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Recommendations of the Punjab Governance Reforms Commission Fifth Status Report

The Fifth status report includes key areas of Education, Right to Information (RTI), Impact of Socio-Economic Development on Dalits and Justice Delivery Performance and its impact across Population. Report raises the question, 'Why Dalit population is more deprived in terms of access to land, education, health as compared to Dalits in other states of India?'



**Recommendations of the Punjab
Governance Reforms Commission
Fifth Status Report**

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Constituted in 2009, PGRC completed two and a half years of its tenure. As per mandate of the Commission it has successfully completed the first phase of work on reforms and has decided to conclude on September 30th, 2011 (instead of March, 2012). Set up by the government for providing access to public services, social security schemes and welfare programmes without harassment and corruption. The recommendations of the Commission received positive response from both the political class and administrative set up. Above all, it has generated hope among people that the implementation of this agenda may give them some respite from rampant corruption and harassment. Undeniable is the fact that to transform the status quo is not always easy. It is in this context the role of civil society organisations become pivotal. Now laws are there, procedures are simplified and political consensus is building up, initiative has to be ceased by the citizens.

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Introduction

Governance is the rule of the game. The problem with governance is that the rules have been overtly violated and the system has been rendered non-functional. Earlier, an easy explanation used to be prevalence of corruption, high transaction costs and lack of transparency. An interesting outcome is that even corruption has ceased to perform one of its foremost functions i.e. facilitation and efficiency. This has been exemplified in the preparation for the Commonwealth Games, wherein even large scale corruption could not induce efficiency. This was substantiated by a field survey in Punjab in 2010, whereby eighty per cent of the respondents opined that there is a rampant corruption and out of these thirty per cent mentioned that corruption has ceased to deliver. These respondents further opined that most of the government departments are corrupt, but in spite of corruption these departments are sluggish in delivery. The message is loud and clear that the system has ceased to be functional.

Governance! For whom and for what is the legitimate question that normally gets lost in the processes, procedures and application of technology. To illustrate, the application of unique ID numbers, undoubtedly shall provide efficiency, but only to the existing process of 'undignified and exploitative exchange' between citizens and the government. In a society that regulates human interaction with political, social, economic and cultural domains, these rules of exchange in many spheres do not protect the rights and the entitlements of the people on the margins besides treating a fairly large section of the citizenry in an undignified manner. The need, therefore, is to reform the system to meet trust, dignity and productivity deficits. E-governance can ensure efficiency and accountability and even transparency. But the pivotal concern is the manner in which these services are delivered. Does the government trust its citizens? It has to be an 'Engaged Governance' (and not merely e-governance) where citizen's interaction with the government is dignified without discrimination and corruption.

Set up by the Government of Punjab in the year 2009 for providing access to public services, social security schemes and welfare programmes without harassment and corruption, PGRC's uniqueness lay in its ideology, constitution and the fact that it was first of its kind in the country. The Commission's periodic status report and government's action taken approach along with effective monitoring of the implementation of its recommendations rendered it distinct. It was the procedure amending approach of PGRC that made its engagement with government and citizens highly effective. The composition of the Commission included social scientists, public policy experts, legal jurists, experienced administrators and civil society activists.

Box 1 Approach

- Reports were prepared periodically by the Commission and the Government prepared action-taken reports simultaneously.
- Task groups set up for specialised functions. Task group had a Chairperson nominated by the Commission and a Member Secretary appointed by the Government.
- Chief Secretary's Empowered Committee constituted exclusively to deal with the recommendations only.
- Empowered Committee to prepare an action-taken report and submit it to the Commission in a time bound manner.
- Interface with stakeholders, regulators, functionaries and citizens.

The motivation for the Commission came from the fact that the present system of governance is not optimally suited to the challenges of unequal access of social programmes and skewed distribution of benefits of the various economic programmes based on gender, caste and class.

The main concern of the Commission was to address these issues within the framework of equity in social and economic development.

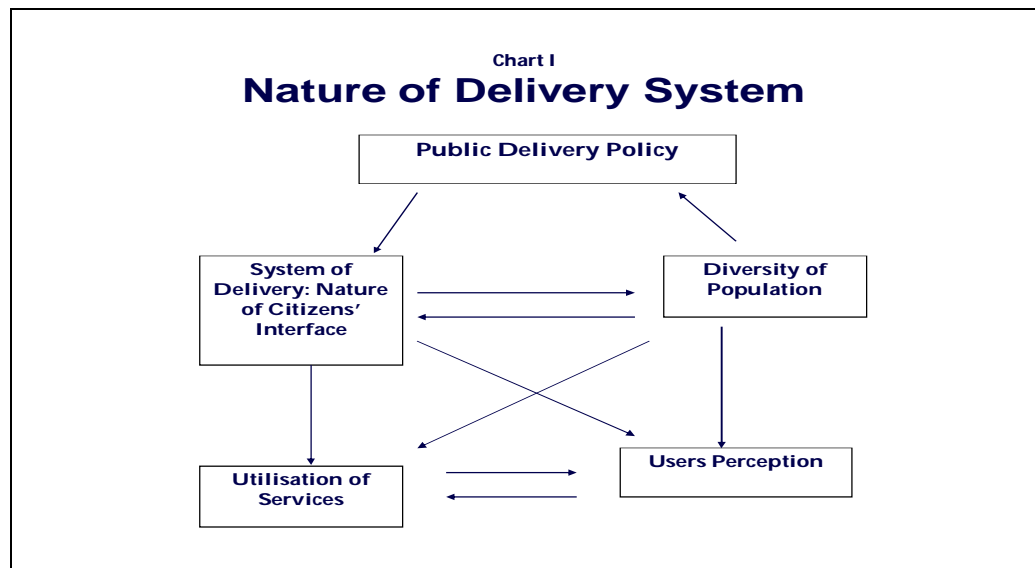
Concerns of the Commission

Firstly, the Commission decided to position itself on the side of the citizens.

It attempted to understand issues arising from their interactions with the government. In other words, it endeavoured to make an assessment of the level of services offered by the delivery system followed by strata-wise availability of these services to capture the differential access to citizens with identical needs. The quality and cost factors emerging from delivery policy particularly for citizens with identical needs was one of the main concerns (see Chart I).

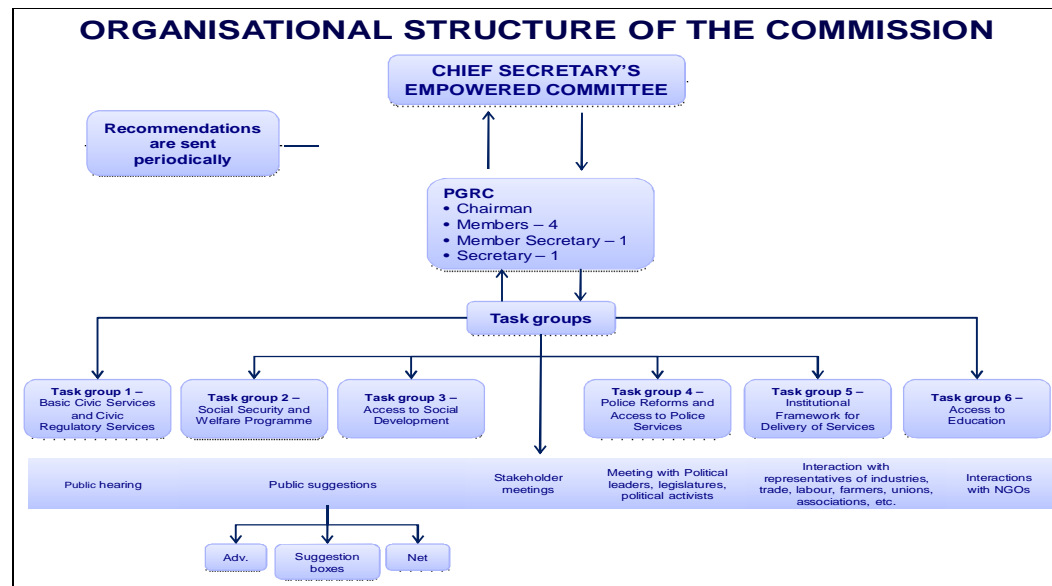
Box 2 Concerns

- Firstly, the Commission decided to position itself on the side of the citizens.
- Secondly, task groups were constituted to analyse issues to prioritise and identify the governance re-engineering approach.
- Thirdly, these task groups documented non-statutory and discriminatory powers leading to redefining and re-allocation of roles.
- Fourthly, these recommendations were finalised in consultation with the political class to invoke political will.



The Commission adopted an interactive process, one that excessively relied on public hearings, meetings with stakeholders and created a platform for harmonious interface with the government, governed and citizens on the margins (see Chart II on PGRC Organisational Structure).

The second step followed by the Commission was to analyse the issues raised by separate task groups formed to prioritise and identify the governance and re-engineering approach including amendments in procedures, rules and laws. Thirdly, these task groups engaged the stakeholders to arrive at a minimum consensus to reduce harassment, perverse incentives, cost effective efficient delivery of services and formulation of citizen-centric public policy. This was facilitated by documentation of non-statutory and discriminatory powers leading to redefining and re-allocation of roles.



Fourthly, these recommendations were finalised in consultation with the political class to invoke political will for speedy implementation through a process of

institutionalisation and enhancement of personnel capacities as per citizens' needs. Efforts were made to arrive at a reasonable assessment of resources, trust and technology deficits.

Boundary Conditions for Engaged Governance

First, the condition was to engage citizen into governance. Engaged governance means 'politically more engaging and developmentally more equitable'. Enabling conditions to achieve this was to empower citizens. To put in the words of Hannah Arendt, "Right to have Rights. The post-colonial state has failed to transform the status of people from colonial subjects to citizens". The focus, therefore, was to reduce the mistrust between the citizens and the government. In other words, to eliminate all those procedures which make right to identity a citizen-restrictive. This colonial legacy is pervasive in almost every interaction of the citizens with the government initiative taken by the latter.

To illustrate, the extent to which this mistrust prevails, even to prove their name, citizens have to seek affirmation from a gazetted officer of the government. For declarations relating to their profession, income, caste, residence proof, etc., affidavits are to be given on legal papers sworn before a Magistrate or Public Notary. Even to procure ration cards, electricity, sewerage and water connection, birth and death certificates, applications for admission to the educational institutions, ex-Indian leave by government employees, affidavits attested by the gazetted officer or third party or Public Notary, or Magistrate have to be produced. In a major initiative the Government accepted the recommendation of the Commission and decided to do away with filling of affidavits except in cases where it is mandatory by law. Affidavits impose their own cost on citizens – buying of stamp paper, locating a deed writer, payment to Notary for attestation besides harassment caused to the citizens. Most of these have been replaced by self-declaration leading to trust building, but at the same time introducing corresponding accountability.

Secondly, the focus was to protect dignity of citizens by identifying spaces, policies, processes and practices which perpetuate undignified exchange between the citizens and the state. Through regular interaction, it was observed that the citizens value their dignity over and above efficiency and even corruption.

Table I
Nature of exchange between citizens and administration

Exchange undignified and corrupt	
Police	58.32
Revenue	44.05
District Collector	41.86
Exchange corrupt but 'Dignified'	
Electricity Board	36.53
Health	36.33
Education	35.74
Bank	34.70

Irrigation	34.20
Animal Husbandry	33.75

Source: PGRC Survey, 2010

This was more pronounced in the case of police (58 per cent), revenue department (44 per cent) and district collector's office (41 per cent). The departments like electricity board, health, education, irrigation, veterinary were considered corrupt, but dignified by one-third of respondents.

To reverse this trend, the Commission made recommendations to strengthen internal accountability and to make these departments directly accountable to the citizens. On Commission's recommendation the Punjab government has set up three layered community-police service delivery mechanisms. At the district level, 27 Community Police Resource Centres, at the subdivision level, 96 Community Police Suvidha Centres and at the police station level, 356 Police Station Outreach Centres. These centres shall provide services which shall include delivery of copies of FIRs and untraced reports, no objection certificates for armed licenses, permission for religious and political processions, verification of tenants, registration of servants etc., provide counselling services to resolve disputes relating to domestic violence, dowry and various other crimes against women.

The new institutional mechanism branded as *Saanjh* is distinct on three counts;

- It has been modelled as a platform for community – police partnership to deliver police services;
- to function as a non-formal forum for resolution of conflicts, domestic disputes, economic discords and social unrest;
- To provide a transparent institutional mechanism to hold police accountable for their misconduct.

To further illustrate, for dignified interaction in the Revenue Department, the Commission made several recommendations. The government has established around 116 *Fard Kendras* to provide comfortable and easy access to revenue services, online copies of jamabandis have been made available for majority of districts, simplified process for settlement of contested mutations, withdrawal of discretionary powers of *tehsildar* regarding calculation of construction cost and its replacement with flat rate have been implemented.

The Department of local Government has accepted the recommendations of PGRC with regard to municipal services in particular, construction /approvals of building plans, water and sewerage connections and issued necessary instructions to all the local bodies in the state for their adoption. For Birth & Death Registration & Certificates, at present, approval of the District Registrar-CMO is needed for a delay beyond one month and citizens missing the registration deadline may be kept waiting for 5 to 10 years. An incentive compatible procedural amendment was introduced in which the 'Asha' worker has been made the Notifier instead of the family and ANM has been made the local registrar, authorised to issue birth certificates. Regarding

payment of late fee for procuring the certificate the Commission recommended doing away with the same upto one year of the event thus helping the citizens to register and get certificates easily.

In Transport, a disaggregate delivery mechanism was proposed in which registration of vehicles was transferred to authorised dealers, issuing of learner driving licence to the principal of government colleges, and procurement of fitness certificate of vehicles from a service station.

A third set of prerequisites relates to the productivity, i.e. to engage people with the system in a productive manner and provide conducive conditions to nurture people's capacity to be productive and their ability to exercise some degree of control over their lives. Instead of productive engagement of the citizen, a culture of sharing of the spoils is reinforced.

For benefits of social security schemes to reach the poor and deserving special attention is required. Only few recommendations were made to check leakages in Shagun Scheme, Old-age Pension, scholarships for poor. There is need to restructure Social Welfare, Women and Child and other related departments to introduce efficiency and accountability.

Table III
Existence of effective complaint redressal system against working of
Government/Public agencies

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	482	32.13
No	1018	67.87
Total	1500	100.00

Source: PGRC Survey, 2010

Most of the respondents were of the view that there was no system of redressing complaints. Around one-third did mention the multiple grievance redressal available ranging from political leaders to judiciary to consumer forum etc. (See Table III). In view of this, *Saanjh* shall also have facility for lodging complaints against the working of the police personnel and transparent disposal of complaints lodged. The action taken on these complaints have to be placed before community policing committees, which have been authorised to seek re-enquiry if not satisfied. The proposed system shall strengthen the internal control and integrate it with external oversight for transparent delivery of justice.

The fourth boundary condition was to transform these claims relating to exchange between the citizens and the public functionaries from patron-client or *Ria Mai Baap* to public servants–citizen partnership, the Commission proposed to empower the citizens through a legislation titled 'Punjab Right to Services Act, 2011'. (See Introduction-Annexure I and II). This Act has been introduced to make Citizens' interactions with the Government dignified with their claims to be considered as a matter of right. It is direct empowerment of the citizens; and shall help to reduce corruption and check harassment of the citizens. Under this Act *Suo Motto* notice of

complaints can be taken and action against the corrupt functionaries can be recommended for departmental action.

Why Right to Service Act?

Sixty-four Years After Independence

- Citizens were not trusted by the government.
- Services were provided as doles or *khirat*. And citizens were treated like *Ria* and administration as *Mai Baap*.
- Bribes and corruption became rampant and blatant
- No institutional system of complaint redressal.

This ordinance was implemented on July 26, 2011 and later in October it was made an Act. This is not merely a piece of legislation. This Act shall provide statutory backing for ensuring delivery of services to the citizens within stipulated time limits. It is a dynamic Act. It has sufficient scope to include new services, amend time schedules and adapt new technology innovations with long administrative procedures. It has a built-in mechanism of grievance redressal. The main thrust is to provide services first and thereafter start proceedings against erring officials. The overall thrust is to make administration transparent and accountable and provide services to citizens as a matter of right. Under this Act, it has been made obligatory to inform citizens the stipulated time limits even for those services which have not been included in the Act. Presently, 67 services have been included related to the departments of police, revenue, transport, housing, local government, health, welfare of SCs and BCs, social security, etc.

Convergence of Engaged Governance with E-Governance

The convergence of engaged and e-governance has been central to the approach followed to bring about reforms in governance. As mentioned earlier engaged governance means 'politically more participatory and developmentally more equitable' and this cannot be achieved without making system accountable, transparent and efficient. The processes, procedures and rules are suited to meet trust, dignity, productivity deficit and simultaneously capacity of the system is to built around core elements of e-governance i.e. efficiency, accountability and transparency. The main focus was:

- a) To make systems more accountable in terms of costs, conduct and performance.
- b) To enhance efficiency to make it more accessible through availability of equal services to the people in equal needs (supply side). And also to ensure quality and reduce transactions costs through checking perverse incentives, non-statutory and discretionary powers, amending inappropriate rules leading to inefficiency and corruption.
- c) To make interaction between the citizens and the government more participatory leading to transparency.

To make these reforms sustainable, efforts were made to overcome do-gooders personality-centric ad-hoc initiatives through formalisation of reforms by rule amendments, procedural changes, redefining the role and duties of the stakeholders. These have been integrated into sustainable plans and budget lines.

And above all, stakes of the citizens were built into these reforms by following right-based approach. For example, in the Right to Service Act, 2011 the emphasis has been to change the nature of interaction from patron-client relationship to partners in governance with rights.

Further, these reforms have been located in local context to be responsive to citizens needs and systems have been proposed to meet global standards.

The parameters of accountability have been redefined through strengthening of the internal controls rather than multiplying external oversights. For instance, to check police misconduct, an online complaint system has been suggested with internal accountability to hierarchical chain of command thus making it transparent at the level of citizens' oversight attached with community policing centres.

The ambiguity in fixing accountability due to non-statutory discretions has been reduced and at the same time statutory autonomy proposed to be strengthened.

Reports Prepared by PGRC

The First Status Report dealt with ground reality i.e. 'as is, where is' reporting of the administrative affairs as observed by the Commission. The Second Status Report took

stock of the status and possible future developments in various areas of governance including fiscal management, citizen services, social security schemes, police station reforms, institutional framework for delivery of services. The key area for recommendations was combating female foeticide.

The Third Status Report of the Commission attempted to provide a framework for the citizens' interaction with the government. The key area for recommendations in this report was enactment of Right to Service Act, restructuring the public sector health system and regulatory framework for the private sector health providers. The Commission recommended that the State Government should enact its own law to monitor Private Sector Health Providers. It is under the consideration of the Government.

The Fourth status report included significant areas of public domain such as environment management and pollution control, urban development and urban governance. In the Punjab Pollution Control Board (PPCB) changes have been suggested in monitoring and inspecting protocols; using information and transparency for incentivising and empowering major stakeholders. On urban governance, the urgency for the government to work towards efficiency and effectiveness in the civic services domain; creating conditions for good governance i.e. responsiveness with focus on equity and accountability is highlighted.

Fifth status report dealt with key areas of education and Right To Information (RTI). The Commission articulated that Punjab requires quality as an educational outcome. In the absence of quality education, a large section of educated youth remained unemployable. With no preference to go back to agriculture consequently, they drift to drug addiction or venture to the foreign lands through illegal modes. In this report the impact of socio-economic development on Dalits was also captured. It was pointed out that this impact is not inclusive hence relevant questions arise as to, 'why the Dalit population is more deprived in terms of access to land, education, health as compared to the Dalits in other states of India?' Or why children from the poor families in Punjab are more deprived in terms of access to higher education as compared to other states? Similarly on justice delivery, performance indicators have been developed to see variance in its impact across population.

Regarding RTI, the Commission stressed the urgent requirement for training officials of all departments and representatives of public authorities so as to be aware of their respective duties and obligations under the Act.

There are many other recommendations that under the consideration of the government. For instance, to check malpractices prevalent in the private sector health providers, Commission proposed to promulgate a regulatory act. Some of the private health providers make patients stay longer in hospitals or resort to irrational prescriptions. This act should include provisions like compulsory registration of private medical establishments, the accreditation to public and private health institutes on the basis of global health service-delivery standards. Private establishments to make public charges payable for different medical treatments and

services and provide information about the names of government doctors and paramedical staff whose services are utilised for consultation on payment basis. Maintain clinical records relating to its activities and patients under its care, and make it open to inspection.

Policy Regime Issues: Need for Further Examination

In various reports submitted by the Commission, public policy framework was mainly guided by the perspective that economic, social and environmental dimensions were mutually reinforcing with primacy of equity and distributive justice concerns. No doubt, the growth dynamics of last three decades in Punjab is story of a slow-down, increasing role of services sector, sharp slowing down of agriculture and maintaining historical rates of growth in the industrial sector. The assumption that the dynamics of market and the process of growth on its own be able to moderate widening disparities could not be verified. Similarly, fiscal management policy discourse has not shown any evidence of providing much needed impulse to make development inclusive, governance citizen-centric and population productive. However, directions of alternative public policy have been identified, but the engagement of state in social development, re-allocation of tasks, re-definition of public-private partnerships could not be worked out in detail.

Another area which requires further enquiry is the functioning of federal polity, in view of increased control of the central government, over states, by changing the nature of grants, decline in the overall transfers, increase in expenditure responsibilities of the states, and decline in revenue mobilisation by the central government.

The scope for discretion of the states to initiate state specific development strategy is being minimised and central government implicitly suggesting that it knows what is best for the states and that 'one size fits all'. The state is engaged to bring about change where fiscal correction is seen as the guiding principle of growth¹. This fiscal prudence is part of a larger package of development and it has contributed to worsening of employment scenario in the country². There are many other crucial policy issues that require clear directions, such as, do people need state support for social development; how can the capacity of public actors be enhanced to achieve better outcomes from existing policies; what modifications do we need in existing policies of social development, is support of central government in the social sector an impediment for achieving better outcomes; is there a need for new programme and if so what kind and finally what is the interconnection between institutions, suppliers and policy to achieve objectives of social development. In this context, federalisation of Indian polity and activation of decentralised democratic mechanisms shall help to answer area-specific needs and empowerment of the people.

¹ Sudipto Mundle, Public Finance: Policy Issues for India, Oxford, 1997, p.

² Prabhat Patnaik, On the Need for Providing Employment Guarantee, <http://www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/meetings/2006/forum/Statements/Patnaik.pdf>, 2006

To make delivery of justice and benefits of development inclusive, reforms should be initiated to bring women issues, Dalit concerns and migrants problem in the mainstream of social planning in the state. One of the outcomes of the processes of globalisation is the unchallenged hegemony of market and simultaneous weakening of the capacity of the state to provide resources for human development and social security. Public policy must focus to create capacities of the poor to make them stakeholders in economic development. It is, no doubt, that economic exclusion contributes to various forms of conflict, but economic participation per se may not eliminate other forms of discrimination. Therefore, a comprehensive policy framework has to be evolved to mitigate exclusions bearing social, political and cultural roots.

A fragmented labour market is an essential component of this global commodity chain of production and exchange. The expansion of markets and the spread of commodity chains to newer areas have created new work opportunities and expanded the labour market, and at the same time created new aspiration among people in the new locations. A problem-centred approach, pegged whether on mobility, or exploitative labour will perforce be dependent on regulatory and enforcement-oriented mechanisms. The need is to relook at the phenomenon of migration and human trafficking with a right-based perspective.

With new policy perspective, a number of process and procedural changes have to be incorporated in governance reforms. Performance audit have to be loaded in favour of citizen-centric engaged governance. The Commission feels that there are areas like evolving transparent methods to reduce political interference in posting and transfers of government functionaries particularly police, revenue, education, health, public works department, urban development, etc. The postings and transfers have become a kind of industry to share spoils and to wield extra constitutional powers. A number of other Indian states have developed models which can be replicated.

Having streamlined recruitment, promotion policies have to be re-modelled. Interestingly, interaction of government employees with their own government for medical reimbursement, for drawing pension benefits and to avail medical, ex-India and other types of leaves, are facilitated by corruption. There is a need to change procedures and rules and to bring efficiency these should be brought under e-governance programmes.

From a citizen's perspective, there is a need for major reforms to make SHO, *Patwari*, *Tehsildar*, District Transport Officer, accountable because of their collusion with politicians, they have risen above the law. PGRC did attempt to introduce some reforms in this area.

Pramod Kumar
Chairperson PGRC

Chapter I

STATUS OF EDUCATION IN PUNJAB³

Section I

1.1. Elementary Education in Punjab

1.1.1. The goal of universal elementary education in India has remained elusive. In spite of several initiatives made during the last few decades, the ever increasing number of out of school children, slow increase in enrolment, early drop out and poor retention have underlined the sad tale of educational backwardness and deprivation in India. In order to tackle these problems the revised National Policy of Education identified three thrust areas so as to enable children achieve essential levels of learning. These were as follows:

- Universal access to elementary education
- Universal retention of children up to 14 years of age
- Improvement in the quality of education

1.1.2. Initiatives were put in place to facilitate the realisation of free and compulsory education to children between the age of 6 and 14. Right To Education (RTE) Act 2009 that got enacted in 2010 needs to be sorted out with respect to model rules, financial implications and sharing of requisite costs between the centre and the states. India has a long way to go before the objectives of universal elementary education is realized. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), flagship initiative of the Central government is an endeavour in this direction. Sponsored largely by the central government, SSA provides an opportunity to introduce comprehensive reforms in the education sector.

1.1.3. It is a programme that aims:

- To provide and strengthen educational infrastructure
- To help teachers through sustained training & interaction
- To develop teaching and learning materials and academic support at the cluster, block and district levels.
- To endeavour towards increasing community participation

³ This Chapter has been contributed by Prof. Sachidanand Sinha.

- To encourage girl child education & those sections that have remained educationally deprived

It needs no emphasis that much would depend on the political will of the state governments and its bureaucracy as it is the state governments that have to finally implement various components of the SSA programme.

1.2. Fact File

- 1.2.1. The educational profile of Punjab presents a paradox of sorts. Punjab is one of the richest states of India that has been successful in lowering the incidence of income poverty in its population. However it has not shown commensurate levels of achievements with reference to social development indicators such as education and health. In order to contextualise the educational scenario in Punjab the Education Development Index (EDI) may be instructive to assess accessibility, infrastructure, teachers and educational outcomes. Based on a set of indicators determined by the MHRD for primary and upper primary levels, the overall EDI rank for Punjab in 2007-08 stood at 12 out of 35 States and UTs.
- 1.2.2. Punjab did better for primary schools where its rank was 9, but it dropped to the 15 rank for the Upper Primary. On the basis of access indicators Punjab stood at the 16th rank, teacher related indicators at 13th, but it performed very poorly with respect to outcome indicators, where it acquired 29th rank, only a little better than Bihar, Rajasthan, West Bengal and Chhattisgarh.
- 1.2.3. The rank position of Punjab with respect to the above indices suggests that states' advantage in the area of school infrastructure has been considerably offset by its poor scores on access, teachers and educational outcomes. Educational outcomes, other things remaining the same, are dependent both on quantity and quality of educational infrastructure and quality, regularity, motivation and creativity of teachers. Studies have indicated that the learning achievements of children in recognized government and aided schools in Punjab has been rather poor for classes III and VIII, and that the learning levels of class V children witnessed a decline during 2002-2007. The poor quality of education in Punjab, as is generally felt, is largely due to poor institutional structures, ineffective regulatory mechanism, teachers

unionism, and more importantly also because of political interference in the appointments and transfer of teachers which has gradually eroded accountability of teachers.

- 1.2.4. The allocation mechanism for deployment of teachers in Punjab is such that a large number of primary schools have fewer teachers than required. In a large number of upper primary, secondary and higher secondary schools specialised subject teachers are not available.
- 1.2.5. Teacher's training is another important dimension that needs considerable rethinking in the context of Punjab. One of the distinguishing features of Punjab educational landscape is marked by the phenomenal growth in the number of private recognised and unrecognised schools. These schools have over the last decade attracted significant proportion of enrolment in the name of providing quality education. Apparently, the perception that government schools fail to meet the educational needs and aspirations of the elite needs examination, but it may not be out of place to suggest that the withdrawal of the better-off sections from government schools makes inefficiency and poor quality of education acceptable and institutionalised as the articulate segment remains unaffected by the developments (or lack of it) in institutions run by the state.
- 1.2.6. In view of the phenomenal expansion of private sector in school education one may be interested to ask as to how the state visualizes its role in effective monitoring of the education providers, both public and private. Strengthening the existing public institutions through the creation of common schools holds the key to weaning over the growing middle class back to the public education system. This report concentrates on a few aspects of elementary school education only. These pertain to both quantitative and qualitative aspects with special emphasis on understanding the supply side constraints in elementary school education in the state. It may be noted here that in spite of educational norms supply of educational provisions, especially in the school subsector, has largely been demand based.

1.3. Infrastructure & Schools

1.3.1. As noted before, Punjab has done well on the infrastructure front since the SSA was launched in the state. However, it is the complexity of multiple educational service providers that needs to be understood. There are four types of schools in India and Punjab:

- Government schools, run and funded by the central and state governments including those of the local bodies, and other state funded agencies.
- Private schools aided by the government
- Private unaided schools
- Unrecognised schools (the first three are recognized by the appropriate authority).

1.3.2. The government schools are fairly widespread in the state. These schools have played a notable role in the process of educational development in the state as their reach both in terms of population size and coverage of habitations in rural and urban areas has been far better than the private aided and unaided schools. The government schools continue to hold the prominent position in terms of their share at the primary level of education.

1.3.3. In several respects the government and private aided schools may appear similar as both are publicly funded and follow same curriculum, timetable, syllabus, textbooks and eligibility criteria for teachers.

1.3.4. The private unaided schools are mainly two types: schools run by the Christian missionaries and rich business class. Such schools are continuing from the pre Independence period and their fee is so high that they can be afforded only by the upper and upper- middle sections of the society. On the other side of the spectrum are those schools, which started emerging from post independence period only, because of the increasing demand from the middle and lower middle sections of the society. Such schools differ from the above described ones in their fee structure and teaching methods and are promoted by various agencies of civil society. Some private aided schools have acquired corporate stature and have branches and franchises in more than one state, city and rural localities.

- 1.3.5. It is not difficult to locate a variety of unrecognised private schools in Punjab of different types. Large segment amongst them are of play schools with nursery or kindergarten classes. Some also call themselves 'preparatory schools'. These schools may or may not have formal or informal agreement/understanding with established recognised private schools to whom they pay certain fees/charges etc. However, many unrecognised schools thrive as they operate outside the control of the government scrutiny in all matters and due to low wages they pay to their teaching and non-teaching staff.
- 1.3.6. A large number of unrecognised schools function across the seven districts of Punjab. This may also be applicable to other ten districts of Punjab as well as most other parts of the country. Facility-wise most unrecognized schools are at par or even better than recognized schools. They have comfortable pupil-teacher ratio, negligible number of single-teacher and single-classroom schools, high percentage of female teachers, better or same number of instructional days, better enrolment size etc. Unrecognised schools also have better essentialities like drinking water facility and common and girls' toilets in school. According to Mehta's study of recognised schools in Punjab, of the total SC enrolment, 9.25 per cent are enrolled in unrecognised and 90.75 per cent in recognised schools. More than 37 per cent of the total 947 thousand out-of-school children (6-14 year group) are enrolled in unrecognised schools.
- 1.3.7. There seems to be a very high demand for unrecognised schools in Punjab with parents preferring unrecognised schools to recognised ones. As a result such unrecognised schools are sprouting up. Apparently, there is no permission required it and the unrecognised schools remain outside the ambit of government control. This leads to the moot question why these schools choose to remain unrecognised ones. Is it to avoid responsibilities or because of economic reasons they prefer to remain unrecognised?
- 1.3.8. The availability of elementary schools in Punjab has shown appreciable improvements over the years. The distribution of primary and upper primary schools by types of management is presented in Chapter I Section I- Annexure table 1.1. The statistics pertaining to the number of private unrecognised schools may not be reliable as their coverage under the schools statistics has been poor due to absence of school

register. However, some studies have pointed out that Punjab SSA authority has done remarkably well than other states in compiling relatively good statistical profile of the unrecognised private schools.

1.3.9. The number of private unaided recognised primary schools was seven-times greater than the aided ones, while the unrecognized private schools were nearly four-and-a-half times bigger than the recognised private primary schools in the state. Altogether, the number of primary schools under different management types add to about 17 thousand. The situation changes dramatically for the upper primary schools as the aided and unaided private schools take over and emerge as the major supplier of schools. The private unrecognised upper primary school emerge as single-largest provider in several districts though their presence in several others has not been very large. In the districts of Patiala, Jalandhar, Mohali and Sangrur the private unaided both recognised and unrecognised together form the major bulk of schools in terms of their share.

1.3.10. The number of schools is not a good measure of educational availability. In Chapter I Section I- Annexure Table 1.2 presents the availability of primary and upper primary schools as number of schools per thousand population in the relevant age-cohorts. If one took all primary schools then Punjab has a little over 5 primary schools per 1000 population in the age-group 6-11 years. It is interesting to note that this ratio was higher by a quarter for the upper primary schools, indicating the inverted pyramid of educational structure in the state, largely because of higher supply of such schools in the private sector. The inter-district profile of availability shows remarkable inequality in the distribution of government primary and upper primary schools in the state.

1.3.11. The highest number of government primary schools per thousand population in the 6-11 age-group was observed in Ropar followed by Hoshiarpur and Fatehgarh districts, while the lowest ratio in Ludhiana, Bhatinda and Barnala districts. As many as 10 districts had lower ratio than the state average. Wide inter-district variation in the availability of government primary schools shows that the state education department has not followed any norm while allocating primary schools.

- 1.3.12. Wide inter-district variation in the availability of government primary schools shows that the state education department has not followed any norm while allocating primary schools. However, the picture undergoes a significant change at the upper primary stage of school education. The number of government upper primary schools drops significantly to about 3 schools per thousand population, while that of the private upper primary schools increases to about 4 per thousand. Patiala leads the table for the private primary schools with Barnala, Kapurthala, Mohali and Sangrur following with over 5 schools (Chapter I Section I- Annexure Table 1.3). The presence of private sector in primary education has been significantly lower than that of the government sector.
- 1.3.13. The number of upper primary schools to the number of primary schools is a good measure of educational progression in provision of school facilities responding to transition in enrolment from primary to the upper primary classes. Shortage of upper primary schools in rural areas is a cause for sharp decline in enrolment, especially of the girls. In Chapter I Section I- Annexure Table 1.4 presents the ratio for the districts by different managements.
- 1.3.14. The ratio of upper primary schools to primary schools for the government and local bodies stands at 0.42, which means that there is one upper primary school for every three primary schools. This figure seems to be influenced by the presence of local body primary schools. It must be noted here that all local body schools in the state are up to primary classes only. The private schools of all denominations present a better picture but the values vary enormously across the districts showing lopsided growth of the private sector in the state. Among the government schools, local body schools form a significant sub-set at the primary stage. But most of these schools are poorly endowed in terms of educational infrastructure. It is rather strange to find that the schools run by the education department and the local bodies tend to duplicate the effort thus resulting into wastage of public resources. There is an urgent need for convergence between the two so as to achieve better results and coverage. The political economy of educational provision, given the class and social differentiation may have been responsible for such duplication. This needs to be corrected urgently.

1.3.15. While the government schools have been fairly widespread in terms of their coverage of villages and localities, the norms of educational facilities such as number of classrooms and teachers per school, they remain remarkably deficient. Most of the primary and upper primary schools in Punjab have 2-3 classrooms or more. In Chapter I Section I - Annexure Table 1.9 provides the percentage distribution of government and local body elementary schools with certain minimum infrastructure. Taran Taran, Kapurthala, Fatehgarh Sahib, and Jalundhar districts also had lower percentage of schools with toilet for girls. Drinking water was provided in most of the elementary schools, though nearly 637 elementary schools still waited coverage of safe drinking water. Playgrounds are quintessential for the overall mental and physical growth of a child. About two-thirds of elementary schools have some kind of playground facility. It was only in upper primary schools where they were attached with secondary or senior secondary classes that proper playgrounds - level grounds with some grass and posts for football/hockey existed.

1.3.16. There is an urgent need to review the government norms and policies pertaining to deployment of teachers based on PTR. The RTE act 2009 also falls short of the minimum levels of learning. The policies of the state will have to be made child centric rather than governed by bureaucratic and economic contingencies and conveniences.

1.3.17. The profile of educational facilities in government and private schools clearly shows that private schools are far better endowed (In Chapter I Section I - Annexure Tables 1.12 & 1.13). Better teacher-school and teacher classroom ratio along with the number of classroom per school underline the success and attractiveness of private schools.

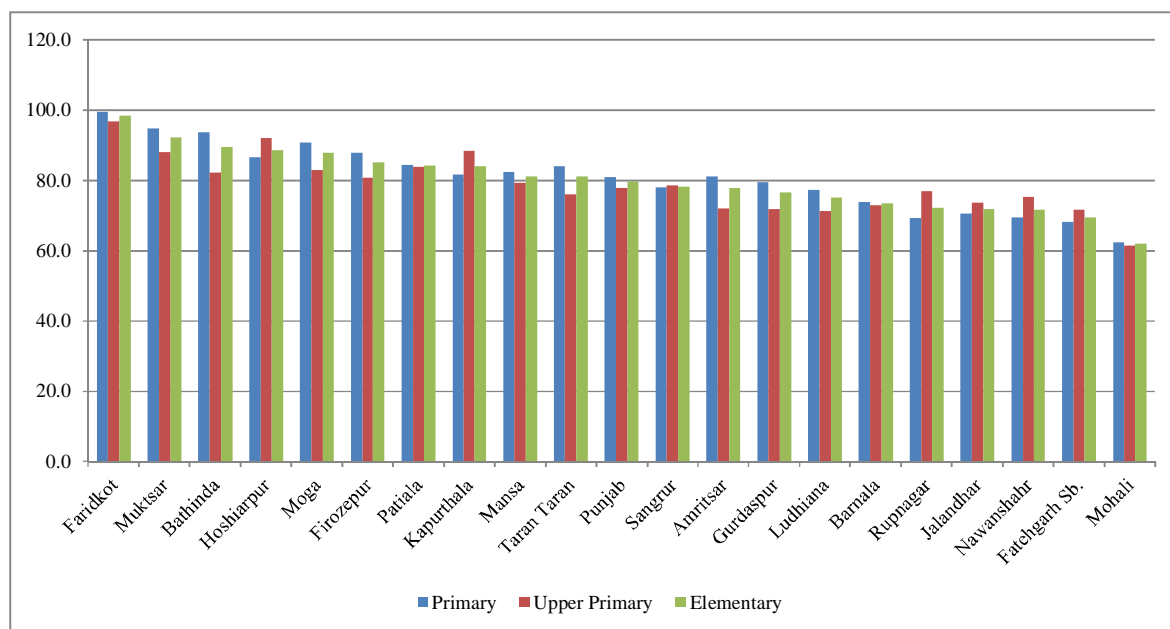
1.4. Accessibility & Enrolment

1.4.1. Attendance rates of Punjab for the two age-groups i.e. 6-10 years & 11-14 years remain higher than the all-India average. Remarkably, the current enrolment rates for rural areas of Punjab is higher for the 6-10 age-group while it is marginally lower for the rural children in 11-14 years age-group. The gender-gaps in Punjab have not only become negligible in urban areas with urban girls in 11-14 years age register higher attendance rates than their male counterparts. Rural girls continue to lag behind boys, but the gaps are not large (In Chapter I

Section I -Annexure Table 2.1).The recently published estimates for 2008-09 by Annual Survey of Education Report (ASER) by Pratham augurs more encouraging picture. According the survey the percentage of out – of – school (OOS) children in 6-14 age group has declined from 3.2 in 2006 to 2.7 in 2008-09 in Punjab. The ASER survey, however, is not based on a large sample and thus suffers from several limitations.

- 1.4.2. In Chapter I Section I - Annexure table 2.2 extracted from the recent report of the NSSO (64th round, 2007-08), which is based on large household sample supports our estimate, especially for the deprived social groups both in urban and rural areas. It is rather intriguing to note that enrolment of boys in urban areas of Punjab was far below the all-India average as well as their rural counterparts. The effect of migration is clearly seen in this case.
- 1.4.3. Notwithstanding the observations pertaining to OOS children, it is pertinent to note that the enrolment scenario in Punjab has improved significantly. This improvement can be seen to have taken place both in rural and urban areas and across all social groups, though the enrolment ratio for the scheduled castes both in rural and urban areas continue to be lower. If the statistics of the Seventh All India
- 1.4.4. Educational Survey (2002) on enrolment is taken as the base then the results of the NSSO, NFHS, ASER and DISE surveys suggest that the initiatives under SSA have yielded positive results in augmenting enrolment in the state of Punjab.
- 1.4.5. Gross enrolment ratio is a gross measure of enrolment which is ratio of enrolled persons in various stages of education divided by the population in the relevant age-group while net enrolment rates (NER) is a refined measure of enrolled persons in a certain stage of education belonging to the relevant age-group divided by total population in the relevant age-group. According to the SSA-DISE, 2008-09 for Punjab the GER for Primary stage of school education stood at 93 while that for the Upper Primary at 77.6 (in Chapter I Section I-Annexure Table 2.4). Apparently, about 7 percent children in the age 6-10 were not enrolled in primary classes. The estimates based on projected child population and enrolment in government and private schools worked out for this report, however, was found to be much lower.

Fig.1 GER for Primary, Upper Primary and Elementary stages, 2008-09



1.4.6. The official statistics released by the SSA Authority Punjab indicates that there has been a significant reduction in the episodes of school dropouts during the last three years.

1.4.7. The cohort dropout for 6-11 year age group was reported to be about 23percent for the state in 2005-06, which in 2008-09 declined to just below 2.0. Similarly cohort dropout for 11-14 year age dropped from 15.5 to 4.2 during the reference period. According to DISE-SRC the dropout rate for primary came down from 9.0 in 2005-06 to 5.5 in 2007-08. The dropout episodes are highly concentrated when the child is in class V and is ready to move to the upper primary classes. There is little improvement in this regard as dropout rate for class V has declined from 28.7 to 27.0, while it increased from 11.0 per cent to over 14 per cent for classes VI and VII.

1.4.8. The share of enrolment in private schools is increasing at a rapid rate in Punjab. According to the ASER, 2008 data nearly 40 percent of all enrolled children in age group 6-14 were enrolled in private schools. It was highest in Gurdaspur and lowest in Muktsar and Fatehgarh Sahib (in Chapter I-Annexure table 2.6). Data generated from the SSA on enrolment presents much smaller share for the private schools largely

due to poor coverage of unrecognized schools, which perhaps is emerging to be growing and doing well.

1.4.9. According to the NSSO 61st round for 2004-05, the share of private (aided and unaided schools) to total enrolment for primary and upper primary classes stood at about 28 and 29 percent in India, while the corresponding picture in 2004-05 for Punjab was 46.5 & 38 percent respectively. This figure compares well with the table 2.6 in Chapter I Section I - Annexure that shows ASER data though ASER for 2008 appears to be an underestimate.

1.4.10. The recent data from the NSSO (in Chapter I Section I-Annexure table 2.7) clearly captures the magnitude of emerging privatization in the school education sector in Punjab. Over 48 per cent boys in the rural areas of Punjab were enrolled in private aided and unaided schools while it was nearly 40 per cent for the rural girls. These figures are much higher than the all India average for the primary classes. The share of children attending private schools in urban areas for boys stood at 72 per cent while it was 77 per cent for the girls. The share of boys and girls attending private schools drops significantly at the upper primary stage but picks up again for the secondary and higher secondary classes. Two important inferences are clearly in sight:

- Government schools remain important for the rural and urban poor at all levels of school education in spite of the massive expansion of the private schools
- The role of the unrecognised schools is becoming bigger and the government must take a close look at this segment and adopt a clear policy in this context

1.4.11. In Chapter I Section I -Annexure Table 2.8 shows the share of social groups in the total enrolment of children in private primary schools for selected blocks in the selected districts of Punjab. The share of SC children enrolled in primary school was found to be in the region of 22 percent in the Gurdaspur block while it was a meagre 2 percent in Bhikhiwind block of Taran Taran district. It appears that the urban blocks have higher share of SC children attending private primary schools than the rural blocks.

- 1.4.12. The share of private unaided is significantly higher as one moves from the lower monthly per capita consumption expenditure (MPCE) class to the higher (in Chapter I section I- Annexure table 2.9). The story is similar when one examines the distribution by landholding sizes in rural Punjab. Lower share for government schools in the lowest landholding category is due to higher share of private aided schools, which for all practical purposes are similar to the government schools, though this needs to be further examined. It is evident that participation of children from lower landholding categories was either absent or marginal in private schools (in Chapter I section I-Annexure table 2.10).
- 1.4.13. Given the nature of enrolment pattern and clientele in private schools, one cannot expect that the issue of social equity in access to quality education is likely to be addressed. It must be noted that the issues concerning school education is not infrastructure but willingness on part of the state to ensure minimum standards of school education through revitalising and also restructuring school education system through common schooling system. Creation of such model schools in the name of quality enhancement, is only going to further widen educational disparities both socially and spatially.
- 1.4.14. Then, the question arises, whether higher cost leads to desired outcomes? This and other related questions have been answered in a report on Cost-Benefit Analysis of Primary Education in Punjab.⁴ Some of the findings are being reproduced to substantiate the above mentioned arguments. As per this report, year-wise increase in budget does not ensure increase in overall enrolments. Majority of the children in government schools generally belong to lower castes and economically weaker sections. Given the nature of enrolment pattern and clientele in private schools, one cannot expect that the issue of social equity in access to quality education is likely to be addressed. It must be noted that the issues concerning school education is not infrastructure but willingness on part of the state to ensure minimum standards of school education through revitalising and also restructuring school education system through **Common Schooling System**. Creation of such model schools in the name of quality

⁴ J.N. Joshi et. al. (2003), *Cost Benefit Analysis of Primary Education in Punjab*, Chandigarh: Institute for Development and Communication.

enhancement is only going to further widen educational disparities both socially and spatially.

1.5. Teachers and Training

1.5.1. Teachers are most important constituents in the process of educational development. A dedicated and motivated teacher contributes hugely in the personality and intellectual development of a child. The current debate and concern in India about the quality of education has a lot to do with the quantity and quality of teaching faculty especially in our elementary schools. One of the key factors as to why do children fail to learn what they are expected to or discontinue education without completing elementary level studies is closely linked with the number of teachers per school. In Chapter I Section I - Annexure Table 3.1 presents the distribution of government elementary schools by the number of teachers. The percentage of schools with no teacher was very high in Fatehgarh Sahib District followed by Kapurthala, Patiala, Barnala, Firozpur and Taran Taran. It needs to be noted that the enrolment situation in such villages is perhaps the poorest. Also, paucity of teachers may discourage parents from sending children to schools.

1.5.2. It is not surprising to note that the districts with poor availability of teachers in schools are the districts where the private sector has done reasonably well in terms of expansion of educational provisions and enrolment share. Also, the role of teachers' transfer policy has contributed to the shortage of teachers even against the stated norms followed by the government of Punjab, currently. It is illuminating to note that most of the primary schools in Punjab had fewer teachers working against the number of sanctioned posts.

1.5.3. Viewing the distribution of teacher per school in government and private schools (in Chapter I Section I-Annexure table 3.1) against the norms presented in the schedule (given below) of norms and standards in the RTE Act surfaces with major issues that have been ignored in the Act:

- Firstly, the Act carries nothing that could be even distantly construed as a step in the direction of developing a 'Common School System'. One of the causes

of poor access and quality in education is the multilayered and hierarchical study system of India.

- Secondly, the Act is committed to providing free and compulsory education to children in the age between 6 and 14. This is in contradiction to government's policy of promoting early childhood education that starts earlier, at age 4 to 5.

THE SCHEDULE			
(See sections 19 and 25)			
NORMS AND STANDARDS FOR A SCHOOL			
Sl. No.	Item	Norms and Standards	
1.	Number of teachers:		
	(a) For first class to fifth class	Admitted children	Number of teachers
		Up to Sixty	Two
		Between sixty-one to ninety	Three
		Between Ninety-one to one hundred and twenty	Four
		Between One hundred and twenty-one to two hundred	Five
		Above One hundred and fifty children	Five plus one Head-teacher
		Above Two hundred children	Pupil-Teacher Ratio (excluding Head-teacher) shall not exceed forty.
	(b) For sixth class to eighth class	<p>(1) At least one teacher per class so that there shall be at least one teacher each for—</p> <p>(i) Science and Mathematics;</p> <p>(ii) Social Studies;</p> <p>(iii) Languages.</p> <p>(2) At least one teacher for every thirty-five children.</p> <p>(3) Where admission of children is above one hundred—</p> <p>(i) a full time head-teacher;</p> <p>(ii) part time instructors for—</p> <p>(A) Art Education;</p> <p>(B) Health and Physical Education;</p> <p>(C) Work Education.</p>	

1.5.4. RTE, 2009 is thus a missed opportunity from this perspective as the glaring disparities between rural and urban areas, between the poor and rich, social and religious groups are likely to remain unaffected if not get further accentuated in the years to come.

1.5.5. The learning environment in schools must be enjoyable and exciting to children. It has been suggested that art, crafts and physical education forms the core of academic and co-academic curricula in the early

stages of school education. The success of private schools lies in the fact that they have put reasonably good emphasis on this aspect of teaching and learning, which among other things, has resulted into better educational outcomes. There is an urgent need to address this issue of pedagogy and composition of teachers in elementary schools of India in general and Punjab in particular. This alone will allow government schools to achieve a quantum jump in the quality of school education. Related to this, is the need to have trained subject teachers particularly for Mathematics, Science, Social Science and English. The instruction method in different subjects needs to be developed in sync with the activities such as fine and performing arts and crafts. Learning by doing and living the experience is irreplaceable and lasting.

- 1.5.6. There is an urgent need to restructure and strengthen DIETs. In the current arrangement under the initiatives of the SSA these institutions in Punjab have been largely marginalised. A separate task force for restructuring DIETs is recommended. In order to have better administrative and academic outcomes there is an urgent need to appoint regular head-teachers in every primary and upper primary schools. There is an urgent need to appoint additional teachers applying the two options suggested in this report.
- 1.5.7. Second issue J.N.Joshi report attempted to answer was; whether school and environment building measures have any effect on attracting children to the school and motivate them to stay till the end?
- 1.5.8. The comparison of government and private school children on scholastic attainments and levels of learning revealed that the children of private schools have excelled in all the six subjects attaining higher marks than the government school children.
- 1.5.9. The private schools provide better physical facilities, infrastructure and teaching-learning environment in the schools. There is a proper seating arrangement and separate class-room for each of the five classes in these schools. There is a committed teacher for each class to provide individualised instructions to all children. Monitoring and supervision of teachers is done by the management regularly. Uniform for children, transportation, discipline, teaching of English from class I, nursery

classes in these schools add to the overall environment building measures of the school.

- 1.5.10. There is a need for improving the status of primary schools by way of proper school building, class-rooms, seating arrangement and competent teachers for each class. In addition, teachers need to be free of extraneous duties so that they can teach regularly to the children on all working days and also to introduce English from Class-I onwards.
- 1.5.11. For this, Central Government needs to raise the budget on Primary Education for building infrastructure and provide required number of teachers in government primary schools and State Governments to make regular provision in the Annual Plans for improving the infrastructure in government primary schools. It would be helpful if budgetary provision for helper teacher and peon in the schools and monitoring and supervision by DPEOs and BPEOs is also made. To illustrate, vehicles for all DPEOs for supervision purposes or at least transport allowance to facilitate the task of frequent supervision of the schools is required.
- 1.5.12. The report argues that the quality of outcome is related to physical facilities, qualitative instruction, availability of teachers to students at a specified time.

1.6. Outcome and Policy

There is a serious supply side constraint with respect to number of teachers in primary and upper primary schools of Punjab. On comparison with other states of India Punjab acquires a reasonably higher position with respect to the number of teachers per primary and upper primary schools but when the situation is compared with that of Kerala, the best performing state in the country, then the situation in Punjab needs significant improvements. The report emphatically states that every child needs good quality education during early stage of his/her life. And this cannot be attained without addressing the issue of supply deficiency applying the norm of at least 5 teachers per primary and 8 teachers per upper primary schools. An integrated elementary school with about 8-10 teachers can remove this serious bottleneck.

Section II

1.7. Status of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education in Punjab: Issues and Recommendations for Reforms

- 1.7.1. It needs no emphasis that after having nearly achieved the objectives of universal enrolment in elementary education, India must logically make a transition towards universal secondary education. Secondary education is an important stage of school education, which prepares an individual to take up various responsibilities in life and help a person to choose the specialised branch of knowledge and industry in which one may wish to seek one's future vocation. Due to several initiatives taken by the government to improve access and retention in primary and upper primary classes, India is slowly moving towards universal access and retention in elementary education. It is thus an imperative to move towards achieving universal access and retention in secondary school education.
- 1.7.2. It is in this context that secondary education has been accorded higher priority in the development agenda of the XIth Five Year Plan, thereby attempting to bring about synergy between the changing demographic profile of India and the need for building a knowledge society. According to GOI's 'Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan' (RMSA) availability of good quality secondary education, accessible and affordable to all without any discrimination based on caste, creed, religion, sex, culture and region, based on acceptable norms and standards is today's imperative in the education sector.
- 1.7.3. In the light of the above, it is of primary interest to examine the status of secondary and higher secondary education in the state of Punjab with the help of a set of parameters and indicators that could inform the necessary policy initiatives to be undertaken in the state.

1.8. Infrastructure & Schools

- 1.8.1. Availability of schools for ensuring greater and equitable access is a vital factor in development literature. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure Table 1 presents the district wise distribution of secondary and higher secondary schools in rural and urban areas classified by school management. About 4000 schools were located in the rural areas; a significant majority among them was public funded while schools run

by the private bodies were mostly located in urban areas. The central government funded schools were equally distributed between the urban and rural areas.

1.8.2. It may be noted that as per the norms governing distribution of schools the government must strive to locate at least one secondary and senior secondary school within a distance of 5 km from each rural habitation. In other words, one post-upper primary school served nearly 4.5 thousand population in rural areas and over 6 thousand in urban areas. For example one school in Nawanshahr catered to less than 2 thousand populations, while in the urban areas of Mohali and Patiala the figure was far in excess of 15 thousand each. The inter-district inequality in the distribution is, thus, well noticed.

1.8.3. It is instructive to note that at the current state of supply and enrolment ratio the average class size in government schools has already exceeded 35 for the state as a whole; in some district the comparable figure is about 45 plus, e.g. Mansa and Gurgaspur districts. At present there is one school for about 450 persons in the age-group of 14-17 years, which means that if the goal of universal secondary enrolment is to be achieved the existing schools will have to accommodate over 100 students in each class and this will be fatal. If the objective in the 12th plan is to universalise secondary education then Punjab will have to augment the supply by almost 2 times, i.e. add over 5000 more schools. A school without a library is a vehicle without fuel. In Punjab the story is grave even on this account as 2225 schools did not have a library. To say the least, the vision of educational development is thus at best conspicuously absent from the minds of the policy makers and implementers. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure table A presents a good narrative of this malady.

1.8.4. Labs are also essential at every stage of education. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure Table B provides the profile of Punjab with respect to absence of laboratories in secondary schools. It is amply clear that over 1400 secondary schools in the state did not have labs as a consequence over 72 thousand children enrolled in these schools did not have the opportunity to science by experimentation. This is unfair both as a matter of public policy as well as ethics of education.

1.9. Enrolment Profile of Punjab

- 1.9.1. According to the latest report of the NSSO (64th Round) for the year 2007-08, the gross enrolment ratio of Punjab for the secondary education stood at 81.3 for boys and 70.7 for the girls. This was higher than the comparable figure for the country as a whole (in Chapter I Section II-Annexure table 3). However, Punjab's rank was considerably lower than a number of relatively poorer states such as Himachal Pradesh, J&K, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Maharashtra, Uttaranchal and the north-eastern states. While over four-fifths of boys in the relevant age group entered the secondary classes in Punjab, only 25.9 per cent entered senior secondary classes among them. The transition of enrolled children through the first 10 years of school education for both boys and girls is reasonably good in the state of Punjab, though the indications are that the momentum of enrolment diminishes significantly for the boys than for the girls in the subsequent stages of higher secondary and college education.
- 1.9.2. It is worth taking note that GER at secondary stage for rural girls was significantly higher than the comparable all India average, but was still significantly lower for them in urban areas both with reference to urban boys in Punjab and urban girls elsewhere in the country. Only two-thirds among them could enroll in secondary classes while nearly all urban boys in Punjab in the relevant age group attended secondary classes.
- 1.9.3. In fact, the GER for senior secondary classes for boys in urban areas of Punjab stood at 29.3 per cent, which was marginally higher than their rural counterparts but 22 percentage points lower than that of urban girls (in Chapter I Section II-Annexure tables 4a-c). Urban girls in Punjab, therefore, enjoyed a distinctive advantage over the boys- a feature so unusual in the country as a whole, but even more intriguing given the overarching patriarchal ethos that governs the socio-cultural and economic ethos of Punjab, especially when they trailed significantly in the previous stage of school education.
- 1.9.4. In order to answer this intriguing feature of Punjab's school education one may need to take a look at the profile of educational participation by social groups (in Chapter I Section II-Annexure tables 4a-c) and that

of various classes of population reflected here in terms of consumption expenditure quintiles (in Chapter I Section II-Annexure table 5).

- 1.9.5. Punjab has one of the largest percentages of scheduled caste population in the country and it due to relatively better economic opportunities available both in the rural and urban areas, it continues to receive large number of migrants every year from different parts of the country. The GER for primary and upper primary classes in the state across the three major social groups, i.e. non-scheduled non-OBC (referred to as general) population, OBCs and the scheduled castes shows that the former two categories have done equally well in comparison to the all-India figure, but the SCs have reported lower enrolment figures than the general and OBC populations in the state as well as their counterparts in the rest of the country for the upper primary, secondary and higher secondary classes.
- 1.9.6. The central point is that the pattern of dominance and exclusivity of the non-scheduled non-OBC population increases with every successive level of education. This feature is further corroborated by table 3 in Chapter I Section II-Annexure that presents GER by consumption expenditure quintiles. One may observe that participation of children from the bottom 20 % quintile was less so poor that not even 50 percent among the boys attended primary classes. This further declined to 35.6 at the upper primary and 38.2 at the secondary stage. In fact, no enrolment was reported in the state from this category in higher secondary and undergraduate classes. The relatively better economic opportunities do not seem to be getting translated into positive educational outcomes in the state. This is a cause of serious concern. Is it that the income disparities and social deprivations in Punjab force children to remain out of school and join the labour force? This needs to be addressed by the policy makers more seriously so as to realise the objectives of RTE.
- 1.9.7. The inter-district patterns of enrolment in secondary classes throw additional insights into the problems of low enrolment in Punjab. It has been argued that urbanization has positive relationship with educational enrolment. In Punjab, however, one may observe that the levels of urbanisation have failed to translate into positive educational outcomes. Districts such as Jalandhar, Ludhiana and Mohali, which are more urbanized in the state, have recorded lower levels of GER in

secondary classes. In fact, the lowest GER for secondary classes has been reported from Mohali located in the vicinity of the capital city of Chandigarh (in Chapter I Section II-Annexure table 6).

1.9.8. While there is no doubt that, in general, the quality of public schools have significantly declined over the years, there is little by way of evidence to suggest that the private sector have done significantly better, in the light of the fact that public sector schools continue to cater to the common masses while the private sector draws its clientele from the educated, salaried and relatively well-off sections. There is a lot to suggest that the declining standards of education have been rather widespread and private schools have not been untouched by it. The central issues here pertain to governance and political interference, and politicisation of teachers' unions that have over the years paid little attention to quality issues.

1.9.9. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure Table 7 shows that early two-thirds of secondary and senior secondary schools are funded by the public sector and their share is even larger in the rural areas. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure Table 8 below shows that the public funded secondary schools catered to a diverse set of common masses and has remained open to the most deprived sections such as the SCs.

1.9.10. Hence, given the socio-economic profile of Punjab the role of the public funded schools acquire greater significance in realisation of the goals of universal secondary education. The newly established Adarsh Vidyalayas in Punjab under the public-private arrangement is likely to become elitist and would soon be catering to a select few, given the history of social dynamics and educational development in India. There is no substitute to common public education system as this alone would remain accessible and affordable to all sections of society.

1.10. Teacher & Teaching

1.10.1. There is enough evidence to suggest that the number of teachers in government secondary schools have been continuously declining while there has been multifold increase in enrolment. It is rather astonishing to find that the average number of teachers per school in Punjab stood at 5, while the educational needs of learners at this level would require more than a dozen per school. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure Table 9

presents some important teacher-related parameters for the districts of Punjab.

1.10.2. Nearly 513 (10 percent) of secondary schools in Punjab are without a teacher. Another 478 had just one teacher. Thus out of 3119 schools run by the dept of education in Punjab one third had one or teacher at all. In some districts such as Mansa over one thirds of all secondary schools did not have a teacher at all. The central question is why the government has not been able to rationalise the distribution of teachers?

1.11. Quantity and Quality are Reciprocal

1.11.1. It may be amply clear from the aforesaid discussion that quantity of educational infrastructure and quality of education have a reciprocal relationship. Schools need teachers in adequate numbers and other facilities such as buildings, classrooms, teaching aids, library, laboratories, furniture, toilets, drinking water, playgrounds, gymnasium, art and craft rooms, auditorium and several others are essential ingredients which every child would need for her overall and comprehensive development. These constitute non-negotiable agenda of educational priorities in India and Punjab.

1.11.2. There is also an urgent need to identify and close unrecognised schools, which are no better than tutorial shops responsible for the deteriorating standards of overall education in Punjab. The menace of such shops is rather serious in Punjab and almost all are run under political patronage.

1.12. Governance: SDCs, PTAs & NGO

1.12.1. There is an urgent need to appoint a task-force to examine the prevailing governance structure in public funded institutions.

- One of the serious problems of governance is the overarching powers of the district education department, which as the state of education amply suggests, operates on non-educational

priorities. An example of which is the secondary and senior secondary schools in Punjab.

- PTAs need to be revamped by attaching an experienced NGO having a track record of working in the field of education, which will assist and mediate between the rural uneducated parents and the schools.
- All public and private schools need to be brought within the ambit of RTI and educational grievance redressal mechanism that needs to be created as an independent body in each district.
- Instead of creating new model schools the effort of the state government in Punjab should be to strengthen and expand the existing secondary and higher secondary schools.
- The expected goals and objectives of model schools can be more rationally realized by appointing a distinguished university / college teacher as subject mentors. This can be carried out in a decentralised manner through nominations made by the School development committees in consultation with DIETs.

1.12.2. One of the fundamental problems of Indian education system has been the lack of integration of vocational training with the mainstream education system. It is high time that ways and means are found to integrate vocational training with mainstream schools and colleges. This is likely to make secondary education more attractive and serve as a launching pad for lower and middle range technological manpower, which is urgently needed in the fast changing economic and technological scenario.

1.13. Recommendations for Policy Framework

1.13.1. Secondary school education is situated at the centre of the quintessential backward and forwards linkage in the educational structure and therefore requires special and focused attention towards mitigating the problems and developing a system that would progressively contribute towards development and growth of rational knowledge, science and technology.

1.13.2. The following recommendations may be considered on priority to inform future policy on secondary and higher secondary education in Punjab.

- As noted above that in India we have fast tediously followed the colonial four tiered structure of school education, each divorced

and delinked with one another due more to educational logic and more due to administrative and political convenience. It is time that secondary and higher secondary schools are also integrated into single entities as it would prove educationally, financially and administratively beneficial.

- Vocational education should be made an integral component of school curriculum with openings and opportunities for diversification and further development of skills in specific trades.
- As noted above that Punjab has done reasonably well insofar as transition to secondary school education is concerned but higher drop outs among urban boys in particular is a matter to grave concern, which could prove detrimental to the overall economic development of the state. It was also noted that participation of weaker sections, especially the SCs and households belonging to the bottom 60 per cent of the consumption quintiles was significantly lower than that of all India. This may prove a serious challenge in the process of achieving the goals of universal secondary education in the state. It is therefore suggested that the government of Punjab accord top most priority to developing a comprehensive scholarship system to retain students and help them in their future growth. It may not be out of place to mention that Punjab has done poorly in disbursement of scholarships both at the school and college levels. In Chapter I Section II-Annexure table C stands evidence to this issue.

Section III

1.14. The Status of Higher Education in Punjab: Directions for Reforms⁵

1.14.1. Issues & Concerns

1.14.2. The role of higher education in the context of a transitional society and economy such as India has been adequately documented in literature. The XIth Five Year Plan recognized that India's higher education suffered from low enrolment, wide socio-religious and regional inequalities, fast declining and poor quality of infrastructure, instruction and research, besides weak employment linkages of courses and their relevance in the context of the emerging manpower needs. It further noted that India's gross enrolment ratio (GER) of 12.4 in the post-higher secondary education was too low compared to 23% of the world average or 36.5% for the countries in transition. GER for the developed countries were nearly 4.5 times higher at 54.6 per cent. In order to achieve the GER of 21 per cent by the end of the 12th plan, India needed to increase enrolment in higher education at 9 per cent per annum so as to register GER of 15 per cent by the end of the 11th plan i.e. 2011-12.

1.14.3. The task ahead is very challenging and ambitious. But India also has the distinct opportunity given the demographic reality of her young population. India's higher education sector needs urgent and speedy expansion, restructuring and reforms so as to tackle systemic bottlenecks and putting the higher education sector on the trajectory of growth and diversification, which can drive economic development and social progress in the next two decades. The National Knowledge Commission (NKC) has endorsed the framework adopted by the government of India to make the higher education sector in particular, which call for expansion with equity, inclusiveness and excellence through innovation and application in agriculture, industry, environment and society. NKC has thus recommended massive expansion of the higher education sector, increased public funding and diversified sources of financing, reforms in university curricula, structures of governance, promote enhanced quality. It is also of the

⁵This section has been prepared by Prof. Sachidanand Sinha with inputs from Dr. Ranjit Singh Ghuman.

view that the regulatory mechanisms will have to be reworked so as to harness the potentials of the higher education sector vis-à-vis society in general and industry in particular.

