



Virtual University of Pakistan
FEDERAL GOVERNMENT UNIVERSITY

COURSE HANDOUTS

Social Policy and Governance

SOC601

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Lesson 01**WHAT IS POLICY?**
(Topic 001-005)**Topic 001: What is a Policy?****Policy:**

A principle or a system of principles that can guide action or lower level (day-to-day) decision-making system (usually more than a few rules) usually not a short term higher level than commands experienced by individuals & families. They do not take part in making of policies

g xq"q'u" —ysyu' J"U".u"►q"'"xu'"sq.'r u"uu."q' "qy' "—"w-q'3'—'k'q'u' u..': of what ought to happen. As goals, intentions and ideas, policies can be found in the form of official government policy (legislation, or the guidelines that govern how laws should be put into operation). The ideas and proposals put forward in manifestos and glossy leaflets by the Conservative, Labour, Liberal Democrat and other political parties are examples of policies as broad ideas and stirring w-q'3[€'yt u'w-,u"'. u.'3q's—' -q.:' "—"q.!'—'wq.y q'y... 'k'q'u' u..':—v'—ys'"'.!k—' u'xy.w' for instance, an equal opportunity policy is also an example of policy expressing ideas about what ought to happen.

Policies are everywhere, here are few examples:

IMF or government economic policies

S—,u"'. u..': "u"►—ysyu' Ee 't €" ut y€' "—v'y..''Es'y...

g q' q'" "—olicy: lower profit margins, diversity

Wq'qsy'P•us''ys"/WP0 "—ys'"—v'. :.'u•us''ysy'"—"q'uq' "►xu'u"—q'' u..': 'q'u'—►

Institute of Chartered Accountant of Pakistan: CA policies/regulations

College of Physicians and Surgeons: MCPS & FCPS

Topic 002: Why We Need Plans And Policies?

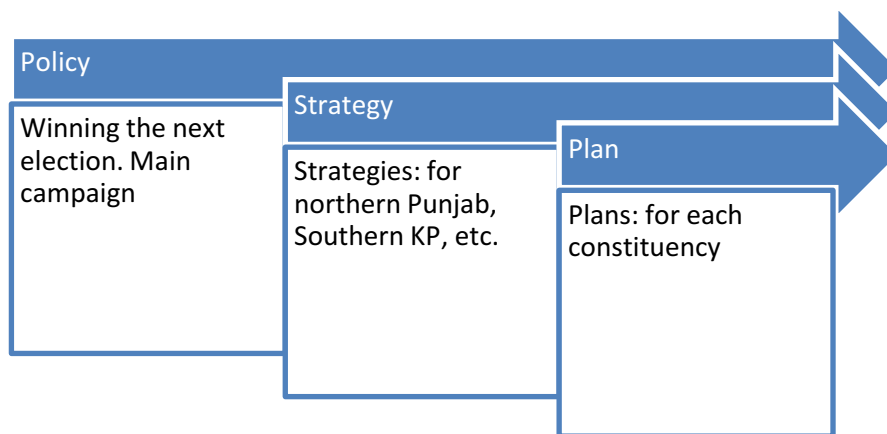
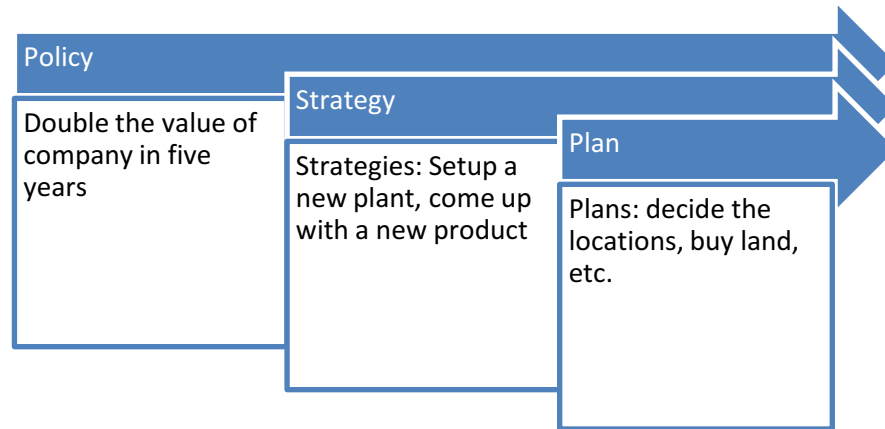
Plans, strategies & policies

Not interchangeable but different

A policy which frames the principles

A strategy devised according to the policy

A detailed plan to achieve the strategy



Why we need policies

Long term objectives
 To achieve them, thousands of people have to work for years
 Leadership cannot make all decisions
 Leadership may change, objectives and policies may not
 P' q' —uE] qéy'q... 'v-'uyw.!:—ys"
 Kashmir, India, China, CPEC, US, etc.

Topic 003: Policy Cycle

Process through which an issue becomes a policy and is implemented and Evaluated

Agenda setting

- Emerging issues
- Foresight
- Based on your policies

Policy formulation

- Data sources and collection
- Debates and discussion
- Coming up with options

Policy adoption

- Pros and cons of options
- Selection of one or two options

Policy implementation

- Making of strategies
- Making plans
- Actions

Evaluation

- Results: outputs and outcomes
- Feedback
- Evaluating efficiency & effectiveness

Topic 004: Public Policies, Business Policies and Individual Plans***Public policies***

- Not all policies are public policies
- Public policies are made by governments
- Local, provincial and federal

Business policies

Growth policy
 HR policy
 Accounting policy (cash/accrual)
 Tax policy (how to minimize?) Panama
 Market segmentation policy
 Location policy
 Safety policy
 Consumer/customer policy

Individual plans

What do want to be
 What type of education and experience
 What type of partner you like?
 What are your plans about your health/appearance?
 Fit, fat or just healthy
 Exercise daily?
 Avoid junk food?

Topic 005: Diverse Public Policies: Examples***Foreign policy***

Relations with the great powers
 Relations with India
 Relations with the Muslim world
 Relations with our benefactors

Fiscal policy

Healthy balance between revenues & expenditures
 Increase our revenues
 Decrease our expenditures
 Get loans to fund the deficit, if any

Monetary policy

Control of the money supply
 Interest rate or inflation rate
 cMj '"" -.u'q'""policy committee

Water policy

Balancing demand and supply of water
 Pakistan water scarce country
 Decrease wastage & new additions

Agriculture policy

What type of crops?

Imports, exports, taxes, etc.
Inputs to agriculture: water, fertilizer, electricity, seeds
Research

Lesson 02**WHAT IS SOCIAL POLICY? IMPORTANCE OF STUDYING SOCIAL POLICY**
(Topic 006-011)**Topic 006: What is Social Policy?**

Social policy is the study of the social services and the welfare state. The field of study has grown over time, and it stretches rather more widely than at might first appear, but the social services are where the subject began, and they are still at the core of what the subject is about. The social services are mainly understood to include social security, housing, health, social work and education 'xu" Mjw'Ry,u " along with others which are like social services, including employment, prisons, legal services or drains. (Spicker, 1995) The term social policy is not only used to refer to an academic discipline and its study, however, it is also used to refer to social action in the real world. Social policy is the term used to describe actions aimed at promoting well being; it is also the term used to denote the academic study of such actions. (Alcock, 1997).

Social policy is a set of public policies that are related to the provision of social services

It is the study of the social services and the welfare state

Every policy of the government can be linked to social needs/ services

Fiscal policy

Monetary policy

Foreign policy

Primary social policies

Education policy

Health policy

Housing policy

Employment policy

Gender policy

Criminal Justice policy

Family policy

Social security policy

Source: Introducing Social Policy by Alcock et. al (2008)

Social policy discipline

Interdisciplinary
Late arrival
Primarily based on sociology but
Theories, techniques and skills of others

Topic 007: Scope of Social Policy

"

- Xyéu"q" qw-yu'r y't 3y" 'uq' "-'xu'"disciplines research and theories
- Many economists, political scientists, etc. are actually studying social policy

Other disciplines

- Anthropology: Study of kinship, family and household composition
- Geography: Insights into the spatial patterns of the distribution of services e.g. medicine, crime
- Philosophy: ethical questions, justification for choosing one kind of policy rather than another
- Psychology: studying individual needs, personal perceptions towards welfare services
- Statistics: statistical methods and techniques e.g. regression analysis
- Biology: defining family, living conditions, gender concerns

- History: the social policies through time, comparisons
- Political economy: nexus of politics and economy that helps/hinders social policies

Vast scope

Expertise in all social policies not possible
 Experts and scholars choose one area to specialize
 Health or education or housing policy specialists

U'y"q" ' qw-yu "'Erzus"' a discipline that has taken bright and sparkling treasures from other disciplines such as economics, philosophy, politics and sociology. For this reason social policy is sometimes seen as an interdisciplinary subject rather than an academic discipline in its own right. As argued later, however, there is a strong case for viewing social policy as a discipline. Like the ' qw-yu "'u' '3"-syq"-ys" ' "r q' u"s-. 'qy. :."-'xu" " -uq" " -v" y' t -' 3'r € "' -syq"-ys" has also developed insights, theories and empirical research of its own. Like any other discipline, social policy employs a distinctive body of theory that individual scholars and researchers have used to test hypotheses about the impact of '-syq"-ysyu' "-. :. -u -u "y, u' s'dx"-€wx" xu" 'Et "' -v" -syq" policy as a discipline, therefore, you will gain a view of the world that is distinctly different from, but related to, the perspectives of sociology, politics and the other social sciences.

Topic 008-009: Development of Social Policy as a Subject-I&II

Concern about questions of social policy grew throughout the nineteenth century. For instance, there was mounting concern about poverty and the squalid conditions that many people had to live in at that time, concern about child labour in mills, factories and mines, and concern about lack of literacy and the threatening power of the uneducated masses. As the end of the nineteenth century neared, it became increasingly clear to a growing number of reformers that government would have to play a much larger role than before in dealing with the social problems of the day. Although some of this concern was motivated by genuine and progressive aims to improve social conditions for ordinary people, it was mixed with other more controlling and reactionary motivations.

The work of those who led the Charity Organisation Society (COS) is a good example of this mix of motivations and aims. The COS, set up to coordinate charitable efforts and to eliminate "r u' " -v'sxq'y'yu' "t € -ysq'y. w'-. u'q. -xu" "►"ž3r usq' u'q'xyw" influential advisory body in late Victorian and early twentieth-century Britain. In general, the COS and those who shared similar opinions were looking for a more efficient way of managing the existing system of poverty relief, rather than a radical overhaul of social policy and the introduction of universal state benefits. The COS had pioneered the development of a new kind of occupation the social caseworker who was often a volunteer and often a (middle- or upper-s-q' '0'►' q. s' c-syq" ►"žu" 3'q' they gradually came to be known, were responsible for investigating the needs of poor q' y'yu' "q. t. "v-"vy. t. y. w' -€"►xu'xu" "xu"►u' t u' u", y. w "sq' u' s'dxu' u'►q' "w'uq"s-. su?... q' -. w"x-u"►x-"q. 'sxq'y'yu' "q" "xu"y' u" xq" ". -"-. u"►x-"►q' " € . t. u' u", y. w "x-€t receive any help, because undeserved help would compound the character faults that were then thought to cause poverty and unemployment: laziness, ignorance, immoral behavior and dependence.

Social work in its early days was arguably more concerned with social control and with trying to ' qéu"xu"—" "u' -us'qr •u "xq. :.►y'x"xu- yng them on their own terms. But the very fact that

social casework was thought necessary did succeed in bringing the problems of poverty and social inequality to the attention of middle-class volunteers and opinion-formers on a scale that had never been seen before.

At the same time, journalists, radical politicians and other commentators were writing about the appalling conditions in which many British people lived. They gave first-hand accounts and vivid descriptions of slum life that were as shocking to 'u'-as'qr •u society as reports of other s€•€'u'q. t. "►q'€'—v'ywu"q' —.w"xu" 'q,qwu' 'y.'.u►'€' conquered parts of the Empire.

As a result of both social casework investigation and journalistic reports, philanthropists began to provide funds for research on poverty and social problems as well as for schemes to help the —'t y'us'•'5[.u"vq' —€' "u' q' —u"—v"xy"►q' "cuur—x' "b—►.":u' ' survey of poverty in York in 1901, *Poverty: A Study of Town Life* (discussed by Fraser 1984: 136–7). It showed that an alarminw'€"xyw" —" —"y.—v'i —'é "—€•q'y.—'9C'—u'"su.'0 was then living below subsistence •u,u•5b—►.":u' "€",u'3'►xysx"►q' "v—•—►ut "r "—'xu" Rowntree investigations after the First World War, is a prime example of the way in which the social conscience of leading manufacturing firms (in this case, the well-known chocolate and cocoa-processing firm) was translated into social research.

It is about this time — the beginning of the twentieth century — that the term '—sy—•—w' "r uwq.":—" gain currency as a way of summing up this scientific, statistical approach to understanding social problems. Early sociology, reflecting as it did the passion for collecting facts and statistics, came '—"r u'é. :.►.":q' " r •€u"r —é"—sy—•—w' 3'rusq€'u it was based so heavily on official reports and population censuses (published in blue covers).

All this rapidly accumulating knowledge about social conditions and social problems fostered the development of new kinds of training courses and university degrees in social work. In the 'u'q'y,u'€" .u►' ' €..ysy-q•' 'ut r'y'sé "€..y,u'y'yu'"—v'xu"y' u3'€sx"q' Birmingham, and in the newly-established London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE), three important strands of learning and training were fused together. These were social work, sociology and social administration, the last being the study of local and central government institutions, and of the framework in which services to the poor and needy were to be delivered.

The early roots of the subject of social policy (or its forerunner, social administration) were therefore entwined inextricably with practical action (social work) and research (sociology). Later, as sociology developed a more independent identity, sociologists began to deplore the idea of their subject being a problem-focused or policy-oriented discipline. Sociology became more theoretical in its concerns, though some sociologists 'u'qy."q..y.'u'u' "y.:. "uq•"►—"t "q. t. "—•ys'" issues.

The main aim of sociology, however, is to discover knowledge about society for its own sake. The main aim in social policy is to research the impact of social policies on people and society. dx€' "q'eu'"€u' 'y.—'v—"—syq•"—ys'"y'3' ►xq't ywu'u. su't —u' "q"—ys'" ' qéuJ "L" "xu"q' u"y' u3' the subject of social policy raises other questions, focusing upon how policies develop, why certain policies are chosen over others and what the economic, political and social implications of policies are.

Students of social policy were increasingly exposed to a range of critiques of the welfare state and of the traditional welfare values that had been contained in the old subject of social administration.

Topic 010: Structure of the Course: Theoretical Foundations

Three parts of the course

1. Theoretical foundations: 1st part: understand the basis of social policy
2. Social Policy development and implementation in Pakistan: 2nd part: understand the environment & implementation of policies in Pakistan
3. Individual social policies: 3rd part: Detailed look some social policies

Theoretical foundations

Ethical principles

Equality
Equity
Freedom
Justice
Needs
Wants
Satisfaction
Opportunities & capabilities
Liberalism
Utilitarianism
Intersection of these principles
Not always possible to achieve all

Historical development of welfare state in England

Why England and where is England?
Poor law reform
Education policy reform
Health policy reform
Development of welfare state before 1945 and after

Topic 011: Social Policy Development and Implementation in Pakistan

Social policy making in Pakistan

Focus on Pakistan
Focus not on individual policies but on overall environment
Who makes Social Policy in Pakistan?
Social policy governance and the 18th Amendment

Who makes social policy in Pakistan?

Models of policy making and power

Definitions of governance and good governance
Models of governance

1973 Constitution and social policy

Fundamental rights
Principles of policy
Social policy before the 18th Amendment
In federal, provincial & local governments
Federal and provincial bureaucracies

Social policy governance and the 18th Amendment

18th amendment: A major transformation
Federalism
Social policy in developing countries

Changes under the 18th Amendment

Issues in implementing the 18th amendment?

Who pays for Social Policy? Budgetary implications of Social Policies

Budget, philanthropy
User charges
Growth in welfare spending

Lesson 03

IDEAS AND CONCEPTS IN SOCIAL POLICY-I
(Topic 012-016)

Topic 012: Diverse Social Policies

- Education policy
- How it started?
- Education policy through history
- Technical education policy
- Special education policy
- Gender issues
- State of education now
- Main controversies & reform
- Health policy
- Health policy through history
- Models of health (medicinal/social)
- Policymakers: professionals & bureaucrats
- Policymakers: politicians and external actors
- Devolution
- Privatization
- State of health in Pakistan now

Topic 013: Principles of Social Policy And Moral Standards

The principles of social policy are the guiding ideas that underlie policies for social welfare, education, health services and the like. For instance, one policy might make the principle of equality a priority, while another might stress choice or freedom. This includes about such principles equality, equity, need, freedom and rights and how these words can be interpreted in different ways. g xyu"xu"u" " -y.sy-u'y'r-x"E'ux•"q.t.►yt u""E' ut 3y'xq' "q",u""wu.u"q meaning and is potentially rather confusing. In fact it has several different but interconnected meanings.

First, a principle might be said to have a moral or ethical meaning. If someone takes a —y. sy •ut " " 'q. t. 3' xu " " ►y • "r u" 'q. t. y. w €—"v—"su" qy. "r u yu v" y. "►xq" "y" "ywx" "q. t. "►"—. w and upholding certain moral standards. A moral standard in social policy could be represented, for instance, by the principle that no individual in need, no matter how poor or for whatever reasons, should be left without access to health care. Another more contentious example might be the principle, advocated by some, that housing and social benefits should either be reduced for lone parents or be withheld unless they fulfill certain conditions, such as finding work or employment training. As can be seen from these examples, the moralistic side of a welfare principle contains a vision of how things ought or ought not to be. Social policy reflects the norms and values of society. Many social policies have a normative element, and are drafted with the intent of influencing society or the behavior of individuals in line with deeply-held convictions and values. Thus there are left-wing normative principles which would include, among other things,

the idea of equalizing outcomes for people. Conservative normative views tend to stress the idea that social policies should use the voluntary sector in providing welfare services rather than expanding the role of government.

Topic 014: Principles of Social Policy and Rules

A second way of defining principles is to see them as rules. To take an example from the physical world, the human body or any part of it, such as the heart operates according to certain principles: for instance, the physical laws governing blood pressure and muscle tension. However, the principles of social policy are not the same as the principles of human biology or the laws of nature. When New Labour formed a government in 1997, much was made of the idea of using social scientific evidence and hard values. However, while efforts to use objective evidence undoubtedly increased, there remain many examples of recent policy change that determination to push through certain reforms irrespective of the evidence for or against them. Government proposals to greatly increase the number of city academies are just one example of this, in education policy. But even if policies are based on evidence, we could not expect to scientifically predict what the effects of social policies will be in the way that a scientist or doctor can predict what will happen if a certain medical operation or treatment is carried out (though even here we must be careful not to expect too much certainty).

On the other hand, there is an important sense in which principles do convey an idea of the rules of social policy. Each welfare system creates a welfare bureaucracy: government departments with thousands of staff and a framework of laws and rules to regulate the work. Users of services will be affected by the rules: for example, in relation to eligibility for a service or a grant.

Topic 015: Principles of Social Policy and Ideas

This definition very much overlaps with the first: principles as morals, norms or value judgments. However, there is a valid and useful distinction between a principle as a moral statement and a principle as an idea or a theory. It is possible, to have theories about social policy that are not based primarily on morals or value judgments, even though such ideas might be colored partly by political opinions or other biases.

For example, we may seek to define, in as objective a way as possible, what such ideas as

Topic 016: An Early Principle Still Relevant? Bentham and Utilitarianism

A leading idea in social policy, which was developed in the early nineteenth century, is utilitarianism: a set of principles outlined by Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832) to offer what he saw as a rational alternative to governing on the basis of values or religious morals. His influences on policy were especially noticeable in the field of prisons, though he also put forward an ambitious scheme to reform and redesign prisons, as well as many other constitutional and administrative proposals. In 1788, he published his *An Introduction to the*

Principles of Morals and Legislation (see Bentham 1982), which contains all the main elements –v"►xq"r usq' u"é.:-►.."q" €'y'q'yq. y' -" Mi.'xq' y' 5'dx-€wx".:-"q"-syq'y'/'-syq'y' " was in its infancy), Jeremy Bentham did advocate changes that were revolutionary in their time: the vote for all adult men and women, annual parliaments, open and accountable government based on rational or scientific principles. Above all, he firmly believed that the value of any policy should be decided on its objective merits, not whether it fitted with custom and practice or with any particular religious viewpoint. The basic question, according to Bentham, is whether any government policy or institution serves any valuable purpose or has any utility (use) hence €'y'q'yq. y' 5

How does utilitarianism apply to modern dilemmas of rationing services or calculating who 'x-€t "r u. uy"v"- "►u•vq'uJ"d xu'€'y'q'yq. "q—qsx"—"xu'u't y'u' ' q'y"—"q—€" 'xu'w'uq'est xq—y. u' "—v"xu'w'uq'u' ". €' ru" "—y. sy—u5"U"xu'uv—'u"€u' y-.. "►xu'xu'"q•"x€' q. ".yu"y"—v u"€q" „q€u3'q. t. "►xu'xu'"y"y"y' ' —"q•"—"►uywx"—' u"—u—u "xq—y. u' "—"s—..y. €ut "•yu against that of others. These questions are still very much with us, as illustrated by moral dilemmas in the provision of scarce health care resources (see Chapter 9). When health service professionals make judgments about patients on other than medical criteria, they may stray into making utilitarian judgments: for example, whether a patient is young or old, is married or has t u—u. t. q. .: 5'N—..sy-€'•"—" ..3'xu'"' q'"ru"q' éy. w'xu' 'u•, u'3' g xq'"€'u"t—u'" 'q, y. w"— prolonging this life have, and how far would medical help in this case add to the sum of human xq—y. u' 'J

Lesson 04**IDEAS AND CONCEPTS IN SOCIAL POLICY-II****(Topic 017-021)****Topic 017: Social Policy and Equality**

The principle of equality occupies a central place in debates about social policy. For those on the left of the political spectrum, social policies are ideally the tools or mechanisms with which to create a fairer society by equalizing benefits from health, education and other services. But from the perspectives of the political right and centre, social policies that attempt to equalize outcomes for people do so at considerable cost. Not only do they impose a burden of high taxation on people with average and higher incomes, with the suggested effect of dampening incentives and economic growth, but also they require a highly interventionist state and an army of bureaucrats and professionals.

Robert Nozick, a philosopher who published an influential book, *Anarchy, State and Utopia*, in 1974, powerfully attacked the goal of using social policies and other forms of government intervention (such as taxation) to increase equality. He based his argument on a distinction between two types of justice: *justice in acquisition* and *justice in distribution*. In his interesting argument, his fundamental point is that patterned justice involves the idea of continual redistribution of property, goods and other things of value (for instance, employment opportunities). The pattern would be based upon a particular goal. For instance, in one society there might be a particularly strong attachment to the idea of rewarding merit and of distributing resources and rewards on that basis. Conversely, another society might stress the goal of equality between individuals irrespective of merit or performance.

However, according to Nozick, any attempt to enforce patterns of justice will tend to undermine the supremely important value of liberty. For example, if a government attempts to redistribute income to achieve a particular pattern of justice, it must tax individuals. This taxation, therefore, emphasizes the idea that individuals have a right to their own property. Nozick argues that any attempt to create patterned justice: for instance, by taxing individuals to fund social services, is therefore a violation of their right to property. He argues that the only moral form of government is one that protects individual rights to life, liberty and property. For him, the only extensive state would be one that protects these rights and nothing more.

Nozick suggests that the principle of freedom is threatened if social policies are too concerned with equality. He argues that if a government attempts to achieve equality, it must interfere with individual freedom. He argues that the only way to achieve equality is through a highly interventionist state, which would be a violation of individual rights. He argues that the only way to achieve equality is through a highly interventionist state, which would be a violation of individual rights. He argues that the only way to achieve equality is through a highly interventionist state, which would be a violation of individual rights.

However, it is misleading to package all ideas about equality and policy neatly into either a left-wing or right-wing perspective. To begin with, and despite the popularity of the terms, there is no clear distinction between left and right in politics is thought to originate from the days of the French Revolution.

in the late eighteenth century, when the more liberal and radical representatives in the newly-formed National Assembly were seated to the left of the presiding officer, while the more conservative members of the legislature sat on the right. As democracy developed in Europe, a similar seating arrangement became common practice in a number of parliaments. Thus a tradition of liberal principles that favored equality, radical reform and individual freedom and liberty over equality of outcome, a more cautious approach to change and reform, and an emphasis on reducing the role of government with principles that favor individual freedom and liberty over equality of outcome, a more cautious approach to change and reform, and an emphasis on reducing the role of government.

