city was one of the oldest cities of Punjab founded in the time of Sultan Feroz Shah Tughlak in A.D. 1351-1387. He built the marketplace in the east of the old fort and a Bazar now named Purana Bazar. According to a census taken by Sir Henry Lawrence, in 1838, the population was 2,732 which become 4,841 in 1841. But according to the census of 1855, the population increased to 475,624. The figures in the Statement shows the population increase of the district as it stood at the three enumerations. In 1855, 4.8 lakhs of people were living in the district of Ferozepur acquiring a density of 187 sq. per miles, the population become 7.4 lakhs in 1881 and it acquired the density of 236 seq. per miles. The area of the district was 2,945 sq. miles in 1881 but in 1891 some area

of Sirsa was added to the district Ferozepur and the area rose to 4,302 sq. miles¹⁹.

Table 5-1 Population of the district Ferozepur in 1855, 1868, and 1881.

Census	Persons	Males	Females	Density per sq. miles
1855	475,624	-----	-----	187
1868	549,614	303,706	245,908	204
1881	746,681	457,319	289,362	236

Gazetteer of Punjab, Ferozepur, 1883, p-33

5.2.1 In the 1880s there were the following Ilaqas of the district namely

Ferozepur, Khai, Sultan khan, Baguwala, Mudki, Mukatsar, Kot Bhai, Guruharsahai, Ambarhar, Zira, Kot Isa Khan, Dharmkot, Fatehgarh, Malanwala, Makhu, Badni, Churchak, Mari, Sada Singh, Maharaja Bhucho. While Ferozepur, Mukatsar, Dharmkot were towns larger than others having 80, 123 & 100 villages and having a population of 28,158; 22,353 & 53197 in 1855.²⁰ There were four tehsils of the Ferozepur district mentioned in the census of 1881, which were Ferozepur, Zira, Moga, and Mukatsar. But in 1915 there were five tehsils viz. Ferozepur, Zira, Moga, Mukatsar and Fazilka.

Table 5-2 Population of the towns of district Ferozepur in 1881

Tehsil	Town	Persons	Male	Female
Ferozepur	Ferozepur	39,570	23,971	15,599
Zira	Dharmkot	6,007	3,183	2,824
	Zira	3,492	1,929	1,563
	Makhu	1,658	911	747
Moga	Moga	6,430	3,588	2,842
	Mahraj	5,758	3,150	2,608
Mukatsar	Mukatsar	3,125	1,689	1,436

Censuses of India, Punjab 1881, p-95-96

In 1881 the cities of Ferozepur, Dharmkot, and Moga were larger than Zira, Mukatsar, and Makhu. But the figures were quite different in 1901, the small towns like Zira, Mukatsar were grown up and had a population of more than 5,000. The district of Ferozepur contains eight towns with a population of over 5,000 in 1901 as given in the margin and 1,499 in-habited villages, the average population per village reaching the high figure of 577 souls in 1901. But in 1911, Zira was not considering a town, so seven towns were having a population of more than 5000. Towns grown as their population increased only the towns of Dharmkot and Jalalabad showing the decline in the population. The decline in the case of the former is somehow due to the change of trade to Moga and with the introduction of the railway. Another town that showed progress was Abohar²¹. The boundaries of the district have changed so much since the census of 1855. It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 126 for males, 136 for females, and 131 for persons. Supposing the same rate of increase to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be in hundreds.

Table 5-3 Population of towns of district Ferozepur in 1901 and 1911

Towns	Year 1901	Year 1911
Moga	6,725	6,725
Ferozepur	49,341	50,836
Zira	4,001	4,378
Dharmkot	6,731	5,859
Muktsar	6,389	8,834
Jalalabad	6,746	5,096
Fazilka	8,505	10,985
Abohar	5,596	9,492

Censuses of India, Punjab 1915, p-95

The urbanization growth of the Ferozepur district was witnessed by the development of areas, like the Eloqua of Makhu was occupied by a Muslim tribe Naipals about 100 years ago till Jassa Singh Ahluwalia took

its possession and established a Thana here. Later Mohr Singh Nishaniwala took over the possession and rules the area. Afterwards that Ranjit Singh added this to Lahore demesne and later divided it into two parts Zira, the eastern part under Sarbuland Khan, a servant of the Lahore Government, and Ambarhar, the western part under Sher Singh, son of the Punjab sovereign who later occupied the other part²².

The ilaqa of Kotkapura, Mukatsar, Mari and Mudki, formed one territory, with its capital Kot-Kapura, the zamindars are Barar (Sandhu) Jats, a tribe which claims a common descent with the Bhattis of Sirsa. It is said that in the reign of Akbar, they had a dispute with the Bhattis, which ended in the demarcation of the boundary now recognized between Bhattian (Sirsa) and Kot-Kapura. Bhallan, who was at this time chief of the Barars, was succeeded by his nephew Kapura, who built the fort which now bears his name, and made himself independent as ruler over all the Barars. The grandson of Kapura, Jodh Singh, gave the track, now known as Faridkot, to his brother Hamir Singh, who also became an independent chief. In 1807, Diwan Mohkam Chand conquered the whole of this territory from Tegh Singh, son of Jodh Singh, and added it to the Lahore demesne. Mohkam Chand established thanas at Kot Kapura, Muktsar, and Mari; and since that time the villages subjected to these thanas have been known as separate ilaqa. The historical interest of the tehsil is centred in Muktsar itself, where Guru Gobind Singh's forty Sikhs fought against the imperial troops in 1705-6. The Guru, who had escaped, caused the bodies of his slaughtered followers to be burned with the usual rites, and declared that they had all obtained Mukti or the final emancipation of their souls and that whoever hereafter should bathe at this spot on the anniversary of that day, should also inherit the same blessed state; hence the origin of the name Mokatsar or Muktsar, the pool of salvation, and the mela on the anniversary of this event²³. Guru-Har-Sahai, earlier a waste tract, was founded by a Sodhi named Guru Har Sahai, a native of Mohamdipur in Kasur. He came here during the invasions of Ahmad's shah Abdali. He was protected by a Dogra

chief, Sultan to fix the boundaries of the Ilaqa. He was eighth in descent from Guru Ram Das that's why he got respect from the Sikh rulers and got confirmation of his land by the British Government.

Ludhiana was also one of the oldest cities of Punjab founded by the chief of Sikander Lodhi, Nihang Khan, who crossed the Satluj to protect the people from the plunder of Biluchies. Its earlier name was Mir Hota, later Nihang Khan gave the name Ludhiana. It presumed its present extent in 1850 and up to 1866, it was divided into four tehsils: Samrala (also called at one-time Sarai Lashkari khan), Ludhiana, Pakhowal and Jagraon. In 1849, on the annexation of Punjab, some territories were added to the district of Ludhiana which was earlier jagirs of small level sirdars and these petty sirdars were under the protection of Britishers since 1808. In 1866 the Pakhowal tehsil was broken up and a few villages added to Jagraon, while most of them were attached to Ludhiana. There are now three tehsils of which one has its headquarters at Ludhiana, and the others at Samrala and Jagraon. The increase of population per 10,000 people from 1880 has been 44 per persons annually²⁴. The population of the district Ludhiana, as it stood at the three enumerations, was different, as it was 527,722 in 1855 but decreased by 3,975 persons in 1868 and again increased by a great number of 91,286 in 1881.