1.14.4. The education sector in India both at the school and higher education levels have been largely expanded due to public spending, though the private initiatives have not been totally absent. In a way, one can say that it has been a significant co-traveler since the colonial times. However, the educational structure inherited in the independence India was heavily lopsided and geared towards meeting the educational needs of the affluent sections in a highly unequal and stratified social and economic environment. There was an urgent need to correct those imbalances. The public sector thus played an important role in educational expansion at all levels. The role of the state governments became crucial in the federal political structure of the country.

1.14.5. Ever since the economic reforms began in India in the early 1990s, the size and social composition of the middle-classes has undergone significant change. The demands for higher education courses in the overall environment of the growing culture of entrepreneurship has accelerated the pace and diversification of private spending in the country. Absence of any significant expansion in the public sector created space for the growth of public providers in higher education.

1.14.6. According to the World Bank (2000), higher education system consists of three basic elements: (i) the individual higher education institutions (public and private, whether profit or non-profit; academic and vocational; undergraduate and graduate; onsite and distance based, etc.) including their faculties, students, physical resources, missions, and strategic plans; (ii) the organisations that are directly involved in financing, managing, or operating higher education institutions, comprising a range of both public and private bodies; and (iii), the institutions (the formal and informal rules) that guide institutional and individual behaviour and interactions among the various actors. Under the GATS regime, an individual country's tertiary education system, and for that matter even the primary and secondary education system is going to be closely linked/integrated at the global level.

- 1.14.7. The paradigm shift under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) brought education in the purview of World Trade Organization (WTO). Education, being a service, is now being governed by the basic rules of GATS, viz; national and most favoured nation (MFN) treatment to all the foreign institutions of education. Under the WTO regime, every country's education system is going to be closely linked at the global level. A country can supply its education service through four modes. They are: cross-border supply; consumption abroad; commercial presence in the territory of any other member country; and presence of natural persons of a member country in the territory of any other member.
- 1.14.8. The recent reforms initiated in India have brought out an unprecedented demand for skilled workforce relevant to the needs of industrial and business sectors. This has generated a considerable pressure on the government to reform the higher education sector so as to make it 'demand driven' for meeting the emerging needs of the economy and to keep its highly skilled and qualified people within the country. NKC and the Yashpal Committee Reports have the proposed overarching changes towards widespread reforms in the education sector in India.
- 1.14.9. The recent decades have seen massive expansion of the private sector in the field of education though public spending too has been increasing. While this has certainly led to exponential growth of educational institutions and enrolment at all levels, it has also raised several questions pertaining to access, equity and inclusion of socially and economically deprived sections of India. The central government too has extended its support in a significant way to support the initiatives of the state governments through a series of initiatives such as the SSA, RMSA, setting up new central universities, IITs, NIITs, IIMs, model colleges in low GER districts, and several other schemes and programmes through the UGC, MHRD, Ministries of social justice and empowerment, minority affairs, tribal affairs and the department of science and technology. The central government is seized with process of setting up a new regulatory framework for improved governance and restructuring of the higher education sector. All these are in the pipeline and realization of the objectives will depend on how the central and state governments mobilize the necessary resources and how the much talked about public-private partnership translates in the years to come.

1.14.10. The history of higher education in Punjab has been rich, though its expansion and accessibility has remained rather limited. GER for Punjab has been steadily increasing but remains below the national average as per the latest 64th round NSSO statistics for 2007-08. This recent round provides indications to the fact that the state has been moving fast enough to catch up with the all-India average, though it was significantly lower in the earlier rounds of the NSSO. On the supply side, the state has 3 main universities of general education and research in liberal arts, science and commerce, besides a university each for agriculture education and research, technology and health sciences. Given the experiences of other states in India the pace of expansion of the university and college system in the state has been rather slow. In the last five years activities for 3 more new universities have been initiated. This will take the total count to about 9 in the years to come. A few more educational institutions have acquired the status of deemed-to-be-universities, thus taking the current number to about a dozen. But the deemed universities are rather unitary in nature and cater to a tiny percentage of enrolment. As per the latest information available there are 55 government degree colleges in the state. Another 136 are aided by the government while about 188 are fully private degree colleges. The state is likely to establish 13 new model colleges in the low GER districts in future.

The state of Punjab, in the last two decades, has been taken over by the storm of private professional and technical institutions, largely due to paucity of public funding. There were just 13 recognized professional, medical and technical colleges in 1971. This rose to 19 in 1991. After 1991, the number increased to 106 in 2001 and to 184 by the end of 2005; registering 14 times growth during 1971-2005.

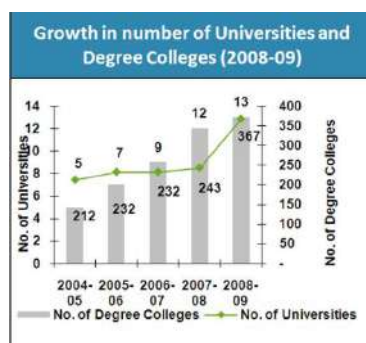


Fig.1

1.14.11. The structure of professional education in the state has also undergone epochal transformation. In 1971, medical colleges formed the bulk of the professional colleges with engineering, MBA and MCA having little share in among the institutions. The scenario has changed with engineering taking over the first rank, followed closely by the business and computer schools. Nursing, law and pharmacy have emerged to be the front-runners in health sciences; though a separate university was established to promote medical colleges in the state. As most of them are operating on the basis of private funding, it has serious implications for equity and access issues in professional education, which is fast becoming beyond the reach of the common students.

1.14.12. Teachers form the most important section of the education system at all levels. Well qualified and motivated teachers can transform the learning environment in spite of shortage of educational facilities and resources. Interestingly, over 50 per cent of teaching posts in Punjab colleges and universities are lying vacant for years due to a variety of reasons. The worst affected are the government colleges. Though the share of government colleges in total enrolment was about 28 per cent, these along with the aided colleges took care of about 90 per cent of all enrolment in the stream of general degree colleges. If one compared the all-India benchmarks of reasonably good quality colleges, Punjab fared very poorly on most counts of college infrastructure and supply of well qualified teachers.

1.14.13. Government and aided colleges have been suffering from paucity of funds for a long time now. The relative autonomy of the private aided colleges has permitted them to develop mechanism to introduce self-financing courses and add-on courses for which fees were paid separately by the students. The government colleges have suffered on both counts. Acute shortage of teachers gave them little space to diversify, and in turn they became relatively poorer to even keep up with the maintenance of buildings and facilities. The crises in public funded institutions have become multi-faceted and they need to be attended urgently.

1.15. Enrolment in Higher Education

- 1.15.1. The post-higher secondary or higher education included all such courses degree, diploma and certificate courses in which a person is admitted after completing higher secondary. These include general degree courses in science, arts and commerce; professional courses such as law, BBA, MBA and education, technical courses such as BTech/MTech, BArch, BCA/MCA, agricultural technology etc; and medical education including nursing, pharmacy, physiotherapy, dental and a wide range of undergraduate non-degree courses at it is, polytechnic etc.
- 1.15.2. According to the NSSO estimates for 2007-08, about 4.72 lakh students were enrolled in post-higher secondary education in Punjab. In terms of GER it was 10.6 for men and 12.7 for women. These values were significantly lower than the national average for boys (15.6), but a shade better for women (12.0). Both men and women did better than their all-India counterparts in terms higher GER in diploma courses. GER for degree courses in rural and urban areas were also found to be lower than the national average with urban boys and girls doing much worse than their all-India counterparts. It may be further noted that GER for men in Punjab has remained more-or-less stagnant during 2000-2008, while for women there has been a marginal increase. GER for women as per the NSSO 60th round for 1999-2000 was higher than that of men in Punjab.
- 1.15.3. Insofar as the position of Punjab with respect to other states of India was concerned, GER for boys recorded much higher values for Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Kerala, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, J&K, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, UP and West Bengal among others.
- 1.15.4. Enrolment profile by socio-religious groups: The empirical knowledge of socio-religious disparities in the levels of access to higher education informs the objectives of inclusive policy. India is indeed a land of diversities. The country is a home to almost all religious persuasions in the world that has evolved over the rigid system of caste-based social stratification. Although caste is predominantly a Hindu phenomena it has not left followers of non-

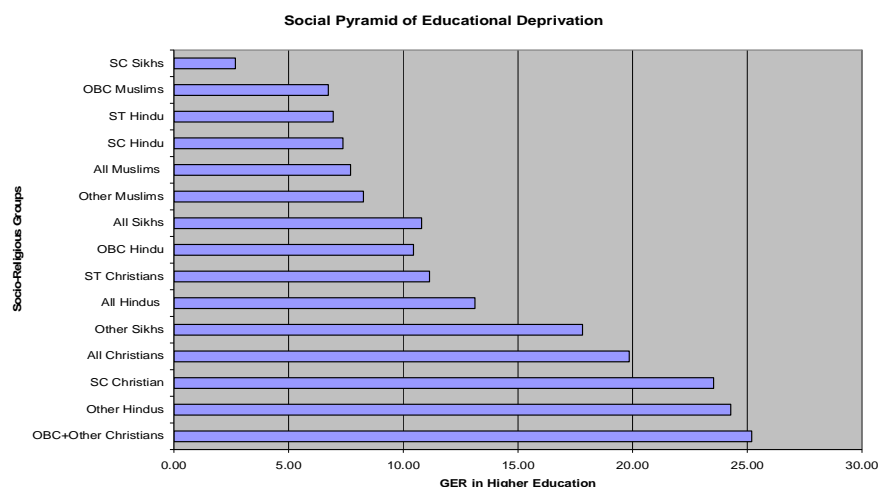
Hindu religions untouched. In spite of having begun as social reform movements within the larger Hindu society Buddhism, Jainism and Sikhism too have not succeeded in eradicating the caste-based system of social organization among its followers, although they have an autonomous identity of their own.

- 1.15.5. Caste has been so deeply entrenched in Indian society that it not only embraces but also affects almost every aspect of social and economic life. Educational disparities among the socio-religious groups in the levels of attainments and enrolments are as significantly pronounced as the patterns of land ownership.
- 1.15.6. The aggregated picture of socio-religious groups for India (fig 2) as a whole based on the 61st round of NSSO (2005-05) shows that the GER for the Christians was the highest with Hindus following way behind. GER for the Sikhs; a majority of whom lived in the relatively prosperous state of Punjab and adjoining areas of Haryana, Delhi, Himachal and north-western Himalayan foothills of Uttaranchal, was not observed to be very bright as they were barely 2.5 percentage points above the Muslims (7.7%). The 61st round data provided little scope to decipher GER for the Buddhists. However, one may note that in 1999-00 round GER for the Buddhists was higher than that of all Hindus, but significantly behind the Christians. Both the tribal component within the Buddhist population as well as the Scheduled Castes reported higher GER than the Hindus.
- 1.15.7. The religious identities may be monolithic but it is far from homogeneous as various forms of social and economic stratifications, sect-based and linguistic ethnicities may simultaneously co-exist as subsets; on occasions some of these may acquire autonomous entities due to reconfiguration of socio-political and cultural processes. But the fundamental difference due largely to caste-based and occupation-based segmentation predominantly in rural areas cutting across religion is not hard to decipher. Besides the largest proportion of the Scheduled Castes among the Hindus, Sikhs and Buddhists; tribes among the Christians, one may also find a significant chunk of other backward classes (OBCs) among all religious groups and particularly among the Muslims. In other words, while castes and educationally and economically backward classes cut across religious identities, religion and backwardness are subsets of social groups for whom

various forms of affirmative policy instruments have been placed under the statutory provisions of the Constitution of India. It needs no labour to emphasize that education in India, both in the past as well as in the contemporary times has largely remained the prerogative of the high castes, both in rural and urban areas. Therefore the magnitude of social disparities governing the profile of enrolment in higher education makes it imperative that the effects of backwardness either on account of economic or social exclusion, imbedded in the theory and practice of caste or both implicit in the framework of the OBCs, as well as the effect of religion is isolated in order to arrive at the real differentials in higher education in India.

1.15.8. The figure below provides a window to the nature of enrolment disparities by socio-religious groups in India. It is instructive to note that in the context of the Sikhs, samples of which were drawn by the NSSO predominantly from Punjab can be divided into three categories- all Sikhs, SCs among Sikhs and, the non-scheduled Sikh population. The figure reveals that SC Sikhs were at the bottom of the social profile of educational deprivation. In other words, SC Sikhs had a much lower GER than even the Hindu SCs. The GER for the non-scheduled Sikhs 'other Sikhs' in the diagram below were little behind all Christians-their counterparts among the Hindus showing far better enrolment ratios in post-higher secondary education.

Figure 2



(Source: Sachidanand Sinha & Ravi S Srivastava (2008), op.cit.)

1.15.9. In Chapter I Section III-Annexure Table 3 corroborates the observations made above. SCs in Punjab belong to the bottom five states of India which recorded GER of less than 4.0 in graduate and above classes for males and females. In fact, SCs in Punjab at 3.5 are way behind Bihar, UP, MP, and Andhra Pradesh, which are generally referred to as societies that are more caste-ridden than Punjab. The gap between the GER for the non-scheduled (Sikhs & Hindus) may be observed to be very wide for both men and women. OBCs too in Punjab have done poorly in comparison to the all-India OBCs. Among the major states OBCs in Punjab occupied the lowest rank. The profile of enrolment in higher education for rural and urban Punjab is presented in the two tables (In Chapter I Section III-Annexure tables 4a & b). Thus, it may be said that although Punjab lagged behind most of the major states in India in the context of enrolment in higher education, its enrolment profile is ridden with wide social and economic disparities. The observations above have serious and detrimental consequences in the context of social mobility.

1.15.10. The non-inclusive character of higher education in Punjab is further reinforced as one takes a look at the level of participation of persons belonging to various per capita consumption expenditure quintiles, which can be taken as a measure of income poverty. While poverty adversely affects participation in education in general, and higher education in particular, it is rather surprising to note that participation of children from the bottom 20 % of the (MPCE) quintile is conspicuously absent at all levels of post-secondary education in Punjab. The comparable class elsewhere in the country has gradually found access to higher secondary and college education. In fact, the gap between Punjab and all-India figures in each consumption quintile is clearly noticeable, with some enrolment in higher education, in the case of Punjab, becoming visible only in the top two quintiles. Here again men in Punjab lagged behind their counterparts elsewhere in India while women in the top quintile did much better than the rest in the country.

1.15.11. The inferences are that given the structure and growth of higher education institutions in Punjab, which has come to be heavily loaded in favour of the private aided and unaided degree colleges and purely self-financed private professional and technical colleges,

persons belonging to a wide cross section of social and economic categories found it beyond their means to access higher education. If one were to compare the contemporary situation with that of the 1990s, the indications are that the participation of poor in higher education has declined over the years in Punjab. Amresh Dubey (2008;UGC 11th plan report, op.cit) has noted that GER for the poor SC and non-scheduled populations, though significantly lower than the all-India value, did register some increase during the 1990s, but their absence as per the recent NSSO data is an indication of exclusionary consequences of the state government's policy of increased privatisation of higher education in Punjab. This is an area of major concern.

- 1.15.12. An exercise carried out by the author for the UGC for indentifying educationally backward districts in the country, which was based on the analysis of the population census 2001 and directory of colleges prepared by the UGC, identified 13 out of 17 districts of Punjab as educationally backward. In these districts GER was found to be lower than the national average of 12.4. In as many as 5 districts the GER value ranged between 6 and 9. These 13 districts have been identified for location of 13 model colleges under central-state partnership to boost the level of overall enrolment. In this context, it may be asked as to whether establishing new colleges and universities is the correct policy to promote higher education in the backward or educationally lagging behind districts or the need is to identify the critical areas of gap and strengthen the existing educational institutions and infrastructure so as to encourage exponential growth and diversification in educational attainments?

1.16. Educational Institutions in the Tertiary Sector:

- 1.16.1. In Punjab higher education has a very long historical past with a strong colonial legacy. However, its expansion had been very limited and elite oriented. Its accessibility and affordability to the general masses was highly marred, on the one hand, by the supply constraints (very few institutions in urban locations) and, on the other, by the poor socio-economic conditions of people.
- 1.16.2. After Independence, the Union as well as provincial governments started allocating a sizeable proportion of public funds to establish

new higher education institutions in the country. Consequently, enrolment in higher education institutions in Punjab also increased at a higher speed. The structure of higher education developed in the Punjab state mainly followed the national pattern of imparting higher education in the general (Arts, Science, Commerce and Home Science), professional and technical subjects through the universities and their affiliated colleges. Many research studies reveal that the state government has allocated more funds to higher education during the 1970s and mid-1980s (Gill, Singh and Brar, 2005) and the budgetary expenditure on the general education in the state was quite high (Ghuman, Singh and Brar, 2005).

1.16.3. In Chapter I Section III- Annexure Table 6 presents the evolution of higher education in Punjab. There were 188 colleges (62 rurally located colleges; 32.98 per cent) in Punjab in 1981. Their number rose to 202 (67 rurally located colleges; 33.17 per cent) in 1991, which further increased to 524 (204 rurally located colleges; 38.93 per cent) during 2006-07. It means a large number of the colleges in the state were established during 1991-2006. And, large majority of them came up in the urban areas. The expansion of higher education during the latter period mainly came in professional and technical education and that, too, in the private sector.

1.16.4. The state of Punjab has a number of universities imparting higher education in general, professional and technical courses. These are: Punjab Agricultural University (PAU), Ludhiana; Punjabi University (PUP) Patiala; Guru Nanak Dev University, (GNDU) Amritsar; Punjab Technical University (PTU) Jalandhar; Baba Farid University of Health Science (BFUHS), Faridkot; Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University (GADVAU), Ludhiana. These universities are funded by the government of Punjab. However, the government funding, these days, is not able to cover even the 20 per cent of their budgets. The Rajiv Gandhi National University of Law, Punjab, Patiala is partially funded by the Union Government and partially by the government of Punjab. Thapar University, Patiala is mainly funded privately whereas Lovely Professional University, Phagwara is a purely private university. Sant Longowal Institute of Engineering and Technology, Longowal is a deemed university and is mainly funded by the Union Government. The Central University of Punjab, Bathinda has been recently established by the Union Government. Punjab University, Chandigarh, though situated in Chandigarh has its

affiliated colleges in Punjab. The Union Government has also announced to set up a world class university in Punjab near Amritsar. It is, thus, clear that the state of Punjab has all types of higher education institutions, (importing education in diverse) streams. The PUP, GNDU, PTU, BFUHS and PU are all affiliating universities and all the colleges in the state are affiliated to one or the other university. The affiliating jurisdiction of the PUP, GNDU and PU is confined to specified districts of Punjab. The affiliating jurisdiction of the PTU and BFUHS is the whole of Punjab. It is significant to note that these two universities have been simply the examining bodies, so far. They did not have their own faculty or teaching and research departments.

- 1.16.5. In Chapter I Section III- Annexure Table 7a&b shows that there were about 305 colleges in 2004 imparting education in various courses. Out of these about 46 or 15 % were managed by the state government, 50 % were private aided colleges, while another 15% were unaided private colleges. Information about 38 institutions with regard to the nature of their management was not available from the UGC document. However, through exclusion process, considering that the list of the government colleges and government aided colleges were verifiable from the records, one may safely decipher that the share of unaided private colleges in Punjab could well have been about 27%.
- 1.16.6. In Chapter I Section III- Annexure table 7a gives the impression that about 77 percent of all types of colleges were under private management. Here it is important to note the distinction between private aided and unaided institutions. Earlier, besides setting up colleges directly under the control, management and funding of institutions, governments used to extend considerable help to private initiatives in higher education by helping them set up institutions and also meet the expenditure on salary account. Such institutions, established with or without government support but drew resources from the government to meet expenditure on salary and other few items, such as grants for setting up library, laboratories, hostels etc, but under private management are referred to as private aided institutions. These are by all means public funded institutions and are characteristically similar to the government institutions and very much unlike fully private

institutions that did not draw any financial support from the government. Thus clubbing private aided prior the late 1990s and early 2000s would not be appropriate. One can therefore suggest that the private-aided and government colleges in Punjab together accounted for the bulk (approx. 73%) of all institutions of higher education, for which funding came from the public sector only.

1.16.7. However, the scenario has changed over the years since liberalization. Now, the private-aided colleges in most of the states including Punjab are increasingly getting smaller financial support from the state governments and thus have become more like private unaided institutions. They now enjoy greater autonomy and freedom in matters of tuition fees, developmental charges, courses and management. Most of these institutions today in Punjab have started self-financing courses and offer several job-oriented courses for which they charge hefty fees from students. Thus the higher education scene in Punjab has drastically transformed, more significantly in professional, technical and medical streams as the major bulk were now under private management and funding.

1.16.8. In 2006-7, as one may note from table 7b in Chapter I Section III-Annexure, the share of government colleges in Punjab has remained unchanged at about 15%. The private (aided & unaided) sector now account for over 85 % all of colleges of all types. The increase has been even more spectacular in professional, technical and medical streams; and with the changed character of the private unaided degree colleges in liberal arts, science and commerce the spectre of privatisation of higher education in Punjab appears to be nearly complete.

1.16.9. College-Population Index: As noted above that the educationally backward districts report of the UGC identified 13 out of 17 districts of Punjab as educationally backward based on the GER in higher education. It observed that a large number of districts having low GER in the country were also deficient in terms of availability of colleges of general education. It is rather well known that the process of establishing colleges are not governed by any standard norm and that given the nature of demand for higher education most of the colleges are likely to be located in and around urban areas or nodal centres leaving vast rural areas inadequately served. The geographical spread to enrolment is also associated with the

development of transport network, which in the context of Punjab is of vital importance. In the absence of any standard norm, the distribution of colleges, due to the sheer number of the private institutions is likely to create regional imbalances, which may inhibit growth and spread of enrolment, due to lack of educational opportunity. The UGC report calculated an index of institutional availability for all the districts of India for 2002-04. The index is called college-population index (C-PI) and is a simple measure of number of colleges in each district upon population in the relevant age-group (18-23), multiplied by one lakh. This index may serve as a norm for assessment of educational opportunity.

1.16.10. C-PI for India stood at 12 colleges per lakh population in the age-group 18-23 years. C-PI was also worked out for different streams of colleges, viz. general education, professional, technical, medical and others. The index for Punjab at 10.7 for all types of colleges was found to be lower than the all-India value. Availability index or C-PI for general education in Punjab was 6.8, professional 1.7, technical 1.2, while the comparable values for agriculture and allied sciences and medical sciences stood at .1 each. Barring technical colleges C-PI in Punjab was lower than the national values. Punjab seems to have defaulted on this account as well. Inter-district disparities in Punjab based on the district configuration of 2001 are clearly visible from table 8 in Chapter I Section III-Annexure.

1.17. Quality of Higher Education

1.17.1. Ensuring quality in the context of rapid expansion of higher education is a major challenge before the planners, policy makers and all stake holders. It has generally been said that the deteriorating quality of higher education is largely associated with expanding access. Though there is little empirical evidence to support this opinion, it may not be out of place to reckon that the overall declining standards of higher education in particular are closely linked with declining standards of governance in general and commercialization of education and inability of the governments to ensure availability of educational infrastructure as per the stated norms and quality benchmarks. It is well known that deterioration of quality is most glaring in the state universities in general, and at the undergraduate level in affiliated colleges in particular. While

great deal has been said in favour of introducing some mechanism of accreditation so as to monitor quality in higher education, not much attention has been drawn to the fact that over the years one of the major causes of declining standards of quality could be directly associated with perpetual shortage of qualified teachers in universities and colleges. This report devotes some space to this issue below in relation to both quantity and quality of teaching staff as well as availability of educational infrastructure in higher education.

1.17.2. Supply constraints have been noted above with reference to college availability index (C-PI). It is equally important to note that in spite of phenomenal expansion (though largely due to commercialisation and privatisation of technical and professional education), our colleges have to bear with large size of enrolment. In most of the old and reputed colleges the classrooms are crowded. On the other hand, there are colleges that have fewer students enrolled, and some may not even be equipped well as viable centres of higher education. A study by the author for the UGC has revealed that in 2004 the average size of enrolment per college in the major states of India varied from 647 in Karnataka to over 2000 in Bihar and Jharkhand. In Punjab it was observed to be in the region of 1200 per college, though the NAAC accredited A-grade colleges were even more crowded with over 2000 enrolled per college. This is a huge size for an undergraduate institution to handle as crowded classrooms mean lower availability of space for any meaningful academic interaction between teachers and students. It also implies that other curricular and extra-curricular infrastructure and resources would come under severe stress and would eventually fail to deliver. This is particularly true of science laboratories, libraries, hostels and even classrooms. The case of teaching staff needs some attention here.

1.17.3. Teachers in higher education: The findings of a study of over 1400 NAAC accredited institutions could be instructive. The table 9 in Chapter I Section III- Annexure for all-India and Punjab are presented below in this context. As per the quality benchmark arrived at by the UGC, A-grade universities had over 400 sanctioned positions per university. As against this the average for all universities stood at 287. Out of which a large number of posts

were reported vacant for years together. Incidentally, there seems to be a good correlation between the number of reserved teaching posts for the scheduled communities and percentage of vacant positions. Against the benchmark of 10 teachers per university department, the average for all universities was found to be below 8.

- 1.17.4. If this is the state in university teaching departments then the condition of the undergraduate colleges could be even worse.
- 1.17.5. As against the quality benchmark for India of 78 teachers per college, the average for all colleges in India was found to be 47. The comparable figure for Punjab stood far below at 14 in 2005. The government and unaided colleges of Punjab were worst-off with 19 and 3 teachers per college respectively. The private aided colleges have done relatively better with 35 teachers per college, but even this figure was below the all India average and far deficient in relation to quality benchmark.
- 1.17.6. Among the 64 sample colleges for which NAAC accreditation were available with the author, one may observe that those with A-grade were above the national benchmark at 84, though colleges with lower grades performed miserably. The percentage of permanent teachers did not vary much across colleges with different grades, but teachers with Ph.D were found to be significantly higher in A-grade colleges.
- 1.17.7. It is significant to mention that a large number of faculty positions are lying vacant in the state universities, government and government aided colleges. About 26 to 30 per cent posts of teachers in Guru Nanak Dev University have been lying vacant during the last five years (in Chapter I Section III- Annexure Table 11). The percentage of vacant post of teachers in Punjabi University varied between 32 per cent and 45 per cent, during 2004-05 and 2008-09.
- 1.17.8. In Chapter I Section III- Annexure Table 12 presents the faculty position in the universities which are directly related to the rural and agricultural economy of Punjab. Nearly 29 per cent to 39 per cent positions of teachers have been lying vacant in Punjab

Agricultural University, Ludhiana, during 2004-05 and 2008-09. In the case of Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, the proportion of vacant posts of teachers varied between 19 per cent and 34 per cent. During the last three years, the proportion of vacant positions of teachers has been between 33 per cent and 34 per cent.

- 1.17.9. The position in the government and government-aided private colleges is even worse. For the last so many years there has been no recruitment of teachers on regular basis in the government colleges. As a result, nearly 25-40 per cent positions of teachers have been lying vacant. Many of them have been filled in by part-time contract/guest faculty. These teachers are grossly under-paid but have to do full teaching work. Nearly 50 per cent of the government colleges in Punjab are without regular principals (Tribune, 2010). The situation in government-aided-private colleges is rather worse. For the last so many years, the government has imposed a ban on the filling in of covered posts of teachers in such colleges. All such colleges, established after 1981, are not getting any government grant-in-aid. Similarly, new posts of teachers created after 1981 have not been covered by grant-in-aid. These colleges have filled in most of the vacant/newly created posts by part-time/contract /guest faculty at a much less salary. Such a high proportion of vacant positions have adversely affected the quality of teaching and research.

1.18. Public Expenditure on Education in Punjab

- 1.18.1. The declining quality of higher education in the state of Punjab, as is true elsewhere in the country, is directly associated with public spending. It has already been observed that a significantly large percentage of teaching positions in the state are lying vacant for years. The educational infrastructure in the state too has to suffer a lot due to neglect by the state and a paradigm shift in favour of privatisation of education. Both are detrimental, as the evidence above suggests, to access to quality higher education in Punjab.
- 1.18.2. The low amount of resource mobilisation has been a serious constraint on state's capacity to intervene in the development process and give the desired direction to it. It has, often, resulted in

an ever declining allocation of resources even to the vital sectors, especially the social sector, of the economy. In Chapter I Section III-Annexure Table 13 presents such a scenario since the latter half of the 1960s (coinciding with the reorganization of Punjab and the advent of green revolution). The expenditure share of general services in the state Budget (on revenue account) has substantially increased from 1990s. It varied between 35 and 40 per cent in the earlier period and was quite low (23.40 per cent) in 1991-92. In 2000-01 it shot up to about 58 per cent and to 59 per cent in 2003-04. The share of general services as a percentage of NSDP increased from 3.18 in 1970-71 to 4.84 in 1991-92 and spurted up to 13 per cent in 2003-04. It, however, declined to 10.80 per cent during 2005-06.

- 1.18.3. As compared to it, the percentage share of expenditure on social services declined substantially since 1980s, from around 31 per cent in 1970-71 to 22.47 per cent in 1991-92. It went up to 25.55 per cent in 2000-01 but declined again to 21.45 per cent in 2003-04. During 2005-06, it declined to 19.74 per cent. In the process, education and health became the victims. The share of education declined from 22 per cent in 1970-71 to 13.55 per cent in 1991-92 and to 13.25 per cent in 2003-04 and further to 12.57 per cent in 2005-06. Such a sharp decline in expenditure on education would have very serious implications for the future growth and development of the state of Punjab. The share of education is not looking up even in the latter years. Similarly, expenditure on health decreased from 7.24 per cent in 1970-71 to 4.32 per cent in 1991-92 and to 3.88 per cent in 2003-04 and further to 3.82 per cent during 2005-06. It is further declined during the succeeding years. The public expenditure on education, sports and culture, as a percentage of NSDP, however, increased from 2.18 per cent in 1970-71 to 3.08 per cent in 1980-81 and further to 3.93 per cent in 2003-04. It, however, declined to 2.35 per cent during 2005-06. Clearly, it is much below the ideal 6 per cent level. The share of health sector in state's NSDP always remained less than one per cent, except for 1980-81, throughout this period. It is clear from the foregoing analysis that education and health are sliding down on the state's priorities, during all these years. There is, thus, an urgent need to raise the share of social services (particularly education and health), both in the state budget and in the NSDP.

- 1.18.4. The share of economic services in state budget witnessed an upward trend (from 30 per cent in 1967-68 to 53 per cent in 1991-92) during 1967-68 to 1991-92, but nose-dived to around 18 per cent in 2000-01. As regards the share of economic services in NSDP, it increased from around 3 per cent in 1970-71 to nearly 11 per cent in 1991-92. However, it again declined to 3.57 per cent in 2000-01 but went up to 4 per cent in 2003-04. It, however, declined to 3.81 per cent during 2005-06.
- 1.18.5. The social and economic services together are, often, categorized as development expenditure. These two heads, together, accounted for 65.26 per cent in 1970-71 and 75.85 per cent in 1991-92. Their share in the state budget, however, substantially decreased, to 43 per cent, in 2000-01 and further to 40 per cent in 2003-04. It did not improve during the latter years. Development expenditure, as percentage share of NSDP, increased from 6 per cent in 1970-71 to 9 per cent in 1980-81 and further increased to 15.7 per cent in 1991-92. It, however, declined to 8.66 per cent in 2000-01. It further declined to 7.51 per cent during 2005-06.
- 1.18.6. It is clear from the foregoing analysis that State's priorities have undergone a sea-change since 1990s, i.e. since the advent of the reform-period. In 1991-92, 60 per cent of state budget was spent on development. The situation totally reversed by the year 2005-06 when around 58 per cent of state budget was spent on general services. There was nearly 8 percentage point increase in the share of general services as percentage of NSDP in 2003-04 as compared to 1991-92. Compared to it, there was about 7 percentage point decline in the share of development expenditure during the same period. Clearly, the state's priorities have been shifted in favour of general services, from social and economic services, ever since the shift in the policy regime in 1991, as far as the expenditure on revenue account is concerned. Such a shift in priority may result in marginalising the already marginalised sections of population.
- 1.18.7. The higher education sector, within the education sector, is facing a serious resource crunch. As a result, the state-funded universities, government colleges and government-aided-private colleges are not able to fill-up their vacant positions and have introduced many self-financing courses. The fee and other charges of these courses are

so high that they are literally beyond the reach of majority of people. The share of universities and higher education in Punjab in government's budgetary allocation for education is very small. Consequently, they are facing a huge budgetary deficit. In Chapter I Section III- Annexure Table 14 reflects on the extremely low share of higher education in the public expenditure on education in Punjab.

- 1.18.8. It is clear from table 14 in Chapter I Section III- Annexure that the share of universities and higher education in the budget allocation for education in Punjab has remained around 10 per cent during 2000-01 and 2005-06. During 2006-07, it declined to 7.34 per cent. The budgeted allocation during 2007-08 was 9 per cent. Clearly, there is a need to allocate a higher share to universities and higher education in Punjab. There is a need to substantially raise the allocation to education (at last it should be doubled), out of which at least 30 per cent should be allocated to universities and higher education. Unless that is done the public-aided universities and other aided institutions of higher education would not be able to sustain and survive.
- 1.18.9. It is significant to note that the National Knowledge Commission's Report (Govt. of India, 2007) has also recommended a higher public spending on higher education. The Commission is of the view that access to higher education for all deserving students must be ensured. This would require well funded scholarship scheme and affirmative action on the part of both government and private sector.
- 1.18.10. In the absence of public funding of higher education or public-aid to private institutions of higher education, the cost of education would have to be met by the students. In view of the ever-rising cost of education the question of affordability has come to acquire the central-stage. Mainly, the private cost (cost to the individual student or to the parents) consists of two types of costs-institutional charges and the incidental charges. The institutional charges are those which the education institution charged from the students in terms of fees and other funds. Apart from the institutional charges, the student has to incur expenses on many other heads, such as, expenditure on books, stationery, transport, boarding or lodging, study for, entertainment, etc., etc., depending on the nature and type of the

course and the institution. All these together comprise incidental charges.

1.18.11. The affordability of the private cost of education by the student (by the parents, as student is invariably not an earning hand) is largely determined by the income of the parents, their past savings and their creditworthiness. By juxtaposing the per student private cost of education on the NSSO (National Sample Survey Organization, Govt. of India) household expenditure data of Punjab, it has been worked out that nearly 40 per cent of the rural households in Punjab cannot afford to bear the private cost of general education (B.A./B.Sc. etc.) even for one child. In the case of urban households, about 31 per cent parents cannot afford to pay the cost of general education, even for a single child.

1.18.12. As regards cost of professional and technical education the affordability condition is at the razor's edge. About 85 per cent households in Punjab cannot afford the cost of higher professional education of a single child, even if they spend their entire income on education. This is something which is not possible by any stretch of imagination. The corresponding proportion in rural area may go well beyond 95 per cent. Many of the courses in medical education (such as MBBS, BDS, BHMS and BAMS) may simply be not in the affordable reach of 90 per cent of urban households and 95 per cent of rural households. It is significant to note that no household can afford to spend its entire income on education of their children. In view of the rising cost of education and increasing cost of living, the affordability question is becoming all the more serious. It is, thus, clear that the existing cost structure of higher education and the existing structure of income distribution would tantamount to exclude a very larger section of Punjab's population from the higher education. The section on enrolment clearly brings this out with the help of the NSSO data for the latest round.

1.18.13. The issue of affordability has also been highlighted by the Yash Pal Committee. The Committee revealed that the quantum of fees charged has no rational basis. The illegal capitation fees range from Rs. 1-10 lakh for the engineering courses; Rs. 20-40 lakh for MBBS courses; Rs. 5-12 lakh for dental courses; and Rs. 30,000-50,000 for courses in arts and science colleges, depending on the demand.

- 1.18.14. As a matter of fact, higher education sector as a whole is facing a serious resource crunch and if this trend continued, these state-funded institutions would head towards their natural death. Significantly, all these universities have been established by the various Acts of the State Assembly where in the State of Punjab has taken the responsibility to give adequate grant-in-aid to these universities. It is disappointing to note that the successive governments in the state have conveniently forgotten the responsibility of the State towards education sector. Such a withdrawal has taken place mainly because of the shift in the government's priorities towards education. Over the last three decades, more particularly during the last two decades, the bureaucracy and political leadership have made an understanding that education is a non-merit and non-public good. Hence there is no need of public funding to this sector. In the process, the share of education in the State for Budget has been shrinking. The lack of financial resources with the government is cited as the main reason for cutting down grant-in-aid to the universities, government and the government-aided colleges.
- 1.18.15. The resource crunch with the government is mainly because of the low-mobilization of resources by the government and the competitive political populism among the political parties. The competitive political populism has been manifesting in non-judicious use of available financial resources and resulting in lower mobilization of resources. The various Finance Ministers in the State of Punjab have been quoted by various news papers that the potentialities to mobilise resources for the state exchequer are much higher than what is being actually mobilized.
- 1.18.16. There is an urgent need to fill in all the vacant posts and create necessary infrastructure in the education sector, including higher education. Change in the attitude towards education, both of the bureaucracy and political leadership, along with the political, would change this seemingly impossible task. As a matter of fact, the strong and vibrant higher education systems in most of the developing countries have been built mainly by the government and with public funds.

1.19. Summary of Findings and Policy Recommendations

- a) Higher education is sine qua non for the holistic development of every society. Availability and access to quality higher education at an affordable cost is imperative to empower the youth in the eligible age group. Punjab would have to make conscious and long-drawn efforts to raise its gross enrolment ratio (GER) in higher education. It continues to be significantly below the national average.
- b) Expansion in the higher education sector in the recent past has been largely due to exponential growth in private professional, technical and medical education. The exorbitantly high fee structure of such colleges have had detrimental consequences on access and equity, especially for the rural economically and socially deprived segments of Punjab population.
- c) The changing policy framework of education in general and higher education in particular have rendered the public institutions helpless due to severe resource crunch. A large proportion of teaching posts in the universities and colleges; particularly in the government and government aided private colleges have remained vacant for years. This has had serious negative implications for the overall quality of higher education.
- d) The status of aided and unaided institutions especially on account of several parameters discussed above is no better. Most of the private colleges lack adequate and well qualified teaching staff. They have diversified their course structure in order to accommodate several self-financing courses, but have done little to develop adequate and commensurate infrastructure. Poorly qualified part-time teachers form the bulk of the teaching faculty in such colleges.
- e) Some universities do not have even teaching and research departments and a solely examination conducting bodies. It is difficult to imagine a university without its own teaching departments, hence little could be expected in terms of standards of the course curriculum, research and innovations that form the cornerstone of higher education.
- f) The vocational segment of higher education needs greater attention in the state as the enrolment figures indicate that an increasing percentage of post-higher secondary enrolment in the state is from this segment. The government needs to take a comprehensive view and allocate adequate resources for the development of the vocational sector in higher education in close association with various sectors of education on the one hand, and the department of industry and labour, on the other.

- g) The government has the primary responsibility to impart education at all the three levels, viz; primary, secondary and tertiary. Education at all the levels in general, and higher education in particular, deserves a public funding to a large extent due to its social benefits, public returns and enormous amount of externalities. As such, public investment in education sector should not be treated as a wasteful expenditure. The government must not withdraw from the education sector considering it a soft-target. The history of economic development of various countries testifies that investment in human capital has played a key role in socio-economic development.
- h) The government must allocate at least six per cent of state's GDP to the education sector and 30 per cent of that should go to the higher education.
- i) The share of education budget in state budget needs to be increased to at least 33 per cent. Out of total budget for education, the share of universities, government colleges and aided private colleges should be specifically raised keeping in view the global demands and resources requirements of these sub-sectors.
- j) Out of the total education budget, some proportion must be reserved exclusively for capital account to create physical infrastructure in the colleges and universities. The share of plan component in education budget should be increased significantly. At the university level, sufficient resources should be provided for funding research and development activities.
- k) The funds collected by the state under education-cess need to be transferred fully to the education sector. Grants and funds to the education sector must be released on priority basis and in advance. The educational institutions should not suffer on account of delays and squeezes in the release of grants-in-aid and other bureaucratic hindrances.
- l) The institutions must make efforts to mobilize resources from sources other than that of students particularly in professional education. The state must ensure that the institutions should not be allowed to recover the capital cost from the students. The benefits any sort of concessions by the private institutions from the State (such as in the Income Tax, Stamp Duty, etc.) be transferred to the students either in the form of creating more facilities and/or in the form of downward adjustment in the fees and funds. Suitable provisions must be made to admit students from the weaker and other disadvantageous sections of the society by creating the provision for free ships, stipends and fellowships.

- m) The present level of fees and funds in higher education is very high in view of the per capita income of the state. The full recovery of even of the recurring cost from students has already made higher education unaffordable to the larger section of population. Professor U.R. Rao Committee Report says that the fees and funds charged from students should not be more than 30 per cent of the per capita income. So, in the case of Punjab, for the year 2007-08, the highest level of fees and funds should not be more than Rs. 14000 (30 per cent of per capita state income) per annum. It is to be noted that in the advanced countries, the students don't bear more than 20 per cent of the recurring cost in the case of state funded universities and not more than 40 per cent in the case of privately funded universities. So, the state should take steps by contributing more to the recurring cost of the universities and colleges in order to lower burden on the knowledge seekers. In the absence of such an effort, higher education would go beyond the reach of 85 per cent to 90 per cent of urban population and 90 to 95 per cent of rural population.
- n) The present practice of freezing the aided posts in the private aided colleges must be stopped with immediate effect. All posts that were either freezed or abolished in the past decade must be revived and filled in immediately. The level of grant-in-aid to private aided colleges must be restored to the earlier level of 95 per cent.
- o) Since there is an organic link among all levels of education- elementary, secondary and tertiary- there is a need to strengthen and improve the quality of education at all the levels. It is recommended that instead of allowing a mushrooming growth of private schools often without social accountability, there is a need to strengthen the existing government and private aided-schools in the rural areas. The private colleges and universities also need to be regulated in the large interest of the society.
- p) There is a strong need to provide special incentives to students from the weaker sections of society that pass out from the rural schools, and get admission in the universities and other prestigious institutions. The state should finance the study cost of such students by creating a special fund, and reimburse the fees, funds and hostel charges of such students to the concerned institutions. Earmark adequate funds to finance the education of weaker and meritorious students from the rural and marginalised sections. At the present level of fee structure, there is a need to spare Rs. 60 crores every year for this purpose. Thus, after five year the government would have to earmark Rs. 300 crore every year. Keeping in view the gains of education, such an amount should not be problem for the government.
- q) Review the requirement of teachers in aided-private colleges and restoration of grant-in-aid to all those posts of teachers which

are cleared by the review committee. Make this a regular feature so that no post in such colleges remains uncovered. The review committee must have a senior faculty member from the universities.

r) The new institutions of higher education should be established within the framework of man-power planning in view of the emerging scenario at the local, national and global levels.

s) The curricula of higher education should be periodically updated keeping in view the changing requirements at local, national and international levels.

t) Quality control of higher education is a sine qua non and all higher education institutions must be regulated on this count. The quality control of higher education must be left to universities with zero political and bureaucratic interference. Research should be adequately funded and monitored. Repetitive and irrelevant research should be discouraged. Research needs to be socially relevant.

u) The functioning of all the education departments in the government dealing with higher education needs to be reviewed regularly so as to re-determine their role and priorities from time to time.

Chapter II

RTI AND INFORMATION DELIVERY SYSTEMS

Transparency in government processes and activities is a vital component of 'inclusive' governance. The purpose of this report is to look into major issues and problems of information delivery under the RTI and to see how access to information can be improved. The report is based on an in house survey of the RTI in Punjab conducted by the PGRC research staff with the help of the State Information Commission (SIC), information on the website of the government (pb.gov.nic) containing information displayed/published by various departments and agencies under Section 4 of the RTI and discussions with the SIC and government officials in the districts and at the state headquarters.

2.1. Information needs of citizens

2.1.1. Access to information is the gateway for various services provided by the public authorities and is a precondition for other governance attributes such as participation and predictability. Information – whether volunteered or given in response to requests, however, has to be delivered in appropriate 'bytes' and packages suitably designed to address the needs of citizens and other public and private entities. It may be appropriate, therefore, to look into the information needs of all stakeholders especially commons citizens and the extent to which the institution of the RTI is effectively addressing them.

(a) Information needs – Need based, basic and regulatory services

As indicated, information needs can differ depends on the specific service and sector. In case of need based and regulatory services, citizens require:

- i) Basic information about the services provided by different public authorities purposes for which they are necessary and information on how to access them. This information package for need based services, social security services, health and education and regulatory services is best delivered through a common platform or portal for all departments provided by the State Government. Citizens would require in respect of transactions for demand driven services, information on 'what' and 'where' issues;
- ii) Information about specific services – 'how to' issues - would include a checklist of applicant's obligations and documentation required and standards of service. This information can be

made available by specific departments/single window information systems.

iii) Information about individual transactions and status thereof.

iv) Information on grievance redress mechanisms.

These sets of information on specific services could be provided, physical/online, on a common government portal as also departmental websites and would make it convenient for citizens to locate, access and avail of specific public services and get involved/participate, as the case may be.

(b) Information needs – ‘Commons’ Public Services

Collective public goods would be mostly related to areas of the “Commons” which are generally described as ‘non rival’ and ‘non excludable’. These are of interest mostly to the public spirited individuals and the NGOs. The information may be specific and unique to different sectors and services – i.e. environment, education etc. The record in respect of relevant information in case of these services is mixed.

This report will focus on the areas of public services where information is demanded by the citizens [Category (a) above]. Information on public goods services in specific sectors is covered in sector specific reports (e.g. Drugs, Food Safety, and Environment) of the Working Group. An attempt has been made however to structure information delivery to address problems common to such services which are mainly of information asymmetry.

2.2. Basic Provisions of the RTI Act

2.2.1. It may be relevant to look into the basic provision of the RTI Act before mentioning the deficiencies in practice. The Right To Information Act (RTI) is now the main institution in India and in the states for delivery of information- voluntary or on demand- to all stakeholders. The RTI provisions for suo motu display of information [Section 4 (i) (b)] appear to be comprehensive and cover all of the major areas of citizen demand and interest even including participatory governance. In addition the section provides for

(a) *suo motu* display of information on staffing, remuneration, budget, concessions and subsidies, all statutes, rules and bye-laws and instructions and norms adopted by the departments

(b) supply of information to citizens on request, on payment of a modest fee

(c) appointment of PIOs (public information officers) and Assistant Public Information Officers (APIO's) by each PA (public authority) to receive applications on their behalf and appointment of appellate officers.

- 2.2.2. The act also provides that every public authority should take steps to provide as much information as possible suo motu to the public so as to minimise their having to file applications under law.

2.3. Status of RTI Implementation In Punjab

The current status of RTI Act implementation can be inferred from the SIC Reports which provide data on all relevant aspects and the state government websites.

2.4. SIC Reports

- 2.4.1. The annual reports of the SIC give some indication of the status of implementation of the RTI in Punjab. Major departments accounting for requests for information are Police, Revenue/District Administration, Rural Development and Panchayats (Annual Report 2006). This analysis is not available in the report for the year 2009. So far as complaints and appeals filed with the SIC are concerned, the annual institution appears to have stabilised around 5000 per annum with the departments of Education, Local Government, Revenue, Rural Development and Panchayats accounting for a majority of cases. Complaints filed in the Commission are 75% of the total number of cases, with appeals accounting for only 25% of the cases with the SIC. The information representing total number of applications filed with the PIOs available with the Commission is not likely to be comprehensive as a large number of public authorities such as Panchayats (over 10000 in number) may not be even providing the required information to the SIC.

- 2.4.2. Some of the problem areas constantly highlighted by the Information Commission, apart from issue of staffing and infrastructure are that; (a) junior officers are appointed as PIOs; (b) the institution of appellate authorities is non-functional. These issues are still not resolved fully.

2.5. Punjab Government Website(s)

The website of Punjab Government which contains information disclosed by different departments u/s 4(1) (b) of the RTI Act gives a picture of uneven compliance with legal provisions by different departments. Most of the departments have disclosed information with respect to all the 16 items covered under Section 4 (1) (b) but the information given is incomplete, sketchy or irrelevant for areas of interests to the public. Information is available on static aspects - pay scales, staff details and duties of staff but information on vital bits of information – norms adopted by the department, lists of recipients of concessions, subsidies, authorisations and meaningful budget details are mostly missing.

2.6. PGRC survey on the RTI in Punjab

The survey was conducted by the Research Staff of the PGRC and was based on:

- (a) Information available in 200 case files decided by the Punjab Information Commission, regarding the time factor involved at different stages of delivery of information and the nature of information asked for
- (b) Interviews of 50 applicants who had filed appeals with the Information Commission. They were contacted on 'first come' basis at the premises of the Punjab Information Commission. Information in respect of the second sub set covered, in addition to the nature of information and transaction cost in terms of time, number of visits and traveling and typing costs etc. Details are in the Report at Annexure.

2.7. Major Issues and Problems

The major problems appear to be:

- (i) **Dysfunctional PIO's:** The PIO system in most of the departments is dysfunctional, imposes very high transaction costs in terms of time and money and is therefore unable to provide meaningful and effective access to citizens. Transaction costs are thus 30 times the official price (fees) for obtaining information. These would be much more if one adds opportunity cost of time -approximately equivalent to wages for 2 working days on average. The SPIO system is evidently dysfunctional and imposes disproportionate costs on citizens who may not have enough money or influence to delegate the activities involved in filing applications/collecting information.

(ii) **Non functioned Appellate System:** Appellate institutions need to be activated and integrated into the RTI system. Bulk of requests relate to issues of misuse of authority/corruption in relation to personnel, financial matters, allotment/lease/(mis) use of public lands and in case of private property, issues of revenue records, availability and accessibility.

(iii) **Information needs not addressed by mandatory disclosure:** Most of the information needs of applicants can easily be addressed through imaginative anticipation and disclosure of appropriate information as these mostly relate to budget and expenditure, details of recipients of government grants and assistance and norms and procedures for citizen services- all areas of information on which the law already requires information to be disclosed.

2.8. 2nd ARC Report on RTI

The 2nd ARC considered various issues and problems concerning authorities under the act, systems of obtaining information and substantive issues relating to information to be provided suo motu and on demand. The recommendations in brief are:

- (a) System of deposit of fees: ARC has recommended that the system should be simplified to provide for acceptance of cash by the PIOs;
- (b) Single window centres at the district level to be declared as APIOs in respect of all departments;
- (c) The district units of different departments could be considered as separate 'public authorities';
- (d) Information to be made public suo motu should be examined every year at appropriate levels in the government to minimize the number of requests for information.

These have been kept in view while making the recommendations.

2.9. Recommendations

After consideration of the problems noticed and suggestions of the applicants and officials, the following recommendations are made to address the issues indicated especially:

- (a) Relevant and required information not provided in mandatory disclosures;
- (b) High transaction costs.

2.10. Suggestions:

- (a) Standardisation of modules for mandatory disclosure of information.
- (b) Revisiting the present practice of appointment of RTI officials.

Addressing information needs thorough mandatory disclosure

The provisions are comprehensive and cover areas of information which are static and routine as well as information of vital interest to individuals and communities and need different presentation and packaging.

(a) Mandatory disclosure of static information

This covers areas of static and routine information such as staff salary, duties on which departments are providing information but the same is not very relevant for a common citizen. The status in respect of these provisions is at table 1 in chapter II-annexure. The departments are providing these routine bits of information but these are not much in demand.

(b) Mandatory disclosure of information in demand

Keeping also in view the present preponderance of requests relating to land, budget/expenditure, contracts/purchase of goods by the public authorities, subsidies and other assistance given especially under social security, *it is suggested that the format of information to be displayed compulsorily by different departments should be reviewed in respect of areas of interest to the citizens, ambiguity removed and standard presentation modules followed for display of information as indicated below for the information in demand.*

(i) Mandatory disclosure of rules, statutes and instructions

Section 4 (i) (b) (v) requires all departments to disclose rules/statutes and instructions etc. These are rarely updated and in any case not properly classified. The departments need to suitably classify them as (a) personnel; (b) financial and (c) specific major citizen related services and (d) programmes.

(ii) Disclosure of information on budget/expenditure

There is a need to devise a common format keeping in view citizen expectations and requirements. It is generally well known that staff salary is a fixed cost and details thereof may not be of much use. It is the capital and non staff expenditure for which

generally information is required and requests are filed. Details thereof however are not made available at present. It is suggested that each department/public authority should lump staff related expenditure together but give details of expenditure on non staff items/programmes/schemes – capital or revenue - costing more than a specified amount (say more than Rs.10 lacs). The format proposed is as per table 2 in chapter II-annexure. Thus for example in case of Social Security department, yearly estimates/expenditure for widow, old age pension etc. would be given separately.

(iii) Mandatory disclosure of information on recipients of Concessions/ Disbursements Section- 4(1)(b) (xii)

This requires details of concessions, lease, allotments etc. to be given by the departments. This is not being disclosed at present but this information is very much in demand. The list of beneficiaries in appropriate format need to be displayed in all these cases and of course, the first step is to digitalise this information. The information can be updated / uploaded monthly and annually if not in real time. In case of pensions and other such individual oriented grants and payments for example, the information can be displayed in the following format for pending applications and for sanctioned cases, classified village, sub-division and district wise (Table 3 & 4 in chapter II-annexure).Such details will cover areas like 'shagun' scheme, widow and old age pensions, green ration card and all other such categories where inclusion is not universal and involves cash or kind payments as entitlement or subsidies.

(iv) Mandatory disclosure of information - Contracts/purchase of goods and services

One of the main areas of information in demand relates to works and goods contracts and purchase of goods and services. No department provide any information on this though in our view this is required to be done under "disbursements" [Section 4 (1) (b) (xiii)]. This will supplement the government initiatives already taken in respect of e-tendering and extend the scope of that transparency to the process of execution of contracts. This needs to be provided in the format shown in table 5 in chapter II- annexure.

(v) Mandatory Disclosure - Norms and standards of service

Section 4 (i) (b) requires norms of various services provided by the PAs to be disclosed. This is not being done at present. This, simply put, means display of citizen charters containing check lists, standards of service such as response time for service delivery etc.

(c) Standard modules for Mandatory disclosure of information

Table 6 in chapter II-annexure gives an abstract of the suggestions for convenience of various departments of the government and provides an indicative list of changes to be made in the present pattern of disclosure of information by the departments, based on the areas of focus of citizens at present—self interested as well as public spirited - and additional/new information can be provided by the government in discussion with the SIC as the nature and dimension of requests will never static and would need to be reviewed from time to time.

(d) Jurisdictions for display of information- District and the state

Historically the two major administrative jurisdictions common across all states including Punjab are the state and the districts. Whatever the status in respect of data at the tehsil/block level for purposes of the RTI, the data at least for the district and for the state should be displayed in the modules indicated— the district level data covering its own jurisdiction whereas the state level data and information would be composite for the state as a whole. Applicants would, therefore, even in respect of sub district data, would get a better and quicker response if application is filed at the district level.

(e) Annual Review of Disclosed information

The 2nd ARC has also suggested that Central Government should find some way to remove this deficiency and make changes, rather than woodenly and mechanically following the basic provisions. The RTI Act in the UK provides for annual discussions by the Information Commissioner with the departments to review the disclosed information and make changes in the formats/contents based on an analysis of the applications received. This practice at the state level should go a long way in anticipating the needs of the citizens and other

organizations. Fortunately the state has a nodal Information Department unlike the GOI which can coordinate this exercise and annual guidelines can be issued in the light of experience under the guidance of the SIC under Section 4 (1) (b) (xvii).

(i) Minimising Transaction Costs

Remodeling system of RTI officials' appointment

One major concern is the excessive costs in terms of time and money imposed on the applicants (over 30 times the direct cost on average). This definitely acts as a dampener for ordinary citizens who may wish to but avoid starting this process for fear of these costs. This needs to be done through re-visiting the practice of appointment of PIO's and Appellate Officers especially to strengthen the system at the district level where most of the sub district information is compiled in routine and is available. The main weakness is system and practice of appointment of information officials as seen above. There is a need to review this aspect in view of the current experience.

(a) Single Window Suvidha Centres as APIOs

At present APIOs are appointed somewhat in discriminately – in some cases, they work in the same office as the PIOs - making them redundant. Availability of a large number of APIOs also causes confusion among citizens regarding who to approach and the institution may become a cause of delay instead of a convenient route for accessing the PIO. It was gathered that applications are generally made directly to the PIOs, precisely for this reason – people don't expect a quick response if the application is filed with the APIO.

There is need for Single Window APIO System for all governments departments. Punjab has now a reasonably efficient set-up at the sub division and district level of Suvidha Centres which are easily accessible and open to public during working hours and where performance can be easily monitored. It is recommended that all district and sub divisional Suvidha centres should be declared as APIOs in respect of all departments for information required at the district level. The Chairman of the District Suvidha Centre – the Deputy Commissioner can monitor the functioning of these Centres which have adequate resources and manpower to take care of the

logistics of transmission of requests. With the strong support in E-Governance provided by the government, these offices appear to be ideally equipped for this purpose.

(b) Appointing District Department Heads as PIOs

The main problem in achieving the noble objectives governing the appointment of a large number of PIOs in individual public authorities (Health department for example has notified all the SMOs as PIO's) has in fact brought the unintended consequence of undue delay. Generally the interviewed applicants highlighted these very problems and especially the need to declare as PIOs only those officers who have access to, resources for, and control over the information asked for and not their subordinates/proxies.

(ii) Rationale for District Heads as PIO's

The PIOs to be effective must have access to the information asked for and the resources and authority required to collect the information. In the context of the organisation of state departments where generally district heads have reasonable seniority and authority and control over information available within the district, it would be appropriate to declare only the district heads as PIOs in respect of all departments (also in case of other departments generally having similar jurisdiction – e.g. Superintending Engineer in works departments). The Police department follows this system - SSPs as PIOs, - has and addressed satisfactorily a huge number of applications primarily for this reason. As per annual reports of the SIC, the monthly flow of requests even for the major departments (Revenue, Police, Education, Local Bodies, Rural Development and Panchayats) is less than 100 which appears manageable.

Moreover, the PIOs need to have sufficient maturity to be able to screen the applications to see whether the information should be given or denied. This is another reason for suggesting this measure. Appointment of senior officers as PIO's is necessary for another reason. This would be an innovative way to have a direct feedback from the public about the functioning of the departments. In a large majority of cases, applications for information are made by persons who in fact are seeking some relief or having some grievance. It was gathered from the survey that only a small number of requests for information are purely fishing expeditions or driven by

academic/public interests. In fact most of such applications are addressed to the departments and not to districts PIO's. It would in a way also be a complaint and grievance redressal window for which as per government's own claims, resources and time are never a problem.

The SIC indicated a somewhat different perspective. Their views are that it may be appropriate in case of major departments having extensive field staff at sub district levels to appoint PIOs at sub district levels (e.g. Police, Education, Health). Where this is the case, the officer of the department who is head of the district can be the appellate authority. The table 7 in chapter II-annexure indicates these two options. The basic principle proposed is that the district in-charge should in respect of PIOs sub ordinate to him/her, function as the appellate authority and where district head is also the PIO, the HOD will function as appellate authority. Similarly at the state level, department should have one of the senior most Deputy/Joint Directors as the PIO.

(c) HOD's as Appellate Authorities

The appellate authority need to be not the officer next senior to the PIO but the head of the department or at least his deputy, for reasons similar to what has been stated in the case of PIO's. This is necessary as some of the cases may be not of delay but of denial – partial or complete- of information and the officer has to have sufficient authority and maturity to be able to take a decision. Even in case of major departments which receive the bulk of applications (revenue, rural development, police, local government), it does not appear that the work load will exceed the capacity of one appellate authority. The examination of the RTI website of the State indicated that though some departments have designated Director/Secretary as the appellate authority, most of the others either have not displayed the particulars or are silent (e.g. Rural Development and Panchayats) or have designated appellate officers without keeping in view the decision making capability and resources of the person concerned. This is the reason a large majority of applicants prefer to approach the Information Commission rather than filing appeals to the departmental authorities. Social learning has made it clear that even if an appeal is filed with government functionaries, it will be rarely responded to.

It is felt that the Head of the department should invariably be the appellate authority for all PIO's of the level of district head or above.

(d) Appointing elected officials as appellate authorities in PRIs

There is a lot of confusion in respect of PRI's. Rural Development Department for example have declared Secretary's of the GPs to be the PIO's for panchayats but none for Block Samitis and Zila Parishads. The sites of even major ULB's don't seem to indicate names of PIO's/appellate authorities. It is suggested that in view of spatial concentration of information so far as the PRI s are concerned, there should be only one PIO - Secretary for GPs; BDPO for Block Samiti and Secretary Zila Parishad for Zila Parishad; the EO for all A, B&C class ULBs & notified area committees and the Commissioner in the case of a Municipal Corporation. The appellate authority can be the elected head of the PRI- Sarpanch, Chairperson, President/Mayor for the rural and urban PRIs so that the appellate functionaries are provided within a particular public authority as per the spirit of the law. This will also lead to more involvement of the elected functionaries in this vital area of great public interest.

(e) Boards and Corporations

Similarly for all other statutory authorities – councils/boards - which are considered as public authorities, there should be only one PIO for a public authority who can be an official next to the Chief Executive, with the Chief Executive acting as an appellate authority. The basic principle suggested is that the appellate authority should be the top official of the agency/department.

2.11. RTI Functionaries- Proposed Structure

The table 7 in chapter II-annexure summarises the recommendations in this regard.

Structure of fees

This is a major problem as fee has to be deposited in the treasury. Sophistication in easy processes (postal orders etc.) may improve matters but the problem is that the process involves disproportionate effort, considering the small quantum of money generally involved and the elementary service to be delivered – information. It has been recommended by the State Information Commission also in its annual report that fees must be received in

cash and they advise and we agree that this cash should be allowed to be used by the PIOs for purchase of stationery and other expenses in connection with the RTI services. The total amount collected at the moment is within Rs.10- 15 lacs and for many departments and PIOs, the amount may not exceed Rs.1000/- per year. The possibility of misuse is minimal. It is strongly recommended that all payments up to Rs.100, which would account for over 99% of requests, should be accepted in cash and the amount placed at the disposal of the PIOs.

Overlap problem of fees under RTI

There is another dimension of the issue. The law does not exclude from its purview, information which is to be provided in routine by the executive and judicial authorities. For example, copies of orders of the judicial courts are provided to the parties as per rules and orders of appropriate authorities. These rules provide the fees and standards of service which may be in some cases more onerous than the fee etc. prescribed under the RTI, thus encouraging the short and inexpensive route to obtaining information which otherwise you have to queue for. There are also as per the SIC, a not insignificant number of applicants who may have no disincentive in seeking voluminous information as the fees are nominal. The fact is that (as per our estimation) over 95% applications do not involve more than 4-5 pages of information per applicant. While the cases where a huge quantum of information is sought are not many, they tend to distort the attention span of the departments and PIOs and may delay quick response to others in the queue. To address these two problems, it may be appropriate to make the fees progressive and escalate them for the (small) fraction of cases which tend to clog the RTI processes. It may be appropriate to revise the fee structure so as to have nominal rates for information not exceeding five pages – at the present level of Rupees 10 per page – but double the rate for pages exceeding that number. It may be recalled that inspection facility in any case is available and the same can be used by the applicants to select the information they need and to focus on their core requirements.

Monitoring implementation of the RTI by the public authorities

There is some confusion about defining a public authority and the 2nd ARC suggested the sub units of departments be considered as separate public authorities. This would be counter- productive in our view and it is felt that a public authority should not have more

than one PIO and only one appellate authority so that monitoring and enforcement of the RTI act is easier and the problems can be addressed at the departmental level itself. It will also make it easier for the State Information Commission and the department of Information to coordinate information and review. Thus, it is felt that each department should be considered as a single public authority with of course boards/councils/corporations being considered as separate entities.

One problem is that there is no clear perspective about PRIs. Rural Development Department has for example considered Gram Panchayats as public authorities and notified the PIOs but there is no mention about Zila Parishads and Block Samities. Similarly all the ULBs which receive a major share of requests for information should have separate PIOs.

As indicated above, one view is that it may be convenient and even legally obligatory to consider a sub unit of the department as a separate PA. In our view this would probably violate the underpinnings of the RTI delivery systems which envisage the PIO and the appellate authority to be within the PA itself. Section 19 of the RTI Act clarifies that Appellate Authority has to be senior in rank to the PIO and has to be within each public authority. In any case without entering into this controversy we have provided for this option by recommending alternate PIOs/appellate structure as given in table 7 in annexure.

The problem is that with each department having tens of SPIOs, review and monitoring of implementation of the RTI is going to be a nightmare especially when thousand of GPs (Gram Panchayats), each of which is an independent PA unlike units in the government departments, are added to the list. It may become impossible for SIC to even compile the data from so many SPIOs scattered around thousands of PAs. That is one reason for the suggestion to limit the number of SPIOs.

In any case, it may appropriate to devise mechanisms as suggested by the SIC to monitor implementation at the district level. It is felt that the monitoring at the district level should be taken up as a standing agenda item by the District Grievances Committees and they can review simple parameters such as the number of

applications received in the district under the RTI (cumulatively since the beginning of the year) and cases in which information has been supplied in time. The simple fact of review of this information regularly at the district level may itself achieve the objective of compliance of time limits.

2.12. Summary of Recommendations

2.12.1. Standardisation of modules for mandatory disclosure of information

Detailed protocols for the specifics of information to be disclosed by the departments need to be developed by the department of Information in consultation with the SIC to address gaps in information especially in respect of:

- (a) norms/citizens charters for major services;
- (b) budget and expenditure on major capital and other non staff items;
- (c) work contracts and purchase of goods and services;
- (d) list of beneficiaries of assistance, concessions – cash/kind - under social security, welfare, land allotment and other similar programmes.