A liberal thinker on equality, John Rawls (1972), argues that a basic goal of every policy should be that education and career opportunities, welfare services, leisure and so on. Further, Rawls regards the right to liberty as fundamental in a just society. Everyone should be treated equally in this respect. However, Rawls also argues that a certain amount of inequality – just enough to create rewards and incentives for the better-off people in society – will benefit not only the advantaged but also the least advantaged. With the right amount of incentive, the better-off groups in society will work at an optimum level of efficiency. This will mean that everyone will benefit from well-run public services and private businesses. But if rewards for the better-off exceed the optimum level, the poorer groups begin to lose out. The better-off contribute less than they should in the form of taxes (wealth and income that can be redistributed) and have fewer incentives to be efficient, because their incomes are high irrespective of their work efforts. Rawls termed the idea of achieving just about the best for the least advantaged members of society.

Topic 018: Justifying Policies for Equality: Egalitarianism

It is about finding ways of ensuring that people enjoy the same results or outcomes in life: the same incomes, the same life span, similar levels of education and health and so on. What would be the justification for policies to bring about a state of near-equality? Again, much would depend on the context. In the case of communism, much would depend on the context. There has also been a thread of ethical or Christian socialism in British egalitarianism, and this has been a recurrent influence on thinking about social policy (see, for example, Tawney 1964). In communism or Marxism, the ultimate objective was a society in which no one unfairly exploited the labour of anyone else. Ethical socialists, however, stressed the moral dimension: gross inequalities are morally wrong, whereas a society of near-equals is one in which community, brotherhood and sisterhood will flourish. Note the normative ideas underlying this principle of equality.

Tawney was a Christian socialist and a leading figure in debates about equality in a welfare state. His goal was to make sure that income and the benefits of the welfare system were distributed equally among individuals and groups. He argued that the concept of equality was not just about income but also about the distribution of resources. Tawney held to a wider socialistic vision of equality. His goal and his vision of social policy was to help create a society in which people felt that they belonged to a common community – a society in which they would feel free to participate in making political decisions about their own future, and in which everyone was valued equally.

In a similar vein, Marshall – another founder of the principles of an egalitarian welfare society – means of equalizing incomes. What matters is that there is a general enrichment of the concrete substance of civilized life, a general reduction of risk and insecurity, an equalization between the more and less fortunate at all levels. Equality of status is more important than equality of income. (Marshall, 1962, p. 87)

However, inequality of income is important to egalitarians in one important respect. Large inequalities, it is argued, lead to social division and are, in themselves, morally wrong. For instance, public concern has been expressed about the enormous annual pay increases (of over 30 per cent and totaling thousands of pounds) awarded to the heads of government agencies. This has been at a time when the great majority of public sector employees, working in the same agencies, have been expected to accept much lower annual pay increases.

It is relatively easy to invoke, as did Charles Dickens in his scathing attacks on the greed and selfishness of Victorian business people and corrupt public servants. However, a critique of gross inequality is not the same as making a case for near-equality. He – sustain, for a number of reasons.

First, individuals differ. Whether as a result of nature or nurture, every individual has a unique combination of talents, abilities, temperament and motivation. Policies trying to bring about absolute or near-equality would work against these differences, rewarding the lazy, the incompetent and the dishonest as well as the innovative, intelligent or honest. There is a lack of justice in policies that try to ensure equal outcomes for all. Would it be just, for example, to ensure that all 16-year-olds pass at the same grades, regardless of their ability? Such a policy would immediately devalue the GCSE qualification but, more importantly, would be unjust to those who had worked hard or had the ability to achieve the better results.

The second factor is coercion and lack of freedom. In order for a state of near-equality to be maintained, very strong regulatory authorities would be needed to survey constantly incomes, redistribute wealth and monitor who was being appointed to each and every job. Not only would this cost a great deal to implement, but it would also bring about a very invasive state. No one would be becoming better off than anyone else. So while inequality spells lack of freedom for some because better-off individuals and groups may gain at the expense of the poor, a state of imposed equality would severely restrict freedom. However, these criticisms of equality are valid only where policies are taken to extremes. It is relatively easy to put up a

Topic 019: Justifying Policies for Equality: Equity

This is a useful idea that extends the concept of equality. The notion of equality tends to make us focus on sameness or similarity. Thus, if neighbors X and Y are equal, we tend to think of them having similar incomes, houses, type of car, number of children and so on. But if such an end-state were to be brought about by social and taxation policies, what would be required? This is

where the concept of equity is useful because, to reach a similar end-state or outcome, it is usually necessary to treat individuals, families and groups equitably rather than equally. An equitable approach means treating people fairly, but differently, to ensure that there is some equality between them at the end.

Source: Everydayfeminism.com

Dividing a cake gives a homely example to illustrate equity. Assuming that one guest feels full, two are not very hungry and a fourth is ravenous, equitable slicing would mean no cake for the first, two thin slices and one large wedge. After this, all guests should be in an equal state – full – but they have been treated unequally to achieve this. Treating them all equally, on the other hand, would have resulted in unequal or undesirable outcomes.

In social policy terms, and returning to our neighboring families X and Y, equitable social policies would treat each household differently depending on its needs and circumstances. For example, if family X has a child with special needs, they might be targeted grants, benefits or school facilities that would have the object of compensating the X family for additional expenditure and bringing them back to a state of near-equality with the Y family. The problem with equitable social policies is that sometimes they do not look fair. Treating everyone in the same way is seen as fair, whereas treating them differently seems to smack of injustice or special favors. For example, equitable cake slicing might work with adults but try it with small children, who expect equal slices of a birthday cake. In this situation equity will almost certainly end in tears.

Applying the equity principle can also raise problems because fairness demands an accurate and fair assessment of needs. For example, if a family has a child with special needs, they might be targeted grants, benefits or school facilities that would have the object of compensating the X family for additional expenditure and bringing them back to a state of near-equality with the Y family. The problem with equitable social policies is that sometimes they do not look fair. Treating everyone in the same way is seen as fair, whereas treating them differently seems to smack of injustice or special favors. For example, equitable cake slicing might work with adults but try it with small children, who expect equal slices of a birthday cake. In this situation equity will almost certainly end in tears.

squabbling children at mealtime and that you have decided to distribute food in unequal, equitable portions. If you are both a parent and a student of social policy, perhaps the children will already have grudgingly learned to put up with the principle of equity. However, this does not solve the problem of deciding whose definitions of need to take into account yours or theirs? There might be vociferous objections from the children to the grounds on which the size

—v'uxsx"sxyt "—"y—. 'xq' 'r uu. 't usyt ut E' dxq' ' . . . 'vqy'3xu"xqt "q'r yw" •ysu"u' 'u't q' '3' she said 'xu "w-y.w"—"r u" "ysé "y" "—€"wy, u"xu" "q. .: „uwu'qr •u' "q. t. "—" . Si —€" " q' "—€" u•v' r u"unsure of uqsx"sxyt " " "uq " . .ut 'E'y "Y q'xu► clamoring for more simply because he is showing off; is Alison hungrier than she is prepared to say, and should she be encouraged to eat more? Faced with all this, it is not surprising that parents, like welfare systems, resort to giving equal, but inequitable, benefits.

Topic 020: Justifying Policies for Equality: Equality of Opportunity

This is another useful refinement of the meaning of equality. The equal opportunity concept might be applied first to employment, through policies to remove barriers of discrimination, improving access to jobs, education and training. In an age of temporary work contracts and part-time jobs, this is important. Work, despite its drawbacks, raises incomes, usually provides social contact and reduces social exclusion.

Second, equal opportunity principles can be applied to improving access to, and use of, health and social services. However, as with other equality principles, equal opportunity means different things to different people. Conservatives, as well as those on the left, subscribe to u"€qy" "—v —"€ .y" 'Sf yu► "v'—' "xu"—•yysq•"ywx" "u' "—"€ .y" '3►xyu"x—'u'v'—' "xu" left stress the equality side of the equation. These differences of emphasis can result in substantial practical differences in the ways that equal opportunity policies are applied. Distinctions can be made between (a) relatively limited and modest definitions of equal —"€ .y" '3q. t. /r 0" —'u'q' r y-y-€ "q. t. " —€wxu" "q—"qxsu' 5

Under British law for example, the anti-discrimination laws planned for 2007 that will combine legislation against discrimination on the basis of gender, race, disability, age and other categories for the first time policy and practice are much closer to (a) than to (b). But it is better to think —v'u"€q•"—"€ .y" "—•ysyu" "—."q" —us"€' "v'—' " —t u' ' —" —€wx 5] q"ys€•q"u' q' —u' "t —." " necessarily fit neatly into either category. In the UK, for example, not all equal opportunity policies can be pigeonholed as weak. A certain q' —€ .: "—v" —'y'y, u"qs'y—." —s—"us" "wu. t. u" "q. t. " "qsu "t y's'y y. q'y—. "y "q•—►ut "€ .t. u" British law, and in Northern Ireland a Fair Employment Act and other government action xq' "u. t. —"ut "xu"—y. sy•u"—v" —"y—. qy" " " u. :y—. ut " above. In the Northern Ireland case proportionality means a more equal sharing of job opportunities between the Protestant and Catholic communities than before. Although a strict policy of reserving jobs for the under-represented Catholic minority has not been introduced, it is in Northern Uu•q. t. "xq" "xu"e W'xq' " —, ut "s—'u' "—"xu"—y. sy•u"—v'q" —€wxu" "q—"qxsu"—" equal opportunities.

Topic 021: Equal Opportunity Strategies

Positive action refers to policies that stop short of positive discrimination. Under M'yqy. . "b qsu" Relations Act 1976, for example, it was permissible to take positive steps to encourage members

of under-represented groups to apply for work in an organization (for instance, in the way that job advertisements were worded). Other forms of positive action include additional training courses to meet the needs of under-represented groups, career breaks for women, and improvements in facilities in the workplace that enhance the work environment.

All these measures were designed to develop a workforce that was more representative of the population, but that did not rely on a quota system of reserving jobs for each under-represented group. Similar principles apply to the distribution of benefits or access to social and health services. Positive action here would entail taking steps to encourage access and to enable under-represented or disadvantaged groups to make fuller use of the services available.

However, positive action does not mean that people will automatically qualify for a service or a benefit because they are members of a minority or a disadvantaged group. Need remains the basic criterion. The object of positive action is therefore to equalize access and to ensure that everyone with needs is heard: for instance, by providing translation services to hospital patients whose first language is other than English.

Equal opportunity strategies:

Fairness vs. equality
History vs. present
Democracy vs. socialism
Past discrimination vs. culture



No discrimination
Constitution vs. laws
22 (2) No discrimination against any religious institution in matters of taxation
25 (2) No discrimination on the basis of sex
26 (1) No discrimination wrt access to public places on the basis of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth
25 (3) Nothing in this Article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the protection of women and children
26 (2) Nothing in clause (1) shall prevent the State from making any special provision for women and children

27 (1) No discrimination in services on the basis of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth

Provided for a period posts may be reserved for persons belonging to a class or area to secure their adequate representation

Laws and regulations tend to give positive discrimination as they are for a limited period

But does a quota ever end?

U.t.yq 'sq' 'u' '€- 'q' 'EB9' 'uq' '3' 'y' 'y' 's' 'uq' 'y' 'w'

Lesson 05**IDEAS AND CONCEPTS IN SOCIAL POLICY-III**
(Topic 022-027)**Topic 022: Need**

This is a lack of consensus about what it means). This causes difficulties when, for example, we try to find a common definition of need. Before you read any further, it might help at this point to spend five minutes writing a short list of what you think are the most important human needs. Try to list at least ten.

Before you read any further, it might help at this point to spend five minutes writing a short list of what you think are the most important human needs. Try to list at least ten.

Now ask yourself these questions. Is there any pattern or logic in the list you have drawn up? For example, do some needs come before others and if so, why? Are some more basic or fundamental? (If you do not see a pattern, add some more needs and then try to prioritize the needs in some way.)

Are your definitions of need culture-free, or do they relate only to a particular country or social group? To test this, think about whether your list would be as applicable in India or Mali, say, as in Britain or another economically developed country. Try constructing a list as if you were living in a village in the African Sahel, or on the streets of an Indian city. How does your list compare with that of Doyal and Gough (1991), presented a little further on? Writing your own list of human needs and the questions this poses in your mind should help to identify two fundamental points about need. These points have been at the centre of social policy ever since the state began to take on certain basic responsibilities. The first point is about objectivity. Is it possible to establish a commonly accepted or objective definition of need and to distinguish clearly between those who are in need and those who are not? The second point relates to questions of responsibility and duty. How far is the state responsible for meeting certain needs? Should every citizen have rights to have their needs met, and does the community have a duty to meet them?

Take 5 minutes and write a short list of the most important human needs

Try to list at least ten needs; is there logic in your list?

Needs

Health
Water
Food
Sleep
Safety
Education
Shelter
Family
Friendship

- ✓ Are some more important than others?

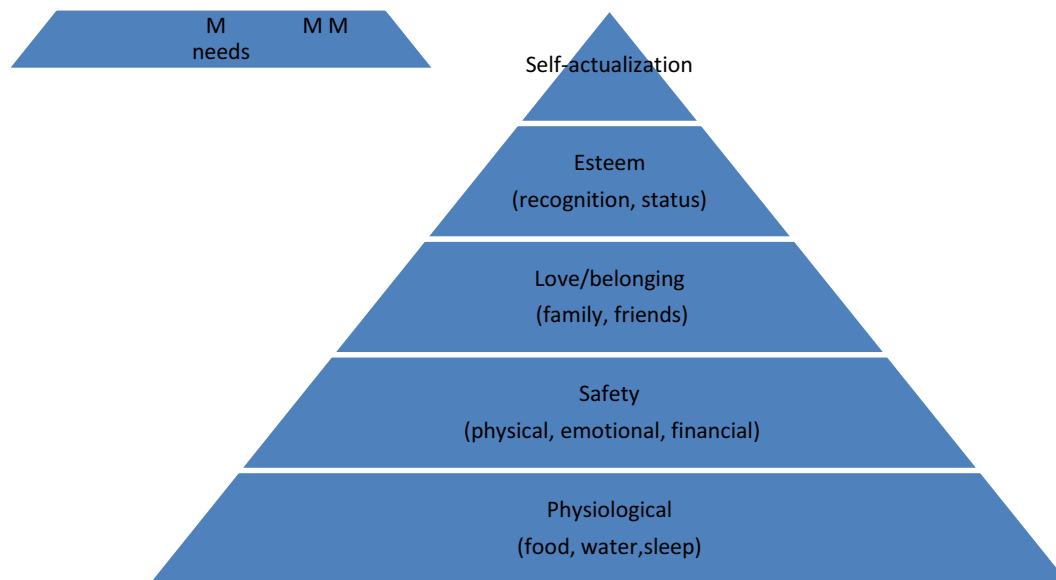
- ✓ Are some linked to your culture/religion?
- ✓ Two fundamental points: objectivity & responsibility

Need and social policy

Is it possible to establish a commonly accepted or objective definition of need?
 How far is the state responsible for meeting certain needs?
 Vexed governments since at least 19th century
 From nothing to only basic survival to health to education to shelter to water to sanitation to psychological well being to air to environment
 Recently, in 2010, education was included as a fundamental right
 Previously, parents were included in family given free health, now only spouse and children

Topic 023: Universal Human Needs?

Scholars have been trying to come up
 Universal vs. local
 Abraham Maslow (1943) was one of the first



Doyal and Gough (1991) argue that it is relatively easy to make up a list of needs – social policy research abounds with them. However, it is more difficult to decide which needs are universal and which definitions would permit us to compare need satisfaction in different countries or cultures.

Their list (below) has been drawn up according to one main criterion. To be included, each item must contribute towards satisfying the two most basic needs (physical health and autonomy).

For example, they suggest that sexual relationships are important for people with this, and in general what do you think of their list of needs?

- nutritional food and clean water
- protective housing
- a non-hazardous work environment
- a non-hazardous physical environment
- appropriate health care
- security in childhood
- significant primary relationships
- physical security
- economic security
- appropriate education
- safe birth control and childbearing.

To sum up, physical health and autonomy can be seen as basic needs that, if denied, will result in people being unable to meet other, secondary needs. Putting it another way, needs could be defined as basic if being deprived of them will lead to serious harm. Once basic needs have been discussed, however, there remains the question of how secondary or intermediate needs are to be identified. This is the point at which to compare your own list with that of Doyal and Gough.

Topic 024: Needs, Wants and Satisfaction

So far, our discussion of need has highlighted some of the problems encountered in trying to remember that there has to be some argument. In fact, debate about needs is a healthy phenomenon. For instance, it might be prompted by attempts to improve standards of welfare or to expose the hidden needs of disadvantaged groups.

Bradshaw (1972), in a pioneering discussion, suggested that there are four main ways in which people define needs.

- Felt need, according to Bradshaw, occurs when individuals are conscious of their needs. This, however, leaves open the question of whether they decide to express their felt needs or whether they are able to do so. Not all felt needs are expressed, either because those in need choose not to express them or because inequalities of power and status prevent oppressed and less powerful groups from voicing their needs. For example, older Asian women in the provision of community services because of the subordinate position of many of these women (see Blakemore and Boneham 1994).
- Expressed needs are publicized and known about. They become demands, as opposed to the hidden needs of those who are unwilling or too powerless or otherwise unable to express what they need, as just mentioned.
- Normative needs are those defined according to professional norms or standards; they are needs defined by outside observers or experts. For example, a professional counselor

might identify a need in a client that the client might accept, or on the other hand reject or fail to comprehend. Or, to give another example, social workers responsible for finding foster homes will judge whether a particular home is adequate to meet the needs of a child, as defined by their professional view and the standards laid down by their employer.

- Comparative need introduces the concept of relative judgment – that is, the needs of a group are defined relative to what other groups have or do not have. There is an element of justice here. If there are two similar groups, but only one is receiving a benefit or a service, the group not receiving welfare could be unjustly deprived and in comparative need.

The first definition – felt need – introduces a subjective element into the discussion. On the one hand, there are some needs that can be defined objectively (albeit with some disagreement among observers) and, on the other, wants that are apparently more to do with subjective or personal states of mind or desires. For example, a person might need a certain medical treatment that is invasive or painful, but not want it. Or a hypochondriac will be obsessed with medical treatments even though objectively these are not needed.

Remember that one way of defining a need is that being deprived of it causes serious harm, whereas this is not the case with things that are purely wants. A child might desperately want the latest computer game but arguably being deprived of it will not cause harm and might even do some good.

This distinction between wants and needs is not a clear-cut one, however. The very *yt uq*–v' *wu*'' .*uut* ' " '€*wu*'' " 'xq'' q' '""–.w'' " 'Er *zis* 'y,u' u•u' u.''' sq.'!u.'u'' y.'–" t *uy*.y'y–.''' –v need. For example, pensioners on a low income might decide that keeping in touch with their grandchildren is a basic requirement (and a need to sustain important family relationships). They might decide that it is vitally important to spend a lot of their money on cards and gifts, especially on the grandchildren "r y''xt q''''–''q''''uq'–.q''x–•yt q'''' such as Christmas. But in refusing to compromise on this, they might well have to economize on heating or food costs. In this case, what appear to be unnecessary wants (cards, gifts) take the place of things that safeguard a basic need, such as physical health.

For instance, they might decide that their heating must be switched off to save money, possibly risking death from hypothermia for the sake of being able to afford Christmas cards and presents. Therefore, although being deprived of needs can be said to cause serious harm, so in some ways could being deprived of wants. The teenager who is deprived of the latest fashion item might take this want so seriously that they become depressed, feel that they are a social outcast and that their whole life has been blighted. If this happens, then we might have to take the consequences seriously: for example, shoplifting or other forms of offending.

The value of bringing the subjective element into any discussion of needs and wants is that it helps to answer the question of why satisfaction levels are not rising markedly in industrialized countries when, according to many objective economic criteria, needs are being met more fully than ever before.

sense: what real opportunities you may have regarding the life “–€” q““uqt “/c en 1987: 36). So, in contrasting a capability and a functioning, the latter ý“q.“qsxyu,u’ u.“q.t.“xu“v–” u”ý” ’xu” qryý““–“qsxyu,u “/8DCBE: A0/y’q•ys“qt t ut 05

c u...“xu–”“ý”,q•€qr •u“v–”q“.€’ r u”“–v”uq–...5U”–,,yt u“q“““u’ q’ys“q”u’ –”– explore and develop a more precise characterization of well-being for social science and policy purposes than that provided by some of the standard theories on offer. It provides a corrective to some established views. Sen has drawn attention to what commodities are for. His theory attempts to integrate economic and sociological ideas about inequality, poverty and need – that is, economic theory based on the idea of utility or subjective preference, and social science and policy ideas based on objective notions such as need.

Ry.q•“3’cu...“s–...”ý€ý–.“xq““xu“w”uq”“ u”ý”–v’y.“u”.q’ý–.q•y y.w”xu“t ur q’u“qr–€’ issues such as poverty and need, and the political questions and moral principles these issues provoke. His discussion is as applicable to economically developed countries such as the UK as it is to developing countries such as India.

Topic 027: Concept of Freedom

If we are coerced or told what to do throughout our lives and are deprived of rights, we cannot “uq•y u”–€”–“u.“ýq”–“r us–’ u“v€•““x€’ q.“r uy.w 5T–►u,u”3’q“►ýx“u“€q•ý“3’ v’uut –’ “and “ýwx”“ can easily become slogans. Difficulties begin when policy-makers or those who deliver ►u•vq’u“u”,ýsu“xq,u”–“t usyt u”►xq” v’uut –’ “q.t.”ýwx”“ “uq.“ý.”–ractical terms, and on what w”–€.“–’ u”–u–u “V’uut –’ “ “ýwx”xq,u”–“r u”u’ –,ut “–”s€”q•ut 5

For instance, there might be a need to suspend the driving license of a driver ►x– ‘ seriously failing vision and hearing pose grave dangers to other road users and pedestrians. However, difficulties arise in defining safety limits for the majority of older drivers, most of who are safe drivers and enjoy lower insurance premiums as a result. What if a t “ý,u” “,,ýý–.“ý”–”r€”Æ“” about adequate to drive a car along familiar routes? Or what if the driver and their partner live in a rural area, where without the use of a car it ►–€•t “r u”,u”““t ýwx€•”–“,,ýý”q“sxu’ ý’ ““x–”“” buy groceries? Should such drivers have the freedom to take moderate risks with their own and –’xu”“ “qvu”“J

Topic 028: Concept of Rights

Disability throws up a range of even deeper questions about freedoms and rights. The right to „–’u3’v–”u’ q’ –u3’ ýw.ýxyu“q.“ý.t.y,t €q• “v€•” u’ r u”xy–v”–syu”“q“q“syý u.5 But should people with significant learning difficulties have the right to vote and, if not, how can their voices be heard and rights as citizens be respected?

Those who champion the rights of disabled people (for instance, Oliver 1990) argue that most, if not all, of the problems they face have been created by the society around them rather than t ýus’•““r “““xuy”t ý qryýyu’ 5’dxy“ý”q” –syq• “–t u•–v’t ý qryý”3’q’ –ut “–“q” sxq’ý” “–” „ýs’ý “–t u•5’U” ‘€wuu’ “““xq”“q’xu”“xq.“–ý”ý.w’t ý qryý•ut people as victims of their own physical or mental states, society is responsible for improving their freedoms and guaranteeing their rights. Considerable investment in redesigning housing, work environments and transport facilities is needed in order to remove the barriers to freedom experienced by disabled people.

How far and in what ways society should be expected to make such a full commitment to the rights of disabled people is an open question, and is likely to cause continuing arguments about how to balance the rights and freedoms of disabled and non-disabled people. However, any discussion of freedom and rights will be unproductive unless these principles are broken down into different elements.

One way of doing this is to follow *'Mupi a'* " *" etween civil, political and social rights*. It is possible for individuals and groups to enjoy one or more of these types of right and the freedoms that are associated with them.

- **Civil rights** include basic freedoms under the law: for instance, freedom from discrimination, arbitrary arrest and detention, freedom to meet in groups and to have open discussion, freedom of the press and of expression.
- **Political rights** extend these freedoms to include the right to vote, to join and participate in political parties and to hold government accountable to democratic opinion.
- **Social rights** according to Marshall are of a rather different order. They involve a greater commitment of resources and are represented by rights to education, social welfare and social security; in short, rights to the benefits of a welfare system.