Table 5-4 Population of district Ludhiana in 1855, 1868, 1881

Census	Persons	Male	Female	Density per square mile
1855	527,722	292,699	235,023	383
1868	523,747	320,371	264,976	429
1881	619,033	339,598	279,435	450

Ludhiana district gazetteer 1888-9, p -4

After the death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh in 1839, there was chaos and anarchy in Punjab. Britishers took advantage of this situation and announced the war against Sikhs. British acquired most of the areas of cis-Satluj and the process of making the present district of Ludhiana began in 1847 and when Punjab annexed in 1849, Ludhiana became an important

military station of the Britishers and a regular settlement of the district was done for 1849-53. Transit duties were removed despite other reforms along with the increase of cultivation and trade and improvement in transportation and communications.

The boundaries and dimensions of the present Ludhiana district were assumed in 1850. The Jind state lapsed in it in 1835 after the death of its ruler Raja Sangat Singh. This state included 84 villages and Ludhiana itself. Some petty sardars also joined the district as Jagirdars after 1849. Up to 1866, the district was divided into four tehsils- Samrala, Jagraon, Ludhiana and Pakhowal. But after 1866 Pakhowal tehsil was collapsed into few villages which were later added to Jagraon and Ludhiana tehsils. So, after 1866, the Ludhiana district had three tehsils viz. Samrala, Jagraon and Ludhiana²⁵.

Table 5-5 Population of the tehsils of Ludhiana district in 1881, 1891 and 1901

Tehsil	1881	1891	1901
Samrala	152,509	158,770	154,995
Ludhiana	307,559	323,700	333,337
Jagraon	158,767	166,252	184,765
Whole District	618,835	648,722	673,097

Census of India, Punjab, 1901, p-36

The population of the district in 1881 was 618,835²⁶ while in 1901 was 673,097 and the density of population was 487.9 in 1901. It was different for all the tehsils like the density of population of tehsil Ludhiana was 488.0, of Samrala was 532.6 and of Jagraon was 442.1 in 1901.²⁷

The status of their Parganas was as follows- tehsil Ludhiana had six Parganas namely- Umedpur, Bhartgarh, Shanewal, Nurpur, Gungrana and Malaudh. While the Parganas of tehsil Samrala were three- Ukalan, Bahlolpur and Khanna and the tehsil Jagraon had seven Parganas viz. Bhundri, Jagraon, Sidhwan, Siwaddi, Hatur, Akalgarh and Bassian. [The

Parganas of Akalgarh, Bassian, Gungrana and Malaudh were part of Pakhowal tehsil earlier]. These Parganas were later raised into small or middle towns. The population of some of the cities of Ludhiana were Raikot had a population of 10,131 in 1901, Machhiwara had 5,588 and Khanna had 3,838. The cause of the increase in population in Ludhiana and Ferozepur districts was a large number of immigrants came from different parts of the country. As demographic was one of the important factors in urbanization. According to Punjab District Gazetteer, 109,872 people have been migrated from within the Punjab and Northern-western frontier Province, 4184 from rest of the India and 170 from Asia. But on the other hand, 16,525 people emigrants to other parts of Punjab or beyond²⁸. People migrated to the districts of Ferozepur and Ludhiana in the late nineteenth century. Like 5604 immigrants from Umballa, 6051 from Hoshiarpur, 1917 from N.W.P. and Oudh to Ludhiana in the early twentieth century²⁹. Similarly, 21,510 people came from Hissar, 2,407 from Gurgaon, 1,378 from Ambala, 1,185 from Sialkot etc.³⁰

5.3 Administration

The Districts of Ferozepur and Ludhiana lies under the administration of the Jalandhar division and the headship of the Commissioner, assisted by an Additional Commissioner. The Ferozepur cantonment was the district headquarter and the office head was the deputy commissioner who was assisted by seven assistant deputy commissioners. Two of these were sub-judges of the district, one was treasury officer and one was revenue officer. The district had sub-divisions at Fazilka and Moga under the supervision of Extra Assistant Commissioners. The district of Ferozepur was further divided into five tehsils- Moga, Ferozepur, Zira Mukatsar, Fazilka and the district of Ludhiana had tehsils- Ludhiana, Jagraon and Samrala. Tehsildar work under him to run the administration of tehsils and was assisted by Naib-Tehsildar. For the land revenue administration, Zaildars and Lambardars were appointed³¹. Along with that tehsil had some thanas for police under the control of the Sub-inspector of

police. There were some subordinate officers to Tehsildar to look after the revenue known as village accountants or Patwaris. There was an office of Qanungo at the tehsil head-quarter above Patwaris and in charge of revenue record prepared by Patwaris.³² Some other posts at the village level were Lambardars and Choudhry. Lambardar was the village representative and Choudhry was the village watchman and used to be subordinate to Lambardar. There were Munsiffs (Judge) in the district for the judicial purposes, who have jurisdiction within the three Tehsils, namely, Ferozepur, Moga, and Zira. There is no Munsiffs at Mukatsar. As per the records of the gazetteer of Ferozepur, 1915 there were five Municipality towns in the district that were Ferozepur, Fazilka, Mukatsar, Moga, and Zira. Zira and Mukatsar got the status of municipality town in 1876, Moga in 1883 and Fazilka and Ferozepur in 1885. Dharmkot also got the status of municipality town in 1876 but later reduced to the status of a notified area.

Table 5-6 Number of revenue officers in every tehsil of district Ferozepur

Tehsil	Qanungoes and Naibs	Patwaris and Assistants
Ferozepur	2	48
Moga	2	108
Mukatsar	2	54
Zira	2	68

Ferozepur District Gazetteer 1883, p-83

A District board was founded under the chairmanship of the Deputy Commissioner, which consists of 117 members. There was also a sub-committee of finance of this board, which consist of seven members. This board undertook public works including metalling the roads; construction of schools, hospitals, bridges and providing irrigation facilities. For an effective judicial system session court was provided for the district also called a session house. The session judge of the district was under the divisional judge of the Ambala division. A notable feature of the administration was the introduction of the Panchayati system in some of

the villages of Ludhiana in 1896³³. Other than this district superintendent was the head of the police with the assistance of one inspector and 15 deputy inspectors. He was also the head of police and jail at the district level.