2.12.2. The suggested modules are at table 6 *column 2* in annexure.

(i) Mandating administrative jurisdictions for information disclosure

State and district level for all sectors/departments.

(i) Annual review of disclosed information

Information displayed to be reviewed annually in the light of experience by the Department of Information in consultation with the SIC or suo motu by the SIC.

(ii) Minimising transaction costs

APIOs

- District Suvidha Centres to be the single window APIOs for all government departments.

PIOs

- The district head of the department and one of the senior most persons in other public authorities to be the PIO in most cases. This will ensure speedy response, proper accountability, systematic feedback and substantially reduce transaction costs (Table 7).

- Where convenient Option II of Table 7 in annexure could be adopted- the tehsil/block in-charge as PIO and the district head as the appellate authority.

(iii) **Appellate Authorities**

- Head of the department, the CEO, the elected Chairperson to be the appellate authority in case of departments, autonomous bodies and rural and urban PRIs respectively.

(iv) **Structure of Fees**

- To be accepted in cash and allowed to be utilized by the PIOs on RTI related work.
- **Progressive fees:** double the prescribed rate per page for more than 5 pages. Rules to be amended accordingly.

(v) **District level monitoring of RTI implementation**

- District Grievance Committees to have a standing agenda item on RTI implementation.
- Review confined to basic performance parameters:
- Number of cases filed within the year (cumulative).
- Number of cases/applications where information given within time (cumulative).

Chapter III

PARADOX OF GROWTH AND EMPLOYMENT: A STUDY OF LABOUR MARKET IN PUNJAB⁶

Perspective

The purpose of this paper is to understand in detail what has happened in the labour market in Punjab over the last few decades. The state of Punjab is often seen as a success story of growth and a failed story for employment. This is articulated in the popular media as Punjab being the number one state in per capita income and on the other hand the increasing trends of 'running away' of youth to international destinations or increased drug use by the underemployed youth or the continued search for 'identity' by the youth through divisive and violent political movements.

This paper will discuss work, and the nature of work that the so called 'successful' state in Punjab has created, keeping in mind the social specificities of the state. To understand employment in Punjab this paper will attempt a thorough data based construction of the labour market characteristics in Punjab, and link it with overall development strategy and identify the role for policy. Specific questions that this paper seeks to answer are - a) How does the employment generated in Punjab fare in relation with its rate of growth and its composition of growth?; b) What are the specificities of the labour market that demand a gender specific policy or an employment policy focusing on particular social groups? c) Why is there a need to have a 'state' specific employment policy in these times of globalisation and market dominance?

3.1. Growth Dynamics in Punjab and Implications for the Labour Market

- 3.1.1. Between 1980 to 1990 overall GDP in Punjab grew at 5 percent and agriculture sector grew at 5.5, industry at 7.2 and services at 3.8 percent per annum (Table 1 in chapter III-annexure). Agriculture contributed 44 percent to the overall growth, industry 24 percent and services 32 percent during the decade of the 1980s (Table 2 in chapter III-annexure). In the 1990s overall growth was 4.5 percent and agriculture grew at 3.2, industry at 6.3 and services at 4.8 percent per annum. However, now agriculture contributed only 27

⁶ Note: This chapter has been contributed by Prof. Atul Sood and Ms. Shuchi Kapuria.

percent to the overall growth, industry 28 percent and services 45 percent.

- 3.1.2. Thus in 1990s it is worth highlighting, that not only overall growth declined by 0.5 percent, mostly as the result of slowing down of agriculture, but the contributors to growth got changed in a significant way and moved away from agriculture to the services sector. In the more recent years, from 1999-00 to 2008-09, growth has hovered around 4.9 percent per annum, agriculture slowed even more at 2.6 percent, industry maintained the rate of growth of the 1990s and service accelerated further to 6 percent per annum (Table 3 in chapter III-annexure).
- 3.1.3. Only 18 percent of growth comes from agriculture now, compared to 44 percent in the 80s and 27 percent in the 90s. Industry's share has gone up steady reaching 32 percent in the decade of 2000, rising from 24 percent in the 80s and 28 percent in the 90s. The contribution to growth from the services sector is the major shift to be highlighted in the last three decades in Punjab, its contribution reaching 50 percent in the 2000's compared to 32 and 45 percent in the 80s and 90s. This service sector growth and contribution by the services sector is much less than the national average (See Table 3 in chapter III-annexure). Between 2000 and 2009 at the all India level service sector grew at 8.9 percent giving India overall growth of 7.2 percent per annum. 66 percent of this growth came from service sector.
- 3.1.4. Thus, the growth dynamics of last three decades in Punjab is a story of slow down, increasing role of services sector in achieving the growth rates achieved in Punjab (much lower than all India), sharp slowing down of agriculture and its decreasing contribution to growth (better than all India) and maintaining historical rates of growth in the industrial sector (little behind the national average).
- 3.1.5. The role of labour market in Punjab has to be understood and analyzed in the context of the aforementioned growth story. This essentially suggests that in proportional terms the labour market story of Punjab ought to be a story of growth of employment in service sector, continuation of steady stream of employment in the industrial sector and decline of labour absorption in agriculture.

Much of the literature available on labour and employment in Punjab has focused on rural labour and agriculture sector⁷. The demographic and labour market statistics can provide some justification in the literature for its continued focus on rural labour markets.

3.2. Labour Market Characteristics based on Census

3.2.1. In Punjab, population residing in rural areas still stands at 66% in 2001 Census. It has come down from 70 percent in 1991. As per the census of 2001 (see Table 4 & 5 and Table 6 to 9 in chapter III - annexure), out of the total main workers in Punjab 67 percent are rural (70 percent if we include main and marginal workers both) and the remaining are urban (workers here include all age groups)⁸. Share of rural Workers amongst total main workers has steadily declined since the 1980s (main workers constituted 86 percent of the total workforce in 2001). Amongst the main workers women are 18 percent in 2001 and bulk of them are employed in the rural areas. The share of women as main workers in total workforce increased very sharply in 2001 (15.44 percent) compared to their share of 4 and 3 percent in 1991 and 1981 respectively. Interestingly in 2001 main workers as a percentage of total workforce declined by more than 10 percentage points compared to its share in 1991 and 1981, but the absorption of women as main workers increased. One of the reasons for this increase in numbers

⁷ Literature on employment and labour market in Punjab in recent years has mainly focused on impact of mechanization on employment in agriculture; or mechanization and wages; or diversification of employment in the rural areas in non-farm sector (See for instance R. S. Sidhu, Sukhpal Singh, Agricultural Wages and Employment, EPW, September, 11, 2004; Rural Non Farm Employment Scenario, R. S. Ghuman, EPW, October 8, 2005). In recent years, there have been very few writings that deal with employment in Punjab in the non agriculture sector (Unorganised Manufacturing Industry in the Era of Globalisation: A Study of Punjab, Lakhwinder Singh and Varinder Jain, MPRA working paper No. 197, November 2007) and even fewer writings that deal with linkage between agriculture and non agriculture sector. This linkage has been at the core of development challenges in the states (for elaboration of this argument see Pramod Kumar, Atul Sood and others, Punjab Crisis Context and Trends, CRRID, 1985).

⁸ Work in Census is defined as participation in any economically productive activity with or without compensation, wages or profit. such participation may be physical and/or mental in nature. Work involves not only actual work but also includes effective supervision and direction of work. It even includes part time help or unpaid work on farm, family enterprise or in any other economic activity. All persons engaged in 'work' as defined above are workers. Reference period for determining a person as worker and non-worker is one year preceding the date of enumeration.

Main Workers: Those workers who had worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. 6 months or more) are termed as Main Workers.

Marginal Workers : Those workers who had not worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. less than 6 months) are termed as Marginal Workers

could be change in definition of work in the 2001⁹. The distribution of female workforce between main and marginal has not altered much between 1991 and 2001 (from 36.5 to 35 percent), though their share within main workers has increased (to 18 percent from 4 percent). In general, growth of female workforce, as main workers, and in rural and urban areas, has been much more than men between 1991 and 2001. Male marginal workers, in both rural and urban areas have grown faster than women marginal workers between 1991 and 2001.

3.2.2. Overall, growth of marginal workers has been faster than main workers between 1991 and 2001. In both rural and urban areas growth of women as main workers is much higher than men. Amongst marginal workers, men have grown faster than women in rural areas; and women faster in urban areas. For men, the gains have been more as marginal workers.

3.2.3. Thus, in Punjab majority of the population resides in rural areas and bulk of the main workers are male and rural. However, the significance of female workers is increasing as main workers, in particular between 1991 and 2001. Between 1991 and 2001, growth of employment among women is higher, their share in workforce has increased. Women are now absorbed more as main workers in rural areas. Men have gained more as marginal workers. The above trends suggests that even though in the total labour market women are absorbed more as marginal workers, amongst the female workforce there is increasing importance of more long term work in recent years. The change in definition of work, in particular including production of milk for domestic consumption as economic activity, perhaps can only explain part of the increase in women's employment in Punjab.

⁹ The scope of the definition of work was expanded in the Census of India 2001 to include production of milk for domestic consumption. In the 1991 Census, cultivation of certain crops even for self consumption was treated as economic activity. The scope of the term Cultivation was expanded in this Census to include certain other crops such as tobacco, fruits, all types of flowers, roots and tubers, potatoes chilies and turmeric, pepper, cardamom, all types of vegetables and fodder crops etc., .This meant that activities related to production of all the above- mentioned crops for domestic consumption has been classified under plantation in the Census of India, 2001.

3.3. Beyond Rural Labour Markets: Employment by Census Activity Status

- 3.3.1. If we look at the labour market characteristics using the Census in some detail then this continued emphasis on rural areas and not focusing on gender specificities may not be the best strategy to understand the labour market and consequently make policies for the labour market. It is interesting to observe that the share of main workers amongst men who are doing agriculture and related activities has sharply declined between 1991 and 2001 (from 57% to 43%) but the female workers are increasingly getting absorbed in these activities (their share has increased from 34 percent to 57 percent primarily as cultivators and in livestock activities)¹⁰. The decline of labour share in agriculture and related activities is commensurate with the changing growth dynamics discussed above but for women it has worked differently. What has happened in manufacturing and services? The share of service sector employment has increased overall (32 to 40 percent) and for men from 30 to 42 percent between 1991 and 2001, but the share of female employment in the fast growing and greater contributing sector of services has fallen drastically from 56 to 30 percent (Table 10 in chapter III- annexure).
- 3.3.2. From the overall numbers provided to us by the Census, two important conclusions emerge. First, the employment dynamics has been very different for men and women in Punjab. The nature of work and the activities in which the two are getting absorbed are very different. Women have gained much more in rural full time employment and men have more as marginal workers in urban areas. Secondly, gains of growth in fast growing sectors have gone to men and women have benefitted more by being absorbed in sectors which are growing, but growing at a relatively slower pace, and in sectors or areas from which men are 'moving' out.

¹⁰ The reason for increased number of female labour in livestock activities could be the outcome of change in definition in 2001 census compared to the 1991 census. Women were earlier also involved in milk production for domestic consumption but it was not recorded as work. However, the increase of women as cultivators cannot be attributed to definitional change and reflects the changing composition of female workforce in Punjab.

3.4. Social and Economic Characteristics of Labour Market in Punjab

Given the sectoral and gender specificities of the labour market in Punjab, identified by analysis of the Census data of the state, it is pertinent to do a more disaggregate analysis of the labour market in Punjab. The source to do this analysis is the information provided by the Employment and Unemployment Rounds of the National Sample Survey. The All India Survey involves collecting detailed household information for nearly 80,000 rural households and 45,000 urban households on a wide range of social and economic characteristics along with detailed information on work. For Punjab, the survey covered 2053 and 1950 rural and urban households in the 50th round (1993-94) and 2433 and 1856 rural-urban households in the 61st round (2004-05). These two rounds are the thick sample rounds which are comparable in terms of their coverage and definitions. The analysis below uses unit level record of NSSO to draw out major characteristics of the labour market in Punjab. Unfortunately, this data source has not been used extensively, either by the Planning Department in Punjab or by independent scholars who do policy oriented research on Punjab related issues.

3.5. Workers and Willingness to Work: Labour Force Participation Rates

- 3.5.1. To understand the characteristics of labour market in Punjab let us first begin by comparing the labour force in Punjab with other states and national average. This will help us identify the quantum for which the strategy for creating opportunities to work has to focus upon. In NSSO labour force participation rates captures both those who are working and those who are seeking work. There are different measure used for estimating LFPR, and the variation is based on the different reference period, 365 days - Usual Status; 30 days - Subsidiary Status; and 07 days - Current Weekly Status¹¹.

¹¹ Labour force participation rates gives the rate of those working/employed or seeking or available for work/unemployed for relatively longer part of the year preceding the date of survey. Labour force participation rates by usual status includes the persons who were either working or were looking for work for a relatively longer part (more than 180 days) of the 365 days preceding the date of survey. Labour force participation rates by subsidiary status give those persons who had worked at least for 30 days during the reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey. Labour force participation rates by current weekly status criteria give those persons who have worked for at least 1 hour or were seeking/available for work for at least 1 hour on any day during the week (7 days) preceding the date of survey. This measure is widely agreed to be the one that most fully captures unemployment in the

- 3.5.2. Table 11 in chapter III-annexure gives the LFPR according to usual status criteria for 15 major states and relative position of Punjab in 2004-05¹². According to the usual principal and subsidiary status criteria 46 percent of rural population and 39 percent of the urban population are part of the labour force.
- 3.5.3. LFPR in rural Punjab is slightly higher than the all India average. Punjab is also ranked 10th among 15 major states in terms of its usual status (PS+SS) urban LFPRs, though the rate of participation is almost equal to the all-India average. Punjab has higher rates of participation in urban labour force than states of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, U.P. and Bihar .
- 3.5.4. Principal Status LFPR for rural Punjab is not only below the all-India average but is also one of the lowest among the 15 major states of the country (followed only by U.P. and Bihar). Whereas, inclusive of subsidiary status, those working or seeking work, in rural Punjab, are slightly more than all India average. The difference between principal plus subsidiary status and principal status LFPRs in urban Punjab are not as large as in the case of rural Punjab.
- 3.5.5. Is there any difference across gender in terms of principal and subsidiary work in rural areas? Rural male participation in the labour market in principal as well as in principal and subsidiary status taken together is above the national average and is higher than states of Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The difference in male LFPR according to the two criteria is not very large. Principal status LFPR for rural female is the lowest for the state of Punjab, which is well below the average all-India rate. Principal and subsidiary status rural female LFPR, on the other hand is comparable with the national average but still it is lower than most of the other states. Thus, labour market participation of the rural female in Punjab is overwhelmingly in the subsidiary status.

country (See Government of India, Planning Commission, Report of the Task Force on Employment Opportunities, New Delhi, July, 2001, pp. 14-15).

¹² Participation rates are given in percentage terms here. To compare them with those reported in NSSO summary reports, they need to be converted into per 1000.

- 3.5.6. Again LFPR for urban male is higher than the national average, according to both the criteria. LFPR for urban male is also high compared to other states, next only to the states of West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat. The difference in male LFPR according to the two criteria is not very large. LFPR for urban female is low in the State, lower than the national average and higher than that for Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, both according to principal status and principal and subsidiary status taken together. The difference between the principal plus subsidiary status and principal status participation is not as large as in the case of rural females.
- 3.5.7. Alternative way measure of participation rate is to compare the usual status with the current status rates. As mentioned in note 5 above, understanding goes, that the current status rates capture the seasonal variation in employment, and that seasonality is a significant factor in the Indian context. In Punjab, we find that principal plus subsidiary (usual) status LFPRs are higher than the current status LFPRs for both male and female population of the State (see Table 11 and 11 A in Chapter III-annexure). This is similar to the All-India trend. This could be, as has been pointed out, due to some among the usually employed withdrawing from labour force in the absence of work, during some part of the year rather than reporting themselves as unemployed in the current status. Interestingly, All-India trend shows that the difference is considerably higher for females in the rural areas, where the seasonality in work is believed to be substantial. Punjab, on the other hand, does not show such a large difference in LFPRs according to usual and current weekly status, suggesting lesser seasonal variation in the state.
- 3.5.8. The labour force measured in terms of current daily status gives the average picture of the number of person-days in the labour force on a day during the survey period. LFPRs on the whole have increased between 1993-94 and 2004-05 in rural and urban Punjab. The increase has been more impressive for rural female of the State according to the daily status criterion. In rural India, current status LFPRs have shown only a marginal increase, urban rates of labour force participation have shown larger increase than rural rates.

- 3.5.9. As is evident from the above discussion, like the Census, gender differences in work or willingness to work are quite sharp even when seen through the NSSO data. What explains this difference is an important question?
- 3.5.10. For the NSS survey on employment and unemployment, any activity resulting in production of goods and services that add value to national product is considered as an economic activity and a person is a worker if he/she is engaged in any economic activity. Such activities include production of all goods and services for market including those of government services, and, the production of primary commodities for own consumption and own account production of fixed assets. However, own account processing of primary products for own consumption is not considered as economic activity.
- 3.5.11. Women usually do unpaid work, especially in rural areas and their household work gets mixed up with their economic work. This could be one reason why official estimates grossly under-estimate women's contribution to economic activity. The impact of including milk production for domestic consumption in women's work confirms this since the participation rates of women in the 2001 census increased very sharply. More generally due to social norms, where household work is preferred to out-side work, women hide their work participation, thus leading to under-reporting of women work. However, these social norms are quite similar across states in India and therefore may not explain the peculiar nature of very low participation of women in labour market in Punjab or their participation primarily in subsidiary work. In order to understand this further we examine the work participation rates below.

3.6. Employment Trends or the Work Participation Rate

- 3.6.1. Work Participation rate gives the estimate of the percentage of population employed. While labour force participation rate indicates the desire for work, work participation rate indicates the availability of employment opportunities. Employed or worker according to the usual principal status gives the number of persons who have worked for a relatively longer span of the year preceding the date of survey. The work force according to usual principal and subsidiary status includes the persons who have worked for a relatively longer part of

the year preceding the date of survey and those persons from among the remaining population who have worked at least for 30 days during the year preceding the date of survey.

- 3.6.2. The usual status WPRs are slightly lower than LFPRs for all 15 major states of the country, especially so for the states of Kerala and Orissa (See Table 12 in chapter III- annexure). For Punjab WPRs are almost 2 percentage points below the LFPRs. Rural and urban work participation rates for Punjab according to principal and subsidiary status combined are comparable to the all-India average and Punjab ranks 10th and 9th respectively among the 15 major states in terms of rural and urban WPR.
- 3.6.3. Low rate of work participation for rural Punjab is mainly because of the very low rates of WPR among rural female in the principal status. Principal status WPR is the lowest among the 15 major states for rural female in Punjab. Once subsidiary status employment is added to the principal status employment rates, WPR for rural female shows a large increase and becomes comparable to the national average. The difference between WPR according to the principal status criteria and according to principal plus subsidiary status criteria for rural male is not very large, thus implying that rural male are largely employed in the principal status, whereas rural female work in the subsidiary status.
- 3.6.4. Principal status WPR for urban Punjab is also comparable to all-India average, though WPR is much below the rates for Himachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. In case of urban male in the State, WPR are higher than the national average according to both criteria, with 6th rank among the 15 major states. WPR for urban female is again low as compared to most of the states; it is higher than only the states of Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar according to both principal status criteria and principal plus subsidiary status criteria. Rates of work participation are also well below the national average for urban female.

3.7. Work Participation Rates by Other Measures

- 3.7.1. There are two other measures of work participation rates used in the country- current weekly status and current daily status. Former is based on a reference period of one week and accordingly a person is

classified as employed if he/she has worked for at least one hour on any day in the reference week preceding the date of survey. The weekly measure of calculating WPR is based on a shorter recall period of one week and is advantageous especially where opportunities for regular work are not available. According to NSSO, 2004-05 "the usual status approach adopted for classification of the population is unable to capture the changes in the activity pattern caused by seasonal fluctuations. But the estimate obtained by adopting the current weekly or current daily status approaches are expected to reflect the overall effect caused by the intermittent changes in the activity pattern during the year. The latter reflects also the changes that take place even during a week. The estimates of the employed based on current weekly status give the general picture of employment in a period of seven days while those based on current daily status give the general picture of employment on a day"¹³. Most of the countries also adopt an approach close to the weekly status criteria.

- 3.7.2. 43 per cent of rural population and 36 percent of urban population of Punjab are employed according to the current weekly status criteria (see Table 11 A in Chapter III-Annexure). Accordingly, Punjab ranks seventh and eighth among 15 major states of the country in terms of rural and urban WPRs respectively. The rates of work participation are higher than national average for rural male and rural female. For urban Punjab WPR is above the national average, but for urban female WPR is below the national average and only higher than that for the states of Haryana, Orissa, UP and Bihar.
- 3.7.3. Current daily status gives a measure of the person-days employed rather than persons employed. It is a measure of the utilisation of the available person-days. The data shows 35 per cent utilisation of labour-time for rural persons 34 percent utilization for urban persons. CDS work participation rates are comparable with the national average both in rural and urban Punjab. Looking closely at male and female WPR in rural and urban Punjab, it appears that first, WPR for rural male is lower than that for urban male, and secondly that WPR for rural female is greater than urban female. As a result the gap between rural and urban participation rate is lowest when measured by CDS. The trend is similar at the all-India level. Urban

¹³ Employment and Unemployment Situation in India, 2004-05: NSS Report No. 515, p-91

and Rural female participation rate is quite low - fifth lowest among major Indian states and lower than the national average.

- 3.7.4. WPRs are the highest when measured through PS+SS criteria and least according to CDS criteria, principal status rates are below weekly status rates but above CDS rates. This is true for rural and urban persons at the all-India level. In Punjab principal status WPRs for rural and urban female are the least rather than CDS WPRs. For male in rural and urban Punjab, principal status WPRs higher than WPRs calculated on the basis of CWS, though the highest rates are obtained on the basis of PS+SS basis and lowest on the basis of CDS.
- 3.7.5. Comparison of work participation rates by usual and current status suggests that the usual status is higher than current status both at all India level and Punjab. In rural areas, both for males and females the difference between usual and current status for all India is relatively larger than what is true for the state of Punjab. This suggests that in terms of work, if current status is to be taken as a closer proxy for reality, in Punjab there is not much seasonal variation in work in rural areas. Same is true for urban areas.
- 3.7.6. Using the most appropriate indicators for capturing employment, the story of Punjab is as follows - 35 percent utilisation of labour time for rural persons and 34 percent utilisation for urban persons; these numbers are not very different from the national average but much lower than states like AP, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Himachal Pradesh; the gap from better performing states is particularly noticeable in rural areas. In the context of women's employment, the picture is quite disturbing, in comparison to other states rural and urban women employment is very low in the state, lower than most states at similar PCNSDP levels and some even at lower per capita levels; within Punjab rural women find more employment compared to their urban counterparts; for men in rural areas employment levels are comparable with most states but lower than agriculturally oriented states like AP, Karnataka, Gujarat and Maharashtra; and for urban men going has been good.
- 3.7.7. As mentioned above WPR for female in the principal status is only 4 per cent and according to principal plus subsidiary status criteria is

32 per cent, implying majority of the female workers are subsidiary status workers. The discussion below provides details of subsidiary status work of females.

3.8. Subsidiary Status Work of Females

- 3.8.1. More than 87 per cent of the rural female work force and 29 percent of urban female work force is subsidiary status work force (see Table 13 in Chapter III-Annexure). The share of subsidiary status workers in the total workers has declined for urban female but increased for rural female. The increase in subsidiary status work force for rural female implies that their principal status participation has declined over the years, while for urban female there has been an increase in their principal status work.
- 3.8.2. There is a notable difference in the subsidiary status work force among the social groups in the State (Table 13 in Chapter III-Annexure). In rural areas, within the female workers, less of SC women are in subsidiary status compared to the non SC women but in urban areas reverse is true, i.e. SC women are greater in subsidiary status. This is interesting. We saw earlier that the subsidiary work for women in urban centres is declining over time but this decline is much more for non SC women. In other words, the gains of full time employment in urban centres have gone much more to non SC women. In rural areas, where majority of women are employed in subsidiary work, in relative terms less of SC women are involved in part time work. This is understandable since the SC households hardly own land in rural areas and their women have all the reasons to seek full time work, contrary to their landowning non SC counterparts.
- 3.8.3. If we look at the SC and non SC distribution, within rural and urban areas of subsidiary status women, we find that in rural and urban areas increasing percentage of SC women are getting absorbed as subsidiary workers (Table 14 in Chapter III-Annexure) between 1993-94 and 2004-5. The increase is much sharper in urban areas which reinforces the point made earlier that gains of full time employment in urban areas have gone more towards non SC women.
- 3.8.4. Table 14 in Chapter III-Annexure shows that 66.5 per cent of rural subsidiary status workers and 69 per cent of urban subsidiary status

workers belong to the social group 'other'. Their respective share in the subsidiary work force has declined over the years. About 33 per cent of rural and 31 per cent of urban subsidiary status work force belongs to SC. The share of SC female work force in subsidiary work force has increased over the years.

3.9. Workers and Social Groups

- 3.9.1. Among the usual principal status workers in rural Punjab both male and female about 40 per cent belong to the Scheduled caste (SC). The share of SC workers among rural female workers according to PS+SS criteria is around 35 per cent while that of females from the social group 'others' is higher at 65 per cent (Table 15 in Chapter III-Annexure). It can therefore be said that a large percentage of female from the social group 'others' work in the subsidiary status in Punjab, when we use the usual status criterion.
- 3.9.2. Comparing social group wise distribution over the years shows that among rural male workers, percentage share of 'Others' has decreased while that of SC workers has increased according to both usual principal status and usual principal plus subsidiary status criteria. In case of rural female workers, the percentage share of 'others' has increased according to PS and PS+SS status. For SC female workers their share has decreased according to the principal status but has increased for SC female workers according to PS+SS. Thus, in rural areas in relative terms SC male workers have increased compared to other social groups by UPS and UPSS criterion. Amongst workers, share of SC females has increased in subsidiary status, while other social groups have gained in both short and long term employment.
- 3.9.3. Among urban male workers, percentage share of 'others' has declined over the years while that of SC male has increased for both PS and PS+SS status. Principal status female workers in urban Punjab are overwhelming from social group 'others' like in the case of male, but over the years their percentage share among urban female workers has increased, that of SC female has declined. When subsidiary status workers are also included along with the principal status workers, percentage share of SC female workers marginally increases while that of female workers from the social group 'others' marginally declines. Usual (Principal and subsidiary) status

percentage shares of SC and 'others' female workers has remained almost the same over the years.

- 3.9.4. There is a large percentage of female workers from 'others' in rural areas and from SC group in urban areas work in subsidiary status in Punjab. An increasing percentage of male workers in rural and urban Punjab are from SC social group in 2004-05 than 1993-94.

3.10. WPR by Landholding and Consumption Classes

Male WPRs have declined across almost all land owning classes in rural Punjab. It is only in the land holding class of 0.01 to 0.4 hectares that the male WPR has increased marginally. The decline has been marginal for the landless class, while for land size class of 0.41 to 1 hectare, 1 to 2 hectare and for land sizes of 4 hectares and above the decline has been sharper. Female WPR on the other hand has increased for all land holding households, including landless households. The increase has been sharper for land holding sizes greater than 0.4 hectares, especially for land owned sizes of more than 2 hectares. Thus, WPR has increased amongst males for the lowest landowning class but for women irrespective of landowning status, WPR has increased. Interestingly, work participation rates across MPCE classes give a different picture (see Table 16b in Chapter III-Annexure). In rural areas, as we move to higher income levels, female WPR first declines and then increases and reaches a peak for the fourth quintile and declines again. For men, as expected, it is declining continuously. In urban areas the trend is similar for female(s), however the peak is reached at the highest quintile. For urban male again WPR declines as MPCE increases. Over the years, we can say broadly the trend is of decline in WPR of male and increased WPR of female. What this suggests is that for women, irrespective of their land or MPCE status their participation in paid work has increased. Men have declining work participation rates both over the years and as the income levels increase.

3.11. Education and Employment

- 3.11.1. Mainstream media discussions in Punjab on employment-unemployment focus on the educated unemployment. Let us see how the NSSO informs us on this. Having summarised the status of employment across rural and urban areas and between men and women, the pertinent question to ask is, if the trend is similar across all educational groups. Here again, we can disentangle employment

and education using the different criterion to capture employment, namely usual status and daily or weekly status. We will follow the convention in the literature and discuss the results using usual status criterion. We will also look at the trends here by comparing inter-temporal picture in Punjab.

3.11.2. For Principal status WPR for females in the urban areas, Punjab stands today as one of the lowest ranked state in country. However, between 1993 and 2005, there have been some gains. The employment of women with secondary education has deteriorated. Principal status WPR of rural females has remained almost stagnant in the last decades for those who have secondary education. For those with primary or with education beyond secondary level WPR has increased slightly. Thus, on principal status employment for women in both rural and urban areas, Punjab's performance is dismal and far below the other states. However, women with higher education have done better than others.

3.11.3. Principal status Work Participation rate for rural male in Punjab is comparable to all India levels and lower than Gujarat, AP, Orissa, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu etc. WPR of rural male in Punjab with up to primary education has increased between 1993-94 and 2004-05. But for males in rural areas with secondary education and above education WPR has in fact declined. WPR for males residing in urban areas is better than national average in Punjab and not very below the better performing states. However, for urban male WPR has declined between 1993-94 and 2004-05 for the least educated, secondary and above educated.

3.11.4. It therefore appears that increasing percentage of educated female in rural and urban labour market are finding employment for majority of the year. While the percentage of educated male in rural and urban Punjab with principal status employment is declining over the years.

3.11.5. WPRs in subsidiary status are higher among females than males, and higher among rural females than urban females. Again WPR among rural female is highest for female with up to primary level education and least for secondary and above educated in subsidiary status (see

Table 17 in chapter III-annexure). Moreover, over the period 1993-94 and 2004-05, subsidiary WPRs have increased for rural female with all levels of education. For urban female also WPR has increased for the least educated and for secondary and above educated.

- 3.11.6. Thus an increasing percentage of women across education levels are getting employed either in the principal status or in the subsidiary status. Male in rural and urban Punjab do not appear to be significantly employed in the subsidiary status and the employment of educated men is declining in full time employment.

3.12. Industrial Composition of Workforce (age 15 to 59 years)

- 3.12.1. How do the changing sectoral growth dynamics impact employment? Inter-temporal picture suggests a shift away from primary sector, more in the case of males than females in rural Punjab (see Table 18 in Chapter III-Annexure). The shift has been towards construction, manufacturing, trade, hotels and restaurant, and transport, storage and communication sectors for rural male. For rural female the shift away from agriculture and allied sector appears to be mainly towards manufacturing sector and community, social and personal services.
- 3.12.2. For urban male there is increasing importance of trade, transport and financial services and decline in construction. Manufacturing and Community, Social and Personal services sectors have witnessed an increase in the share of urban female employment, while Transport, storage and communications and finance, real estate and business estate sectors have witnessed only a marginal increase in the share of urban female employment.
- 3.12.3. The sectoral distribution of subsidiary status female workers shows that 96 per cent of subsidiary status workers are employed in agriculture and allied activities in rural Punjab and 45 per cent are employed in this sector in urban Punjab. Though the dependence on agriculture sector in terms of employment has decreased over the years, still it is the most significant sector providing employment to females who are in the labour force for relatively shorter period of the year. This seems to be understandable for rural areas because of the seasonal employment that this sector provides. But even in urban Punjab, agriculture and allied sector provides employment to

about 45 per cent of subsidiary workers. For urban females manufacturing and Community, social and personal services sectors are also significant sectors providing employment to female subsidiary workers.

- 3.12.4. More than 40 per cent of the rural SC male workers (principal status) are employed in agriculture and allied sector (Table 19 in Chapter III-Annexure). Construction and manufacturing are other significant sectors of employment of rural SC male workers. For rural male workers from the social group 'others' 60 per cent are employed in agriculture and allied sector; trade, hotels and restaurant sector, manufacturing and construction sectors are also significant employment providing sectors.
- 3.12.5. For SC male workers in rural Punjab there has been a sectoral shift in employment between 1993-94 and 2004-05, away mainly from agriculture and allied sector and community, social and personal services towards Manufacturing, Construction and services like trade, hotels and restaurant sectors.
- 3.12.6. The sectoral shift in case of male workers from social group 'others' during this period has been from Agriculture and allied sector and from Community, social and personal services sector towards manufacturing, construction and other services sectors. Moreover, the shift away from agriculture and allied sector has been more significant for male workers from the social group SC than for those from the social group 'others'. Furthermore, a larger percentage of male SC workers are employed in manufacturing and construction sectors.
- 3.12.7. Principal status rural female workers from the SC group are largely employed in manufacturing; trade, hotels and restaurant sector; transport, storage and Communications; Community, Social and personal services and in construction sector. For female workers from the social group 'others' employment is mainly in the trade, hotel and restaurant sector; manufacturing sector and community, social and personal services. In case of subsidiary status employment of females (Table 18 in Chapter III-Annexure) in rural and urban areas the employment gains have been towards the manufacturing

sector for both SC and others and for men in trade, hotels and restaurants in the urban areas.

3.12.8. Associating these employment trends with changes in the growth structure discussed earlier in this paper suggests, that like the Census results, the NSSO also suggests that female employment in rural areas has not undergone any major shift corresponding to the changes in the growth structure of the Punjab economy. For men in rural areas, the change in composition of their employment is overlapping with the structural shift in growth men are increasingly being employed in the fast growing sectors of the economy. In the urban areas of Punjab the story is not very different. The shift has mainly been away from agriculture and allied activities sector for both men and women but for men it has been towards manufacturing and other fast growing service sectors, while for women it has been in sectors that are losing their significance or are of less importance in the dynamics of growth in Punjab. Given the quantum of employment and the compositional structure of employment discussed so far it is pertinent to find out the quality of employment. To find out the quality of employment we will look at the distribution of workforce between self employed, regularly employed and casual labour.

3.13. Quality of employment

3.13.1. Having discussed the industrial composition of workforce we need to know the terms of engagement of men and women in rural and urban Punjab? Amongst male workers in rural areas large percentage are self employed (47 percent), followed by casual labour and only 18 percent of males in rural areas in 2004-05 are employed as regular workers. In the case of women in rural areas 89 percent of them are self employed, followed by casual labour and only 5 percent of women workers in rural areas have regular employment. Between 1993-94 and 2004-05 share of regular work has not changed very substantially for both men and women workers. In fact, for women workers in rural areas the share of regular work has increased very marginally (See Table 21 in Chapter III-Annexure). Amongst those who are employed as regular workers in rural areas, for men, the most significant ones are manufacturing, trade and hotels, transport, communications, and community social and personal services. For women 82 percent of regular work comes in community, social and personal services suggesting there are

negligible regular work opportunities in the rural areas for women. Increased employment can be seen in particular amongst construction sector workers (the two most important employing sectors for men in rural areas are construction and agriculture and allied activities). Within agriculture there is no significant change in the distribution between the three types of employment. Amongst women in rural areas 89 percent are self employed and in agriculture and allied activities (sector employing largest share of women workers) 94 percent are self employed. Self employed has increased in importance for women between the two NSSO rounds and unlike men regular and casual work is not increasingly available for women in rural areas in Punjab.

3.13.2. In urban areas men are employed in manufacturing sector, and within service sector in trade hotels and restaurants, transport, storage and communication and in construction. What are their conditions of employment? For urban men self employment and regular work are the two major form of employment both in 1993-94 and 2004-05. Within manufacturing more than 60 percent employment is as regular workers and its share has increased between the two rounds. Casual work is a mere 4 percent of employment in manufacturing. In Transport, Storage and Communication also regular work is close to 55 percent and has increased between the two rounds. Self employment in this sector is 42 percent and has significantly declined from 60 percent in 1993-94. In Trade, Hotels and restaurant self employment is the overwhelming form of employment in the two rounds.

3.13.3. Interestingly for women in urban areas regular work is more than 50 percent of overall employment and most of them are employed in community, social and personal services. Contrary to their male counterparts in urban areas women are not significantly engaged as regular workers in the manufacturing sector. 82 percent of women in manufacturing are self employed and this percentage has increased from 68 percent in 1993-94. Thus, if we exclude public services, women are not being engaged as regular workers in either rural or urban areas. They are mostly engaged in their self created activities. Fortunately, for men regular work is still available, especially in the manufacturing sector. Casual work is relatively important for men, both in rural and urban areas, especially in the construction sector.

3.13.4. Majority of the females that have reported themselves as employed in the subsidiary status are self employed. This is true for both rural and urban areas. Percentage of casual workers among subsidiary status workers has decreased over the years and that of self employed has increased.

3.13.5. Self employment has increased for rural male belonging to land owning class of 0.41-1.00 hectares and 1.00-2.00 hectares. Among all other land owning classes self employment has declined between 1993-94 and 2004-05. For female, self employment has increased across all land-owning classes except a 5 percentage point decline for female belonging to 2-4 hectares of land ownership class. Almost 56 per cent of male landless workers were casual workers in 1993-94. This has come down to 28 per cent in the year 2004-05. Among the land holding class of 0.01 to 0.4 hectares there has been a 2 percentage point increase in male workers employed on casual basis. Casual employment for rural male has also increased among land owning classes 2-4 hectares and 4 hectares and above. For female workers belonging to all land holding class casual employment has declined with overall decline in casual employment of rural females from 1993-94 and 2004-05 being of about 5 percentage points.

3.14. Nature of Employment amongst vulnerable groups

3.14.1. 58 percent of rural SC male workers according to usual status (PS+SS) are employed casually and around 20 percent are into regular/ salaried jobs and an equal percentage is self employed. Higher percentage i.e. 66 per cent of rural male workers from the social group 'others' are self employed (see Table 21 in Chapter III-Annexure). Smaller percentage of male workers in rural Punjab, from the social group 'others' work as regular or salaried employees as compared to 16 per cent from 'others' against 21 per cent from SC workers). Also, 17 per cent of male workers from 'others' social group work as casual workers. Over the years, casualisation has declined among rural SC male workers while it has increased in the case of workers from the group 'others'. Percentage of self employed among male SC workers has remained almost stagnant while a smaller percentage of male from 'others' are self employed in 2004-05 than in 1993-94. The movement is mainly into regular employment for SC male while for male from social group 'others' is into both casual employment and regular employment.

- 3.14.2. Among urban male workers from the social group SC 51 per cent are into regular/salaried employment, 32 per cent are into self employment and 16 per cent work casually. Among male workers from the social group 'others' 53 per cent are self employed, 41 per cent are regularly employed and only 6 per cent are casually employed. Smaller percentage of male workers from the social group 'others' are into regular or salaried employment both in rural and urban Punjab as compared to male SC workers. Over the years the movement for urban male from the social group SC has been away from self employment and casual employment towards regular employment. For urban male from the social group 'others' the movement has been away from casual employment and to some extent from regular employment, towards self employment.
- 3.14.3. The differences in the nature of employment can also be seen through the gap in real wages between men and women. We examined the wages in Punjab and compared them with all India in rural and urban areas for regular, salaried and casual workers. For casual workers in rural and urban areas wages in Punjab are higher than average for both men and women, however over the years the gap has vanished. There wage advantage of Punjab has been lost. For regular salaried workers over the years the gap between Punjab and Indian average has narrowed down substantially in rural areas but has sustained in the urban areas. The difference between wages of men and women is of similar magnitude in Punjab as at the all India level.
- 3.14.4. Wage rates increase with increase in educational qualifications for male and female regular or salaried workers in rural and urban Punjab. The increase in wages between 1993-94 and 2004-05 has been the most impressive for graduates and above qualified male workers and for females with up to primary education in rural Punjab. For male workers in urban Punjab the increase in wages has been highest for Graduation and above qualified but the rate of growth has been lower than that in the rural Punjab. For urban female average daily wage rates have in fact declined for illiterate and those with primary and middle education and the rate of decline has been the highest for female with middle level of education. Though the wage rates for females with graduation and above education is lower than males with similar educational qualifications,

the rate of growth in wages between 1993-94 and 2004-05 is the same for male and female.

- 3.14.5. The gender differential in wage rates of the regular workers (with equal qualifications) is evident from the table 22 in chapter III-annexure. The differentials have increased between 1993-94 and 2004-05 for all educational levels and has increased the most for graduation and above qualified in rural Punjab. For those with up to Primary education gender differentials in wages have in fact declined.
- 3.14.6. Interestingly, in 1993-94 wages were higher for female than male in urban Punjab for some level of educational qualifications. Female wage rates were higher for those with up to primary, middle and secondary and higher secondary educated. In 2004-05, wage differentials have narrowed down for those with secondary and higher secondary education; and for male with up to Primary and middle level of education, wages are higher than those for females with similar qualifications. Male and female wage differentials for regular workers with graduation and above qualifications have increased between 1993-94 and 2004-05.
- 3.14.7. Average daily wage rates of regular workers are higher for male and female workers from the social group 'others' than SC workers in rural and urban Punjab. Between 1993-94 and 2004-05 average daily wages for SC male workers in rural Punjab have increased at a higher rate than those for SC female. On the other hand, rate of increase in the wages for 'others' female has been much more impressive than male from the same social group. Growth in wages for SC male has been lower in the urban areas than in the rural areas. For SC female wage rates have in fact declined in the urban areas between 1993-94 and 2004-05.
- 3.14.8. Evidently we observe that growth in wages for male and female regular workers from the social group 'others' has been more impressive in the rural areas than in the urban areas of Punjab.
- 3.14.9. Gender differentials in wages have increased for SC workers while it has declined for 'others' workers in rural Punjab. In urban Punjab

wage rates were higher for female than male workers from SC as well as 'others' social group. In 2004-05, however, gender differentials have increased for SC workers (male wages are substantially higher than female wages). For 'others' daily wages of female workers are still higher than their male counterparts and the gap has in fact widened.

3.14.10. Between 1993-94 and 2004-05 urban-rural differential in wages have declined for male and female workers from SC and 'others' social group. In fact for SC male average daily wage rates of rural workers is higher than in the urban areas.

3.14.11. Thus, wages have increased at a faster rate in rural Punjab. Average daily wage rates for regular workers are higher for male and female workers from the social group 'others' in rural and urban Punjab. Gender differentials are higher for SC than 'others' workers. Overall increase in gender differentials in wages between 1993-94 and 2004-05 in rural Punjab is due to increased differentials for SC workers. Higher (and increase in) wages of female workers from the social group 'others' has kept the overall wages of female higher than male workers in urban Punjab.

3.15. Conclusion

3.15.1. The growth dynamics of last three decades in Punjab is a story of slow down, increasing role of services sector in achieving the growth rates achieved in Punjab, even though the service sector growth has been much lower than all India. Punjab has also experienced sharp slowing down of agriculture and its decreasing contribution to growth, but the sector has better than all India average and the state has maintained historical rates of growth in the industrial sector that are behind the national average. This essentially suggests that in proportional terms the labour market story of Punjab ought to be a story of growth of employment in service sector, continuation of steady stream of employment in the industrial sector and decline of labour absorption in agriculture.

3.15.2. Two important conclusions emerge from the Census data. First, the employment dynamics has been very different for men and women in Punjab. The nature of work and the activities in which the two are getting absorbed are very different. Women have gained much more

in rural full time employment and men have more as marginal workers in urban areas. Secondly, gains of growth in fast growing sectors have gone to men and women have benefitted more by being absorbed in sectors which are growing, but growing at a relatively slower pace, and in sectors or areas from which men are 'moving' out.

3.15.3. The gender differences in employment number are further reinforced when we look at LFP rates through NSSO data. LFPR in the two NSSO rounds suggest that labour market participation of the rural female in Punjab is overwhelmingly in the subsidiary status and the rural male participation in the labour market in principal as well as in principal and subsidiary status taken together is above the national average. Principal status LFPR for rural female is the lowest for the state of Punjab, which is well below the average all-India rate. LFPR for urban female is low in the State, lower than the national average both according to principal status and principal and subsidiary status taken together. However, the difference between the principal plus subsidiary status and principal status participation is not as large as in the case of rural females. Punjab does not show large differences in LFPRs according to usual and current weekly status, suggesting lesser seasonal variation in the state compared to the all India trends. LFPRs by current daily status on the whole have increased between 1993-94 and 2004-05 in rural and urban Punjab and the increase has been more impressive for rural female of the State according to the daily status criterion. The paper discusses some of the plausible explanations for this sharp gender differences in employment in the state. The reasons lie in under-estimation of women's contribution to economic activity, as well as social norms, where household work is preferred to out-side work, leading women to hide their work and under-reporting their contribution.

3.15.4. The gender differences are also seen in the availability of employment opportunities in the state (work participation rates). Rates of work participation are well below the national average for urban female inclusive of subsidiary and principal status while in rural areas rates of participation for females become comparable when subsidiary status workers are included. Rural and urban work participation rates for Punjab according to principal and subsidiary status combined are comparable to the all-India average.

Furthermore, the rates of work participation by current weekly status criteria are higher than national average for rural male and rural female. For urban Punjab WPR is above the national average, but for urban female WPR is below the national average. Current daily status work participation rates are comparable with the national average both in rural and urban Punjab.

3.15.5. Overall, in the context of women's employment, the picture is quite disturbing in the state in comparison to other states. Rural and urban women employment is very low in the state, lower than most states at similar PCNSDP levels and some even at lower per capita levels; within Punjab rural women find more employment compared to their urban counterparts; for men in rural areas employment levels are comparable with most states but lower than agriculturally oriented states like AP, Karnataka, Gujarat and Maharashtra; for men in urban areas going has been good.

3.15.6. The gender differences in labour market outcomes get further complicated when they are analyzed across social groups. There is a notable difference in the subsidiary status labour force participation rates among the social groups in the State. We saw earlier that the subsidiary work for women in urban centres is declining over time but this decline is much more for non SC women. In other words, the gains of full time employment in urban centres have gone much more to non SC women. In rural area, where majority of women are employed in subsidiary work, in relative terms less of SC women are involved in part time work. This is understandable since the SC households hardly own land in rural areas and their women have all the reasons to seek full time work, contrary to their landowning non SC counterparts. Over the years, across social groups in rural areas in relative terms SC male workers have increased compared to other social groups by UPS and UPSS criterion. Amongst workers, share of SC females has increased in subsidiary status, while other social groups have gained in both short and long term employment. Furthermore, it is interesting to observe that for women, irrespective of their land or MPCE status (in any case women have very little land in their own name) their participation increases as we move up the income ladder. For men, perhaps because assets are in their names, their WPR declines as we move up the income levels.

- 3.15.7. When employment is seen in conjunction with education the paper finds that on principal status employment for women in both rural and urban areas, Punjab's performance is dismal and far below the other states. However, women with higher education have done better than others. Overtime an increasing percentage of women across education levels are getting employed either in the principal status or in the subsidiary status. Male in rural and urban Punjab do not appear to be significantly employed in the subsidiary status and the employment of educated men is declining in full time employment.
- 3.15.8. Associating the employment trends with changes in the growth structure that paper finds that like the Census results, NSSO also suggests that female employment in rural areas has not undergone any major shift corresponding to the changes in the growth structure of the Punjab economy. For men in rural areas, the change in composition of their employment is overlapping with the structural shift in growth, men are increasingly being employed in the fast growing sectors of the economy. In the urban areas of Punjab the story is not very different. The shift has mainly been away from agriculture and allied activities sector for both men and women but for men it has been towards manufacturing and other fast growing service sectors, while for women it has been in sectors that are losing their significance or are of less importance in the dynamics of growth in Punjab. The shift away from agriculture and allied sector has been more significant for male workers from the social group SC than for those from the social group 'others'. Furthermore, a larger percentage of male SC workers are employed in manufacturing and construction sectors.
- 3.15.9. When we look at the nature of work we find that self employed has increased in importance for women between the two NSSO rounds and unlike men regular and casual work is not increasingly available for women in rural areas in Punjab. In urban areas regular work is a very significant form of employment for men in urban areas along with self employment. Interestingly for women in urban areas regular work is more than 50 percent of overall employment and most of them are employed in community, social and personal services. Contrary to their male counterparts in urban areas women are not significantly engaged as regular workers in the manufacturing sector. If we exclude public services, women are not

being engaged as regular workers in either rural or urban areas. They are mostly engaged in their self created activities. The paper also examines the nature of employment across social groups and size class of land owned. Interestingly, over the years, casualisation has declined among rural SC male workers while it has increased in the case of workers from the group 'others'. The movement is mainly into regular employment for SC male while for male from social group 'others' is into both casual employment and regular employment in the rural areas. This benefit to the social groups at the margins appears to be the result of policy of favorable discrimination that the country had adopted since independence. However, the benefits have not percolated to women within the marginalised groups in both urban and rural areas.

- 3.15.10. The state of Punjab provides an interesting case study to understand the paradox of growth and employment. The peculiarities of the labour market sketched above make a compelling case for comprehensive strategy for employment in the state, where the labour market cannot be left to fend for itself from the ongoing dynamics of growth. Alternative drivers of growth need to be created for the state so that the growth and employment outcomes gel better with each other.
- 3.15.11. Urban-rural differentials in wages for male have declined for illiterate and Graduate and above qualified workers. Wages for up to primary, middle and Secondary and higher secondary educated male are higher in the rural than urban areas and this differential has increased. Urban-rural differential in wages have declined for female workers too except for Graduate and above educated female workers. For up to primary educated female workers wages in rural areas are higher than in urban areas.
- 3.15.12. The above analysis shows that gender differentials in wages have increased in rural and urban Punjab for regular or salaried workers across all levels of educational qualifications. Rural wages have increased more rapidly than urban wages, so that the urban-rural differential in wages has declined across all levels of educational qualifications.

Chapter IV

REGULATORY REGIME FOR INDUSTRIES & COMMERCE IMPROVING EASE OF DOING BUSINESS¹⁴

SECTION-1

Perspective

The PGRC has, in its previous reports, taken up issues of need based and regulatory services relevant for common citizens, and of sector-specific services for the health sector and land property rights in the rural areas. This report deals with regulations and client-related services provided by departments of industries and labour. The labour regulations involve a triangular relationship - among the State Government, the labour employed and the owner of industry/commercial establishment. The regulations are mostly enacted for the protection of 3rd parties - labour/employees and to some extent the public, in case of pollution control and similar areas. However, most of the regulations do not appear to be serving the interests of labour and of the public and, it is, therefore, being suggested that it may be appropriate to redesign the rules and the institutions. The other aspect is of facilitating client - official interaction so that the industry has to undergo minimum harassment in completing compliance requirement, without jeopardizing public interest, for which the regulations are designed. As will be seen, most of such measures for facilitation have been cosmetic. Thus, the industrial policy in Punjab meant for creating a favourable climate for industry and commerce has failed to provide relief in real terms to industry. This is quite disturbing as even otherwise Punjab suffers from some fundamental constraints, situated as it is far away from the sea ports as also the sources of raw material. In manufacturing, especially, it suffers from a large number of disadvantages. It seems necessary to have a fresh look at the various measures and see whether the situation can be significantly improved in regard to making Punjab an attractive destination for business and industry, not only for the outsiders but also for the insiders many of whom may already be thinking of moving to greener pastures elsewhere.

¹⁴ This chapter has been contributed by Task Group on Civil and Regulatory Services chaired by Sh. R.N. Gupta and Sh. J.R. Kundal.

4.1. Punjab Industry Policy Impact on Ease of Doing Business

Punjab Government has traditionally taken a lead in promoting industry, especially small scale industry, through creation of infrastructure and provision of incentives and for creating a proper climate for investment. Industrial policies were formulated by the State Government in the years 1978, 1982, 1989, 1992, 1996, 2003 and, lastly, in the year 2009. Broadly, the thrust of the latest policy is on promotion of industry by reducing government controls and improving the ease of doing business apart from giving incentives for specific sectors. A number of steps for the enhancement of competitiveness of the existing industry (carbon credits, debt relief, concessions to sick small scale units) and for infrastructure development (industrial parks, communications) have been taken. A study by UNIDO was also commissioned for this purpose. The departmental documents list a number of steps taken or proposed for facilitating business and industrial activity:

4.1.1. Facilitation measures taken by the Department of Industry

- (i) **VAT** - Information Collection Centres have been established while the tax barriers have been removed. VAT refunds have been made simpler. It is also proposed to provide online payment and e-filing of returns.
- (ii) **Government-industry consultation** – The process of interaction with the industry has been streamlined through setting up of a number of Boards/Councils;
- (iii) **Self-certification scheme** - There is an ambitious plan for outsourcing of inspections and self- certification under different regulations. A 24-hour helpline has been set up;
- (iv) **Change of Land use** – Supportive measures such as abrogation of the system of approvals for change of land use from agriculture to industry have been announced under the policy.
- (iv) **Industrial Facilitation Act** – The Government has also enacted the Punjab Industrial Facilitation Act, 2005, which provides that, in case any departmental permission is not granted within the stipulated period, approval shall be deemed to be given.

4.1.2. **Present Status & Impact of Facilitation Measures**

The policy, however, is a long way from effective implementation as indicated below:

(i) Online composite application portal:

The portal provides a composite application to be filed by the entrepreneur for all approvals and clearances – power, sales tax, Factories Act etc. The portal was reportedly made operational in March, 2010. So far, however, only 10 applications (upto July 2010) have been received. Applicants are reluctant to take recourse to the new system due to lack of credibility in the system.

(ii) Outsourcing inspection/third-party certification

It was proposed to outsource the inspection/verification to the qualified Chartered Engineers/Environment Engineers in order to provide option to the industry for such inspections/verifications from third parties in addition to the departmental agencies:

- Inspection of Boilers under Indian Boilers Act, 1923.
- Inspection under Standards of Weights & Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1985.
- Inspection/testing of electric installations under Indian Electricity Act, 1910 & Indian Electricity Rules, 1956.
- Inspection/verification under the Water (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1974 and Air (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1981.

Most of the proposals for outsourcing of inspection/self-certification are yet to be implemented. The status and the difficulties faced regarding outsourcing of inspections under the aforesaid Acts are as follows:

(iii) Inspection of Boilers under Indian Boilers Act, 1923:

Under similar provisions for outsourcing inspections in the earlier Industrial Policy 2003, six engineers were appointed as Chartered Engineers for the inspection of Boilers under Indian Boilers Act, 1923. However, four of the engineers did not start any work and, as such, their authorisation was withdrawn by the department. Further, complaints regarding irregularities against the rest of the selected engineers were received by the department and, as such, their authorisation was also withdrawn. The Department of Industries & Commerce issued an advertisement in various newspapers in May 2010. About eight applications have been received.

(iv) Inspection under Standards of Weights & Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1985:

The Government of India concurrence is required under the Act and it has been decided to take up the matter with Secretary, Consumer Affairs, Government of India. However, Under Section 24 of Legal Metrology Act, 2009, a provision has been made for Government Approved Test Centres for verification and stamping of weights and measures. However, this provision is yet to be implemented.

(v) Inspection/Testing of Electric Installations under Indian Electricity Act, 1910 & Indian Electricity Rules 1956

Draft notification of the Department of Power for allowing third party inspection is yet to be issued.

(vi) Inspection/Verification under the Water (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1974 and Air (Prevention & Control of Pollution) Act, 1981

The Punjab Pollution Control Board has not accepted third party inspections on the ground that only Punjab Pollution Control Board officers are competent under law in this regard.

(vii) Approval of Private Laboratories for Testing of Samples

PPCB has invited applications/expression of interest from private laboratories for listing them as approved labs for testing of samples by the industries. The applications have been shortlisted. The premises are to be visited for verification by a Joint Committee comprising of Members from PPCB and HPPCB (Himachal Pradesh Pollution Control Board) as per the requirement of joint inspection under the Act. Recent reports indicate that four laboratories have been approved.

(viii) Self-certification under Labour Laws

The Government of Punjab notified a "Self-Certification Scheme" for the Industries/Establishments in the State to liberalise the enforcement of various labour laws. The scheme provides for self-certification for compliance and maintenance of records under various labour laws. Due to various difficulties, the industry has not come forward to avail of this option. It is not simply that most of the initiatives have remained on paper. The perceptions of the industry as reflected in the UNIDO Report indicate that very little has been done in terms of reducing the

regulatory burden on industries despite various measures. Industry perception, for example, in the case of Vat tax regime is that the system of refunds is not functional and the Information Centres which replaced the toll barriers are viewed as extortion mechanisms. The inspector raaj in respect of various regulations (labour laws, Factory Act etc.) also continues unabated. It would, thus, appear that most of the proposals in regard to facilitation and improving the ease of doing business are still on paper and, in some cases, there may have been, in fact, deterioration in this regard.

4.2. Basic Problems of Facilitation Policy For Improving Regulatory Regime

4.2.1. The proximate problems which affect proper implementation of the facilitation policy have been indicated above. Some of the constraints, however, are more fundamental and relate to the design of the policy.

4.2.2. Neglect of Micro Sector

It appears that the perspectives of the department as well as of the private sector are being shaped and structured primarily by the interests of big, medium, and, to some extent, small industry, without much attention to the micro/tiny sector. In India, the micro sector is defined to be less than Rs.25 lacs investment (Rs.25 lacs to Rs.5.00 crore being for small industries) as per the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Act 2006. Further, as per the census of small scale industries 2001-02, micro enterprises constitute about 99% of the small scale sector with average fixed investment of tiny enterprises being only Rs.1.47 lacs. Most of the measures of the State Government, however, are directed at and designed for large and medium and, to some extent, small industries. The single window clearance/off the shelf scheme is reserved for large industry, preferably from outside the State. Self-certification scheme is also directed at the large and medium industry which generally has better resources to negotiate these problems.

4.2.3. Problems of Small/Micro Industry

There are specific problems affecting the small/micro industry in regard to starting and doing business that get compounded due to a bias in the policy and practices concerning the large and medium sector.

4.2.4. High Transaction Costs

First, it is tiny and micro sector which is most affected by the transaction costs of negotiating through a maze of regulations – relating to labour, industries or others. For example, a five kilowatt power connection may entail, in terms of time and manpower resources, corruption notwithstanding, the same costs as for one megawatt connection.

Secondly, micro enterprises are rarely able to pass these costs through the market whereas major projects and companies may be better equipped to do so (remember the education and training component in the Enron Project in Maharashtra!). The tiny sector may also be subject to more harassment by the officials, being unable to make pre-emptive payments to the regulatory staff, cash strapped as they are due to low debt-equity ratio.

Thirdly, in the highly competitive industries, control over transaction costs becomes the key to survival as the profit margins are thin. E.g., if transaction costs are 5% of the investment, the company which is able to reduce it substantially will have a competitive advantage to that extent. Bigger units with their scale advantage not only have lower transaction costs but are also able to reduce the impact.

Fourthly, the volume of transaction costs in terms of prescribed fees (for approvals, licencing etc.) as well as 'shadow' (under the table) costs is not insignificant. It is difficult to get accurate estimates of the latter, but from the discussions it appears that these are rather high especially for small/micro units. It is to be noted that these have to be funded outside the approved project costs, from cash resources of the entrepreneurs thus adding to the cash pressures.

4.2.5. Approach of the Group:

The focus of the Recommendations, therefore, is on issues that are material to the industry generally but specifically to the micro and small sector. One reason why the strategy for

facilitation and ease of business has not worked appears to be the rigidity of regulations which makes the processes like self-certification a non-starter. It may be better in some cases to consider a zero-based approach by jettisoning the dubious baggage of regulations rather than making them simpler- an approach advocated by authorities like Milton Friedman (Free To Choose; Harcourt 1980 – Harvest Books Ed. 1990).

4.2.6. Focus on Measures within State Competence

This may, however, not be feasible in the Indian context since many laws are on the Union or Concurrent lists and, thus, not within the competence of the State Government. The other approach is to simplify the administration of regulations, as is proposed, for example, in the facilitation schemes in the industrial policy. The problem why this has not worked so far is that the scheme assumed symmetry in the information available to the nodal department - industry - and the regulatory departments concerned e.g. labour, environment etc, but this is rarely so due to the 'silo' functioning of the departments. They are rarely on the same wavelength. The proposals, therefore, make an attempt to identify the material areas which would make a significant, rather than cosmetic, impact and suggest administrative streamlining measures, within the State competence, to reduce the regulatory burden without 'throwing the baby with the bath water'. An 80:20 assumption is adopted i.e. the focus is on 20% of the critical regulations which may account for 80% of the industry problems.

4.2.7. Addressing Externalities-Labour Regulations

The regulations under various laws are generally meant to tackle the problem of externalities – some related to the third parties i.e. the public/environment, whereas others (most of the labour regulations) are directed at the safety and welfare of the employees. It is well settled that the issues of externalities between two parties can be best settled through bilateral negotiations so long as the parties (in the case of industry, the owner and the labour) can be clearly defined. The only requirement is that the rights and obligations of the two should be clearly and unambiguously defined. The third party (the State in the case of labour regulations) will rarely have enough

information to effectively intervene and bring about an efficient result. Enforcement of these regulations, therefore, needs to be client-driven, self-regulated, and intervention by the State to be made only in case of complaints/disputes. This is the perspective adopted in the recommendations for reforming the structure of implementation of the labour regulations.

4.2.8. Incentive Structures for Labour Safety & Security: Self-Regulation

The list of laws governing industry is extensive - from taxation to construction to approval/regulations for safety and health of workers as well as their security. A large number of laws regulating the industry have continued despite fundamental changes in the nature and structure of political economy. Safety and health issues were material in the first flush of industrialisation but State intervention may not be so relevant today. There are severe criminal and civil consequences of negligence/violation of laws which the entrepreneurs have to face in any case despite various approvals/permissions and inspections prescribed from time to time under those regulations. Industry cannot afford, therefore, to jettison safety and health issues even if the State withdraws from the actual oversight of regulations, so long as the State continues to make the regulations pragmatic and generally acceptable and is prepared to enforce them when called upon to do so.

There is no doubt that welfare measures would need some push to be implemented on the part of the regulating authority. But even in this case, as in the case of environment, social pressure and image issues are more of a deterrent. The fact is that no amount of oversight by the State authority for boiler safety, for example, can ensure that an accident will not take place. Owners in that case will not be excused just because they got the equipment inspected by the department and got all the clearances. On the other hand, no entrepreneur would plan installation of inferior boilers or neglect their safety, not only because the owner continues to be responsible under law but also because it is in his own interest to ensure safety of the plant, the workforce etc.

The laws need to be reviewed from this perspective keeping in view the incentives/disincentives for the owners, adopting the 80:20 rules and addressing the agency problems in oversight and enforcement by the public agencies. The implementation, thus, can be made more effective through self-regulation even within the frame of current statutes rather than going by radical neo-liberal solutions that entail abolishing the regulations altogether.

SECTION -2

4.3. Improving Regulatory Regime: Labour Laws

Some of the major laws regulating industry are examined below from the perspective underlined above.

4.4. Minimum Wages Act

- 4.4.1. The Minimum Wages Act, 1948, provides for fixing of minimum rate of wages by the State Government in respect of: (a) employees covered in employments specified in Part-1 or 2 Schedule (Part-1 covers mostly employment in mining, rice mills, tobacco, oil mills, local authorities etc. whereas Part-2 covers employment in Agriculture); (b) any employment added by the State Government through a notification under powers given as per Section 27. The State Government is competent under Section 26 to provide exemptions and exceptions, even in respect of the Schedules, in cases where it is of the opinion that is not necessary to fix the wages for any reason.

Box 2.1

Section 26 - Minimum Wages Act

Exemptions and Exceptions

- (1) The appropriate Government may, subject to such conditions, if any, as it may think fit to impose, direct that the provisions of this Act shall not apply in relation to the wages to disabled employees.
- (2) The appropriate Government may, if for special reasons it thinks so fit by notification in the official Gazette, direct that 2[subject to such conditions and] for such period as it may specify the provisions of this Act or any of them shall not apply to all or any class of employees employed in any scheduled

employment or to any locality where there is carried on a scheduled employment.

3[(2-A) The appropriate Government may, if it is of opinion that having regard to the terms and conditions of service applicable to any class of employees in a scheduled employment or in a scheduled employment generally or in a scheduled employment in a local area, 4[or to any establishment or a part of any establishment in a scheduled employment], it is not necessary to fix minimum wages in respect of such employees of that class 4[or in respect of employees in such establishment or such part of any establishment] as are in receipt of wages exceeding such limit as may be prescribed in this behalf, direct by notification in the official Gazette and subject to such conditions if any, as it may think fit to impose, that the provisions of this Act or any of them shall not apply in relation to such employees.

- 4.4.2. Apart from the obligation to pay minimum rate of wages, the employers are also required to maintain registers and records including annual returns, register of wages etc. Penalty (for paying less than the fixed rate of wages) is imprisonment upto six months or fine upto Rs.500/- and for other violations only fine upto Rs.500/.
- 4.4.3. The State Government has been fixing minimum rates of wages through notifications covering practically all categories of employment; the notification itself runs into more than 50 pages and covers 67 categories of employment. Around 15000 annual inspections are conducted under this Act.
- 4.4.4. The basic contradiction in regard to the Act is that if the implementation is successful, it may tend to make industry non-competitive; units not bound to comply or not complying with regulations will be at a competitive advantage. It can restrict the opportunities for employment and, thus, add to the pool of the un-employed. The general view of the Department is that the law is observed more in its breach rather than compliance. As such, there is a strong case for some of the provisions of the Act to be re-examined with an open mind in view of the fast changing environment including inter alia, demand side and

supply side pressures that seemingly go to defeat the objectives of the Act.