Viewed historically, in Britain, the three categories of rights can be seen to have developed gradually, with civil rights being established first, then political rights (for men first, and for women substantially later) and finally social rights. However, Marshall stressed that there is not necessarily an inevitable process of evolution at work here, involving automatic or continued progress towards social rights.

Some countries, such as present-day Singapore, combine substantial social rights and a well-organized welfare system with rather limited political rights. Thus one kind of freedom and one set of rights do not necessarily lead to another. In fact, social welfare can bolster paternalistic governments by making them appear fair and reasonable, thus reducing basic political freedoms.

To return to particular groups in society, such as disabled people, older people or children, we ' q'"q—'Y q"xq• 't y'y.s'y-.:."—Eu' y-.:.'qr—E'"xu"ywx' of each. For example, with regard to children, electoral democracies have nowhere extended them political rights they cannot vote or send their own representatives to parliament.

However, this does not mean that they cannot have their civil rights improved and, under the Children Act 1989 and many other pieces of legislation, children have legal rights to education and welfare services: social rights.

If we consider people with learning difficulties, it may well be that they enjoy social protection and certain social rights, but they may never be granted civil and political rights even though, in some cases, they are capable of exercising political preferences or participating in decisions made about their welfare. Another way of looking at both rights and freedoms is to think of them either as .uvq'y,u"—y.sy-•u"/ v'ut —' "v"—' "su"qy.!:xy.w'"xq"u.t.q.wu"•y u""'0"—'q"—'y'y,u —y.sy-•u"/ v'ut —' "—'t—"su"qy.!:xy.w'05

A negative definition of freedom would give every citizen the right to be protected from harm from others for example, from physical assault, burglary or discrimination. Negative

definitions of freedom are very much part of a classical liberal or laissez-faire philosophy. In this view, people should be allowed as many freedoms as possible. However, complete freedom, or free-for-all anarchy, would not bring genuine liberty. Laissez-faire must be coupled with strong laws to restrain those who would intentionally seek to harm or reduce the freedoms of others. Thus a liberal society such as the USA has always had relatively strong laws to limit the power of both the state and of private monopolies (which form to fix prices unfairly and exploit consumers).

To those on the political right, freedom can be fully guaranteed only in a society organized by the market, in which people are free to own as much property as they can amass and in which there is competition between individuals and businesses. Markets are seen as vital in ensuring not only freedom but also efficiency. But by their very nature, markets lead to differences and they expose inequalities. People are bound to have different amounts of talent and ability, luck q.t."-u.t.y.w"—►u'3U."q" v'uu " q'ëu'3"xu'u cannot be equal freedom for everyone to be able to afford tea at the Ritz.

Lesson 06**HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WELFARE STATE-I**
(Topic 029-033)**Topic029: Poor Law Reform**

Poor Law legislation can be dated back as far as 1388 when attempts were made both to fix wages and to limit the mobility of labour which may cause wages to rise. But the more systematic operation of a system of poor relief came in two Acts passed under Elizabeth I in 1598 and 1601. These Acts created three classifications of the poor together with appropriate treatment for each: the impotent poor (old, sick, and lunatic) would be accommodated in poor houses or almshouses; the able-bodied poor would be set to work in the parish, and their children apprenticed to a trade; and finally the able-bodied poor who absconded would be punished in the stocks. The system was administered by each parish, which would appoint overseers of the poor who were empowered to raise a poor rate to pay for poor relief (Fraser, 2003: 33-36).

Over time the Poor Law came to be dominated by various means of relief, the systematic use of workhouses to alternatively employ or punish the different categories of pauper. In many parts of the country outdoor relief took the form of wage subsidy, perhaps most prevalent in rural areas and in times of food shortages caused by poor harvests. The system of wage subsidy received much attention especially towards the end of the eighteenth century, after several years of poor harvests and the impact of war with France saw the costs of the Poor Law rising.

Critics suggested that the system of wage subsidy induced laborers to idleness, as they would sooner allow the parish to supplement their wages than work hard to improve their situation. Thomas Malthus went further and suggested that the Poor Law encouraged the poor to have more children in order to receive extra relief, and that this system would have catastrophic consequences since the country was able to supply only a limited amount of food. Population, on the other hand, would carry on increasing until the country could simply no longer feed itself (Harris, 2004). For critics of the Poor Law this provided ample evidence of the folly of allowing the state to interfere in the welfare of its people and the damage that state-sponsored charity could cause. The working poor would lose any motivation to improve their position while their behavior to take advantage of poor relief.

The pressure to reform the Elizabethan Poor Law was founded on the many concerns and worries in the minds of officials and reformers. First was the often random nature and application of the existing Poor Law, which was administered by local parishes. The often cited, we may say famous, systems of parish relief, such as that of Speenhamland, were by no means universal and there remained great diversity and variation in the administration, availability and generosity of parish relief, so that the system was not uniform. Secondly, there was the concern outlined above that parish relief undermined principles of thrift and hard work that people and the economy depended upon. Parish relief was felt to be an

expensive luxury which, instead of simply relieving the poor, was encouraging them to remain idle and burden the parish and its ratepayers. That burden fell disproportionately; they felt, on aristocratic landowners and new groups of middle-class entrepreneurs. We can go further to suggest that the existence of parish relief was itself a cause of poverty, not because it encouraged indolence in the poor but because it encouraged employers to reduce wages.

Employers were able to maintain wages at low levels in the knowledge that the parish would '—€—"xu"►qwu'—"v"xuy"•qr ourers. This was most keenly felt in rural areas as employers artificially reduced local levels of pay in the knowledge that the parish would supplement incomes. Those same employers, this time as ratepayers, also pressed for a reduction in the burden of their poor rates and thereby a reduction in payments of relief. This they regarded as a tax on employment which itself damaged the successful working of the economy. Such factors were themselves cited in the Swing riots of 1830 which witnessed in Hampshire the breaking of agricultural machinery and the destruction of local workhouses in some parishes (Hobsbawm and Rudé, 1969: 119–120).

Finally, there was the fear that the Poor Law of the previous two and a half centuries was no longer able to meet the demands of nineteenth-century Britain. The dual processes of industrialization and urban development were attracting new populations to towns in search of work. In times of unemployment, existing residency qualifications, embodied in the various Acts of Settlement, would disqualify individuals from turning to the parish for help; indeed we may argue that the parish boundaries themselves had become outdated and meaningless as new towns and cities had grown. A Poor Law designed to meet the needs of a medieval, largely rural and agricultural population was self-evidently outdated by the early decades of the nineteenth century.

Topic030: Public Health Reform

One of the leading policy issues today is about the balance of resources to be devoted, on the one hand, to public health and preventive strategies, and on the other to individual care and curative strategies in medicine.

Everyone agrees that it is much better to prevent illness in the first place than to have to deal with its consequences. However, a certain amount of illness cannot be prevented. This means that there will always be a demand for individual solutions and treatments for illnesses. The history of public health in Britain illustrates both the connection between environment and health and the conflict of interests between public needs (public health, preventive strategies) and individual needs (for curative medicine).

The nineteenth century was the age of public health and environmental improvement. This is not to say that progress in health was smoothly achieved or always centrally planned. Public health reforms were brought about after protracted struggles between progressives and reactionaries, between central government and local authorities, and between the mean-spirited and those who championed public spending on unglamorous sewer-building, better water supplies and health inspectors. However, by the end of the century, Britain had developed a comprehensive system of laws governing health standards.

Nineteenth-century health reforms:

- A Central Board of Health was set up in 1831 by government to deal with a major outbreak of cholera.
- Report on the Sanitary Condition of the Labouring Population of Great Britain, 1842: a pioneering and scathing report on the environmental causes of disease led by Edwin Chadwick.
- Liverpool Sanitary Act 1846: this was an example of how all the major cities required specific parliamentary legislation to permit them to bring about public health improvements. A local health officer and staff were appointed to oversee water supply and sewerage improvements.
- The Public Health Act 1848 set up a national General Health Board. Local authorities were permitted, but not obliged, to set up local boards to improve sanitation, build waterworks and so on.
- The Medical Act 1858 established a General Medical Council to control a register of qualified doctors and to regulate training.
- The Sewage Utilization Act 1865 laid down national standards for safe sewage disposal.
- The Sanitary Act 1866 for the first time obliged local authorities to comply with previous legislation, as under the 1848 Act.
- The Public Health Acts 1872 and 1875 were two pieces of legislation that consolidated and clarified all earlier regulations. Together, they laid down the duties of local authorities with regard to environmental health (for example, duties to inspect housing and maintain sanitary standards) up to 1936.

Topic031: Responsibility of Employment Regulation

Looking back to the nineteenth century, it often appears that the pioneering spirit of laissez-faire capitalism, the industrial revolution and the creation of an empire were foremost in the minds of the government of the day. Yet within that century of revolution we can discern the seeds of latter-day social policy developments, tempered though they were by considerations of the moral virtue of the working classes and a strongly held principle that the state should only become involved when absolutely necessary. That meant a clear understanding that the free market had failed to provide and that any intervention should not itself be the cause of harm – sentiments clearly resonant of many debates today.

Employment regulation was, however, possibly one of the most sacrosanct areas of welfare, and as in the Poor Law and sanitation, change was slow to come. Government involvement in the control of employment and conditions in the workplace at a time when supply and demand determined the price and conditions of labour was, to say the least, a tentative venture. Many employers and politicians of the time continued to believe in the value of free trade, and thereby regular employment, as the most effective way of providing for the welfare of the working classes.

At a time when trades unions, though legal, were effectively emasculated by the law, legislation to regulate hours and safety in the workplace was patchy and slow to develop. Many employers

were able to do little more than comply with the minimum standards in the full knowledge that enforcement was lax and punishment light.

Child labor itself was, of course, nothing new and children would be put to work in agricultural regions or cottage industries as soon as they were able. But the conditions in which children worked and lived in industrializing Britain proved an offence to the humanitarian sentiments of a country that came to regard itself as the most civilized in the world. The conditions endured by children, the long hours and the physical hazards they faced when operating machinery, were likened to slavery, since children in contrast to adults often had little choice over their labor. They could not trade their labor in the free market as laissez-faire economics predicted and gradually, though by no means easily, the case for government regulation was accepted. Employers constantly stressed the damage to their industry if child labor were banned and often sought to place the blame at the doors of parents who insisted that their children work as soon as they were able. Similarly they stressed the likely increase in poverty amongst the laboring classes, and therefore the increased Poor Law burden, if children were prevented from working. Restrictions on the hours that either children or women were able to work, or the industries in which they were able to work, were also beset with problems. An overall reduction in the income available to a family placed that family under greater pressure and strain and might lead them to the doors of the workhouse. Such proposals also raised in the minds of Victorians the prospect of social unrest as children, out of gainful employment and in families under increased social pressure, might turn to crime.

But reformers too were concerned with the moral and educational welfare of children, and accounts of long hours, beatings, sexual promiscuity, drunken and indolent parents and the physical injuries suffered by many children meant that the intervention of the state could be put off no longer.

As we might expect, however, the introduction of legislation to regulate the conditions and hours worked by children, and later by women and men too, was slow and hard fought. Credit for the ending of child labour is often given to Lord Shaftesbury and his parliamentary campaigning but, as Fraser notes, his work was the climax to that started by others before the passage of the 1844 Factory Act (Fraser, 2003). Indeed, the previous decade and a half had heralded vigorous efforts in the pursuit of a legally enforceable 10-hour day. Incremental legislative change throughout the middle decades of the nineteenth century gradually introduced protection first for children, for instance prohibiting their employment in textile mills at ages younger than nine years and limiting their daily hours of work to eight, rising to 12 hours at age 13. Legislation also introduced the factory inspectors who had powers to enforce rules governing the employment of children.

The legislation, however, remained weak and difficult to enforce – only one mines inspector was appointed by the 1842 Mines Act – and this itself indicated the difficulty of and opposition to

Indeed, the 10-hour day was not achieved until the 1874 Factory Act by which time pressure from workers themselves was growing, as indicated by the growth of the TUC had been formed in 1868) and gradual reforms in the franchise giving more working men the right to vote.

Topic032: Education Reform

Education and its provision during the nineteenth century remained very much a minority undertaking. Formal and structured education remained, as it had done for previous centuries, largely a privilege for the aristocracy and the emerging middle classes who could afford the costs of private tuition, fee-paying grammar schools and eventually perhaps Oxford or Cambridge. But, for the mass of the population, education, where it existed at all, remained basic, often little more than basic literacy and numeracy. There was, of course, much between these two extremes, for example church-run schools, industrial schools, dame schools or those provided by Indeed there remained for much of the century deep-seated opposition to mass educational provision, with those arguing variously that anything more than a basic education would upset the given social order. Similarly, the state had no business in deciding the education of individuals, and compulsion in education would pauperize the laboring classes whose children would no longer be able to work and learn their trade. Much of the opposition had its roots in the religious divisions of the time and successive governments had to tread very carefully between the various churches and their dogmas. These factors in their turn guaranteed that formal state involvement in the provision of learning was delayed until the final quarter of the nineteenth century. So difficult did it prove for governments to agree on the nature and extent of their role in education that early interventions were confined to the regulation of teacher training, which was felt could help overcome often bitter conflict over the teaching of religion.

Most significant education reforms:

- Education Act of 1870 which established local school boards where there is a need
The Elementary Education Act 1880 required school boards to enforce compulsory attendance for 5 to 10 year olds
Opposition to state intervention
dx'uq'"-"-sq•"-t u'3y.s'uq' u"—,u""q' "sxyt 'u.'s-€•t ... "►-’ë3'u•wy-€'t y,y-y-..3'
y.t.€'”yq.y’“ ”——‘y-y-...
The 1891 Elementary Education Act made education free
Elementary Education Act 1893 raised the school leaving age to 11, 1899 12 and later 13
The Voluntary Schools Act 1897 and Balfour Act 1902 provided grants to public elementary schools not funded by local school boards
The Fisher Education Act 1918 made secondary education compulsory up to age 14 and made it state responsibility
The 1944 Act resolved the issue of religious schools to a large extent by absorbing most of the Anglican schools
Those which did not get absorbed (Catholics) retained their schools but state only financed half of their capital costs

Topic033: Reaction to Welfare State

Reactions to Welfare State (Before 1940s)

Whilst it has been popular to view the development of a welfare state as necessary, desirable and inevitable, a view reflected in the writings upon which we have relied in the preceding section, other writers point out the level of discord which greeted successive attempts to secure state involvement in the provision of welfare services. It is by no means certain that such changes, which preceded the more comprehensive pattern of state welfare that developed in the first half of the twentieth century, received universal or even popular acclaim.

Strong ethos of self-help and self-reliance among the working poor
 Often a deep and bitter distrust of the state
 Relatives and charities were preferred to the state-administered workhouse
 Brutal experience and memories of state workhouse
 Other avenues available during hard times were informal insurance and savings clubs at local level
 Formal insurance schemes provided by friendly societies and trades unions.
 Another form of support: Building societies for the purchase or construction of homes
 Such support was according to Victorian values and principle of laissez-faire
 However, this self help was limited
 Supported workers with steady jobs
 e ..éy•ut "►"éu"t yt ... "wu'" €sx"€—'"
 Late 19th century values/ideas changed
 First came the concern about children and old
 Who could not be blamed for their poverty
 Then it expanded to women and then men too
 Government very cautious, small steps of social policy

Topic034: Watershed in Welfare Provision

The final decades of the nineteenth century proved to be something of a political watershed in the development of the role of the British state in welfare provision. The economic doctrine of laissez-faire was gradually giving way to a collective ideal u' r-t yut "y."►xq"►q'"u" ut " Zu►" Xyr u'q'y' "►xysx"u. „,ý qwut " q"—'ýy,u"—•u"v—" the state in the amelioration of social —r•u' " (Pearson and Williams, 1984). The legislative development of New Liberalism is something to which we turn in the next chapter; however, it is useful here to review the political and social environment within which New Liberalism developed.

There were also concerns expressed that conditions of poverty and illness at home might threaten the dominance of Britain over her global empire. Military defeats in the Boer war led some to '€wwu' "'xq" Mýqy.. '—€..wmen may not be up to the physical challenges of fighting for and defending their country and that social condition at home might be in part to blame for this state of affairs, particularly in regard to the health of children. Similarly there was a change in attitudes towards social issues. The studies by Booth in London and Rowntree in York indicated that poverty might not be simply down to laziness within the labouring classes. Instead the economic operation of society, the unfettered free market might, it was suggested, be the cause of some poverty, which in '€". ".s—€t "r u"xu'sq€'u"—v"—u—•u'r uy.w€..qr •u"—•y,u'v'uu•" 5

The studies by Booth and Rowntree contributed to a debate about how society might attempt to measure poverty objectively and how minimum social standards might be defined and achieved. Booth (1890) and Rowntree (1891) were grouped classes of people who had only casual, intermittent or small but regular income, such as 18s to 21s per week for a moderate family (Booth, 1892). Rowntree refined this in his attempt to define conditions of primary and secondary poverty (Rowntree, 1901). Rowntree went further in his analysis by suggesting that there existed a cycle of poverty throughout the lives of the labouring poor. The years of childhood, early marriage and old age were those in which poverty was highly likely, often for reasons that were beyond the control of the individual (Rowntree, 1901). Rowntree's conclusions reached by these two surveys, though not universally accepted, were that around 30% of the population were living in poverty (Booth suggested 30% and Rowntree 28%). Rowntree went further in his analysis by suggesting that there existed a cycle of poverty throughout the lives of the labouring poor. The years of childhood, early marriage and old age were those in which poverty was highly likely, often for reasons that were beyond the control of the individual (Rowntree, 1901). Rowntree's conclusions reached by these two surveys, though not universally accepted, were that around 30% of the population were living in poverty (Booth suggested 30% and Rowntree 28%).

Lesson 07**HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF WELFARE STATE-II**
(Topic 035-040)**Topic 035: Liberal Social Policy**

In January 1906 the Liberals under Campbell-Bannerman won a landslide general election victory, ending almost 20 years of Conservative rule, and, though social reform was not high on their list of priorities, it did benefit from the victory. The presence of 53 Labour MPs was more than anything else a symbolic and powerful symbol of the aspirations of working-class men and women and of the failure of the two-party system (Sullivan, 1992; Thane, 1996). Britain had also undergone something of a demographic transformation, witnessing the relative decline of agriculture and rural depopulation and a corresponding rise in industrial manufacturing and a concentration of population in the developing towns and cities (Harris, 2004). The twin processes of urbanization and industrialization had political consequences in the growth of the Labour Representation Committee. There had been a Labour presence in the Commons for five years, though small, and many of those Labour MPs elected had taken the Liberal whip in Parliament. But their presence in Parliament was growing and as one contemporary report put it: The emergence of a strong Labour element in the House of Commons has been generally welcomed as the most significant outcome of the present election. It lifts the occasion out of the ordinary groove of domestic politics and will have far wider influence than any mere turnover of party voters. (The Times, 30 January 1906) The General Election of 1906, which saw a landslide Liberal victory, returned 53 Labour MPs, 29 of whom were sponsored by the Labour Representation Committee (Fraser, 2003). In some ways this Labour presence in the House acted as a social s-

Topic 036: The Embryonic Welfare State

An embryonic welfare state was being formed in early 20th century

- More reforms during 1908 and 1914
- From classical liberalism to social liberalism
- From laissez-faire to welfare
- Fear of Labor Party or change of mind
- Licensing and closing pubs . Heavy tax
- Schools: open to all, more grants, standards, scholarships for poor, land for new schools, meals compulsory in 1914
- Medical inspection in 1907, medical treatment of children 1912
- Education (Choice of Employment) Bill 1910 enabled local authorities to provide vocational guidance
- Old-Age Pensions Act 1908 introduced pensions for those over 70
- N- -q'u'y"y'x"-t q' 'j q' y' q. 3897"uq' "q'u' ". -'xy.w
- Labour Exchanges Act 1909 labor exchanges were set up in order to help unemployed people find work
- Pakistan introduced labor exchanges in the 1970s but they gradually vanished
- 1909 Development Fund was an attempt to provide work in times of Depression

- Public works, later on adopted by the New Deal by the US
- Street improvements, waterworks, and sewerage
- With war looming on the horizon, ship building in 1908
- The Trade Boards Act 1909 created boards to set minimum wage for various trades
- Mines Accidents Act 1910 provided for first aid treatment, rescue work, and fire precautions
- National Insurance Act 1911, compulsory health insurance was provided for workers earning less than £160 per year
- Reforms need money and economy was growing but
- Taxes on alcohol, tobacco, petrol and the use of motor vehicles
- Rest of the expenditure was paid by us, the empire
- "Give us the tools, we will finish the job."
- Constitutional crisis: Decrease in the power of House of Lords

Topic 037: The Impact of War and Inter-War Years

The years of the First World War and the decades up to the outbreak of the Second World War witnessed profound social change that in turn had its impact on the political and welfare landscapes. Economically Britain, which had been and still regarded itself as the powerhouse of the industrial revolution, was in a much weaker position. Although the economy did continue to grow, Britain had entered a period of economic decline relative to other economies and was overtaken by the new American powerhouse. The growth was underlined by the development of new industries in new industrial areas, such as the chemical industry, electronics and the

parts of the country the inter-war years were characterized by high and persistent unemployment, continued industrial unrest and the highly emotive hunger marches, all of which were

the early 1930s. Average incomes in the period did rise, in part due to the development of the new industries and in part due to the development of what might be considered more

picture of those decades is one of economic uncertainty and increasing militancy.

However, despite the image of economic depression, the picture varied considerably. Overall poverty levels continued to fall and there were general improvements in housing conditions and the provision of social security benefits and pensions. Significantly there were dramatic falls, life expectancy rose by an average of 15 years, to 66 for men and 71 for women, and infant mortality fell equally dramatically, halving to 50 infant deaths per 1,000 live births. Gone now were the days of mass epidemics of infectious diseases such as typhus, cholera and smallpox that had characterized the nineteenth century and, though some infections did dominate with persistent outbreaks of diseases such as meningitis and tuberculosis, they too were coming under the control of the health professionals. Despite the public spending cutbacks of the 1920s, overall levels of spending continued to rise from 12% of GDP up to 25% and the period witnessed a large-scale expansion in public sector employment (Harris, 2004). In part, of course, the rise in public sector spending is explained by the increasing cost of benefits to cover the large-scale and persistent unemployment of the period which, in turn, was a result of the extension of entitlements to other industries and the widening of the allowances net to provide cover to family

Local government was given greater power to construct housing of good quality for working people to be able to rent. The building industry too was encouraged, by way of subsidy, to engage in a building programme of homes for sale. Between both local government and private industry around one million homes were built between 1919 and 1930 of which some 200,000 were subsidized by government and built by local authorities in the years 1919–22, though this programme was curtailed by reductions in public spending under the Geddes Axe of 1923.

During the 1930s the programme of house building continued with greater urgency as local authorities acquired powers to designate areas for slum clearance and re-housing under the Housing Act of 1930 and later powers to address overcrowding in the Housing Act of 1935. In this decade some 3 million houses were built, most of which were for private sale, but the two decades together saw a significant increase in the state provision of housing with over one million council houses built.

Topic 038: The Foundations of Social Administration

The reason for the gradual acceptance of welfarism within the Labour movement and the wider working classes has much to do with the development of the ideas of Fabianism. The Fabian Society, led by the indomitable Sidney and Beatrice Webb who themselves played a crucial role in the production of the Minority Royal Commission Report into the Poor Law, held that socialism in Britain was entirely compatible with the institutions of the state and could, and should, be realized through a parliamentary route. The state itself, they held, could be harnessed to promote the collective good and act as a neutral umpire between the demands of different interests. This view of the state, and its role in the promotion of welfare and the collective good, Put simply, the election of a Labour government would give the working class control of the state machinery of Westminster and Whitehall.

but that it be fashioned into an instrument of social change and that the expert administrator, the civil servant, under the guiding hand of the elected parliament, become the tool for the implementation of (gradual) social change. Inherent in the notion of gradual social change was the concept of ethical socialism apparent in the writings of theorists such as Tawney and Marshall. Within their writings was a notion of equality which emphasized self-esteem and dignity. Unevenness was acceptable but not the grotesque and blatant exploitation that they said characterised British capitalism; equality was to be a concept consistent with both individual difference and economic growth – ideas resonant of modern Labour thinking. Social policy within this ethical socialism would be used to diminish artificially created differences (Tawney, 1952).