5.4 Trade and Industry

In the period immediately preceding annexation, growth in the urban centres of the district has been witnessed because of the growth of trade. The market places developed according to the Ferozepur District Gazetteer, were Moga, Ferozepore, Fazilka, Muktsar, Abohar, and Giddarbaha. These places developed as marketplaces. Some other markets were Talwandi, Jalalabad, Guru Har Sahai and Bhucho Mandi. A good amount of trade was established to these markets outside the district like Jagraon (Ludhiana), Dabawali (Hissar), Kotkapura and Goniana (Faridkot), Jaitu and Ranipura Phul (Nabha), and Bhatinda (Patiala)³⁴. Agricultural produce and wool were the important staples of export. The zamindars bring their grain to the most suitable market in their cart and sell it to brokers and the deal was done for cash. Large quantities of wheat, barley, gram, and other grains were exported from the different markets. Fazilka was the centre of the wool trade as there were several baling presses were situated. A large portion of the wool imported from Bikaner and various parts of Northern India and this trade was valued between forty and fifty lakhs of rupees per annum. Afterwards, the wool was taken to Liverpool direct to sell at the auctions that were taken place every alternative month. This trade was carried by the Indian merchants of Fazilka through various Karachi export firms, the main of which are Forbes, Campbell & Co., Bombay, David Sassoon & Co., E. D. Sassoon & Co., Ball Cater, and Ewart Ryrie & Co. It was very interesting to note that the grain trade was financed with silver, whereas the wool trade was carried on using bills of exchange and gold. The principal things imported were Salt and Coal from Jhelum and Bengal while kerosene oil and cotton seeds came from Lyallpur. No important industry was found in the districts till the last decade of the nineteenth century. The

only factory in the Malwa region of Punjab that was found in Ludhiana in the late nineteenth century was that of Ginning at Khanna. It was run by a steam engine and had employed 100 hands. There were four large mills in the Ludhiana district³⁵. According to the gazetteer of the Ferozepur district, 1883. The description of Mills was found that was Satluj Flour mill, located near the railway station and had modern mill machinery.

5.5 Transportation

In the early twentieth century, the development of an extensive railway network made by Britishers had changed the nature of trade extensively because it widened the sphere of trade and it was said that ‘the wider the sphere of trade, the larger the process of urbanization.’ So, this development observed in the Malwa region too, like in the Ferozepore District, there was the growth of extensive railway lines that were directly connected with Lahore and Delhi by the North-Western Railway. Bhatinda. In 1887 the railway line from Lahore to Ferozepore came into operation when the Kaiser-I-Hind Railway Bridge was opened over the Sutlej River. The Rajpura- Bathinda Railway line began in 1889. The connection with Bhatinda was earlier by the narrow gauge Rewari-Ferozepur Railway, but in 1899 broad gauge connection was operated and Bathinda- Ferozepur railway line opened in 1899. In the same year, Rajpura-Bhatinda Line was opened that runs through the Nathana Sub-tehsil. The South Punjab Railway was opened in 1897, runs through the south of the Muktsar and Fazilka Tehsils and directly connect with Karachi. Another line Macleod Ganj Road-Ludhiana Extension opened in 1905 passes through Moga, Ferozepore, Muktsar and Fazilka Tehsils and gives a connection with the mainline to Karachi via Macleod Ganj. The new Jullundur-Doab Railway runs from Ferozepore direct to Jullundur passing through the Ferozepore and Zira Tehsils and it crosses the Sutlej by a bridge above Harike Ferry. Further, these lines, which were all broad gauge, there was a narrow-gauge branch, opened in 1885, the Rajputana-Malwa Railway, its cross Bhatinda via. Kot Kapura and Muktsar to Fazilka³⁶. These railway lines belong to the

Southern Punjab Railway Company, which was managed by the agency of Northern-western Railway, headquarter at Lahore. But the head office of southern Punjab Railway was in Ferozepur under the incharge of the company's agent. This modern transport also developed in Ludhiana in the early twentieth century. The Northern- western railway enters Ludhiana from Phillour and covers 35 miles and to the south-west by passing through Ladowal, Ludhiana, Shanewal, Chawa and Khanna. Along with transportation railway also employ a large number of workers in the industry³⁷.

5.5.1 Railways

Despite railway, roads also contributed to the development of urban centres through the construction of the road was cheaper than railway but beneficial to local trade a lot. Braudel mentions the importance of roads as the important mean of urbanization by saying, 'Say Road and you say towns.' Roads were the only way by which the cultivators carry their agricultural produce to market or railway station with the help of the carts. The Eastern part of the Ferozepur district which covers Moga, Zira Tehsil and Ferozepur tehsil was well developed in metalled roads. The grand trunk road joins Ludhiana and Ferozepur were well maintained metalled road, covers 55 miles of distance. This road was maintained with provincial funds. Some principal metalled roads maintained by district board were-

- a. Moga- Kapurthala road- 21 miles in length
- b. Moga- Dharmkot road – 10 miles
- c. Talwandi Bhai- Zira – 9 miles
- d. Bhucho mandi – Nathana – 9 miles
- e. Giddarbaha – Lambi - 11 miles
- f. Moga- Badni- 10 miles

Some important unmetalled roads were Ferozepur to Fazilka covers 50 miles via Khai and Jalalabad. Other road run through Mukatsar from Ferozepur cantonment to Malout covers 40 miles. Another important road was from Ferozepur to Ludhiana covers 45 miles via. Zira. an unmetalled

road joins Jalalabad to Bathinda by covering 35 miles of distance via Mukatsar. one of the other roads were off 51 miles in length from Fazilka to Sirsa via Malout and Abohar³⁸. The roads of the district Ludhiana were also good and were metalled and unmetalled both. The principal metaled road was Samrala to Khanna covers 5 miles, Ludhiana to Kohara covers 10 miles, Jagraon to Raikot covers 13.75 miles, Dhaka to Raikot covers 15 miles, Kohara to Samrala covers 11 miles and Ludhiana to Kotla covers 17.5 miles. While the main unmetalled roads were Lalton road of Ludhiana to Raikot covers the distance of 22 miles; the old Ferozepur Road from Ludhiana to Tihara covers 26 miles and Pakhowal road from Machhiwara to Raikot covers 36.5 miles. These unmetalled roads were covered with trees on both side and were fit for travellers who travelled by cartwheels³⁹.

5.6 Education

The colonial rule stood for a conception of governance that also covers matters outside the purview of the state and to enhance the legitimacy of the government and to keep its functions more effectively and efficiently, they also made provisions in the field of education in the province. The essential recommendations were introduced with the Woods Dispatch in 1854, this was regarded as the watershed in the history of Indian education. The middle class was also the product of this new education policy because people themselves wanted to learn the English language. The establishment of schools was controlled by the department of education established in 1856 along with the post of DPI (Director of Public Instruction). The first Anglo-Vernacular School, later known as Government High School was opened in Lahore in 1860. The Malwa region had also shown growth in the field of education along with other parts of Punjab. In the Ferozepur district, Jains and Hindus were the trading classes that's why these were the most literate communities of the district. But among the female, the education was profound to only Jains as well as the Christian community. There were four high schools in the district in 1915 with an average number of 1,410 students and there were 11 middle schools with 1,508 on roll students along with that there were 118 primary

schools with 4,912 students in 1913-14. The distribution of these primary schools in the tehsils of districts were 30 in Ferozepur tehsil, 18 in Zira, 33 in Moga, 16 in Mukatsar and 10 in Fazilka. Despite these schools, there were 19 indigenous privately aided schools. The situation of female education was not so bad there were 31 primary schools for girls aided by public bodies⁴⁰. Along with that, there were three secondary schools for girls at Ferozepur namely Sikh Kanya Mahan Vidyalaya, Dev Samaj High school for girls and Hindu Girls School.