- 4.4.5. So far as the maintenance of records is concerned, that by itself does not guarantee that the wages will be paid as per law while the records can be shown to be properly maintained, as is probably being done at present, even while the wages are not being paid as per the law.
- 4.4.6. The self-certification scheme has not succeeded mainly due to the provision in the scheme that the owner has to give an affirmation (which can be easily proved to be false) about the records being maintained. Moreover, the provision of checking at least 20% of the industries which choose to opt for the scheme is another disincentive, as it subjects the option-giver to a sure inspection instead of the normal pattern of 'chance inspection' which may be easier to negotiate by the individual entrepreneurs.
- 4.4.7. It would, therefore, appear that:
Very small percentage of the employers, in practice, is complying with the law.
- 4.4.8. Compliance with the provisions of maintaining records is 'formal' and has no correlation with the substantive compliance of the vital provisions of the Act.
The law as indicated is likely to make the industry in Punjab non-competitive apart from the adverse impact on employment even under conditions of faithful implementation.
The issue of competitiveness is especially relevant for Punjab when its industry has to compete with other States endowed with various advantages (e.g. income tax and excise concessions in HP).
- 4.4.9. Basic objectives can be fulfilled by notifying minimum wages at the lowest level of entry for skilled and un-skilled workers, without necessarily fixing separate industry wise rates which is the practice now. In place thereof, the basic wages at the lowest entry point of un-skilled and skilled workers across all industries

can be fixed. This will simplify administration of the system and make it transparent and clear to both parties.

4.5. Minimum Wages Act - Recommendations

4.5.1. In view of these factors, it is proposed as under:

It is no doubt a Central Government regulation but the State Government has the powers to provide exemptions as indicated above. As such, Punjab Government can invoke these powers and discontinue the practice of fixing minimum wages for some of the scheduled employments under the Act. A conscious decision in this regard can be reached after detailed discussions with the various stakeholders.

4.5.2. For the limited number of employments which must be subjected to the Minimum Wages Act in the opinion of the State Government, inspections and prosecutions related to the maintenance of records and registers be discontinued. Action should be taken only for substantive violations and not for violation of the routine provisions like proper maintenance of records which have no nexus with the objectives of the Act. For the purpose of self-certification scheme for the industry, if it is to be continued, the only requirement should be a simple declaration that the provisions of the law are being complied with.

4.5.3. The practice of fixing minimum wages should be confined to limited number of industries/employments where, in the opinion of the State Government, labour interests need to be protected due to a “clear and present danger” of the wages being exploitative (agricultural wages, for example, are not a problem in Punjab since there is acute labour shortage). Prima facie, it is difficult to think of any industry except, for instance, the brick kilns and road construction. These incidentally would also be the areas of concern in respect of laws regarding bonded labour, child labour and women labour. The notifications, therefore, issued with a view to covering various employments, in addition to the schedules given in the Minimum Wages Act should be abrogated and in its place basic wages for lowest entry points for unskilled and skilled labour can be notified.

Inspections should be undertaken only on the basis of complaints, as and when received and only for substantive violations – non-payment of statutory wages for the entry level skilled and un-skilled jobs, etc.

4.6. Factories Act

4.6.1. This Central Act provides for the health and safety of the workers in the factories and is applicable to the units employing 10 workers (with power) or 20 workers (without power). Section 6 provides that specific industries, as the State Government may decide, should be subject to the following:

- (a) Simple submission of the factory plans (no approval required);
- (b) Prior approval of plans before commencement of the operations;
- (c) Licensing and registration.

Box 2.2

Section 6 - Approval, Licensing and Registration of Factories

- | | | |
|-----|------|---|
| (d) | (1) | The State Government may make rules: |
| (e) | | requiring for the purposes of this Act, the submission of plans of any class or description of factories to the Chief Inspector or the State Government; |
| (f) | a(i) | requiring the previous permission in writing of the State Government or the Chief Inspector to be obtained for the site on which the factory is to be situated and for the construction or extension of any factory or class or description of factories; |
| (g) | | requiring for the purpose of considering applications for the permission the submission of plans and specifications; |
| (h) | | prescribing the nature of such plans and specifications and by whom they shall be certified; |
| (i) | | requiring the registration and licensing of factories, or any class or description of factories and prescribing the fees payable for such registration and licensing and for the renewal of licences; |
| (j) | | requiring that no licence shall be granted or renewed unless the notice specified in Section 7 has been given; |

4.6.2. Evidently, the intention was to make applicable these provisions to specific groups of industries which may require submission of

plans or submission of plans/prior approval of those plans/other industries which State Government considers to be requiring a licence/registration. Surprisingly, however, there has been no application of mind in this regard at the level of the State Government and, as a result, the Factory Act and Rules (see rule 3 below) have been indiscriminately extended to practically all the units which are covered under the definition of 'factory'. In fact, the Department has proceeded to grant exemption from registration/licensing etc. to some of the industries whereas the Act requires the Government to specify the (presumably limited industrial units) which may need to be covered under the distinct and specific provisions of Section 6.

Box 2.3

Rule 3 of the Punjab Factories Act

The State Government or the Chief Inspector may require, for the purposes of the Act, submission of plans of any factory which was either in existence on the date of the commencement of the Act or which had not been constructed or extended since then. Such plans shall be drawn to scale showing.

- (a) the site of the factory and immediate surrounding including adjacent buildings and other structures, roads, drains etc.;
- (b) the plan, elevation and necessary cross sections of the factory building indicating all relevant details relating to natural lighting, ventilation and means of escape in case of fire, and the position of the plant and machinery, aisles and passage ways, and;
- (c) such other particulars as the State Government or the Chief Inspector, as the case may be, require.

3-A Approval of Plans

- (1) No building shall be constructed or used as a factory unless plans in respect of such building are approved by the Chief Inspector.
- (2) No additions/alterations or extensions in the existing factory building shall be made unless plans in

respect of such additions, alterations or extensions are approved by the Chief Inspector.

- 4.6.3. Section **41A** provides for Site Inspection Committees in case of hazardous industries.
- 4.6.4. Surprisingly, the patently illegal practice has not created much resentment in the industry because the enforcement is not very taxing in terms of scrutiny and the requirement of prior approvals though it appears impractical as also unfair to cover 100% of industries despite the clear restrictive provisions. The fact of the matter is that most of the industries which need licensing or other controls by the State are already covered under detailed sector-specific regulations – Drugs Act, Food Safety Act, and acts dealing with electrical appliances, oil seeds, sugar, etc.- and, as such, it is difficult to visualise any industry which, in the current scenario, needs to be regulated under the generic provisions of the Factories Act also. With a view to ensuring qualitative inspections, it will be desirable to focus attention on the identified industries rather than dispensing time and resources on all the industries.
- 4.6.5. In the case of hazardous industry, where factory regulations were made in the then absence of suitable environmental regulations, the provisions may now need to be reviewed in the light of appropriate regulations made under Hazardous Substances Act/Rules. Even in cases where prior permissions are required for license or registration, appropriate certification should be acceptable from 3rd party (structural engineer for safety and architect for other issues). Needless to say, the Department can always act on the basis of complaints as per the present practice.

4.7. Factories Act - Recommendations

- 4.7.1. It appears, therefore, that:
- (a) The practice of submission and prior approval of site and construction plans for all the factories under section 6 should be stopped forthwith.

- (b) Inspections under Factory Act in respect of safety and welfare of labour should be undertaken only when specific complaints are received;
- (c) Inspections should be on the basis of random sampling process, and such random inspections should be advisory in nature;
- (d) Regulations regarding site inspection board for hazardous industry and pollution standards should be left for implementation by Punjab Pollution Control Board which has the appropriate expertise and charter in the matter (it is understood that this is being done at present).

4.8. Industrial Disputes Act

- 4.8.1. This Act is mainly relevant for operations in industry and applies only to the units employing one hundred or more workers. Much has been made of the problems but in practice it is not a major issue due to certain loopholes which the industry has capitalized. For example, the provisions do not apply to contract workers which is the standard practice now in industry (apart from massive sub-legal appointment of workers not taken on books, through informal outsourcing of labour). In any case, it does not appear to affect the small units.

4.9. Indian Boilers Act

- 4.9.1. The Indian Boilers Act provides for inspection and certification of boilers by the factory inspectors. It is understood that an amendment is likely to be made shortly permitting 3rd party certification by the approved engineers. As indicated earlier, the provision for third party inspection has been a non-starter, and there is an imperative need to take note of the following factors:
 - (a) It is almost impossible for the departmental officials to ensure boiler safety, considering the increasing sophistication of the equipment and the staff limitations.
 - (b) The owners continue to be liable for any consequences arising out of accidents/ malfunctioning;
 - (c) It is in the interest of owners to ensure boiler safety as continued production is a function of smooth operations.

- 4.9.2. The appropriate course may be to accept certification by the Boiler manufactures or by qualified persons approved by their associations (the UK law has similar provisions). That, however, needs an amendment of the Act which is stated to be under consideration. The proposed revival of third party certification may not work for reasons similar to what happened in the past. It is felt that the State Government should repose confidence in the industry and make use of the following provisions of the law:

Box 2.4
Indian Boilers Act Section 34

34. (3) If the State Government is satisfied that, having regard to the material, design or construction of boilers and to the need for the rapid industrialisation of the country, it is necessary to do so, it may, by notification in the Official Gazette and subject to such conditions and restrictions as may be specified exempt class of boilers or steam-pipes in the whole or any part of the State, from the operation of all or any of the provisions of this Act.]

4.10. Indian Boilers Act – Recommendations

- 4.10.1. Exemption may be given for whole of Punjab subject to the condition that the safety certificates will be procured by the industrial units from the manufactures initially as also at periodic intervals subsequently.

4.11. Standing Orders (Rules) Act 1946

- 4.11.1. This applies to the units having 100 or more workers. In Punjab, this has been applied, it is understood, even to units having 20 or more workers. It seems from the Department's reports that over 9000 establishments in Punjab are required to get standing orders issued but only about 1300 have got this done. The fact is that it is difficult to get approval of the model as the Standing Orders are approved by the department only if they reflect almost in totality the model provisions. Some of us have personal experience regarding the difficulties of getting approval of the department in this regard.

- 4.11.2. The structure of labour deployment has undergone a dramatic change and the Standing Orders/Rules are an anachronism today. Keeping up with the arrears of the cases is a constant and probably fruitless struggle when Section-12A of this act provides that model standing orders framed by the Government are deemed to be applicable to establishments which have not got standing orders certified.

4.12. STANDING ORDERS (RULES/ACT) - RECOMMENDATIONS

- 4.12.1. Keeping the above cited factors in view, it is felt that fruitless pursuit of an impossible target should be abandoned, industry should be generally informed about the appropriate provision of law (12A) and complaints, if any, ought to be looked into from an advisory perspective. Repeated acts of negligence/non-compliance, however, should be dealt with severely.

SECTION-3

4.13. PROMOTING EASE OF DOING BUSINESS IN PUNJAB

4.13.1. **World Bank Indicators**

It may be desirable to examine the issue of facilitation of running a business with reference to Punjab specifically and India generally keeping in view the major irritants and problems faced by the entrepreneurs. The World Bank indicators focus mainly on legal and financial costs – (fees, licenses etc.), the number of procedures involved and the number of days required for completing formalities for starting a business. Financial costs are compared with reference to per capita income of different countries though probably the more relevant indicator will be to compute costs as a percentage of total investment. If one takes this aspect into account, it will appear from the Table 1 in Chapter IV-Annexure that the costs are disproportionately higher for small units, especially if one takes note of the informal/non-statutory payments.

- 4.13.2. The parameters adopted by the World Bank for the country surveys on ease of doing business (www.doingbusiness.org) consist of a number of factors mainly relating to procedures, time

taken and the expenses incurred for different processes. The parameters are:

Box 3.1 Ease of Doing Business – World Bank Indicators	
Starting a business – <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approvals and clearances. • Company law. • Tax laws. • Registering property. • Construction permits. • Employing workers. 	
Doing Business <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protecting investors. • Paying taxes. • Trading across borders. • Enforcing contracts. • Closing business. 	

- 4.13.3. As an example, in regard to start of business, the position of India, Singapore and OECD countries are as indicated in Table 3.1 in Chapter IV-Annexure. It may be seen, that the time required is very much an under estimate and based on ‘announced’ rather than ‘enforced’ deadline. For example, one may refer to the case of construction clearances in India.

4.14. Constraints in adopting World Bank Indicators

The problem with such surveys is that they are rather elaborate and expensive and difficult to carry out in-house. The indicators are mostly descriptive, seek to avoid value judgments and, consequently, do not indicate clear directions for change which may lead to significant improvement. Being comprehensive, they also lack focus on significant areas for intervention. Moreover, they may not take into account the ground realities and the prevalent informal practices (e.g. in Punjab, a business can be started once an application for tax registration is given, without having to wait for a formal approval from the State tax authority).

4.15. MAJOR ISSUES AND PROBLEMS IN PUNJAB

The main constraints in starting a business appear to be construction approvals involving double jeopardy – (Factories Act, other sector specific regulations and the local authorities) and these appear to account for ninety percent of the problems, formal and informal costs and delays etc. In respect of doing business, the main problems are labour regulations, including Minimum Wages Act etc. as indicated earlier. So far as industrial safety and security regulations are concerned, it appears that self-regulation is a feasible alternative especially as it is in own interest of the industries to provide for safety features. In any case, they remain liable for any act of omission or commission. The regulations aggravate “agency” problems and perverse incentives on the part of the owners to evade these difficult regulations, especially as the fines provided are negligible and can be imposed only after a long judicial process and are, as such, hardly a deterrent especially regarding the issues concerning record maintenance.

SECTION-IV

4.16. Recommendations for Improving Ease of Business

- 4.16.1. Based on the above critique of major labour laws and the approach, the following recommendations are made for the consideration of the Government:

(a) Self-Certification Scheme

As indicated, the scheme has not functioned for various reasons – legal hurdles, difficulties in implementation, practical difficulties in selecting 3rd parties for certification etc. The main problem is that the remedy invented by Government to get over the inspector raaj is worse than the disease. Provision of the self-certification scheme requires the units to virtually incriminate themselves by requiring sworn stipulations to be given by them which cannot be complied with by the industry. Moreover, the scheme envisages much stricter regime of inspections for the units opting for the scheme. As such, they would naturally prefer the present ad-hoc systems for which the solutions are

inexpensive & simple. The scheme in its present form, therefore, needs to be discontinued.

(b) **Inspections:**

It is proposed that inspections should not be resorted to in an ad-hoc manner but be on random selection basis and ought to be advisory in nature. Substantive violations should be investigated only on the basis of complaints. This will provide for a fair system of enforcement without creating the problem of evasion of regulations negotiated through bribery and informal payments. The Department should give suitable guidelines to the staff to conduct inspections keeping in view the material areas for enforcement (e.g. child labour, bonded labour etc.) instead of leaving it to the discretion of the local staff. Guidelines should be based on pragmatic and material issues of compliance. The suggestions made separately on Drug and Food Safety Departments may also be referred to for detailed justification of this approach.

(c) **Maintenance of records/registers under labour laws:**

There should be no prosecution except in material areas of enforcement. It is pointless to harass industrial units for impracticable and cosmetic compliance requirements.

(d) **Simplifying regulatory regime.** The suggestions have been given above and are not being repeated as the same have been provided in the Table of Recommendations.

4.16.2. These are all within the powers of the State Government and permissible as indicated, and are necessary for encouraging industry & commerce in Punjab which otherwise suffer from major disadvantages.

4.16.3. There is no point in breast beating and bemoaning the disadvantage to Punjab. Punjab Government should find ways to enable industry to get out of the maize of regulations for industry and labour which go to stifle the enterprises and subject Punjab units to multiple jeopardy without helping the workers. There is no point in providing, under the industrial policy, financial incentives which are negated by the oppressive labour regulations, forcing the industry to plan for 'creative' ways to bypass regulation compliance and minimise transaction costs.

SECTION-V

4.17. Summary of the Recommendations

- 4.17.1. As indicated, the purpose of the recommendations is to improve the climate and regulatory regime for industry in Punjab without necessarily compromising on the objectives of the various regulations. Changes in rules and systems have been suggested to ensure that, for the areas within the State Government control, a business can be started forthwith the day an entrepreneur decides to set up a business.

- 4.17.2. Tables 3.1, 3.2 & 3.3 in Chapter IV-Annexure indicate the major areas of reform, the present status, problems in Punjab and the recommendations which have been derived from the analysis given above.

Chapter V

EXISTING STATUS ON PERFORMANCE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM¹⁵

Perspective

Safety, security and equitable access to justice are not only prerequisites for a functional democracy, but for generation of material wealth, for reduction of poverty and elimination of social exclusion. It is, therefore, essential for the State to address the fear and risk of crime, improve provisions for the security of individuals and their living environment by creating effective justice institutions and mechanisms that aim at the creation of a crime free society. The focus, however, has to be on prevention of crime and victimisation through a multi-pronged approach that includes improving performance, efficiency, integration of efforts across the criminal justice agencies and the involvement of diverse stakeholders ranging from public service providers to civil society activists. 'Crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multi-disciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices'¹⁶. This broad mandate requires multiple and multi-staged efforts through an appropriate institutional framework and strategic approach.

5.1. Gauging what effects safety?

- 5.1.1. Controlling the crime rate is the endeavour of the police, improving the disposal of case loads is a major concern of the Judiciary and managing prison populations a pre-occupation of the prison staff. In other words, investigation is the exclusive domain of policing, prosecution is with director prosecution, and litigation and conviction trials remain with the courts. The whole process of delivery of justice is demarcated with each

¹⁵ This chapter is contributed by Dr. Pramod Kumar and Dr. Rainuka Dagar

¹⁶ United Nations, Economic and Social Council. 2002, *Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime*. New York: United Nations, Economic and Social Council, Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention.

institution performing its own assigned role with no ultimate accountability towards the result.

5.1.2. Thus, "The deeper we delve into the processes of criminal justice and the more we rely on prosecution, court and prison statistics, the more we reduce our chances of saying anything straightforward about the nature and extent of crime."¹⁷ These multi-agencies perform different functions within the domain of criminal justice. How do these help in improving the safety or the perception of safety and the delivery of justice among citizens? Does the participation in community policing programmes, strengthening of informal and customary justice mechanisms, and easy approach to courts overhaul the perception of criminal justice functioning in the country? Besides the issue of accountability for citizen safety, a valid concern also refers to 'whose safety'.

5.1.3. In India, myriad differences of ethnicity, region, caste, gender, language, mark social reality. While equality of citizens of India is the hallmark of the constitution, these differences do place some citizens unfavourably in context to others. To presume that the prism of equality sees no differences may, in fact, discriminate against minority and unfavourable groups by being insensitive to their concerns. A homogeneous language, personal laws or cultural practices, in fact, selects one choice (generally of the dominant group) while denying others. Rather than being identity neutral, sensitivity to the identity of the gender, religion or other primordial groups have to be part of the delivery of justice. Further, in a multicultural context, the recognition of difference may not be able to prioritise what difference or whose difference needs to be accorded primacy. Do the criminal justice institutions have parameters on the basis of which one group's differences stand higher in hierarchy over others? This issue emerges as one's collectivity's right conflict with that of another's collectivity or when the rights of an individual conflict with rights of its collectivity.

¹⁷ Muncie, John. 2001. 'The Construction and Deconstruction of Crime' in Muncie, John Muncie, Eugene McLaughlin (eds.). *The Problem of Crime*. (p. 29), London: Sage Publications.

- 5.1.4. A related matter pertains to prioritising the criminal justice outlays and initiatives. For instance, what are the necessary and what are the additional measures to improve the delivery of justice? When does commitment to justice gain relevance without sufficient investment in infrastructure, human and systemic support? How far can commitment to justice provide meaning to safety? Are the rights of population affected by crime less important than the protection of citizens untouched by crime? What kind of distribution and linkages need to be built between input of resources, output of capacities and outcomes in terms of crime reduction and commitment to justice?
- 5.1.5. The present research shall help to cull out these issues with the help of mapping of justice delivery indicators. These indicators shall be identified to capture issues related to collective accountability; considerations of safety, provision of safety within the constitutional frame giving due recognition to differential placements of populations with equality of treatment as an outcome; linkages in different dimensions of safety and delivery of justice.

5.2. Performance Measurement: Dimensions of the Criminal Justice System

5.2.1. Accessibility and Efficiency

The indicators under this dimension are measures of the growing confidence of the people in the criminal justice system and internal efficiency of the multi-agencies assigned the task of dispensing justice. This indicator measures the capacity of the criminal justice system to make available the necessary resources and services to avail fair treatment by law. Existing outlays in terms of staff, material resources and finances are captured under access to justice. Social placement and norms influence the access to and use of infrastructure and services. Also, the cultural context can have an impact on the meaning and utilisation of the services. Efficiency measures the extent to which reported crime has been processed and justice delivered across different types of crime. It also captures disaggregate data for different types of crime. Operational effectiveness is measured by charge-sheeting rates, conviction rates, disposal rates, recovery of stolen goods and time spent in courts.

5.2.2. Fact File

The access to justice indicators have shown that Punjab has high presence of police personnel in terms of area covered and population coverage. It ranked seventh and fourteenth with 132 police personnel per 100 square kilometre and 244 personnel per one lakh population respectively. And, in terms of expenditure it is amongst the high spending states, ranked fifteenth. Its operational affectivity has been measured in terms of disposal rate, charge-sheeting and recovery rate of stolen property. It ranked third, for its performance in recovery of stolen property. However, its performance is poor in case of disposal rate as it ranked at 20th. Punjab ranks 13th in charge-sheeting rate (See Table 1 in Chapter V- Annexure). An analysis of complaints received registered, investigated and charge-sheeted shows that Punjab represents the national trend.

A look at the data show that sixty-three per cent of the total complaints are registered, out of these 14 per cent are dropped at the investigation stage and another 25 per cent at the time of submission of charge-sheet. The overall performance in terms of access to justice and efficiency is low as it ranked 21st amongst 35 states and Union Territories (See Table 7 in Chapter V- Annexure).

These macro findings have been confirmed by a field survey. In a field survey an attempt was made to capture the range of community-police interface. It was found that a majority of respondents interact with the police to lodge complaints, for security arrangements and avail various police services.

EXISTING COMMUNITY POLICE INTERACTION	
◆	Registering complaints
◆	FIRs lodged for various violations including economic fraud.
◆	Security requirements
◆	Requests for security for political, religious, sports or for other functions
◆	Services
◆	Provisions of certain services such as verification of passport, issue of armed license, permission for loud speakers, service verifications etc.
	Type of complaints received from general public
◆	Crime and theft related
◆	Property disputes
◆	Mutual conflicts
◆	Traffic violations

A large number of respondents confirmed having paid bribes. The incidence of corruption were relatively less for services like no objection certificate for arms, permission for processions, request for police security for public functions. Interestingly, these services are accessed by politically influential persons. Majority of the respondents confirmed having paid bribes for getting their verification services and registration of complaints in the police stations. Accessibility if it is there, involves time and financial costs. To reduce these costs it has been proposed to bring 20 police services within the purview of Right to Service Act. The purpose of this Act is to deliver these services in stipulated time.

5.2.3. Level of physical security

This composite indicator measures the level of physical security enjoyed by the citizens. However, this is constrained by the level of variation between the occurrence of actual crime and the reported crime. But, a comparative analysis amongst regions and socially diverse populations may help to capture variations and understand factors responsible for increased or decreased accessibility and efficiency.

An interstate comparison on level of physical security enjoyed by the citizens, shows that the total IPC crime rate (per lakh population) is highest in Kerala, Punjab ranks 24th in overall IPC crime rate. However, on crime against body Punjab ranked 13th, whereas it registered high rate of economic crimes ranked at four among the states and union territories. The registered crime against women and the Dalits is comparatively lower as it is positioned at 23rd and 18th (See Table 3 in Chapter V- Annexure).

Key concerns emerge from this fact file;

- (a) Reporting of crime against women and Dalits is low
- (b) Reporting of crime against body and economic crimes are comparatively on the higher side.

It would be relevant to evolve strategies to make invisible crime against women and Dalits visible. In addition, institutionalise informal justice mechanisms to resolve economic disputes and activate community policing to reduce crime against body.

5.2.4. Rights of population affected by crime

This is an important dimension to measure the nature of the functioning of criminal justice system towards the creation of a sense of entitlement in justice delivery among the victims of

crime. The affectivity and fairness of the criminal justice system can be viewed cross-sectional by analysing how the rights of people affected by crime are provided for by the state. Two types of population groups are focused i.e. the accused and the victims. What kind of safeguards does the system provide for the rights of the accused and the convicted? The rights of the accused and victims are gauged as a process. These include, if the accused are arrested according to certain procedures (arrest warrant, police custody procedures), and if their remand is sanctioned by a judicial decree. There are provisions of right to counsel extending to free legal aid where the case may demand. These rights are further captured in prisons where basic rights of food, hygiene, medical provisions, space and protection are warranted. The average time in police remand and the rights maintained in prisons are yet to be reflected in crime and prison statistics published by the state. The average remand time in the prisons is one of the factors that have been listed in state documents. The pre-trial detention is another area that requires urgent attention. In Punjab, out of 17,148 prisoners 63.51 per cent are under trial (as on 28.02.2010). There is a need to create a database including the nature of crime for which each under trial prisoner is being tried, maximum punishment permissible, duration of their imprisonment, etc.

In Punjab, a large number of complaints have been registered against its security personnel (police), followed by Chattisgarh and Jharkhand. If the record of performance of states in protection of affected population is further extended to rate of conviction of police personnel convicted then the picture further intensifies with both Punjab and Chattisgarh continuing to be among the poor performing states. Average complaints per hundred policemen are quite high in Punjab with its 5.8 complaints per 100 policemen it is at the 6th position among States and UTs (See Table 4 in Chapter V-Annexure).

5.2.5. Institutional Alternatives

These institutional alternatives function within the demarcated domains of the three institutions of the police, the judiciary and prisons. For instance, in police, community policing programmes, which have been adopted by the police in most states in India with an effort to involve the community as a participant in policing activities.

The most widespread alternative that has been institutionalised in Punjab is the community policing

programme (see for details Chapter V- Annexure). Even though, it is an extension of community policing into adjudication, it is only the institution of police that works with the local communities rather than coordination between judiciary and policing.

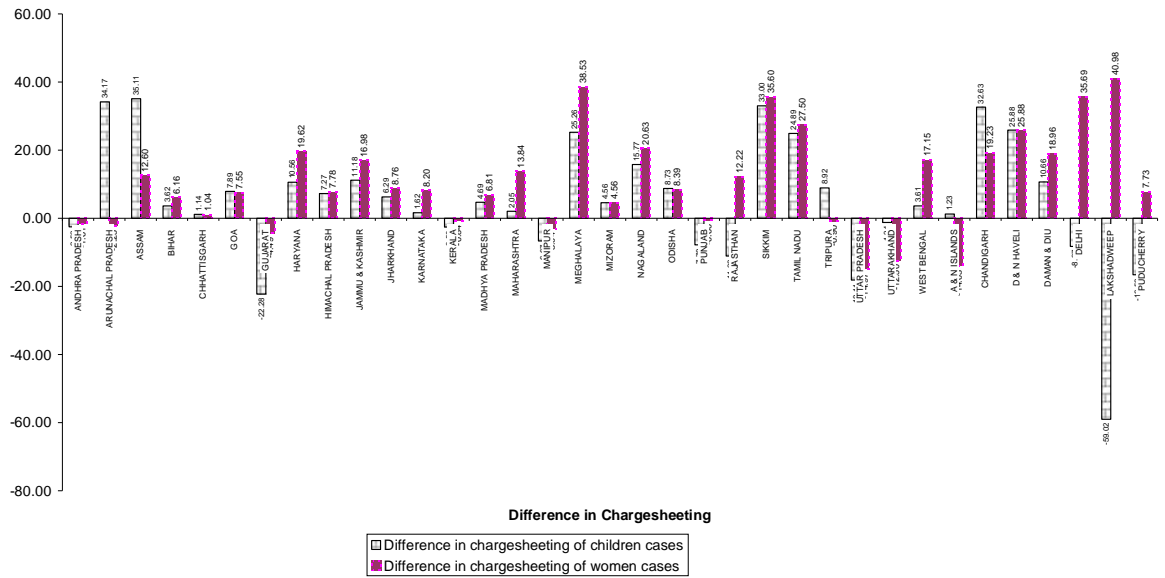
5.3. Performance on vulnerable sections

- 5.3.1. The rights of the vulnerable groups, particularly women, children and also the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes constitute a part of the political discourse. For instance, is the Scheduled Caste population discriminated by the agencies? Is there any difference in the charge-sheeting rate related to the Scheduled Castes vis-à-vis the total charge-sheeting rates?¹⁸ Is the justice system gender sensitive? Are conviction rates for crimes against women higher as compared to other crimes? A view of the index reveals that there is a significant difference in charge-sheeting rates in crimes against the Scheduled Castes are much lower in states like Meghalaya, Mizoram and Nagaland (see Graph-2). On the other hand, Lakshadweep, Delhi, Sikkim are more efficient when it comes to Charge sheeting rate in cases of crimes against women than their average charge-sheeting rates (see Graph-1). Clearly, the criminal justice system differentiates in its performance levels and thus in its accessibility to justice in accordance with the nature of the crime (like rape, molestation) and also in terms of population groups, an arena for policy makers to look into.
- 5.3.2. Such a comparison would document the state's concerns for its weaker sections, allow monitoring and promote the required changes.

¹⁸ The growth of prisons, jails, and other penal institutions, in turn, has meant the stigmatisation of more and more minority youths. This stigmatisation has reinforced the image of the poor as dangerous and undeserving, an image that has been crucial in legitimating the shift from the welfare state to the security state.
Beckett, Katherine, Theodore Sasson. 2000. 'War on Crime as Hegemonic Strategy: A Neo-Marxian Theory of the New Punitiveness in U.S. Criminal Justice Policy' in Sally S. Simpson (ed.) *Of Crime and Criminality*. Thousand Oaks, California: Pine Forge Press, p. 78.

Graph-1

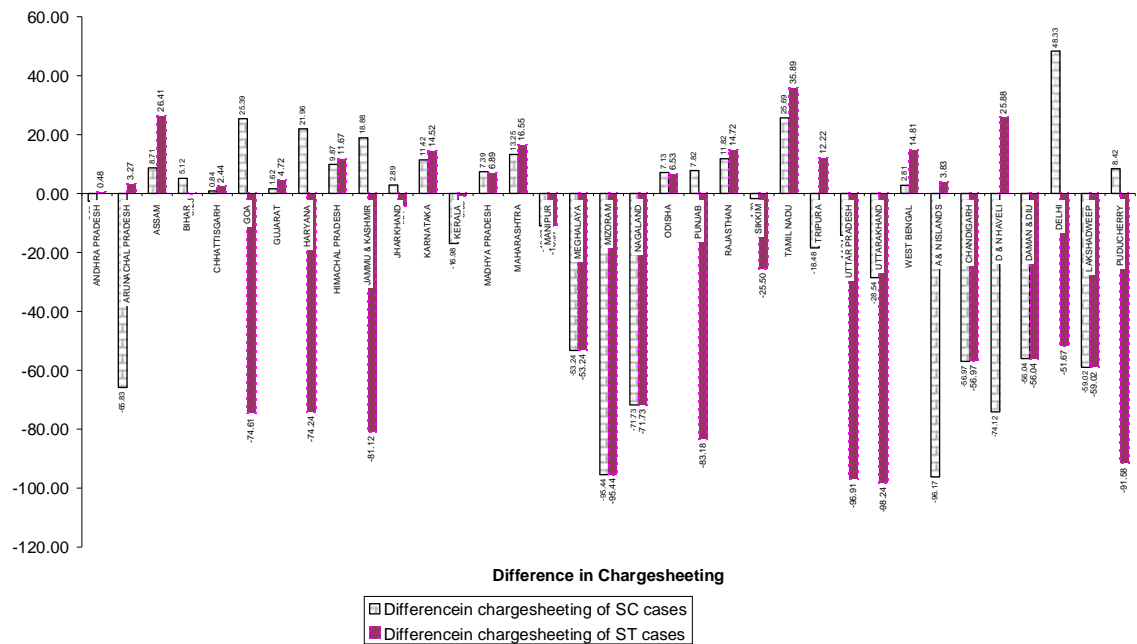
Statewise Difference in Chargesheeting rates in cases of crime against Vulnerable Section: Women and Child



Source: Crime in India 2010

Graph-2

Statewise Difference in Chargesheeting rates in cases of crime against Vulnerable Section: SC and ST

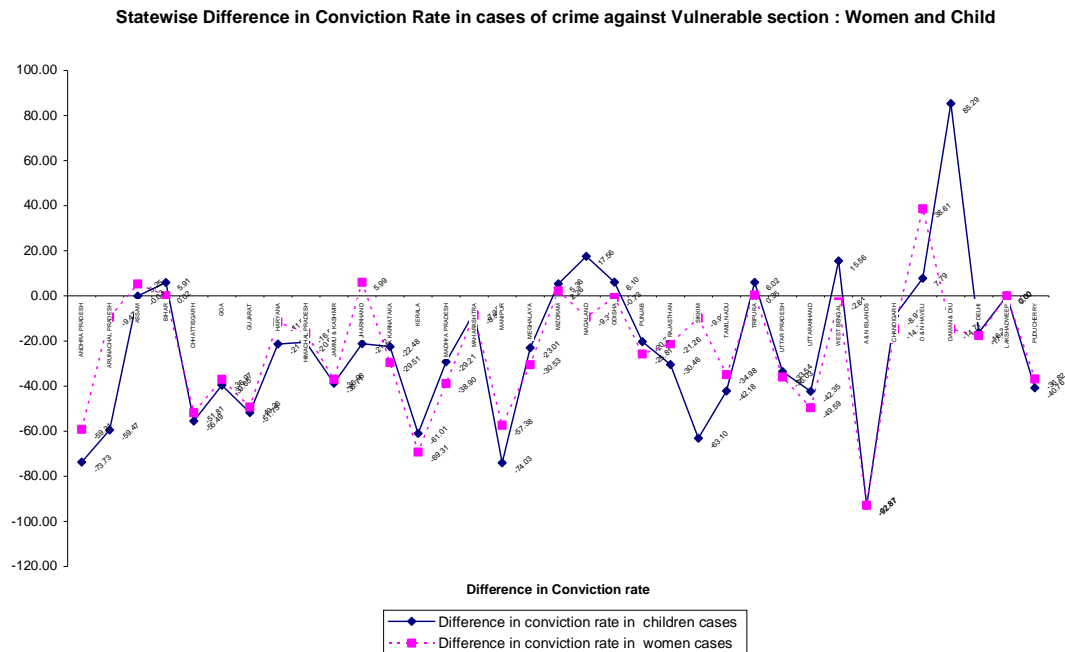


Source: Crime in India 2010

- 5.3.3. The above two graphs reveal that the charge-sheeting rates for women and children follow an average of the state pattern with a small range of difference. On the contrary, the difference in charge-sheeting rates for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe varies much more from the state average. An area of concern would be the performance of the north-eastern states where the Scheduled Tribes are in majority. In states like Goa and Haryana, the Scheduled Tribes are in negligible number and the variation can be misleading. Similar is the case for Scheduled Castes in UTs of Lakshadweep, Pondicherry and the north-east. The difference in charge-sheeting rate reveals that the charge-sheeting of Scheduled Castes is higher in comparison with the total charge-sheeting rates in the states of Tamil Nadu, West Bengal and Jammu and Kashmir, whereas the union territories of Daman and Diu, Chandigarh and the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Sikkim reflect higher charge-sheeting rates on crime against women, showing the states' efforts in the delivery of justice to women on gender crimes.
- 5.3.4. Social invisibility attached to crime against women and lower castes provides an easy way for the police to protect the interests of the dominant groups. Crimes like rape are not reported because the victims fear social stigma and caste rapes are not seen as a violation of rights in a caste hierarchical society. Most of the times even molestation is not considered as a crime to invite the attention of the police.
- 5.3.5. Most of the surveys of citizens' perception of their interaction with the lower castes reported that police was partisan and violated the rights of the vulnerable sections. Members of the Scheduled Castes complained that they were physically assaulted, sexually harassed and socially disgraced by the police.
- 5.3.6. It is mainly due to their lower caste status, poor economic condition and their inability to bribe, that they are targeted by the police. Most of the violative behaviour of the police remains invisible due to the prevalence and acceptance of the caste system. The police is perceived to protect the

'community' from the mobile population which is excluded from the definition of the community. Their seeming inability to control the migration or to regulate the migrants is seen as a failure of the police. If the local communities have ethnic bondage with the immigrant population, the state's efforts to preserve its territorial integrity get compromised, especially in a hyper-national identity context. On the contrary, the local population considered the police to be inefficient in handling migrant issues. For different groups diverse norms of justice are applied. This can be a huge challenge to the respective state stakeholders in terms of fairness of the criminal justice system. This trend can be explored further by studying the conviction rates on these very population groups.

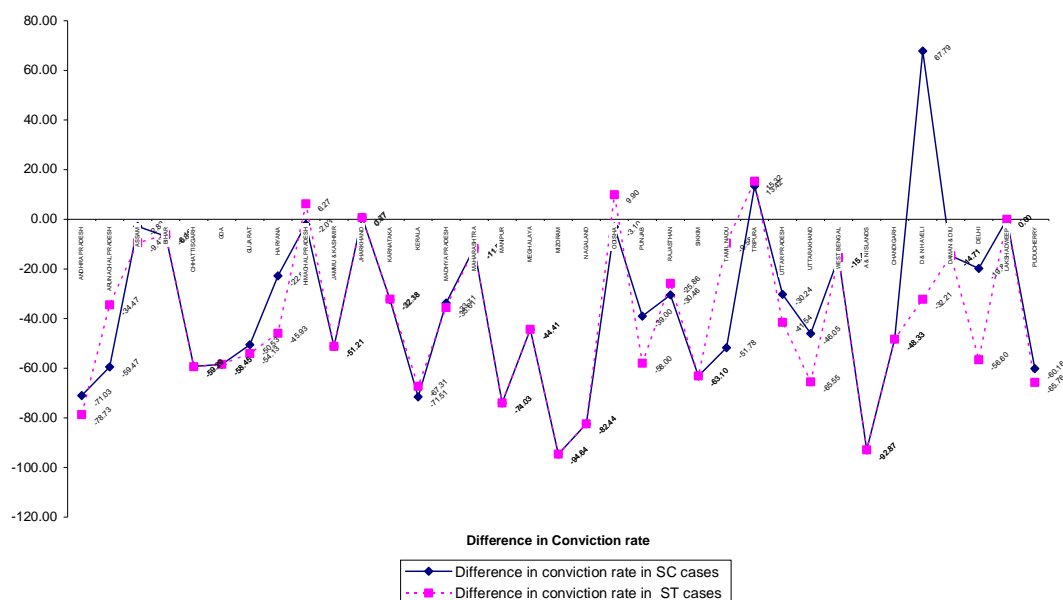
Graph-3



Source: Crime in India 2010

Graph-4

Statewise Difference in Conviction Rate in cases of crime against Vulnerable section : SC and ST



Source: Crime in India 2010

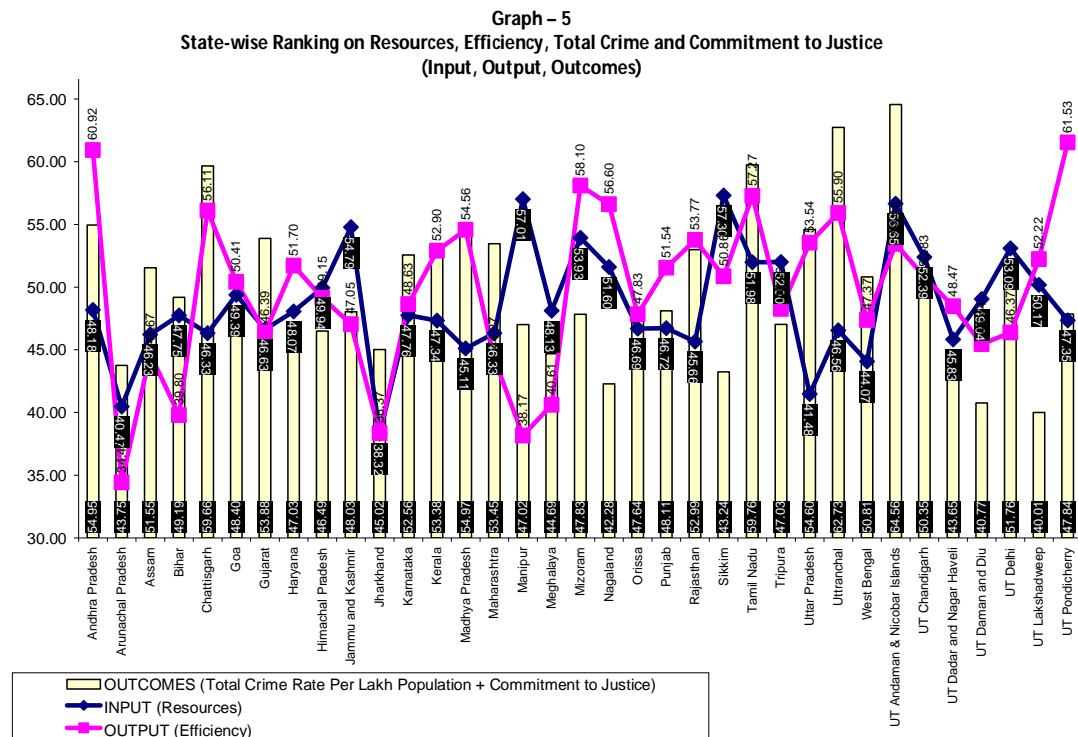
5.3.7. A majority of the states reflect a lower conviction rate of the accused in crimes against women and children, exceptions being Union Territories of Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Daman Diu. Similarly the in cases of crime against other weaker sections – Scheduled Castes and Tribes –conviction rates were much below the overall conviction rate. Why is this trend emerging? These gaps reflect on the challenges for policy makers by identifying spheres that still require special initiatives or seek support from civil society groups where gaps in certain services are identified.

5.4. Policy Direction: Comparing inputs with outputs & outcomes

5.4.1. Governance from the policy makers' perspective would need to be informed on the impact and the correlation between inputs with outputs and outcomes. The state takes collective measures to safeguard the interests of citizens in terms of protection to body and property. Outlays for the infrastructure in terms of finances, material, goods, human costs are incurred with a view to achieving certain outputs namely efficient processes of justice delivery within the police, judiciary and prisons – quick disposal of cases, charge-sheeting rates and

convictions to be efficient and timely. How do the resource inputs, impact on these functions? Do the outlays and efficiency in performance reflect upon the outcomes, i.e. on higher safety and security of the citizens (low crime)? Sectoral functioning and the large number of individual indicators are unable to reflect this relationship.

5.4.2. Thus efficiency of performance has an impact on crime rate, but deployment of resources has not found to be connected to the performance levels or for crime rates. This raises serious questions for investigation by policy makers - how to make resource provisions that are most effective for optimal performance and resultant lowering of crime?



Source: Crime in India 2005

5.4.3. States that are high/medium/low on each of the three would show the best utilisation of resources (input) for optimal efficiency (outputs) and related levels of crime control (outcome). Tamil Nadu and the union territory of Andaman and Nicobar fall in the top band, high on all three. In the medium percentile's band where the states performed on an average on all three inputs, output and outcome was Punjab. The states

with the lowest performance on all three, input, output and outcome was Jharkhand.

(i) Efficiency, accountability, staff representation and crime rate

The correlation between efficiency and crime rates for states like Tamil Nadu, Meghalaya, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa is significant. There are a few others such as West Bengal where the efficiency rank is relatively average, but the rank on crime rate is high (see Table 8 in Chapter V-Annexure). And Gujarat with a similar efficiency level as West Bengal reflects much lower crime rates. Clearly, factors external to this relationship exist and these need to be explored.

(ii) Efficiency and Staff Representation

Efficiency levels and staff diversity, like representation of women, the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and Muslims do not reflect a significant correlation with correlates of efficiency and crime rate. Punjab which is at 21st rank in proportionate representation of women and at 15th position in women police station's per 100 police stations is on 23rd rank in total crime against women per lakh population (see Table 9 in Chapter V-Annexure). Thus gender staffing, women police stations, family courts correspond to higher rates of charge-sheeting and conviction of those accused of crimes against women in a state, which reports the highest level of crime against women after Delhi. Perhaps initiatives taken to make women more secure in the state have resulted in higher confidence by women in reporting their victimisation.

(iii) Registration of Crime and Legitimacy

Ratio of petty upon heinous crime (IPC only) can help to measure the legitimacy enjoyed by the police. This will also check the practice to discourage and avoid registration of crimes. From above table it can be made out that the ratio between petty crimes and heinous crime is higher in Ropar, Mohali, Patiala, Gurdaspur and Sangrur. This shows that people have reposed greater confidence in police in these districts. Some of the suggestions given in earlier reports relating to system of crime reporting and investigation have been implemented. (See Chapter V-Annexure).

(iv) From Crime Management to Crime Prevention

Crime activity mapping pertains to identifying the nature and rate of crime. It also notes places vulnerable to crime and susceptible to criminals.

(a) Mapping for crime management

Crime management relates to activity initiated to reduce the incidence of crime. It involves;

(i) Crime convergence and dispersal

Crime convergence and dispersal has to be mapped in terms of activity space and the. There can be places with many types of crimes or a specific crime. The linkages between crime-prone areas and places that have the potential to be crime-prone have to be noted. There may be a shift from areas that have been subjected to crime prevention, to new areas. The identification of activity space of the offenders has to be captured keeping in view the condition of anonymity, minimum mobility and risk preference etc.

(ii) Target, perpetrator and spatial attributes

Based on hot spot mapping, the identification of vulnerable targets such as women and old couples; potential perpetrators such as ex-criminals, drug addicts, fake travel agents; and places prone to criminal activities like *melas*, alcohol dens, drug peddling spots, “eyeing” routes, procession routes etc., can be collated on maps for subsequent management.

(iii) Mapping temporal cost-benefit considerations and crime displacement

Heavy deployment of resources or changing the situational context can lead to displacement of crime from one location to another. When the anonymity of a criminal is endangered or the element of risk in committing a crime increases, the criminals can shift their area of operation. The cost-benefit consideration of a criminal activity is influenced by the extent of social support or opposition it receives. The displacement of crime in relation to place, target and perpetrators may

be the result of the offenders seeing certain crimes as less risky, availability of soft targets, and the emergence of new offenders.

(iv) Resource mapping in terms of personnel, technology and community

Mapping of resource management has been in consonance with hot spots, crime dispersal, attributes of the targets, the perpetrators, places and crime displacement. This includes deployment and redeployment, training and retraining of functionaries, technology upgradation, networking with other support systems and community mobilisation. For involving the community in crime prevention, information may have to be imparted to the community to the extent it is necessary.

(b) Mapping for Crime Prevention

Mapping for crime prevention includes attributes of the perpetrators, spatial and targets along with the factors that contribute to the occurrence of the crime. Crime mapping for prevention is useful to overcome the following disadvantages:

(i) An Empiricist Trap

It is assumed that crime can be controlled or moderated by manipulating the behaviour of criminals. This may succeed in shifting of the offenders from one type of crime and place of crime to another. In other words, it results in crime termination in a particular context rather than crime elimination. This kind of mapping, if taken on its face value, results in spurious cause and effect association.

(ii) Invisibility of crime

Actor related crime management may provide visibility only to the occurrence of a particular kind of crime leaving vast criminal activities undetected. Hot spot mapping provides invisibility to crimes which are less frequent, but have a potential to escalate. For instance,

state-wise mapping of hot spots reflects a cultural zone as more susceptible to criminal offences, while another zone to gender related crime. This kind of mapping provides a cover to crimes which are not reported due to cultural acceptance. These crimes remain invisible. For instance, biases and pre-conceived notions in relation to religion, caste, race and gender are pervasive in multi-cultural societies. These have been institutionalised.

iii) Institutional Alternatives and Total Crime

Community policing has been initiated in most states with improved programmes seeking citizen participation in crime prevention. *Lok Adalats* have been instituted to help relieve the pressure of cases in courts and to provide quick relief to the people. Open jails have been constituted as reformatory programmes, but how do these initiatives impact on the physical security of the citizens? While these have been evaluated and improvements made, the sheer volume and its impact on crime, or on the expenditure of courts, or on occupancy rates in prisons, need to be studied to provide support as the case may be. Are alternatives then subsidising formal structures or are they improving public perception of safety in their areas?

5.5. Why is there no clear co-relation between efficiency, accountability and crime rate?

- 5.5.1. The key to the criminal justice system is the applicability of the principles of accountability to the investigative, prosecution and trial systems. The command structure of the police has built-in performance and control mechanisms. Inspection by an officer, crime review meetings at the state, district and police station levels based on indicators like charge-sheeting, conviction, clearance rates, crime data including incidence of crime, number of unsolved cases, causes of spurt in crime, etc. Inspection of the recovery of contraband articles like drugs, illicit liquor, explosives, the number of arrests etc. A review of the process of investigation including the status and time taken for investigation is also undertaken. A check of the efficacy of the crime control method is also conducted.
- 5.5.2. However, the scope of fair trial conceptually has been enhanced, but lack of logistic support has undermined the

quality of trial and justice dispensed.¹⁹ There is systemic coordination but in actual practice there is no administrative co-operation as regular monitoring and coordination among the police and the district attorney is lacking. To overcome these constraints, the Malimath Committee²⁰ recommended that in view of multifarious tasks of the police, investigation gets relegated. So a separate wing for investigation with the involvement of experts (auditing, banking, revenue etc.) and upgraded technology may enhance the accountability of the criminal justice system.

- 5.5.3. The checks and balances which are built in the system have introduced practices which have established the principles of accountability. For example, in the Best Bakery case in India, the Supreme Court ordered re-investigation and retrial of the case pertaining to riots in the state of Gujarat. The judicial review has led to the protection of the rights of humans, and fixing the responsibility of the police.

¹⁹ Demarcation of authority in 1973-74 police divested of prosecution functions which have been taken over by Director Prosecution and Litigation.

²⁰ Malimath, V.S. (2003), 'Committee on Reforms of Criminal Justice System', Govt. of India, Ministry of Home Affairs.

Chapter VI

REFORMING CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM FOR JUSTICE DELIVERY²¹

6.1. Perspective

6.1.1. Criminal Justice system (CJS) is set of legal and social institutions for enforcing criminal law in accordance with the procedural rules, and practices. CJS can best be defined as the set of penal laws and criminal procedures which operate when a crime is committed and its cognizance is taken by the police or the Magistrate. The system includes several major sub-systems, and is composed of one or more public institutions and their staff; police and other law enforcement agencies; trial and appellate courts; department of prosecution; jails and other correctional agencies, and defense lawyers. It revolves around the victims of crime and persons accused of crime, therefore, victims and accused are also a part of CJS.

The principal branches of CJS are as follows:

- Police investigation
- Prosecution
- Trial court
- Prison

6.1.2. Criminal justice system tells us how to deal with the person accused of the crime after the crime has been reported, how he is to be arrested and brought before law, what the investigator may do during the investigation (including what he cannot do), what indeed are the rights of the accused person, what happens after the investigation has been completed and the accused is sent up for trial, what are the steps which have to be undergone at the trial before the trial judge pronounces the accused guilty (or not guilty), and if guilty, awards sentence. Lastly, what the convict should expect while undergoing sentence before he is finally released from CJS. The accused

²¹This chapter has been contributed by Task group on Reforming Criminal Justice System for Justice Delivery chaired by Justice K.S. Grewal (Retd.)

person enters the system upon initial arrest and exits either through discharge, acquittal or after completing his sentence. Bail is only release from custody; bail is not release from CJS.

- 6.1.3. CJS has become hopelessly flawed and obsolescent because quick trials are not taking place. At times one gets the feeling that CJS is on the verge of collapse, or terminal illness, unless corrective steps are taken.
- 6.1.4. Many accused persons remain in custody without bail during trials which often last 3 to 4 years. The big worry is that judicial traffic before the trial courts has become haphazard and unmanageable. The accused persons benefit from this confusion in more ways than one. They use this time to win over witnesses leading to acquittal or light sentence. One of the main reasons why the conviction rate is so abysmally low is the slow progress of the trial before the trial court.
- 6.1.5. Therefore, unless CJS is revamped and restructured by the policy makers and well understood by all who are concerned with controlling lawlessness and crime, guilty persons shall continue to escape punishment to roam free, unreformed and unrepentant. They would have also exposed many chinks in the armour of law, and punctured gaping holes in CJS which would permit more and more accused persons to escape without condign punishment.
- 6.1.6. CJS must work like a well-oiled machine, and demonstrate functional cohesion and institutional solidarity. Its various components must relate to each other and understand each others' role. There should be free exchange of information between its main participants. The interest of the victims of the crime and the witnesses must be safeguarded.
- 6.1.7. The notion of a "system' suggests something highly rational – carefully planned, coordinated, regulated. Although a certain amount of rationality exists, much of the functioning of criminal justice agencies is unplanned, poorly coordinated and unregulated. Each of the institutions and actors have their own set of goals and priorities that sometimes conflict with those of other institutions and actors, or with the supposed goals and

priorities of the system as a whole. Furthermore, each of the actors have substantial unregulated discretion in making particular decisions.

6.1.8. Therefore, it is important to understand the working of CJS, its legal procedures, its main routes, highways and by – lanes and its important landmarks. This understanding shall help us to master the system and not remain its victims. Delay today shall lead to criminalization of society tomorrow and this monster shall rise to consume future generations.

6.2. Recommendations

Everyone charged of an offence is innocent till proven guilty at the conclusion of the trial. This is the most valuable right of the accused. Violation of this right by the police investigators or the prosecution is the most serious violation of human rights. This should never be allowed to happen in 21st century Punjab. A state which prides itself for upholding the rights of the people must make a public reaffirmation that all accused shall be treated as innocent until the trial is over.

6.3. Rights of All Accused must be Respected

6.3.1. Under the common law system followed in India, there is always a presumption of innocence in favour of the accused during the investigation. This is the golden thread which runs through our jurisprudence. Articles 10 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights lays down that “everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.” Article 11(1) states that “ Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defense.”

6.3.2. The accused have other rights too which have to be respected. The Supreme Court has given extensive directions regarding the procedure to be followed by the police upon the arrest of a person and the minimum facilities available to such persons in

the well know case – D.K.Basu v. State of West Bengal (1997) 1 SCC 416.

6.3.3. Some of the well known constitutional rights of the accused are

i. Right of life.

This is a constitutional right granted under Article 21 of the Constitution of India which provides that “No person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law.”

ii. Right to speedy trial

Speedy trial is considered an essential ingredient of the right to fair trial. Unnecessarily prolonged detention of under trial prisoners is a violation of the fundamental right of life and personal liberty implicit in Article 21 of the Constitution. Right to speedy trial includes right to speedy investigation.

iii. Right to Counsel

Every accused has the right to be defended by a counsel. Denial of counsel is tantamount to compelling him to face an unfair trial. The right to counsel is available to the accused person from the time he is arrested.

iv. Right to Free Legal Aid

The State has a constitutional mandate under Article 39-A of the Constitution of India, to provide legal aid to accused persons who are unable to engage counsel. Many times persons accused of even bailable offences continue to languish in custody because they are not represented by counsel and are unaware of their right to bail.

v. Right to a fair Trial

vi. Right against Double Jeopardy

Article 20 (2) of the Constitution of India lays down the principle: “No person shall be prosecuted and punished for the same offence more than once.”

vii. Right against Self – incrimination

Article 20 (3) of the Constitution of India provides: "No person accused of an offence shall be compelled to be a witness against himself." This is an important safeguard because it protects accused persons from being made to confess through 3rd degree methods.

6.4. Committee on Reforms of Criminal Justice System (Malimath Committee)

The Committee on Reforms of Criminal Justice System was constituted by the Government of India, Ministry of Home Affairs on 24 November 2000, to consider measures for revamping the Criminal Justice System under the chairmanship of Dr Justice V.S.Malimath, former Chief Justice of Karnataka and Kerala High Courts. The Committee submitted its report on March 28, 2003. The report contained 158 recommendations. We are of the opinion that the recommendations made by the Malimath Committee should be revisited in the light of recent experience.

6.5. Reports of the Law Commission of India

6.5.1. Law commission of India is an old and respected institution which sits in New Delhi under the Chairmanship of a former Judge of the Supreme Court of India. The present Chairman is Justice P.V. Reddi, a former Judge of the Supreme Court of India.

6.5.2. The Law Commission of India has, since Independence, rendered 236 reports on various constitutional, civil and criminal matters. We have considered reports of the Law Commission since 1985 on criminal law and would like to recommend that each of these reports should be revisited and acted upon if this has not already been done. At least some decision should be taken why these reports are not being implemented.

6.5.3. In our opinion the important reports on CJS since 1985 are the following:

Reports	Subject
113	Injuries in police custody
132	Amendments to Chapter IX Cr. P.C. (Maintenance)
135	Women in custody
146	Sale of women and children
156	Indian Penal code
173	Prevention of Terrorism Bill 2000
177	Law relating to arrest
178	Recommendations for amendments of various criminal Acts
180	Art 20 (3) of the Constitution
185	Review of the Indian Evidence Act, 1872
196	Medical treatment of terminally ill patients
198	Witness protection
200	Trial by Media- Free Speech & Fair Trial under Cr. P.C.
201	Medical care to accident victims, medical emergency labour
202	Amendment to S. 304 B I.P.C.
203	Anticipatory bail
206	New Coroners Act
210	Decriminalization of Attempt to Suicide
213	Fast track courts for dishonored cheque cases
226	Acid attack as a distinct offence
233	Restoration of complaints dismissed in default
234	Reforms to combat road accidents

6.5.4. Some of the above reports have indeed been examined by the Punjab State Law commission under the chairmanship of Justice Amarbir singh Gill.

- i. Report 202 (amendment to S.304- B IPC) did not recommend death sentence as the maximum sentence for dowry death punishable under S. 304-B IPC. Punjab State Law commission (PSLC) also found no reason to differ from this report.
- ii. Report 203 (anticipatory bail) recommended the omission of proviso to S. 438 (1) Cr PC and omission of S.438 (1B) Cr PC. PSLC also agreed with the report.
- iii. Report 206 (new Coroners Act) recommended by the Law Commission of India. PSLC was of the view if the new Act is passed by Parliament, its application be deferred to a date fixed by the State, keeping in view its financial resources and the need to educate the citizen but the new act was whole heartedly approved by PSLC.
- iv. Report 210 (De-criminalisation of Attempt to Suicide), the Law commission has recommended that S. 309 IPC be repealed. However, PSLC highlighted cases of attempted suicide by a terrorist, a human bomb or a drug trafficker and felt that a failed suicide attempt by such persons should not go unpunished.
- v. Report 226 (acid attack as distinct offence), the Law Commission recommended amendment of IPC to make acid attacks a special offence and also made certain other recommendations for attending to needs of victims of acid attacks, for their proper treatment, aftercare and rehabilitation and making all forms acid a scheduled banned chemical which is not readily available over the counter. PSLC recommended early implementation of these reforms.
- vi. Report 233 (restoration of complaints dismissed in default), Law commission has recommended amendment of Ss. 249 and 256 Cr PC for inserting provisions of the lines Order IX CPC. PSLC fully supported these recommendations. We have unfortunately been unable to determine from the State Government the reasons for the delay in acting upon the proposals for reform sent commission.

6.6. Human Rights courts

Respect for human rights of citizens is an important aspect of CJs. The government should move to set up Human Rights courts in every district under S.30 of Human rights Act, 1993, to try offences relating to human rights.

6.7. Judicial Year

6.7.1. The way in which criminal trials are conducted is completely contrary to the basic principle of jurisprudence that trials are held in the presence of the trial judge on day to day basis, without interruption, until evidence has been concluded and judgment pronounced. S. 309 Cr PC also mandates day to day trials but no criminal trial in the State is being held on a day to day basis. Therefore, it can be said that CJS is in complete disarray. Criminal trials are not held in a fair manner and deny the prosecution and the defense the huge benefits of a continuous trial without adjournments, the end result is an unfair verdict. If the trial spreads over years, the public lose confidence in the fairness of CJS. The witnesses tend to forget what they saw and are often won over by the accused, leading to his acquittal. This has a long- term negative effect on the system.

6.7.2. The grim reality is that the trial judges are over burdened with work. This is largely on account of the insufficient judge strength. Criminal work is so intermingled with civil work that the cause of civil justice also suffers through delays. On a given day too many cases are fixed for trial but only very few make any tangible progress. Often witnesses do not turn up or the counsels seek adjournments or the court adjourns the case on account of pre-occupation with other cases.

6.7.3. This problem can be surmounted by careful planning and better court management. All courts should be required to function on the basis of a judicial calendar by following a judicial year, which can be from April to March (or January to December). The judicial year should be divided into four terms, interspersed with breaks, as appropriate for Summer, Diwali, Winter (or Christmas), and Holi (or Baisakhi). The judicial terms should be –

Ist term (April to June) – Spring
IInd (July to September) - Monsoon
IIIrd Term (October to December) - Aunturn
IVth Term (January to March) – Winter

- 6.7.4. All trials once commenced must conclude within that very term and on no account should the trials continue to the next term. Trial courts should fix only that many trial which can be conveniently concluded in the given term. All accused who are in custody and whose trials are not concluded during the term, should be released on bail, unless they are very dangerous, or are likely to flee.
- 6.7.5. No mid-term transfer or promotion of trial judges should be affected. No judge should be permitted to leave his post on promotion or transfer unless he has completed all the trials assigned to him. Since Punjab & Haryana High Court enjoys superintendent and control over the sub-ordinate judiciary, the recommendations under the head “ Judicial year” can only be implemented after due consideration by the Hon’ble High Court.

6.8. Road Code

- 6.8.1. Driving in Punjab is a hazardous experience because drivers of vehicles and other road users like tractor drivers, bullock cart drivers, shepherds, cyclists and pedestrians do not observe basis rules of road safety. There has also been an exponential increase in the volume of traffic. All these factors lead to road accidents in which victims lose their lives or limbs or suffer different types of injuries. These cases also overload the justice delivery system.
- 6.8.2. Ignorance of driving rules can be overcome by a carefully drafted and properly publicised RPAD CODE. This should be made available to all road users. It should be available on the internet and extensively publicized through the print and electronic media. Violators should be given exemplary punishment. Traffic lights should be installed at all crossings. Road signage should be accurate and well displayed.

6.9. Prison Reforms

- 6.9.1. Modern prisons are correctional institutions geared to reform the prisoners or hold the prisoners in custody during trial. Reform is aimed at convicts not under- trials. All under - trials are presumed innocent, therefore, their treatment must necessarily be different. Our Courts have developed prison jurisprudence to a great extent and recognized the human rights of convicts and under- trials.
- 6.9.2. After conducting the spot study of conditions of Central Jail Ludhiana the following recommendations are made:
- i. Convicts are made to work in workshops producing tents, furniture, etc. but are paid a measly wage of Rs 8 (unskilled), Rs 10 (semi- skilled) and Rs 12 (skilled). this is against the norms laid down by the Supreme Court in State of Gujarat v. Hon'ble High court of Gujarat (1998) 7 SCC 392. It is recommended that directions given in this judgment should be immediately complied with.
 - ii. Convicts should be trained in modern trades like plumbing, electric repair, electronics, motor mechanics, computer and TV repair, so that when they are released they are able to work as plumbers, electricians, car mechanics, computer mechanics etc. and earn an honest living to avoid recidivism.
 - iii. The jail has extensive lands which can be productively used for agriculture and forestry but there were no signs of such activity.
 - iv. There should be adequate staffing of the jails. Inadequate staff leads to the existing staff being over- worked which is not good for discipline and morale. Such jail staff may get tempted to become collaborators of the convicts in criminal activities, spreading indiscipline among the prisoners, something contrary to what they are employed to control.
 - v. The State should consider bringing convicts (and also under – trials under the MNREGA. The wages earned by the convicts or under – trials can be send home by him for his wife and

children, who should not suffer deprivation on account of the bread – winners detention.

- vi. Everyday dozens of under – trial prisoners are taken from jails to courts for appearance before the trial courts. On reaching the court complexes they are taken to *Bakhshi- Khanas*, and detained there until their cases are called. These halls are dark, dingy with insufficient space, often without toilets, with no arrangements for drinking water, tea or refreshments. The under- Trial's hearing may last for a few minutes but he shall have to remain in the *bakshi-khana* for the whole day. The standard of these detention centres needs to be considerably improved. There should also be cubicles where an under – trial can hold private consultations with his counsel.

6.9.3. Punjab Prison and Correctional Services bill, 2010 has been drafted. This is a comprehensive Bill that has been drafted after studying international covenants like Basic Principles for the Treatment of Prisoners 1990, Convention against Torture 1987, Universal declaration of Human Rights 1948 and many other international and Indian legislation as well as judgments of the Supreme Court of India. Its vision is "to strengthen the Criminal Justice System to ensure public safety and achieve efficacy in correctional practices." III is "to provide for safe, secure and humane correctional system. To care for under trials and work towards reformation and rehabilitation of offenders by providing a humane environment that promotes law – abiding behavior in custody and successful re-entry into society."

6.9.4. We strongly recommend that Punjab Prison and Correctional Services Act, 2010 should be enacted and Prisons Act, 1894 should be repealed. We have gone through the proposed draft and find that it has been drafted with great skill and foresight, keeping in view the contemporary prison practices which deserve to be very seriously considered. Prison reform is a much neglected area but without reform we will continue to release into society convicts who have not undergone reformation and who will find it difficult to rehabilitate themselves.

6.10. Withdrawal from Prosecution

- 6.10.1. Prosecution of a person arrested for committing a criminal offence, and against whom report under section 173 Cr PC has been filed, constitutes a very important part of CJS. It is an important step before that person is held guilty and punished either to a jail sentence or to payment of fine or both.
- 6.10.2. There may be cases where the evidence is insufficient to warrant conviction even by the most liberal standard of proof in favour of the prosecution. In some cases the State may feel that prosecution may not serve any purpose. Public Prosecutors have been given powers to withdraw from prosecution u/s 321 Cr PC, but only with the consent of the Court. Adequate guidelines should be laid down to withdraw from prosecution against accused persons where evidence is insufficient for successful prosecution, or where they can be penalized through some other non-criminal penalty like fine or compensation to the victim.
- 6.10.3. There may also be cases where the victim has a civil remedy, apart from criminal prosecution, like offences of trespass, cheating, misappropriation etc. In such cases a satisfactory settlement of the civil dispute should be a good reason to withdraw from the prosecution. Factors like admission of guilt, payment of costs to the State, public condemnation and disgrace felt by the accused, or period spent in custody before release on bail can also be considered in deciding to withdraw prosecution.
- 6.10.4. Since the decision to withdraw from prosecution is an important decision which may have an impact on civil society as a whole, if it is left to the Public Prosecutor, it may be open to misuse or criticism. Therefore, cases should be referred to a high – powered independent authority for approval. Proper guidelines should be framed and this provision should be utilized more effectively to reduce pendency of criminal cases and the burden on criminal courts. Alternative Dispute Redressal (ADR) can be usefully dovetailed with prosecution withdrawal in cases which involve a civil dispute leading to a criminal prosecution.