Topic 039: Social Welfare during War

It is of course also right to view the collective experience of the Second World War as a seed bed for the post-war welfare state. The nationalisation of hospital services and the development of an education policy that would make secondary education a right for all children played their part in

creating a political climate in which postwar welfare measures would flourish. Several factors came together to create the climate of collective suffering; personal income was taxed at a high level, wage rates overtook inflation and unemployment was virtually abolished as both men and women joined either the armed forces or the home front services working in munitions or the Land Army (Jones, 1991; Addison, 1992). The social and economic planning of the war years led to a real and apparent redistribution of resources and 'q'"xu."r u",yu▶ut "q'q" t '"-€..." prototype of post-war welfare state planning (Titmuss, 1950).

Thus it might be claimed that these factors, together with the shared danger of wartime, created a greater sense of social solidarity in British society than had hitherto been the case. Conscripts from different walks of life and social classes were thrown together and formed close bonds of comradeship. Dockers and doctors shared the security of air-raid shelters in the major cities, and rural, often middleclass, families provided homes for evacuees, which for one commentator was the nearest British society came to socialism (Foot, 1983).

By 1945 and the landslide general election, the hostility of the labour movement to state social welfare appears to have evaporated. The experience of crushing poverty and privation in the depressions of the 1920s and 1930s left many with the feeling that something had to be done and that the state may, after all, be the obvious solution. The experience of the war years, of collective deprivation and a collective, state, response, reinforced that feeling. The calls by Keynes and Beveridge for a twin pillar approach of full employment and a welfare state looked increasingly attractive and the Labour Party became identified with the crucial social issues of the day. All of these factors then, we might say, set the seal on the post-war orthodoxy of social reform and welfare statism.

Topic 040: Welfare Consensus

dxu"→x'q'u" ▶u•v'u"s-.:u.€' "y"v'u"€u.?''"€'ut "'-t u's'y'x u" 'xu"t u,,u—y.w"▶u•v'u" 'q'u" between the end of the Second World War and the early 1970s:

"q"—y'ysq's-.:u.€' 'r u'▶uu."Xqr—€"q. t. "Nonservative governments
"q'k xq'ut 'r u•yv"xq'"xu" 'q'u's—€•t "q. t. "x—€•t "'—,,yt u"▶u•v'u
"q'k—syq's-.:?"qs"r u'▶uu."qr—€"q. t. "sq—y'q"—'"▶u•v'u-capitalism
"q••s'y y u.: 'xq.,y.w"—syq'"ywx' 3"xq'y"ywx' "—'k'q'u"▶u•v'u"€—"
"xu".u—liberals, not least in relation to individual freedoms and responsibilities

One important outcome of the collectivism of the war years was the creation of what was to rus—' u't u's'y'x ut "q'"xu" —'—war consensuses on welfare and the welfare state. Much of the post-war period is said to have been characterized by broad agreement in political debate about the role of the state in civil society. There was, it seemed, continuity between the domestic politics of the Labour and Conservative parties and a substantial degree of agreement, in principle, about the need for government intervention to ensure economic growth, full employment and the provision of more or less comprehensive welfare services (Middlemass, 1979, 1986; Greenleaf, 1983).

The roots of this apparent consensus can be traced back to the inter-war years. The privations, at least for working people, of the 1920s and 1930s and the clearly polarised, along class lines, response of the government to that period of economic crisis, which sought to protect the owners of finance capital, were still clear in the post-war memory. In addition, the minority Labour governments of 1923 and 1929 appeared powerless to break free from the drive for profit of British capitalism. It was in this environment that the idea of a negotiated settlement between labour and capital, which would ensure steady economic growth but also alleviate the suffering of many, gained currency (Addison, 1975; Sked and Cook, 1979; Briggs, 1983).

The range of policies which made up the post-war consensus are those stemming from the economic philosophy of John Maynard Keynes and the social philosophy of Sir William Beveridge in what has come to be called the Keynesian Welfare State (KWS) (Burrows and Loader, 1994). Keynesian policies were ones which assumed, or were consistent with, the intervention of government through fiscal and monetary techniques to regulate demand and encourage full employment. Beveridgian social policies were intended to contribute to the development of comprehensive welfare services, access to which would confer a sort of social citizenship.

Accordingly, Keynes plus Beveridge were seen to equal Keynesian social democracy, or welfare capitalism or consensus. The elements of that consensus can be conceptualised in the following way. In the first place the settlement represented a political turnabout. The inter-war years had been dominated by one political party at the helm of government. Although Labour formed two short-lived administrations, the Conservative Party, on its own or in coalition with the rump of the other parties, monopolized the politics of policy making in government. The formation of a genuine coalition government, a political expedient for Churchill as wartime Prime Minister, was the first step in this turnaround. The landslide of the 1945 general election completed the transformation. A new two-party system emerged in which both parties, now Conservative and Labour rather than Liberal, enjoyed relatively stable and relatively equal support (see Butler and Stokes, 1974, for an analysis of post-1945 politics).

The second element of the new political consensus was that the policies said to characterize the years of consensus could be clearly distinguished from those of the inter-war years. The post-war settlement which included the social security plans of the Beveridge Report, the establishment of the National Health Service, the introduction of compulsory free secondary education and the pursuit of full employment as a policy goal, represented a clear break with the inter-war years. The inter-war years were characterized by a policy of 'less state, more enterprise' and a policy of 'less state, more enterprise'.

The third element of the post-war settlement is often seen as foreshadowing what was to happen in later years in both the politics of industrial relations and the politics of social policy making. That is, in accepting the trades unions, which had fought through the inter-war years for their right to be consulted and even incorporated into the decision-making processes of government, powerful state and private interests, were embarking on a momentous change in direction from inter-war practices and principles.

There are, of course, as we indicate above, differences in emphasis between the parties, but much of the evidence seems to attest to the existence, over almost 30 post-war years, of a de facto political consensus on a mixed economy, full employment and a welfare state. The notion of consensus appears stronger when contrasted to the politics of conflict which characterized the inter-war years, rather than agreement at the level of individual policy in the post-war years. Whether or not we accept the existence of a consensus in British post-war politics, what does seem clear is that the ideas embodied in Keynesianism about economic management and in Mu, u'yt wu " ' -syq" -xy- ' -x'" qs'ut " q' " ' yt ►y, u' " ' -" q' " u•q'y, u•" t €"qr •u" v-" " -v" ►u•vq'u" capitalism.

The welfare consensus, or so it is believed, was the creation of misguided, though possibly genuine, political reformers. They legitimated wide-ranging interventionist activities for the state in areas of the economy, in industry and in issues of personal welfare. As a result they distorted the true and historic independent ' q'€' "-v"xu'y: t.y, yt €q•q. t. "xu"-•u"-v"xu" . q'€"q• "—u"q'y-..!:-v" the market in the allocation of resources. Instead of engaging in unregulated exchange relationships with employers, sellers of goods and other individuals, citizens were made the servants of the state. Instead of promoting social rights, consensus politics conferred the status of serfdom on citizens whose actions were circumscribed by the all-pervasive regulatory actions of the state. One of the consequences was to place the state in the role of family head or pater familias.

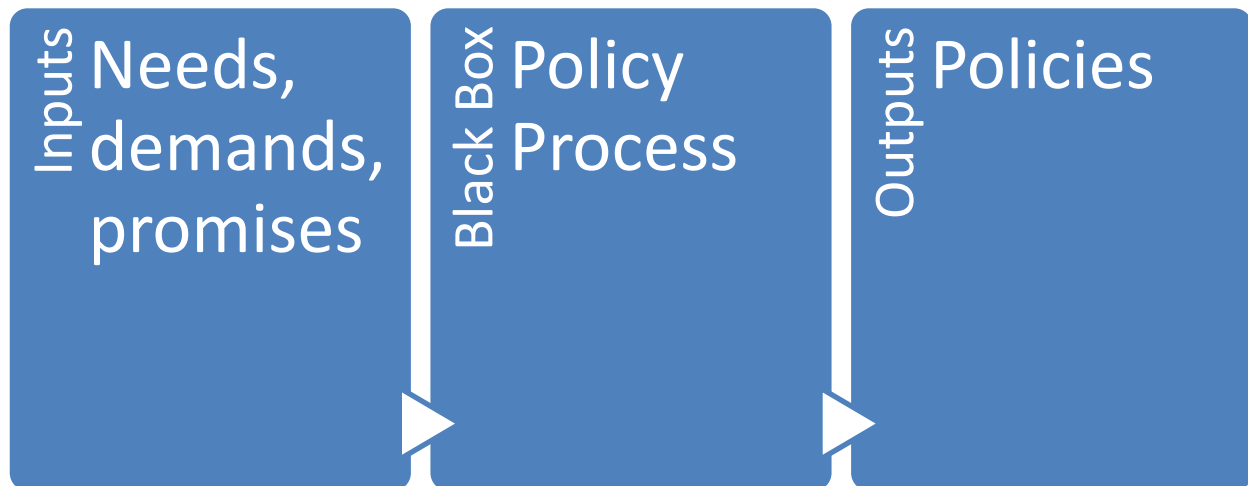
Lesson 08

WHO MAKES SOCIAL POLICY IN PAKISTAN?
(Topic 041-044)

Topic 041: Policy-making: The Easton Model

The Easton Model is a simple, dynamic model of the policy process. It is based on the idea that the policy process is a system that takes inputs and produces outputs. The inputs are needs, demands, and promises. The process is the policy process, which is often referred to as the 'black box'. The outputs are policies. The model is simple because it does not attempt to explain the internal workings of the policy process. It is dynamic because it recognizes that the policy process is constantly changing. The model is useful because it provides a framework for understanding the policy process and for identifying the factors that influence it. Within the parameters of the British state, the central state may be considered to be the main actor in the policy process. Decisions are made by the central state, which is influenced by the inputs and the process.

Constitutionally, Britain operates a tripartite division of powers:

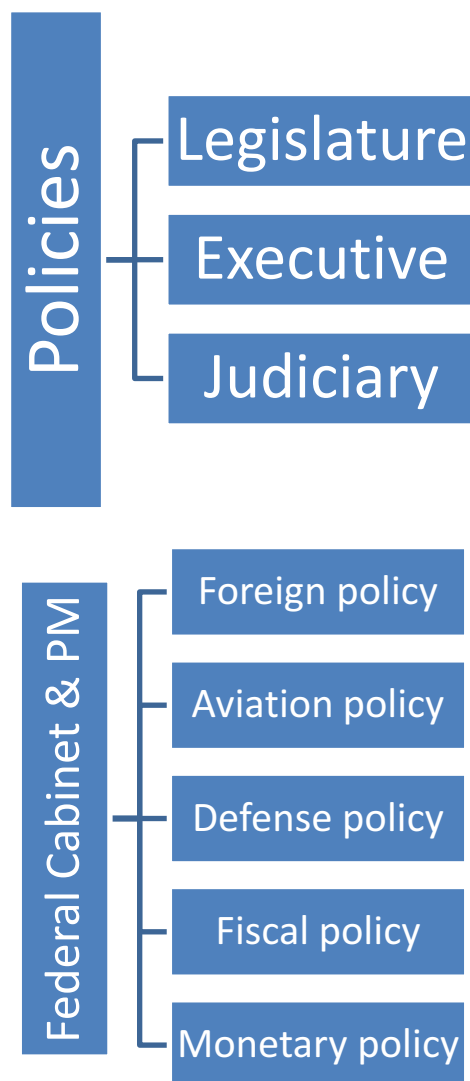
**Easton Model****Strengths:**

- Simple, easily understood
- Dynamic model
- Acknowledges different types of influences

Deficiencies:

Overly simplistic
 Nothing about levels of government
 No differentiation between outputs and outcomes
 Nothing about implementation

The legislature (Parliament), the judiciary (judges, courts and tribunals) and the executive (the Civil Service and departments wherein they work). This remains something of a constitutional fiction, however, since there is a great deal of interplay between the three arms of the constitution. Crucial to this interplay is the role of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet which has developed over the past two centuries and is today pivotal in the making of policy. On re-election the Minister ship signalled the importance of the Cabinet, for example by establishing within it the Social Exclusion Unit and



Topic 042: Who Makes Policy: Models of Power

In order to make sense of what has been happening in education, or in any area of social policy, it is helpful to compare different views or models of how policies develop. No single model or theory will perfectly account for every policy and its outcome. To understand the policy process satisfactorily we need to combine a number of models.

Top-down and bottom up policies

Is there a concern about the needs of the people?
Is there a concern about the needs of all/majority of the people?
Who determines the needs?

I	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
	They are elected								
	They are closer to the people								
	They need to be re-elected								

Why specific policies are made?

Official reasons: To increase welfare
Unofficial (sometimes actual) reasons: To benefit the political party/leader
Usually a combination of the two

Devolution Plan 2001

Official reasons: To bring government closer to people
Unofficial reasons: To create a new political leadership and to undercut established democratic parties

Policies and power

Public interest
Public participation

Policies and Executive branch

Only Cabinet
Senior civil servants (Ministries, Departments and Autonomous bodies)
Specialists (Regulatory bodies, SBP, HEC, etc.)

Models of power how decisions are made: No single model is perfect

Democratic pluralist model
Elite control model
Political economy model

Topic 043: The Democratic Pluralist Model

dxu't u' -s'q'ys"-€'q'y'"" -t u'y'"—r qr •""xu's•—u' ""—"—€•q'"q.t." s—' ' —... 'u. 'u ",yu▶—"—v
how government should act and how policies should be made in a democratic society. However,
—q""•""q' "q""u'€•""—v' ▶yt u'—uqt "—Er •ysy'""qr—€""•uqt y.w"—yysyq.∴ alleged manipulation of

evidence put before Parliament (for instance, before and after the second war in Iraq), and about abuses of power and privilege by politicians, ' q.:"—u—u '""€'."y.:xu"yt uq"xq"t usy y-..:"q"u" made democratically, or that politicians are accountable to the people, has been eroded. This loss of belief in democracy has been demonstrated by decreasing turnout at general elections. For instance in the election of 2005 the lowest turnout since 1919 was registered, and less than half of young voters (aged 18 25) bothered to vote. While public disillusion with politics and politicians is growing in the UK, however, this does not mean that the democratic model, or view of how politics works, is completely worthless or outdated. Arguably, there is at least some democratic input into the policy-making process in Britain, and politicians are held accountable to the democratic will to some degree.

T—►u,u"3y"y"y —' 'yr •u"—"u'—.,u"xu"q"ŵ€' u..:"qr—€'" x—►" €sx "t u' —s"qs""►u have, or how democratic policy-making is, without defining democracy itself. For instance, if we were to define a democracy as a community in which everyone had an exactly equal say, and in which power was shared absolutely equally between all individuals, then no large-scale societies or —•yysq"ŵ"—€—'►—€t "€q•y"q" t u' —s"q"ys 5This ideal does not, and cannot, exist in its purest form. Thus a realistic definition of democracy does not necessarily entail complete equality of power or an equal say in policy-making. This point was made by Dahl (1961) in a classic study of how politicians and other power-holders operated in an American city.

He concluded that there are clear inequalities in democratic politics — certain business interests and pressure groups are much more powerful than others, for instance. However, a political system can be regarded as sufficiently democratic as long as electors and democratic parties have the final say. Similarly, in British politics, some individuals and groups are clearly more articulate and better resourced than others, and for a variety of reasons will have more say over policy than poorer and marginalized groups. In a parliamentary democracy the —u—•u " representatives (MPs) are supposed to be able to speak from their own point of view and according to their own consciences. MPs are not supposed to be delegates who simply report or ' y"—"y"xu"—y.y-..:"—v"xuy"s-..:ý€u.: '5U."q.: "sq'u3's-..:ý€u.: ' views are often difficult to summarize, as opinion on many key issues is sharply divided.

In practice, MPs are often more constrained by party discipline than by their own consciences or views. Their behaviour in the House of Commons usually reflects the instructions of party •uqt u"x"q. t. " —q""""►xy— "/Y] "►x—"qs"q"—'ŵq.y u"x"—" qéu"€"u that their fellow members v—•—►"xu"—q""""•y.u "q. t. ",—'u"qss—'t y.ŵ"08T—►u,u", when a governing party is divided over certain key issues these constraints might be loosened. At these times it is possible for opposition q. t. t y' u. :""—"ŵ"—►►yxy.:"xu"ŵ-,u".y.ŵ—q"""" own ranks. This will lead to a fuller, more democratic debate about the contentious policies being fought over. Also, the democratic model holds that general elections guarantee the accountability of governments to the public. A government that persistently ignores the wishes of the people can expect to be thrown out of office when the next general election is held.

Finally, the democratic pluralist model suggests that governments are held in check because power is widely diffused in society beyond government and Parliament. For instance, decisions about education will not be made by government acting alone. According to the democratic model, a plurality of groups or a number of voices will have their say. These may include bodies

such as business leaders and associations (the Institute of Directors and the Confederation of British Industry are two leading examples), 'uqsxu" "q' '-syq'y-..:"q.t."€..y-..:3'-q'u.?: "•-r r "" groups, and religious organizations. A government that ignores powerful vested interests and pressure groups will, according to this model of power, quickly lose its authority and be forced to back down on policy decisions. This suggests a picture of policy-making as a constant contest between government and major social institutions and groups. Government might initially set the agenda, but must constantly respond to demands from the social groups and economic influences that surround it.

Topic 044: The Elite Control Model

The elite control model suggests that elite groups of various kinds combine to run all the major government institutions, with relatively little accountability to anyone outside their own u' s€'y,u""q.é'S' Ou' -s"q'ys "y.:.y'€'y-..:"u' y 'Ev-"u' q' -u3"u•q'y,u•""€..u' u'ut mass media, elections, parliaments and individual rights to express oneself. However, as a result of a combination of skill, experience and monopolizing key leadership positions, it is always members of elites who have the decisive influence or the authoritative voice in these supposedly democratic institutions.

Elites are rather different from each other in terms of what they do and what their first priorities will be. There may be some conflicts of interest among civil service, political, military, business and professional elites. However, a theory of elite control suggests that top-ranking members of leading professional, governmental and business organizations will tend to be drawn from the same social backgrounds, to have gone to the same elite schools and universities, and to share a similar culture. Bonds of family and kinship will also tend to tie them together. Even if some have risen into the elite from non-elite backgrounds, they will have been safely incorporated into the exclusive club. Thus, despite their differences, members of elites will tend to pull together to make sure that they retain overall control of policy decisions.

This model would suggest that the blueprint of the 1940s welfare state was the work of government elite. A tiny influential group worked out what would be in the best interests of the masses and proceeded, in the postwar period, to implement their wartime plans. Barnett (1986) s-..u.t." "xq""xy"sy,y""u",ysu"u•y'u"-v' g xyuxq•"" q.t.q'y.: "►q' both high-minded and left-leaning in its aims and political values. Whether or not Barnett is right about the way in which the welfare state was created (for further comment, see Deakin 1994: 36), this example raises the interesting point that elite control need not necessarily result in policies that are fashioned according to the narrow self-interest of the elite itself. The NHS, for instance, is largely the product of conflict and power struggles between political and medical elite (see Klein 1995). There was relatively little input from Parliament, which endorsed the NHS Bill with little amendment, or from any other broad-based democratic institutions. Yet the NHS remains one of the most popular institutions: a socialist-inspired health service brought into being by elites.

Topic 045: The Political Economy Model

The political economy model rests on rather different assumptions from the first two. Basically, both the democratic pluralist and elite control models pose the question, ►xysx"w?-€-""q'u"y..

s...?—J "L'u"—ysyu" 'xq-ut "—y' q'y"r "'t u' —s"q's"y.:'y€'y—.: and groups or are they determined by elites? A political economy perspective, on the other hand, draws more attention to the underlying economic system and how the political system interacts with it. The economic systems that prevail in almost every country in the world are now openly capitalist market economies of one kind or another. Even China, though retaining a one-party communist political structure, has become the fastest-growing capitalist or market economy in the world.

Thus the basic idea of a political economy perspective is that social policy will tend to be shaped by the needs or demands of a market economy. This includes education policy. The political economy view of power asks in what ways government spending on education is influenced by the needs and demands of business and industry. For instance, the drive to cut e' —"u" "s—'" by reducing the burden of taxation might influence government to restrain public spending on all public services, including education. But 'xy"q's'—"s—€t "r u"r q•q. sut "r "'—' u"u' —"u" " pressure on government to increase education spending, especially in areas such as improving literacy and numeracy or the use of new technologies, in order to lift the levels of skills and productivity of the school leavers or university graduates they wish to recruit.

Although a political economy perspective emphasizes the needs of the capitalist system as a whole, it also has implications, like the first two models, for the question of who controls or dominates policy-making. In many respects, the political economy model comes close to the theory of elite control. As it suggests that most major policy decisions are subject to the backing —v" r yw r €'y.u'— "—"sq-y'q'y"y.:'u'—'3'y"y"q"x—" "'u—" "q'y.w" 'xq" w—,u"'. u."q.t."s y,y service elites interlock with business elites (leaders of City and financial institutions, and of manufacturing, retail and other commercial organizations). Evidence of this is provided partly by 'usu.'w—,u"'. u.' "u•yq. su—.'r €'y.u'—"uqt u" "—xuqt ".u►'t u,,u—' u.' in education policy, such as their increasingly important role in funding and running the city academy program.

The political economy model can be equated with Marxist views of a class-structured society in which a ruling class controls policy and makes most, if not all, the big decisions. The way in which this control is actually exercised is a matter of debate among Marxists, who disagree with each other about how directly or openly government and state are manipulated by ruling class interests (Ham and Hill 1993: 35). Despite these differences, however, Marxist perspectives share a common view that it is the underlying political economic system that shapes policy, rather than the particular elite groups, political parties or leaders that happen to be in power at a given time. There may be shifts of power within the ruling class, they argue, but the system as a whole will tend to perpetuate gross inequalities of wealth and power. These inequalities will have an increasingly international dimension as the globalization of trade and capitalism concentrates wealth in fewer and fewer hands, and in huge international business corporations. This in turn creates the potential for growing conflict between the haves and have-nots between those who control policy and the mass of people who have to deal with the consequences of government decisions that tend to favour the rich and powerful.

Lesson 09**WHAT IS GOVERNANCE & GOOD GOVERNANCE?**
(Topic 046-049)**Topic 046-049: What Is Governance & Good Governance?- I-IV****Governance**

The concept of "governance" is not new. It is as old as human civilization. Simply put "governance" means: the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented). Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance. Since governance is the process of decision making and the process by which decisions are implemented, an analysis of governance focuses on the formal and informal actors involved in decision-making and implementing the decisions made and the formal and informal structures that have been set in place to arrive at and implement the decision. Government is one of the actors in governance. Other actors involved in governance vary depending on the level of government that is under discussion. In rural areas, for example, other actors may include influential land lords, associations of peasant farmers, cooperatives, NGOs, research institutes, religious leaders, finance institutions political parties, the military etc. The situation in urban areas is much more complex. Figure 1 provides the interconnections between actors involved in urban governance. At the national level, in addition to the above actors, media, lobbyists, international donors, multi-national corporations, etc. may play a role in decision making or in influencing the decision-making process. All actors other than government and the military are grouped together as part of the "civil society." In some countries in addition to the civil society, organized crime syndicates also influence decision-making, particularly in urban areas and at the national level. Similarly formal government structures are one means by which decisions are arrived at and implemented. At the national level, informal decision-making structures, such as "kitchen cabinets" or informal advisors may exist. In urban areas, organized crime syndicates such as the "land Mafia" may influence decision-making. In some rural areas locally powerful families may make or influence decision-making. Such, informal decision-making is often the result of corrupt practices or leads to corrupt practices.

Good Governance

Good governance has 8 major characteristics. It is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law. It assures that corruption is minimized, the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in decision-making. It is also responsive to the present and future needs of society. Following are the characteristics:

Characteristics of good governance

1. Participation:

Participation by both men and women is a key cornerstone of good governance. Participation could be either direct or through legitimate intermediate institutions or representatives. It is important to point out that representative democracy does not necessarily mean that the concerns of the most vulnerable in society would be taken into consideration in decision making. Participation needs to be informed and organized. This means freedom of association and expression on the one hand and an organized civil society on the other hand.

2. Rule of law:

Good governance requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially. It also requires full protection of human rights, particularly those of minorities. Impartial enforcement of laws requires an independent judiciary and an impartial and incorruptible police force.

3. Transparency:

Transparency means that decisions taken and their enforcement are done in a manner that follows rules and regulations. It also means that information is freely available and directly accessible to those who will be affected by such decisions and their enforcement. It also means that enough information is provided and that it is provided in easily understandable forms and media.