While based on education, the people of Ludhiana were counted in the list of above average. The advancement in the field of modern education was begun by the Presbyterian missionary society during 1881-1901. An Anglo-vernacular school was opened in Ludhiana in 1896. The district was also doing well in girl's education. There were one middle and 16 primary schools for the girls in 1901. With the help of the grant given by some leading persons of the society, the first private aided government high school was beginning in 1864. In 1870 this private school became a government high vernacular school and English was introduced in this school in 1875. There were 86 schools in Ludhiana running privately and 16 schools were those which were run by aids in 1904. According to an estimate in 1903-04 the expenditure, on education was 28,700rs from district funds, 32,600rs from Municipal funds and 3,300rs came from government aids⁴¹. Christian missionary contributed a lot in the field of education. Like a city high school was established by missionaries in 1834 for boys. A boarding school for boys was also established by missionaries in 1875 at Lahore but later it was shifted to Ludhiana.

5.7 Medical Facilities

Significant development was offered in the field of Medicine and health. Several epidemics affected the people of the province in the late nineteenth century, like cholera that had caused record mortality and was the cause of high death rate. Again, in the decade of 1901-11, Plague

coupled with fever contributed to the higher death rate. British government had opened a good number of Hospital and dispensaries in the whole province and medical facilities were provided by opening hospitals and dispensaries at various places in the Malwa region of Punjab. In the case of Ferozepur, there was a civil Hospital along with a Zenana hospital for ladies and a cantonment general Hospital. Other than the district there was a dispensary under the Assistant and Sub-assistant Surgeon at Fazilka, Mukatsar, Abohar, Mahraj, Dharmkot, Zira, Moga, Jalalabad, Guru Har Sahai, Badhni, etc. people from far areas and villages came there for their medical treatment. In the census report of Punjab, 1911 and the list of selected towns, there was a list of 6 large towns of the province and Ferozepur was one of these six large towns that had a population of 50,836 in 1911⁴². In 1899 seven dispensaries were opened at Raikot, Khanna, Dehlon, Jagraon, Machhiwara, Malaudh and Ludhiana. District hospital was founded in 1853. By considering the medical facilities from 1898 through 1902, about 103,868 patients were treated and 4,615 operations were performed.

5.8 Society

As there were people of a different religion were living in Punjab namely Hindus, Sikhs, Jains, Muhammadans, and Christian etc. They were living in towns as well as in villages according to their occupation.

Table 5-7 Religious rural and urban population of Punjab

Religions	1881		1901	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Hindus	4,618	3,305	4,096	3,334
Sikhs	2,292	460	2,761	356
Jains	13	182	9	195
Muhammadans	3,077	6,069	3,125	6,069

Punjab state Gazetteer, 1904, p-1

Hindus were mainly business community and they were involved in trading. So, most of them living in towns. While Muslims were living equally in both areas. As the population of different communities of Punjab of every 1000 people in rural as well as urban areas in the late nineties and early twenties was changing. The number of Hindus increased while the number of Sikhs decreased and the number of Muhammadans remained similar at the enumeration of 1881 and 1901.

5.9 Population Growth of the Malwa Region

When we compare the population of the whole of the Malwa region for seven decades i.e., from 1881 to 1941 the population of princely states increased living the case of Jind, whose population decrease over two decades i.e., in 1901 and 1941 and of Nabha, its population decrease approximately 49 thousand in 1911.

Table 5-8 Population of the princely states of Malwa, Punjab over seven decades.

Census year	Patiala	Nabha	Jind	Faridkot
1881	1,467,259	250,287	262,106	97,381
1891	1,583,521	282,756	284,560	115,040
1901	1,596,692	297,949	282,003	124,912
1911	1,407,659	248,887	271,728	130,294
1921	1,499,739	263,334	308,183	150,661
1931	1,625,520	287,574	324,676	164,364
1941	1,936,259	340,042	361,812	199,283

Punjab state Gazetteer, Vol. XVIII.A. Phulkian Sates Patiala, Jind and Nabha, 1904

There were five Nizamats (districts) of Patiala state namely: Karamgarh, Amargarh, Anandgarh, Pinjaur and Mohindergarh Along with that the state covers 14 town and 3,580 villages in 1901. The towns were Patiala, Narnaul, Basi, Govindgarh, Samana, Sunam, Mohindergarh,

Sanaur, Bhadaur, Barnala, Banur, Pail, Sirhind and Hadiya. While Jind state had 3 tehsils viz. Jind, Sangrur and Dadri, 7 towns and 439 villages in 1901.

Table 5-9 Growth of Population of Patiala state.

Nizamat	1881	1891	1901
Karamgarh	415,675	444,369	447,090
Amargarh	346,989	361,610	365,448
Pinjaur	226,274	226,379	212,866
Anandgarh	298,462	347,395	377,367
Mohindergarh	126,404	147,912	140,376

Punjab state Gazetteer, Vol. XVIII.A. Phulkian Sates, 1904, p-53

The towns were Sangrur, Jind, Dadri, Safi don, Baund, Kalian, and Balanwali. In 1891 Sangrur became the new capital of the state and it showed remarkable progress as its population increased by 34 %, Safidon and Balanwali also showed an increase of 5% and 11% while the rest had fallen like Baund and Kalian declined by 14 and 15 per cent. The percentage of the population living in towns was 14 per cent⁴³.

Table 5-10 Growth of Population of Jind state

Tehsils	1881	1891	1901
Jind	101,254	123,898	124,954
Sangrur	61,249	59,521	64,681
Dadri	87,359	101,141	92,368

Punjab state Gazetteer, Vol.XVIII.A. Phulkian Sates, 1904, p-224

On the other hand, the state of Nabha lies in three natural divisions also called Nizamats, namely Nizamat of Phul, Nizamat of Amloh and Nizamat of Bawal. The Nizamat of Amloh covered the fertile tract known as Pawadh, while the Nizamat of Phul covered the arid tract known as Jungle and the area of Nizamat of Bawal was under Rajputana. The town of Nabha was the capital of the state.

Table 5-11 Population of the districts of Malwa, Punjab over seven decades.

Census year	Ferozepur	Ludhiana
1881	746,681	619,023
1891	886,078	648,722
1901	957,727	673,097
1911	960,204	517,192
1921	1,098,866	567,622
1931	1,156,732	672,494
1941	1,423,076	818,615

Census of India, Punjab 1891 and Census of India, Punjab 1941, p-09

The population of the two districts of Punjab from 1881 to 1941 is also significant. The population of district Ferozepur showed a gradual increase over the decades from 746,681 in 1881 to 1,423,076 in 1941. Its population crosses the margin of one lac in 1921 as its population was 1,098,866, while the population of district Ludhiana had not increased in a manner, it was decreased over the year of 1911 as its population was 619,023 in 1881 but it was declined to 517,192 and slightly increased to 567,622 in 1921 but its population could not reach to one lac till 1941.

The population of the region can be best analysed with the increasing number of cities of different categories along with the increase in the number of persons both in districts as well as provincial states. Besides in 1881, there were only two cities in Punjab having a population of more than one lakh were Lahore and Amritsar but in 1941 there were nine cities in the whole region has a population of more than one lakh viz. Ambala, Amritsar, Jalandhar, Lahore, Ferozepur, Multan, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, and Sialkot and showed the growth of urbanization in Punjab. So according to the census reports, it was found that in 1881 over 91% of the urban centres were small towns but in 1941 over 80% of the urban area comprised of small towns. But in the case of the Malwa region of Punjab, no town possessed the position of the big urban unit as no urban centre had a population of more than one lakh but in 1941 Ferozepur was the town

having a population of more than one lakh. Ferozepur stands seventeenth in the list of area and eleventh in the list of population among 32 districts of the province. Comprising 2.58% of the total area, 3.45% of the total population and 2.71% of the urban population of British territory⁴⁴.