6.11. Compensation for Acquitted Accused

Accused persons are often acquitted after trial or in appeal. During the period or trial/appeal they have to remain in custody for a long time, without bail. They are unable to work to maintain their families; they may lose their jobs, or may have to dispose of property to pay legal fees for their defense. If after suffering financially they are acquitted, they deserve to be compensated. A compensation board should be set up to assess compensation to be paid to acquitted accuse.

6.12. Criminal Justice Monitoring Board as Ombudsman

The Government should, in consultation with the Punjab and Haryana High Court and Punjab Legal services Authority, constitute a Criminal Justice Monitoring Board at the level of each Sessions Division. The Board should be headed by the Sessions Judge and have the District Magistrate, the Senior Superintendent of Police and the Public Prosecutor as its members. The Board should meet every month. All criminal cases should be tracked through an electronic/digital tracking system so that at any given time the stage of the case can be seen and if the case is not making progress or the progress is slow, the reasons for the delay can be discovered, and remedial action recommended to the concerned wing of CJS. The Criminal Justice Monitoring should be competent to hear complaints against investigators and prosecutors to function as an informal Criminal Justice Ombudsman. The Board may order remedial action if the complaint is justified. This will be a measure of great reform of CJS at the grass-root level.

CHAPTER VII

AN ASSESSMENT OF DALITS ACCESS TO SOCIAL PROGRAMMES IN PUNJAB²²

7.1. Perspective

7.1.1. In the 16th century, on coming to India, Portuguese traders, adventurers and visitors found the Hindus divided into many separate groups. These groups were called *castas* by them and this word means tribes, clans or families in Portuguese.²³ In the Indian tradition, *varna* meant status group or 'estate' a la medieval Europe which divided people by basic functions and had an all-India usage. On the other hand, *jati* or caste had a regional connotation. As we know, *jati* centred around the principle of purity and pollution.²⁴

7.1.2. Broadly speaking, there were three widely held opinions about the origins of the caste system, viz. that it is constituted around differences of race, occupation and ideology. In the first, a lot of emphasis was laid on race and the discipline of physical anthropology got primacy to understand social precedence. H.H. Risley noticed a stone panel at Sanchi which depicted three 'aboriginal women' and a troop of monkeys praying at a small shrine. In the background of the same panel, two tall men and two tall women of distinguished appearance approvingly look at this remarkable act of worship with folded hands. Risley's interpretation of this scene was that a higher race was on friendly terms with a lower one in the ancient times. From this he derived his theory that the race sentiment had organised the caste system and race determined social precedence.²⁵

²² This section has been contributed by Prof. Bhupendra Yadav.

²³ A.L. Basham (1954, 1993 reprint), *The Wonder That Was India* (Delhi: Rupa), p. 149.

²⁴ Suvira Jaiswal (1986), "Studies in Early Indian Social History: Trends and Possibilities," R.S. Sharma (ed.) (1986), *Survey of Research in Economic and Social of India* (New Delhi: Ajanta Publications), pp.46-7.

²⁵ H.H. Risley in *The Castes and Tribes of Bengal* (1892) as quoted in Bernard S. Cohn (1987, 1992 reprint), *An Anthropologist Among the Historians and Other Essays* (Delhi: Oxford University Press), p. 247.

7.1.3. The second and third opinion regarding caste has been more popular. The second opinion is that the hereditary specialisation of occupations lay at the root of caste divisions in India. In Ambedkar's opinion, the five attributes of the caste system which made it a peculiar organisation of production and scheme of distribution were:

1. Fixation of occupation by caste and its continuity ensured by heredity.
2. Unequal distribution of economic rights regarding ownership of property, employment, wage, education etc. among caste groups and the operation of the principle of graded inequality afflicting the economic field as well.
3. Occupations were not only fixed and unequal but some of them were considered lower or higher depending upon the social stigma attached to them.
4. The Hindu religious order recognised slavery and the principle of graded inequality was applicable to slavery also.
5. The Hindu social order punished socially and economically those who infringed the caste-based economic order.²⁶

7.1.4. Finally, there was the view that caste may be distinguishable by race or occupations but the caste system is, above all, an ideology and a structure of ideas and values. Ambedkar himself considered ideas to be more important than other factors in the making and ossification of the caste system. Ambedkar said:

7.1.5. Nowhere has society consecrated its occupations – the ways of getting a living. (Hunting, pastoral life and farming as well as feudal gradations were purely social in character.) ... (Yet) Hindus are the only people in the world whose social-order relation of man is consecrated by religion and made sacred, eternal and inviolate. ... It is not therefore enough to say that the Hindus are a people with a sacred code of religion. So are the Zoroastrians, Israelites, Christians and Muslims. All these have sacred codes. But they do not prescribe, nor do they consecrate a particular form of social structure – the relationship between man and man in a concrete form – and make it sacred and inviolate. The Hindus are singular in this

²⁶ S.K. Thorat and R.S. Deshpande, 'Caste system and economic inequality: Economic theory and evidence,' in Ghanshyam Shah (ed.), *Dalit Identity and Politics* (New Delhi/ Thousand Oaks/ London, Sage Publications, 2001): 50-51.

respect. This is what has given the Hindu social order its abiding strength to defy the ravages and the onslaught of time.²⁷

- 7.1.6. In this chapter we begin with exploring the different term used to identify Dalits since the 19th century. Sikhs form a majority in present day Punjab. Sikhism is sometimes called the most modern and progressive religion and yet, we find it is home to 30 castes arranged hierarchically. We would, therefore, explore the history of this development among Sikhs. Later, after a short review of literature on Dalit Studies, we will tentatively propose a model to understand the customary collusion and political collision between castes in Punjab.

7.2. Who are Dalits?

- 7.2.1. Dalits are the lowest castes in the hierarchy of castes. They are the ex-untouchables who were known by many names since ancient times, such as 'Mlecha', Antyaja, Paulkasa, Nishada, Ati-shudra etc. Manu called them 'Chandala' and they were also known as 'Panchama' or the fifth class in the four-fold *Varna* system and Avarna or outside the four *Varnas*. Mahatam Gandhi borrowed the term Harijan from the 17th century Bhakti saint-poet, Narsinh Mehta. He appealed to the upper caste Hindus to use the term Harijan instead of the term Antyaja. Gandhi explained his choice in the following words:
- 7.2.2. The 'untouchable', to me is, as compared to us (caste-Hindus), really a 'Harijan' – a man of God – and we are 'Durjana' (men of evil). For whilst the untouchable has toiled and moiled and dirtied his hands so that we may live in comfort and cleanliness, we have delighted in suppressing him. We are solely responsible for all the shortcomings and faults that we may lay at the door of these untouchables. It is still open to us to be Harijans ourselves, but we may only do so by heartily repenting our sin against them.²⁸

²⁷ B.R. Ambedkar, "Philosophy of Hinduism," in V. Moon (ed.), *Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar: Writing and Speeches*, Vol. 3 (Bombay, Education Department, Government of Maharashtra, 1987).

²⁸ M.K. Gandhi, *Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi Vol. 47* (Delhi, Publications Division, 1971), pp. 244-5.

- 7.2.3. J.H. Hutton, the Census Commissioner of 1931, called the Dalits 'exterior castes' who suffer from social disabilities even if their socio-economic position (ignorance, illiteracy or poverty) and occupation changed. The pollution these lowest castes inherited entailed that the higher castes would purify themselves on getting into contact with the Dalits and led the lowest castes to be called 'exterior castes'. Hutton listed the social disabilities inherited by Dalits into the three categories, viz., debarred from public utilities like roads, schools and tanks, religious disabilities like being debarred from temples and cremation grounds, and debarred from the services of barber and entry into tea-shops and theatres.²⁹
- 7.2.4. The Dalits were 'outcastes' and Pariahs (derived from the Tamil word *para* or *parai* meaning drum) for some and British colonialists initially called them 'Depressed Classes'. First used by the social reformers, the term Depressed Classes was adopted by the Government later and it included 1) Untouchables, 2) Aboriginal and Hill Tribes, and 3) Criminal Tribes. In 1932, before the Franchise Committee, the Provincial Government of Bengal proposed the term Scheduled Castes instead of Depressed Classes. While reviewing the recommendations of the Indian Franchise Committee, the Government of India said:
- 7.2.5. We support Dr Ambedkar's suggestion that the term 'Depressed Classes' should not be used in the electoral law. He suggested either 'exterior' or 'excluded' castes. We prefer the proposal of the Government of Bengal that the castes so protected should be simply described as 'Scheduled Castes', a term which carried with it no specific connotation of their actual social status.³⁰
- 7.2.6. The credit for popularising the term Dalit in the 1970s goes to the Dalit Panthers. According to the manifesto of Dalit Panthers (1973), the term Dalit included STs, 'neo-Buddhists, the working people, the landless and poor peasants, women, and all those

²⁹ J.H. Hutton (1933), *Census of India, 1931, Vol. I – India: Part I – Report* (Delhi: Manager of Publications), pp. 417, 472-3 and 482.

³⁰ S.K. Gupta, *The Scheduled Castes in Modern Indian Politics* (Delhi, Munshiram Manohar Lal Publishers, 1985), pp. 7-35.

who are being exploited politically, economically and in the name of religion.³¹ The term Dalit has come to mean both oppressed and 'broken men'. A paper of Depressed Classes published from Pune in 1930 was called *Dalit Bandhu* (meaning 'Friend of Dalits').³² Here the term Dalit meant 'oppressed'. There was a buzz that the members of the 'exterior castes' in Punjab were thinking of listing themselves as Dalits in the Census of 1931.³³

- 7.2.7. The word Dalit was also used by Dr. Ambedkar in his Marathi speeches. In his book, *The Untouchables* (1948), Ambedkar used the term 'broken men' for the original ancestors of the untouchables. Broken men, according to Ambedkar, were the defeated nomads and stray individuals who defended the peasant society practising settled agriculture to repulse the attacks of nomadic and warlike tribes. These 'broken men' were looked down upon for being mercenaries and not allowed to stay within the village because they belonged to a different tribe from the settlers. The 'broken men' in Ireland and Wales, said Ambedkar, were absorbed into the settled community after nine generations. This assimilation did not take place in India because Hindus (especially the Brahmins) had contempt for 'broken men' because they ate beef and were Buddhists.

7.3. The Punjab Background

- 7.3.1. The total area of Punjab is 50,362 square kilometres. According to the Census of 2001, the total population of Punjab was 24.35 million or 2.43 crores which was spread over 157 towns/ cities and 12,673 villages. Punjab has the distinction of being a state with both great economic well-being and high social development. This is reflected in it bagging the highest place among India's states in Human Development Index and second highest place in per capita Gross State Domestic Product. Yet, its record is not consistently high in all respects. For instance, despite its aforementioned excellence, Punjab occupies the 13th place in terms of Sex ratio for girls between 0-6 years, it has the

³¹ Gail Omvedt (1995), *Dalit Visions: The Anti-Caste Movement and the Construction of an Indian Identity* (Hyderabad: Orient Longman), p. 72.

³² Atul Chandra Pradhan (1986), *The Emergence of the Depressed Classes* (Bhubaneswar: Bookland International), p. 125.

³³ J.H. Hutton (1933), *Census of India, 1931, Vol. I – India: Part I – Report* (Delhi: Manager of Publications), p. 488.

sixth place in infant mortality rates and it has the fourth place in literacy rates (Table below).

Table 1
Differences in income and output among Indian states are associated with large differences in human development indicators of health and education.

Ranking of India's states by GSDP per capita and human development indicators

Ranking of India's states by GDP per capita and human development indicators										
Rank by GSDP per capita	HDI ^a rank		Literacy ^b rate		Infant ^c mortality		Under-weight ^d children		Sex ratio ^e (0–6 years)	
			Diff.	Rank	Diff.	Rank	Diff.	Rank		
Bihar	13	13	-17.9	13	-5.3	9	-7.4	11	15	5
Orissa	12	10	-1.8	9	-13.4	11	-7.4	12	26	3
Uttar Pradesh	11	12	-8.0	12	-19.1	13	-4.7	10	-11	8
Madhya Pradesh	10	11	-1.3	8	-18.5	12	-8.1	13	5	7
Rajasthan	9	8	-4.4	11	-12.8	10	-3.6	9	-18	10
West Bengal	8	7	3.8	5	18.9	3	-1.7	7	33	2
Andhra Pradesh	7	9	-4.3	10	1.8	8	9.3	4	34	1
Karnataka	6	6	1.6	7	16.1	4	3.1	5	19	4
Tamil Nadu	5	2	8.1	2	19.4	2	10.3	3	15	6
Haryana	4	4	3.2	6	10.8	5	12.4	2	-108	12
Gujarat	3	5	4.6	3	5.0	7	1.9	6	-44	11
Punjab	2	1	4.6	4	10.5	6	18.3	1	-129	13
Maharashtra	1	3	11.9	1	23.9	1	-2.6	8	-14	9
All-India (avg.)			65.4		67.6		47		927	
Kerala	7	1	25.5	1	51.3	1	20.1	1	33	3

Note: GSDP refers to Gross State Domestic Product. Diff. refers to the difference between state-level indicator and All-India average. a: HDI ranking refers to the Human Development Index methodology in the UNDP Human Development Report 2001. Ranking across 16 major states, including Assam, b: 2001, percent of population 7 years and older, c: 1998/99, per 1000 live births, d: 1998/99, percent of children under 3 years of age, e: 2001, girls per 1000 boys in 0-6 years group
Source: 2001 National Human Development Report; 2001 Census, 1998/99 National Family and Health Survey, 1999 Sample Registration System. Cited in World Bank, *India Inclusive Growth and Service Delivery: Building on India's Success: Indian Policy Review*, Report No. 34580 – IN, 2006, 21.

7.3.2. Different levels of geographical and gender deprivation in Punjab further complicate this inconsistency in different sectors of social development. Given its Green Revolution-led prosperity, poverty should be history in Punjab but it is not. Percentage of people below the poverty line in Ferozepur District is as high as 12.8% and in Kapurthala this figure is as low as 3%. The percentage of literates in Mansa District are as low as 52.5% whereas Hoshiarpur District could boast of 81% literacy (Table below).

Table No. - 2
Deprivation Levels in Punjab

Districts	% Below Poverty Line	Infant Mortality Rate	% Immunized Children	Literacy Rate	Gross Enrolment Ratio (elementary)
Amritsar	7.4	52.0	66.3	67.9	62.2
Bathinda	6.4	61.0	64.6	61.5	78.8
Faridkot	5.9	61.0	64.2	63.3	77.0
Fatehgarh Sahib	7.4	61.0	80.2	74.1	59.5
Firozpur	12.8	61.0	51.8	61.4	60.6
Gurdaspur	4.1	52.0	80.5	74.2	86.5
Hoshiarpur	2.9	52.0	93.7	81.4	79.7
Jalandhar	9.1	52.0	85.1	77.9	71.0
Kapurthala	3.0	52.0	87.2	73.6	68.5
Ludhiana	6.3	52.0	81.5	76.5	70.1
Mansa	6.4	61.0	61.6	52.5	78.8
Moga	7.4	61.0	60.2	63.9	77.0
Muktsar	5.9	61.0	54.3	58.7	77.0
Nawanshahr	9.1	52.0	89.2	76.9	71.0
Patiala	7.4	61.0	72.0	70.0	59.5
Roopnagar	4.9	52.0	93.7	78.5	63.2
Sangrur	8.1	61.0	65.6	60.0	60.6
PUNJAB					

Source: Bibek Debroy and Laveesh Bhandari (eds) (2003), *District-level Deprivation in the New Millennium* (New Delhi: Konark Publishers Pvt Ltd): 180

7.3.3. Speaking of Gender discrimination, we know that women are numerically deficit in Punjab but in Fatehgarh Sahib District there are as less as 754 women for 1,000 men. The work participation rate of women is also alarmingly low being as less as 12.9% in Jalandhar District but going as high as 32.6% in its neighbouring Nawanshahr District. (Table below)

Table No. 3
Gender Deprivation in Punjab

Districts	% Below Poverty Line	Infant Mortality Rate	% Immunized Children	Literacy Rate	Gross Enrolment Ratio (elementary)
Amritsar	7.4	52.0	66.3	67.9	62.2
Bathinda	6.4	61.0	64.6	61.5	78.8
Faridkot	5.9	61.0	64.2	63.3	77.0
Fatehgarh Sahib	7.4	61.0	80.2	74.1	59.5
Firozpur	12.8	61.0	51.8	61.4	60.6
Gurdaspur	4.1	52.0	80.5	74.2	86.5
Hoshiarpur	2.9	52.0	93.7	81.4	79.7
Jalandhar	9.1	52.0	85.1	77.9	71.0
Kapurthala	3.0	52.0	87.2	73.6	68.5
Ludhiana	6.3	52.0	81.5	76.5	70.1
Mansa	6.4	61.0	61.6	52.5	78.8
Moga	7.4	61.0	60.2	63.9	77.0
Muktsar	5.9	61.0	54.3	58.7	77.0
Nawanshahr	9.1	52.0	89.2	76.9	71.0
Patiala	7.4	61.0	72.0	70.0	59.5
Roopnagar	4.9	52.0	93.7	78.5	63.2
Sangrur	8.1	61.0	65.6	60.0	60.6
PUNJAB					

Source: Bibek Debroy and Laveesh Bhandari (eds) (2003), *District-level Deprivation in the New Millennium* (New Delhi: Konark Publishers Pvt Ltd): 196.

7.4. Why is Equity Important?

- 7.4.1. India's caste-ridden society did not hear them. But there have been murmurs for equality in ancient times. The Greek philosopher, Plato (427-347 Before Common Era or BCE) warned, 'There should exist among the citizens neither extreme poverty nor again excessive wealth for both are productive of great evil.' However, societies are not run on the wisdom of philosophers. Hence, while the society of Plato exploited slave labour, the feudal one that followed it lived off *serfs* and peasants. Modern times, which are variously estimated to have begun with the Industrial Revolution in the West and with Colonialism in countries like India, have been marked by the assertions for popular sovereignty and equality.
- 7.4.2. Equality, along with Liberty and Fraternity, were the slogans of the French Revolution that took place way back in 1789 Common Era (CE). But these slogans have not stopped reverberating in the public sphere and, if anything, the demand for their implementation has become more persistent since then. In these Modern Times rarely does one come across people like Margaret Thatcher (1925-), the neo-liberal PM of UK (1979-1990), who asked, 'What is it that impels the powerful and vocal lobby to press for greater equality?' Her answer was, 'Often the reason boils down to an undistinguished combination of envy and bourgeois guilt.'³⁴
- 7.4.3. People suffering from social inequality would naturally protest and make a compelling moral argument for equality. However, development experts also have argued that a public policy for social equality makes good sense for intrinsic and instrumental reasons also. Development experts recognise that people need opportunities and assets to pave a sustainable way out of inequality. Here comes the role of public policy and the government. It might be interesting to note that in the 18th century, the French philosopher, Antoine Nicolas de Condorcet (1743-94) proposed a plan to help poor out of 'humiliation and dependence' through a publicly financed education, insurance

³⁴ Both quotes from *Human Development Report, 2005 International Cooperation at a Crossroads: Aid, Trade and Security in an Unequal World* (New York: United Nations Development Programme, 2005): 51.

against sickness and old-age pensions. In England, Thomas Paine (1737-1809) in his book *Rights of Man* (1791), suggested that social progress will be possible after there is universal insurance through taxation. These voices did not go unheeded and, coupled with struggles of people for a better life, led to the formation of Welfare States in most of Europe in the 20th century.

- 7.4.4. Equity is looked up to as a complementary need for long-term prosperity and development. It means that 'individuals should have equal opportunities to pursue a life of their choosing and be spared from extreme deprivation in outcomes.' In 2006, the theme of the *World Development Report* was Equity and Development. Its broad argument was summarised in the following poignant words
- 7.4.5. Institutions and policies that promote a level playing field – where all members of society have similar chances to become socially active, politically influential, and economically productive – contribute to economic growth and development. Greater equity is thus doubly good for poverty reduction: through potential beneficial effects on aggregate long-term development and through greater opportunities for poorer groups within any society.³⁵
- 7.4.6. A social theory and method is needed to understand the impact of inequality of opportunity on the lives of the socially excluded and the downtrodden. There exists a method and some indicators to measure the inequality in income and wealth. But there is no method of measuring the way inequality of opportunity effects families at one point in time and across generations. In a market economy, we know that opportunity is created mainly by wealth/income. However, factors like caste, gender and domicile also influence it.³⁶ But we do not know about the impact of factors like gender, caste, disability, race and domicile on the creation of opportunity for making citizens socially active, politically influential, and economically productive. Consequently, distribution of property rights to workers or houses to tenants is done randomly

³⁵ *World Development Report, Equity and Development 2006* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2005), 2.

³⁶ Francisco H.G. Ferreira and Michael Walton (2005), "Inequality of Opportunity and Economic Development," Background Paper for *World Development Report, 2006* (New York: The World Bank).

on income/ caste basis. The result is that we cannot be sure whether the target group has been rightly chosen or adequately served by the remedial policies of social engineering.

7.4.7. The five good reasons for the involvement of the government in social transformation, according to development experts are:

- Social justice and morality: all religions want their believers to alleviate extreme deprivation and even Adam Smith argued that all people must have a sufficient income to appear in public 'without shame';
- Putting the poor first: the law of diminishing returns applies to money government spends on the well-being of the rich and the privileged, whereas even some resources spent on decreasing infant mortality or spreading primary education reaps greater welfare/ results;
- Growth and efficiency: capitalist growth is possible if markets expand and investment opportunities increase for which poor have to be enabled to contribute to growth through skill up-gradation and asset enhancement;
- Political legitimacy: governments are elected and sustain themselves on the goodwill of the people and if they only look after the elite they would corrode institutions, vilify democracy and risk breakdown of the state; and
- Public policy goals: these goals include reduction of poverty to accelerate growth and enhance welfare where people do not just have equality before law but also enjoy 'substantial freedoms' by acquiring the capability to avail their rights.³⁷

7.5. Specific Problem of Scheduled Castes:

7.5.1. Movement without progress and Social Inequality

In the overall context of inconsistent social development and geographical/ gender deprivation, we will try to understand the problems of Scheduled Castes (SCs) of Punjab and the Government policy towards ameliorating their deprivations in this paper. Punjab is gradually turning into a more urban province with 33.9% of its

³⁷ *Human Development Report, 2005 International Cooperation at a Crossroads: Aid, Trade and Security in an Unequal World* (New York: United Nations Development Programme, 2005): 52-4.

population living in urban areas. This extent of urbanization in Punjab is higher by 6% than the all-India average of 27.8%. More SCs of Punjab, however, are based in rural areas. As many as 75% of the Scheduled Caste population lives in rural areas as compared to 66% non-SCs in Punjab. This fact is important and we shall later explore the ramifications of it on the lives of SCs because their landholdings are negligible in Punjab. Table below indicates that both as compared to non-SCs or Others in Punjab as well as SCs elsewhere, SCs of Punjab are the most deprived in terms of landholdings.

Table 4

Social Groups & Landownership in Rural Punjab, 1983 (in %) ³⁸			
Land possessed (in acres)	SCs		Others
Without own homestead	1.45		1.10
With owned homestead	2.34		0.84
Sub-total		3.79	1.94
0.01 to 0.49		88.04	37.60
0.50 to 0.99		01.03	01.82
1.00 to 2.49		02.19	08.29
2.50 to 4.99		02.28	11.62
5.00 & above		02.67	38.73

Land possessed by SCs and Others, 1993-4 (in %) ³⁹					
Land possessed (in hectares)	SCs		Others		
	All India	Punjab	All India	Punjab	
Nil		18.1		48.5	11.2 14.5
0.01 to 0.40	53.6		47.4		37.9 28.9
0.41 to 1.00	14.9		02.1		19.5 10.6
1.01 to 2.00	08.0		01.2		15.1 14.9
2.01 to 4.00	03.9		00.07		9.9 15.6
4.01 & above	01.5		00.02		6.4 15.5

Land possessed by SCs and Others, 2004-05 (in %) ⁴⁰					
Land possessed (in hectares)	SCs		Others		
	All India	Punjab	All India	Punjab	
Nil		02.7		0.07	0.22 0.11
0.01 to 0.40	72.2		94.7		56.1 68.9
0.41 to 1.00	14.7		02.1		18.7 7.5
1.01 to 2.00	06.7		01.1		12.0 7.5
2.01 to 4.00	02.7		01.4		7.5 9.1
4.01 & above	01.0		01.4		3.6 5.8

³⁸ NSS 38th Round *Employment-Unemployment Situation of Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste Population during the Eighties* Report No 341/B National Sample Survey Organisation, Department of Statistics, Government of India (August, 1988), p. 14.

³⁹ NSS 50th Round *Employment and Unemployment Situation among Social Groups in India, 1993-94* Report No. 425 National Sample Survey Organisation, Department of Statistics, Government of India (November 1997), pp. 43 & 44.

⁴⁰ NSS 61st Round *Employment and Unemployment Situation among Social Groups in India, 2004-05* Report No. 516 National Sample Survey Organisation, Department of Statistics, Government of India (October 2006), pp. 66 & 69.

7.5.2. Life for three-fourths of SCs living in villages without landholdings is difficult – ‘nasty and brutish’ in the Hobbesian sense. The SCs are the classical farm labour of yore that may have created the Green Revolution in Punjab but have not been allowed to partake its fruits. The Green Revolution was made in the 1960s and it made India throw its begging bowl and turn into a self-sufficient agricultural economy. Punjab, along with Haryana and Western Uttar Pradesh, became surplus in food-grains and earned the nickname of being the ‘grain basket’ of India. The factors behind this change were the legacy of relatively less exploitative land relations in these regions and a combination of factors owing their existence to knowledge, funds and infrastructure.

- Knowledge led the successful lab to land efforts through which institutions like Punjab Agricultural University were created in 1962 and High-yielding varieties of food-grains were sown by farmers thereafter;
- Funds were made available through different banks (Cooperative, Land Mortgage and Commercial) to buy the costly technology for sowing, irrigating and harvesting crops and to purchase expensive inputs like hybrid seeds, fertilizers and pesticides;
- Infrastructure grew and it helped install power-driven tube-wells/ diesel pump-sets to pump water for irrigation, lay metalled roads to carry marketable surplus of farmers to agricultural *mandis* and create banking network to finance these capital-intensive agricultural operations.

7.5.3. At the root of the Green Revolution was the peasant-proprietor with a land-holding large enough to produce a marketable surplus. As the table below indicates, SCs have been traditionally missing in the category of landowners, especially so in Punjab. With negligible land rights, a majority of the SCs were involved in agriculture, not as cultivators but as agricultural labourers .

Table 5				
Work participation and nature of work, 2001 (in %) ⁴¹				
Category	All India Total	Punjab Total	All India SCs	Punjab SCs
Work Participation	39.1	37.5	40.4	37.0

⁴¹ Census of India 2001, *Population Profiles (India, States and Union Territories): Total Population and Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes Population* New Delhi: Office of the Registrar General, India: 6 & 7 and 12 & 13.

Cultivators	31.7	22.6	20.0	03.9
Agri labourers	26.5	16.3	45.6	38.4
Household Indus	04.2	03.7	03.9	03.4
Other workers	37.6	57.4	30.5	54.4

7.5.4. Life of landless agricultural labourers everywhere is economically precarious. Punjab has seen a trickle down of development and this is reflected in the reduction of the total number of families living below the poverty line over the years since 1981. But, along with this overall decrease in poverty in Punjab and as the table below shows there is a simultaneous trend that the share of SCs among the poor is increasing.

Table No. 6 Below Poverty Line Families in Punjab		
Description of Families	1981	1991
2006		
Total number of poor families	11,24,229	12,11,626
3,88,000		
SC families out of the total poor	6,12,165	6,52,073
2,63,000		
% of SCs among total poor	54.45%	53.81%
62.0%		

Source: For 1981 & 1991: Draft Special Component Plan for Scheduled Castes (SCs), 1994-5 (Chandigarh: Department of Social Welfare, Government of Punjab), p. 12. For 2006 Punjab Government Website, Department of Welfare (accessed on 9 September, 2009.)

7.6. Status of Depressed SCs in Punjab

7.6.1. In the year 1996, Institute for Development and Communication (IDC), Chandigarh carried out a detailed study on the "The Status of Depressed Castes in Punjab". The study was undertaken by Sarvshri Vinod Kumar and Ashok Kumar.

7.6.2. The study emanated from the general impression, backed up by the available data, that amongst the 37 Scheduled Castes, 13 castes were rated to be the most backward and depressed groups which included the heretofore known 'de-notified tribes' or '*vimukat jatis*'.

- 7.6.3. The following brief is based on the study cited above, and the same is acknowledged with gratitude.
- 7.6.4. Punjab's population, like elsewhere in India, happens to be divided along caste lines. The castes that historically suffered ostracism and were stigmatised as the polluted and hence outcastes, were included in the Constitution of India as the Scheduled Castes. In Punjab, the number of SCs was 37 of whom 13 have been surveyed to be the most backward SC groups.
- 7.6.5. Since independence, various steps and programmes have been launched from time to time to bring about socio-economic uplift of the SCs generally. While the various ameliorative programmes have had the desired impact in improving the general standard of living of the SCs and other marginalised groups, the most depressed and backward groups (13 SCs as indicated above) have generally remained unaffected and have not been able to avail of whatever socio-economic benefits the less depressed castes were able to avail.
- 7.6.6. Accordingly, a special study was undertaken to evaluate the impact of the Government-sponsored schemes on the 13 depressed SC groups who are known as: Bengali; Bauria/Bawaria; Bazigar; Bhanjra; Dumna/Mahasha/Doom; Khatik; Kori/Koli; Megh; Od; Pasi; Sansi/Bhedkut/Manesh; Sarera; Sikligar.
- 7.6.7. The study covered 500 households belonging to the above SC groups spread over 9 districts of Punjab. The study attempted to have first hand information on wide-ranging aspects of individual and socio-economic profile of the families. The information sought through the interview questionnaire pertained to ownership of property, access to educational and health facilities, socio-economic status, involvement with crime, if any, occupational preferences, awareness about the on-going state-sponsored welfare schemes etc.
- 7.6.8. The study under reference threw up the following facts:
- While the majority of the respondents were found to be living in jhuggies and kutcha houses, virtually all of them were landless and

did not have any commercial shop, milch cattle etc. Though none of the respondents was found to be engaged in scavenging, about half of them were working as daily wage earners and farm labourers. About 25 percent were carrying out sundry businesses such as kabari work, vegetable selling, leather tanning, running horse cart, snake charming. Some of the skilled workers were engaged in making of sports goods, bamboo curtains and jobs as peons, water carriers etc.

7.6.9. Being illiterate and generally un-skilled, a large number of them were employed in the un-organised sector without any security or insurance cover. Other factors that were noticed were the high incidence of child labour, insanitary conditions in and around their localities, unhygienic living, proneness to common ailments, low levels of earnings and large families, et at. The study indeed threw up quite a depressing profile of the depressed SC groups.

7.6.10. In view of the rather dismal and disconcerting facts as revealed by the study, an action plan was suggested to be prepared and undertaken in right earnest.

- (a) While there is an imperative need to spread literacy amongst the depressed SC groups, the general education needs to be linked with skill development thereby enabling them to become self-employable with liberal interest-free loans for starting their independent business ventures.
- (b) Special campaigns require to be launched for creating awareness about the paramount importance of proper hygiene and sanitary conditions through construction of Sulabh-type toilets, provision of clean drinking water and organizing health check-up camps at frequent intervals.
- (c) Liberal assistance be provided for construction of one-room pucca dwelling units by the target group households.
- (d) The families can be encouraged to form co-operatives so as to avail of the cluster of schemes for providing gainful self-employment to majority of the adult members of the families of the depressed S.C. groups.
- (e) With a view to combating the menace of child labour and the growing incidence of drug addiction among the adolescents, special coaching classes be started near their localities. Incentives be also given in the form of substantial stipends.

- (f) As a matter of fact, special focus needs to be given towards the educational and socio-economic uplift of the families falling under the depressed SC groups.

7.7. Education and what not to expect from it?

7.7.1. All families want to improve their condition in numerous ways like marrying their children well, transferring socio-economic inheritance and through formal education. In the sociology of education, the academic system has been variously looked at as a vehicle for:

- the transmission of culture from one generation to another by philosophers like Jurgen Habermas;
- the production and reproduction of the technical and social qualifications of the labour force according to the Neo-Marxist qualification theory;
- bringing about equality by bridging class differences – by egalitarians;
- creating human capital considering it the most productive investment of society and individuals as it creates highly paid formal human competence; and
- creating cultural capital which is coveted even by those possessing economic and political capital and, hence, higher elitist education is also being monopolized by the privileged classes said Pierre Bourdieu.⁴²

7.7.2. Bourdieu accepted that capital was anything that could be bought and sold but thought it had both material and socio-cultural manifestations. He distinguished economic capital meaning material riches from social capital which is cultivation of/ access to influential people. And, he added the term 'cultural capital' which meant symbolic capacities of people. This cultural capital can be acquired in objective forms like books, paradigms and methods; in person through embodied forms like dispositions, cognitive orientation and action strategies or 'habitus' which is neither thought out nor planned but tacitly learnt in one's family, at

⁴² Staf Callewaert (1999), "Philosophy of Education, Frankfurt Critical Theory, and the Sociology of Pierre Bourdieu," in Thomas S. Popkewitz and Lynn Fendler (eds.), *Critical Theories in Education: Changing Terrains of Knowledge and Politics* (New York and London: Routledge).

school/ college or among one's friends; and in institutionalized forms like titles, degrees and identification papers.⁴³

- 7.7.3. Creation of different forms of capital, but especially of the socio-cultural type, is vital for the upward mobility of SCs. All forms of capital create power in different fields. No holder of power in our times would like to be seen ruling with brute force and instead of being categorized as arbitrary, s/he would like her power to be called legitimate. In the feudal society, aristocrats looked at land and blood for legitimacy and they were patrons who treated people as clients. In bourgeois society, it is *concours* and degrees that matter more and the bourgeoisie thinks merit or natural gifts are the passports to mobility in their society. The acquisition of capital is necessary because it gives those who have it 'power over other powers' or the privilege to 'dictate the dominant principle of domination'. In the social division of labour of domination, the bearers of capital are also the holders of power.⁴⁴

7.8. New Occupations but Old Mindsets

It has been noticed that a large section of SCs are out of their traditional occupations. This is a welcome development because some of the traditional occupations of SCs were hazardous and also stigmatized. It was impossible for the SCs to pursue these traditional occupations without being considered 'impure' or 'polluted' by the dominant and upper castes. However, the escape of SCs from traditional occupations has not led to much change in their lives or to the solution of their main problems. The main reason for this 'mobility without progress' in the lives of SCs is that it failed:

- to substantially transform the social structure like the middling OBCs did in much of North West India during and after the Green Revolution: they had control over

⁴³ Pierre Boudieu, 'The Forms of Capital,' J. Richardson (ed.) (1986), *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education* (Westport, CT: Greenwood): 241-58.

⁴⁴ Pierre Bourdieu (1989, 1996), *The State Nobility: Elite Schools in the Field of Power* (Cambridge: Polity): 264-6.

- land and worked hard for a living in the period before they accumulated agrarian capital and became kulaks;
- to challenge the notion of high or low castes as some cultural movements have in South India and in Maharashtra: the symbolic protest in Punjab is overwhelmingly religious and, instead of producing murmurs for social reform, this has only led to the hardening of religious beliefs and proliferation of religious institutions like *deras* visited more by the lower castes;
- to catapult the SCs (or even individual castes among them) en masse a notch higher in the social ladder.

7.9. Passive Acquiescence of Government in SC Domination

- 7.9.1. It is difficult for such exploited landless agricultural labourers, especially if they are SCs, to save themselves from social humiliation and violence. This humiliation and violence is afflicted on SCs by large landowners of the kulak variety, collectively by the dominant castes and even the police. Some examples of this will illustrate the point poignantly.
- 7.9.2. It was reported that the clout of landlords is enormous and there is no institution which can protect SC labourers. A landlord, Gurmukh Singh resident of Boaran Khurd in Nabha Tehsil of Patiala district, complained to a member of the National Commission of SCs and STs, Harinder Singh Khalsa. The complaint was that a labourer Hari Singh had fled without clearing his debt of Rs 46,150 and that the labourers in the area were being instigated by labour organisers. On this complaint, the DGP of Punjab asked the DSP of Phillaur to investigate the complaint against the SC labourer, Hari Singh, for failing to repay his debt and against Jai Singh for asking other bonded labourers to exercise their rights against bondage to landlords.⁴⁵
- 7.9.3. The practice and the rules of the National Commission for SCs and STs state that they should entertain complaints of SCs and

⁴⁵ Jai Singh, 'National Commission for SC & ST wants to know why an upper caste landlord's "bonded labourer escaped without clearing his dues" ? *PUCL Bulletin* June 2002.

STs, not ones against them. In fact, the National Commission is hesitant to intervene even in cases reported to it by SCs and STs against one another. Hence, this case clearly shows the power wielded by landlords of Punjab who can get not just the local police but even the National Commission of SCs and STs to violate its mandate by initiating investigation against those fighting human bondage.

7.9.4. The atrocities by the police are not new to Punjab. But, not long ago, the state had the distinction of having the highest rate of custodial deaths of SCs in India. In the year 2004-05, 8 SCs died in police custody in the districts of Barnala, Nawanshahr, Jalandhar, Ludhiana, Patiala, Kapurthala and Bathinda in Punjab. This was the highest number for custodial deaths anywhere in India. Shri Suraj Bhan, Chairman, National Commission for Scheduled Castes was worried at this figure and called for checking unlawful behaviour of policemen. The Chief Secretary, Jai Singh Gill, assured the Chairman that a state and district-level vigilance committees would be set up and they will monitor the atrocities on SCs. DGP of Punjab assured posting SC SHOs to the five districts with the highest number of atrocities against SCs. To prevent the recurrence of custodial atrocities, the Chief Secretary was asked by the Chairman to display in every police office the relevant sections of the offence under the Scheduled Caste/ Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989.⁴⁶

7.9.5. Just a few months ago, the current Chairman of SC/ ST Commission expressed displeasure at Punjab having the eighth position among states with the highest atrocities on SCs. He was irked by the non-compliance of the Court orders to reinstate Joga Singh, the Sarpanch of Mansurwal village of Kapurthala district who was not allowed to function; by the case where a Dalit family of Bijli Nangal village (also in Kapurthala district) was beaten up for putting loud music during a marriage by members of the ruling party; and by the case where a drunken ruling party member fired at a Dalit Congress worker but the police registered a case against the

⁴⁶ 'Custodial deaths of Scheduled Castes highest in Punjab: Suraj Bhan', *The Tribune*, June 30, 2005.

Dalit for snatching the gun of the assailant.⁴⁷ In the light of the specific instructions of the SC/ ST Commission, it will be interesting to investigate the follow-up of the State government on these matters.

7.10. Government Policies: Targets Achieved, Goals Unfulfilled

7.10.1. There is improvement in the Human Development Index of SCs as reflected in better educational and health indicators for them. But this improvement is natural considering the efforts SC families also make to improve their condition. Mere improvement in education and health indicators is not the purpose of the different schemes of the Government. The purpose of these schemes is to try achieving parity between SCs and non-SCs in the sphere of Human Development. Such parity has eluded SCs and we note that their share among poor is increasing in Punjab and the difference in literacy rates between them and non-SCs have remained practically the same. It is in this context that we sadly propose that the goal of parity between SCs and non-SCs has been lost even though targets envisaged in schemes of different Government departments for SCs have been achieved year after year. It's a case of the goal of SC uplift getting eclipsed even though most schemes/ programmes for them achieve their targets.

7.10.2. The Government utilises the following two sets of measures for SC uplift:

- Measures against discrimination like Anti-Untouchability Act, 1955 renamed Civil Right Act, 1979 and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Prevention of Atrocities Act, 1989 because SCs face four kinds of discrimination, viz. violent discrimination in the shape of atrocities and crimes, discrimination in services, in government schemes and in the labour and other markets; and
- Measures for economic and social empowerment.

7.10.3. The strategy to broadcast development manna was prevalent till the Fifth Five Year plan (1974-8). With the inauguration of

⁴⁷ Naveen S Garewal, 'SC panel pulls up DGP,' *The Tribune*, November 27, 2009.

the Sixth Five Year plan (1980-5) began the target group approach to eliminate poverty among SCs. It was called the Special Component Plan (SCP) and was designed to be a budgetary device embedded in a planning strategy to reduce/eliminate poverty. SCP is now known as Scheduled Caste Sub Plan (SCSP). The SCSP was intended to earmark from each plan outlay for SCs in proportion to their population in the province. For example, SCs constitute around 29% of the population in Punjab and therefore, an equal amount from the State's plan outlay should be reserved for SC uplift. This does not happen because department/ sectors like Power, Roads and Bridges, Irrigation and Flood control, Rural Development fund etc. consume almost half the budget. The benefits of the activities of these departments/ sectors are assumed to flow to all sections of society, irrespective of caste. Hence, no special allocation for SCs is made by the State planning authorities under these heads which constitute half the budget of Punjab. Hence, a good remedy for overcoming the backwardness of SCs itself is short-circuited by insufficient allocation of money while preparing State plans.

- 7.10.4. SCSP was started to mainstream SC issues. Hence, instead of making it the sole concern of the Welfare Department, SCSP involves all departments of the government into SC uplift. It was thought that the efforts of the SC Welfare Department were not enough. Hence, there should be a multi-pronged effort involving all departments and this joint effort will give the task the semblance of a national mission. But over the years no department, other than the Welfare Department, looks enthusiastic about the work on hand. One of the ways of judging it is that they are unable to spend the money allocated to them for different schemes under SCSP. The expectation of overall enthusiasm for SC uplift/ welfare due to the involvement of all departments in it has been belied. What has surfaced is general indifference of the government functionaries to SCs and lack of concern (if not outright hostility) among department personnel for their uplift.

7.11. Some Suggestions for SC Uplift:

We would like to make three kinds of suggestions, viz. policy-related substantive suggestions, procedure-related functional suggestions and suggestions for future research.

7.11.1. Policy-related Substantive Suggestions

The assets owned by SCs have remained almost constant and this is most irksome because, apart from providing security, assets can form collaterals that can be used to improve one's condition through loans. Asset and skill generation policies deserve to be undertaken urgently on priority for SCs.

1. Land for cultivation should be sufficient

The attempt to provide SCs lands for cultivation cannot be expected before they have homesteads or land for residence that they could call their own. There is evidence that homesteads have been given to them in the 1980s and the 1990s. Hence, NSSO data on landownership shows that landlessness of SCs was creditably put to an end in the 1980s and the 1990s. However, the share of viable land holdings (i.e. some 5 acres or 2 hectares) for agricultural purposes is virtually non-existent among SCs. This is corroborated by the evidence that very less SCs are to be found among cultivators and they are in abundance in the rank and file of agricultural labourers.

2. Making SCs partners in profit

There exist agencies like Punjab SC Land Development and Finance Corporation that keep giving loans from Rs.5,000 to 50,000 to prospective entrepreneurs. These loans are good as they help SCs get by in life but the rate of failure in such businesses of first generation entrepreneurs is likely to be high. The money given in these loans could be innovatively used for creating shareholders of private companies following the policies of economic empowerment followed in Malaysia and South Africa.

One innovative way for the social inclusion of and help to SCs is to make them shareholders in private companies through a

public investment corporation. The Black Economic Empowerment programme in South Africa is attempting this. The program in South Africa owes much to the concept of New Economic Policy started in Malaysia in 1970. In Malaysia, during the 1970s under their New Economic Policy, in two decades the share of Malays in private economic capital increased from 2% to 20%. This was done after the creation of an Investment Foundation and National Equity Corporation that were asked to buy shares of private companies in the name of the economically unprivileged/excluded.⁴⁸ (For details about the policies read Appendix A.)

3. Voluntary Reservation in Private Sector

The problem with SCs often is that they have the technical qualifications but find no jobs. Much more employment is generated these days in the private sector. Hence, the policy of equal and fair access to SCs in legislatures, government jobs and educational institutions should be expanded to include the private sector as well. In this context, an experiment of UP government is path-breaking and the prospect of such a policy in Punjab should be explored.

The Uttar Pradesh Government has initiated, since 2007, a scheme for voluntary reservation in private sector by offering tax benefits to investors. Investors in industrial units, educational institutions, service sector projects and infrastructure projects can avail tax benefits if they reserve 30% of the jobs through an agreement with the State government. Out of the 30% reserved jobs, 10% were to be earmarked for SCs, 10% for Backward Classes and 10% for the Economically Weaker sections of the upper castes. The industrial unit, educational institution or project, that has availed any grant, assistance or facility from the government, will have to voluntarily implement this scheme. The labour department will monitor the scheme in collaboration with the department from

⁴⁸ Sukhdeo Thorat, Nidhi Sadana, 'Caste and Ownership of Private Enterprises,' *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. XLIV, No. 23, June 6, 2009: 13-16.

whom the industrialist, investor or entrepreneur has taken a grant, assistance or facility.⁴⁹

4. Fighting Poverty and Discrimination Together

Group exclusion is horizontal and this means that even upper class individuals of a discriminated group face discrimination. For it to be successful, the strategy of social inclusion will have to tackle the covert forms of discrimination and not just address deprivation/poverty. In this context, programmes/schemes to remove poverty from SCs will produce synergy if they are combined with policies for equal rights and social inclusion. SCs feel ostracized and their resentment has come to the fore in the religious sphere where they worship at *deras* or they have started constructing separate temples and Gurudwaras.

The feeling of being ostracised should be assuaged among SCs. Punjab had experienced social turmoil caused by extremists not long ago. Hence, it has to be more alert to all forms of social protest and not permit any feeling of neglect to fester too long lest the border state is pushed in to any crisis again. In this context, we note that there is a growing trend among SCs to construct their separate Gurudwaras/ temples. The building of separate Gurudwaras by Mazhbhis or of Hindu temples by Ravidasis/ Balmikis is a reflection of casteism among dominant castes and the consequent discrimination felt by the lower communities.⁵⁰ Some scholars also see this construction of temples as an assertion of identity by lower castes and as a proof of their new-found wealth.⁵¹ The number of *deras*/babas is also on the rise in Punjab and, lately, the followers of these new religious institutions vented their anger on public property in the cities.⁵² Far from these academic debates, the government ought to be interested in peace and progress of Punjab. The cause of progress is better served by integration of

⁴⁹ 'UP introduces voluntary reservation in private sector,' *Business Standard*, August 11, 2007.

⁵⁰ Ronki Ram (2007), "Social Exclusion, Resistance and Deras: Exploring the Myth of Casteless Sikh Society in Punjab," *Economic and Political Weekly*, October 6, 2007: 4066- 4074.

⁵¹ Paramjit S. Judge, Gurpreet Bal, "Understanding the Paradox of Changes among Dalits in Punjab," *Economic and Political Weekly*, October 11, 2008: 49-55.

⁵² Meeta and Rajiv Lochan (2007), "Caste and Religion in Punjab: Case of the Bhanariwala Phenomenon," *Economic and Political Weekly*, May 26, 2007: 19019-1913; Lionel Baixas (2007), "The Dera Sacha Sauda Controversy and Beyond," *Economic and Political Weekly*, October 6, 2007: 4059-4065.

the different sections of one religious group and harmony between different religious groups.

7.11.2. **Procedure-related Functional Suggestions**

The schemes are made in National/ State capital undoubtedly after wide-ranging consultations with experts, social activists and administrators. These schemes are then conveyed to the District officials for information/ monitoring. But these schemes have to be implemented at the Block/ village level. The functional suggestions must relate to all these levels.

Punjab has the highest proportion of SCs in its population as compared to any other province. Yet, it does not seem that the Punjab government has been able to think of a single innovative scheme for SC welfare since Independence. It was noted that schemes are normally planned at the National Capital and these are replicated as it is by the provincial government. Considering that most of the SCs in Punjab live in the rural areas but are landless, the law for security of tenure to the tenants may not be useful for them. Instead, the SCs of Punjab may benefit more if:

- schemes for their economic uplift focus on animal husbandry, poultry farms, pig farms, bee-keeping etc.;
- a law be created for the domestic servants even in the rural areas by fixing their wages, regulating their hours of work, ensuring security and honour of women domestic helpers, giving life and medical insurance cover, providing their children educational benefits etc.

Cut red tapism by reducing the movement of the file from table to table. This is important because as per available information the Welfare Department is heavily understaffed. In December 2009, only 17 posts of District Welfare Officers (DWOs) were sanctioned for the 20 districts of Punjab. Out of these sanctioned posts three (viz. Muktsar, Moga and Nawanshahr) were vacant. Punjab has 77 tehsils but 46 posts of Tehsil Welfare Officers were sanctioned and this means that 31 Tehsils do not have any Tehsil Welfare Officers. Even out of the 46 sanctioned posts of Tehsil Welfare Officers, incidentally, ten were vacant in December 2009.⁵³ Incidentally, now that the number of districts have increased

⁵³ Sushil Goyal, "Welfare Department faces staff shortage," *The Tribune*, December 6, 2009.

to 22 (with the creation of Fazilka and Pathankot as new districts), additional posts at the relevant level will have to be created.

Notwithstanding the way the Department is under-staffed, it is interesting to note that the procedure for clearing an application for any benefit remains as elaborate as ever. On tracking the journey of an application for money under Shagun scheme, this researcher found that it was first taken to eight places before being approved. The application first went to the Panch for verification about the genuineness of the applicant; then it went to the Medical Officer for age verification; after which it went to the Patwari for income verification; after which it reached the Panchayat Secretary's office for verification of the claims; it was then, sent up to the BDO for being sorted out according to schemes; then it went to the CDPO for approval/ sanction by Chairman in a meeting; after sanction, it came back to BDO for record and entry into a personal ledger account; and, finally, it reached the District Welfare Officer for record and disbursal. The irony is that even after approval, in which the applicant spent a lot of time and energy, the application was filed because the money for the Scheme had not yet reached the District treasury.

Can this long journey of a small application of a poor SC (which sometimes comes to a naught like in the case cited above) be shortened? It can surely be done if the following procedure is approved.

- Let Panchayats make a list of the poor and needy for different schemes on a fixed day at the beginning of each financial year. To prevent hanky panky, these lists must be vetted by the local NGOs.
- The formal application can be made and sanction given by the Tehsil Welfare Officer, or her/ his nominee, on the spot while the Panchayat is preparing the list.
- Reduce the chances of corruption by paying the amount under schemes directly into the bank account of the beneficiaries.
- Schemes must have sufficient allocations for meeting the needs of all the poor and needy selected under them. This will put an end to the arbitrariness and favouritism which is possible when beneficiaries have to be chosen because allocations are erratic and funds scarce not enough to cover every applicant.⁵⁴

⁵⁴ Jangveer Singh, "Punjab SC schemes fail to take off: Most projects hit due to lack of funds," *The Tribune*, February 8, 2009. This newspaper report also mentions that the educational schemes of SCs are being ignored whereas Shagun scheme of helping SCs and Christians with Rs 15,000, at the time of their daughter's marriage, has become the flagship programme of the government.

7.11.3. C. Suggestions for Future Research

Knowledge grows by critical evaluation of experience. The following two studies are necessary for understanding what's wrong with the policies and the delivery mechanism working towards SC Welfare. On the basis of information generated by these studies, we can suggest reliable guidelines and evolve viable methods for overcoming problems in the programme.

1. There exists practically no major study on the evaluation of the effectiveness of different programmes and schemes started for the SCs in the past several decades. It goes without saying that there is an improvement in the lives of people generally and of the SCs in particular. This salutary development could be due to market factors and self-help efforts of the people concerned also. Moreover, despite the improvement in the lives of people, it is also a fact that the impact of the different schemes has been less than optimal and its progress has been slow. An evaluation, preferably by an independent agency, of some of the flagship programmes of SC uplift will:
 - Give a cost-benefit analysis after identifying the reasons for the less than optimal impact/ tardy progress in them despite the concerted efforts of the departments and best intentions of the political leadership;
 - Suggest the kind of programmes and schemes which have a long-term impact like nutrition for expectant mothers will show its impact when the foetuses turn into adults 18 or 20 years later; or like sustained good quality of life for decades may check the tendency of violence among the poor/ oppressed;
 - Suggest remedies for removing bottlenecks faced by the agencies implementing government programmes; and
 - Help envision some purposeful programmes afresh in the light of the experience of the existing ones because, as we know, knowledge is known to grow by the critical evaluation of experience.

2. Caste discrimination is quite difficult to uncover because neither is the institution of caste strong in Punjab nor is the idea of social pollution. Yet, it cannot be said that there is no discrimination against the SCs. There is, therefore, a need to commission social research to unravel the nature, manifestations and effects of this 'discrimination without pollution'. Indicators to study caste discrimination will have to be developed like those evolved for estimating Human Development or Gender Discrimination. Evolving a methodology to understand the form and estimate the extent of caste discrimination will be the first step towards uprooting the problems created by it.

Drug Abuse in Punjab: Features, Factors & Formulations⁵⁵ - A Special Report

Perspective

It is rightly observed that in Punjab “Drug abuse is a raging epidemic, especially among the young”ⁱ. The menace of drug abuse in Punjab has assumed dimensions of an epidemic that has gripped different sections of society irrespective of caste, creed, religion and economic status. It is a travesty that the consumption of drugs, of late, has become equally prodigious among the weaker sections of the state resulting in a sizeable number of drug addicts from the poor and marginal families. The empirical component of one of the IDC reports on the drug abuse reveals that an overwhelming number of the sample drug abusers from the four border districts of Punjab belonged to the two social categories namely, the Jat-Sikh farmers and the scheduled castes. The Jat-Sikhs form the dominant caste of farmers and the scheduled castes constitute the majority of agricultural labourers in the state. Another disturbing trend revealed by the study was that more than three-fourths of the sampled substance abusers belonged to the age group of 15-35 years indicating a high vulnerability of younger people to substance abuseⁱⁱ. Another study on the ubiquitous drug abuse showed that “about 48 percent start consuming drugs before they reach 20 years and out of them 80 percent of the addicts are in the age group of 20-30 years”ⁱⁱⁱ. This apart, a recent survey suggested “66 percent of the school going students in the state consume *gutka* or tobacco; every third boy and every 10th girl student has taken drugs on one pretext or the other and seven out of 10 college-going student abuse one or the other drug”^{iv}.

The agony of drug abuse has forced many families to reel under heavy debts. Moreover, since the sons have followed into the footsteps of their addict fathers, the male bread winners of several families are lost to drugs. Most of the addicts are multiple drug users. The consumption of poppy husk, opium, *Bhang*, *charas*, heroin, smack, and pharmaceutical drugs has become noticeable in the state.

⁵⁵ This is a special report by Prof. P.S.Verma

More recently, the inhalant drug abuse or volatile substance abuse has also become noticeable. "The common substances in this category are typewriter correction fluid, adhesive glue, permanent markers and petrol"^v. Above all the demand for pharmaceutical drugs has increased manifold, particularly among the youngsters and people falling in the lower economic strata. The reason is that these drugs are relatively cheaper and easily available at Chemist Shops numbering as many as over twenty eight thousand or so across the state. Some empirical studies reveal that the traditional abuse of opium etc. is being replaced either by poppy husk or by more harmful drugs available over the counter with chemists. A comparative study relating to pattern of drug abuse among patients attending de-addiction centre of GGS Medical College and Hospital, Faridkot in 1994 and 1998 revealed that the percentage of addicts using dextropropoxyphene/diphenoxylate had increased from 11.08 in 1994 to 28.2 percent in 1998^{vi}.

Rural-Urban Pattern

Comparatively, the substance abuse has become more alarming in rural areas. Nonetheless, the consumption of drugs has wreaked no less havoc in the urban complexes of the state. Some localities in Amritsar itself have emerged as worst affected due to alarming drug addiction. According to some, "the addicts, more dead than alive, can be seen walking in Maqboolpura (infamous as a locality of "Widows") and other ramshackle areas of Amritsar and its adjoining areas. They inject drugs into their bodies while the police turn a blind eye to the open sale of drugs"^{vii}. Teenagers have become addicts and work as couriers for peddlers or indulge in thefts. Incidentally, crime and drug abuse in Amritsar have increased despite the Police Commissionerate system in the city^{viii}.

The same holds true about some clusters or localities in other cities like the *Kazi Mandi* in Jalandhar, *Oila Mohalla* in Ludhiana, Gandhi Camp in Batala, *Sant Nagar* in Gurdaspur and Ram Nagar in Sangrur^{ix}. In Batala, "Over 60 percent youth in the slum of nearly 17000 are hooked". Moreover, "over 70 percent youth have tested positive for AIDS".^x According to some, the

prevalence of the HIV positive among the Injecting Drug Users (IDUs) in the state is 26.1 percent as compared to the national figure of 9.19 percent^{xi}. The number of HIV positive cases in Punjab, as per press reports, had increased from 23,000 in 2009 to 61,000 in 2010^{xii}. It can be primarily attributed to the “rapid increase in the intravenous drug users”^{xiii}. According to the President of the Doctors Federation of India, “the injections of Fortwin (Pentazocine) and Morphine derivatives are easily available in the markets without any prescription”^{xiv}.

Network Operational

The three regions (i.e. Majha, Malwa and Doaba) have their own specific characteristics with drug abuse as a commonality. A survey report reveals that more than 1000 youths have died due to the consumption of inorganic and organic intoxicants in two years in Gurdaspur district alone^{xv}. Some writers, while drawing a parallel, have interpreted the dilemma of drug addiction as: “if terrorism had a vice-like grip on Majha decades ago, narco-terrorism isn’t too unrelenting”^{xvi}. Presently, a significant number of households in the state stand affected by the narco-drug menace. Ironically, the bulk of the trapped people fall in the young age group of below 35 years.

The district wise seizure of various drugs during the years 2007, 2008 and 2009 revealed that the quantity of captured drugs had increased considerably in this period^{xvii}. Further, the district wise catch of individual drugs showed that Amritsar had the highest seizure of heroin during this period followed by Ferozepur, Kapurthala, Tarn Taran, Gurdaspur, Ludhiana and Jalandhar. Similarly, Amritsar stood highest in the seizure of smack too, followed by Nawanshehar, Jalandhar, Patiala, Ludhiana, Ferozepur and Tarn Taran. Whereas in the case of opium, the Ferozepur district rose to the first rank followed by Patiala, Ludhiana, Sangrur, Jalandhar, Tarn Taran, Mukatsar, Mansa, Batala, Moga, Faridkot and Amritsar. District Jalandhar topped in seizure of *charas* followed by Ludhiana, Mohali, Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Nawanshehr, Ropar, Kapurthala, Moga and Sangrur. Moga on the other hand stood first in the seizure of *Bhang* followed by Tarn Taran, Fatehgarh Sahib, Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Faridkot, Patiala, and Ludhiana. Regarding poppy

husk, the most pervasive and maximally consumed substance in Punjab, district Ludhiana in three years made the highest seizure with average capture of 12063.4 kgs. It was followed by Patiala with 10,127.9 kgs, Moga with 7219.6 kg, Jalandhar with 7081.9 kgs, Sangrur with 6412.0 kgs, Ferozepur with 4916.5 kgs, Kapurthala with 4520.3 kgs, Batala with 3879.2 kgs, Mansa with 2799.6 kgs, Nawanshehr with 2503.3 kgs, Hoshiarpur with 1968.1 kgs, Mukatsar with 1306.5 kgs, Faridkot with 1268.1 kgs, Fatehgarh Sahib with 892.8 kgs, Amritsar with 830.3 kgs, Tarn Taran with 663.5 kgs and Mohali with 555.0 kgs.^{xviii}

Drug Type & Demography

The inference that one can draw from these figures is that the consumption of poppy husk, opium and *Bhang* tends to be comparatively higher in the districts comprising the Malwa belt whereas the seizure and use of Heroin, Smack and *Charas* stands relatively greater in the Majha and the NRI dominated Doaba region. However, in the cities like Amritsar, Jalandhar, Patiala, Ludhiana, Moga and Bhatinda, all types of drugs are prevalent. In terms of the users' background, if the consumption of heroin, smack, *charas* and opium was relatively higher among the economically better-off families, the drugs like *Bhukki*, *Bhang* and pharmaceutical were more popular among the people falling in the lower economic category i.e. small farmers, landless labourers, slum dwellers, workers in the informal sector and students.

Interestingly, the consumption of drugs has increased during the elections and the harvesting season of wheat and transplantation of paddy. The issues of fetching more votes and extracting maximum work from the farm labourers could be the probable factors. Presently, the farm labourers have started demanding poppy husk if the farmer has to get the wheat harvested in time. A farm hand in a village in Patiala said "Till the time the landlord distributes poppy husk, how can we work in the scorching sun? Our quota is fixed"^{xix}.

In the wake of labour shortage the rich farmers lure labourers to fields by drugs, liquor, food etc. According to a rural Doctor, Zamindars provide free opium to labourers "which keeps them high and they work non-stop for long hours. This is a common

practice in Bathinda, Mansa, Mukatsar and Malout districts^{xx}. The police seized about 100 kg. Opium, 4400 kg. Poppy husk, 7.5 kg. Heroin, 4.0 kg. *Ganja*, 6.63 lakh intoxicating pills, 1228 bottles of intoxicating syrup and 22 kg. intoxicating powder in a short period from March 1 to June 15, 2011 in only six districts of the Malwa belt namely, Bhatinda, Mukatsar, Mansa, Faridkot, Ferozepur and Moga^{xxi}. This period coincided with the harvesting of wheat and transplantation of paddy.

Drug Traffic: India & Abroad

The growing demand for drugs has widened the space and scope for persons involved in the production and trafficking of illicit substances. Consequently, the drug business has become the most lucrative and a thriving enterprise in the state. The number of traders, smugglers, peddlers, couriers etc. has multiplied. Since the efforts made by the state forces to halt the ever flourishing trade of the killer drugs have not succeeded, the rancour of drug trafficking has achieved spectacular heights. "Sources claimed drugs worth Rs.2000 crore could be transiting through Punjab"^{xxii}. The drugs are smuggled from different corners within and outside the country. The states' close proximity to the "Golden crescent" (i.e. Afganistan, Iran and Pakistan), which is the hub of illicit drug trafficking all over the world, has driven it to suffer enormously from the perils of trafficking. "The Afghan illicit trade supplied two-thirds (9 million) of all opiate abusers of the world and involved about half a million traffickers generating an annual turnover of about US\$ 25 billion"^{xxiii}.

According to reports, the conversion of opium into morphine and heroin in clandestine laboratories has been going on in and around the production areas^{xxiv}. If the "Golden triangle" (Myanmar, Thailand and Laos), which is another international hub of drug production and illicit trafficking, has made the North-Eastern states, more particularly Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland and Arunachal Pradesh, vulnerable to drug abuse and trafficking, the "Golden crescent" to the state of Punjab in particular and the other border states like Rajasthan, Gujarat and Jammu and Kashmir in general. The cannabis herbal and cannabis resin grown in Nepal also finds way into the northern states including Punjab.

The contrabands originating in Afghanistan and Pakistan are pushed into Punjab from across the border through various methods like throwing packets across the barbed wire fence, pushing the plastic pipes containing drugs under the ground beneath the fence, flowing water of Satluj and Ravi and part of dry fruit consignments on goods train etc.^{xxv}. The drug cartels and traffickers, who are supported by criminal organisations, use the peddlers, couriers, addicts and local people settled near the border to supply substances to destined places, traders, and related groups or persons. It is said that international smugglers use Punjab border as a “silk route” for smuggling drugs to Middle-East and European countries^{xxvi}.

The local traffickers also fetch contrabands smuggled from Pakistan via the border areas of Rajasthan. Recently, the Punjab Police arrested a trafficker after recovering 6.3 kg. heroin worth Rs.32 crores from his possession on May 28, 2011. He was resident of a village in Tarn Taran district and the heroin under his possession was smuggled from Pakistan via the Hindumal Kot border area in Rajasthan. Similarly, a trafficker was arrested in Abohar on July 16, 2011 after recovering 3.5 kg. of heroin, worth over Rs.15 crore in the international market, from his possession. This was also smuggled from Pakistan via Hindumalkot border in Rajasthan^{xxvii}. Some NRIs have also been arrested for smuggling hard drugs. On January 1, 2010, the counter intelligence staff seized narcotics worth more than Rs.90 crore in the international market from three persons including an NRI, at two different places near Jalandhar. It was reported that the consignment (18 kg. of Methamphetamine) was to be sent to a narcotic smuggler residing in Canada. Incidentally, the NRI was also arrested by the Mumbai Police two years ago and was on bail^{xxviii}. Recently, the Jalandhar Police revealed that a good number of “NRI sponsored youth festivals, sports events and charity shows in Punjab are being used as a cover to smuggle narcotics to foreign shores”^{xxix}. Code words like ‘shirts-blazers, “chakla belan” and portraits have reportedly been used to indicate drug quality.