4. Responsiveness:

Good governance requires that institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe.

5. Consensus oriented:

There are several actors and as many view points in a given society. Good governance requires mediation of the different interests in society to reach a broad consensus in society on what is in the best interest of the whole community and how this can be achieved. It also requires a broad and long-term perspective on what is needed for sustainable human development and how to achieve the goals of such development. This can only result from an understanding of the historical, cultural and social contexts of a given society or community.

6. Equity and inclusiveness:

L "–syu" "►u•"r uy. w't u–u. t. "–. 'u. '€'y. w"xq"q•'y' " u' r u" "uu•"xq" "xu" "xq, u"q" 'qéu'y. 'y' and do not feel excluded from the mainstream of society. This requires all groups, but particularly the most vulnerable, have opportunities to improve or maintain their well being.

7. Effectiveness and efficiency:

Good governance means that processes and institutions produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best use of resources at their disposal. The concept of efficiency in the context of good governance also covers the sustainable use of natural resources and the protection of the environment.

8.Accountability:

Accountability is a key requirement of good governance. Not only governmental institutions but also the private sector and civil society organizations must be accountable to the public and to their institutional stakeholders. Who is accountable to whom varies depending on whether decisions or actions taken are internal or external to an organization or institution. In general an organization or an institution is accountable to those who will be affected by its decisions or actions. Accountability cannot be enforced without transparency and the rule of law.

k " 'm 'k mA 'LL' " 'b 'b "

The 12 Principles are enshrined in the Strategy on Innovation and Good Governance at local level, endorsed by a decision of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe in 2008. They cover issues such as ethical conduct, rule of law, efficiency and effectiveness, transparency, sound financial management and accountability.

PRINCIPLE 1 Participation, Representation, Fair Conduct of Elections

Local elections are conducted freely and fairly, according to international standards and national legislation, and without any fraud.

Citizens are at the centre of public activity and they are involved in clearly defined ways in public life at local level.

All men and women can have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate bodies that represent their interests. Such broad participation is built on the freedoms of expression, assembly and association.

All voices, including those of the less privileged and most vulnerable, are heard and taken into account in decision-making, including over the allocation of resources.

There is always an honest attempt to mediate between various legitimate interests and to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the whole community and on how this can be achieved

Decisions are taken according to the will of the many, while the rights and legitimate interests of the few are respected.

PRINCIPLE 2 Responsiveness

Objectives, rules, structures, and procedures are adapted to the legitimate expectations and needs of citizens.

Public services are delivered, and requests and complaints are responded to within a reasonable timeframe.

PRINCIPLE 3 Efficiency and Effectiveness

Results meet the agreed objectives.

Best possible use is made of the resources available.

Performance management systems make it possible to evaluate and enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of services.

Audits are carried out at regular intervals to assess and improve performance.

PRINCIPLE 4 Openness and Transparency

Decisions are taken and enforced in accordance with rules and regulations.

There is public access to all information which is not classified for well-specified reasons as provided for by law (such as the protection of privacy or ensuring the fairness of procurement procedures).

Information on decisions, implementation of policies and results is made available to the public in such a way as to enable it to effectively follow and contribute to the work of the local authority.

PRINCIPLE 5 Rule of Law

The local authorities abide by the law and judicial decisions.

Rules and regulations are adopted in accordance with procedures provided for by law and are enforced impartially.

PRINCIPLE 6 Ethical Conduct

The public good is placed before individual interests.

There are effective measures to prevent and combat all forms of corruption.

Conflicts of interest are declared in a timely manner and persons involved must abstain from taking part in relevant decisions.

PRINCIPLE 7 Competence and Capacity

The professional skills of those who deliver governance are continuously maintained and strengthened in order to improve their output and impact.

Public officials are motivated to continuously improve their performance.

Practical methods and procedures are created and used in order to transform skills into capacity and to produce better results.

PRINCIPLE 8 Innovation and Openness to Change

New and efficient solutions to problems are sought and advantage is taken of modern methods of service provision.

There is readiness to pilot and experiment new programmes and to learn from the experience of others.

A climate favourable to change is created in the interest of achieving better results.

PRINCIPLE 9 Sustainability and Long-Term Orientation

The needs of future generations are taken into account in current policies.

The sustainability of the community is constantly taken into account.

Decisions strive to internalise all costs and not to transfer problems and tensions, be they environmental, structural, financial, economic or social, to future generations.

There is a broad and long-term perspective on the future of the local community along with a sense of what is needed for such development.

There is an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which this perspective is grounded.

PRINCIPLE 10 Sound Financial Management

Charges do not exceed the cost of services provided and do not reduce demand excessively, particularly in the case of important public services.

Prudence is observed in financial management, including in the contracting and use of loans, in the estimation of resources, revenues and reserves, and in the use of exceptional revenue.

Multi-annual budget plans are prepared, with consultation of the public.

Risks are properly estimated and managed, including by the publication of consolidated accounts and, in the case of public-private partnerships, by sharing the risks realistically.

The local authority takes part in arrangements for inter-municipal solidarity, fair sharing of burdens and benefits and reduction of risks (equalization systems, inter-municipal co-operation, ' €'€q'q'y-.-v'y'é' 08'

PRINCIPLE 11 Human Rights, Cultural Diversity and Social Cohesion

g yxy."xu"•sq"q€'x-~y"" "x-u"u"-v'y.x•Eu.su3'x€' q.!"ywx"q'u"u'-us'ut 3'—'us'ut "q.t." implemented, and discrimination on any grounds is combated.

Cultural diversity is treated as an asset, and continuous efforts are made to ensure that all have a stake in the local community, identify with it and do not feel excluded.

Social cohesion and the integration of disadvantaged areas are promoted.

Access to essential services is preserved, in particular for the most disadvantaged sections of the population.

PRINCIPLE 12 Accountability

All decision-makers, collective and individual, take responsibility for their decisions.

Decisions are reported on, explained and can be sanctioned.

There are effective remedies against maladministration and against actions of local authorities which infringe civil rights.

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The concept of good governance emerged at the end of the 1980s, at a time of unprecedented political changes. The collapse of the Berlin wall on 9th November 1989 set off the disintegration of the Soviet Union which as a consequence thereof also led to the decay of the political and economic alliances of the Eastern bloc. These political changes created the breeding ground and gave way for a serious discussion on how a state has to be designed in order to achieve (economic) development, i.e. a discussion on good governance. The 1989 World Bank Study c€r-Saharan Africa v'-' "N'y'y""-c€'qy.qr•u"S"-►x "q.q" ut "xu't u,u•—' u.!"-r•ems in Sub-Saharan Africa. In the 1980s the economic performance of the countries in the region had ►"x u.ut "t u'-y'u"xu'y -u' u.'q'y-.-v"xu"Mq.é " "Es'€"q"qt x' u.!"-w'q' '5U!"xu" '€t "" 'xu"u" " w-,u".q.su "►q"v'y"€'ut ""-t u's'yr u"xu".uut "v-" institutional reform and a better

and more efficient public sector in Sub-Saharan countries. The former president of Senegal, Lrt-€"Oy-€v'€' ' q'yut "xu'u"vy.t.y.w'E L v'sq"u'€y'u' ".:."Æ' "u' "w-,u' ".:."r€"ru'u' "w-,u' ".:." S-S-,u' ".q.su"vy' "€'ut "— describe a better and more efficient public sector. The '€t "t uy.ut "w-,u' ".q.su"q' " dxu'u' u'sy'u"-v'—y'sq"—►u' "— q.qwu"q".q'y-... "qwqy' 38DD9" —€r •ysq'y-.. S-,u' ".q.su"q.t."Ou,u'— u.?: " dxu" q....u'y.".►xysx"—►u'y "u' u'sy'ut "y.!:xu" management of q" s-€..? " us-.:.' ys" q.t." -syq" "u'-€"su" v-' t u,u'— u.?: 3' U.: 8DD, " Governance is epitomized by Predictable, open, and enlightened policymaking; A bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; An executive arm of government accountable for its actions; A "—..w'sy,y" -syu' "—q'y'sy-q'y.w'y.".€r •ys"qwqy' Fq.t."L •"r uxq,y.w'€..t.u' "xu"€u"-v'•q► " Expanding public sector management reform Internal & external accountability Vertical & horizontal accountability, exit & voice Public participation, Rule of law initially, better laws, latter rights & judicial reform, transparency and information, a competitive market economy "u'€y'u' " xq" us-.:.' ys" qs'-x" xq,u" qssu' " -" "u•,q.3' 'y u'3' q.t." "u•yqr •u" y.v—" q'y-...5' Beneficial in 3 areas: Economic efficiency, Prevention of corruption, Analysis & acceptance of governmental policy choices. WB: From economic to political areas, State crucial, unlike under SAP, without human rights, sustainable development not possible.

Governance Theory

The English word governance derives from Latin and ancient Greek and originally meant control, guidance and manipulation. Its meaning had long overlapped with the word government and was mainly used to refer to administrative and political activities related to national public affairs. However, in the 1990s, it was given a new meaning by western political scientists and economists. Since then, the word has implied much more than it did traditionally and is starkly different from what the word government means. Instead of an exclusively English word, it is in common use among people speaking other major European languages; instead of an exclusively political term, it is widely used in social and economic spheres. When trying to sum up what was happening in Africa in 1989, the World Bank usut "xu"u' " s'y'y "y.'w-,u' ".q.su "v—"xu"vy' " time. Since then, governance as a word has been widely used in political development studies, especially for describing the political status of post-colonial and developing countries.

By now, scholars from various countries have come up with five major propositions on governance as theory. They are as follows:

1. Governance refers to a set of institutions and actors that are drawn from but also beyond the Government. It challenges the authority of the State or the Government in the traditional sense and maintains that the Government is not the only power center of a state. As long as the power exercised by a public or private institution is recognized by the public, it is possible to become a power center at a specific level.
2. Governance identifies the blurring of boundaries and responsibilities for tackling social and economic issues. It indicates that, in modern society, the State is transferring its once exclusive responsibilities to civil society (i.e., private sector organizations and voluntary groups, which are undertaking more and more responsibilities that were formerly in the hands of the State). As a result, the boundaries between the State and society and between public and private sectors are becoming increasingly blurred, as are definitions of their responsibilities.

3. Governance identifies the power dependence involved in relationships between institutions involved in collective action. To be specific, every organization devoted to collective action has to depend on other organizations; to achieve its purpose, it has to exchange resources and negotiate a common goal with others, and the outcome of the exchange depends not only on the resources of each actor, but also on the rules of the game and the environment in which the exchange takes place.
4. Governance emphasizes the importance of autonomous self-governing networks of actors. A self-governing network as such has the authority to issue orders in a certain sphere and work with the Government in this sphere and share its responsibilities for public administration.
5. Governance recognizes the capacity to get things done without relying on the power of the Government to command or use its authority. In public affairs management, there are other management tools and techniques and the Government has the responsibility to use them to steer and guide public affairs (Stoker 1999).

Four features: governance

Governance is not a set of rules or an activity, but a process

The process of governance is not based on control, but on coordination

It involves both public and private sectors

It is not a formal institution, but continuing interaction

Good governance is the active and productive cooperation between the State and citizens, and the key to its success lies in the powers participating in political administration. Only when citizens have sufficient political power to participate in elections, policy-making, administration and supervision can they prompt the State and join hands with it to build public authority and order. Apparently, democracy is the only practical mechanism that can safeguard the fully free and equal political power owned by citizens. Hence, good governance is organically combined with democracy. In an autocratic system, it is possible to have good government when the system is at its best, but it is impossible to have good governance. Good governance can only be achieved in a free and democratic political system, as it cannot emerge without freedom and democracy. In fact, there were more profound causes why the theory and practice of good governance sprang up in the 1990s. First of all, good governance is more widely applicable than good government in the traditional sense. Good government has the same scope of coverage as the State. In modern society, the State cannot interfere in many areas, from civil organizations like companies, communities, clubs and professional associations to the international community. In contrast, good governance is not subject to the scope of coverage of the State as it is also indispensable to companies, communities, regions, states and the international community. Second, globalization is becoming the dominant feature of our time, which, in fact, has been referred to by many as the "S-r q•L wu5 '[.u'y —”q..”uq'€”u—v'w—r q•y q'y-.’y ”xu” growing influence of transnational organizations and supranational organizations and the diminishing sovereignty of nation-states and diminishing power of their governments. As the government authority of nation states in the traditional sense is eroded, good governance is playing an increasingly important role. It is because the international community and the society within a state are still in want of public authority and order, a new kind of public authority and

order that can only be achieved through good governance, rather than created by the State in the traditional sense. Finally, good governance is an inevitable consequence of democratization. Democratization is a political feature of our time, as well as an irresistible historical trend. One of its essential significances is that political power is returning from political states to civil societies. Limited government power and the shrinking functions and powers of the State do not necessarily mean vanishing social and public authority, but rather that public authority will be based more on cooperation between the State and citizens.

Immature and essentially ambiguous as it is, governance theory is a breakaway from the traditional dichotomous thinking that has long been dominant in social sciences, i.e., market versus planning, public sector versus private sector, political State versus civil society and nation-state versus international community. It regards effective administration as cooperation between the two; it tries to develop completely new techniques for public affairs management; it emphasizes that administration is cooperation; it argues that legitimate power comes not only from the State, but also from the civil society. The theory also deems governance to be a new practical form of modern democracy. Those are all its contributions of positive significance to political studies. However, there is also a dangerous tendency in Western countries to use the theory to justify some trq.‘...q’y-.q• "q.t."“€-u”—►u”x "y.‘u’u’u. su"►y’x"”xu"y.‘u’’.q•"qwqy”“-v” other countries and pursuit of international hegemony. Based on the premise that the role of the State and state sovereignty are insignificant and the boundaries of nation-states are blurred, governance theory, especially global governance theory, emphasizes the nature of governance as a transnational and global activity. The danger here is that undermining the important roles of state sovereignty and sovereign government in domestic and international governance might be regarded as a theoretical basis for the superpowers and multinationals to interfere with the internal affairs of other countries and promote their international hegemonic policies. Therefore, we must keep a wary eye on the dangerous tendency of governance theory, especially global governance theory.

Lesson 10**MODELS OF GOVERNANCE- I**
(Topic 050-056)**Topic 050: Models of Governance of Welfare State**

Newman (2001) has suggested that there have historically been four types of governance arrangements – hierarchies, markets, networks and partnerships:

- Traditional public administration – the hierarchical model.
- Markets – the rational goal model.
- Networks – the open systems model.
- Partnerships – the self-governance model.

Newman suggested that these four models can be distinguished by reference to two – 'y –...' –v't yw'u. su E

- Power – centralized or decentralized.
- Disposition to change – stability or innovation.

She mapped the four models of governance against these two axes (Figure 6.1). The following sections of the chapter will examine these different governance models. However, before doing that, it is important to note that it would be too simple to depict or overlay particular epochs, ideologies or governments with particular governance models. As Richards and Smith (2003: 9) have observed:

In reality there is no distinct temporal breach between each [model of governance]. The reality is there is a great deal of fuzziness and overlap. However, for the purposes of simplification, we ►y•"€'u"Zu►' q..:'v-€'"' –t u•'–v'w-,u".q. su"–" "€s'€'u"xu't u,u•—' u..:'y..':xu'w-,u".q. su" –v'►u•wq'uE v'–' 'xyu'q'sxyu' "–" q'€u' "–".u'►–'€' "–"–q".u"x xy–' 5

Topic 051: Traditional Governance Structures – Hierarchies

The period of the last 20 to 30 years has seen a shift away from the traditional, centralized (at either national or local government level), hierarchical structures of government. It was said of Aneurin Bevan after the inception of the National Health Service in 1948 that, as the Minister for Tuq'x3'xu"u' —us'ut "'—"r u"qr •u" '—"xuq'"xu sound of a bedpan dropping in a hospital ward in c—€'x"q q•u' "q.t.'r u'y.,—•,,ut 'y..the subsequent action. Certainly with the advent of the post-war welfare state, there was a belief in state planning and delivery of a uniform and universal social welfare provision. The British people had come through the experience of the Second World War in which the state had taken on the responsibility for managing both the supply and demand of many goods. State responsibility had not simply extended to the control of the production of many goods and services, such as health services, housing, child care and food production. In addition, government had taken on the responsibility for managing demand, for example for food and fuel. In many respects, the Warfare State had become the Welfare State.

Topic 052: The Westminster Model

U!.'xu" u'q"—v'w—,u'.'. u.'."/bysxq't "q.t."c' yx3'977: 0'xu" state (directly) controlled the production of a variety of goods:

- Welfare services education, health care, housing, welfare benefits, and social services. Utilities electricity, gas, water, coal, transport, telephone and postal communications, broadcasting.
- Manufacturing steel, shipbuilding, motor vehicle manufacturing.

The state managed supply and demand more generally. There was a general belief, informed by Keynesian economic theory, that the state could control both demand and supply rather than leave it to the market to balance supply to individual demand. At the core of hierarchical government was the sovereignty of government at Westminster. Government governed its citizens in a hierarchical, top-down manner.

- Parliamentary sovereignty
- Accountability through fair and free elections
- The party with the majority of seats has control
- Government is via a strong Cabinet (the Executive)
- Doctrine of ministerial responsibility
- Central government dominance
- Non-political civil servants

Topic 053: Hierarchical Government and Public Accountability

U!". 'xu'u"q"-v'w-,u".'. u.". "xu'r'€"uq€s"q'ys" -t u".": 'q'u"►q' "-'wq.y ut "€sx" xq' the citizen was able to apportion responsibility and hold to account those responsible. For the citizen, it was their elected representatives who were ultimately responsible and held to account (with the Executive responsible to the elected representatives as a whole); they, in turn, held accountable their senior bureaucrats who then held to account their junior colleagues and so forth down the lines of the bureaucratic modern state. Therefore, in the traditional, hierarchical, bureaucratic state:

Governing was basically regarded as one-way traffic from those governing to those governed. (Kooiman, 2000: 142) Therefore, governmu."y."xu" -t u".": 'q'u't €'y.w" 'xu'u"q"-v'w-,u".'. u.". " had the following features:

- an elected representative set of institutions whose ultimate responsibility it is to govern;
- a set of administrative bureaucratic institutions that are there to support the political representatives in the development of policy and its implementation;
- a territorial locale within which these institutions of the state operate;
- levels of government and administration with that at the national level being supreme or primary;
- the state developing social policies that aim to improve the lot of its citizens,
- promote the development of the nation or polity, and secure social inclusion and
- therefore legitimacy;
- control of the national and local economy, not least through influencing the supply and demand of goods;
- the promotion of the involvement of citizens in terms of both their rights and duties. (After Richards and Smith, 2003: 46)

Governance in the epoch of hierarchical government meant that:

In the UK the post-war welfare settlement was based on the conception of the state as a direct service provider, with large, bureaucratic state organizations forming a public sector predominantly based on governing through hierarchy. (Newman, 2001: 13) However, by the mid-1970s these arrangements were seen to be no longer appropriate, and were criticized for promulgating monolithic, inefficient, unresponsive, supplier-dominant welfare services. A period

of reform under the governments of the New Right and New Labour has since ensued with the intention of tackling these perceived problems.

Topic 054: Breakdown of the Hierarchical Government

Part of the drive for change in social policy over the last 25 years has been related to how services are delivered, the aim being to provide more effective social and public services, including arrangements to allow the citizen to shape and influence the nature of those services. The drive for change in the governance and management of public services from both the New Right governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major and, latterly, New Labour has been in part to ensure that social and other public services cease to be: monolithic, inefficient, unresponsive and supplier dominant.

First, public services were regarded as monolithic or uniform. That is, there was a notion that the state would provide the same type and level of service to each user, patient, tenant, pupil or student without acknowledging the diversity of needs. This was characterized by the criticism 'xq'' 'q'u" —,,y y—.!" uq.?" —.u" 'y u" w' "q• 5 Irrespective of whom you were or what your particular needs were, you would get the same service as your neighbor and fellow citizens throughout the United Kingdom.

Second, public services were depicted, perhaps unfairly, as inefficient. Local government in particular was generally thought to be wasteful of public money, whilst the NHS was believed to be over- q. qwut "r ""y.uvysu.." ' 'q'u"r€"uq€s"q' 5 Indeed, it was argued by some that public services tended to expand their budgets to maximize their own interests rather than to improve or increase services.

Bureaucrats benefited in direct proportion to the size of the budget they held Claims for improved spending on public services [were seen] as a reflection —v"—€r•ys" 'u",,q.: "q.t." profes'y—.q• 't u' y'u"—"uq".!" —'u"q.t."€..!•q'wu"—'wq.y'q'y—..5(Glennerster, 2003: 27)

When budgets were tight, rather than becoming more efficient it was argued that professionals simply reduced their workload or output. Perhaps unsurprisingly, both local government and the NHS have been subjected to virtually continuous reorganisation over the last 25 to 30 years. And yet, if one explores the use of resources in the NHS, for example, one sees first that the UK has traditionally spent less of its GDP than comparable OECD countries on health care and, second, when it comes to expenditure on administrative costs, the UK is relatively efficient.

Related to the perceptions of inefficiency was the belief that public welfare services were also unresponsive. Hospital waiting lists and council housing queues are two examples of state provision perceived to be slow in responding to the needs of citizens. Part of the argument here is that, unlike in a pure market where supply responds to demand by an increase in supply and/or an increase in price, with public services an increase in demand was often managed by extending the waiting time or the length of the queue.

The tendency of firms in a non-competitive situation [is] to be less than wholly efficient in the way they produce their product. Working practices may be slack, responses to consumers slow. dxu" ' —.:.—•""—w' " " q""..—"r u reaped by the shareholders but by the workers and managers not being as responsive and effective as they could be. (Glennerster, 2003: 28, emphasis added)

The final criticism made against public services was that, again unlike in a pure market where the customer is depicted as sovereign, with public services it was argued that it was the suppliers of services, not least the public service professionals, who were dominant. The user, whether he or she was a patient, a housing tenant, a pupil or a student, remained subservient to the provider or supplier: hospital consultants and family GPs, local authority housing officers, school teachers and university lecturers. William Waldegrave, a Conservative Secretary of State in the 1990s, articulated the perceived problem thus: [We have] designed public services where the interests of the providers systematically outweighed those of the users. (Waldegrave, 1993: 9-10) Overall, there was a view that welfare users were unable to exercise either voice or choice. Hirschman (1970) had argued that consumers can influence providers in two ways, by exercising voice or exit. In the 1980s it was felt that the consumers of the welfare state could neither exit from existing providers by taking their custom elsewhere nor voice their dissatisfaction satisfactorily.

These criticisms were leveled at the set of arrangements that epitomized the British post-war welfare state from its inception in 1945 up until the break-up of the post-war consensus encapsulated in the election of the Thatcher Conservative government in 1979. However, it should be remembered that the New Right governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major were not the first post-war governments to be criticized. After all, the Labour governments of Clement Attlee and Harold Wilson were also criticized for being too interventionist. The Conservative governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major were overtly anti-welfarist and anti-statist (Clarke and Newman, 1997; Hughes and Lewis, 1998; Jones and Novak, 1999; Clarke et al., 2000).

Having set the context for governance arrangements, this chapter now explores the changing nature of the governance and management of social welfare in which it has been argued that we have moved from hierarchies to markets, to networks and, latterly, to partnerships. We will start by examining the nature of the New Right's 'free market' approach to social welfare, the values of the market in the provision of social welfare, and hence the move to market governance.

Topic 055: Governance through Markets Model

In the 1980s, both in UK and Pakistan hierarchical model was in retreat, public was not happy and services were not available. In Pakistan, bureaucratic corruption, privatization First to go were manufacturing industries that could easily work in private sector. In Pakistan, rice, flour and ghee mills, etc. Then, financial sector like banks, insurance companies, etc. Then, fertilizer factories, energy sector, etc. Finally, even public services, like garbage collection and water provision. Why? Efficient because private sector want to increase profits, accountable because private sector people can easily respond to bad service, Responsive because has to retain and increase market share, customer is the king, services cannot be monolithic as customer has choice.