5.9.1 New urban centres of various sizes in the Malwa region were:

5.9.1.1 Class- 1 (Population 1 lac and above)

- a) In 1881- none of the towns in the Malwa region had a population of 1 lac.
- b) In 1941- Ferozepur i.e., one out of nine urban centres of Punjab.

5.9.1.2 Class-2 (Population 99,999 to 50,000)

- a) In 1881- Patiala was the only one out of five urban centres of Punjab.
- b) In 1941- Ludhiana and Patiala i.e., two out of six urban centres of Punjab.

5.9.1.3 Class- 3 (Population 49,000 to 20,000)

- a) In 1881- Ferozepur and Ludhiana were towns of Malwa out of 14 urban centres of Punjab.
- b) In 1941- Bathinda, Abohar, Faridkot, Fazilka, Kotkapura, Moga, Mukatsar, Nabha and Sirsa out of 34 urban centres of Punjab.

5.9.1.4 Class-4 (Population 19,000 to 10,000)

- a) In 1881- Nabha, Jagraon, Mahendergarh, Rupar, Sirsa, Sunam, Bassi out of 30 urban centres of Punjab.
- b) In 1941- Barnala, Mansa, Rupar, Sangrur, Jind, Jaitu, Sunam out of 54 urban centres of Punjab.

5.9.1.5 Class-5 (Population 9,000 to 5,000)

- a) In 1881- Anandpur Sahib, Chamkaur sahib, Barnala, Bhadurgarh, Dhuri, Dakha, Dharmkot, Faridkot, Fazilka, Ferozepur-Zirka, Gobindgarh, Kotkapura, Raikot, Samana, Sangrur out of 87 urban centres of Punjab.

- b) In 1941- Bahadur, Dharmkot, Khanna, Khrar, Lambi, Sanaur, Zira out of 117 urban centres of Punjab.

5.9.1.6 Class -6 (Population less than 5,000)

- a) In 1881- Ellenabad, Khanna, Makhu, Mukatsar out of 56 urban centres of Punjab.
- b) In 1941- Amloh, Amargarh, Lambi, Guruharsahai, Payal, Rajpura out of 63 urban centres of Punjab⁴⁵.

When we comparing the population of the different cities of the two districts of the Malwa region over two census counts. We found that there was no city having a population of more than one lac till 1881. But two cities had a population of more than 30,000 viz. Ludhiana and Ferozepur, Jagraon and Raikot cities of Ludhiana had a population of more than 10,000, Mahraj, Moga and Dharmkot cities of Ferozepur and Machhiwara city of Ludhiana had a population of more than 5,000, while Khanna and Bahlolpur cities of Ludhiana and Zira, Mukatsar and Makhu towns of Ferozepur district came under the population count of 4,000.

Table 5-12 Population of the towns of the districts of Malwa i.e., Ludhiana and Malwa Under 30,000 to 50,000

District	Towns	Census of 1868	Census of 1881
Ludhiana	Ludhiana	39,083	41,163
Ferozepur	Ferozepur	36,453	39,570

Table 5-13 Population of the towns of the districts of Malwa i.e., Ludhiana and Malwa Under 20,000 to 10,000

District	Towns	Census of 1868	Census of 1881
Ludhiana	Jagraon	15,881	16,873
Ludhiana	Raikot	9,153	9,212

Table 5-14 Population of the towns of the districts of Malwa i.e., Ludhiana and
Malwa Under 10000 to 5000

District	Towns	Census of 1868	Census of 1881
Ferozepur	Moga	4,844	5,430
Ferozepur	Dharmkot	5,379	6,007
Ludhiana	Machhiwara	6,062	5,976
Ferozepur	Mahraj	5,681	5,758

Table 5-15 Population of the towns of the districts of Malwa i.e., Ludhiana and
Malwa Under 4000 (Census of India, 1881)

District	Towns	Census of 1868	Census of 1881
Ludhiana	Khanna	3,408	3,988
Ferozepur	Zira	3,010	3,492
Ferozepur	Mukatsar	1,691	3,123
Ludhiana	Bahlolpur	3,362	2,842
Ferozepur	Makhu	1,065	1,638

By analysing the above tables, it was found that there were two cities, one-one of each district Ludhiana city and Ferozepur city had a population of more than 30,000. Jagraon and Raikot of Ludhiana district had a population of 10,000 to 20,000. While Moga, Dharmkot and Mahraj of Ferozepur district and Machhiwara of Ludhiana District had population 10,000 to 5,000 and Zira, Mukatsar and Makhu of Ferozepur district.

5.9.2 On giving a closer look at the pattern of urbanization in Punjab the towns can be classified into four groups based on growth

- 1- Extremely high growing towns with 1000% increase,
- 2- Very high growing towns with 400 to 800% increase,
- 3- High growing towns with 200 to 300% increase
- 4- Average growing towns with 200 to 100% increase.

5.9.3 The towns of the Malwa region of Punjab associate with these growing levels were

Level 1- Abohar

Level 2- Mukatsar

Level 3 – Ferozepur, Bathinda, Fazilka, Faridkot, Kotkapura.

Level 4- Jalalabad, Ludhiana, Jaitu, Barnala, Jind.⁴⁶

Indu Banga gives the view regarding the rapid growth of urban centres in the areas around Satluj rather than others and it was because of canal irrigation facilities. Along with that there were several towns, remained untouched or had very little growth i.e., less than 100%, that were Sangrur, Giddarbaha, Jagraon, Sirsa, Nabha, Patiala, Ropar, Patiala, Bassi Pathana of Fatehgarh Sahib. According to the comparative study on the census reports, there were 82 new small towns in 1941 and the population increased by 10% and overall, 600%. Ironically amongst the new urban centres of Malwa Punjab, there were mostly Mandi Towns or in other words, these towns were originated because of the development of Mandis in it.

But the towns of princely states remained stagnant or in under development phase and economically backwards. Though the urban centres of the pre-colonial period showed continuous growth rather they showed resilience and adjustability⁴⁷. Several towns added to the Malwa region in different decades, like along with the town of Machhiwara, Dharmkot and Mahraj were added in the list new towns in 1868, Fazilka and Moga in 1881, Mukatsar in 1891, Abohar in 1901, Jaitu and Jalalabad added in 1911, Amloh added in 1921, Guruharsahai, Giddarbaha added in 1931 and Mansa added in 1941.

Although according to the census of 1911 the towns of Machhiwara and Moga were not counted as town because they were treated as overgrown villages with no urban characteristic. Later Moga was again added to the list of towns in the census of 1921.