Apart from trans-border smuggling, drugs also enter into the state from the poppy growing areas of Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan etc. Similarly, the influx of opiate drugs from Himachal Pradesh is no less conspicuous. The cannabis used in the form of *Bhang*, *Ganja*,

Charas etc. and the poppy products from the isolated rough mountainous terrains of Himachal Pradesh are carried down to plains in Punjab and also smuggled abroad despite the enactments of stringent acts such as the NDPS. "It is the presence of a global market for cannabis and poppy products which has encouraged the growth of drug cultivation and trade, especially in isolated pockets in the rough mountainous terrain of the state, where adequate development programmes are absent"^{xxx}. Even foreigners having links with drug mafia, as per intelligence reports, have ventured into undertaking cultivation of cannabis and opium in a clandestine manner in the inaccessible higher reaches of the "Magic Valley" of Mulana in Kullu district. According to the Additional Director General Police, "we had intelligence report about the involvement of foreigners but the vast expanses of cannabis cultivation spread over 60 bighas has left us shocked"^{xxxii}.

Recently, the Himachal Pradesh police availed of Rupees one crore under the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA) for destroying cannabis, but it received a poor response from village panchayats, the executing agencies of the MNREGA Scheme, in Kullu district. "Villagers consider cannabis plants sacred and use its seed and by products for traditional *Puja*"^{xxxiii}. Mention may be made here that "the hybrid varieties of cannabis grown in Kullu are the main source of high-grade *Charas* like "Malana cream" which has high demand in foreign countries"^{xxxiii}. They also engage Nepali labourers in the cultivation of cannabis. However, on July 7, 2011, the Kullu police, reportedly, destroyed 3500 *bighas* of cannabis plantation in Kullu district. In other districts like Chamba, the anti-cannabis campaign has achieved some success with the cooperation of village panchayats. According to reports, "Of the total 17,495 villages in Himachal Pradesh, at least 865 are engaged the illegal *charas* and opium cultivation"^{xxxiv}.

Drug Cartels

The drug cartels have also used experts to manufacture drugs in certain areas of the country. Even the Punjab Police claimed to have seized a unit manufacturing synthetic drugs in raids conducted on the basis of information given by the arrested inter-state drug peddlers on January 1, 2010^{xxxv}. Pakistan is indeed the

biggest supplier but trafficking from the neighbouring states is also substantial. If cannabis and opium are trafficked from Himachal Pradesh, poppy husk is sourced from Rajasthan^{xxxvi}. In response to a question in the Punjab Vidhan Sabha, it was pointed out that the amount of poppy husk recovered in 2008 was 60,092 kgs. while in 2009, this had increased to 62,659 kgs.^{xxxvii}.

The drug lords, who control the trade, have not only established links with the licensed growers and illicit cultivators but have also benefited from the small peddlers, couriers, drug traders etc. According to the Superintendent of Police (Detective) "The big-time smugglers promise a fixed percentage on the drugs being sent. The courier acts as a middleman and from fixing the price to collecting the money, they play a vital role"^{xxxviii}. Punjab is not merely a transit state but a state in which the spill-over effect of transition has created a vast number of consumers within the state. The gains of green revolution, remittance money etc. have made it easy to meet the expenses which obviously has increased the demand for the narco-drug substances in the state.

The changes brought about by modernisation were also fraught with stresses and strains. The breakdown of the old social order thus steadily led to widespread use of drugs resulting in creation of a large number of clients for the traffickers of various hues. Of late, the facts show that from 2006 to February 28, 2010, a total of 20,490 cases were registered under the NDPS Act and over 23,567 persons were arrested out of which 8,719 were convicted while 4,368 were acquitted by the courts^{xxxix}. According to police officers, more than 41,294 cases were registered in Punjab under the NDPS Act in a period of 10 years^{xl}. The vastness can further be illustrated by the facts relating to seizure of 784 kgs. of heroin, 278 kgs. opium, 12,07,759 kgs. poppy husk and 4980 kgs. *bhang* from 1999 till 2009^{xli}. A trafficker of poppy husk from Rajasthan may earn three times more price in Punjab.

Narco -Trade Affair in Punjab

The narco-trade has emerged as a big profession in this region bustling with drug peddling.

Interestingly, many drug peddlers nabbed under NDPS Act when bailed out or released have hardly given up trafficking as it has

brought them quick money which otherwise in the absence of any alternative source of livelihood would not have accrued. The police on March 11, 2011 recovered 25 quintals poppy husk from a Verna Car and arrested one person, who was allegedly on parole from the Jail in Ludhiana^{xlii}. As per "Narcotics Control Bureau" (NCB), "Manipur is second in drug trafficking after Punjab"^{xliii}. Barring a small number from states like Rajasthan, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh etc., all the traffickers belonged to the state of Punjab. The women who have adopted drug trafficking as a profession to earn quick money also belonged to the lower economic category.

According to a senior police officer, "most of the women join this trade as their husbands are involved in it while some do this to augment the family income. Some took the charge after male members of their family were either arrested or fled away"^{xliv}. The facts show that out of the 1793 cases of drug peddling during six months till June 2010, 153 were registered against women^{xlv}. To earn quick bucks some middle class women have also started dealing in drugs. However, since the sharks who control the drug trade, supply line and smuggling have remained inaccessible, the jails are largely filled with small fries like couriers, carriers, addicts turned traffickers, drug addicts, peddlers and their accomplice. The police force also knows about it as the ADGP (Law and Order) once said "we will go after the big fish because only that can break the supply line of drugs. Every year, we are able to seize not more than 10 percent of the total drugs smuggled. If we get hold of the big players, it will definitely bring down the supply"^{xlvi}.

Drug Trade Perpetuation: Environ & Nexus

Anyway, the drug trade does not operate in isolation. It has created a support structure to sustain itself. If one peddler is caught, ten would be allured to enter into trafficking. The tempting monetary gains have not spared even the staff or personnel responsible for eradicating the evil. It has come to light in various forms like irregularities in the licenses, purchase of medicines from pharmaceutical companies, accepting bribes, extortions, escape of smugglers from the police custody, availability of drugs in prison, participation and involvement in smuggling etc. Besides this, the nexus between politics and drug trade has become a problem to tackle the drug menace. Recently, one of the MPS from the State

said “several prominent politicians from various political parties, supported by corrupt police officers, are ruining of lives in the state by supplying drugs through a well-knit trafficking network”^{xlvii}. The cases of involvement of some party workers and grass-roots level leaders in drug trade have also been highlighted through press and electronic media from time to time.

Since the liquor and hard drugs are complementary and supplementary to each other, the state is required to curb or regulate matters relating to both the substances. Quantitatively, liquor has done more harm and it has also added to the strength of narco-drug addicts as some alcohol consumers have shifted to hard drugs. The liquor vends apart, lots of chemists in the state have also sold contraband drugs to earn an extra buck. The instructions issued regarding maintenance of records pertaining to the sale of the habit-forming drugs (like Alprazolam-alprax, lomofil, destropoxophene-proxyvon, cough syrups and narcotics like morphine) have been protested and termed as unnecessary harassment of the chemists.

In fact, the “Punjab Chemist Association (PCA)”, claiming enrolment of 35000 chemists, had condemned the move and given an ultimatum to the State Government to withdraw the instructions^{xlviii}. A team of drug inspectors, led by the state drug controller, seized habit-forming drugs worth Rs. 60 lakh from an unlicensed go-down in Ludhiana on January 3, 2011^{xlix}. Capsules, tablets, syrups and injections categorized under schedule H drugs cannot be sold in absence of prescription from a qualified medical practitioner. At one of the non licensed go-downs, the raids even led to clashes between the raiding team and the store owners. The doctors suggested that the state government should check the misuse and illegal sale of such drugs. Further, they wanted that the chemist shops should not be allowed to sell any medicine without a written prescription and their sale be regulated through the cash memo/billⁱ.

Rehabilitation in the region

With the increasing use of pharmaceutical drugs in the state, the number of drug addicts has increased manifold. This, among others, has also made it difficult to find out ways and means of

their proper treatment and rehabilitation. As per information, in addition to seven Drug Dependence Treatment Centres at Civil Hospitals (Jalandhar, Kapurthala, Phagwara, Tarn Taran, Bathinda, Ferozepur and Talwandi Saboo) and three at Government Medical Colleges (Amritsar, Patiala and Faridkot), there are 22 voluntary organisations (14 run under the name of Indian Red Cross Society, 2 Guru Gobind Singh Study Circle and Six others) which provide de-addiction services. However, many of the de-addiction centres suffer from paucity of funds and lack of infrastructural facilities, staff, regulation and monitoring in regard to quality improvement in treatment. The private sector units need to inculcate the spirit of service instead of making it a source of income. The drug addicts admitted for the treatment need to be treated humanely. "The de-addicted individual need not be shunned or ostracised. He needs special care and attention like the convalescing patient. Relapse has to be prevented or else all efforts at de-addiction come to naught"^{li}.

Impact of Drug Menace

The scourge of drug abuse has marginalised lacs of people across the state, especially the entrapped youngsters who are generally labelled as '*Amlies*', '*Postis*', anti-social, sick, criminals etc. What can refrain people from falling prey to substance abuse? How can they stay free of various types of substances i.e. narcotic, non-narcotic drugs etc.? It is said that the natural mood-altering drugs, often used earlier, were given up with age but the newer varieties of drugs and psychotropic substances are quite different^{lii}. What can control the proliferation and increasing pace of consumption of these drugs which have proved to be humanity's curse like plague^{liii}? Some have averred that the stringent laws and their rigorous implementation can clean up the curse, whereas some on the other hand believe that "Drug laws that are disproportionately based on criminalisation and enforcement tend to do little or nothing to reduce the level of drug use in the general population, while at the same time creating a vast array of additional problems"^{liv}.

However, despite differences in regard to approaches or modes of prevention of drug trade, it has become imperative to intensify efforts of fighting not only the use of drugs and demand reduction

but also their production, manufacture, peddling, sale and distribution.

Keeping in view the socio-economic factors that influence substance abuse, a combination of punitive measures, community organisations and the local-self government institutions may prove useful in controlling the drug threat in the state. However, to clean up the international illicit trafficking, the stringent laws and their rigorous enforcement in association with the trans-national organisations, though they have no teeth to serve the end, can prove positive. But in the case of internal condition, the utility of community approach cannot be worn-out and overlooked.

In the Indian framework, the community based institutions have exercised considerable influence in shaping the attitudes and behaviour of the local people besides preventing the youngsters from drifting away to deviance and diversion. The combination of community and formal institutions (Government and Non-government organisations) may bring about fruitful results in controlling the curse of drugs. Of late, the state appears to have become active to tackle the drug problem but without massive community participation the situation would hardly change.

Curbing & Controlling Drug Trade

The situation (internal and external) is quite complicated which seeks both the demand and the prohibition of drugs.

- Alcoholism has also added to the number of narco-drug addicts and traffickers in the state.
- With a view to arresting the growing abuse of pharmaceutical drugs, the practice of granting licences for sale of drugs by chemists needs to be streamlined.
- Matters like requirements or needs of the locality and qualifications of applicants should be rigorously examined.
- Drugs and Cosmetics Rules must be strictly followed to check the misuse and illegal sale of the habit-forming drugs.
- Drug Inspectors along with the District Health Department officials should conduct surprise checks or raids at the erring chemist shops and drug stores.

- Instructions should be issued that no sale of medicines to customers would be done without written prescription and licence.
- The cash memo system should be followed to regulate the sale of drugs. District Health Department and Drug Inspectors should also maintain functional linkages with the grass-roots institutions (urban and rural) to check unauthorised sale of drugs in towns and villages.
- It is also necessary and crucial that the chemists maintain a stock register and a sale register containing details of daily sale of medicines.
- The local-self government institutions should also be empowered to take action against the illegal and unauthorised sale of drugs in the area under their jurisdiction.
- Regarding across border drug trafficking as well as within neighbouring states, close co-operation between the enforcement agencies and the community, NGOs, village panchayats/municipalities, school and college teachers, health official etc. is needed.
- The effective coordination between the state police and its counterparts in the neighbouring states needs to be established and strengthened. Similarly, proper cooperation between the state police and the para-military forces deployed on the border has to be achieved to stop the influx of drugs and related items from across the border.

De-addiction Centres & Approach to Treatment

For purposes of maintaining minimum standards of treatment and care, it is crucial to evolve a regulatory system to check and appraise the functioning of the de-addiction centres being operated in different places. In addition to regulate matters regarding infrastructure and staff/employees, it is equally eminent to “standardise the treatment protocol or regulate the cost of treatment” as it “provides a necessary foundation for rehabilitation and community reintegration”^{lv}. “The treatment centres (STCs) will have facilities for inpatients as well as outpatient treatment including detoxification, antagonist therapy, while the counselling centres (SCCs) will have facilities for substance use disorder awareness, counselling and rehabilitation through psychological means on an outpatient basis”^{lvi}.

Keeping in view the existing scenario of drug abuse in the state, it is imperative to set up more de-addiction centres to tackle the problem and save the lives of people. Moreover, the number of psychiatrists needs to be increased as the doctors and psychiatrists working together in drug de-addiction centres and civil hospitals may achieve better results. This, of course, has to be followed by relatives, family members, local village panchayats etc. for the rehabilitation of the affected persons.

Since majority of the addicts come from relatively humble background and under privileged sections, the role of Village Panchayats and Municipal institutions becomes paramount in all activities including campaigns for diminution of demand and supply of the killer drugs. The departments of Education, Health and Social Welfare in association with the local-self government institutions and NGOs should organise rallies, discussions, seminars, plays, essay competitions etc. for creating awareness and sensitisation. Similarly posters, pamphlets, hoardings and stickers should be distributed among the people in urban and rural areas.

Introduction - Annexure I

Right to Service Act in Perspective

What is the purpose of this Act?

- To empower the citizens to claim government services as a matter of **Right**.
- To restore **dignity** of the citizens.
- To repose **trust** in citizens through procedural changes and technology application.
- To initiate the process of democratic governance by making administration **accountable** to the citizens.
- To put in place institutional mechanism to perform the function of **Lok Pal** for lower rung of bureaucracy by taking suo-motto notice of any corrupt practices and harassment in the delivery of these services.

How the Act was developed?

- This is not merely a piece of legislation.
- An extensive backroom work was done at three levels;
 - (a) Procedures were changed to repose trust in the citizens – like doing away with **Affidavits** for availing these services. It has not only saved money, but provided citizens right to make **Self-Declarations**.
 - (b) Process reengineering was undertaken to do away with unnecessary procedures, for example, in the case of property registration, **discretionary powers of the tehsildar** regarding calculation of construction cost has been replaced with flat rate. Similarly, for approval of Building Plan, **empanelled architects have been authorised**. It will bring efficiency and also make professional competence of architects integral to governance.
 - (c) To provide for dignified delivery spaces like **Fard Kendras, Saanjh Kendras** and **Suvidha Centres** to break spatial disconnect

Salient features of the Act

- Act has provided **statutory backing** for ensuring delivery of services within stipulated time limits.
- It is a **Dynamic Act**. It has sufficient scope to include new services, amend time schedules, adapt new technology innovations without long administrative procedures.
- Main thrust is to **provide services first** and then start proceedings against erring officials.

- **Easy complaint mechanism** for grievance redressal without much time and material costs.
- The overall thrust is to make administration **Transparent and accountable**. Precisely, because of this, those services which are yet to be included in the Act, it has been made obligatory on the part of the concerned departments to inform public about stipulated time limits for their delivery.
- Punjab is the only state which has included **twenty police services** in this Act.

How to access these services?

- These services shall be provided from:
 - (a) Suvidha Centres at the district/sub-divisional level.
 - (b) Fard Kendras for Revenue services.
 - (c) Saanjh Kendras for Police services.
 - (d) Concerned designated officials from departments.
- Proper receipt shall be issued to facilitate tracking.
- Digitised systems are being developed to track denial or delay in service-delivery automatically by the first and second appellate authorities and Right to Service Commission. First appellate authority shall take action on delay and denial without waiting for the formal complaint.

How to lodge a complaint?

- Unique receipt number can be mentioned on a complaint proforma made available at the service-delivery and online.
- Concerned First Appellate Authority shall take action within time limit stipulated for the delivery of particular service.
- Complaints can be filed within 30 days of denial or non-delivery of service.

Chapter I

Section I - Annexure

Table 1.1 Distribution of Primary & Upper Primary Schools by management 2008-09

Districts	No. of primary schools					No. of Upper primary schools					All Elm. Schools/ Sections
	Govt.	Govt. Aided	Pvt. Rec	Pvt unrec.	All Primary Schools	Govt.	Govt. aided	Pvt. Rec	Pvt unrec.	All Upper Primary	
Amritsar	864	25	79	206	1174	346	40	191	305	882	1751
Barnala	190	0	0	70	260	114	4	3	217	338	382
Bathinda	390	0	111	221	722	248	13	139	136	536	1128
Faridkot	256	0	15	30	301	154	8	72	62	296	535
Fatehgarh	459	1	1	29	490	193	6	23	93	315	712
Firozpur	1148	10	31	161	1350	380	14	197	289	880	1941
Gurdaspur	1548	11	135	247	1941	478	38	252	218	986	2709
Hoshiarpur	1286	2	19	198	1505	428	40	115	360	943	2095
Jalandhar	986	14	27	336	1363	429	50	45	664	1188	1887
Kapurthala	560	1	0	94	655	232	17	11	291	551	926
Ludhiana	1019	13	113	161	1306	519	59	325	292	1195	2290
Mansa	293	1	12	115	421	175	3	44	185	407	667
Moga	381	1	27	63	472	230	12	86	100	428	849
Mohali	420	1	11	221	653	143	13	39	239	434	848
Muktsar	337	2	32	117	488	201	3	92	148	444	789
Nawanshahr	448	0	0	69	517	199	1	4	181	385	721
Patiala	1022	0	4	137	1163	344	27	60	779	1210	2215
Ropar	582	3	5	78	668	178	17	28	133	356	891
Sangrur	674	1	14	147	836	349	19	90	476	934	1294
TaranTaran	537	4	12	102	655	229	8	73	181	491	965
Punjab	13400	90	648	2802	16940	5569	392	1889	5349	13199	25595

Table 1.2 Number of Schools per '000 population in relevant age									
Districts	Primary			Upper primary			Elementary		
	Govt.	All private	All Primary Schools	Govt.	All Private	All Upper Primary	Govt.	All private	All Elm. Schools/ Sections
Amritsar	3.0	1.1	4.1	2.0	3.1	5.0	2.6	1.2	3.8
Barnala	2.8	1.0	3.8	2.8	5.4	8.2	2.8	0.7	3.5
Bathinda	2.5	2.1	4.7	2.6	3.1	5.7	2.6	2.0	4.5
Faridkot	3.5	0.6	4.1	3.5	3.2	6.7	3.5	1.1	4.6
Fatehgarh	6.6	0.4	7.0	4.6	2.9	7.5	5.8	0.5	6.4
Firozpur	5.0	0.9	5.9	2.7	3.6	6.3	4.2	1.1	5.3
Gurdaspur	5.6	1.4	7.1	2.9	3.1	5.9	4.6	1.5	6.1
Hoshiarpur	6.9	1.2	8.1	3.8	4.6	8.4	5.7	1.3	7.0
Jalandhar	3.9	1.5	5.3	2.8	4.9	7.7	3.5	1.2	4.6
Kapurthala	5.8	1.0	6.8	4.0	5.5	9.4	5.1	0.9	6.0
Ludhiana	2.5	0.7	3.2	2.1	2.7	4.8	2.3	1.1	3.5
Mansa	3.3	1.4	4.7	3.2	4.3	7.5	3.2	1.4	4.6
Moga	3.4	0.8	4.2	3.4	2.9	6.2	3.4	1.3	4.7
Mohali	4.5	2.5	7.1	2.6	5.2	7.8	3.8	1.9	5.7
Muktsar	3.3	1.5	4.8	3.3	4.0	7.3	3.3	1.5	4.9
Nawanshahr	6.2	1.0	7.2	4.6	4.3	8.8	5.6	0.6	6.2
Patiala	4.7	0.7	5.4	2.6	6.6	9.2	3.9	2.4	6.4
Ropar	7.0	1.0	8.0	3.5	3.5	7.1	5.7	1.0	6.7
Sangrur	3.5	0.8	4.4	3.0	5.1	8.1	3.3	0.9	4.2
TaranTaran	4.3	0.9	5.2	3.0	3.4	6.5	3.8	1.0	4.8
Punjab	4.2	1.1	5.3	2.9	4.0	6.8	3.7	1.3	5.0

Table 1.3 Percentage share of primary & upper primary schools by management, 2008-09								
Districts	No.of primary schools				No.of Upper primary schools			
	Govt.	Govt. aided	Pvt. Rec	Pvt unrec.	Govt.	Govt. aided	Pvt. Rec	Pvt unrec.
Amritsar	73.6	2.1	6.7	17.5	39.2	4.5	21.7	34.6
Barnala	73.1	0.0	0.0	26.9	33.7	1.2	0.9	64.2
Bathinda	54.0	0.0	15.4	30.6	46.3	2.4	25.9	25.4
Faridkot	85.0	0.0	5.0	10.0	52.0	2.7	24.3	20.9
Fatehgarh	93.7	0.2	0.2	5.9	61.3	1.9	7.3	29.5
Firozpur	85.0	0.7	2.3	11.9	43.2	1.6	22.4	32.8
Gurdaspur	79.8	0.6	7.0	12.7	48.5	3.9	25.6	22.1
Hoshiarpur	85.4	0.1	1.3	13.2	45.4	4.2	12.2	38.2
Jalandhar	72.3	1.0	2.0	24.7	36.1	4.2	3.8	55.9
Kapurthala	85.5	0.2	0.0	14.4	42.1	3.1	2.0	52.8
Ludhiana	78.0	1.0	8.7	12.3	43.4	4.9	27.2	24.4
Mansa	69.6	0.2	2.9	27.3	43.0	0.7	10.8	45.5
Moga	80.7	0.2	5.7	13.3	53.7	2.8	20.1	23.4
Mohali	64.3	0.2	1.7	33.8	32.9	3.0	9.0	55.1
Muktsar	69.1	0.4	6.6	24.0	45.3	0.7	20.7	33.3
Nawanshahr	86.7	0.0	0.0	13.3	51.7	0.3	1.0	47.0
Patiala	87.9	0.0	0.3	11.8	28.4	2.2	5.0	64.4
Ropar	87.1	0.4	0.7	11.7	50.0	4.8	7.9	37.4
Sangrur	80.6	0.1	1.7	17.6	37.4	2.0	9.6	51.0
TaranTaran	82.0	0.6	1.8	15.6	46.6	1.6	14.9	36.9
Punjab	79.1	0.5	3.8	16.5	42.2	3.0	14.3	40.5

Table 1.4- Number of Upper Primary to Primary Schools by management, 2008-09						
Districts	Govt.	Govt. aided	Pvt. Rec.	Pvt. Unrec.	All private	All mgmts.
Amritsar	0.40	1.6	2.4	1.5	1.7	0.8
Barnala	0.60	Nps	nps	3.1	3.2	1.3
Bathinda	0.64	Nps	1.3	0.6	0.9	0.7
Faridkot	0.60	Nps	4.8	2.1	3.2	1.0
Fatehgarh Sb.	0.42	6.0	23.0	3.2	3.9	0.6
Firozpur	0.33	1.4	6.4	1.8	2.5	0.7
Gurdaspur	0.31	3.5	1.9	0.9	1.3	0.5
Hoshiarpur	0.33	20	6.1	1.8	2.4	0.6
Jalandhar	0.44	3.6	1.7	2.0	2.0	0.9
Kapurthala	0.41	17	nps	3.1	3.4	0.8
Ludhiana	0.51	4.5	2.9	1.8	2.4	0.9
Mansa	0.60	3	3.7	1.6	1.8	1.0
Moga	0.60	12	3.2	1.6	2.2	0.9
Mohali	0.34	13	3.5	1.1	1.2	0.7
Muktsar	0.60	1.5	2.9	1.3	1.6	0.9
Nawanshahr	0.44	Nps	nps	2.6	2.7	0.7
Patiala	0.34	Nps	15.0	5.7	6.1	1.0
Ropar	0.31	5.7	5.6	1.7	2.1	0.5
Sangrur	0.52	19	6.4	3.2	3.6	1.1
TaranTaran	0.43	2	6.1	1.8	2.2	0.7
Punjab	0.42	4.4	2.9	1.9	2.2	0.8
nps= no school reported in the category.						

Table 1.9 Percentage of Primary & Upper Primary Government Schools with Facilities, 2008-09

District	Playground	Toilet		Drinking Water	Ramp	Electricity	Total govt. Schools
		Common	Girls				
No. of schools not having facilities	6579 (34.7)	2273 (11.1)	3553 (18.7)	637 (3.4)	11197 (59.0)	3109 (16.4)	18969
Amritsar	58.4	99.4	92.4	100.0	41.2	63.0	1210
Barnala	63.5	86.5	88.5	98.0	13.2	93.4	304
Bathinda	70.9	90.0	91.7	99.6	40.1	93.9	638
Faridkot	71.5	86.3	88.3	96.8	54.6	88.5	410
Fatehgarh Sb.	60.3	77.1	76.8	86.2	28.8	77.5	652
Firozpur	61.9	89.5	45.7	97.2	42.6	62.4	1528
Gurdaspur	63.9	89.2	89.9	95.9	35.4	82.0	2026
Hoshiarpur	69.0	81.0	85.8	94.3	45.9	85.9	1714
Jalandhar	56.5	100.0	71.1	100.0	29.7	92.1	1415
Kapurthala	59.3	77.9	65.9	90.0	52.9	83.5	792
Ludhiana	64.4	88.1	89.2	98.9	39.0	93.2	1538
Mansa	71.6	82.1	83.1	99.4	45.1	92.7	468
Moga	68.7	80.4	83.5	97.1	54.8	97.2	611
Mohali	76.7	87.0	83.8	94.7	44.8	83.1	563
Muktsar	69.7	85.3	88.1	99.8	66.7	90.7	538

Nawanshahr	68.8	87.2	81.5	97.1	85.2	96.0	647
Patiala	69.8	95.4	90.0	93.9	37.0	84.0	1366
Ropar	77.9	80.9	87.4	98.2	36.3	93.8	760
Sangrur	69.8	96.0	81.5	98.9	30.1	98.9	1023
TaranTaran	52.6	73.1	77.2	97.0	21.8	50.1	766
Punjab	65.3	88.0	81.3	96.6	41.0	83.6	18969

**Table 1.12 Profile of government elementary schools with selected facilities,
2008-09**

Block	Classrooms/ schools	% schools with common toilets	% schools with girls toilet	Computer/ school	% schools having electricity	No. of blackboards/ school	books/school	% schools having play grounds
Tarsika	4.0	92.3	92.3	2.5	66.7	4.5	208	60.3
Mehal Kalan	4.7	80.7	89.5	1.1	98.2	7.8	272	75.4
Rampura	4.6	86.7	86.7	4.7	95.6	8.0	610	66.7
Khera	3.4	65.2	69.6	2.4	81.2	5.8	401	68.1
Kotkapura	5.4	85.0	89.5	4.2	96.7	8.8	536	73.2
Guruharshai	4.2	100.0	53.6	2.7	66.0	5.6	291	48.5
Gurdaspur	3.7	86.3	91.3	3.0	89.1	4.9	192	62.8
Tanda	3.8	87.2	89.7	2.8	91.5	5.7	588	60.7
Shahkot	3.7	84.9	84.9	2.6	91.8	5.1	239	79.5
Sultanpur lodhi	3.2	82.7	62.5	2.6	87.5	4.7	392	61.5
Sidwan Bate	4.0	65.4	69.2	2.5	71.4	5.7	356	54.1
Budhlada	5.1	91.9	91.0	4.0	97.3	7.7	460	74.8
Dharmkot	5.4	82.8	79.3	3.9	98.9	6.8	657	74.7
Kharar	3.9	89.9	91.7	2.5	86.9	5.3	443	74.4
Lambi	4.1	81.9	87.5	3.8	88.9	5.1	344	65.3
Banga	4.6	88.8	94.8	3.5	99.1	6.7	409	66.4
Smana	2.2	85.0	78.3	3.4	73.3	5.6	369	60.0
A.Sahib	4.5	67.1	82.3	4.0	98.7	5.8	429	74.7
Sunam	4.3	100.0	100.0	4.4	100.0	6.6	472	66.7
Bhikhiwind	5.2	75.5	77.6	4.0	67.3	7.9	309	100.0

Table 2.1 Percentage of Population currently attending school by age, sex and place of residence NFHS, 2005-06									
Age groups	Male			Female			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
	India								
6-10	87.6	83.6	84.6	88.3	78.5	81.0	87.9	81.1	82.9
11-14	82.8	78.6	79.9	80.8	66.4	70.4	81.9	72.6	75.3
15-17	52.1	47.1	48.8	50.5	27.7	34.4	51.3	36.7	41.3
	Punjab								
6-10	85.1	90.5	88.7	85.6	88.0	87.2	85.3	89.4	88.0
11-14	81.6	83.1	82.5	86.6	79.9	82.9	83.7	81.6	82.3
15-17	51.6	50.4	50.9	60.0	40.9	40.9	55.1	46.0	49.2

Table2.2 Age-Specific Attendance Ratio in General Education for India & Punjab, 2007-08 (NSSO 64th Round)							
Age-group	Area	Male			Female		
		Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
6-10	India	91	89	89	90	86	87
	Punjab	75	93	87	86	86	86
11-13	India	90	88	89	88	82	83
	Punjab	90	89	89	84	87	86
14-17	India	71	66	66	70	55	59
	Punjab	70	65	65	78	58	65
18-24	India	20	16	17	19	9	12
	Punjab	13	13	13	16	15	16

Table 2.4 Estimates of GER & NER for Boys & Girls for Primary & Upper Primary Stages of School Education, 2008-09

District	I-VI			VI-VIII			All Elm			Primary		Upper Primary	
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	GER*	NER	GER*	NER
Amritsar	83.7	78.3	81.2	75.4	68.1	72.0	80.6	74.4	77.7	100	82.4	88.2	82.9
Barnala	77.3	69.5	73.7	76.9	68.3	72.9	77.2	69.1	73.4	103	77.6	76.3	50.9
Bathinda	99.9	86.1	93.6	89.3	74.2	82.2	96.0	81.6	89.3	96	75.8	77.7	51.6
Faridkot	105.1	92.7	99.4	104.8	87.5	96.7	105.0	90.7	98.4	105	83.2	79.7	56.5
Fatehgarh	72.1	63.4	68.1	79.2	63.2	71.7	74.7	63.3	69.4	90	72.2	79.0	55.1
Firozpur	90.6	84.3	87.7	86.0	74.7	80.7	88.9	80.7	85.1	92	73.0	71.3	55.3
Gurdaspur	82.3	75.9	79.4	76.4	66.4	71.7	80.1	72.3	76.5	89	74.9	87.9	69.9
Hoshiarpur	90.3	81.9	86.5	96.3	86.9	91.9	92.5	83.8	88.5	80	65.1	73.9	51.8
Jalandhar	72.7	68.2	70.6	76.8	69.9	73.5	74.2	68.9	71.7	94	91.0	92.6	88.4
Kapurthala	85.3	77.3	81.6	95.0	80.7	88.3	88.9	78.6	84.1	112	88.7	94.7	67.4
Ludhiana	80.0	74.0	77.2	74.5	67.5	71.2	78.0	71.5	75.0	84	66.7	67.4	46.8
Mansa	87.9	75.9	82.4	86.3	71.4	79.3	87.3	74.2	81.2	100	76.8	75.9	51.6
Moga	94.3	86.6	90.8	87.9	77.2	82.9	92.0	83.0	87.8	102	75.0	78.5	53.1
Mohali	65.0	59.3	62.4	65.0	57.6	61.5	65.0	58.7	62.0	90	76.6	83.6	70.2
Muktsar	100.6	87.7	94.7	94.1	81.1	88.0	98.2	85.2	92.1	93	72.4	76.3	69.0
Nawanshahr	71.4	66.8	69.3	78.5	71.8	75.3	74.0	68.7	71.6	100	80.6	93.2	62.9
Patiala	88.8	79.4	84.5	91.0	76.0	84.0	89.6	78.1	84.3	108	85.4	90.5	63.9
Rupnagar	71.6	66.1	69.1	80.4	72.9	76.8	74.9	68.7	72.0	83	66.9	82.4	58.8
Sangrur	81.8	73.2	77.8	83.2	73.4	78.6	82.3	73.3	78.1	99	77.3	84.7	57.9
Taran Taran	87.8	79.7	84.1	82.8	68.4	76.0	85.9	75.4	81.0	95	77.1	68.2	50.4
Punjab	84.3	76.8	80.8	82.6	72.2	77.7	83.7	75.0	79.7	93	74.1	77.6	54.4

Table 2.5 Drop out & Repetition Rates by districts, 2008-09, (SSA-DISE)				
	6-11 years age cohort*		11-14 years age cohort*	
Districts	Dropout Rate	Repetition Rate	Dropout Rate	Repetition Rate
Amritsar	1.8	6.3	1.7	12.5
Barnala	0.4	13.7	5.6	16.9
Bathinda	-2.5	12.4	7.5	16.8
Faridkot	2.1	15.9	3.8	16.2
Fatehgarh Sb.	5.7	8.2	5.7	21.0
Firozpur	0.2	8.2	1.6	13.1
Gurdaspur	5.1	2.3	4.8	10.2
Hoshiarpur	5.3	5.5	8.5	18.9
Jalandhar	2.7	7.4	6.0	21.6
Kapurthala	3.5	10.3	7.1	18.4
Ludhiana	3.9	9.0	6.2	20.5
Mansa	0.1	14.0	6.7	15.4
Moga	0.2	14.4	4.7	17.5
Muktsar	-3.0	20.1	1.8	17.0
Nawanshahr	6.4	5.5	6.4	19.4
Patiala	0.1	8.1	4.9	18.8
Ropar	1.5	6.1	4.5	18.6
Sangrur	1.1	8.6	5.9	17.9
Mohali	4.6	8.4	4.2	21.7
TaranTaran	1.5	5.6	5.4	10.1
Punjab	1.9	8.8	4.2	17.0

*The SSA-DISE 2008-09 Punjab in its printed booklet uses cohort dropout for primary and upper primary dropout rates. The difference between age cohort and stage specific dropout rate are obvious and can't be used interchangeably.

Table 2.6 Out of School Children and Percentage children enrolled in Private Schools, ASER 2008		
Districts	% Children (Age: 6-14) Out of School	% Children (Age: 6-14) in Private school
Amritsar*	2.1	48.7
Bhatinda	2.5	39.3
Faridkot	3.2	47.1
Fatehgarh Sahib	2.4	27.7
Firozpur	4.8	39.4
Gurdaspur	1.4	56.6
Hoshiarpur	1.1	42.7
Jalandhar	2.2	39.0
Kapurthala	7.1	36.3
Ludhiana	0.9	38.7
Mansa	3.6	37.6
Moga	3.9	39.5
Muktsar	7.1	27.6
Nawashehar	1.5	29.3
Patiala	2.0	48.8
Rupnagar	1.9	36.8
Sangrur*	2.0	45.6
SAS Nagar	1.6	39.3
TarnTaran*	5.2	30.8
Total	2.7	41.7

Table 2.7 Attendance by Stage of Education, Sex & Type of Institution for Rural & Urban areas, 2007-08 (NSSO)						
Type of Institution	Punjab			India		
	Primary	Upper Pr	Sec/HS	Primary	Upper Pr	Sec/HS
Rural Male						
Government *	49.2	64.9	65.9	79.4	76.8	65.9
Private aided	6.4	6.3	10.5	4.3	9.1	18.8
Private Unaided	42.1	28.3	24.5	15.8	13.7	14.7
nk/nr	2.3	0.5	0	0.5	4.0	0.6
Rural Female						
Government *	69.7	73.6	59.1	83.9	80.2	66.1
Private aided	6.4	6.9	11.4	3.5	9.2	18.9
Private Unaided	33.1	18.1	29.5	12.4	10.2	14.2
nk/nr	0.9	1.4	0	0.3	0.3	0.8
Urban Male						
Government *	24.3	23.5	22.0	37.6	43.1	42.0
Private aided	15.3	16.5	30.0	15.6	20.5	27.9
Private Unaided	56.9	54.5	45.0	45.6	35.3	28.8
nk/nr	3.4	5.7	3.0	1.4	1.0	1.2
Urban Female						
Government *	20.8	30.7	37.2	42.2	45.5	49.1
Private aided	24.4	20.2	24.8	16.7	23.3	25.8
Private Unaided	53.0	42.3	35.3	40.2	30.3	24.4
nk/nr	1.7	6.8	2.5	1.0	1.0	0.7
* Includes local bodies						

Table 2.8 Block wise percentage of enrolment by gender and social groups in private primary Schools, 2008-09										
District	Block	Non-SC/OBC			SC			OBC		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Amritsar	Tarsika	72.65	75.43	73.79	14.14	13.25	13.78	13.21	11.32	12.44
Bathinda	Rampura	89.66	89.58	89.63	4.35	3.97	4.22	5.99	6.45	6.15
Faridkot	Kotkapura	74.20	74.44	74.30	15.53	14.19	15.00	10.27	11.37	10.71
Firozpur	Guruarshai	38.43	39.69	38.86	6.27	6.87	6.48	55.29	53.44	54.66
Gurdaspur	Gurdaspur	52.65	56.95	54.37	23.57	19.91	22.11	23.77	23.13	23.52
Hoshiarpur	Tanda	38.40	44.76	41.02	22.45	20.82	21.77	39.16	34.42	37.21
Ludhiana	Sidwan Bate	80.37	81.13	80.68	13.67	13.81	13.73	5.95	5.07	5.60
Mansa	Budhlada	90.58	92.17	91.13	4.13	3.99	4.08	5.29	3.84	4.78
Moga	Dharmkot	93.71	93.32	93.56	2.64	3.97	3.14	3.66	2.71	3.30
Mohali	Kharar	81.19	85.76	82.91	14.11	10.51	12.76	4.70	3.73	4.34
Muktsar	Lambi	68.79	70.95	69.59	19.44	17.14	18.59	11.77	11.91	11.82
Ropar	A.Sahib	61.16	63.00	61.82	17.36	22.71	19.29	21.49	14.29	18.89
Taran Taran	Bhikhiwind	95.55	95.33	95.47	2.31	2.17	2.26	2.14	2.50	2.26

Source: DISE, New Delhi 2008-09

Table 2.9 Punjab-Distribution of Children enrolled in government & private schools by MPCE, 2004-05						
Size class of MPCE(Rs.)	Rural			Urban		
	Govt. *	Private Aided	Private Unaided	Govt. *	Private Aided	Private Unaided
< 500	-	-	-	-	-	-
501-1000	-	-	-	-	-	-
1001-2000	94.1	0	5.9	65.6	6.3	28.1
2001-5000	81.1	1.7	16.8	53.3	10.2	35.8
> 5000	39.7	9.1	50.4	18.4	18.0	62.6
All	71.6	3.6	24.4	45.8	11.5	42.2
Source: NSSO 61st round, 2004-05						

Table 2.10: Percentage of children enrolled in elementary classes by different school managements and landholdings size (Rural) , 2004-05 (NSSO 61st Round)			
Size class of land possessed (ha)	Govt. *	Private Aided	Private Unaided
India			
< 0.01	82.4	4.9	12.6
0.01-0.40	-	-	-
0.41-1.00	88.5	4.8	6.5
1.01-2.00	83.7	6.2	9.8
2.01-4.00	81.6	5.3	12.8
> 4.0	79.0	7.2	13.5
Punjab			
< 0.01	66.7	33.3	0.0
0.01-0.40	-	-	-
0.41-1.00	94.0	0.0	6.0
1.01-2.00	83.9	4.8	11.3
2.01-4.00	75.5	3.2	21.3
> 4.0	60.9	4.4	34.1

Table 2.11 Average Annual Household Expenditure per Student (in Rs.) on Education (2004-05)

STATES	Primary						upper primary					
	Rural Areas			Urban Areas			Rural areas			Urban Areas		
	Govt.	Private Aided	Private Unaided	Govt.	Private Aided	Private Unaided	Govt.	Private Aided	Private Unaided	Govt.	Private Aided	Private Unaided
Andhra	723	1303	1700	1431	7000	3829	927	1178	3245	2339	7083	5351
Assam	864	952	754	1570	5587	2948	1285	1353	2217	4746	4620	3375
Bihar	727	1381	1463	1473	2135	2180	1342	4229	1909	2480	3896	3080
Chhattisgarh	458	1499	763	1902	2684	3800	653	993	904	1805	3027	5774
Gujarat	630	786	848	2392	3837	5021	704	1168	2068	3236	4021	4252
Haryana	1804	3965	2911	3880	3991	5680	2603	4364	4534	5855	7750	7902
Himachal	1395	1615	3978	2421	5409	3219	1728	1882	3160	2671	1352	1231
Jammu & Kashmir	1936	1982	3827	1975	4974	7176	2373	2561	5773	3621	7730	8514
Jharkhand	549	2163	1432	2341	3470	4568	833	4104	1738	2891	4966	6107
Karnataka	507	1424	1277	1754	2765	5452	875	1115	1765	2182	4049	5508
Kerala	2025	2751	3029	2772	2942	4089	2788	2991	4681	3057	3368	5295
Madhya Pradesh	530	1024	1508	2397	3019	4240	800	1264	2321	2076	8793	6648
Maharashtra	539	1433	1458	1476	3394	5216	748	1131	1635	1473	4040	4184
Orissa	649	464	1404	2291	6424	3139	1143	990	1800	1914	2084	3622
Punjab	2348	4922	4414	2911	7718	5189	2972	9737	4683	4307	7017	6787
Rajasthan	749	918	1416	1730	3248	3011	1220	1044	1934	2218	4249	5325
Tamil Nadu	968	1135	2437	1978	3111	3887	1092	2903	2529	1442	8745	5673
Uttar Pradesh	851	1406	1394	1580	3004	3225	1472	1603	1945	3105	3684	6000
Uttaranchal	1219	2780	1735	3042	2581	3820	2117	2299	4297	3098	2052	4615
West Bengal	1128	1133	1741	2563	2429	5100	1687	1320	856	4066	3609	3941

Table 3.1 Punjab - Number of Teachers per School by mgt. and school type in selected school clusters

Cluster	Dept. of Education					LB	Private Schools				
	Primary	Primary with UP	Primary with UP/SEC.H.SEC	UP only	UP with SEC/H.SEC		Primary	Primary with UP	primary with UP/SEC.H.SEC	UP only	UP with SEC/H.SEC
Tangra	3	0	0	6	5	0	1	0	0	1	1
Wajidke Kalan	3	0	0	6	6	12	6	10	0	0	0
Jeond	3	0	0	3	8	4	0	0	0	0	0
Rampur	3	0	0	4	?	3	0	0	0	0	0
Kotkapura	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Baje Ke	2	0	0	6	7	3	0	0	10	0	0
Saidowal Kalan	1	0	0	0	8	6	8	0	0	0	5
Gohrewaha	3	0	0	5	7	0	10	0	0	0	10
kohar kalan	3	0	0	2	11	4	3	0	0	2	11
Sultanpur Iodhi	4	0	0	3	5	3	0	0	0	0	0
Sidwan Bate1	0	0	0	0	0	4	5	6	9	0	0
Reond Kalan	3	0	0	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
Indergarh	7	0	0	0	13	2	16	0	0	0	0
Sohana	5	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	8	0	0
SikhWala	5	0	0	3	8	3	0	0	10	0	0
Sandhwan	3	0	0	3	5	2	0	0	0	0	0
Smana	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Sangatpur	4	0	0	0	9	3	0	0	0	0	0
Mana Patti Cheema	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
GES Sur Singh	6	0	0	0	8	9	10	0	0	0	0

Source: School Report Cards, 2009-10

Section II

Table 1 Secondary & Higher Secondary Schools by Management in Rural & Urban Areas, 2008-09												
District Name	All Areas				Rural				Urban			
	State & other public sectors	Private Body	MHRD/ KVS/ NVS	Total / All Schools	State & other public sectors	Private Body	MHRD/ KVS/ NVS	Total / All Schools	State & other public sectors	Private Body	MHRD/ KVS/ NVS	Total All Schools
AMRITSAR	210	219	1	433	161	78	1	242	49	141	0	191
BARNALA	87	37	1	125	74	16	0	90	13	21	1	35
BATHINDA	191	88	6	285	172	28	2	202	19	60	4	83
FARIDKOT	76	49	2	127	68	16	1	85	8	33	1	42
FATEHGARH SB.	80	46	1	127	67	23	1	91	13	23	0	36
FIROZPUR	242	129	4	377	216	45	3	265	26	84	1	112
GURDASPUR	247	187	9	443	223	91	6	320	24	96	3	123
HOSHIARPUR	240	142	1	386	222	78	1	303	18	64	0	83
JALANDHAR	279	166	9	457	209	47	3	260	70	119	6	197
KAPURTHALA	124	79	5	210	110	36	2	148	14	43	3	62
LUDHIANA	364	229	5	598	306	67	4	377	58	162	1	221
MANSA	171	28	0	200	162	11	0	174	9	17	0	26
MOGA	179	64	1	246	173	28	1	204	6	36	0	42
MOHALI	106	50	1	157	92	12	1	105	14	38	0	52
MUKTSAR	128	76	1	206	119	39	1	160	9	37	0	46
NAWANSHAHR	106	60	1	167	99	29	1	129	7	31	0	38
PATIALA	185	159	5	349	156	53	2	211	29	106	3	138
ROPAR	112	43	1	160	98	29	1	131	14	14	0	29
SANGRUR	207	122	1	330	186	62	1	249	21	60	0	81
TARAN TARAN	154	29	1	184	147	17	1	165	7	12	0	19
Punjab	3488	2002	56	5567	3060	805	33	3911	428	1197	23	1656

Table 2 Population-school ratio, 2008-09

State/District	Population per secondary & higher secondary school		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Amritsar	5753	4772	6995
Barnala	4770	4508	5446
Bathinda	4873	4401	6023
Faridkot	4866	4712	5179
Fatehgarh Sahib	4723	4557	5143
Firozpur	5376	5564	4931
Gurdaspur	5190	5137	5326
Hoshiarpur	4101	4119	4034
Jalandhar	4774	3928	5890
Kapurthala	3894	3597	4603
Ludhiana	5833	3780	9333
Mansa	3844	3479	6287
Moga	4034	3767	5328
Muktsar	5750	6191	4860
Patiala	9186	7064	16565
Rupnagar	4092	3919	4679
Sangrur	4740	5392	3745
SAS Nagar	6163	3375	18760
SBS Nagar	1862	1963	1549
Tarn Taran	6087	5931	7445
Punjab	4977	4428	6273

Table A Number of schools with enrolment in rural & urban areas without library

Districts	Schools all areas	Enrolment		Schools Rural	Enrolment		Schools Urban	Enrolment		Per cent schools without lib.		
		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls	All schools	rural	urban
AMRITSAR	141	9762	6959	112	7777	4954	29	1985	2005	32.6	46.3	15.2
BARNALA	54	2574	2552	49	2276	2050	5	298	502	43.2	54.4	14.3
BATHINDA	151	7821	7889	121	6057	5600	30	1764	2289	53.0	59.9	36.1
FARIDKOT	46	2140	1887	41	1848	1714	5	292	173	36.2	48.2	11.9
FATEHGARH SB.	44	2056	2501	36	1571	1654	8	485	847	34.6	39.6	22.2
FIROZPUR	125	8102	6251	108	6996	5082	17	1106	1169	33.2	40.8	15.2
GURDASPUR	176	12246	10523	149	10110	8807	27	2136	1716	39.7	46.6	22.0
HOSHIARPUR	187	9381	10236	160	7794	8393	27	1587	1843	48.4	52.8	32.5
JALANDHAR	166	6440	7354	116	4388	4398	50	2052	2956	36.3	44.6	25.4
KAPURTHALA	75	2913	2832	72	2787	2729	3	126	103	35.7	48.6	4.8
LUDHIANA	237	11635	10566	190	9093	8437	47	2542	2129	39.6	50.4	21.3
MANSA	80	4568	4530	74	4376	3762	6	192	768	40.0	42.5	23.1
MOGA	87	4247	4264	83	4247	3718	4	0	546	35.4	40.7	9.5
MOHALI	54	2483	2616	43	2118	2162	11	365	454	34.4	41.0	21.2
MUKTSAR	97	3584	2714	90	3192	2557	7	392	157	47.1	56.3	15.2
NAWANSHAHR	66	3151	3421	56	2614	2805	10	537	616	39.5	43.4	26.3
PATIALA	119	6364	5524	101	5568	4752	18	796	772	34.1	47.9	13.0
ROPAR	66	3924	3737	59	3547	3560	7	377	177	41.3	45.0	24.1
SANGRUR	135	6776	6073	125	6295	5427	10	481	646	40.9	50.2	12.3
TARAN TARAN	119	8943	5903	115	8293	5310	4	650	593	64.7	69.7	21.1
Punjab	2225	119110	108332	1900	100947	87871	325	18163	20461	40.0	48.6	19.6

Table B Schools without Laboratories

District Name	All areas			Rural			Urban		
	schools	% schools	Enrolment	Schools	% schools	Enrolment	schools	% schools	Enrolment
AMRITSAR	91	21.0	10928	63	26.0	6927	28	14.7	4001
BARNALA	34	27.2	3210	27	30.0	2323	7	20.0	887
BATHINDA	126	44.2	12997	101	50.0	9571	25	30.1	3426
FARIDKOT	22	17.3	2164	17	20.0	1588	5	11.9	576
FATEHGARH SB	34	26.8	3384	29	31.9	2728	5	13.9	656
FIROZPUR	77	20.4	8411	66	24.9	7141	11	9.8	1270
GURDASPUR	108	24.4	13976	83	25.9	10310	25	20.3	3666
HOSHIARPUR	144	37.3	14900	124	40.9	12610	20	24.1	2290
JALANDHAR	99	21.7	8074	61	23.5	4572	38	19.3	3502
KAPURTHALA	49	23.3	3365	44	29.7	3086	5	8.1	279
LUDHIANA	120	20.1	11306	92	24.4	8552	28	12.7	2754
MANSA	50	25.0	5157	47	27.0	4838	3	11.5	319
MOGA	53	21.5	4992	46	22.5	4158	7	16.7	834
MOHALI	40	25.5	3913	26	24.8	2808	14	26.9	1105
MUKTSAR	62	30.1	3950	56	35.0	3603	6	13.0	347
NAWANSHAHR	42	25.1	4452	35	27.1	3486	7	18.4	966
PATIALA	61	17.5	5762	48	22.7	4975	13	9.4	787
ROPAR	44	27.5	5322	37	28.2	4588	7	24.1	734
SANGRUR	77	23.3	6464	66	26.5	5264	11	13.6	1200
TARAN TARAN	100	54.3	11840	96	58.2	11082	4	21.1	758
Punjab	1433	25.7	72626	1164	29.8	54824	269	16.2	17802

Table3 GER by stages of education by sex for states and UTs, NSSO 64th round (2007-08)

States/UTs	Primary		Upper Primary		Secondary		Higher Secondary		Diploma not equal to degree		Graduate & above	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Andaman Nicobar	118.1	100.2	92.6	103.9	218.3	113.9	47.3	40.6	1.1	3.7	8.0	10.5
Andhra Pradesh	101.0	99.7	91.0	80.7	88.9	78.4	35.0	27.7	3.9	2.4	20.5	12.6
Arunachal Pradesh	93.5	91.5	114.5	98.2	95.9	85.0	39.3	27.2	3.2	0.9	6.8	5.7
Assam	104.6	99.7	102.8	106.8	74.3	56.6	32.0	30.4	1.9	0.5	11.3	8.0
Bihar	93.7	86.9	78.4	63.9	56.9	39.2	24.5	13.0	2.4	0.8	9.6	3.6
Chandigarh	98.1	86.3	96.0	103.2	81.1	82.0	64.6	35.5	8.7	8.0	43.7	46.9
Chhattisgarh	110.7	107.7	100.0	80.8	66.4	58.9	22.5	23.1	1.7	2.4	7.8	3.0
D & Nagar Haveli	102.0	94.2	90.6	92.5	113.7	39.3	7.6	34.2	0.0	0.8	6.9	9.8
Daman Diu	103.3	88.3	105.5	135.5	69.4	85.1	27.1	19.9	1.5	0.0	13.6	10.1
Delhi	110.9	110.5	101.1	85.1	76.3	84.1	31.2	37.9	1.5	2.7	16.3	18.4
Goa	76.0	88.7	150.0	118.2	84.8	93.3	34.9	30.0	2.7	10.7	21.8	12.8
Gujarat	93.9	92.7	106.5	91.0	77.3	53.8	22.3	20.5	3.8	1.4	11.1	9.2
Haryana	106.7	106.8	100.4	81.2	85.5	79.1	40.1	26.1	4.9	0.7	14.3	14.9
Himachal Pradesh	107.7	106.4	119.5	114.8	109.7	97.8	58.1	52.9	7.3	4.2	13.3	10.7
Jammu Kashmir	114.2	111.0	111.0	117.1	107.2	81.0	40.5	37.7	5.8	4.0	17.0	20.0
Jharkhand	100.3	103.4	83.9	79.6	61.7	48.3	34.4	17.4	2.5	1.1	13.9	9.4
Karnataka	86.3	83.3	127.1	114.1	75.8	85.7	39.5	26.6	4.5	2.7	17.7	9.9
Kerala	86.4	80.9	120.4	123.5	113.0	120.4	49.8	51.6	13.8	10.3	20.0	25.4
Lakshadweep	97.2	91.4	127.3	145.1	133.6	116.1	30.2	55.4	0.0	3.0	4.2	0.0

Madhya Pradesh	109.4	104.7	96.3	90.2	67.5	50.9	21.9	13.3	1.5	0.9	14.8	9.9
Maharashtra	92.5	90.9	109.7	110.8	95.2	76.8	32.8	31.1	5.6	4.3	18.7	15.7
Manipur	108.9	102.7	96.6	109.0	110.0	104.9	41.1	34.8	3.3	2.9	7.6	6.8
Meghalaya	110.0	105.1	85.7	121.3	83.7	62.7	15.9	17.7	0.7	1.1	13.6	8.5
Mizoram	95.8	93.2	128.9	137.1	93.5	106.7	23.2	30.1	1.9	3.4	14.9	10.9
Nagaland	103.1	97.6	126.1	109.4	116.4	84.5	43.0	55.4	3.1	2.8	9.2	9.7
Orissa	98.6	98.5	90.1	85.7	71.1	58.0	19.0	14.3	6.3	1.0	11.0	6.2
Pondichery	96.3	97.3	115.1	109.5	82.7	88.4	64.4	35.8	12.7	6.3	26.0	24.7
Punjab	103.9	99.9	95.6	96.8	81.3	70.7	25.9	34.2	5.5	3.5	10.6	12.7
Rajasthan	109.4	100.3	94.2	71.8	81.9	58.2	25.0	13.0	4.3	0.7	15.3	7.7
Sikkim	140.9	135.9	91.5	101.4	71.2	57.2	24.3	20.5	3.0	1.2	9.3	7.3
Tamilnadu	97.6	100.5	103.1	104.9	97.5	100.6	43.2	39.4	6.8	3.3	18.1	15.3
Tripura	113.6	113.1	94.1	93.9	87.4	75.7	27.5	20.4	2.0	2.8	6.2	5.7
Uttar Pradesh	108.9	104.4	77.4	72.3	63.2	52.5	28.2	22.2	2.8	1.1	17.1	16.3
Uttaranchal	104.6	112.6	101.7	74.8	98.7	94.8	40.4	38.1	3.6	6.3	12.7	10.6
West Bengal	92.8	91.6	112.6	116.5	61.6	59.5	21.5	16.6	2.3	0.6	14.4	8.0
India	101.2	98.0	95.6	89.6	75.5	64.5	29.7	24.4	4.1	2.2	15.6	12.0

Table 4a GER by sex and stages of education by social groups in all areas, NSSO 64th round

Stages of education	Sex	All pop		General		OBC		SC	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Primary	Male	103.9	101.2	107.4	102.9	112.7	101.1	97.2	99.9
	Female	99.9	98.0	102.0	98.7	98.1	99.8	98.3	94.8
Upper Primary	Male	95.6	95.6	104.0	100.9	94.2	93.8	87.1	93.8
	Female	96.8	89.6	102.2	101.2	109.3	85.2	88.1	87.7
Secondary	Male	81.3	75.5	97.4	87.4	70.7	76.5	66.4	65.0
	Female	70.7	64.5	89.3	76.8	55.6	63.9	51.2	56.5
Higher Secondary	Male	25.9	29.7	38.1	36.5	27.7	30.5	10.8	22.7
	Female	34.2	24.4	56.3	33.2	30.2	22.8	16.3	18.5
Diploma	Male	5.5	4.1	7.5	5.7	5.3	3.8	2.8	3.0
	Female	3.5	2.2	4.0	3.1	5.7	2.0	1.9	1.8
Graduation & above	Male	10.6	15.6	17.3	22.0	4.3	14.2	3.5	11.6
	Female	12.7	12.0	20.9	20.1	7.1	9.9	3.6	7.3

Table 4b GER by sex and stages of education by social groups in rural areas, NSSO 64th round

Stage of Education	Sex	All Rural		General		OBC		SC	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Primary	Male	112.2	101.9	110.9	104.3	123.9	101.9	110.7	100.7
	Female	100.6	98.4	108.6	100.6	98.1	100.5	95.7	94.1
Upper Primary	Male	97.4	94.3	109.4	100.1	97.0	92.4	87.3	92.9
	Female	93.8	86.9	95.7	98.6	108.2	82.7	88.9	87.1
Secondary	Male	72.8	71.3	87.8	81.6	68.4	74.6	60.5	62.0
	Female	73.1	59.3	98.4	73.3	51.5	59.4	52.4	51.3
Higher Secondary	Male	24.3	26.7	35.8	33.2	27.2	28.0	11.3	22.2
	Female	26.7	19.4	50.9	26.5	23.3	19.2	13.9	15.6
Diploma	Male	5.7	3.4	8.0	4.9	3.8	3.1	3.9	2.9
	Female	2.5	1.5	3.7	2.2	4.9	1.6	0.0	1.2
Graduation & above	Male	8.9	11.7	15.2	16.6	2.4	11.7	4.3	9.1
	Female	10.0	6.8	16.0	11.1	6.9	6.4	3.8	4.7

Table 4c GER by sex and stages of education by social groups in urban areas, NSSO 64th round

Stage of Education	Sex	All Urban		General		OBC		SC	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Primary	Male	87.1	98.6	99.8	100.3	98.7	97.9	67.3	95.9
	Female	98.4	96.2	93.8	95.0	98.4	96.9	110.5	98.2
Upper Primary	Male	90.9	100.0	94.0	102.4	88.3	98.9	86.5	98.1
	Female	104.5	98.3	115.4	106.0	111.3	94.2	85.1	90.2
Secondary	Male	99.8	89.3	111.9	98.2	74.1	84.0	92.0	77.9
	Female	67.0	81.1	77.9	83.3	63.4	80.2	48.8	77.6
Higher Secondary	Male	29.3	37.6	42.0	41.4	28.9	38.4	9.5	24.5
	Female	51.3	37.8	62.4	43.8	50.4	34.4	26.7	29.0
Diploma	Male	5.1	5.6	6.9	6.7	7.7	5.3	0.4	3.3
	Female	5.5	3.8	4.4	4.3	7.0	3.1	6.6	3.9
Graduation & above	Male	13.0	23.7	19.6	28.2	7.2	20.4	1.6	18.6
	Female	17.8	25.0	29.4	32.7	7.3	20.2	3.3	16.0

Table 5 GER by MPCE quintiles for all areas, NSSO 64th round

Stage of Education	Sex	Bottom 20%		20-40%		40-60%		60-80%		Top 20 %	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Primary	Male	44.1	94.4	90.1	102.5	91.7	89.6	84.2	76.3	68.0	39.2
	Female	72.6	87.9	76.9	88.3	87.7	86.3	78.6	73.1	52.9	36.6
Upper Primary	Male	35.6	74.4	72.5	90.4	74.3	80.7	86.9	79.2	62.0	44.5
	Female	42.6	69.5	60.2	70.8	77.1	75.9	71.2	69.9	72.4	42.5
Secondary	Male	38.2	42.2	35.6	60.3	28.3	60.1	58.7	68.1	51.9	46.7
	Female	13.7	35.7	38.6	42.5	31.9	51.2	67.7	54.8	45.9	39.9
Higher Secondary	Male	0.0	11.7	5.2	19.6	17.2	22.4	9.6	24.9	23.7	18.0
	Female	0.0	8.6	6.8	10.4	8.1	14.5	22.2	18.4	26.7	16.1
Diploma	Male	0.0	1.0	3.2	0.9	0.7	2.0	3.5	2.9	4.0	3.0
	Female	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.6	1.5	1.5	0.5
Graduation & above	Male	0.0	4.3	2.3	5.6	0.0	6.5	3.3	9.3	8.0	10.2
	Female	0.0	2.1	0.0	2.4	0.0	4.0	6.5	5.9	9.4	7.5

Table 6 Punjab- GER in Secondary Classes, 2008-09									
Districts	All areas			Rural			Urban		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
AMRITSAR	64.1	54.8	59.7	66.6	48.1	57.9	61.9	60.6	61.3
BARNALA	48.1	53.0	50.4	45.8	47.1	46.4	53.1	65.6	58.9
BATHINDA	46.3	48.2	47.1	41.1	42.4	41.7	55.4	58.6	56.9
FARIDKOT	54.2	50.7	52.5	47.5	44.2	45.9	66.4	62.8	64.7
FATEHGARH SB.	51.2	52.9	52.0	46.1	47.1	46.6	62.2	66.1	64.0
FIROZPUR	43.8	37.9	41.0	38.7	31.2	35.2	57.2	56.2	56.7
GURDASPUR	63.8	60.5	62.3	62.4	55.1	58.9	67.3	74.8	70.8
HOSHIARPUR	59.2	60.4	59.8	56.7	57.4	57.0	68.1	71.9	69.9
JALANDHAR	47.4	51.4	49.3	49.8	53.5	51.6	45.3	49.5	47.3
KAPURTHALA	57.0	55.9	56.5	55.7	53.6	54.7	59.3	60.5	59.9
LUDHIANA	42.9	43.9	43.4	52.9	54.7	53.7	36.2	36.2	36.2
MANSA	46.9	44.9	45.9	45.4	41.5	43.6	52.3	57.4	54.7
MOGA	51.4	55.2	53.2	50.4	54.7	52.4	54.9	57.0	55.9
MOHALI	33.3	34.8	34.0	43.6	49.8	46.5	24.8	22.8	23.9
MUKTSAR	45.4	42.2	43.9	39.6	35.6	37.7	60.3	59.2	59.8
NAWANSHAHR	61.9	67.6	64.7	55.4	62.2	58.7	86.9	89.2	88.0
PATIALA	52.6	48.3	50.6	47.0	41.3	44.3	61.0	58.8	59.9
ROPAR	57.3	57.5	57.4	60.9	59.5	60.3	47.1	51.7	49.3
SANGRUR	44.4	43.7	44.1	46.0	42.6	44.4	40.9	46.1	43.3
TARAN TARAN	55.1	41.6	48.8	50.5	36.9	44.1	86.7	74.2	80.9
PUNJAB	51.2	49.6	50.4	50.8	47.6	49.3	51.8	53.1	52.4

Note: GER for the districts cannot be compared with that of the figures reported for the state, that are based on the NSSO estimates .Hence, the difference in aggregate figures.