Those welfare services that remained the direct responsibility of central or local government were those that were 'non-commercial' (e.g. health, education, etc.) (Clarke and Bartlett, 1993). Quasi-markets are markets in which there is a split between the supplier and the purchaser. However,

unlike in a pure market, the purchaser is not the direct consumer or user. Quasi-markets were introduced in the delivery of a number of services. For example, the NHS and Community Care Act 1990 created "ZTC" – "sxq'u" – „y u” “-y'ru'►uu."S] "v€.t. holders and NHS Hospital Trust providers, whilst in social care Social Services departments increasingly became enablers rather than direct providers of community care. This was all done with the aim of 'us-.:'Es'y.w'/ 'u-y qwy.y.w0' ►u•q'u"€'u"x"q'"►u•q'u"s€'-' u~5 Second, the New Right sought to privatise welfare in terms of repositioning parts of it back in the private realm that is back with individuals, families and communities. Therefore, responsibility was privatized, by making individuals, families and communities responsible for meeting their own welfare needs. This can be seen particularly in the changes that were made in the provision of health and social care. In the fields of health and social care the family or the community has been expected to take on a greater role in the provision of care. In these changes it is now well established that the community-as-carer has primarily meant the family, and within the family the gendered division of labour has meant that caring work has primarily fallen on women as mothers, daughters and wives. (Clarke and Newman, 1997: 28)

However, the marketisation of welfare and other public services led to greater fragmentation of control mechanisms. The state and government more specifically, could not control or command the provision of social welfare in the way that it had in the past. As Newman observed, the introduction of market mechanisms led to a more fragmented and dispersed pattern of service delivery and regulation . . . that required new forms of coordination. Privatization, contracting out, quasi-markets, the removal of functions from local authorities and the proliferation of quangos, the separation between policy and delivery functions in the civil service with the setting up of Executive Agencies all meant that governments had to develop new forms of control. (Newman, 2001: 13)

Topic 056: New Public Management and Managerialism

In addition to the privatization of welfare, the New Right wished to exert greater control on social welfare and other public service providers by bringing in stronger management. New managerialism was an approach that imported the dominant ideology of management from the private sector to run public services. Welfare and other public services were to be reconstructed „yq" 'xy" ' q.qwu'yq'y" " -q'qt yw" "/N•q'ëu" u" q•S' 8DD, F Clarke and Newman, 1997). Y q.qwu'yq'y' q'y-."y" 'xu" —su" —v" —Er zis'y.w"xu"s-...?"—• of public services to the principles, powers and practices of managerial co—'t y.q'y... (Clarke et al., 2000: 5). As such, the new managerialism (Pollitt, 1993; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994; Flynn, 1997; Clarke et al., 2000) reoriented the way that welfare and public services were to be administered and provided, away from hierarchical governance, explored earlier in this chapter, into a new managerialist one which contained: a new set of practices and values, based upon a new language of welfare delivery which emphasizes efficiency and value for money, competition and markets, consumerism and customer care. (Butcher, 1995: 161) The new mangerialism typically featured q'u. 'y-...-—-€'—€'"q.t.—u'v—" q.su "q'xu""xq.'y. .€'"q.t.—u'x— .q"q€'x—"y""—"•y.u" q.qwu"x" " (Clarke et al., 2000: 6).

In really "3" xu "Zu" b yw "u' -xq' y' "q' " -"ru" -."s-."y. w"q" **three of economy, efficiency and effectiveness** " " m (see Carter, 1989; Carter et al., 1992; Power, 1993, 1997; Flynn, 1997):

'y.:-€' 'k €sx"q' 's- ' ' /us- .:.' ' "OF
 "-€'-€' ' /uwysyu. s "OF
 outcomes (effectiveness).

Therefore, throughout the 1980s and up to 1997 there was a great emphasis on reducing budgets, wu'y.w" -'u"v-"u' ' 3'q.t.'v'uuy.w'€—" q.qwu"x"-" q.qwu"q.t. deliver outputs and outcomes (to wu"u'€•' Ø'q•' -"y"u'-us'y,u"-f how this was to be achieved. Some have suggested that this was at least a two-stage process. The w"x""'qwu"►q' "q" .u-dq"•-y' ' /qv'u"R'ut u'ysé"dq"•-y' form of managerialism (see Clarke et al., 1994; Newman and Clarke, 1994; Clarke and Newman, 1997), focusing on importing a culture of strong management, and controlling costs and the behaviour of service providers: The central thrust, endlessly reiterated in official documents, is to set clear targets, to develop performance indicators to measure the achievement of those targets, and to single out, by means of merit awards, those individuals who get "u'€•' 5'dxu" strengthening of and incentivising of line management is a constant theme. In official terms, what seems to be required is a culture shift of a kind that will facilitate a more thoroughgoing functional/neo-Taylorist management process. (Pollitt, 1993: 56) The second stage built on this by introducing quasi-markets, decentralisation, a concentration on quality, and a customer focus (see Clarke and Newman, 1997). Therefore, by the mid-1990s, the new public management paradigm had replaced that of the old public administration and was epitomised by the changes listed in Box 6.4 (after Dunleavy and Hood, 1994: 9; Clarke and Newman, 1997: 21). In so doing, new managerialism sought to manage the welfare professionals and public administrators and did this partly by promoting a greater customer focus (Clarke and Newman, 1997; Newman and Clarke, 1994; Stoker and Mossberger, 1995).

Lesson 11

MODELS OF GOVERNANCE- II (Topic 057-062)

Topic 057: Empowering the Citizen-Consumer

dxu" 'xyt" t y u. 'y-..! '—' 'xu" Zu►" b yw' " ' q'eu" w-,u".q.su " ►q" 'xuy" qt ,,-sq's"" -v consumerism. There had been a growing critique of welfare statism from both left and right leading up to the mid-1970s. The left and new social movements of the 1960s and 1970s /t y q r y y' "3" u. 'q'xuq'x3" 'qsu 3'wu.t.u'" —,u' u. '0'xqt "q"r uv€.!"—"sxq•u.wu the monolithic, top-down state welfare provision that had become established in the post-war welfare state settlement. These movements had started to question the principles underpinning the post-war welfare state with its presumptions of:

'v€••" q•u'u' —••' u.'F

"q"—q"ys€•q"'.—'y-..!—v'vq' y"su..u'ut "—."►—' u."—,yt y.w"xu" ajority of care and welfare;

"q"—q"ys€•q"'.—'y-..!—v'My'x'sy'y u.'xy—r q'ut "—."xu"—ut —' y.q.'u'x.y'sw"—€—F

"qr •u-bodiedness and age.

This, it was argued, had led to a welfare state that supported a particular set of social arrangements in relation '—' 'qsu 3'wu.t.u'3' qwu3' qr •u-bodiedness and sexuality. The €..y,u"xq•y' "—v'sy'y u.'xy—"y"5'5'5't uu—•"sy's€' 's'y'ut " a highly conditional universalism which presumes a family-based social and economic structure. It addresses an indigenous population at whose heart are wage earning males supported by families surrounded by a set of dependent populations positioned r "'qwu"/r—'x'"€..w'q.t.—t Ø'r "'wu.t.u'"/'xu" q.—' q•"—v"xu" married ►—' q..Ø'r "'y.wy" y"'q.t.'r "'qsu '/'xu" q•yu...".—..citizen). (Langan and Clarke, 1993: 28, in Clarke and Newman, 1997: 4)

It certain ways the New Right was able to seize on these criticisms and incorporate them alongside their own arguments when presenting their case for a greater focus on users as customers. For the New Right, state welfare was an unproductive t "qy."—."xu" 'uq"us—..—' " " (Nozick, 1974; Hayek, 1976) and socially damaging 'x"—€w"x"s'uq'y.w'q" t u—u.t.u.s"'s€•€"u " (see Joseph, 1977; Mead, 1986). The New b yw' "'u' ut "'►q' "—"uué"—t us'uq' u"xu"—►u"x"—v" the state, reduce the individual sy'y u...'q' "r €"t u.3'q.t."x€'"u'€"..!—►u"q.t."u'—..y' y y'"—" the individual.

The New Right duly implemented changes in social policy, with the avowed intention of empowering individuals for example, as parents, school governors, tenants, patients and clients. The 1980s and early 1990s saw, for example, the creation of the local management of schools and the option of grant-maintained status free from local authority control, the purchaser/provider split in the health service, and the advent of GP fund holders, compulsory competitive tendering of local authority services and the creation of housing action trusts. The —•y'sq•"ywx' ' argument was that these moves empowered citizens as sovereign consumers, for example through the self-government of schools and hospitals, coupled with the emphasis on consumer choice (as opposed to supplier control) and a mixed economy of welfare provision, consequently leading to increased responsiveness from welfare providers (Hill, 1994). The New

bring in a new managerialist approach, and to empower users as customers, can be seen as part of the process of shifting governance arrangements from hierarchies to markets. They certainly went some way to break up the post-war welfare state settlement and its governance structures based on hierarchy. No longer were public administrators necessarily directly responsible, whilst welfare professionals were being increasingly directed and managed rather than allowed to use their professional discretion, markets and quasi-markets were being brought in, and users reconstructed as customers.

Topic 058: Problems of Market Model

Market model is not the panacea for solving hierarchical models problems. Market failure is a well-documented idea and economic term. Market failure is a situation in which the allocation of goods and services by a free market is inefficient, leading to a net social welfare loss. So, not so much different as far as outcome is concerned.

Four reasons of market failure

Public goods: Public goods are non-rival and non-excludable goods, Non-rival: usage by one does not affect usage by others, national defense, Non-excludable: people cannot be excluded from using the good, air. The best way to provide public goods is at zero price, with the costs paid from public taxation.

Externalities: Externalities mean benefits/costs not included in the demand or supply price. Best example is pollution.

Market control: Market control means power to set the demand or supply price, best example is monopoly, Another example is oligopoly

Imperfect information: Imperfect information means buyer or seller do not have perfect information so the price is not correct, usually seller has better information than buyer. Doctors, lawyers or any other professional usually have better information and they use it to their advantage. Because of these points as well as corruption, private sector in Pakistan is also inefficient and unresponsive. Later on, disasters in privatized industries showed that an unregulated private sector is also inefficient and unaccountable.

Topic 059: Governance through Networks Model

As stated nearer the beginning of the chapter, it would be too simple to overlay particular epochs, ideologies or governments with particular governance models. Similarly, the development of governance arrangements is not a straightforward linear development, from hierarchies to markets and from markets to networks. The nature of welfare provision was that the hierarchical bureaucratic post-war welfare state had indeed been refashioned or distorted, if not totally replaced. Various forces, some internal to Britain and others exerted from outside the British state, had led to the reduction of hierarchical government. Government could no longer adequately respond by itself to the challenges of

well as the public sector. These agents were difficult to control. Increasingly such agents became self-controlling and governing, through networking and linking with each other.

Governance through networks was epitomized by the thinking of Osbourne and Gaebler. For them, government could no longer only to control or steer. They argued that government needed to withdraw from government (!) and concentrate on w-,u".q.su5['r-€".u"q.t."S qur •u" '"/8DD90 influential text, *Reinventing Government*, argued that governments were living with outdated public systems that needed replacing with decentralised, entrepreneurial, responsive public organizations. Their key themes for government were to:

'u' —►"s- ' € .y'yu' 'y. 'uqt "-v't u•y,u'y. w* u",ysu' F
 't usu. .? q•y u"q€'x- 'y' F
 "€ .t. "-€'s- ' u' 3'. .? "y. .€' F
 "u. s-€"qu's- ' -u'y- .! "q'xu" xq. !' - . .—•' F
 " uu" xu". uut " -v" xu's€' -' u' 3'. .? "xu'r €" uq€s" qs" F
 "y. ,u' "y. .! -u, u. 'y- .! "y. .! uqt "-v's€" uF
 "-€" xu' polis back into urban policy.

Government had to relinquish command over service delivery, steer through policy networks and act as an enabler within networks. As Rhodes said: Interorganisational linkages are a defining characteristic of service delivery and I use the term to describe the several interdependent actors involved in delivering services. These networks are made up of organizations which need to exchange resources (for example, money, information, expertise) to achieve their objectives. As British government creates agencies, bypasses local government, uses special purpose bodies to deliver services, and encourages public private partnerships, so networks become increasingly prominent among British governing structures. (Rhodes, 1996: 658)

Topic 060: Governance through Partnerships Model

Similarly to the overlap between markets and networks, the shift from networks to partnership is not a clearly defined one. Even so, as Driver (2005: 265) has observed:

Labour entered government in 1997 not simply to defend key public services such as health and education but to reform them. Indeed, it promised forms of governance 'xq"►-€t "-wu"q" 'xyt "►q" "ru►uu."qt y-y-.q"v-" "-v"-Er •ys"q.t. social administration *and* the reliance on markets as mechanisms to reform the delivery of public services. (Emphasis in the original) This *third* way, neither hierarchical nor market-based, was to be governance through partnerships. As Newman has said:

q" -'u"t y 'y.s'y,u"vuq'€'u"-v"Xqr-€" "q—"qsx"►q"q" -'u"u' -ysy"v-s€"-...partnership as a way of governing. This focus was evident in the strengthening of the partnership rhetoric and in 'xu"Xqr-€"nw-,u"'. u.'. "q—"qsx"-xu delivery of public policy. (Newman, 2001: 105)

bysxq't "q.t."c' y'x"/977: 0'xq,u"u.sq-€q'ut "Zu►"Xqr-€" "q—"qsx"q"ruy.w one focused on z-y.ut "€-nu' "►xu'ur "'Zu►"Xqr-€"q'u' -'ut "'u'-'u'-.u"-v the key challenges presented by governance, that is the inability of elected governments to control and coordinate policy. In Zu►"Xqr-€" ".,yu►3'.uyxu"'xu" 'q'u (hierarchies) nor markets nor networks had adequately tackled the social, political or economic challenges of governance. Therefore, the response of New Xqr-€"xq'ruu."-'"'"'" "►y'u"xu" "'u' 'rqsé'€-/'uu"Zu►' q.3977808'dxy' section now •-é'q"Zu►"Xqr-€" "q—"qsx"-w-,u".q.su'y.'xu" vision of welfare.

dxu"uv-" "-v" ►u•v'q'u"q.t."-Er •ys" 'u",ysu" "xq' "ruu."-q'" "-v"Zu►"Xqr-€" " ' -t u".y'q'y... qwu.t.q "y.su'y' "u•us'y-.y."8DB5'dxy' "qwu.t.q'y.s€t ut "uv-" "-xu National Health Service (see Chapter 12), whereby the purchaser provider split has been retained but reformed and the greater use of the private health sector encouraged.

Education has seen the promotion of specialist schools and city academies. Education and social services have been reformed with the strengthening of performance management, the dismantling of separate LEAs and education and social services departments and their replacement by distinct Adult Services and Cxyt'u...c'u",ysu"Oy'us'-'q'u', and encouragement more generally for education and particularly social services to work more closely with primary health care trusts. Social housing has witnessed the continued encouragement of local authorities to transfer their council housing stock to housing q'-syq'y...-" 'u•v' q.qwu' 'u.q..' -'vq.y'q'y...5'dxu'y.,-•,u' u.'. of the private sector has been encouraged, whether through the continuation of the Private Finance Initiative for capital projects or by bringing in external (that is, private sector) expertise to the public sector, for example in education management.

There q'u"q'w€qr •"'x'uu"q'-us'" "-Zu►"Xqr-€" "q—"qsx"-w-,u".q.su5'Ry'3 New Labour has pursued the agenda of new managerialism with added vigour. Accordingly, New Labour has s-..y.€ut "'-sxq•u.wu"xu"-u'suy,ut " €-yu"t -' y.q.su in public service provision. As the White Paper Modernizing Government (Cabinet Office, 1999: para. 20) stated, public services

.uuu "–" uu"u"xu".uuu "–v sy y u. .3'. .:"xu's–. ,u. yu. su"–v"u",ysu"–,yt u" Sb u•q'ut "–"xy 3"xu" emphasis on quasi-markets remains in place under New Labour. Second, New Labour has placed an even greater emphasis on choice. The third and, arguably, the overriding aspect of New Xqr –€" "q–"–qsx"–"w–,u". q. su"xq' 'r uu. 'y' 'u' –€' q•–v'–q". .u"xy–(Glendinning et al., 2002). U.'u' q' y. y.wZu►"Xqr–€" "approach to governance, this section will examine these three facets of new managerialism, choice and partnership.

Topic 061: Problems of Network and Partnership Models

Zu►"Xqr–€" "xyt "q. t.3'–' u" ywx"q'3–,u"q'sxy.w"q. t.►yxy.'y' "q–"–qsx"– governance y' "–q". u"xy–Zu►"Xqr–€" "Third Way espoused attempts to distance itself from the neo-liberalist market governance of the New Right and also the traditional hierarchical governance arrangements that preceded the New Right. Therefore, whilst New Labour has continued with various aspects of the New bywx' ".u►" q. qwu'yq'y' "q. t. "xq' "–' –'ut "sx–ysu3'y"xq' "q•–" sought to articulate a model of governance based on partnership. One month after its election to government in 1997, Labour was seen to be articulating its emphasis on partnership:

We are not just a new Government, we are a new type of Government. Our decisions will not be handed down from on high . . . we do not have a monopoly of wisdom and ideas. We want to hear your ideas and want you to tell us what you think of ours. (Armstrong, 1997: 18–19)
As such, New Labour proposed to work in partnership:

"x–'y–.q•" for example, across government departments;
",u"ysq•" for example between central and local government;
"►yx"q•"stakeholders users, citizens, business, communities.

The election of a Labour government in May 1997 saw some evidence of a shift from market competition towards a reassertion of (new) public services values. Public agencies are being enjoined . . . to develop partnerships . . . (Barnes, 1999: 87). Only by working in partnership did New Labour believe it would be possible to tackle the problems and complexities within modern society. Newman (2001) has identified a number of objectives that partnership working may meet in the governance and delivery of social welfare:

"c".u'wu'ys"–€'y.:" to develop new, innovative approaches to policy development or service provision by bringing together the contributions and expertise of different partners.

"V-y.ed-up solutions to ensure integrated and coordinated approaches to policy making as well as in welfare provision.

"Muqey.w't–►.:" 'y–' " to ensure government departments work together rather than against each other.

"S'yq'u"q. t. "–'u"►yt u'–'uqt "y. ,–vment to ensure that the best solutions are pursued; therefore, all stakeholders need to be involved, at an individual and a community level as well as those operating at local, regional and national levels of governance.

"R€.t.y.w6u'–€"sy.w" to increase the financial resources available for investment by developing partnerships and joint ventures between the public, private and not-for-profit sectors. New Labour has therefore promoted partnership working across a variety of social welfare areas:

"Pt €cation for example, Education Action Zones, Education Business Partnerships.

"Tuq'x" for example, Health Action Zones, Health Improvement Partnerships.
 "Mi'►uu.!'-sq'w-,u'.' u.' q.t."-xu' qwu.syu"q.t."us'-x" for example, Local Strategic Partnerships, New Deal for Communities.
 "N'y y.q'Æ'y'su" for example, with the establishment of Youth Offending Teams.
 "Ry.q.sy.w" Private Finance Initiative, Public Private Partnerships.

According to the Audit Commission (1998: 5 7) in A Fruitful Partnership, partnership working is difficult to do well and making partnerships work effectively is one of the toughest challenges facing public sector managers.

The report identified a number of difficulties, including:

"wu'y.w'-q".u"x"-qwu'u-.'-y'y'yu'v-r action;
 "éuu-y.w'-q".u"x"qs'y,u'-'y.,-.,ut F
 "-u,u.'y.w'xu"-q".u"xxy-V'-' r us-' y.w'y' -'q"q'éy.w'x-F
 " q'éy.w't usy y-.'xq"q"-q".u"x'u.t.-x uF
 "t usyt y.w'►x-►y•"-.,yt u"xu'u'-É'su".uut ut "-qsxyu,u"xu"-q".u"xxy-"r zis'y,u' F
 "y.éy.w'xu"-q".u"xxy-"►'é"►y'x"-q".u"x" qy.:'uq' "qs'y,y'yu'q.t.'r Et wu' F
 " -.'y-'y.w'xu"-q".u"xxy-"uvus'y,u.u' F
 "►'éy.w'-É"►xu'xu"►xq'y'qsxyu,ut 'Æ'y'yu' "xu's-''y.,-.,ut F
 "q,-yt y.w'-q".u"xxy-.,u'•-qt 3'-q"ysÉ•q'•"►xu'u"qwu.syu"are involved in large numbers of partnerships. (See Ling, 2000)

N'y'ys'v'Zu►"Xqr-É" "''-y-.'-v'w-,u'.q.su"x'-Éw"-q".u"xxy-"xq,u argued that its achievements are over-stated and that there are a number of concerns.

Such criticisms include the following:

"dxu'-'-y-.'-v'-q".u"xxy-►'éy.w'xq'."-.'ut "-uq'•-q".u"xxy-3q'w-,u'.' u.' still plays a centralising and controlling role.
 "j q".u"xxy-►'éy.w'y'."-.'uwq'y'q'yq.'-.'t u' -s'q'ys'y.'xq'-' u'-q".u"x"q'u more equal than others.
 "j q'nership working makes demands only on some (poorer) citizens to participate.
 "dxu'u"q'u"t yysÉ•yu' "y'q.t."►xu.'su"qy.'-q".u"x"sx-'u' .-'-.'-w'u"y.,-.,ut "-' choose to withdraw their support.

These misgivings will be touched on briefly below and then more fully later in this chapter in the discussion of whether the new models of governance have really led to a new set of arrangements.

Topic 062: Comparing Hierarchies, Markets, Networks & Partnerships

Have we really moved away from hierarchical governance? As you will see from Box 6.6, the four models of governance explored in this chapter make particular claims in terms of the basis of the relationship, degree of dependence, medium of exchange, economic model, means of conflict resolution, culture and accountability mechanisms. And yet the question remains as to

whether any of the alternative models (markets, networks, partnerships) have really superseded hierarchical governance.



Lesson 12IS GOVERNANCE USEFUL FOR SOCIAL POLICY?-I
(Topic 063-069)Topic 063: Is Governance Useful For Social Policy?

While governance is a quite recent phenomenon within social policy writing, it has managed to attract some analysis regarding its usefulness. Daly (2003) and Fitzpatrick (2005), for example, have expressed concerns with the governance paradigm. Their three main concerns are:

" 'xu"•y'u"q'€"u"y" "u"u"►y"x"►y"xv€"xy. éy.w'y."►xysx"q"–q"ys€•q" ",u"x y.–v'w–,u". q. su is proposed as the only version in order to advance the very changes the ———'u"►y'xu"–"uu" (Fitzpatrick),

" w–,u". q. su"xyu" "q►q"V'–' "yt u. 'y'f'y.w"xu" qy."–'ywy. :.–v'sxq. wu "Ry –q"ysé0F

" w–,u". q. su'y"y€q'ut "y."xu"–•yysq•"q'xu"™xq. :."xu"–syq• "Oq•'05

Even so, both Daly and Fitzpatrick acknowledge that the focus on governance has provided insights into the developments in the administration of social welfare. Daly (2003) has provided a thorough account of the strengths of the governance paradigm, including the following:

"U"–"–,yt u"q. :.–,u"q'sxy.w'v'q' u►–'é"►yxy."►xysx"–"t u's'y'u"Zu►"Xqr–€" ' approach to social/public policy making and provision.

"U's–. su. :."q'u"–usyysq•"–. :.–ys"" qéy.w5

"U'y"€'uv€•"y."q. q•"y.w"xu'y –qs"–v'–ys""sxq. wu"y."u" "–v"xu"–►u"–v'w–,u". :. u. :. at the centre as against that devolved. Governance helps to explain how the state now exercises loose-tight control or more control over less (Rhodes, 2000).

"U"xu•"–"yt u. 'y'f"q. t. 'u' –qy. :."xu't ywu'u. :."u,u•"q"►xysx"–ys""y" qt u"q. t. implemented supra-national, national, regional, local, and community-based.

"U"xu•"€'€'€' t. u"x'q. t. 'x–►"–syq"–ys""t u,u•–"q. t. 'x–►"►u•vq'u'y"uv–" ut 3 along with an explanation of the reasons why.

"U's–. su. :."q'u"–. :."xu"–u"–v"xu"q'u'y. :.–ys"" qéy.w'q. t. "delivery.

Topic 064: Social Policy Objectives as Given In the Chapter on the Fundamental Rights

How is social policy made and who are the decision-makers? Most important document: Constitution, the supreme law.

Art. 9: Security of person:

No person shall be deprived of life or liberty saves in accordance with law.

Art. 10: Safeguards as to arrest and detention:

(1) No person who is arrested shall be detained in custody without being informed, as soon as may be, of the grounds for such arrest, nor shall he be denied the right to consult and be defended by a legal practitioner of his choice.

Art. 10-A: Right to fair trial:

For the determination of his civil rights and obligations or in any criminal charge against him a person shall be entitled to a fair trial and due process.