Table 5-16 Table for the population of cities of Ferozepur district

Census Year	Abohar	Fazilka	Mukatsar	Dharmkot	Moga
1858	1,477	-----	-----	-----	-----
1868	1,445	3,406	-----	5,379	4,844
1881	1,823	6,851	3,125	6,007	5,430
1891	2,256	7,563	5,271	6,725	
1901	5,596	8,505	6,389	6,731	6,725
1911	9,492	10,985	8,834	5,859	6,725

Punjab district gazetteer, Ferozepur district, 1915, p-269

Several factors contribute to the growth is the increase in population. The very first factor is a natural increase with better medical facilities provided by the British government and a decrease in infant mortality rate. Secondly, with the demographic change, that is the migration of people from villages or small towns to large towns or cities for better employment opportunities, higher education, and centralization of administration. Based on the various reports on the census of Punjab and pre census reports, we found that there were only two districts in the Malwa region of Punjab that were Ludhiana and Ferozepur. These were the big urban units of Punjab with several medium and small-sized towns developed under these cities. Other than these district rest of the area of the Malwa Punjab was under the Princely states. A larger portion was occupied by the Phulkian states of Patiala, Nabha and Jind and the state of Faridkot. These princely states had developed good relations with Britishers with the treaty of Amritsar, 1809, by which Satluj became the line of control for Ranjit Singh.

¹ Grierson, G. A. (1990). *Linguistic Survey of India* (Vols. IX, Part-I). Calcutta: Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing, p. 123-25.

² Singh, K. (2004). *History of the Sikhs: 1469- 1839* (Vol. I). New Delhi: Oxford University Press, p. 219-21, p. 40-41.

³ Nijjar, B. S. (1974). *Punjab under the British Rule (1849-1947)*. New Delhi: K.B. Publications.

⁴ *Punjab State gazetteer, Phulkian States, Patiala Jind and Nabha* (Vol. XVII. A). (1904). Lahore: Punjab Government Press, p. 35-36.

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- ⁵ Nijjar, B. S. (1974). *Punjab under the British Rule (1849-1947)*. New Delhi: K.B. Publications, p. 45-48.
- ⁶ *Punjab State gazetteer, Phulkian States, Patiala Jind and Nabha* (Vol. XVII. A). (1904). Lahore: Punjab Government Press, p. 42-43.
- ⁷ Ibid, p. 44-45.
- ⁸ Nijjar, B. S. (1974). *Punjab under the British Rule (1849-1947)*. New Delhi: K.B. Publications, p. 45-46.
- ⁹ Virdee, P. (2018). *From the Ashes of 1947: Reimagining Punjab*. New Delhi: Cambridge University press, p. 86-87.
- ¹⁰ Nijjar, B. S. (1974). *Punjab under the British Rule (1849-1947)*. New Delhi: K.B. Publications, p.48-49.
- ¹¹ Census of India 1941, Punjab (Vol. 9). (n.d.).
- ¹² Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 155-56.
- ¹³ Ibid, p.160-62.
- ¹⁴ Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ¹⁵ Cunningham, F. (1889). *Gazetteer of Ludhiana, 1888-89*. Calcutta: Calcutta central Press Company Ltd, p. 205-10.
- ¹⁶ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p.178-80.
- ¹⁷ Singh, K. (2004). *History of the Sikhs: 1469- 1839* (Vol. I). New Delhi: Oxford University Press, p.220-21.
- ¹⁸ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p.265-66.
- ¹⁹ Maclagan, E. D. (1893). *Census of India, 1891, The Punjab and its Feudatories* (Vols. XIX- I). Calcutta: The Government of India, Central Printing Office, p. 58-59.
- ²⁰ Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ²¹ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p-253.
- ²² Ibid, p. 254.
- ²³ Ibid, p. 258.
- ²⁴ Cunningham, F. (1889). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District, 1888-89*. Calcutta: Calcutta central Press Company Ltd, p.158-59.
- ²⁵ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p.96-98.
- ²⁶ Plowden, W. (1883). *Census of India, 1881* (Vol. I). London: Erye and Spottiswoode, p.121-23.
- ²⁷ Gait, H. H. (1901). *Census of India* (Vols. I-A). Calcutta: Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, p.55-56.
- ²⁸ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p.105.
- ²⁹ Ibid, p.215-50
- ³⁰ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 52-56.
- ³¹ Ibid, p. 107-08.
- ³² Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ³³ Cunningham, F. (1889). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District, 1888-89*. Calcutta: Calcutta central Press Company Ltd., p.168-69.
- ³⁴ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 255-56.

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- ³⁵ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 110-12.
- ³⁶ Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ³⁷ Cunningham, F. (1889). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District*, 1888-89. Calcutta: Calcutta central Press Company Ltd., p.178-79.
- ³⁸ Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ³⁹ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 113-14.
- ⁴⁰ Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 257-58.
- ⁴¹ Gupta, S. S. (1904). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ludhiana District* (Vol. XV. A). Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette press, p. 117-18.
- ⁴² Singh, H. (1916). *Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District, 1915* (Vols. XXX- A). Lahore: The Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, p. 260-61.
- ⁴³ Hans, J. S. (1909). *Punjab State gazetteer, Phulkian States Patiala, Jind and Nabha, 1904* (Vols. XVII-A). Lahore: The Punjab Government Press, p. 70-75.
- ⁴⁴ Punjab District Gazetteer, Ferozepur District. (1883). Lahore.
- ⁴⁵ Grewal, R. (2009). *Colonialism and Urbanization in India: The Punjab Region*. New Delhi: Manohar Publishers, p. 312-14.
- ⁴⁶ Banga, I. (2005). *Five Thousand years of Urbanization: The Punjab region*. (R. Grewal, Ed.) New Delhi: Manohar, p. 245-46.
- ⁴⁷ Ibid, p. 250-51.

Conclusion

Society, which eventually developed the process of urbanization, exhibited certain new features, taken through an adjustment with the changing work necessities, the introduction of new ideologies and acclimatisation with the heterogenic elements of the population. The term urban development is used to describe a planned or directed process, in contrast to one which is unplanned. Physical-spatial is used in a comprehensive way to include, in the first place, the built forms of an urban area- housing, basic human and social activities (habitation, economic activity, recreation, government, religion) as well as what is normally called architecture. In the second place, it refers to the spatial areas taken up by such forms and relating them to each other. The Latin meaning of city is civilization and urban is urbanity. This means the people living inside the city was civilized and outside was uncivilized. Historians define a city or urban town on a social and administrative basis, on a social basis a town or city is a unit that differs in size, some people living in it, means of livelihood and social intercalation of the people constituted in it. As on the administrative ground, it has a legal entity in which the population develops or increases under Governmental setup and the authoring of a local Government.

The present research deals with all the basic facets of urban systems, urbanization and urban development. The urban settlements are based on location, population composition and functionality. The present research work mainly deals with the components of urbanization and urban development along with the causative factors that determine their nature and magnitude, in both spatial and temporal contexts. The entire work of the preceding chapters has been summarised as per the synthesis given below.

Punjab is the frontier state of India, it occupies a significant position in the entire northeast region concerning its major share of the

absolute size of the urban population. With such a peculiar urban scenario, the present study tries to understand the trend of urban population growth in the state. The study is extended during the phase of 1849 to 1947 i.e., at the times of Maharaja Ranjit Singh's death till Indian independence. The factors responsible for urbanization in the state at district, classes and individual levels have also been examined. Moreover, the way of life of the urban dwellers and the influence of rural-urban migration upon their urban lifestyle has been presented. Understanding the concept of urbanization and urban development involved a great amount of data that have been collected from both primary and secondary sources. For this purpose, the entire state is taken into consideration. The data so gathered have been processed, analysed, and presented by using meaningful statistical and analytic techniques.