Table 7 Share of Public Sector in Secondary & Hr. Sec. Schools, 2008-09			
District Name	All Areas	Rural	Urban
AMRITSAR	48.7	66.9	25.7
BARNALA	70.4	82.2	40.0
BATHINDA	69.1	86.1	27.7
FARIDKOT	61.4	81.2	21.4
FATEHGARH SB.	63.8	74.7	36.1
FIROZPUR	65.3	82.6	24.1
GURDASPUR	57.8	71.6	22.0
HOSHIARPUR	62.4	73.6	21.7
JALANDHAR	63.0	81.5	38.6
KAPURTHALA	61.4	75.7	27.4
LUDHIANA	61.7	82.2	26.7
MANSA	85.5	93.1	34.6
MOGA	73.2	85.3	14.3
MOHALI	68.2	88.6	26.9
MUKTSAR	62.6	75.0	19.6
NAWANSHAHR	64.1	77.5	18.4
PATIALA	54.4	74.9	23.2
ROPAR	70.6	75.6	48.3
SANGRUR	63.0	75.1	25.9
TARAN TARAN	84.2	89.7	36.8
Total	63.7	79.1	27.2

Table 8 Participation of Students in Government Secondary Schools by Social Groups, 2008-09

State/District	Share of students belonging to social groups in secondary school enrolment (Class IX & X)					
	SC		OBC		Others	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Amritsar	47.4	41.6	15.4	20.8	37.2	37.7
Barnala	32.1	29.8	8.9	9.7	59.1	60.5
Bathinda	33.8	30.0	10.1	17.5	56.1	52.4
Faridkot	45.6	42.1	14.5	16.3	39.9	41.6
Fatehgarh Sahib	47.2	43.3	14.6	19.9	38.2	36.8
Firozpur	49.5	40.5	22.3	29.1	28.3	30.4
Gurdaspur	39.7	35.3	14.2	24.8	46.1	39.8
Hoshiarpur	47.0	46.6	22.8	22.7	30.2	30.6
Jalandhar	56.0	62.3	13.3	12.1	30.7	25.6
Kapurthala	46.4	50.9	26.5	24.3	27.1	24.9
Ludhiana	51.8	52.2	10.8	14.6	37.3	33.2
Mansa	31.1	26.1	8.6	15.6	60.4	58.2
Moga	37.1	32.7	9.3	16.1	53.6	51.2
Mohali	32.7	35.6	14.5	26.5	52.9	37.8
Muktsar	42.1	35.9	9.6	19.3	48.3	44.8
Nawansher	53.4	57.6	19.1	16.5	27.6	25.9
Patiala	34.0	30.6	18.9	27.5	47.1	41.8
Ropar	29.2	27.2	14.3	22.2	56.5	50.6
Sangrur	40.3	34.5	14.0	20.5	45.7	45.0
Tarn Taran	21.8	19.6	12.7	14.7	65.5	65.6
Punjab	41.2	39.8	14.9	19.8	43.9	40.4

Table 9 Percent Schools in Rural Areas and Schools without Teacher, 2008-09							
Districts	% schools in Rural areas			Total Schools without teacher (Total)	Urban schools without teacher	% schools without teacher (Total)	% Urban schools without teacher
	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Total / All Schools				
AMRITSAR	64.1	45.7	55.9	16	9	3.7	3.7
BARNALA	81.6	58.3	72.0	13	8	10.4	8.9
BATHINDA	77.1	62.6	70.9	42	35	14.7	17.3
FARIDKOT	72.6	58.3	66.9	10	6	7.9	7.1
FATEHGARH SB	80.0	60.7	71.7	4	4	3.1	4.4
FIROZPUR	78.7	60.6	70.3	62	57	16.4	21.5
GURDASPUR	79.1	69.1	72.2	13	4	2.9	1.3
HOSHIARPUR	83.8	73.2	78.5	29	16	7.5	5.3
JALANDHAR	63.1	52.7	56.9	22	7	4.8	2.7
KAPURTHALA	75.2	67.7	70.5	18	13	8.6	8.8
LUDHIANA	68.3	56.9	63.0	45	35	7.5	9.3
MANSA	95.6	71.4	87.0	75	75	37.5	43.1
MOGA	88.8	76.1	82.9	42	39	17.1	19.1
MOHALI	73.3	54.4	66.9	22	19	14.0	18.1
MUKTSAR	79.2	77.8	77.7	14	7	6.8	4.4
NAWANSHAHR	88.0	65.8	77.2	11	7	6.6	5.4
PATIALA	61.3	61.1	60.5	13	8	3.7	3.8
ROPAR	87.5	74.3	81.9	16	14	10.0	10.7
SANGRUR	81.1	69.9	75.5	32	26	9.7	10.4
TARAN TARAN	94.8	80.3	89.7	14	14	7.6	8.5
Punjab	76.9	63.3	70.3	513	403	9.2	10.3

Table C Percentage enrolled having received any scholarship by stage of education, sex & social groups (NSSO 64th round)									
Stage	Sex	All Population		General		OBC		SC	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Primary	Male	2.8	11.8	1.4	3.3	0.0	13.5	6.7	21.4
	Female	9.2	15.3	0.9	4.1	4.7	16.9	21.6	25.0
Upper Primary	Male	9.8	13.1	0.0	2.1	7.5	14.8	24.7	24.9
	Female	10.8	15.2	1.3	4.1	9.5	17.0	27.0	29.8
Secondary	Male	6.6	12.7	0.0	1.3	8.3	11.7	17.7	28.1
	Female	9.0	13.6	0.0	2.0	3.1	12.0	32.8	31.0
Higher Secondary	Male	2.9	12.0	0.0	1.5	0.0	8.9	17.4	33.1
	Female	3.7	13.9	0.0	2.2	8.2	12.6	11.0	41.7
Diploma not equal to degree	Male	0.0	7.6	0.0	1.5	0.0	7.2	0.0	26.2
	Female	3.2	12.2	4.3	2.7	0.0	11.2	4.0	34.2
Graduate & above	Male	6.4	11.1	5.7	1.2	0.0	10.6	13.5	35.4
	Female	5.5	8.8	1.6	1.5	0.0	8.7	40.9	32.4

Section III

Table 1 GER in Post Higher Secondary Education by Rural & Urban Areas, 2007-08, (NSSO 64th Round)

States & Uts	All pop				Rural				Urban			
	Diploma		Graduate+		Diploma		Graduate+		Diploma		Graduate+	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	3.9	2.4	20.5	12.6	2.8	1.3	14.6	6.9	6.3	4.5	32.7	24.6
Arunachal Pradesh	3.2	0.9	6.8	5.7	2.5	0.6	3.6	2.5	5.9	1.8	18.7	15.8
Assam	1.9	0.5	11.3	8.0	1.9	0.5	9.0	6.5	1.8	0.4	26.8	25.2
Bihar	2.4	0.8	9.6	3.6	2.0	0.5	6.5	1.6	4.9	2.9	31.2	20.2
Chhattishgarh	1.7	2.4	7.8	3.0	1.1	1.1	4.4	0.8	4.4	7.4	23.3	11.8
Goa	2.7	10.7	21.8	12.8	7.6	12.4	2.2	2.4	0.0	9.8	32.4	18.5
Gujarat	3.8	1.4	11.1	9.2	3.4	0.8	6.9	4.5	4.3	2.6	16.7	17.0
Haryana	4.9	0.7	14.3	14.9	4.7	0.5	12.6	8.9	5.5	1.1	19.1	27.9
Himachal Pradesh	7.3	4.2	13.3	10.7	6.6	3.9	11.2	8.1	12.2	6.9	27.8	35.4
Jammu Kashmir	5.8	4.0	17.0	20.0	5.3	4.0	13.5	15.2	8.2	3.9	33.3	37.6
Jharkhand	2.5	1.1	13.9	9.4	0.5	0.4	9.7	3.8	9.5	4.1	28.6	31.2
Karnataka	4.5	2.7	17.7	9.9	4.1	2.1	19.4	5.5	5.1	3.6	14.9	17.0
Kerala	13.8	10.3	20.0	25.4	15.2	11.9	20.0	22.0	9.4	6.0	20.0	35.2
Madhya Pradesh	1.5	0.9	14.8	9.9	0.8	0.0	7.9	2.0	3.1	3.4	31.2	31.3
Maharashtra	5.6	4.3	18.7	15.7	5.2	2.5	12.9	6.8	6.1	6.7	25.8	27.8
Manipur	3.3	2.9	7.6	6.8	4.1	1.4	5.5	5.6	0.9	7.9	13.6	11.0
Meghalaya	0.7	1.1	13.6	8.5	0.5	0.8	3.5	2.3	1.3	2.6	55.0	41.5
Mizoram	1.9	3.4	14.9	10.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	4.0	6.5	30.6	18.9
Nagaland	3.1	2.8	9.2	9.7	1.3	2.4	9.3	8.4	11.0	4.5	8.7	14.9
Orissa	6.3	1.0	11.0	6.2	3.5	0.6	7.5	3.5	19.4	3.2	27.5	21.3
Punjab	5.5	3.5	10.6	12.7	5.7	2.5	8.9	10.0	5.1	5.5	13.0	17.8
Rajasthan	4.3	0.7	15.3	7.7	4.2	0.2	10.8	3.9	4.8	2.0	28.4	20.1
Sikkim	3.0	1.2	9.3	7.3	2.7	1.3	7.2	5.8	4.6	0.0	23.1	19.4
Tamilnadu	6.8	3.3	18.1	15.3	6.8	3.7	15.2	6.3	6.8	2.9	21.7	27.9
Tripura	2.0	2.8	6.2	5.7	1.1	1.2	4.2	3.1	7.6	10.3	18.4	17.7
Uttar Pradesh	2.8	1.1	17.1	16.3	1.7	0.8	14.3	11.8	5.6	2.0	24.0	30.6
Uttaranchal	3.6	6.3	12.7	10.6	3.7	5.2	11.9	7.6	3.5	10.3	14.3	21.0
West Bengal	2.3	0.6	14.4	8.0	1.1	0.0	9.9	4.4	5.6	2.7	26.8	21.0
Andaman Nicobar	1.1	3.7	8.0	10.5	0.0	0.0	7.4	10.5	4.3	9.6	9.8	10.4
Chandigarh	8.7	8.0	43.7	46.9	2.4	0.0	1.3	7.1	9.5	8.7	49.0	50.7
Dadra Nagar Haveli	0.0	0.8	6.9	9.8	0.0	0.0	6.3	10.6	0.0	5.2	11.5	5.0
Daman Diu	1.5	0.0	13.6	10.1	0.0	0.0	10.0	7.5	10.3	0.0	34.4	14.8
Delhi	1.5	2.7	16.3	18.4	0.0	3.0	19.5	3.9	1.6	2.6	16.0	20.8
Lakshadweep	0.0	3.0	4.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.4	8.0	0.0
Pondichery	12.7	6.3	26.0	24.7	5.4	11.4	18.7	4.2	20.0	2.3	33.1	40.9
India	4.1	2.2	15.6	12.0	3.4	1.5	11.7	6.8	5.6	3.8	23.7	25.0

Table 2 GER* % in Higher Education, 1999-00** (NSSO 60 th round)						
STATES	Total Graduates			Total Higher Education***		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Andhra Pradesh	9.03	5.57	7.25	12.16	7.29	9.66
Arunachal Pradesh	3.98	0.41	2.22	4.29	0.51	2.42
Assam	9.37	7.11	8.28	10.81	7.88	9.40
Bihar	6.92	2.84	4.91	8.79	3.47	6.16
Goa	7.55	11.57	9.71	18.69	16.55	17.54
Gujarat	8.78	7.43	8.11	11.22	8.80	10.01
Haryana	8.55	6.81	7.73	11.14	8.69	9.99
Himachal Pradesh	11.78	11.41	11.58	16.85	13.84	15.22
Jammu & Kashmir	9.44	6.83	8.17	11.19	8.30	9.78
Karnataka	6.68	3.94	5.31	10.06	5.86	7.96
Kerala	12.46	15.54	14.05	15.56	20.43	18.08
Madhya Pradesh	9.28	8.94	9.12	11.00	9.91	10.48
Maharashtra	11.13	8.08	9.70	16.81	11.10	14.14
Manipur	11.00	9.06	10.05	14.59	12.53	13.58
Meghalaya	6.62	5.40	5.99	7.22	7.05	7.13
Mizoram	8.39	2.98	5.61	10.23	5.63	7.87
Nagaland	13.28	13.44	13.35	13.93	14.15	14.04
Orissa	9.20	4.29	6.71	11.55	4.94	8.21
Punjab	8.01	7.25	7.65	10.14	11.64	10.86
Rajasthan	8.93	5.62	7.36	10.99	6.48	8.85
Sikkim	4.98	1.31	3.25	7.39	2.36	5.01
Tamil Nadu	11.83	7.30	9.45	15.23	9.19	12.05
Tripura	7.16	3.08	5.24	7.85	3.84	5.97
Uttar Pradesh	9.83	5.10	7.58	12.60	6.29	9.59
West Bengal	6.45	2.97	4.68	8.69	3.98	6.30
A&N Island	4.28	10.43	7.56	4.33	11.04	7.91
Chandigarh	17.96	23.90	20.18	23.26	31.23	26.24
D&N Haveli	4.49	0	2.08	4.82	0	2.23
Daman & Diu	0	0	0	0	0	0
Delhi	13.74	20.27	16.38	19.73	23.26	21.16
Lakshadweep	0.00	0.57	0.34	0.00	0.57	0.34
Pondicherry	15.67	7.90	11.81	18.81	11.90	15.37
India	9.22	6.30	7.79	12.13	7.94	10.08

Source: Sachidanand.Sinha & Ravi S, Srivastava, "Inclusiveness and Access of Social Groups in Higher Education", in *Higher Education in India: Issues related to expansion, inclusiveness, quality and finance*, UGC: New Delhi, 2008, pp, 111-138.

Note: *GER= Total grads and diploma enrolled / population in 18-23 age group

**These include only those enrolled who have attained higher secondary and above education.

*** Degree +Diploma

Table 3 GER in Post Higher Secondary Education by Social Groups, 2007-08 (NSSO 64th round)

States/UTs	General (non-SC/ST & OBC)				OBC				SC			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Diploma	Graduate +	Diploma	Graduate +	Diploma	Graduate +	Diploma	Graduate +	Diploma	Graduate +	Diploma	Graduate +
Andhra Pradesh	5.7	27.4	3.2	20.1	4.5	18.4	1.5	11.0	0.9	18.5	3.4	9.4
Arunachal Pradesh	0.3	10.6	1.7	2.1	0.0	59.7	0.0	22.6	0.0	43.8	0.0	42.3
Assam	0.7	17.4	0.0	8.8	1.0	8.7	0.0	7.9	9.6	2.3	2.2	7.4
Bihar	5.8	17.6	2.2	9.3	1.8	7.8	0.5	2.8	1.0	7.2	0.5	1.5
Chhattishgarh	0.8	29.8	22.2	26.6	1.7	5.9	0.0	2.2	3.7	8.3	2.9	3.8
Goa	1.9	32.9	10.7	15.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	0.0	42.5	0.0
Gujarat	5.1	21.7	3.6	17.5	1.1	4.7	0.3	4.7	5.6	8.1	1.2	10.6
Haryana	6.3	17.7	1.4	22.1	4.5	14.9	0.0	13.2	2.8	7.5	0.3	3.9
Himachal Pradesh	10.6	16.7	6.2	15.9	1.2	12.3	5.3	1.7	5.0	9.6	1.1	7.1
Jammu Kashmir	7.1	20.5	4.7	22.8	0.0	1.0	0.0	7.0	3.0	8.5	1.9	11.5
Jharkhand	7.9	28.9	3.1	36.3	0.7	15.2	1.4	5.2	4.7	7.4	0.0	0.0
Karnataka	4.8	16.3	4.2	17.6	4.3	25.0	2.6	8.0	5.2	7.6	0.5	3.5
Kerala	22.9	30.7	8.1	48.3	11.7	16.7	10.1	18.5	11.3	20.6	15.6	24.0
Madhya Pradesh	4.0	28.3	1.0	26.7	0.9	12.7	1.0	7.5	1.3	11.4	1.7	6.6
Maharashtra	6.2	21.9	5.3	21.7	6.0	15.2	3.7	11.2	4.1	21.0	5.0	14.9
Manipur	5.9	1.4	4.0	9.9	2.6	9.6	4.8	6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.5
Meghalaya	0.0	21.7	0.0	7.0	0.0	44.5	0.0	60.9	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Mizoram	0.0	0.0	0.0	111.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nagaland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.4	0.0	4.6	0.0	42.5	0.0	0.0
Orissa	12.6	24.3	2.9	16.1	4.9	10.4	0.5	5.5	6.0	4.9	1.0	2.0
Punjab	7.5	17.3	4.0	20.9	5.3	4.3	5.7	7.1	2.8	3.5	1.9	3.6
Rajasthan	4.9	29.5	1.1	22.4	3.9	11.5	0.7	4.0	7.2	11.8	0.3	2.1
Sikkim	17.2	3.9	0.0	22.0	0.0	12.2	2.5	10.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Tamilnadu	2.8	25.1	2.5	33.4	7.8	19.7	3.8	16.8	4.7	12.5	2.3	8.5
Tripura	3.5	7.7	4.2	5.6	1.9	13.8	1.8	5.4	1.4	1.5	0.5	10.5
Uttar Pradesh	6.2	27.0	2.2	28.7	1.9	14.1	0.8	12.8	1.3	14.2	0.5	10.3
Uttaranchal	5.1	18.2	8.8	12.8	0.1	7.6	4.3	10.7	5.5	3.4	1.9	3.8
West Bengal	3.3	17.1	1.0	9.9	3.3	18.2	0.0	9.3	0.5	9.0	0.0	4.9
Andaman Nicobar	1.5	7.5	4.7	9.4	0.0	12.7	0.0	14.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Chandigarh	11.5	45.4	5.3	73.5	8.2	38.5	13.8	12.1	0.0	40.4	9.4	11.2
Dadra Nagar Haveli	0.0	1.0	0.0	5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Daman Diu	2.9	3.9	0.0	25.6	0.0	10.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.1	0.0	0.0
Delhi	2.7	22.0	2.5	27.3	0.0	6.4	4.6	5.7	0.0	11.3	1.8	7.2
Lakshadweep	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pondichery	4.7	68.1	0.0	24.2	17.6	24.6	10.7	32.3	3.5	23.4	0.0	11.1
India	5.7	22.0	3.1	20.1	3.8	14.2	2.0	9.9	3.0	11.6	1.8	7.3

Table 4 a & b GER in Post Higher Secondary education by social groups in Rural & Urban areas, NSSO 64th round									
Stage of Education	Sex	All Rural		General		OBC		SC	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
(a)Rural									
Diploma	Male	5.7	3.4	8.0	4.9	3.8	3.1	3.9	2.9
	Female	2.5	1.5	3.7	2.2	4.9	1.6	0.0	1.2
Graduation & above	Male	8.9	11.7	15.2	16.6	2.4	11.7	4.3	9.1
	Female	10.0	6.8	16.0	11.1	6.9	6.4	3.8	4.7
(b)Urban									
Diploma	Male	5.1	5.6	6.9	6.7	7.7	5.3	0.4	3.3
	Female	5.5	3.8	4.4	4.3	7.0	3.1	6.6	3.9
Graduation & above	Male	13.0	23.7	19.6	28.2	7.2	20.4	1.6	18.6
	Female	17.8	25.0	29.4	32.7	7.3	20.2	3.3	16.0

Table 5: GER for Higher Secondary and Post Higher Secondary Education by MPCE quintiles for all areas, NSSO 64 th round											
Stage of Education	Sex	Bottom 20%		20-40%		40-60%		60-80%		Top 20 %	
		Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Higher Secondary	Male	0.0	11.7	5.2	19.6	17.2	22.4	9.6	24.9	23.7	18.0
	Female	0.0	8.6	6.8	10.4	8.1	14.5	22.2	18.4	26.7	16.1
Diploma	Male	0.0	1.0	3.2	0.9	0.7	2.0	3.5	2.9	4.0	3.0
	Female	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.6	1.5	1.5	0.5
Graduation & above	Male	0.0	4.3	2.3	5.6	0.0	6.5	3.3	9.3	8.0	10.2
	Female	0.0	2.1	0.0	2.4	0.0	4.0	6.5	5.9	9.4	7.5

Table 6 Number of recognised colleges/institutions in Punjab by types and location						
Type of College	1981		1991		2006-07	
	Total	Rural	Total	Rural	Total	Rural
Arts, Science, Commerce & Home Science	162 (86.17)	58 [35.20]	171 (84.65)	63 [36.42]	232 (44.28)	71 [30.60]
Teachers' Training (B. Ed./ M.Ed.)	18 (9.57)	3 [16.67]	18 (8.91)	3 [16.67]	124 (23.66)	68 [54.84]
Engineering, Architecture & Pharmacy	3 (1.60)	1 [33.33]	4 (1.98)	1 [25.00]	66 (12.60)	28 [42.42]
Medical, Dental, Ayurvedic, Homeopathy, Nursing, etc.	5* (2.66)	-	9 (4.46)	-	55 (10.50)	17 [30.91]
Management/Computer Science/ Law	-	-	-	-	47 (8.97)	20 [42.55]
Total	188 (100)	62 [32.46]	202 (100)	67 [32.68]	524 (100)	204 [38.93]

Note: * Allopathic medical colleges only. Figures in parentheses (...) are percentages and in index brackets [...] are rural proportions

Sources: 1. **Statistical Abstract of Punjab**, Economic and Statistical Organization, Chandigarh, various issues.

2. **Economic Survey**, Punjab, Economic and Statistical Organization, Chandigarh, various issues.

3. **Social and Educational Statistics of Punjab**, Economic and Statistical Organization, Chandigarh, various issues.

Table 7a Punjab- Distribution of Colleges by Faculty & Type of Management, 2004								
Specialization areas of the Institutions (Faculty)	Name of the University	Type of Management						
		State	University	Local Bodies	Govt. Aided	Unaided	Information not available	Total
Colleges of General Education (Undergraduate, post-graduate, research degrees in social sciences, humanities, science, & commerce)	Punjab University	12	1	0	55	0	6	74
	GNDU	13	2	0	54	4	1	74
	Punjabi Univ.	16	0	8	15	10	4	53
	PAU	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
All colleges of gen. ed.		41	4	8	124	14	11	202
Colleges of Professional Ed. (BBA,MBA,Law, Edu.)	Punjab University	0	0	0	10	0	2	12
	GNDU	2	0	0	6	0	1	9
	Punjabi Univ.	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
	PTU	0	0	11	0	0	0	11
All professional colleges		2	0	14	16	0	3	35
Colleges of technical Education (BE, BTech, Agri. Technology, Computer courses etc)	Punjab University	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Punjabi Univ.	0	0	6	0	4	0	10
	PAU	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	PTU	0	0	0	0	20	0	20
All colleges of technology		0	1	6	0	24	1	32
Colleges of Medical ed. & allied areas (Medical, dental, nursing, physiotherapy, ayurveda, homeopathy)	Baba Farid University of Health Sciences	3	4	0	0	6	23	36
All colleges of health sciences		3	4	0	0	6	23	36
Others		0	4	0	3	0	0	7
Total	All Univ.	46	9	28	140	44	38	305
	% colleges	15.1	3.0	9.2	45.9	14.4	12.5	100

Table 7b Distribution of Colleges by type and management, 2006-7				
Type of College	Type of Management			
	Governm ent	Private		Total
		Aided	Non-Aided	
Arts, Science, Commerce & Home Science	52 (22.41)	125 (53.88)	55 (23.71)	232 (100)
Teachers' Training (B. Ed./M . Ed.)	4 (3.23)	15 (12.10)	105 (84.67)	124 (100)
Engineering, Architecture & Pharmacy	6 (9.09)	2 (3.03)	58 (87.88)	66 (100)
Medical, Dental, Ayurvedic, Homeopathy, Nursing, etc.	10 (18.18)	-	45 (81.82)	55 (100)
Management/Computer Science/ Law	6 (12.76)	1 (2.13)	40 (85.11)	46 (100)
Total	78 (14.89)	143 (27.29)	303 (57.82)	524 (100)

Source: 1. Office of Director Public Instructions (Colleges), Punjab, Chandigarh.
2. Prospectus-com-Counselling Brochure; State Level Entrance Tests conducted by different Universities of Punjab, 2007

Punjab-District wise Distribution of Colleges by Major Specialisation Streams, 2004

District Name	GENERAL DEGREE COLLEGE	AGRI & ALLIED	PROFESSIONAL	TECHNICAL	MEDICAL	OTHERS	TOTAL COLLEGES
GURUDASPUR	16	1	1	1	0	0	19
AMRITSAR	18	0	2	0	5	0	25
KAPURTHALA	14	0	2	0	0	0	16
JALANDHAR	24	0	5	1	2	0	32
HOSHIARPUR	20	0	1	0	0	0	21
NAWANSHAHAR	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
RUPNAGAR	8	0	3	0	1	0	12
FATEHGARH SB.	2	0	2	2	2	0	8
LUDHIANA	32	2	7	7	7	1	56
MOGA	5	0	3	1	2	0	11
FEROZEPUR	11	0	2	1	1	0	15
MUKTSAR	7	0	4	1	5	0	17
FARIDKOT	3	0	1	1	2	0	7
BATHINDA	14	0	2	1	0	0	17
MANSA	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
SANGRUR	14	0	3	1	1	0	19
PATIALA	14	0	11	1	4	3	33
No information	1	0	2	2	0	0	5
TOTAL	203	3	51	21	35	4	317

Compiled from UGC Directory of Colleges, 2004

Table 9 Some aspects of availability of facilities and quality in select institutions of Higher Education , 2002-2004

Indicators	NAAC Grades					
	A & Above	B++ & B+	B only	C++,C+ & C	Non-Accredited	Total
No. of Sample Colleges	110	547	298	233	285	1473
STR (Student Teacher ratio)	20.4	31.8	28.6	28.5	25.2	25.0
STR by Permanent teachers	29.8	31.8	38.1	35.8	35.6	33.5
No of Books per student	9.5	10.7	6.4	7.4	7.0	8.8
No of Books per college	15215	13921	7019	6504	6748	9882
No. of Journals per college	22.2	13.0	6.1	4.4	4.0	10.0
Students per Computer	145.2	143.8	251.3	546.7	202.7	258.0
Average number of Enrolled Students per college	1603	1301	954	885	960	1140
Organised Workshops/Seminars	54.5	27.2	17.4	17.4	20.0	24.3
Facilities available (Percent colleges having)						
Library	94.5	91.6	90.9	82.4	90.2	90.0
Computer Centre	86.4	83.7	76.8	64.0	74.7	77.7
Health Centre	74.5	53.7	48.7	36.4	48.1	50.4
Sports facilities	92.7	88.8	91.6	84.9	88.1	88.9
Hostels	72.7	55.9	39.6	41.9	40.4	48.7
Guest House	44.5	30.9	23.5	21.7	22.8	27.4
Teachers' Housing	47.3	36.9	19.8	18.4	20.7	28.2
Canteen	80.0	77.1	74.8	49.3	64.6	70.1
Common Room (Day Scholars)	30.9	23.8	19.1	9.7	16.1	19.7
Welfare Schemes	49.1	45.5	48.0	35.4	42.8	44.2
Gymnasium	8.2	7.1	3.0	3.6	4.2	5.3
Auditorium/Seminar Rooms	20.9	11.7	7.7	7.1	9.1	10.4

Source: Based on information extracted from Self Assessment Reports submitted with NAAC and NAAC Grades. (S.Sinha, op.cit)

Table 10 Punjab- Quality measures as per NAAC grading of colleges (N=64)					
Indicators	A & above	B+	B	C+	Non-accredited
No of Sample Colleges	19	32	7	2	4
% Permanent Teachers	66.1	64.7	61.1	70.2	56.5
% Part time teachers	6.2	10.7	6.5	23.4	0.6
% teachers holding research degrees	41.6	44.8	40.7	51.1	40.9
% teachers holding PhD degree	18.5	15.7	13.9	10.6	18.8
Enrolment size per college	2106	929	742	742	930
Teachers/college	85	48	31	24	39
Students/teacher	25	19	24	32	24
Books/student	3	4	3	0	1
Colleges having lib. (%)	94.7	87.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Computer centre (%)	94.7	84.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Health Centre	84.2	65.6	71.4	100.0	100.0
Sports Facility	94.7	87.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Hostels	78.9	59.4	28.6	0.0	50.0
Welfare Schemes	52.6	50.0	57.1	50.0	25.0
Auditorium	10.5	12.5	14.3	0.0	0.0

Source: Based on information extracted from Self Assessment Reports submitted with NAAC and NAAC Grades.

Table 11 Number of Teaching Faculty in Guru Nanak Dev University and Punjabi University: 2004-05 to 2008-09								
Year	Guru Nanak Dev University				Punjabi University			
	Number		Vacant Positions		Number		Vacant Positions	
	Sanctioned	Filled	Number	%	Sanctioned	Filled	Number	%
2004-05	534	376	158	29.59	716	456	260	36.31
2005-06	534	378	156	29.21	853	578	275	32.24
2006-07	539	422	117	21.71	914	512	402	43.98
2007-08	539	396	143	26.53	929	509	420	45.21
2008-09	539	400	139	25.79	980	561	419	42.76

Source: 1. For Guru Nanak Dev University, information was supplied to the Punjab Governance Reforms Commission (PGRC) by Deputy Registrar Establishment vide letter no. 8593/Estt. dated 04.05.2010. The said information was supplied to the author by Research Officer, PGRC vide his letter no. PGRC/2010/169 dated 05.05.2010.

2. The information about Punjabi University was supplied to the PGRC by the Director Planning & Monitoring vide his letter no. 730/A-2/PMU, dated 03.03.2010. The same has been supplied to the author by the Director PGRC, vide his letter no. PGRC/2010/168, dated 23.04.2010.

Table 12 Number of Teaching Faculty in Punjab Agricultural University (PAU) and Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University (GADVASU), Ludhiana University: 2004-05 to 2008-09.								
Year	Punjab Agricultural University				Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Science University			
	Number		Vacant Positions		Number		Vacant Positions	
	Sanctioned	Filled	Number	%	Sanctioned	Filled	Number	%
2004-05	1645	1161	484	29.42	136	110	26	19.12
2005-06	1698	1109	589	34.69	132	105	27	20.45
2006-07	1456	895	561	38.53	227	151	76	33.48
2007-08	1382	851	531	38.42	260	175	85	32.69
2008-09	1344	833	511	38.02	267	176	91	34.08

Source: The information about PAU was supplied to the PGRC by the Registrar vide his Memo No. Admn. 1. Au. 2010/3951 and the information about the GAD VASU was supplied to the PGRC by the Registrar vide his Memo, No. GADVASU/2010/E-1/4559, dated 31.03.2010. The said information has been supplied to the author by the Director PGRC vide his letter no. PGRC/2010/168, dated 23.04.2010.

Table 13 Composition Expenditure in the Punjab Government Budget for selected years: 1970-2008 (on Revenue Account, at current prices, %age share)								
Heads of Expenditure	1970-71	1980-81	1991-92	2000-01	2003-04	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08
General Services	34.74 (3.18)	39.53 (3.42)	23.40 (4.84)	55.76 (11.10)	59.55 (12.94)	57.76 (10.80)	55.75	51.33
Social Services	31.35 (3.09)	30.66 (5.11)	22.77 (4.72)	25.55 (5.09)	21.45 (4.66)	19.79 (3.70)	22.13	20.18
Education,	22.17	17.12	13.55	15.87	13.25	12.57	12.50	12.33

Sports and Culture	(2.18)	(3.08)	(2.80)	(3.16)	(3.93)	(2.35)		
Health and Family Welfare	7.24 (0.71)	5.49 (1.09)	4.32 (0.89)	5.44 (1.08)	3.88 (0.84)	3.82 (0.71)	3.72	3.33
Economic Services	33.91 (2.89)	29.81 (3.72)	53.08 (10.98)	17.93 (3.57)	18.72 (4.07)	20.40 (3.81)	20.35	25.44
Development Expenditure (B+C)	65.26 (5.98)	60.47 (8.83)	75.85 (15.70)	43.18 (8.66)	40.17 (8.73)	40.19 (7.51)	42.48	45.62

Source: Govt. of Punjab, *Statistical Abstract of Punjab* (various years). Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate share in NSDP.

Table 14 Public expenditure on university and higher education in Punjab during selected years (on revenue account, both plan and non-plan, at current price) (Rs. million)			
Year	Education (Total)	University and higher education	
		Total	Share (%)
2000-01 (actual)	20561	2119	10.31
2005-06 (actual)	22341	2255	10.09
2006-07 (R.E)	24812	1821	7.34
2007-08 (Budgeted)	27521	2485	9.03

Source: Govt. of India, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Budget Expenditure on Education (various annual budgets), New Delhi.

Chapter II- Annexure

Table 1 Recommendations on Voluntary Disclosure of routine information

Provision for disclosure – Section 4	Suggested Information Protocols	Present status/ remarks
1	2	3
(i) the particulars of its organisation, functions and duties;	As at present.	Being done by the departments.
(ii) the powers and duties of its officers and employees;	As at present.	Being done by the departments.
(iii) the procedure followed in the decision making process, including channels of supervision and accountability;	As at present.	Being done by the departments.
(vi) a statement of the categories of documents that are held by it or under its control;	As at present.	As at present.
(viii) a statement of the boards, councils, committees and other bodies consisting of two or more persons constituted as its part or for the purpose of its advice, and as to whether meetings of those boards, councils, committees and other bodies are open to the public, or the minutes of such meetings are accessible for public;	Provide specific information.	Not being done.
(ix) a directory of its officers and employees;	As at present.	Being done.
(x) the monthly remuneration received by each of its officers and employees;	As at present.	Being done.
(xiv) details in respect of the information, available to or held by it, reduced in an electronic form;	-	-
(xv) the particulars of facilities available to citizens for obtaining information, including the working hours of a library or reading room, if maintained for public use;	As at present.	-

Table 2 Budget – disclosure under Section 4(1)(b)

1 Budget items/schemes	2 Estimates current year	3 Actual expenditure previous year
Total budget of the department/agency		
Total staff salaries and staff related expenditure		
Total non staff budget (Capital & Revenue) (Rs.)		
Details of non staff expenditure (all items more than Rs.10 lacs)		
(a) Capital		
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		
(b) Revenue		
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		

Table 3 Grants/payments under each scheme (e.g. Pensions, BPL Card) Sanctioned Cases

Name of beneficiary	Address (village, Tehsil, district)	Date and month of sanction	Remarks
Total number of beneficiaries			

Table 4 Grants/payments under each scheme (e.g. Pensions, BPL Card) Pending Cases

Name of beneficiary	Address (village, Tehsil, district)	Date of application	Why pending
Total pending applications			

Table 5 Format for display of information about contracts/purchases (limits to be specified)

Description of purchase/ contract	Estimated cost	Details of bidders and price quoted	Contract price and party selected	Date of final payment
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Note: (i) All information must be displayed on the website upto six months from the date of final payment.

(ii) Information must be displayed within one month of the award of the contract of purchase and updated monthly.

Table 6 Recommendations on standard modules for mandatory disclosure

1	2	3
Provisions for disclosure – Section 4	Suggested Information Protocols	Present status/remarks
(iv) the norms set by it for the discharge of its functions;	Citizen/client charters- check lists, service standards - for major services to be provided by the departments/PAs.	Service specific information not provided.
(v) the rules, regulations, instructions, manuals and records, held by it or under its control or used by its employees for discharging its functions;	These need to be updated at least annually and suitably classified to be user friendly.	Generally being done but not updated. These need to be properly classified by all departments. Now even employees don't have access to updated information/records and <i>display on website will help both the public and employees</i> and save expenses on printing and manual updating.
(vii) the particulars of any arrangement that exists for consultation with, or representation by, the members of the public in relation to the formulation of its policy or implementation thereof;	Specific information about any mechanism or institution for consultation and a copy of orders thereon.	Not being done at present.
(xi) the budget allocated to each of its agency, indicating the particulars of all plans, proposed expenditures and reports on disbursements made;	Information to : (a) be provided annually; (b) to indicate at least 2 years profile with actuals for at least one year; (c) budget figures for staff related expenditure and all other expenditures; (d) expenditure on major capital/non staff items exceeding a specified amount (say Rs.10 lacs)- (table 2).	The format of disclosure by most of the departments is inadequate for proper appreciation of income and expenditure/budget. <i>Most of the departments do not provide actual expenditure and items are not properly classified.</i>
(xii) the manner of execution of subsidy programmes, including the amounts allocated and the details of beneficiaries of such programmes;	All departments dealing with cash or kind disbursement to individual/organizations outside the government to provide information on: (a) actual/proposed annual expenditure, and physical numbers covered; (b) provide/indicate the website, on which details of each beneficiary are provided. (Tables 3 and 4)	Not provided at present.
(xiii) particulars of recipients of concessions, permits or authorisations granted by it;	All departments to provide information on: (a) annual expenditure, and physical numbers covered; (b) provide/ indicate the website on which details of each licensee etc. are provided; (c) work contracts/ purchase of goods and services above a specified amount- say Rs. 10 lac to be covered and information provided as per format at table 5.	No worthwhile information provided at present.
(xvi) the names, designations and other particulars of the Public Information Officers;	-	Suggestions regarding appointment of PIOs given separately-table 7
(xvii) such other information as may be prescribed;	-	This should be annually reviewed and instructions issued for additional information to be provided.

Table 7 Recommendations regarding appointment of RTI functionaries

PI	APIO	PIO	Appellate
PRI's Rural			
Gram Panchayat	Nil	Panchayat Secretary	Sarpanch
Block Samiti	Nil	BDPO	Chairperson
Zila Parishad	Nil	Secretary Zila Parishad	Chairperson
PRI's Urban			
A, B and C Class Committees	Nil	Executive Officer	President
Corporation	Executive Officer/ Senior Corporation Officer	Commissioner	Mayor
State Government Deptts. (Directorate)			
Option I	District/Sub Division Suvidha Kendras	District Head	Director/HOD
Option II	District/Sub Division Suvidha Centres	Senior Block/Tehsil level Officer	District Head
Secretariat	-	Senior most officer next to Secretary/ Secretary	Secretary
Boards and Councils	Nil	A senior officer of the Board/Council	Chief Executive Officer

Table 8 DISPOSED IF CASES FROM YEAR 2005 TO 2010 AT SIC LEVEL

Year	Percentage of cases disposed of	Balance cases
2005	-	-
2006	624 (56.57)	479 (43.43)
2007	2429 (71.89)	950 (28.11)
2008	3058 (63.65)	1746 (36.35)
2009	5543 (80.99)	1301 (19.1)
2010	5522 (86.25)	880 (13.75)

SOURCE: STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER , PUNJAB

Table9 DEPARTMENT WISE & YEAR WISE DETAILS OF COMPLAINTS & APPEALS

(It includes High Court & Subordinate Courts, Punjab Vidhan Sabha & SGPC Year)

Sr. No.	Name Of Department	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Grand Total
1.	School/Elementary Education	1	112	387	644	843	816	2803
2.	Local Govt.	6	210	373	658	601	508	2356
3.	Revenue	4	122	388	429	465	597	2005
4.	Home affairs & Justice	-	105	327	264	548	470	1714
5.	Rural Dev. & Panchayats	-	37	124	213	314	425	1113
6.	Health & F.W	-	50	130	180	242	337	939
7.	Power	1	37	159	165	252	265	879
8.	Transport	1	11	81	153	264	182	692
9.	Cooperation	2	47	71	91	198	171	580
10.	Food & Supplies	-	19	90	115	94	196	514
11.	Higher Education & Language	2	36	76	91	157	100	460
12.	Irrigation	-	67	89	121	77	87	441
13.	Indus. Training &Tech. Edu.	1	17	63	62	121	120	384
14.	Housing & Urban Development	-	30	55	79	79	81	324
15.	PWD (B&R)	-	20	44	64	98	92	318
16.	Social Security, Women & Child Dev.	-	13	26	52	76	144	311
17.	Defence Services	-	5	31	36	190	10	272
18.	Agriculture	-	20	53	53	53	74	253
19.	General Administration	-	17	40	23	64	83	227
20.	Forest & Wild Life	-	10	26	64	42	51	193
21.	Finance	1	11	50	15	65	36	178
22.	Excise &Taxation	-	16	27	40	63	23	169
23.	W/Sup. & Sanitation	-	3	13	26	53	67	162
24.	Personnel	-	10	35	27	31	32	135
25.	High Court & Subordinate courts	-	7	19	34	25	47	132
26.	Vigilance	-	19	39	33	16	24	131
27.	Labour	-	9	18	29	12	17	85
28.	Animal Husbandry	-	5	12	29	11	10	67
29.	Science & Technology	-	2	7	15	7	6	37
30.	Public Relations	-	5	11	8	4	4	32
31.	Information Technology & A.R	1	2	4	-	9	13	28
32.	Election	-	1	3	11	10	3	28
33.	Tourism	-	-	4	17	-	1	22
34.	Planning	-	-	19	-	-	-	19
35.	Youth Services	-	2	-	-	8	8	18
36.	Printing & Stationary	-	6	4	-	6	1	17
37.	Sports	-	-	-	5	-	-	5
38.	Vidhan Sabha	-	-	-	5	-	-	5
39.	SGPC	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
40.	Clubs	-	-	3	-	-	-	3
	Total	20	1083	2901	3854	5098	5101	18057

SOURCE : STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER , PUNJAB

TABLE 10 NUMBER OF APPLICANTS AS IDENTITY OF APPLICANT

Sr. No.	Identity of Applicant	No. of Applicants
1	Individual (Private)	185 (92.5%)
2	NGO & Others	15 (7.5%)
Total		200(100%)

SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 11 NUMBER OF APPLICANTS BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Sr. No.	Place of Residence	No. of Applicants
1.	Rural	50 (25%)
2.	Urban	150 (75%)
Total		200(100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 12 RANGE-WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER (PIO)

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Applicants
1	1-30	9 (4.5%)
2	31-45	21 (10.5%)
3	46-90	88 (44%)
4	91-135	41 (20.5%)
5	136 -180	18 (9%)
6	181 & above	23 (11.5%)
Total		200 (100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 13 RANGE-WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN (RANGE-WISE) DAYS BY APPELLATE AUTHORITY

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Applicant
1	1-30	2 (8.33%)
2	31-45	5 (20.83%)
3	46-90	13 (54.16%)
4	91-135	4 (16.66%)
5	136 -180	-
6	181 & above	-
Total		24

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 14 RANGE-WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Applicants
1	1-30	16 (8.0%)
2	31-45	43 (21.5%)
3	46-90	79 (39.5%)
4	91-135	28 (14%)
5	136 -180	13 (6.5%)
6	181 & above	21 (10.5%)
Total		200 (100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 15 RANGE-WISE NO. OF HEARINGS (RANGE WISE) DAYS AT STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL

Sr. No.	Range	No. of Applicants
1	upto 1	78 (39%)
2	upto 2	56 (28%)
3	upto 3	30 (15%)
4	upto 4	15 (7.5%)
5	5 & above	21 (10.5%)
Total		200 (100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 16 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER (PIO) PERTAINING TO RURAL AREA

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	1 (2%)
2	31-45	1 (2%)
3	46-90	23 (46%)
4	91-135	11 (22%)
5	136 -180	5 (10%)
6	181 & above	9 (18%)
Total		50 (100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 17 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL PERTAINING TO RURAL AREA

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	-
2	31-45	16 (32%)
3	46-90	21 (42%)
4	91-135	8 (16%)
5	136 -180	3 (6%)
6	181 & above	2 (4%)
Total		50 (100%)

SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 18 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER (PIO) PERTAINING TO URBAN AREA

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	8 (5.33%)
2	31-45	20 (13.33%)
3	46-90	65 (43.33%)
4	91-135	30 (20%)
5	136 -180	13 (8.66%)
6	181 & above	14 (9.33%)
Total		150

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 19 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL PERTAINING TO URBAN AREAS

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	16 (10.67%)
2	31-45	27 (18%)
3	46-90	59 (39.33%)
4	91-135	19 (12.66%)
5	136 -180	10 (6.66%)
6	181 & above	19 (12.67%)
Total		150

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 20 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER (PIO) PERTAINING TO PRIVATE / INDIVIDUAL

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	9 (4.86%)
2	31-45	19 (10.27%)
3	46-90	82 (44.32%)
4	91-135	38 (20.54%)
5	136 -180	17 (9.18%)
6	181 & above	20 (10.81%)
Total		185

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 21 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL PERTAINING TO PRIVATE / INDIVIDUAL

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	16 (8.65%)
2	31-45	42 (22.70%)
3	46-90	74 (40%)
4	91-135	24 (12.97%)
5	136 -180	12 (6.48%)
6	181 & above	17 (9.19%)
Total		185

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 22 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER (PIO) PERTAINING TO NGO & OTHERS

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	-
2	31-45	2 (13.33%)
3	46-90	6 (40%)
4	91-135	2 (13.33%)
5	136 -180	2 (13.33%)
6	181 & above	3 (16.22%)
Total		15

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

**TABLE 23 RANGE -WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY STATE INFORMATION COMMISSIONER'S (SIC) LEVEL
PERTAINING TO NGO & OTHERS**

Sr. No.	Range (days)	No. of Cases
1	1-30	-
2	31-45	1 (6.66%)s
3	46-90	6 (40%)
4	91-135	3 (20%)
5	136 -180	1 (6.66%)
6	181 & above	4 (26.66%)
Total		15

SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 23 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY DEPARTMENT

Sr. No	Name of Department	Range (days) at PIO Level						Total
		(1-30)	(31-45)	(46-90)	(91-135)	(136-180)	(181 & above)	
0	1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Rural Development & Panchayati Raj	1(2.56%)	1 (2.56)	18 (46.15)	8 (20.51)	3 (7.69)	8 (20.51)	39
2	Local Self Government	-	-	5 (62.5)	1 (12.5)	1(12.5)	1(12.5)	8
3	Home	1(14.28%)	-	4 (57.14)	1 (14.28)	-	1 (14.28)	7
4	Deputy Commissioner's Officer/ Revenue	4(16%)	4 (16%)	9 (36%)	3 (12%)	1(4%)	4 (16%)	25
5	Social Security /Pensioners	-	1 (20%)	3 (60%)		1(20%)		5
6	Education	-		2 (28.57%)	2 (28.57)		3 (42.86)	7
7	Health	1(6.66%)	2 (13.33)	6 (40%)	4 (26.66)	2(13.33)		15
8	Sanitation	-						
9	Finance , F.D	-		1 (100%)	-	-	-	1
10	Improvement Trusts /GUMADA	-	1 (11.11)	3 (33.33)	3 (33.33)	-	2 (22.22)	9
11	M.C	1(3.22%)	5 (16.12)	12 (38.71)	10 (32.25)	3(9.67)	-	31
12	Town & CP	-	-	2 (66.66)	1 (33.33)	2(66.66)	-	3
13	Co-operative	-	3 (20%)	5 (33.33)	3 (20%)	-	2 (13.33)	15
14	W/Sup. & Sanitation	1(25%)	-	2 (50%)	1(25%)	-	-	4
15	Industry	-	1 (100%)	-	-	-	-	1
16	Personnel	-	2 (50%)	1 (25%)	1 (25%)	-	-	4
17	Transport	-	1 (11.11)	4 (44.44)	1 (11.11)	1(11.11)	2 (22.22)	9
18	DWO Welfare Office	-	-	9 (81.81)	1 (9.09)	1(9.09)	-	11
19	Food Supply	-	-	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	-	-	2
20	Labour & Employment	-	-	-	-	1 (100%)	-	1
21	Forest	-	-	1 (33.33)	-	1 (33.33)	1 (33.33)	3
Total		9 (4.5%)	21 (10.5)	88 (44)	41 (20.5)	17 (8.5)	24 (12)	200

SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 24 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY DEPARTMENT

Sr. No	Name of Department	Range (days) at SIC Level						Total
		(1-30)	(31-45)	(46-90)	(91-135)	(136-180)	(181 & above)	
0	1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Rural Development & Panchayati Raj		8 (20.52)	18 (46.16)	6(15.38)	5 (12.82)	2 (5.13)	39
2	Local Self Government		1 (12.5%)	1 (12.5)	1(12.5)		5 (62.5)	8
3	Home	2 (28.57)		4 (57.14)	1(14.28)			7
4	Deputy Commissioner's Officer/ Revenue	4 (16%)	6 (24%)	12 (48)	1(4%)		2 (12.5)	25
5	Social Security /Pensioners	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)				5
6	Education	2 (28.57)		2 (28.57)	1 (14.28)	1 (14.28)	1 (14.29)	7
7	Health	2 (13.33)	4 (26.66)	8 (53.33)		1 (6.66)		15
8	Sanitation							
9	Finance , F.D			1 (100%)				1
10	Improvement Trusts /GUMADA			1 (11.11)	6 (66.66)		2 (22.22)	9
11	M.C		7 (22.58)	9 (29.03)	7 (22.58)	4 (12.90)	4 (12.90)	31
12	Town & CP		2 (66.66)	1 (33.33)				3
13	Co-operative	1 (6.66)	7 (46.66)	5 (33.33)	2 (13.33)			15
14	W/Sup. & Sanitation		2 (50%)		1 (25%)	1 (25%)		4
15	Industry					1 (100%)		1
16	Personnel	1 (25%)	1 (25%)	2 (50%)				4
17	Transport		1 (11.11)	2 (22.22)	1 (11.11)		5 (55.56)	9
18	DWO Welfare Office	1 (9.09)		10 (90.90)				11
19	Food Supply	1 (50%)		1 (50%)				2
20	Labour & Employment		1(100%)					1
21	Forest		2(66.66)	1 (33.33)				3
Total		16 (8%)	43 (21.5)	80 (40)	27 (13.5)	13 (6.5)	21 (10.5)	200

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 25 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY NATURE OF INFORMATION

Sr. No	Nature of Information	Range (days) at PIO Level						Total
		(1-30)	(31-45)	(46-90)	(91-135)	(136-180)	(181 & above)	
0	1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Personnel (Appointments, Promotion etc.)	2 (5.26)	6 (15.78)	16 (42.10)	7 (18.42)	3 (7.89)	4 (10.52)	38
2	Financial (Income, Expenditure, Budget)	1 (3.84)	1 (3.84)	12 (46.16)	7 (26.92)	3 (11.54)	2 (7.69)	26
3	Purchase of goods and services/ Contracts/Tenders etc)		1 (14.28)	4 (57.14)		2 (28.57)		7
4	Delivery of Services	2 (4.54)	3 (6.81)	24 (54.54)	6 (13.63)	6 (13.63)	3 (6.81)	44
5	Corruption/Inquiries	2 (5.88)	3 (8.82)	16 (47.06)	7 (20.58)	1 (2.94)	5 (14.70)	34
6	Land/Real Estate (IT,MC, Panchayat)	2 (3.92)	7 (13.72)	16 (31.37)	14 (27.46)	3 (5.88)	9 (17.64)	51
7	Any other (specify)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		9 (4.5)	21 (10.50)	88 (44%)	41 (20.5)	18 (9%)	23 (11.5)	200

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 26 RANGE- WISE (DAYS), TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY NATURE OF INFORMATION

Sr. No	Nature of Information	Range (days) at SIC Level						Total
		(1-30)	(31-45)	(46-90)	(91-135)	(136-180)	(181 & above)	
0	1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Personnel (Appointments, Promotion etc.)	7 (18.42)	7 (18.42)	13 (34.21)	6 (15.78)	1 (2.63)	4 (10.52)	38
2	Financial (Income, Expenditure, Budget)	-	8 (30.76)	8 (30.76)	3 (11.53)	4 (15.38)	3 (11.53)	26
3	Purchase of goods and services/ Contracts/Tenders etc)	1 (14.28)	1 (14.28)	1 (14.28)	2 (28.57)		2 (28.57)	7
4	Delivery of Services	2 (4.54)	6 (13.63)	26 (59.09)	4 (9.09)	1 (2.27)	5 (11.36)	44
5	Corruption/Inquiries	3 (8.82)	8 (23.52)	14 (41.17)	4 (11.76)	2 (5.88)	3 (8.82)	34
6	Land/Real Estate (IT,MC, Panchayat)	3 (5.88)	14 (27.46)	16 (31.37)	9 (17.69)	5 (9.80)	4 (7.84)	51
7	Any other (specify)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		16 (8%)	44 (22%)	78 (39%)	28 (14%)	13 (6.5)	21 (10.5)	200

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 27 DEPARTMENT-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF APPLICANTS

Sr. No.	Department	No. of Applicant
1	Rural Development & Panchayati Raj	39 (19.5%)
2	Local Self Government	8 (4%)
3	Home	7 (3.5%)
4	Deputy Commissioner's Officer/ Revenue	25 (12.5%)
5	Social Security /Pensioners	5 (2.5%)
6	Education	7 (3.5%)
7	Health	15 (7.5%)
8	Sanitation	
9	Finance , F.D	1 (0.5%)
10	Improvement Trusts /GUMADA	9 (4.5%)
11	M.C	31 (15.5%)
12	Town & CP	3 (1.5%)
13	Co-operative	15 (7.5%)
14	W/Sup. & Sanitation	4 (2%)
15	Industry	1 (0.5%)
16	Personnel	4 (2%)
17	Transport	9 (4.5%)
18	DWO Welfare Office	11 (5.5%)
19	Food Supply	2 (1%)
20	Labour & Employment	1 (0.5%)
21	Forest	3 (1.5%)
Total		200(100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 28 CLASSIFICATION OF APPLICANTS NATURE OF INFORMATION

Sr. No.	Nature of Information	No. of Applicants
1	Personnel (Appointments, Promotion etc.)	38 (19%)
2	Financial (Income, Expenditure, Budget)	26 (13%)
3	Purchase of goods and services/ Contracts/Tenders etc)	7 (3.5%)
4	Delivery of Services	44 (22%)
5	Corruption/Inquiries	34 (17%)
6	Land/Real Estate (IT,MC, Panchayat)	51 (25.5%)
7	Any other (specify)	
Total		200(100%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 29 RESPONSES OF THE PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICER

Sr. No.	Total Applicants	No. of Responses	
		Complete Reporting (CR) / Partial Reporting (PR)	No. Reporting (NR)
0	1	2	3
	200 (100%)	23 (11.50%)	177 (88.50%)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 30 TIME TAKEN BY THE PIO/SIC OFFICE

Sr. No.	Total Applicants	At PIO Level	At SIC Level
		No. days taken	No. of days taken
0	1	2	3
	200	19767 (99)	17655 (88)

Note: Figures in bracket shows no. of days taken per applicant SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 31 CLASSIFICATION OF COST TO APPLICANTS (50) AT PIO & SIC

Sr. No.	Total No. of Applicant	Total Fees Paid (Rs.)	Expenditure on Drafting typing etc	Expenditure on Travel etc.	Total (1+2+3+4)
0	1	2	3	4	5
	50 Total	600 (12)	6206 (124.12)	69069 (1381.38)	75875 (1517.50)

Note:- Figures in brackets show per hand cost SOURCE : PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 32 DEPARTMENT-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF NATURE OF INFORMATION OF 200 APPLICANTS

Sr. No.	DEPARTMENT	NATURE OF INFORMATION							Total (1+7)
		Personnel (Appointments, Promotion etc.)	Financial (Income, Expenditure, Budget)	Purchase of goods and services	Delivery of Services	Corruption/Inquiries	Land/Real Estate (IT,MC, Panchayat)	Any others	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	Rural Development & Panchayati Raj	5	12		3	7	10	3	40(20%)
2	Local Self Government	3	1		1	1		2	8(4%)
3	Home					3		4	7(3.5%)
4	Deputy Commissioner's Officer/ Revenue	1	2		2	6	6	7	24(12%)
5	Social Security /Pensioners	2			2			1	5(2.5%)
6	Education	5				1	1		7(3.5%)
7	Health	7		1	2	5			15(7.5%)
8	Power								
9	Finance , F.D	1							1(0.5%)
10	Improvement Trusts /GUMADA	1	1	2	2		3		9(4.5%)
11	M.C	3	4		2	3	20		32(16%)
12	Town & CP					1	2		3(1.5%)
13	Co-operative	1	2			8		4	15(7.5%)
14	W/Sup. & Sanitation	2	1	1					4(2%)
15	Industry							1	1(0.5%)
16	Personnel	3							3(1.5%)
17	Transport			1	1			7	9(4.5%)
18	District Welfare Office	1			9			1	11(5.5%)
19	Food Supply	1			1				2(1%)
20	Labour & Employment				1				1(0.5%)
21	Forest		1				2		3(1.5%)
Total		36 (18%)	24 (12%)	5 (2.5)	26 (13%)	35 (17.5%)	44 (22%)	30 (15%)	200

TABLE 33 NUMBER OF APPLICANTS AS IDENTITY OF APPLICANT

Sr. No.	Identity of Applicant	No. of Applicants
1.	Individual (Private)	45 (90%)
2.	NGO & Others	5 (10%)
	Total	50 (100%)

TABLE 34 NUMBER OF APPLICANTS BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Sr. No.	Place of Residence	No. of Applicants
1.	Rural	15 (30%)
2.	Urban	35 (70%)
	Total	50 (100%)

TABLE 35 RANGE-WISE AGE CLASSIFICATION OF 50 APPLICANTS (NUMBER)

Total No.	Age Group		
	20-40	41-60	60 & above
0	1	2	3
50	7 (14%)	27 (54%)	16 (32%)

TABLE 36 RANGE – WISE TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY PIO (DAYS) OF 50 APPLICANTS

Total No.	Range (days) at PIO Level					
	1-30	31-45	46-90	91-135	136-180	181 & above
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	2 (4%)	13 (26%)	20 (40%)	6 (12%)	3 (6%)	6 (12%)

TABLE 37 RANGE-WISE TIME TAKEN /DECISION TAKEN BY SIC (DAYS) OF 50 APPLICANTS

Total No.	Range (days) at SIC Level					
	1-30	31-45	46-90	91-135	136-180	181 & above
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	3 (6%)	7 (14%)	23 (46%)	8 (16%)	2 (4%)	7 (14%)

TABLE 38 RANGE-WISE NUMBER OF PERSONAL VISITS OF 50 APPLICANTS (NUMBER) AT PIO

Total No.	Range (days) at PIO Level			
	1-2	3-4	5 & above	No Visit (NV)
0	1	2	3	4
50	11 (22%)	15 (30%)	16 (32%)	8 (16%)

TABLE 39 RANGE-WISE NUMBER OF PERSONAL VISITS OF 50 APPLICANTS (NUMBER) AT SIC

Total No.	Range (days) at SIC Level			
	1-2	3-4	5 & above	No Visit (NV)
0	1	2	3	4
50	36 (72%)	11 (22%)	1 (2%)	2 (4%)

TABLE 40 RANGE-WISE TIME SPENT ON TRAVEL / WAITING TIME ETC. AT PIO (HOURS) OF 50 APPLICANTS

Total No.	Range at PIO Level				
	Upto -5	5-15	15-30	31 & above	No Time Spent (NTS)
0	1	2	3	4	5
50	5 (10%)	7 (14%)	24 (48%)	9 (18%)	5 (10%)

TABLE 41 RANGE-WISE TIME SPENT ON TRAVEL / WAITING TIME ETC. AT SIC (HOURS) OF 50 APPLICANTS

Total No.	Range at SIC Level				
	Upto -5	5-15	15-30	31 & above	No Time Spent (NTS)
0	1	2	3	4	5
50	1 (2%)	6 (12%)	27 (54%)	15 (30%)	1 (2%)

TABLE 42 RANGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF 50 APPLICANTS BY EXPENDITURE ON DRAFTING & TYPING (RS.) AT PIO

Total No.	Range at PIO Level				
	1-100	101-300	301-500	500 & above	No Expenditure (NE)
0	1	2	3	4	5
50	35 (70%)	5 (10%)	1 (2%)	-	9 (18%)

TABLE 43 RANGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF 50 APPLICANTS BY EXPENDITURE ON DRAFTING & TYPING (RS.) AT SIC

Total No.	Range at SIC Level				
	1-100	101-300	301-500	500 & above	No Expenditure (NE)
0	1	2	3	4	5
50	11 (22%)	6 (12%)	4 (8%)	--	29 (58%)

TABLE 44 RANGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF 50 APPLICANTS (NUMBER) BY EXPENDITURE ON TRAVEL (RS.) AT PIO

Total No.	Range at PIO Level					
	Upto -150	150-300	301-1000	1001-2000	2001 & above	No Travel Expenditure (NTE)
0	1		2	3	4	5
50	7 (14%)	7 (14%)	6 (12%)	-	1 2(%)	29 (58%)

TABLE 45 RANGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF 50 APPLICANTS (NUMBER) BY EXPENDITURE ON TRAVEL (RS.) AT SIC

	Range at SIC Level					
Total No.	Upto-150	150-300	301-1000	1001-2000	2001 & above	No Travel Expenditure (NTE)
0	1		2	3	4	5
50	4 (8%)	13 (26%)	18 (36%)	8 (16%)	7 (14%)	-

TABLE 46 CLASSIFICATION OF COST TO APPLICANTS (50) AT PIO

Sr. No.	Total No. of Applicant	Total Fees Paid (Rs.)	Expenditure on Drafting typing etc	Expenditure on Travel etc.	Total (1+2+3+4)
0	1	2	3	4	5
	50	590 (11.8)	4550 (91)	12195 (243.9)	17310 (346.2)

Note: Figures in brackets show per head cost. SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 47 CLASSIFICATION OF COST TO APPLICANTS AT SIC

Sr. No.	Total No. of Applicant	Total Fees Paid (Rs.)	Expenditure on Drafting typing etc	Expenditure on Travel etc.	Total (1+2+3+4)
0	1	2	3	4	5
	50	10 (0.2)	1656 (33.12)	56874 (1137.48)	58540 (1170.80)

Note: Figures in bracket show per head cost. SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 48 PERSONAL VISITS TO OFFICES (Number)

Sr. No.	Total Applicants	At PIO/APIO Level (Number)	SIC (Number)
0	1	2	3
1.	50	235 (4.7)	158 (3.16)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 49 TIME SPENT INCLUDING TRAVEL, WAITING TIME, VISITS ETC.(HOURS)

Sr. No.	Total Applicants	At PIO/APIO Level (Hours)	SIC (Hours)
0	1	2	3
1.	50	1491 (29.82)	1418 (28.36)

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 50 TIME TAKEN /DECISION MAXIMUM & MINIMUM BY PIO & SIC

Sr. No.	Level	Maximum (days)	Minimum (days)
1	PIO	390	5
2	SIC	524	16

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 51 INFORMATION DELIVERY –COST FACTOR MAXIMUM & MINIMUM AT PIO & SIC (In Rs.)