Art. 11: Slavery, forced labour, etc. prohibited:

- (1) Slavery is non-existent and forbidden and no law shall permit or facilitate its introduction into Pakistan in any form.
- (2) All forms of forced labour and traffic in human beings are prohibited.
- (3) No child below the age of fourteen years shall be engaged in any factory or mine or any other hazardous employment.
- (4) Nothing in this Article shall be deemed to affect compulsory service:-
 - (a) by any person undergoing punishment for an offence against any law; or
 - (b) required by any law for public purpose provided that no compulsory service shall be of a cruel nature or incompatible with human dignity.

Art.12: Protection against retrospective punishment:

- (1) No law shall authorize the punishment of a person:-
 - (a) for an act or omission that was not punishable by law at the time of the act or omission; or
 - (b) for an offence by a penalty greater than, or of a kind different from, the penalty prescribed by law for that offence at the time the offence was committed.
- (2) Nothing in clause (1) or in Article 270 shall apply to any law making acts of abrogation or subversion of a Constitution in force in Pakistan at any time since the twenty-third day of March, one thousand nine hundred and fifty-six, an offence.

Art.13: Protection against double punishment and self incrimination:

No person:-

- (a) shall be prosecuted or punished for the same offence more than once; or
- (b) shall, when accused of an offence, be compelled to be a witness against himself.

Art. 14: Inviolability of dignity of man, etc:

- (1) The dignity of man and, subject to law, the privacy of home, shall be inviolable.
- (2) No person shall be subjected to torture for the purpose of extracting evidence.

Art. 15: Freedom of movement, etc.

Every citizen shall have the right to remain in, and, subject to any reasonable restriction imposed by law in the public interest, enter and move freely throughout Pakistan and to reside and settle in any part thereof.

Art.16: Freedom of assembly:

Every citizen shall have the right to assemble peacefully and without arms, subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of public order.

Art.17: Freedom of association:

- (1) Every citizen shall have the right to form associations or unions, subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of sovereignty or integrity of Pakistan, public order or morality.
- (2) Every citizen, not being in the service of Pakistan, shall have the right to form or be a member of a political party, subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of the sovereignty or integrity of Pakistan and such law shall provide that where the Federal Government declares that any political party has been formed or is operating in a manner prejudicial to the sovereignty or integrity of Pakistan, the Federal Government shall, within fifteen days of such declaration, refer the matter to the Supreme Court whose decision on such reference shall be final.
- (3) Every political party shall account for the source of its funds in accordance with law.

Art.18: Freedom of trade, business or profession:

Subject to such qualifications, if any, as may be prescribed by law, every citizen shall have the right to enter upon any lawful profession or occupation, and to conduct any lawful trade or business:

Provided that nothing in this Article shall prevent:-

- (a) the regulation of any trade or profession by a licensing system; or
- (b) the regulation of trade, commerce or industry in the interest of free competition therein; or
- (c) the carrying on, by the Federal Government or a Provincial Government, or by a corporation controlled by any such Government, of any trade, business, industry or service, to the exclusion, complete or partial, of other persons.

Art.19: Freedom of speech, etc:

Every citizen shall have the right to freedom of speech and expression, and there shall be freedom of the press, subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of the glory of Islam or the integrity, security or defence of Pakistan or any part thereof, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, [commission of] or incitement to an offence.

19A. Right to information:

Every citizen shall have the right to have access to information in all matters of public importance subject to regulation and reasonable restrictions imposed by law.

Art. 20: Freedom to profess religion and to manage religious institutions:

Subject to law, public order and morality:-

- (a) every citizen shall have the right to profess, practice and propagate his religion; and
- (b) every religious denomination and every sect thereof shall have the right to establish, maintain and manage its religious institutions.

Art.21: Safeguard against taxation for purposes of any particular religion:

No person shall be compelled to pay any special tax the proceeds of which are to be spent on the propagation or maintenance of any religion other than his own.

Art.22: Safeguards as to educational institutions in respect of religion, etc:

(1) No person attending any educational institution shall be required to receive religious instruction, or take part in any religious ceremony, or attend religious worship, if such instruction, ceremony or worship relates to a religion other than his own.

(2) In respect of any religious institution, there shall be no discrimination against any community in the granting of exemption or concession in relation to taxation.

(3) Subject to law:

(a) no religious community or denomination shall be prevented from providing religious instruction for pupils of that community or denomination in any educational institution maintained wholly by that community or denomination; and

(b) no citizen shall be denied admission to any educational institution receiving aid from public revenues on the ground only of race, religion, caste or place of birth.

(4) Nothing in this Article shall prevent any public authority from making provision for the advancement of any socially or educationally backward class of citizens.

Art.23: Provision as to property:

Every citizen shall have the right to acquire, hold and dispose of property in any part of Pakistan, subject to the Constitution and any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the public interest.

Art.24: Protection of property rights:

(1) No person shall be compulsorily deprived of his property save in accordance with law.

(2) No property shall be compulsorily acquired or taken possession of save for a public purpose, and save by the authority of law which provides for compensation therefore and either fixes the amount of compensation or specifies the principles on and the manner in which compensation is to be determined and given.

(3) Nothing in this Article shall affect the validity of :-

(a) any law permitting the compulsory acquisition or taking possession of any property for preventing danger to life, property or public health; or

(b) any law permitting the taking over of any property which has been acquired by, or come into the possession of, any person by any unfair means, or in any manner, contrary to law; or

(c) any law relating to the acquisition, administration or disposal of any property which is or is deemed to be enemy property or evacuee property under any law (not being property which has ceased to be evacuee property under any law); or

(d) any law providing for the taking over of the management of any property by the State for a limited period, either in the public interest or in order to secure the proper management of the property, or for the benefit of its owner; or

(e) any law providing for the acquisition of any class of property for the purpose of

(i) providing education and medical aid to all or any specified class of citizens or

- (ii) providing housing and public facilities and services such as roads, water supply, sewerage, gas and electric power to all or any specified class of citizens; or
- (iii) providing maintenance to those who, on account of unemployment, sickness, infirmity or old age, are unable to maintain themselves ; or
- (f) any existing law or any law made in pursuance of Article 253.
- (4) The adequacy or otherwise of any compensation provided for by any such law as is referred to in this Article, or determined in pursuance thereof, shall not be called in question in any court.

Art.25: Equality of citizens:

- (1) All citizens are equal before law and are entitled to equal protection of law.
- (2) There shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex
- (3) Nothing in this Article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the protection of women and children.

25A. Right to education:

The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to sixteen years in such manner as may be determined by law.

Art.26.Non-discrimination in respect of access to public places:

- (1) In respect of access to places of public entertainment or resort not intended for religious purposes only, there shall be no discrimination against any citizen on the ground only of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth.
- (2) Nothing in clause (1) shall prevent the State from making any special provision for women and children.

Art.27.Safeguard against discrimination in services:

- (1) No citizen otherwise qualified for appointment in the service of Pakistan shall be discriminated against in respect of any such appointment on the ground only of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth:

Provided that, for a period not exceeding [forty] years from the commencing day, posts may be reserved for persons belonging to any class or area to secure their adequate representation in the service of Pakistan:

Provided further that, in the interest of the said service, specified posts or services may be reserved for members of either sex if such posts or services entail the performance of duties and functions which cannot be adequately performed by members of the other sex

[Provided also that under-representation of any class or area in the service of Pakistan may be redressed in such manner as may be determined by an Act of Majlis-e-Shoora (Parliament).]

- (2) Nothing in clause (1) shall prevent any Provincial Government, or any local or other authority in a Province, from prescribing, in relation to any post or class of service under that Government or authority, conditions as to residence in the Province. for a period not exceeding three years, prior to appointment under that Government or authority.

Art. 28 Preservation of language, script and culture:

Subject to Article 251 any section of citizens having a distinct language, script or culture shall have the right to preserve and promote the same and subject to law, establish institutions for that purpose.

Topic 065: Social Policy Objectives as Given in the Chapter on the Principles of Policy

The Principles set out shall be known as the Principles of Policy, and it is the responsibility of each organ and authority of the State, and of each person performing functions on behalf of an organ or authority of the State, to act in accordance with those Principles in so far as they relate to the functions of the organ or authority.

In so far as the observance of any particular Principle of Policy may be dependent upon resources being available for the purpose, the Principle shall be regarded as being subject to the availability of resources.

Art 31: Islamic way of life:

(1) Steps shall be taken to enable the Muslims of Pakistan, individually and collectively, to order their lives in accordance with the fundamental principles and basic concepts of Islam and to provide facilities whereby they may be enabled to understand the meaning of life according to the Holy Quran and Sunnah.

(2) The state shall endeavour, as respects the Muslims of Pakistan:-

- (a) to make the teaching of the Holy Quran and Islamite compulsory, to encourage and facilitate the learning of Arabic language and to secure correct and exact printing and publishing of the Holy Quran;
- (b) to promote unity and the observance of the Islamic moral standards; and
- (c) to secure the proper organization of zakat, [ushr,] auqaf and mosques.

Art 32: Promotion of local Government institutions:

The State shall encourage local Government institutions composed of elected representatives of the areas concerned and in such institutions special representation will be given to peasants, workers and women.

Art 33&34: Full participation of women in national life:

Steps shall be taken to ensure full participation of women in all spheres of national life.

Art 35&36: Protection of family, etc.

The State shall protect the marriage, the family, the mother and the child.

Protection of minorities:

The State shall safeguard the legitimate rights and interests of minorities, including their due representation in the Federal and Provincial services.

Art 37: Promotion of social justice and eradication of social evils:

The State shall:

- (a) promote, with special care, the educational and economic interests of backward classes or areas;
- (b) remove illiteracy and provide free and compulsory secondary education within minimum possible period;
- (c) make technical and professional education generally available and higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of merit;
- (d) ensure inexpensive and expeditious justice;
- (e) make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work, ensuring that children and women are not employed in vocations unsuited to their age or sex, and for maternity benefits for women in employment;
- (f) enable the people of different areas, through education, training, agricultural and industrial development and other methods, to participate fully in all forms of national activities, including employment in the service of Pakistan;
- (g) prevent prostitution, gambling and taking of injurious drugs, printing, publication, circulation and display of obscene literature and advertisements;
- (h) prevent the consumption of alcoholic liquor otherwise than for medicinal and, in the case of non-Muslims, religious purposes; and
- (i) decentralize the Government administration so as to facilitate expeditious disposal of its business to meet the convenience and requirements of the public.

Art 38: Promotion of social and economic well-being of the people:

The State shall :

- (a) secure the well-being of the people, irrespective of sex, caste, creed or race, by raising their standard of living, by preventing the concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of a few to the detriment of general interest and by ensuring equitable adjustment of rights between employers and employees, and landlords and tenants;
- (b) provide for all citizens, within the available resources of the country, facilities for work and adequate livelihood with reasonable rest and leisure;
- (c) provide for all persons employed in the service of Pakistan or otherwise, social security by compulsory social insurance or other means;
- (d) provide basic necessities of life, such as food, clothing, housing, education and medical relief, for all such citizens, irrespective of sex, caste, creed or race, as are permanently or temporarily unable to earn their livelihood on account of infirmity, sickness or unemployment;
- (e) reduce disparity in the income and earnings of individuals, including persons in the various classes of the service of Pakistan;
- (f) eliminate riba as early as possible
- (g) the shares of the Provinces in all federal services, including autonomous bodies and corporations established by, or under the control of, the Federal Government, shall be secured and any omission in the allocation of the shares of the Provinces in the past shall be rectified.

Art 39: Participation of people in Armed Forces:

The State shall enable people from all parts of Pakistan to participate in the Armed Forces of Pakistan.

Art 40: Strengthening bonds with Muslim world and promoting international peace:

The State shall endeavour to preserve and strengthen fraternal relations among Muslim countries based on Islamic unity, support the common interests of the peoples of Asia, Africa and Latin America, promote international peace and security, foster goodwill and friendly relations among all nations and encourage the settlement of international disputes by peaceful means.

(Source: <http://www.pakistani.org/pakistan/constitution/>)

Topic 066-067: Federal Government and Social Policy Before 18th Amendment-I,II

Pakistan, a federation like India, the US and Canada unlike Bangladesh, France or Maldives
Three governments: Federal, provincial and local. Federations need constitutions to divide the domains of influence. Legislative lists divide the domain:

1956 Constitution: 3 lists

- 30 areas in federal list,
- 94 provincial list and
- 19 in concurrent list

Residuary powers to provinces, two and half years but federal government was dominant.
President Sikander Mirza making and breaking federal and provincial governments.

1962 Constitution: Only federal list with 49 subjects:

No provincial list

Residuary powers left to the provinces

Immaterial as federal government controlled everything

President appointed governors and provincial legislature was toothless

One of the key reasons of 1971 debacle

Economic development under Ayub heavy cost

1973 Constitution: 3 lists

Federal, provincial and concurrent

Again federal government dominated

Even those areas that were in provincial list were controlled by the federal government, education, health, law and order, local government, etc.

More than 12 education policies by federal government

Local government legislation (all 3 by the federal government)

Health policies by federal government

Under martial law, everything

Even under democratic governments

After illegally gaining power, Ayub appointed 33 commissions, Education, administration, agriculture, industry, law, police, constitution, finance, etc.

Under Musharraf, National Reconstruction Bureau (NRB) was formed

Police, local government, health, education, laws, etc.

Who are part of these commissions and bureaus? Mostly retired generals and bureaucrats
 Federal bias. Not much link with the people
 Mostly men, Muslim, educated, and from Punjab
 Smaller provinces do not have much representation
 Under democratic governments too, federal government controls, parliament makes policies and bureaucrats implement them. Social policies start from Islamabad, change from Islamabad

Topic 068-069: Provincial Governments and Social Policy before 18th Amendment- I-II

Army wants single set of laws and players, Similar to their own structure; International donors want single set of laws and players, Negotiations implementations easy. Makes decision-making comparatively easy and efficient. If the federal minister and secretary approves, it is done. Makes implementation comparatively easy and efficient. Federal secretary will call the provincial chief secretary or secretary and it will be implemented. Provinces are incompetent and inefficient, Most of the times, true but not always, Less power, slow promotions, low prestige, so the best people will never remain in provincial services. More power and better service prospects will result in better provincial services. Break the hold of federal bureaucracy on top positions in provinces. Same argument can be made in 1920s and 1930s about British and Indian civil servants. Give them the training and tools (power) and the provincial services will perform. More power and better service prospects will result in better provincial services. Break the hold of federal bureaucracy on top positions in provinces. At this point, there are 30+ departments and almost all of them are CSS/federal services officers.

Educational policies:

Xu' "'qéu" 'xu" u' q' -u" -v" ut €sq'y-. F'Pt €sq'y-. "xq' "q" ►q' "r uu. "q" —, y. syq' "€r zus' 5' 8D? A" Constitution, Provincial list: 20. Education, including Universities, technical education and professional training. 23. Co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions. 14. Agriculture, including agricultural education and research. National Education Conference: 1947 National Plan for Educational Development (1951-57), First Five Year Plan: 1955-60. Report of the Commission on National Education: 1959. Report of the Commission on National Education: 1959. 1962 Constitution, Some specific areas of education

Second Five Year Plan: 1960-65

Third Five Year Plan: 1965-70

The New Education Policy: 1970

The Education Policy: 1972-80

1973 Constitution Concurrent list

38. Curriculum, syllabus, planning, policy, centres of excellence and standards of education

39. Islamic education

Fifth Five Year Plan: 1978-83

National Education Policy and Implementation Programme: 1979

Literacy and Mass Education Commission: 1981

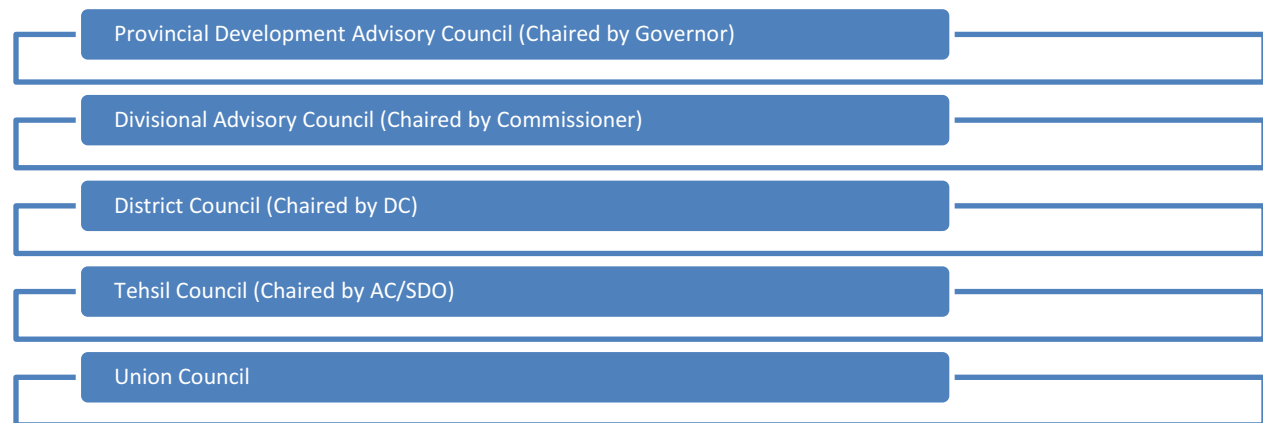
The 10-point Programme: 1983

National Literacy Plan: 1984-86

Evaluation of Iqra Pilot Project
Drop-in Schools: 1986-89
Nationwide Literacy Programme: 1986-90
Nai Roshni Schools: 1986-90
Seventh Five Year Plan: 1988-93
National Education Policy: 1992
Eight Five Year Plan: 1993-98
National Education Policy: 1998-2010

Lesson 13**IS GOVERNANCE USEFUL FOR SOCIAL POLICY?-II**
(Topic 070-075)**Topic 070: Local Governments and Social Policy under Bd System**

Local bodies are remarkable due to public participation in local governance. Democratically designated, piloted by local publics; answerable to their local populations. National and sub-national governments have no control over them. Local ruling classes are local establishment that symbolize the democratic idyllic at local level. Local representatives solve the problems of their communities on their behalf. Local governments are integral part of any political system, which constitute local institutions governed by local populace. Local governments are very important in terms of service delivery, public participation, policy designing, domestic law-making and good governance at local level. They are also crucial to depoliticize the local governance mechanisms and to approach the central and provincial institutions. Bureaucracy is hierarchical organization managing and monitoring the state business. A vibrant hierarchical pattern, specialism, division of work force and formal set of rules and regulations are important specifications of bureaucracy functioning in any part of the world. Bureaucracy establishes the administrative mechanism of local governments to deliver social services, design local policies and form rules and regulations. Apart from enactment and implementation of laws and conveyance of social services, bureaucracy also administers the developmental projects planned by elected representatives of autonomous local governments. During ancient times of Indian history, Delhi Sultanate, Mughal period and British regime, central governments used to nominate and appoint officers to administer local governance.



System of local governments is not deep rooted in Pakistan. Initially, no democratic government upheld the system of local governments in Pakistan. Military regimes always promoted local autonomy based on divide and rule strategy. General Ayub Khan designed local institutions answerable to bureaucratic chiefs under Basic Democracies System (BD) 1959. Democratic governments allegedly failed in setting-up a pure representative structure of local governments, which are almost engineered by military governments. Local representatives and institutions remained always subservient to bureaucracy, which secured its powers while using the

Ordinances, but these statutes were strongly criticized for having too much official interference in the affairs of the civics bodies. (DTCE, May,2014)

The division of the local governments under Zia regime is based on four tiers.

1. Town Committee
2. Municipal Committee
3. Municipal Corporation
4. Metropolitan Corporation

d—"t uq" ►y"x"q—t "q.t."—►u"•u,u"y'Eu'3'y."—t Esut "]q.sxq"q' " " " "u' 3'] q.sxq"q" ►q" actively did its duties. Society was represented including women, laborers, farmers and minorities. These were elected by concerned council, while the minorities had their separate electorates. (Source: Maryam, F. *Local Governance in Pakistan; historical review*).

Topic 072: Local Governments and Social Policy under Musharraf

In 1999, once again the military regime immediately took over the control in its hand. S u. u'q"] u", u "Y €' xq" qv" sq' u" ►y' x" xy" 'u, u. !.—y. !" qwu. t. q S' d xy' " qwu. t. q" xq' " " xu" v—►y. w' points:

1. Re-building the national confidence and morale
2. Strengthening the federation, while removing inter-provincial disharmony
3. Reviving and ensuring investor confidence
4. Ensuring law and order and dispensing speedy justice
5. De-politicizing state institutions
6. Devolving power to grass-root level
7. Ensuring swift and across the board accountability

The Devolution of Power Plan had a mixed reception from the public and the political leadership. During the local government system under Musharraf, people had been feeling comfortable to meet with their local issues and demands through their local leaders and could convey their concerns, mostly one-on-one. It was also convenient for the local representatives to allocate the financial resources according to the public demands in the district and tehsil councils, without any interference of the provincial authorities. A system of check and balance was available and the pros and cons of any public expenditure used to be discussed during the meetings of the councils at their certain level. (Abbasi, 2014) The system was helpful to resolve the public problems at their doorsteps with low expenditure without chasing the higher authorities at provincial or federal levels. It was inclined to dissolve the culture of dependency, '—"qssu•u"q'u"xu"—su' "—v'qss—€. 'qr y'y" 3'q. t. "—"t' y s—€"qwu"xu" '€"q•-urban myw'q'y—.. 5/Wxq. 3' et.al, 2007) Though, the bureaucracy had unwillingly accepted the devolution plan but instead of giving functional freedom to the elected representatives at the local levels they entangled them with the rules and regulations. The lack of coordination and confidence was common in many districts and the district bureaucracy had been playing its role as the provincial agent, in opposition of the local authorities instead to be their subordinates. (PILDAT, 2003) Even, the District Coordination Officer (DCO) and District Police Officer (DPO) got more power under the devolution plan through some mall-practices in district recruitment process which was not in exercise before 2001. Critics also blame Musharraf to use local councilors to elect himself as the president in his referendum 2001 and in the general elections to help winning the official party PML (Q). (PILDAT, 2003 & Khan, M. 2005) Devolution of power was a give and take process of authority. When one political entity was empowered the other was disempowered. (Khan, 2007) The devolution of power plan was implemented through an ordinance other than any federal or provincial legislation to make it part of the constitution. (Zaidi, quoted in Oldenburg, 2010)

" " " " " " *tre if devolution has to have any meaning, and the first step has to be taken by devolving power from the centre to the provinces. When this has been done,*
" " " " " " " " " S "B M ScaafD

Surprisingly, in the devolution plan, the provincial powers were dissolved to the district governments while the federal powers and responsibilities were not devolve to the provinces or the districts. (Zaidi, quoted in Oldenburg, 2010) The continued holding of some powers by the

federation was against the provincial autonomy which had made provincial governments weaker than before. ((PILDAT, 2003)

Topic 073: Judiciary and Social Policy

Does Judiciary have a role in social policy?

Part VII of the 1973 Constitution: Утсрх "и"-у'л! qéy 'q...

One Supreme Court, five High Courts, one Federal Shariat Court and one Chief Court

Lower judiciary

Supreme Court has three type of jurisdictions

Original

Appellate

Advisory

Original

Dispute between governments

Question of public importance related to fundamental rights

Appellate: related to other superior courts

Advisory

President (the federal government) requests opinion of the Supreme Court

Before 2006-07, few changes using appellate jurisdiction

After 2007, original jurisdiction used

Suo moto (on its own motion) based on Art. 184(3)

Operation of government and private schools and hospitals

Gender discrimination and children rights

Delay in bridges, roads, etc.

Issues

Everything cannot be decided the Supreme Court

Supreme Court is not the executive and does not have the time or expertise to issue orders on everything

Riko Diq case: \$6 billion penalty

Same amount as whole IMF program

Topic 074: Case Study: Inclusion of Disabled and Transgender in Government Statistics

Transgender Issue

Lack of understanding

Sex is biological, gender is social construct

Male and female biological differences and intersex

Male and female gender and transgender

Definition of GoP

Under Transgender Persons (Protection of Rights) Act, 2018

Intersex, with mixture of male and female genital features; or

eunuch assigned male at birth, but undergoes genital excision or castration; or

a transgender man, transgender woman, biological features different from how he/she feels

Dr. Muhammad Aslam Khaki filed a case in SC in 2009

Recognition as 3rd gender

Taxila police attacked and raped a group of transgender wedding dancers

SC not only ruled in favor of special provision in CNICs but later on issued many other rulings, Jobs, vote, affirmative action, inheritance, warning to police & government officials, not easy

Differently-abled Issues

- Many types of disabled or differently-abled
- Deaf/Mute, blind, insane, mentally-retarded, crippled, multiple disabilities
- 8DC8"q►"——,xt y.w'u' —●—" u.:—"——"€ .y'yu' "—"xu" t y'-qr •ut "OL0'E8) "y'877" employees
- R-s€'—"..!OL "q' "S u. u'q'j yq 't q€wx'u'"►q' "q'—"-.u"-v"xu"OL Ec sx—•'r €'"..'" €sx
- First National Policy for Persons with Disabilities (2002) and National Plan of Action (2006)
- Pakistan ratified it Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2011
- SC forced government to implement the quota (now 3%)
- Forcing government to get the quota to private sector implemented
- Regular hearings

Topic 075: Is Provincial Autonomy Good For Social Policy?