Urbanization in India has a long history since the Indus valley civilization. It also includes the process of urbanization initiated with the arrival of the British, their colonial policies and economic attitudes. It also presents how urbanization is the result of economic growth. The industrial policies so far initiated in India not only helped in the economic development for the nation or wealth but also generated a new employment sector and a balanced distributed urban growth, required for the development of a region. Along with that in India, every census records the emergence of several new towns. They are new not necessarily in the sense of brand-new human settlements but new in the list of census towns. Most of them are either reclassified villages due to occupational shift or the outgrowth of big urban settlements. New towns can also materialise through newly built urban areas like factory sites, dam sites, railheads etc.

There are several distinctive features of urban and urban settlement firstly urban population is more compacted and bigger than rural settlement. Secondly, urban centres are varied in their value and flexible based on their occupation and this led to enter-alia growth of the economy with the increase of trade and commerce effective means of transportation

production growth. Thirdly in the social sphere with the emergence of religious, educational, health and sanitation and other variety of services like public services, but on the other side of it, a city and a village go hand in hand. An urban area fulfils its necessities of food, raw material and labour from the village, villages are the suppliers of the basic needs of cities. This mutual relationship is veining over time.

We got the detail of urban centres developed in Punjab over different millennia, how old urban centres survived and new urban centres originated, along with the major infrastructural changes introduced by Britishers. There was an increase in the cultivated area during 1850-68 along with the extension of the western Jamuna canal of 1855. It extended from 625 to 750 square mile progress of railway, post and telegraph was also witnessed during the phase. The cultivable area was increased by 17% and the area irrigated by the canal was also increased by 19 per cent during the decade of 1881-1901, the rate of increase in population was 1.01 per cent and it was the third-highest recorded. The decade had the absence of any famine so the cultivated area was increased 10 per cent. In this period There was progression in the field of manufacturing seen along with the growth in agriculture due to the establishment of canal colonies like Sidhnai Colony, Sohagpara Colony, Chunian colony and Chenab colony during the decade of 1891-1901, there was 0.69 per cent increase of population territory and 0.38 increase in Punjab state. The percentage variation was due to the opening of the Chenab colony and the extension of canal irrigation, which increases 10 per cent the area of cultivation and the area of canal irrigation was increased by 64 per cent. With the opening of the Lower Jhelum Canal and Lower Chenab Canal in 1901 & 1902, the area of cultivation was also increased by about 700 Sq. miles. The upper canal project of 1915-16 also contributed to the agrarian development of the region.

As we see the definition of the town was different over different census reports. Like the census report of 1891 was quite similar to the

census of 1881. As in the census reports of 1881 and 1891, Every Cantonment, Civil Station and all Municipalities were treated as town although they had a population of less than 5,000, other than these an area must possess a population of 5,000 to be considered as urban, according to the census of 1891, on the other hand in 1881, some overgrown villages that had a population more than 5,000 but did not possess any urban characteristics also counted in the list of towns, that's why the population count was more in 1881 than 1891. Again, according to the Report on the census of the Punjab, 1911: A Town includes every Municipality, all Civil lines (not included within the municipal limits), every Cantonment and every other continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5,000 persons, which the provincial superintendent may decide to treat as a town. This definition was different from the definition given in the census report of 1901 only in one aspect that in 1911 the provincial Superintendent had special rights to treat an area as urban or rural according to the importance of the place. Like a place that was the centre of trade or had any historical importance could be treated as a town but on the other hand, an overgrown village had a population of more than 5,000 but did not possess any urban characteristic, then the provincial Superintendent could not treat it as a town. So as a result, there had been a large decrease in the total number of towns because this time it was decided based on density and character of the population and the importance of the place as the overgrown villages which have no urban characteristic were undesirable to treat as a town. So, the relative number of towns decreased in 1911. In 1891, 19 towns were abolished to the urban list from 1881, while 17 were added the next census years, but there was a decline of 30 towns in the census of 1911 and again 5 towns were declined to their status in 1921, the figures steady rose 46 in 1931, and the largest addition of 43 towns was made in 1941. So, by 1941, in the last decade of colonial rule, the urban picture was strikingly different.

In the relations of population growth, the period of 1881 to 1941 can be divided into two demographic shifts of 1881-1921 and 1921-1941. During the first phase, the death rate was higher than the birth rate because of the spread of various epidemic diseases such as plague, cholera, smallpox, and malaria along with fewer medical facilities and famines etc. but after 1921 there was a continuous high birth rate and steadily lower death rate because of drop-in-mortality. The rate of mortality was fallen with the government check over famines, with the help of better medical facilities epidemic diseases were controlled and there was a fall in infant mortality rate and an increase in the natural rate of population. This process was faster in Britishers Punjab. So, the composite growth rate of the population in the first phase was 0.47 per cent per annum and 1.57 per cent per annum in the second phase.

After analysing the different census, we found the unexpected growth in population in 1850-68 that was, the increase was 1.07 per cent. It was apparent because of the peace and security provided by the British east by India company. During this period population increased naturally. The period of 1868-81, marked another phase of development in the field of transportation i.e., construction of Metalloid roads and railways, a notable work was done in the field of medicine and sanitation. The number of attendance of students in schools was doubled along with an increase in the population by 0.56 per cent. The decade of 1891-1900 faced several epidemics decreased like in the year of 1892, cholera had caused record deaths. That was the reason for the low %. Age increase of population Although the decade was free from famine but some area of the region faced scarily especially south-east region transport was extended and improved, helped in the migration of people from Punjab. Advancement witnessed in the field of post and telegraph.

1901 to 1911 was the decade of diseases plague coupled with a severe type of fever proved fatal for the population and recorded excess of deaths over birth and in the British territory's death was recorded over two

million. During the decade of 1911-1921, the railway extended to 1,105 miles along with the program of extension of Industry. The rate of annual increase of Population was 0.57 and 0.48 in British territory and Punjab states respectively. The year 1918 was markedly different from other years because of the spread of the influenza epidemic and because of the First World War, all these responsible for the death of 12,794 people. But the soldier from the Phulkian state of Patiala, Nabha and Jind contributed to the world war.