Sr. No.	Level	Total Fees Paid		Expenditure on Drafting typing etc		Expenditure on Travel etc.	
		Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
1	PIO	100	10	500	10	2500	80
2	SIC	26	10	500	30	5000	100

SOURCE: PUNJAB GOVERNANCE REFORMS COMMISSION

TABLE 52 DEPARTMENT-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF NATURE OF INFORMATION OF 50 APPLICANTS

Sr. No.	DEPARTMENT	NATURE OF INFORMATION							
		Personnel (Appointments, Promotion etc.)	Financial (Income, Expenditure, Budget)	Purchase of goods and services	Delivery of Services	Corruption/Inquiries	Land/Real Estate (IT,MC, Panchayat)	Any Others	Total (1+7)
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	Rural Development & Panchayati Raj						1		1 (2%)
2	Local Self Government								
3	Home	1				3			4 (8%)
4	Deputy Commissioner's Officer/ Revenue					1	7		8 (16%)
5	Social Security /Pensioners								
6	Education	7			1	1		1	10 (20%)
7	Health	7	1			1			9 (18%)
8	Power	1				2			3 (6%)
9	Finance , F.D								
10	Improvement Trusts /GUMADA			1			1		2 (4%)
11	M.C	1					3	1	5 (10%)
12	Town & CP								
13	Co-operative								
14	W/Sup. & Sanitation								
15	Industry	1			1	1	1		
16	Personnel								
17	Transport	1				2		1	4 (8%)
18	District Welfare Office								
19	Food Supply								4(8%)
20	Labour & Employment								
21	Forest								
Total		19 (38%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	2 (4%)	11 (22%)	13 (26%)	3 (6%)	50

Chapter III-Annexure

Table 1: Growth in Punjab			
Sector	FY00-FY09	FY91-FY00	FY81-FY90
Agriculture	2.6	3.2	5.5
Industry	6.4	6.3	7.2
- Manufacturing	5.3	6.6	9.6
Services	6.0	4.8	3.8
- Transport, storage & communication	11.6	10.9	7.4
- Trade, hotels and restaurants	5.0	4.7	3.0
- Banking & Insurance	10.3	5.2	5.0
- Real estate, ownership of dwellings and business services	2.7	2.2	3.0
- Public administration	4.4	6.3	6.9
- Other services	3.0	3.0	2.4
Total	4.9	4.5	5.0

Table 2: Contribution to Growth in Punjab			
Sector	FY00-FY09	FY91-FY00	FY81-FY90
Agriculture	18.11	26.94	44.02
Industry	31.52	28.24	23.47
- Manufacturing	16.34	19.23	17.98
Services	50.37	44.82	32.51
- Transport, storage & communication	14.68	8.40	3.27
- Trade, hotels and restaurants	12.50	12.08	7.54
- Banking & Insurance	11.69	9.82	8.20
- Real estate, ownership of dwellings and business services	2.32	2.48	3.71
- Public administration	4.25	6.06	4.72
- Other services	4.93	5.99	5.08
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Table 3: Comparison of Growth in Punjab with All India								
Sector	From 2000 to 2009				1999-2000		2008-09	
	Growth		Contribution to growth		Structure		Structure	
	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India	Punjab	India
Agriculture	2.6	2.7	18.11	7.7	37.5	25	30.7	17
Industry	6.4	7.4	31.52	26.29	22.8	25.3	25.8	25.8
- Manufacturing	5.3	7.1	16.34	14.4	14.9	14.8	15.4	14.6
Services	6	8.9	50.37	66.01	39.7	49.7	43.4	57.3
Total	4.9	7.2	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 4: Distribution and Growth of Main Workers								
Census Year	Rural Male Workers as % of total workers	Rural Female workers as % of total workers	Rural Workers as % of Total Workers	Female workers as % of Total Workers	Rural Female workers as % of total female workers	Rural Male workers as % of Total Male workers	Growth of Rural Female workers	Growth of Urban Female workers
2001	53.10	13.88	66.98	17.99	77.12	64.75	24.80	11.69
1991	68.17	2.39	70.56	4.35	54.78	71.27		*
1981	70.18	1.99	72.17	3.61	55.08	72.81		

Table 5: Distribution and Growth of Main and Marginal Workers								
Census Year	Main Male Workers as % of total workers	Female Main workers as % of total workers	Total Main Workers as % of Total Workers	Marginal Male workers as % of Total Workers	Marginal Female workers as % of total workers	Marginal Male workers as % of Total Male workers	Marginal Female workers as % of Total Female Workers	Growth of Female / Male Marginal workers
2001	70.40	15.44	85.85	5.85	8.30	7.67	34.95	19.44 / 54.63
1991	93.15	4.24	97.39	0.17	2.45	0.18	36.58	*
1981	89.82	3.37	93.19	1.03	5.78	1.14	63.17	

Table 6: Growth of Main and Marginal Workers - 1981 to 2001*							
		1991 to 2001			1981 to 1991		
		Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female
Main	Total	2.78	1.06	20.22			
	Rural	2.16	-0.02	24.8			
	Urban	4.15	3.4	11.69			
Marginal	Total	25.77	54.63	19.44			
	Rural	24.21	52.27	65.53			
	Urban	19.44	18.54	35.09			

Table 7: Distribution of Total Workers as Main and Marginal Workers (Rural- Urban and By Gender)								
Year	Rural				Urban			
	Main		Marginal		Main		Marginal	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1991	93.20	3.26	0.21	3.33	93.00	6.66	0.06	0.28
2001	65.58	16.88	6.71	10.83	81.83	11.73	3.84	2.60

Table 8: Distribution of Male and Female Workers in Rural and Urban Areas (Main and Marginal Workers)								
Year	Rural				Urban			
	Main		Marginal		Main		Marginal	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1991	71.28	54.78	89.14	96.84	28.72	45.22	10.86	3.16
2001	64.69	76.68	79.96	90.42	35.31	23.32	20.04	9.58

Table 13 : Subsidiary Status female workers as percentage of total female workers (PS+SS) for age 15 to 59 years by social group			
2004-05	SC	Others	ALL
Rural	84.26	88.99	87.36
Urban	34.17	27.63	29.22
1993-94			
Rural	76.10	88.27	84.40
Urban	32.81	39.61	37.82
Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records			

Table 14 : Distribution of subsidiary status female workers, age 15 to 59 years according to social group		
Sector/Social Group	2004-05	
	SC	Others
Rural	33.38	66.47
Urban	30.62	69.38
	1993-94	
Rural	30.47	67.06
Urban	22.67	77.33
Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records		

Table 15: Social group wise distribution of usual status workers of age 15-59 years					
Rural		2004-05		1993-94	
		SC	Others	SC	Others
Male	PS	41.69	58	37.17	61.5
	PS+SS	41.72	57.97	36.95	61.73
Female	PS	43.13	56.87	51.79	48.21
	PS+SS	34.62	65.26	33.8	64.12
Urban					
		SC	Others	SC	Others
Male	PS	28.54	70.86	22.68	76.19
	PS+SS	28.52	70.88	22.64	76.24
Female	PS	24.36	75.02	28.23	71.69
	PS+SS	26.19	73.37	26.13	73.82
Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records					

Table 16 a: WPR according to usual (Principal and Subsidiary) Status by size class of land owned, 2004-05 and 1993-94				
Rural				
	2004-05		1993-94	
land owned (in hectares)	Male	Female	Male	Female
landless	88.33	31.54	88.72	26.96
0.01-0.4	85.18	40.48	85.05	33.03
0.41-1.00	82.74	63.85	86.59	45.73
1.01-2.00	81.38	60.92	86.86	45.90
2.01-4.00	89.20	65.20	90.61	36.84
4.00 & above	81.61	61.52	88.50	33.89
All	85.04	48.49	87.26	34.70
Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records				

Table 16b: Rural and urban WPR by gender and MPCE quintile (age 15 to 59 years)

MPCE quintile	rural			
	2004-05		1993-94	
	male	female	male	female
Q ₁ (bottom 20%)	89.03	50.49	90.70	28.34
Q ₂	87.16	46.16	87.57	33.44
Q ₃	86.19	43.32	88.89	32.93
Q ₄	84.11	54.65	84.87	33.92
Q ₅ (top 20%)	80.07	48.10	85.47	43.31
All	85.04	48.49	87.31	34.72

	urban			
	2004-05		1993-94	
	male	female	male	female
Q ₁ (bottom 20%)	85.31	20.92	88.31	12.57
Q ₂	86.43	19.98	82.81	13.01
Q ₃	84.59	14.35	87.95	14.53
Q ₄	82.56	15.70	82.06	12.97
Q ₅ (top 20%)	70.74	26.77	85.07	20.31
All	81.64	19.80	85.10	14.75

Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records

Table 17: Principal status WPR for aged 15 to 59 years by education for rural and urban Punjab

	2004-05				1993-94			
	Up to primary	Secondary	Secondary & above	All	Up to primary	Secondary	Secondary & above	All
R_M	90.36	79.03	77.12	84.04	89.92	82.62	80.51	86.6
R_F	5.15	3.76	7.67	6.13	3.18	3.8	6.42	5.41
U_M	91.42	73.86	76.12	81.35	92.96	79.38	78.4	84.73
U_F	9.44	5.16	17.33	14.01	6.45	8.4	13.14	9.18

Subsidiary status WPR for aged 15 to 59 years by education for rural and urban Punjab

	2004-05				1993-94			
	Up to primary	Secondary	Secondary & above	All	Up to primary	Secondary	Secondary & above	All
R_M	0.25	0.3	1.28	1	0.62	0.55	0.95	0.67
R_F	46.69	34.12	28.14	42.36	32.16	20.58	18.85	29.3
U_M	0.39	0.49	0.27	0.27	0	0.76	0.48	0.33
U_F	9.67	4.14	3.6	5.79	7.35	4.14	2.56	5.58

Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records

Table 18: Percentage distribution of Rural and Urban workers, age 15 to 59 years, according to usual status (UPSS), Punjab, 1993-94 & 2004-05

	2004-05				1993-94			
Industry	R_M	R_F	U_M	U_F	R_M	R_F	U_M	U_F
Agriculture & allied	52.54	89.63	3.63	14.79	66.47	93.40	5.94	27.91
Mining and Quarrying	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.05	0.00
Manufacturing	9.94	3.69	27.51	22.75	6.56	1.36	26.57	9.55
Electricity, Gas & water Supply	1.21	0.00	1.69	1.29	1.71	0.21	1.81	0.88
Construction	13.88	0.11	8.18	0.86	4.92	0.00	5.63	1.03
Trade, Hotels and Restaurant	9.65	0.92	32.47	4.10	6.34	0.65	27.35	7.41
Transport, Storage & Communications	5.49	0.35	9.22	0.86	3.91	0.00	6.94	0.46
Finance, Real Estate & Business services	1.24	0.04	4.56	2.65	0.62	0.00	2.90	2.24
Community, Social and Personal services	5.89	5.27	12.74	52.69	9.47	4.33	22.80	50.51
ALL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records								

Table 19: Industrial distribution of the principal status workforce age 15 to 59 years by social group, 2004-05 and 1993-94								
	2004-05				1993-94			
Rural	SC		Others		SC		Others	
Industry group	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture and allied	41.14	51.21	60.19	40.65	60.64	69.59	69.37	61.82
Mining and quarrying	0.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Manufacturing	12.16	7.67	8.38	8.73	7.38	9.96	6.22	3.45
Electricity, Gas & water Supply	1.81	0.00	0.81	0.00	2.09	2.64	1.47	0.00
Construction	22.58	1.01	7.87	0.70	7.74	0.00	3.38	0.00
Trade, Hotels & Restaurant	9.17	3.76	10.07	4.05	5.51	0.00	6.99	2.55
Transport, Storage & Communications	5.19	1.21	5.81	3.79	5.42	0.00	3.13	0.00
Finance, Real Estate & Business Services	1.69	0.13	0.91	0.46	0.97	0.00	0.43	0.00
Community, Social and personal services	5.87	35.01	5.96	41.62	10.25	17.80	9.02	32.18
Urban	2004-05				1993-94			
	SC		Others		SC		Others	
	Male	Female	male	Female	Male	Female	male	Female
Agriculture and allied	2.09	3.26	4.11	1.94	6.63	8.94	5.72	4.57
Mining and quarrying	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.00	0.00
Manufacturing	29.97	22.65	26.51	16.40	29.65	5.83	25.97	6.91
Electricity, Gas & water Supply	0.86	0.00	2.05	2.43	1.50	1.67	1.76	1.31
Construction	12.38	3.33	6.57	0.27	10.66	0.84	3.96	1.97
Trade, Hotels & Restaurant	22.39	0.53	36.76	4.99	17.38	16.20	30.63	6.41
Transport, Storage & Communications	14.09	2.12	6.94	0.95	9.80	1.97	6.23	0.26
Finance, Real Estate & Business Services	4.42	5.57	4.65	2.93	1.23	2.23	3.46	4.13
Community, Social and personal services	13.81	62.54	12.41	70.08	22.91	62.32	22.27	74.45

Table 20: Industrial distribution of the subsidiary status workforce age 15 to 59 years by social class, 2004-05 and 1993-94

	2004-05				1993-94			
Rural	SC		Others		SC		Others	
Industry group	Male	Female	male	Female	Male	Female	male	Female
Agriculture and allied	74.25	93.80	89.67	97.18	100	96.95	90.90	99.17
Mining and quarrying	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.08
Manufacturing	0.00	4.77	1.52	2.15	0.00	1.13	0.00	0.00
Electricity, Gas & water Supply	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Construction	11.80	0.00	0.97	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Trade, Hotels & Restaurant	10.08	0.80	4.99	0.32	0.00	0.43	0.00	0.61
Transport, Storage and Communications	0.00	0.00	2.86	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Finance, Real Estate & Business Services	3.87	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Community, Social and personal services	0.00	0.63	0.00	0.33	0.00	1.50	9.10	0.14
	2004-05				1993-94			
Urban	SC		Others		SC		Others	
Industry group	Male	Female	male	Female	Male	Female	male	Female
Agriculture and allied	13.08	48.75	48.59	43.59	0.00	62.58	29.94	65.24
Mining and quarrying	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Manufacturing	38.56	35.65	27.58	34.26	0.00	18.57	25.12	13.25
Electricity, Gas & water Supply	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Construction	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.70	0.00	0.00	24.39	0.00
Trade, Hotels & Restaurant	41.83	0.44	15.88	6.51	0.00	5.47	13.10	4.21
Transport, Storage and Communications	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Finance, Real Estate & Business Services	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Community, Social and personal services	6.54	15.16	7.95	14.27	-----	13.38	7.45	17.31

Table 21: Activity Status wise distribution of usual status workers of different social groups, 15-59 years

RURAL	Activity Status	2004-05				1993-94			
		SC		OTHERS		SC		OTHERS	
		ps	ps+ss	ps	ps+ss	ps	ps+ss	ps	ps+ss
Male	S.E.	19.96	20.59	65.85	66.22	20.97	21.02	72.40	72.71
	R.E.	21.23	21.02	16.59	16.41	14.34	14.31	14.15	13.99
	C.L.	58.81	58.39	17.56	17.38	64.69	64.67	13.45	13.30
female	S.E.	29.26	82.32	36.44	92.19	22.68	69.79	63.20	93.57
	R.E.	33.20	6.13	37.37	4.30	22.58	5.40	18.04	2.12
	C.L.	37.55	11.55	26.19	3.52	54.74	24.81	18.76	4.32
URBAN									
Male	S.E.	32.28	32.30	53.19	53.18	35.29	35.43	50.85	51.07
	R.E.	51.39	51.24	41.06	41.03	39.47	39.39	41.52	41.33
	C.L.	16.33	16.46	5.76	5.79	25.24	25.18	7.63	7.60
female	S.E.	12.12	39.77	24.22	44.62	26.97	43.05	22.78	51.51
	R.E.	67.84	45.32	74.54	54.04	56.32	38.83	71.55	43.98
	C.L.	20.04	14.91	1.24	1.34	16.71	18.12	5.66	4.51

Source: Computed from the NSSO Unit Records

Table 22 : Average daily wages of Regular workers by gender and education

	Rural					
	2004-05		1993-94		CAG	CAG
	Male	female	male	female	male	female
Illiterate	54.51	22.36	31.25	17.98	5.2	2.0
up to primary	59.56	49.09	41.40	18.90	3.4	9.1
Middle	64.99	21.99	51.48	30.41	2.1	-2.9
secondary and higher sec.	126.70	93.67	72.31	57.61	5.2	4.5
graduate n above	203.75	122.47	97.57	71.48	6.9	5.0
Total	96.77	71.13	58.46	34.83	4.7	6.7
	Urban					
	Male	female	male	female		
Illiterate	56.69	31.60	45.11	42.76	2.1	-2.7
up to primary	55.86	33.99	42.39	55.42	2.5	-4.3
Middle	58.69	24.42	48.72	55.08	1.7	-7.1
secondary and higher sec.	102.05	114.96	73.48	91.19	3.0	2.1
graduate n above	218.33	157.02	139.48	103.60	4.2	3.9
Total	100.72	115.47	72.32	86.37	3.1	2.7

Note: Wages for the year 2004-05 have been deflated using CPI-AL for rural workers and CPI-IW for urban workers

Table23 : Average daily wages of Regular workers by gender and social group

	Rural					
	2004-05		1993-94		CAG	
	male	female	male	female	male	female
SC	81.02	30.56	48.80	23.15	4.7	2.6
Others	111.86	100.59	61.36	37.63	5.6	9.4
Total	96.77	71.13	58.47	34.83	4.7	6.7
	Urban					
	male	female	male	female	male	female
SC	75.07	51.50	54.48	61.78	3.0	-1.6
Others	114.05	134.70	77.93	93.68	3.5	3.4
Total	100.72	115.47	72.45	85.89	3.0	2.7

Note: Wages for the year 2004-05 have been deflated using CPI-AL for rural workers and CPI-IW for urban workers

Chapter IV-Annexure

Table 1.1 Starting a Business .Transaction Costs for Rs.30 lacs investment

Formal costs	1 % of investment	Fees prescribed for approvals, registration/licencing, Central & State - all agencies.
Informal costs	2-3% of investment	'Under the table' payments for getting approvals etc.

Table 2.1 Ease of Doing Business – Inter Country Comparison

	India	Singapore	OECD
Number of procedures	13	7.3	5.7
Time (No. of days)	30	28.1	13.0

Table 3.1 Improving Ease of Doing Business. Starting a Business

Sr. No.	Major areas of reform (Based on World Bank Parameters)	Status/problems in Punjab	Recommendations
I.	Registration of transfer/ purchase of property.	Same day; revenue services/ procedures being simplified (See Revenue Services Report).	Automatic mutation same day - to be expedited.
II.	Approvals/registration under company law, registration of societies act etc.	Central legislation; systems/ procedures improved substantially.	-
III.	Construction-permissions and approvals (a) ULB/Regional planning authority.	Complicated rules, lack of expertise of competent authorities leading to shifting of decisions upwards/delay in processing; unnecessary stages of inspection (covered in Second Report of PGRC in case of residential buildings).	Self regulation. Accept approvals based on 3rd party certification by empanelled architects/ structural engineers regarding safety/ compliance of building regulations. (See recommendations on Urban Governance). Issue approval of plans and completion certificate on 3rd party certification.
	(b) Approval of construction under Factories Act (submission and approval of plans). (c) Licencing & registration.	<u>Semi-legal</u> practice of approving plans/licencing extended to <u>all factories</u> (with some exemptions). Department not fully equipped technically and numerically to screen increasingly sophisticated specifications of different industries.	Discontinue practice of: Submission of site & construction plans to Factory Inspectors; Prior approval of construction and engineering plans; Licencing and registration under Section 6. Specify the limited types of industry where these approvals/licenses are required in future (prima facie none in our opinion). Discontinue practice of asking for/empanelling engineers for stability certificate.
IV.	Environmental clearances (a) Consent to establish under environment regulations (water, air hazardous substances). (b) Factories Act-Site Inspection for hazardous industries.	Delay and redtape. Site inspection committee required for hazardous industry.	Duplication in approvals – pollution laws and Factories Act already eliminated.
V.	Registration under State Sales Tax Laws	Procedures simple; business can commence after application.	Expedite online registration.
VI.	Indian Boilers Act - Certification of Boilers	Prior clearance/inspection required. Third party inspection system not functional.	Provide exemption under section 34 subject to third party/ manufacturer - certificate.
VII.	Indian Electricity Act (a) Connection. (b) Clearance by Chief Electrical Inspector.	Procedure simplified by PSEB; Service standards defined. Inspection - a formality of law completed after deposit of fees and corrupt practices.	Discontinue inspections/approval by Chief Electrical Inspector; in limited cases necessary, delegate powers to Punjab Transmission Corporation/qualified engineers.
VIII.	Sector-specific regulations – Food Safety, Drugs, Sugar, Oil seeds, Dangerous Machines, Electrical Appliances etc.	Licencing/construction plans - approval under Factories Act required in addition to approvals under these laws resulting in double jeopardy. All industries in the least need of regulations are covered by specific laws, making common laws like Factories Act mostly superfluous.	As above. Discontinue indiscriminate application of Section 6 of Factories Act.

Table 3.2 Improving Ease of Doing Business. Running a Business

Sr. No.	Major areas of reform (Based on World Bank Parameters)	Status/problems in Punjab	Recommendations
I.	Minimum Wages Act	Difficult to implement; adverse impact on labour mobility & employment; substantial transaction costs on small industry; perverse incentives for employers to evade the law; notifications for minimum wages are complex and need to be simplified.	Stringent enforcement on complaints; inspections to be advisory in nature, especially the provisions relating to the maintenance of registers and records. Rationalize the notifications issued at the State level for additional (sixty plus) employments covered under the Act. Notify lowest entry level minimum wages for the two main categories of un-skilled and skilled jobs across all industries and employments.
II.	Indian Boilers Act	Periodic inspections and certificate renewal by the regulatory authority.	Issue orders under the relevant section to exempt industries in Punjab subject to third party- <u>manufacturer's</u> certificate.
III.	Standing Orders Rules Act 1946	Unnecessary and fruitless regulation.	Discontinue monitoring; Action only on complaints in view of Section 12 A; stringent action for repeated lapses.
IV.	Industrial Disputes Act – regulates employer employee disputes	Provisions tortuous but provide escape routes (e.g. contract workers are not covered)	Action as at present in case of disputes.
V.	Factories Act Renewal of Licenses, fresh building plans for change in production (engineering design etc.)	Unnecessary formality; enforcement not possible or even required; enforcement of approval of plans or licencing beyond the capacity of the department in view of specialization and sophistication of industry; no problem for the big industries but harassment for the small sector.	Discontinue indiscriminate licencing/renewal /building plan approval required in case of change; Accept owner/architect/ structural engineer certificate; Action only on complaints in respect of safety and health regulations on the lines of the UK Law.
VI.	Sales Tax Regulations	Minor problems (of check posts/information centers, delay in refunds).	Sales Tax Department to look into these issues.
VII.	Shops and Establishments Act- registration, regulation of working hours, holidays etc.	Impossible to implement; almost hundred percent violations of regulations; no deterrent due to lengthy penalty processes ending in negligible fines.	Discontinue enforcement/ inspection; Action to be taken only on complaints.
VIII.	Labour Regulations (Minimum Wages Act, Standing Orders, Shops & Establishment Industries Act etc.) Inspections, Record Maintenance & Prosecution.	Impracticable record and register maintenance provisions; Little nexus with enforcement; Inspections personalized and adhoc; perverse incentives on the part of employers to evade law; High transaction costs.	Focus on self-regulation – third party certification; Inspections – to be well planned but random; advisory in nature; Penal action/prosecution only in case of complaints; Discontinue enforcement of specific laws, as indicated.
IX.	Credit	Credit is a problem for small/ micro establishments.	Separate helpdesk/window of the Industry Department in each district for <u>micro sector</u>; integrate services for rural areas also.
X.	Enforcing contracts	Civil court processes long and uncertain for settling disputes; Not a real problem in practice as parties tends to settle bilaterally resulting in <u>more efficient</u> solutions/ outcomes for the parties.	Changes required in Civil Law.
XI.	Employing workers	Open and easy labour markets; Employment practices mostly violative of labour regulations but functioning smoothly, though with some transaction costs.	Avoid proactive enforcement. Action only on complaints/disputes.

Table 3.3 Improving Ease of Doing Business. Closing a Business

Sr. No.	Major areas of reform (Based on World Bank Parameters)	Status/problems in Punjab	Recommendations
I.	Regulations for 'closing shop' – Industrial Disputes Act	Approval required for retrenchment of labour in units employing more than hundred workers. A problem only for large industry.	Central Legislation.

Chapter V- Annexure
Table 1: Accessibility and Efficacy of Police

STATES	POLICE INFRASTRUCTURE												POLICE FUNCTION																			
	Staff density (area and population wise)				Budget/ Expenditure		Existing Equipment and Transport Support				Women Police Station's per 100 police station	Ranking	Disposal rate of cases by Police (IPC+SLL)		Disposal rate of crime against children cases by Police		Disposal rate of crime against SC by Police		Disposal rate of crime against ST by Police		Recover y rate Stolen property (+)	Ranking	Chargesheeting rate of cases by Police (IPC+SLL)		Chargesheeting rate crime against children cases by Police		Chargesheeting rate crime against SC by Police		Chargesheeting rate crime against ST by Police			
	No. of Policem en per 100 sq. km.(+)	Ranking	No. of policemen en per 100,000 populati on (+)	Ranking	Expendit ure on police after per lakh populati on of state/UT* s (in Lakhs)	Ranking	Motor Vehicles Per Lakh POPULA TION	Ranking	Equipme nts Per Lakh populati on	Ranking			Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking			Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking	Total	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	40	26	131	23	259.80	23	20.9	28	38.1	27	1.63	12	90.15	8	71.8	15	68.3	24	64.9	27	47.3	9	96.9	2	94.4	10	94.3	14	97.4	11		
Arunachal Pradesh	8.9	35	603	6	1289.55	5	136.0	3	327.4	6	0.00	25	56.37	26	86.7	8	100	1	96.5	15	21.2	22	65.8	26	100	1	NA	NA	69.1	19		
Assam	68.9	14	175	19	303.95	20	1.8	35	0.5	35	0.32	23	39.72	32	29.2	33	18.5	31	18.1	33	24.6	19	56.0	32	91.1	14	64.7	23	82.4	16		
Bihar	65.7	16	64	35	144.09	34	12.9	31	12.4	34	0.12	24	49.49	29	45.7	30	41.3	30	30	31	13.7	27	78.1	20	81.7	24	83.2	17	77.8	17		
Chattisgarh	30.9	30	170	20	246.72	26	55.6	14	37.6	28	1.00	18	97.56	3	93	4	81.2	18	85.5	20	28.9	17	96.6	4	97.7	5	97.4	7	99	6		
Goa	126.9	8	270	13	744.58	12	62.4	10	456.0	3	4.00	8	69.67	19	55.9	27	50	29	100	1	10	30	74.6	21	82.5	22	100	1	NA	NA		
Gujarat	32.9	29	111	27	195.80	31	27.2	25	56.3	23	3.28	9	89.15	10	84.9	10	89.8	13	87.9	18	13.5	28	93.3	8	71	31	94.9	12	98	8		
Haryana	107.4	9	193	17	330.85	19	2.7	34	13.9	33	0.41	22	83.23	12	83.8	11	87	17	100	1	52.8	5	74.2	22	84.8	19	96.2	9	NA	NA		
Himachal Pradesh	24.4	33	203	16	456.62	16	26.7	26	97.2	17	0.00	25	80.03	15	73	14	71.1	22	50	29	32	16	88.3	12	95.6	9	98.2	6	100	1		
Jammu and Kashmir	76	13	576	7	1051.59	9	77.4	8	205.4	9	1.09	17	66.36	23	65.6	20	100	1	100	1	43.2	11	81.1	18	92.3	12	100	1	NA	NA		
Jharkhand	58.5	19	151	22	404.93	18	32.4	20	67.3	22	5.65	5	55.10	28	78.6	12	54.8	28	52.2	28	13.4	29	74.0	24	80.3	25	76.9	21	69.7	18		
Karnataka	37.3	27	122	25	225.36	28	56.5	13	167.1	14	1.11	16	71.03	17	69.4	17	79.5	19	67.4	26	41.5	12	83.0	15	84.6	21	94.4	13	97.5	10		
Kerala	104.3	11	116	26	284.62	21	28.4	23	69.2	21	0.85	21	93.55	7	68.5	18	68.2	25	74.8	22	7.5	33	96.5	5	93.9	11	79.5	20	95.5	13		
Madhya Pradesh	24.7	32	106	30	174.26	33	18.2	29	80.5	20	0.95	19	97.11	4	94.1	3	94.8	11	93.6	16	90.4	1	91.4	10	96.1	8	98.8	5	98.3	7		
Maharashtra	58.5	19	164	21	247.21	25	28.2	24	42.8	25	0.00	25	67.02	22	61.7	23	71.4	21	69.6	25	9.8	31	82.6	16	84.7	20	95.9	10	99.2	5		
Manipur	105.4	10	871	2	1168.58	7	142.5	2	572.8	2	9.89	3	8.95	35	6.9	35	100	1	0	34	1.9	35	11.0	35	4.3	34	NA	NA	0	21		
Meghalaya	45.7	23	393	12	720.58	13	58.0	12	202.1	12	17.95	1	24.29	34	18.6	34	100	1	100	1	16.7	24	53.2	33	78.5	27	NA	NA	NA	NA		
Mizoram	50.9	22	1065	1	2098.21	3	133.1	4	275.2	8	0.00	25	90.12	9	88.5	7	100	1	100	1	50.4	7	95.4	7	100	1	NA	NA	NA	NA		
Nagaland	60.3	17	445	10	2213.33	2	42.5	17	33.0	31	2.00	11	70.02	18	53.3	29	100	1	100	1	9.6	32	71.7	25	87.5	18	NA	NA	NA	NA		
Orissa	27.9	31	106	30	226.36	27	23.4	27	36.5	29	0.92	20	68.01	21	64.4	21	60.9	27	71.6	23	27.9	18	90.2	11	98.9	4	97.3	8	96.7	12		
Punjab	132.4	7	244	14	623.51	15	31.7	21	102.9	16	1.39	15	68.89	20	62.6	22	62.5	26	100	1	61.2	3	83.2	13	75.4	28	91	15	NA	NA		
Rajasthan	20.9	34	107	29	178.23	32	14.6	30	41.7	26	3.17	10	96.14	5	90.8	5	92	12	89.9	17	61.2	3	83.2	14	72.1	30	95	11	97.9	9		
Sikkim	53.6	21	624	5	1460.16	4	33.1	19	697.4	1	0.00	25	83.77	11	67.8	19	87.5	15	100	1	15.3	25	58.8	29	91.8	13	57.1	25	33.3	20		
Tamil Nadu	66.7	15	128	24	284.19	22	39.3	18	54.9	24	15.12	2	82.16	13	58.3	24	68.6	23	84.8	21	50.1	8	64.1	27	89	17	89.8	16	100	1		
Tripura	231.3	5	672	4	1141.63	8	87.0	6	344.9	5	1.56	14	78.35	16	56.2	25	100	1	87.5	19	17.2	23	82.1	17	91	15	63.6	24	94.3	14		
Uttar Pradesh	59	18	71	34	212.43	29	11.8	32	36.0	30	4.35	7	98.59	2	90	6	89.2	14	100	1	40	13	96.9	3	78.8	26	82.7	18	NA	NA		
Uttaranchal	33.7	28	184	18	449.64	17	29.2	22	94.2	19	1.60	13	99.19	1	100	1	87.5	15	100	1	38.2	15	98.2	1	97	7	69.7	22	NA	NA		
West Bengal	97	12	95	32	130.35	35	10.8	33	23.7	32	0.00	25	60.87	25	41.1	31	15.7	32	19.5	32	23.3	21	78.5	19	82.1	23	81.3	19	93.3	15		
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	45.3	24	866	3	2952.31	1	163.0	1	111.6	15	4.76	6	82.13	14	54.9	28	100	1	33.3	30	23.5	20	96.2	6	97.4	6	NA	NA	100	1		
UT Chandigarh	4437.7	2	450	9	899.56	10	58.8	11	369.6	4	0.00	25	55.91	27	70.5	16	0	34	100	1	43.3	10	57.0	30	89.6	16	0	26	NA	NA		
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	42.4	25	73	33	257.60	24	43.8	16	96.1	18	0.00	25	49.23	30	38.5	32	100	1	71.4	24	14.1	26	74.1	23	100	1	NA	NA	100	1		
UT Daman and Diu	196.4	6	110	28	211.00	30	54.0	15	199.0	13	0.00	25	61.76	24	75	13	0	34	0	34	39	14	56.0	31	66.7	32	0	26	0	21		
UT Delhi	4980.6	1	403	11	812.88	11	66.6	9	204.2	10	0.00	25	48.71	31	56	26	6.9	33	100	1	4.8	34	51.7	34	43.4	33	100	1	NA	NA		
UT Lakshadweep	1037.5	3	461	8	1283.33	6	122.2	5	288.9	7	0.00	25	26.52	33	100	1	100	1	100	1	51.2	6	59.0	28	0	35	NA	NA	NA	NA		
UT Pondicherry	462.2	4	204	15	629.99	14	84.2	7	202.7	11	7.14	4	93.58	6	85	9	72.3	20	100	1	62	2	91.6	9	75	29	100	1	NA	NA		

Source: Crime in India, 2010

Table 2: Registration & Charge sheets submitted in India for the Year 2010

Number of Complaints Received	10656112
Cases Registered under ipc+sll	6750748
	63.35
	5795382
Total Cases investigated (previous year pendency proportionately removed)	85.85
Percentage of cases Investigated out of Total Complaints Received (previous year pendency proportionately removed)	54.39
Charge Sheets Submitted (previous year pendency proportionately removed)	5051945
	74.84
Percentage of Charge Sheets Submitted out of Total Complaints	47.41
Source: Crime in India, 2010	

Table 3: Level of Physical Security Enjoyed by the Citizens

STATES	Total Crime Rate IPC+SII (Per Lakh population)	Ranking	Total Crime Rate IPC (Per Lakh population)	Ranking	Percentage change in IPC Crime in 2005 (-)	Ranking	Total Crime against Body(-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Total Crime Against Property(-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Total Crime Against Public order (-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Total Economic Crimes(-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Rate of Total Cognizable Crimes SLL per lakh Population(-)	Ranking	Total Crime Against Women(-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Total Crime Absent Children(-) (Per lakh population)	Ranking	Crime against Scheduled Caste per lakh population(-)	Ranking	Crime against Scheduled Tribe per lakh population(-)	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	962.79	7	215.70	12	0.6	25	80.31	2	42.37	12	3.75	26	12.46	5	747.1	6	32.4	3	2.2	16	5.1	2	1	6
Arunachal Pradesh	205.81	20	197.50	16	3.3	17	58.62	6	59.92	7	4.78	24	12.15	6	9.1	30	15.4	15	1.6	21	0	24	4.4	1
Assam	204.95	21	199.10	15	11.5	3	43.71	12	39.51	16	8.46	10	7.85	16	5.9	32	37.3	2	0.6	29	0	24	0	18
Bihar	141.56	28	131.10	26	3.7	16	32.14	19	21.82	31	9.74	7	4.27	28	10.4	29	8.7	29	1.9	18	3.6	6	0.1	16
Chattisgarh	1211.43	3	224.00	11	7	5	62.37	5	41.59	14	5.75	16	4.35	27	987.6	4	17	13	6	5	1.4	15	2.1	2
Goa	354.08	11	188.90	19	9.6	4	30.01	21	82.79	5	4.99	21	11.88	7	164.5	10	8	30	4.5	10	0.1	21	0	18
Gujarat	576.03	8	200.10	14	1.1	23	32.72	18	38.58	17	3.24	27	4.25	29	375.9	8	14	19	1.7	19	1.7	11	0.3	11
Haryana	328.98	13	240.40	9	5.1	11	33.33	17	88.82	4	6.65	13	10.61	12	88.6	13	22.6	9	1.2	23	1.5	13	0	18
Himachal Pradesh	251.26	19	195.10	17	-2	27	35.83	15	23.84	28	11.1	6	6.46	19	56.2	17	15.4	15	3.7	12	1.5	13	0	18
Jammu and Kashmir	189.16	23	173.80	20	5.7	10	19.62	31	29.80	24	17.91	2	4.42	26	15.3	26	19.5	12	0.1	34	0	24	0	18
Jharkhand	138.40	29	125.70	27	3.9	15	31.65	20	30.74	22	8.51	9	4.88	24	12.7	28	10	26	0.2	33	1.9	10	0.8	8
Karnataka	269.55	18	242.00	8	6.2	7	46.65	10	48.76	9	13.6	4	10.54	13	27.5	21	15	17	0.7	28	4.3	4	0.5	10
Kerala	1068.83	5	424.10	1	25.3	1	56.19	7	22.86	30	26.02	1	11.37	10	644.7	7	27.1	5	1.7	19	1.7	11	0.3	11
Madhya Pradesh	476.83	9	297.20	4	3.1	18	72.45	3	46.62	11	4.65	25	3.22	33	179.7	9	22.8	8	6.8	3	4.7	3	1.9	4
Maharashtra	305.41	15	189.20	18	4.3	13	45.01	11	67.21	6	8.76	8	10.01	14	116.3	11	14.3	18	3	13	1	16	0.3	11
Manipur	136.81	30	100.50	29	-4.8	29	28.79	23	25.20	26	5.59	17	3.33	32	36.2	19	7	31	2.7	14	0	24	0	18
Meghalaya	101.15	33	96.00	30	2.3	20	18.4	32	36.03	18	2.26	28	5.33	21	5.2	33	10	26	4.2	11	0	24	0	18
Mizoram	297.62	17	215.70	12	6.2	7	24.9	27	125.69	3	1.49	32	11.51	9	82.5	14	16.9	14	5	7	0	24	0	18
Nagaland	65.20	35	47.10	35	0	26	8.93	34	23.33	29	0.13	35	2.44	34	18.1	25	1.8	34	0.4	31	0	24	0	18
Orissa	167.79	24	138.30	23	1.3	22	35.32	16	30.32	23	5.41	19	3.57	31	29.5	20	20.8	10	0.5	30	4.2	5	1.4	5
Punjab	201.64	22	134.40	24	3.1	18	40.46	13	31.38	20	0.37	34	14.10	4	67.3	16	10.5	23	2.3	15	0.4	18	0	18
Rajasthan	317.04	14	242.80	7	-2.2	28	49.61	8	41.77	13	2.18	30	25.94	1	74.2	15	27.1	5	2	17	7.4	1	2	3
Sikkim	117.38	31	90.50	32	-17.5	33	24.75	28	21.80	32	1.8	31	3.93	30	26.9	22	6.9	33	4.8	8	0.5	17	0.2	14
Tamil Nadu	1037.21	6	274.50	6	6.3	6	62.43	4	31.36	21	4.88	22	5.54	20	762.6	5	9.9	28	1.2	23	2.4	9	0	18
Tripura	165.73	25	160.80	21	5.8	9	47.31	9	21.08	33	5.93	15	5.01	22	4.9	35	46.5	1	6.3	4	0.3	20	1	6
Uttar Pradesh	1149.47	4	87.50	33	0.7	24	20.57	29	19.61	34	2.19	29	6.93	18	1062	2	10.1	25	1.2	23	3.2	7	0	18
Uttarakhand	1725.42	1	94.10	31	5	12	24.99	26	26.73	25	4.84	23	7.81	17	1631.8	1	10.9	21	0.3	32	0.4	18	0	18
West Bengal	151.91	26	143.70	22	14.7	2	26.71	25	23.89	27	7.91	11	4.97	23	8.2	31	29	4	1	26	0.1	21	0.1	16
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	1258.14	2	226.90	10	4.1	14	27.55	24	48.38	10	5.32	20	15.28	3	1025.5	3	19.7	11	11.8	2	0	24	0.2	14
UT Chandigarh	344.25	12	299.80	3	-5.1	30	15.02	33	159.56	1	6.58	14	16.80	2	46	18	12.5	20	5.2	6	0	24	0	18
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	150.00	27	133.60	25	-14.5	32	19.79	30	32.86	19	16.25	3	10.95	11	14.8	27	10.6	22	4.6	9	0	24	0.7	9
UT Daman and Diu	106.50	32	101.50	28	-26.4	34	30	22	40.00	15	5.5	18	4.50	25	5	34	7	31	1	26	0	24	0	18
UT Delhi	305.29	16	279.80	5	2.1	21	38.15	14	137.74	2	0.57	33	11.73	8	25.5	23	24.6	7	19.8	1	0.1	21	0	18
UT Lakshadweep	84.29	34	58.30	34	-68.7	35	1.39	35	13.89	35	6.94	12	0.00	35	23.6	24	1.4	35	0	35	0	24	0	18
UT Pondicherry	447.86	10	352.30	2	-14.3	31	101.43	1	55.77	8	12.62	5	8.24	15	96.8	12	10.3	24	1.4	22	2.8	8	0	18

Source: Crime in India, 2010

Table 4: Rights of population affected by crime

STATES	Violation by Enforcement Agencies Police			
	No. of complaints against per 100 policemen(-)	Ranking	Percentage of police personnel convicted per 100 police complaints received During the year 2010	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	2.1	14	0.00	13
Arunachal Pradesh	2.4	13	0.00	13
Assam	0.0	29	0.00	13
Bihar	0.1	27	0.00	13
Chattisgarh	4.5	7	0.91	3
Goa	0.3	22	6.67	2
Gujarat	1.5	16	0.52	4
Haryana	1.7	15	0.00	13
Himachal Pradesh	2.5	12	0.00	13
Jammu and Kashmir	0.7	18	0.19	7
Jharkhand	4.4	8	0.05	10
Karnataka	0.7	19	0.21	6
Kerala	10.6	2	0.12	8
Madhya Pradesh	17.9	1	0.01	12
Maharashtra	2.7	10	0.04	11
Manipur	0.0	32	NA	NA
Meghalaya	0.0	31	0.00	13
Mizoram	0.0	30	0.00	13
Nagaland	0.1	25	12.50	1
Orissa	0.1	26	0.00	13
Punjab	5.8	6	0.41	5
Rajasthan	2.6	11	0.11	9
Sikkim	0.7	17	0.00	13
Tamil Nadu	0.4	21	0.00	13
Tripura	0.1	24	0.00	13
Uttar Pradesh	8.5	4	0.00	13
Uttanchal	3.8	9	0.00	13
West Bengal	0.0	28	0.00	13
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	0.6	20	0.00	13
UT Chandigarh	7.1	5	0.00	13
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	0.0	32	NA	NA
UT Daman and Diu	0.0	32	NA	NA
UT Delhi	9.0	3	0.00	13
UT Lakshadweep	0.0	32	NA	NA
UT Pondicherry	0.2	23	0.00	13

Source: Crime in India, 2010

Table 5: Commitment to Justice

STATES	Women Cell	Ranking	State Oversight							
			State Commission for Women	Ranking	State Human Rights Commission	Ranking	State Minority Commission	Ranking	State SC Commission	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	0	28	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	14
Arunachal Pradesh	0	28	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Assam	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Bihar	1	1	1	1	0	18	1	1	1	1
Chattisgarh	1	1	0	27	1	1	1	1	0	14
Goa	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Gujarat	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	16	1	1
Haryana	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Himachal Pradesh	1	1	0	27	1	1	0	16	0	14
Jammu and Kashmir	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	16	0	14
Jharkhand	1	1	0	27	0	18	1	1	0	14
Karnataka	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Kerala	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	16	1	1
Madhya Pradesh	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	14
Maharashtra	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Manipur	1	1	0	27	1	1	1	1	0	14
Meghalaya	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Mizoram	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Nagaland	1	1	0	27	0	18	0	16	0	14
Orissa	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	16	0	14
Punjab	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	16	1	1
Rajasthan	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sikkim	0	28	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14
Tamil Nadu	0	28	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Tripura	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	1	1
Uttar Pradesh	0	28	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Uttaranchal	1	1	1	1	0	18	1	1	0	14
West Bengal	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	1	1	0	27	0	18	0	16	0	14
UT Chandigarh	1	1	1	1	0	18	0	16	1	1
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	1	1	0	27	0	18	0	16	0	14
UT Daman and Diu	0	28	0	27	0	18	0	16	0	14
UT Delhi	1	1	1	1	0	18	1	1	0	14
UT Lakshadweep	0	28	0	27	0	18	0	16	0	14
UT Pondicherry	0	28	1	1	0	18	0	16	0	14

Source: Crime in India, 2010

Table 6: Institutional Alternatives

STATES				
	Police			
	Community policing	Ranking	Informal Justice System	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	1	1	1	1
Arunachal Pradesh	0	14	0	12
Assam	1	1	1	1
Bihar	0	14	0	12
Chattisgarh	1	1	1	1
Goa	0	14	0	12
Gujarat	0	14	0	12
Haryana	0	14	0	12
Himachal Pradesh	1	1	1	1
Jammu and Kashmir	0	14	0	12
Jharkhand	0	14	0	12
Karnataka	1	1	0	12
Kerala	0	14	1	1
Madhya Pradesh	1	1	1	1
Maharashtra	1	1	0	12
Manipur	0	14	0	12
Meghalaya	0	14	1	1
Mizoram	0	14	0	12
Nagaland	0	14	0	12
Orissa	0	14	0	12
Punjab	1	1	0	12
Rajasthan	1	1	1	1
Sikkim	0	14	0	12
Tamil Nadu	1	1	1	1
Tripura	0	14	0	12
Uttar Pradesh	0	14	0	12
Uttranchal	0	14	0	12
West Bengal	1	1	1	1
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	0	14	0	12
UT Chandigarh	1	1	0	12
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	0	14	0	12
UT Daman and Diu	0	14	0	12
UT Delhi	1	1	1	1
UT Lakshadweep	0	14	0	12
UT Pondicherry	0	14	0	12

Source: Crime in India, 2010

**Table 7: Existing status index of performance of police in different states
2010**

State	Accessi ility and efficienc y of police	Rank	Level of physical security	Rank	Rights of populatio n affected by crime	Rank	Commit ment to justice	Rank	Institutio nal alternativ es	Rank	Composi te Index	Rank
Andhra Pradesh	50.5	13	42.5	34	49.2	22	50.3	21	63.7	1	51.2	10
Arunachal Pradesh	51.4	11	46.6	27	48.9	23	42.4	31	42.9	16	46.4	35
Assam	41.8	34	49.8	18	51.9	9	59.1	1	63.7	1	53.2	4
Bihar	43.6	32	52.7	9	51.8	11	55.2	6	42.9	16	49.2	20
Chattisgarh	52.2	6	43.9	32	48.1	27	50.5	19	63.7	1	51.7	8
Goa	49.0	19	50.3	17	64.9	2	47.1	22	42.9	16	50.8	12
Gujarat	50.2	14	51.4	13	51.1	19	55.1	7	42.9	16	50.1	14
Haryana	48.5	22	48.8	21	49.8	21	47.1	22	42.9	16	47.4	29
Himachal Pradesh	49.8	16	51.4	14	48.8	24	46.5	27	63.7	1	52.0	7
Jammu and Kashmir	51.7	7	52.3	11	51.4	16	51.0	17	42.9	16	49.9	15
Jharkhand	46.9	28	53.0	7	46.4	29	46.6	26	42.9	16	47.2	32
Karnataka	50.1	15	47.4	26	51.5	15	59.1	1	53.1	12	52.2	6
Kerala	49.1	18	40.0	35	38.6	34	55.1	7	53.5	10	47.3	30
Madhya Pradesh	53.8	3	44.4	30	29.1	35	55.0	10	63.7	1	49.2	22
Maharashtra	47.7	24	49.4	20	48.5	26	59.1	1	53.1	12	51.6	9
Manipur	42.0	33	55.9	5	56.6	3	50.5	19	42.9	16	49.6	16
Meghalaya	45.9	29	55.5	6	51.9	7	47.1	22	53.5	10	50.8	13
Mizoram	54.8	1	49.4	19	51.9	8	47.1	22	42.9	16	49.2	21
Nagaland	47.1	27	59.1	2	76.9	1	42.6	28	42.9	16	53.7	3
Orissa	48.7	20	51.0	15	51.8	12	51.0	17	42.9	16	49.1	23
Punjab	48.5	21	53.0	8	45.4	30	55.1	7	53.1	12	51.0	11
Rajasthan	51.6	8	42.9	33	48.7	25	59.1	1	63.7	1	53.2	5
Sikkim	51.6	9	56.7	4	51.0	20	42.4	31	42.9	16	48.9	24
Tamil Nadu	51.5	10	47.6	24	51.4	17	54.4	11	63.7	1	53.7	2
Tripura	53.0	4	48.6	22	51.7	13	51.2	13	42.9	16	49.5	18
Uttar Pradesh	49.5	17	50.7	16	41.0	32	54.4	11	42.9	16	47.7	28
Uttaranchal	50.5	12	48.6	23	47.1	28	51.1	15	42.9	16	48.0	26
West Bengal	43.7	31	52.3	10	51.9	10	59.1	1	63.7	1	54.1	1
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	54.3	2	44.3	31	51.1	18	42.6	28	42.9	16	47.0	34
UT Chandigarh	48.3	23	47.5	25	42.9	31	51.2	13	53.1	12	48.6	25
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	45.2	30	52.1	12	56.6	3	42.6	28	42.9	16	47.9	27
UT Daman and Diu	40.8	35	57.0	3	56.6	3	37.9	34	42.9	16	47.0	33
UT Delhi	47.1	26	44.5	29	40.5	33	51.1	15	63.7	1	49.4	19
UT Lakshadweep	47.2	25	62.8	1	56.6	3	37.9	34	42.9	16	49.5	17
UT Pondicherry	52.9	5	46.5	28	51.7	14	42.4	31	42.9	16	47.3	31

Source: Crime in India, 2010

Table 8: State-wise comparison of efficiency and Crime Rate

States/UT	Efficiency T Score	Ranking	Total crime rate per lakh population	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	60.92	2	59.47	5
Arunachal Pradesh	45.91	28	45.02	21
Assam	44.67	30	43.83	26
Bihar	39.80	33	43.06	30
Chhattisgarh	56.11	6	68.72	3
Goa	50.41	18	49.62	12
Gujarat	46.39	26	52.48	9
Haryana	51.70	14	46.88	16
Himachal Pradesh	49.15	19	46.36	18
Jammu and Kashmir	47.05	25	44.92	22
Jharkhand	38.37	34	43.37	29
Karnataka	48.63	20	45.86	19
Kerala	52.90	12	51.48	11
Madhya Pradesh	54.56	8	54.83	6
Maharashtra	44.27	31	47.64	15
Manipur	38.17	35	43.43	28
Meghalaya	40.61	32	42.19	33
Mizoram	58.10	3	48.48	14
Nagaland	56.60	5	41.89	35
Orissa	47.83	23	44.16	24
Punjab	51.54	15	45.09	20
Rajasthan	53.77	9	46.71	17
Sikkim	50.86	16	43.98	25
Tamil Nadu	57.27	4	64.95	4
Tripura	48.26	22	42.72	31
Uttar Pradesh	53.54	10	54.64	7
Uttanchal	55.90	7	74.29	2
West Bengal	47.37	24	42.35	32
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	53.44	11	86.44	1
UT Chandigarh	50.83	17	49.36	13
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	48.47	21	44.63	23
UT Daman and Diu	45.44	29	43.56	27
UT Delhi	46.37	27	52.36	10
UT Lakshadweep	52.22	13	42.04	34
UT Pondicherry	61.53	1	53.20	8
India	51.15		50.77	

Source: Crime in India 2005

Co-relations between efficiency and total crime			
		Efficiency	Total Crime
Pearson Correlation	Efficiency	1.000	0.505**
	Total Crime	0.505**	1.000
Note: Efficiency is computed by taking the sum of disposal rates, charge sheeting rates, conviction rates, occupancy rates, average time taken for trials in courts and the average time spent by under trials in prisons.			

Table 9: State-wise comparison between staff representation and efficiency

State-wise comparison between staff representation and efficiency				
States / UT	Efficiency T Score	Ranking	Staff rep T Score	Ranking
Andhra Pradesh	60.92	2	51.76	11
Arunachal Pradesh	45.91	28	49.77	18
Assam	44.67	30	47.19	26
Bihar	39.80	33	53.51	5
Chhattisgarh	56.11	6	47.02	27
Goa	50.41	18	50.55	15
Gujarat	46.39	26	49.23	21
Haryana	51.70	14	49.71	19
Himachal Pradesh	49.15	19	52.54	8
Jammu and Kashmir	47.05	25	47.50	25
Jharkhand	38.37	34	46.45	30
Karnataka	48.63	20	52.68	7
Kerala	52.90	12	52.08	10
Madhya Pradesh	54.56	8	45.51	32
Maharashtra	44.27	31	47.66	23
Manipur	38.17	35	55.54	3
Meghalaya	40.61	32	46.63	29
Mizoram	58.10	3	52.24	9
Nagaland	56.60	5	53.42	6
Orissa	47.83	23	50.44	16
Punjab	51.54	15	44.74	33
Rajasthan	53.77	9	46.96	28
Sikkim	50.86	16	51.00	13
Tamil Nadu	57.27	4	62.63	1
Tripura	48.26	22	46.05	31
Uttar Pradesh	53.54	10	44.38	34
Uttanchal	55.90	7	48.50	22
West Bengal	47.37	24	43.71	35
UT Andaman & Nicobar Islands	53.44	11	57.26	2
UT Chandigarh	50.83	17	50.07	17
UT Dadar and Nagar Haveli	48.47	21	51.20	12
UT Daman and Diu	45.44	29	53.52	4
UT Delhi	46.37	27	47.52	24
UT Lakshadweep	52.22	13	49.52	20
UT Pondicherry	61.53	1	50.67	14

Source: Crime in India 2005

Note: Efficiency is computed by taking the sum of disposal rates, charge-sheeting rates, conviction rates, occupancy rates, average time taken for trials in courts, average time taken for undertrials in prisons and staff representation.

Co-relations between staff representation and total crime			
		Staff representation	Total crime
Pearson Correlation	Staff Representation	1.000	0.288
	Total Crime	0.288	1.000

Table-10
District Wise Ratio of Petty Crime / Heinous Crime of (Only IPC) for Five Years

RATIO (PETTY CRIME / MAJOR CRIME)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009*	Average Ratio of Last Five Years	Performance Quartile
ROPAR	1.20	1.53	1.00	1.04	0.46	1.05	Good
S.A.S. NAGAR	1.17	1.34	0.77	0.64	0.20	0.82	
PATIALA	0.86	0.90	0.89	0.82	0.48	0.79	
GURDASPUR	1.05	1.10	0.68	0.62	0.36	0.76	
SANGRUR	0.62	0.72	0.80	0.86	0.53	0.71	
LUDHIANA	0.82	0.71	0.71	0.67	0.47	0.68	Satisfactory
BARNALA	0.68	0.72	0.76	0.62	0.40	0.63	
F.G. SAHIB	0.90	0.69	0.53	0.73	0.29	0.63	
HOSHIARPUR	0.74	0.65	0.66	0.64	0.27	0.59	
BATHINDA	0.45	0.58	0.61	0.61	0.48	0.55	
FARIDKOT	0.47	0.62	0.56	0.54	0.46	0.53	Moderate
MANSA	0.45	0.53	0.61	0.48	0.57	0.53	
AMRITSAR	0.55	0.46	0.45	0.44	0.40	0.46	
TARN TARAN	0.47	0.46	0.49	0.48	0.33	0.45	
KAPURTHALA	0.56	0.47	0.50	0.38	0.30	0.44	Unsatisfactory
MOGA	0.46	0.46	0.44	0.48	0.34	0.44	
FEROZEPUR	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.49	0.34	0.44	
JALANDHAR	0.52	0.43	0.43	0.45	0.34	0.43	
MUKTSAR	0.42	0.41	0.53	0.46	0.33	0.43	
NAWAN SHEHAR	0.39	0.48	0.50	0.48	0.22	0.42	
PUNJAB	0.67	0.66	0.61	0.59	0.40	0.59	

SOURCE: For 2005 to 2008 PUNJAB POLICE HEADQUARTER

SOURCE: For 2009 Crime in India 2009

GRP DATA INCLUDED IN PUNJAB

Q1 0.44

POLICE DISTRICT MERGED

Q2 0.54

Q3 0.68

Table-11
Disposal of IPC Crime Cases by Courts

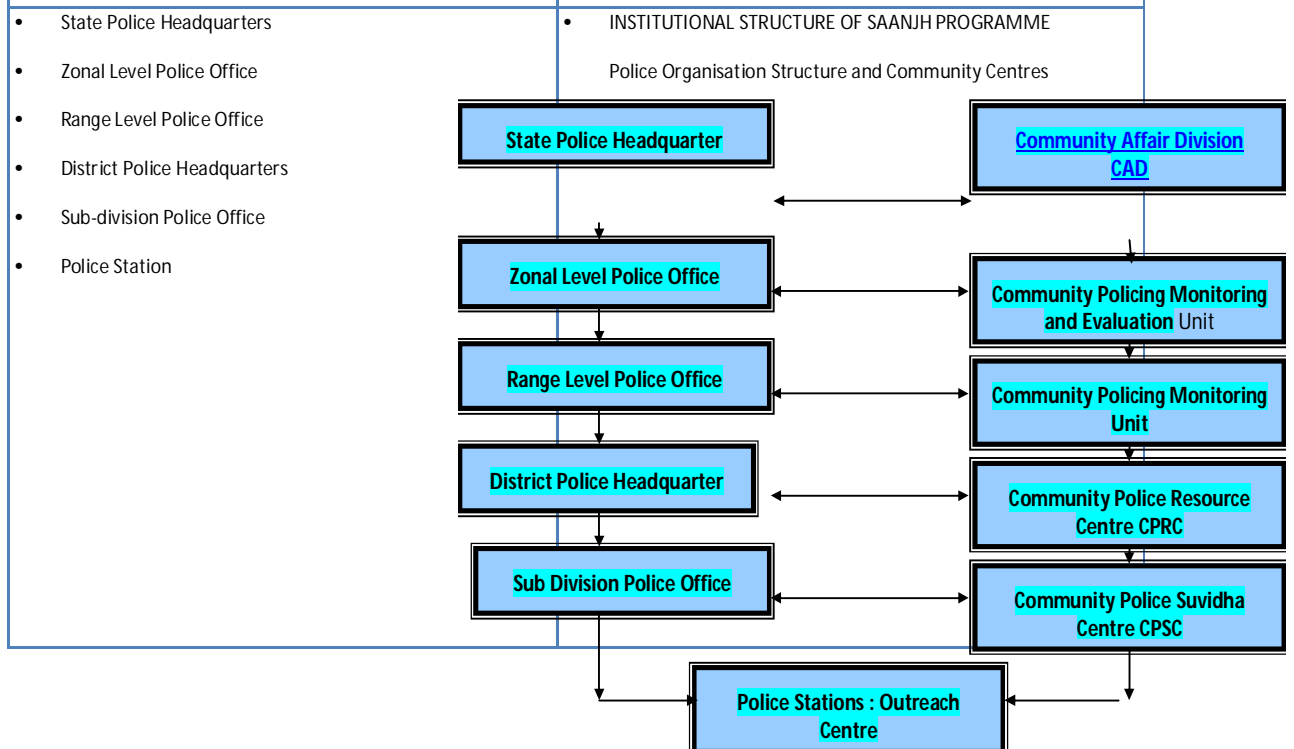
			No of cases		Percentage of	
S.NO.	YEAR	Total No. of cases for Trial (including Pending Cases)	Tried	Convicted	Trial Completed [(Col. 4 / Col.3) X 100]	Conviction [(Col. 5 / Col. 4) X 100]
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	1961	8,00,784	2,42,592	1,57,318	30.3	64.8
2	1971	9,43,394	3,01,869	1,87,072	32	62
3	1981	21,11,791	5,05,412	2,65,531	23.9	52.5
4	1991	39,64,610	6,67,340	3,19,157	16.8	47.8
5	2001	62,21,034	9,31,892	3,80,504	15	40.8
6	2002	64,64,748	9,81,393	3,98,830	15.2	40.6
7	2003	65,77,778	9,59,567	3,84,887	14.6	40.1
8	2004	67,68,713	9,57,311	4,06,621	14.1	42.5
9	2005	69,91,508	10,13,240	4,30,091	14.5	42.4
10	2006	71,92,451	10,44,120	4,47,516	14.5	42.9
11	2007	74,73,521	10,25,689	4,33,929	13.7	42.3
12	2008	78,33,842	10,52,623	4,48,475	13.4	42.6
13	2009	81,30,053	10,25,781	4,27,655	12.6	41.7
14	2010	85,49,655	11,41,031	4,64,128	13.3	40.7

* Excluding withdrawn/compounded cases.

Crime in India 2010

INSTITUTIONALISATION OF COMMUNITY POLICING

Existing	Implemented
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ad-hoc in nature in the shape of programmes and schemes like neighborhood watch scheme, Village Defence Committees and Peace Committees etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As a philosophy and not as a programme "In this philosophy the police and community collaborates with each other with a view to identify the needs and problems of community and jointly work towards finding solutions to the community problems while meeting the aspirations of the community" <p>Newly created community police centers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ SAANJH KENDER/CPRC (Community Policing Resource Centre) at the district level ✓ SAANJH KENDER/CPSC (Community Policing Suvidha Centre) at sub division level and ✓ SAANJH KENDER/PSOC (Police Station Outreach Centre) at Police Station level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Service delivery to the common public Dispute/conflict resolution mechanism Committees IT platform



ENGAGED GOVERNANCE IN POLICE

Existing	Implemented
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spatial disconnect • Ad-hoc and non-interactive police-community relationship, particularly in post-terrorism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Redefined space with dignified access <p>Functions and activities to be performed by the CPRC</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grievance Redressal Unit • Community Services cum Information Unit <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – NRIs & Foreigner Counter – Crime Information Counter – Verification and Permission Counter – RTI Counter – Traffic Management and Information Counter • Legal Aid and Victim Relief Unit • Sensitisation and Dispute Resolution Unit <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Gender Dispute Resolution Cell – Economic Dispute Resolution Cell – Social and Political Conflict Resolution Cell <p>District Level Committees</p> <p>Functions and activities to be performed by the CPSC</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community Services cum Information Unit.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NRIs and Foreigner Counter. • Gender Dispute Resolution Unit. <p>Sub-division level committee</p> <p>Functions and activities to be performed by the PSOC</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community Services and Information Unit • Gender Dispute and Social Conflict Resolution Unit <p>Thana level committee</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-conducive structure, procedures and cumbersome processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedures simplified and integrative structure institutionalised • Statutory provision in The Punjab Police Act 2007 • Integrated into State Plan and Police Budget • Registered in Societies Act
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Police Management system not transparent less accountable and efficient 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tenure fixed (two years) • Performance based on appraisal report • Compulsory training • No deployment for any other duty • Fixed hours of work
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-transparent control on police conduct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening of internal controls to monitor police conduct. • Receipt of complaints against police misconduct

	<p>in CPC.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Action taken on these complaints to be placed before the CPC committees.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Verification including documents like passport, character, arms license, etc. testimonies of neighbour, panchayat member, municipal commission are required 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In place of testimonies self-declarations and declarations by any two persons of the area, supported by documents. Accepted and forward to concerned agencies for approval.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Police clearance certificate, issue of residence permits and visa extension for foreigners through SSP Office 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All these cases to be dealt with district CPRC and action taken will be notified online.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reporting of missing persons, missing articles at the police station – not transparent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Missing persons report to be entertained at CPC, available online, SMS and counter of CPC. Weekly updates available.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Official Members

- SP (HQ) cum Community Affairs, In-charge CPRC
- District Health Officer/ Civil Surgeon
- District Education Officer
- District Program Officer (Department of Social Security and Development of Women and Child)
- District Welfare Officer (Department of Welfare of BC and SC)
- District Red Cross Officer
- Executive Officer of City Council

Non-Official Members

- Representatives of NGOs
- Academicians from each of following stream
 - Law
 - Human rights (women and children rights)
 - Sociology
- Principals of Colleges
- Representatives of any active trade union
- At least 4 members shall be women
- These members shall be for 2 years membership extendable up to three years

Staffing of CPSC

- Incharge CPSC: Senior Community Officer (Inspector)
- Receptionist-1
- Computer Operators-3
- Record Keeper-1

Total = (Incharge+5)

Staffing of PSOC


- Incharge: Community Affair Officer (ASI)
- Receptionist -1
- Computer Operators-2

Total = (Incharge+3)

Functions of PSOC

- Online facilities shall be provided to track the complaints, status of FIR, investigation, charge-sheeting etc.
- Counselling for resolution of domestic violence.
- Community service centres for verification, crime prevention and other services.
- Formation of Community Liaison Groups (CLG)

Forms to be made available to public to avail services – Some sample

 "SAANJH"		COMPLAINT FORM ਸ਼ਿਕਾਇਤ / ਫਰਿਆਦ ਫਾਰਮ	
<small>PROTECTION PARTNERSHIP PEACE</small>		CPRC/CPSC/PSOC <small>(Pl. Fill Name of Distt./Sub Division/Police Station above)</small> <small>(ਕਿਪਾ ਕਰਕੇ ਜਿਲ੍ਹਾ / ਸਬ ਡਵੀਜ਼ਨ / ਥਾਣੇ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ ਉਪਰ ਭਰੋ)</small>	
UNIQUE TOKEN NO.		DATED	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">D</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">D</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">M</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">M</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">Y</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">Y</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">Y</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 15px; height: 15px; text-align: center;">Y</div> </div>
COMPLAINANT NAME _____		SEX : M/F _____	
ਬੇਨਤੀ ਕਰਤਾ			
S/O, D/O, W/O _____			
ਪਿਤਾ/ਪਤੀ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ			
ADDRESS _____	DISTT. _____	P.S. _____	
ਪਤਾ _____	ਜ਼ਿਲ੍ਹਾ _____	ਥਾਣਾ _____	
MOHALLA/VILL. _____	ST. NO. _____	H.NO. _____	
ਮੁਹੱਲਾ/ਪਿੰਡ _____	ਗਲੀ ਨੰ _____	ਮਕਾਨ ਨੰ _____	
PH. NO. _____	MOBILE NO. _____		
ਫੋਨ _____	ਮੋਬਾਇਲ ਨੰ _____		
EMAIL _____			
ਈਮੇਲ _____			
SUBJECT _____			
ਵਿਸ਼ਾ _____			

POLICE STATION _____			
ਥਾਣਾ _____			
AGAINST NAME1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____			
ਬਰਖਿਲਾਫ _____			
S/O, D/O, W/O _____			
ਪਿਤਾ/ਪਤੀ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ _____			
ADDRESS _____			
ਪਤਾ _____			

ANY OTHER DETAIL _____			
ਕੋਈ ਹੋਰ ਵੇਰਵਾ _____			

<small>ਨੋਟ : ਸ਼ਿਕਾਇਤ ਕਰਤਾ ਵੱਲੋਂ ਦਿੱਤੀ ਗਈ ਸ਼ਿਕਾਇਤ ਦੇ ਨਾਲ ਇਹ ਫਾਰਮ ਭਰਵਾ ਕੇ ਨੱਥੀ ਕੀਤਾ ਜਾਵੇ । For Office use only</small>			
Name : _____ Designation : _____ Belt No. : _____		Diary No. _____ Date _____ Mark to : _____	
		Signature of Applicant _____	



PROTECTION PARTNERSHIP PEACE

CPRC/CPSC/PSOC

(Pl. Fill Name of Distt./Sub Division/Police Station above)
(ਕ੍ਰਿਪਾ ਕਰਕੇ ਜਿਲ੍ਹਾ/ਸਬ ਡਵੀਜ਼ਨ/ਥਾਣੇ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ ਉਪਰ ਭਰੋ)

"SAANJH"

APPLICATION FOR COPY OF
FIRST INFORMATION REPORT (FIR)
ਐਫ.ਆਈ.ਆਰ ਦੀ ਨਕਲ ਲਈ ਬਿਨੈ ਪੱਤਰ

UNIQUE TOKEN NO. _____

DATED

D	D	M	M	Y	Y	Y	Y
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

POLICE STATION _____
ਥਾਣਾ

DISTRICT _____
ਜਿਲ੍ਹਾ

FIR NO. & DATE _____ YEAR _____ U/S _____
ਐਫ.ਆਈ.ਆਰ ਨੰ. ਅਤੇ ਮਿਤੀ ਸਾਲ ਦਫਾ

COMPLAINANT NAME _____
ਸ਼ਿਕਾਇਤ ਕਰਤਾ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ

S/O, D/O, W/O _____
ਪਿਤਾ/ਪਤੀ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ

ADDRESS STATE _____ DISTT. _____ P.S. _____
ਪਤਾ ਰਾਜ ਜਿਲ੍ਹਾ ਥਾਣਾ

MOHALLA/VILL. _____ ST. NO. _____ H.NO. _____
ਮੁਹੱਲਾ/ਪਿੰਡ ਗਲੀ ਨੰ ਮਕਾਨ ਨੰ

PH. NO. _____ MOBILE NO. _____
ਫੋਨ ਮੋਬਾਇਲ ਨੰ.

ACCUSED NAME 1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____
ਦੋਸ਼ੀ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ

S/O, D/O, W/O _____
ਪਿਤਾ/ਪਤੀ ਦਾ ਨਾਮ

ADDRESS _____
ਪਤਾ

Note : Applicant must show his/her photo identity proof to get copy of F.I.R.
ਨੋਟ : ਐਫ.ਆਈ.ਆਰ ਦੀ ਨਕਲ ਹਾਸਿਲ ਕਰਨ ਲਈ ਬੇਨਤੀ ਕਰਤਾ ਦਾ ਪਹਿਚਾਣ ਪੱਤਰ ਜ਼ਰੂਰੀ ਹੈ।

Name of Applicant _____

Address _____

Ph. No. _____

Mobile No. _____

For Office use only

Name :	Diary No.
Designation :	Date
Belt No. :	

Signature of Applicant

RIGHT TO SERVICE ACT FOR POLICE SERVICES

Name of Service	Time
Registration of Foreigners on their arrival and departure	Immediate
Extension of Residential permit of Foreigners	5 Days
Copy of FIR or DDR	Immediate/OnLine
NOC for use of loud speakers	5 Days
NOC for fairs/ Melas /Exhibitions/sponsored Events etc.	5 Days
Stranger Verification (other District/State)	5 Days
Tenant/Servant Verification (if resident of local area)	5 Days
Tenant/Servant Verification (if resident of other District/State)	5 Days
Other verification related services	30 Days
Copy of untraced report in road accident cases.	45 Days
Copy of untraced report in cases pertaining to stolen vehicles.	45 Days
Copy of untraced report in theft cases	60 Days
NOC for pre-owned vehicles	5 Days
Service verification	10 Days
Character verification	10 Days
Verification for renewal of Arms License.	15 Days
NOC for issuance/renewal of License of Arms Dealers.	15 Days
Issuance of NOC for setting up of Petrol Pump, Cinema Hall etc.	15 Days
Passport verification	21 Days
Verification of fresh Arms license	30 Days

ENGAGED GOVERNANCE THROUGH COMMUNITY POLICING

System of Reporting Complaints

EXISTING	IMPLEMENTED	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
Inconsistency in reporting complaints and recording FIRs	Online registration of complaints Issuance of unique number for follow up Status of progress online/ SMS/visitors enquiry counters	Reduction in harassment and corruption Basis for grievance redressal
Performance is measured on the number of complaints received	Performance to be measured as per ratio between petty crimes and heinous crimes	Increase the confidence of the people in Police
Non-reporting of complaints	For gender-related complaints a non-formal justice delivery system has been institutionalised in CPC	Non-stigmatised redressal of domestic violence, dowry and other gender-related cases
Disproportionate allocation of staff in police stations. Districts with disproportionate police-population	Redeployment of staff as per need of the area. Dedicated team for investigation work in police station. One inspector to be dedicated for delivery of police services and community	Quality of investigation to be improved

ratio have an unsatisfactory performance index	policing work.	
Diversity representation in police is inadequate	Five-year plan to increase to 10 per cent women representation in total civil and armed police strength	Promote gender justice

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