The Malwa region of Punjab includes the districts of Ludhiana and Ferozepur and the princely states of Patiala, Nabha, Jind and Faridkot. Patiala, Nabha and Jind were the Phulkian state and Faridkot also connected to them. In this chapter, a brief description was given regarding the history of the states and how these states were founded. In 1809, a Treaty of Amritsar was signed between British resident Lord Metcalf and Ranjit Singh, by which the cis- Sutlej area came under the protection of Britishers and Satluj formally became the boundary of Ranjit Singh. But some of the rulers of Malwa were still on the side of Ranjit Singh. After the Second Anglo-Sikh War Lord Dalhousie finally annexed Punjab on 29 March 1849 with a treaty of Lahore. Before 1847 there were three districts in the Malwa region of Punjab namely Ludhiana, Ferozepur and Badni but after 1847, the Badni district was broken up and its areas were added to Ferozepur district. There were four tehsils of Ferozepur district mentioned in the census of 1881, which were Ferozepur, Zira, Moga and Mukatsar. But in 1915 there were five tehsils viz. Ferozepur, Zira, Moga, Mukatsar and Fazilka. Whereas in extent in 1850 Ludhiana district was divided into four tehsils: Samrala, Ludhiana, Pakhowal and Jagraon. In 1849, on the annexation of Punjab, some territories were added to the district of Ludhiana which was earlier jagirs of small level sirdars and these petty sirdars were under the protection of Britishers since 1808. In 1866 the Pakhowal tehsil was broken up and a few villages added to Jagraon, while most of them were attached to Ludhiana. There are now three tehsils of

which one has its headquarters at Ludhiana, and the others at Samrala and Jagraon.

Growth of urbanization of the Malwa region of Punjab was discussed by analysing several factors like increase in population, the collapse of various Ilaqas along with the reforms done in the field of administration like the Districts of Ferozepur and Ludhiana lies under the administration of Jalandhar division and the headship of the Commissioner, assisted by an Additional Commissioner.; Trade and Industry; development in transportation (both road and railways); advancement in the field of Education with special emphasis to English, high, technical and girls education; Medical facilities and society was also focused. New urban centres of various sizes in the Malwa region were traced and we found that in 1881, none of the towns in the Malwa region had a population of one lacs. But in 1941- Ferozepur i.e., one out of nine urban centres of Punjab having a population of one lacs. The views of Historian regarding the rapid growth of urban centres in the areas around Satluj rather than others and it was because of canal irrigation facilities. Some town showed extensive growth like Abohar, Amloh, Fazilka, Bathinda, Jalalabad, Mansa, Moga etc. along with that there were several towns, remained untouched or had very little growth that were- Sangrur, Giddarbaha, Jagraon, Sirsa, Nabha, Patiala, Ropar, Patiala, Bassi Pathana of Fatehgarh Sahib. According to the comparative study on the census reports, there were 82 new small towns in 1941 and the population increased by 10% and overall, 600%.

Ironically amongst the new urban centres of Malwa Punjab, there were mostly Mandi Towns or in other words, these towns were originated because of the development of Mandis in it. But the towns of princely states remained stagnant or in under development phase and economically backwards. Though the urban centres of the pre-colonial period showed continuous growth rather they showed resilience and adjustability. Several towns added to the Malwa region in different decades, like along with the town of Machhiwara, Dharmkot and Mahraj were added in the list new

towns in 1868, Fazilka and Moga in 1881, Mukatsar in 1891, Abohar in 1901, Jaitu and Jalalabad added in 1911, Amloh added in 1921, Guruharsahai, Giddarbaha added in 1931 and Mansa added in 1941. Although according to the census of 1911 the towns of Machhiwara and Moga were not counted as town because they were treated as overgrown villages with no urban characteristic. Later Moga was again added to the list of towns in the census of 1921.

After analysing different factors of the growth of urbanization in Punjab, other than social and occupation factors like technology, advancement, industrialization, new scientific researches, trade and commerce, advanced transportation and communication and the introduction of the modern world in society led to the emergency of urbanization. So urban centres have these essential variables of policy, economy, and geography. Under geography an urban centre we consider its physical nature and the mode of settlements. In this political framework its administrative structure, its settlement policies, state policies for the betterment of town or cities and policies for the infrastructural devotement trade and commerce, development of transportation and communications, accepting new technologies advancement and constructional activities under economic development. While quoting Braided, "a city or urban unit always exists accompanied by other urban units. Some subjugate, other emancipates –all draw the same line."

In this work urbanization has been taken in general and the factors leading to the growth of urban centres. It is done with a hope that the study would illumine, first, the nature of the towns, their institutions, their composition, and the newly evolving culture. Secondly, it is expected that the study of the quality and volume of urbanization would help in understanding the economy, society, and culture of the region. In the process of writing the thesis the following terms have been used frequently and therefore require explanation:

Town: A town is a populated area having a population of less than one lac but more than five thousand, with fixed boundaries and a local government.

City: a town having a population of more than one lac is termed a city. It is also known as a large town.

The Colonial City: is that urban area in the colonial society most typically characterized by the presence of official functionaries resulting in the segregation of its ethnic, social, and cultural component groups, which were pushed to the periphery.

The Colonial Urban Settlement: was that sector of the colonial city that was occupied, modified, and principally inhabited by representatives of the colonizing society. In India, this was typically referred to as the Civil station or Civil lines, cantonment, the military base.

The Civil Station: where the political and administrative element in the colonial relationship was represented by the Civil station or Civil Lines, a distinct socio-spatial unit developed and occupied by civilian members of the colonial bureaucracy {collector/magistrate, superintendent of police, judge etc.) and supporting technical, medical and sociocultural services. (Engineer, civil surgeon, teacher, missionary).

The Cantonment was the military station where troops were quartered for the security of the town and its adjoining areas.

The Indigenous city of indigenous settlement area is that sector of the colonial city that was occupied by the indigenous population and referred to, in the colonial culture, as the 'native city, 'native quarter' or by the Anglicised version of the indigenous name. This may be a traditional city ante-dating the coming of the colonial power or it may be an area of indigenous settlement, arising after, and usually as a result of, the establishment of the colonial urban settlement. In all cases where the

experience of the British colonial community in India is being referred to, the terms metropolitan society and indigenous society are used to refer to Britain and India respectively.

The early researches have visualized urban history in different aspect like a renowned historian from Calcutta A.K. Ray (1902) takes up the urban centre as a legend, heritage, and literature. E. B. Havel (1933) in his work illustrated a city in the context of Hinduism. A. Mitra (1970) sees Delhi in the context of its historical expansion. These works of Indian cities do not concern with the growth and development of urbanization. There is another group of historians who did micro-level studies on urbanization and emphasize the social, occupational, and demographic structure of cities and their role in the development of towns. They wrote several articles on several aspects like morphology, population mobility and the administration of towns. M.J. Mehta wrote an article on British policies for the city administration of Ahmadabad. According to him, the British ruined the traditional economy by overlapping its industry with their policies. They fulfilled their own economic needs by introducing better means of transportation and communication and trade policies. Another renowned historian Indu Banga did works on urbanization one of the several writings she mentioned how British Policies Flourished the wheat trade of Karachi (Punjab) to the global trade. Another distinctive work was done by J.S. Grewal in the study of Batala and then Amritsar in 1975 and 1981 respectively.

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List of Publications

Sno.	Title of paper with author names	Name of journal / conference	Published date	Issn no/ vol no, issue no	Indexing in Scopus/ Web of Science/UGC-CARE list
1.	Growth of Urbanisation in Punjab during Colonial period (1849-1947) 1. Taranveer Kaur, Ph.D Scholar, taranveer25@gmail.com 2. Dr Tariq Ahmad Sheikh, Assistant Professor, Lovely Professional University, tariq.21368@lpu.co.in	Elementary Education Online	NOV 2020	2020; Vol 19 (Issue 4): pp. 2776-2786 doi: 10.17051/ilkonline.2020.04.764645	Scopus