What is provincial autonomy? Previously discussed, federal government has exercised most powers. Even illegally and unconstitutionally. Provincial autonomy is giving powers to the provinces. Making them powerful autonomous, The 18th Amendment was a major victory

Provincial autonomy

Why it does not help social policy?

Delay in decision-making

Fragmentation

Nationalism: one country, one policy

Easier for the people

Why beneficial?

Pakistan is a multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic and multi-religious country

Each province is different

Forcing people to live under one policy will make life difficult

East Pakistan separation

Provincial autonomy will increase acceptability

Social policies will be easier to implement, less cost

Decrease unrest and litigation

Principle of subsidiary (policy made at the lowest level possible)

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Lesson 14IS GOVERNANCE USEFUL FOR SOCIAL POLICY?-III
(Topic 076-079)Topic 076: Bureaucracy and Social Policy: Characteristics of Bureaucracy

A bureaucracy is a system of organization noted for its size and complexity. Everything within a bureaucracy responsibilities, jobs, and assignments exists to achieve some goal. Bureaucracies are found at the federal, state, county, and municipal levels of government, and even large private corporations may be bureaucratically organized. People who work for government agencies, from high-level managers and executives to clerical staff, are called **bureaucrats**. The superintendent of a large urban school district is a bureaucrat, as are the teachers, librarians, nurses, and security guards.

The terms *bureaucrat* and *bureaucracy* have negative connotations. They bring to mind long, difficult forms; standing in long lines; and encounters with inflexible and unsympathetic clerks. The simplest requests are tangled in **red tape**, the paperwork that slows down accomplishment of an otherwise simple task. Despite this popular perception, bureaucracy is necessary for big governmental agencies to operate.

All bureaucracies share similar characteristics, including specialization, hierarchical organization, and formal rules. In the best circumstances, these characteristics allow a bureaucracy to function smoothly.

Specialization

Workers in a bureaucracy perform specialized tasks that call for training and expertise. Trained personnel can accomplish their jobs efficiently. The downside of specialization is that bureaucrats often cannot (or refuse to) "work out of class" that is, take on a task that is outside the scope of their job description.

Hierarchical organization

The structure of a bureaucracy is called a *hierarchy*, a succession of tiers from the most menial worker in the organization to the highest executive. Each level has clearly defined authority and responsibilities.

Formal rules

Bureaucracies function under formal rules. These instructions state how all tasks in the organization, or in a particular tier of the hierarchy, are to be performed. The rules are often called *standard operating procedures* (SOP) and are formalized in procedures manuals. By following the rules, bureaucrats waste no time in making appropriate decisions.

There are contradictions in the operation of a bureaucracy, however. The narrow focus on special expertise may blind a bureaucrat to a flaw in the performance of a task. Compounding the

problem may be the bureaucrat's inability to recognize the problem if it occurs in an area outside the bureaucrat's expertise. The hierarchical structure also prevents a democratic approach to problem-solving. Lower-level staff find it difficult to question the decisions of supervisors, and executives and managers may be unaware that a problem exists several rungs down the organizational ladder.

However, in Pakistan, specialization is limited, formal written rules, rules of business, GoP and GoPb, Impersonal relationship, previously, tribe, religion, caste, family, etc. Usually large. Previously only government, now also private sector, efforts to keep the advantages, without the disadvantages. Now, considered inhuman and arrogant, anti-people.

Topic 077: Bureaucracy and Social Policy: The Organization of Federal Bureaucracy in Pakistan

Federal bureaucracy

Pakistan is a federation: Three types of bureaucracies

Federal, provincial, and local

Difference between bureaucracy and civil service

Federal officers working in provinces are part of provincial bureaucracy, organized in ministries, divisions & autonomous bodies, Ministry of Finance: Finance Division, Economic Affairs, Division and Revenue Division, Ministry of Religious Affairs: Only one division

Federal Civil Service

Differences in

- Recruitment
- Rules of conduct
- Power
- Areas of influence
- Most powerful
- All top positions at local, provincial and federal level
- Deputy Commissioner, provincial secretary and federal secretary
- Mostly arranged in occupational groups or services (12)
- Some Islamabad employees also federal servants
- Recruited by Federal Public Services
- Commerce & Trade Group
- Foreign Service of Pakistan
- Information Group
- Inland Revenue Service
- Military Lands & Cantonments Group
- Office Management Group
- Pakistan Administrative Service
- Pakistan Audit and Accounts Service

Federal bureaucracy

- Pakistan Customs Service
- Police Service of Pakistan
- Postal Group
- Railways Group

Federal Civil Service

- Controlled by the Establishment Division, Cabinet Secretariat
- Establishment Secretary, the most powerful bureaucrat (along with Chief Secretary Punjab)
- Governed by Civil Servants Act, 1973 and the Estacode (Civil Establishment Code)
- Usually much better than provincial and local bureaucracy
- PAS/District Management Group most powerful
- From colonial times: ICS, CSP, DMG, PAS
- Control at the district, provincial and federal level
- Top position-holder opt for PAS
- Police usually second choice
- In early Pakistan, Foreign service and accounts service were also popular

Federal bureaucracy

- Women, differently-abled initially not allowed to opt for certain services
- M-’x” q’u”q.t.”u’ q’u”y.s•Et y.w*—usxq”—u*—..’xq,y.w’q”’uq’ ”9. t.”Oy,y y—.’Mqsxu—” “
- t uw’uu ”
- All ministries, all policies, including social policies

Topic 078: Bureaucracy and Social Policy: The Organization of Provincial Bureaucracy in Pakistan

Provincial bureaucracy

Four/five types of bureaucracy
 Governed by provincial laws and rules
 Little different from each other
 Federal, provincial and local officials
 Top federal service, middle usually provincial and local service at the lowest level
 Organized in Departments and autonomous bodies
 Here, we will discuss Punjab but other provinces similar
 30+ attached departments
 Each department has clear responsibilities under Rules of business
 35 ministers in Punjab cabinet

Provincial Civil Service

PMS/PCS
 Recruited through PPSC
 Exam held whenever necessary
 Written and interview

Provincial Services

Other parts of Punjab government
 Police
 Social Welfare
 Irrigation
 C&W

Local Services

Usually less than BPS 10
District level
2001 district service experiment

Topic 079: Bureaucracy and Social Policy: The Tussle between Federal and Provincial Bureaucracies in Pakistan

Tussle

Federal bureaucracy more powerful
All major decisions until 2010
Even now trying to wrest back control
18th amendment broke the power but Power of the CSS/Federal civil service or PAS still intact

All Chief secretaries
>80% of Secretaries
Almost all heads of autonomous bodies
Companies
Other Federal services, PCS/PMS and other services trying to topple
Example: Higher Education Department
A very bureaucrat, now in trouble, head
All vice chancellors
All professors
Tussle through court cases, Political connections
Tussle between federal and provincial governments
Famous case of a DIG who was called back in early 1990s
Strikes

Lesson 15**SOCIAL POLICY GOVERNANCE AND 18TH AMENDMENT-I**
(Topic 080-086)**Topic 080: Federalism in Pakistan under 1956 Constitution**

However, despite all the politics of representation and language, the constitution which emerged was federal in character but centralized⁴ in spirit which deliberately undermined the ethnic cleavages and the One Unit formula (creation of one province called " g u '"] qéy'q...0'U"xqt " many similarities with the Government of India Act which had been a significant move towards federal system during the Raj (Choudhury, 2005). Linguistic diversity and how to accommodate "u' qy."q"€u' 'y-. "q. t. "L t u. u" ' "q. q" ' 'y "y "wiven below at length:

This created two provinces, one linguistically homogeneous (98% of the population of East Pakistan spoke Bengali) and the other linguistically heterogeneous (63% of the western wing " M " " " " " "linguistic groups who spoke Pashtu, Sindhi, Urdu or Balochi). In another example of undermining the importance of ethno-linguistic groups, Urdu was earlier adopted as the national language although it was spoken as a mother tongue by only 3.24% of the total population (Bengali was spoken by 54%) (Adeney, 2009, p. 90).

The constitution tried to soften the centralizing impact of the Government of India Act 1935 since under the Article 106 (1), the federal list was shortened with thirty items which were sixty one earlier and provincial list had 94 items. While the concurrent list was also reduced to 19 items there are views that it was still enough to centralize the administrative and economic development system by the central government. The central government had overriding powers in the matters of economic development, national security, and coordination amongst the

provinces (Adeney, 2009; Choudhury, 2005; Kundi and Jahangir, 2002). The National Assembly was supposed to directly elect 310 members in which 150 were elected by popular vote from each unit. However, the seats in the Western part were divided on the basis of population residing in the Punjab, NWFP (now Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa), Balochistan, and Sindh. In addition, ten seats were reserved for women to be elected indirectly. However, the Legislative Assembly was dissolved in 1958 ahead of anticipated national elections and the reins of power later went in the hands of the military, with Commander-in-Chief Ayub Khan who ruled the country under martial law between 1958-1962 without any constitutional apparatus. The dissolution of assembly created serious difficulties in relationships between the Eastern and Western parts of Pakistan and had long term impact on the performance of its federal system. However, in 1962 a

Topic 081: Federalism in Pakistan under 1962 Constitution

Ayub Khan was able to get support for continuation of his rule from the military and civil bureaucracy. Being over-developed federal institutional designs (Alavi, 1972) under the imperialist British Raj, these two institutions provided the strength of execution. Khalid bin Sayeed has called it a system close to the British viceregal system of 1940s (Sayeed, 1967, p. 101). As in the case of the recommendation of the Basic Principles Committee which was formed for the Constitution of 1956, Ayub Khan ignored the recommendations of constitution commission which was established in 1960. Both of these arrangements had recommended for federal form of government with maximum autonomy given to the federating units (Kundi and Jahangir, 2002; Sayeed, 1980). Ayub Khan was more interested in having a strong central government with appeal to Pakistani nationalism (Choudhury, 2005). Nevertheless the constitution retained the federal structure of 1956 constitution and had three lists i.e., Centre, Provincial and Concurrent. The constitution adopted the One Unit system in which one house called National Assembly was supposed to work for five years term which was manned by equal number of members from the eastern and western wings of Pakistan. Going tangent to the federal system of governance, 49 items were listed as federal while residual powers were given to the federating units so no items were specified. Emerging from the support of military and civil bureaucracy, the Constitution tilted the balance of power towards the central government and federal legislature with provincial legislature having virtually nothing to legislate about (Kundi and Jahangir, 2002). While thinking of being able to get a hung Parliament so that the military junta could have a decisive role to play, Yahya Khan who succeeded Ayub Khan by imposing martial law in 1969, abrogated the One Unit. The results of the free and fair elections were surprising. Awami League⁵ won all but two seats from East Pakistan but the powers in the West Pakistan central government did not convene the National Assembly. The Central Government decided to launch Operation Searchlight to restore law and order in the Eastern wing. A situation

Topic 082: Federalism in Pakistan in 1973 Constitution

After the dismemberment of Pakistan in 1971, a new constitution was drafted in 1973 which replaced the interim constitution of 1971. However, the 1973 Constitution predominantly followed the previous Constitutions on 1956 and 1962 to the extent that in many instances the language used in many Articles was also retained (Khan, 2010). It retained a federal system, but unlike the previous Constitutions created a bicameral legislature. It had an upper house called Senate having 60 seats and a lower house called National Assembly which had 200 seats. The four units of the federation equally represented in the Senate while the National Assembly seats were divided on population basis. The 1973 Constitution, nevertheless, is distinguishable from the previous ones because it created the Senate having equal representation of all federating units so that smaller provinces like Balochistan⁶ are represented and the Senate plays a role in the system of checks and balances (Khan, 2010). However, it has been argued that the question of ethnicity and language were addressed without explicit consociationalism. Therefore, the Punjab, possessed absolute majority of the seats in the National Assembly while Urdu became the sole national language though Sindh replaced Urdu with Sindhi (Adeney, 2009). The 1973 constitution created the form of federal structure of the state as mentioned earlier and had two Lists; one federal and the other concurrent. In the upper house or Senate, each federating unit contributed 14 members for four years term while half of them retired after two years. The Federal List having 67 subjects was for the federal government while the Concurrent List provided opportunity for the provincial legislature to draft laws on the subjects. However, in the case of a dispute, according to the Article 143, the rights of the central government must be supreme and prevail (Kundi and Jahangir, 2002). In order to strengthen the spirit of federation, a Council of Common Interest (CCI) was created. It was to be appointed by the President and must have Chief Ministers of the provinces with equal members from the Federal Government. The Council had exclusive jurisdiction over hearing of complaints regarding water supplies from the natural sources such as supply of water from rivers. In addition, the Council was supposed to formulate policies related to railways, electricity, oil and gas, and industrial development (Choudhury, 2005, p. 323; Khan, 2010). While the constitution came into force on August 14, 1973 and the Prime Minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto made a momentous speech in which he said that the days of coups were ended and that violence in politics must stop (Khan, 2010). However, in terms of functioning of the constitution, the Bhutto regime which drafted this document showed inkling for a stronger role of the Central Government which created disgruntlement amongst the Baloch and Pashtun parts of the federating units. Two days after the enforcement, Former Governor and Chief Minister of Balochistan along with a Member National Assembly (MNA) were arrested on charges of corruption and seditious activities. Likewise, the National Awami Party (NAP) was declared an unlawful organization operating against the sovereignty and integrity of Pakistan (Khan, 2010). In addition, the federal government also tried to silence the opposition parties within the National Assembly and behaved like a Bonapartist State (Kundi and Jahangir, 2002; Sayeed, 1980). The state of affairs gave a serious blow to federalism and what was left was crowded out by the Martial Law regime of Zia ul-Haq who put the constitution in abeyance for eight years.

Topic 083: Federalism in Pakistan between 1973 and 2010

Federalism (1973-2010)

Two martial laws (1977-85 and 1999-2002)

Rule by Troika (1988-97)

Duopoly (2008-10) which continues

existence, democratic governments were either not present or not powerful. Despite improved federalism, first assault by Bhutto Baluchistan government dismissed and NWFP government

resigned in 1973. Zia completely changed the nature of the 1973 Constitution, President more powerful, Act own his own behalf not on the advice of the PM Can appoint governors, judges of the superior courts, auditor general, etc. President can dismiss the federal government. Governors sq.'t y' y' "xu"—, y. syq'w-,u". u.: 'S—,u".—"y' yq"•".—"r—€..t.'r—"NY ' "qdvce Martial law ended any idea of provincial autonomy. Even democratic leaders not ready to accept provincial autonomy. Provincial governments dismissed, if from the opposite party. Provincial governments were formed undemocratically through use of coercion. Troika usually for centralization and against federalism COAS always and sometimes President too, Ghulam Ishaq, Farooq Leghari and Wasim Sajjad.

Topic 084: Pressure for the 18th Amendment

Smaller provinces impatient

Baluchistan: insurgencies

1947-48: Issues during accession

8D, CEqssu' 'y-. 'q. t. "u, -•'r "'Wq•q" "€•u" ' "r" -'xu"

Against One-e .y'q. t. "L "€r ' "b €•uE8DA: -69

Dismissal of elected government: 1973-77

L wqy.: "Mw'y ' "€y•y. x6 €'t u' E977A-2013

Z g RJ 6WJ EOy' y' q"-v'O" S'Wxq. :k qxyr " " y. y' "'"/8D, B0

One Unit (1955-69)

b u' yw. q' y- .!-v'Y €v'y'Y ux' —t "w-,u". u.: "8DB: 0

Martial laws

The first Afghan war and its consequences (1978-late 1990s)

The second Afghan war and its consequences(2001-?)

Sindh: Karachi as federal capital and refugees

CM Ayub Khuro dismissed in April 1948

One Unit (1955-69)

Agitation against illegal and unjust hanging of Bhutto

Y y'yq"€ "y. -,•, u' u.: "y. '8DCC'u•us'y-..!"-t u.: "MM" qz-'y"

Dismissal of BB governments

Use of money and coercion to cobble together Sindh governments when PPP had majority

Martial laws

Agitation against the murder of BB

Punjab supported

Punjabi elite always stood for centralization

Most of the army and bureaucracy from Punjab

Even before 1971 powerful. One Unit: Lahore

After 1999: PML(N) the major party in Punjab supported smaller provinces

Balochistan got vociferous support

Charter of Democracy (2006) for maximum provincial autonomy

The CoD also called for abolishment of concurrent list

Military weak after the murder of BB

Topic 085: Passage of the 18th Amendment

The 18th Amendment passed in April 2010 was billed as the most comprehensive reform package after the passage of the 1973 Constitution. Ever since the return of the civilian rule in 2008, there was a popular demand of the whole spectrum of political leadership to repeal the 17th Amendment passed under Musharraf and reform the Constitution in the light of the Charter of Democracy. The Charter of Democracy provided the work-plan for the Special Parliamentary Committee for Constitutional Reform (SPCCR). The two mainstream parties - PPP and PML-N - along with other parties signed the Charter in London in May 2006. The Charter demanded among other things: end to presidential powers of dissolution of the National Assembly and appointment of governors, armed services chiefs and the Chief Justice; abolishing the concurrent list; issuing a new NFC award; expansion of the Senate to give representation to minorities; integration of FATA with NWFP; empowerment of Gilgit-Baltistan; lifting the ban on assumption of the office of prime minister for the third time; establishing a Truth and Reconciliation Commission and a National Democracy Commission; accountability of the ISI, MI and other security agencies to the elected government; removing indemnities introduced by military governments; appointment of the higher judiciary through a commission chaired by a chief justice who had never taken oath under the Provisional Constitutional Order (PCO); and establishing a Federal Constitutional Court, with equal representation for all the federating units in order to resolve the constitutional issues. The Charter was hailed as a Declaration of Independence.

Topic 086: Transfer of Powers under the 18th Amendment

What 18th amendment could not do?

- The creation of Constitutional Court
- Non-appointment of PCO judges
- Merging FATA with NWFP
- Art. 62 and 63
- Truth and Reconciliation Commission
- Kargil Commission
- National Democracy Commission for Civic Education
- Commission to review the legitimacy of land allotments to the military

7th National Finance Commission (NFC) Award (2009)

Increased the provincial share
 Introduced for the first time, a multi-sectoral formula for resource distribution
 Gave extra funds to KP and Balochistan
 Decreased the collection charges for taxes from average 5% to 1%
 Services taxed by federal government decreased

After 18th Amendment

34% of the Constitution changed
 Implementation Commission with a i-year deadline

Civil-military bureaucracy not happy

] ”-,y.syq“q€’-.:’ “”wy,u.’€ .t.u”xu’8C’x”N-...:’y€’y-. q•’L’ u.t’ u.:’sq.:’r u”
considered an ideal [situation] but it is the biggest step in history towards provincial
q€’-.:’ “”y.”] qéy’q. 3 “ qyt ’b qr r q. y”

Phase 1 (Completed in December 2010) Devolved: Ministries of
Special Initiatives

Zakat and Ushr

Youth Affairs and Population Welfare

Local Government and Rural Development

Phase 2 (completed in April 2011) Devolved: Ministries of
Education

Social Welfare and Special Education

Livestock and Dairy Development

Culture and Tourism

Phase 3 (completed in June/July 2011) Devolved Ministries:

Food and Agriculture

Health

Labour & Manpower

Woman Development, Sports, Environment

Minorities Affairs

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Waseem-LUMS, M. (2010). Federalism in Pakistan.

Lesson 16**SOCIAL POLICY GOVERNANCE AND 18TH AMENDMENT-II**
(Topic 087-096)**Topic 087: Social Policy and the 18th Amendment-I****Provinces rule**

Despite some attempts by Federal government, such as Ministry of National Food Security and Research, Ministry of National Health Services Regulation and Coordination, Ministry of Housing & Works Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training, Vertical programs with donors. The following rules were of provincial concerns.

- Constitutional powers
 - Finances
 - Z–’”uqt “”–”qssu–”su..”u ‘t–’ y.q’y–..”
 - Improved infrastructure
 - Increased manpower
 - Thousands of teachers, doctors and nurses hired in all provinces
 - New initiatives, no approval required e.g. energy projects
 - Provincial revenue authorities
 - New organizations such as PHEC
 - Federal development program (PSDP) growth slowed
 - While that of Provincial development programs (ADPs) increased
 - More money for social services in provinces
 - But many effective social programs at the Federal level scrapped
 - Federal revenues/expenditure rigid : Defense and Debt servicing

Topic 088: Social Policy and the 18th Amendment-II**Problems in implementation**

- Issues in education
- Issues in health
- Issues in Food & Agriculture
- Labor issues
- Financial issues

Health

- Can provinces perform regulatory functions of licensing and registration of drugs? What happens if two provinces differ?
- What about drug pricing?
- Vertical programs

Education

- One Curriculum
- HEC budget/PHEC
- Standards of colleges & universities and degree acceptance

Food

How inter-provincial supplies of wheat to deficit provinces be managed? What about imports or procurement price?

Who will fund agriculture research? Punjab or Balochistan?

Labor

Social security services for labor at federal level: Employees Old-Age Benefits Institution
q.t."xu'g -'ëu" 'g u•w'u'Œ.t.

ILO standards and agreements

Financial issues

Rich and poor provinces

Absorption capacity

Borrowing from provincial banks

Taxes on ports

Natural Resources

First right of the province with resource? Should remote areas of Sindh, Balochistan be given Nat Gas first?

Will concessions be given by a body of both federal and provincial governments?

Supreme Court

As discussed courts also make policies

Recent experiences showed Supreme Court can interfere in provincial matters

How will the provinces deal with a populist court?

Topic 089: Issues with 18th Amendment Implementation

Problems in implementation

- Sectoral composition of developmental outlays
- Effect on mobilization of fiscal resources
- Rut u''q''w...u''... 's...u...y...''

Fiscal problems

- 35-40% budget on debt servicing
- 20% +(military, pensions, rangers, FC, Zarb e Azb etc)
- 20%+ on civil administration (pays and regular current expenditure)
- What about PSDP?
- Does federal government have a role in social welfare?
- Debt servicing, defense, civil administration not going to decrease in future
- Military is also not happy
- Donors also finding it difficult
- Local governments
- 18th amendment was supposed to help
- It did result in the establishment of local govts in 4 provinces

However, now local govt have been dismissed in Punjab without giving much reason. Politics have interfered and 18th amendment cannot help. 18th Amendment cannot help LGs that are dismissed. Structure of LGs. Most of these problems can be resolved. It will take time and efforts

but 18th Amendment must stay. Because the principle is too important and we have suffered before.

Topic 090: Social Policy in Developing Countries-I

Differences

Low baseline

Education indicators
Health indicators
Housing indicators
Poverty
Inequality and power
Corruption
Ineffective bureaucracy
Inefficient markets
Cultural and religious hindrances in social policy implementation
Political instability
Crime and violence
Civil wars and insurgencies
Population
Ethnic and religious differences
Low tax collection
Wars with other countries
Lack of democratic culture
Neighborhood effects
Majoritarian nationalism
Gender inequality
Water scarcity
Environmental degradation
Impacts of climate change
Unjust international economic system
High dependency on aid
Myw—►u* "y.u'u'u.su"

Topic 091: Social Policy in Developing Countries-II

Role of state (3 dimensions)

1. The state as an outcome of formal political settlements about government rights to tax and redistribute
2. The state as a regulator of the form of "qf—w" q'eu"y.!u" "v"►'eu" "yx'—",q'y-€" forms of social insurance.
3. The state as a guarantor and direct provider of essential benefits and services to deliver security at socially acceptable minimal standards
All three roles contested

Developmental vs. welfare regime

Trickledown economics

Neo-liberal economics (minimum role of state, keeping deficits and inflation down, austerity)

Welfare after richness

L "€r "Wxq... 't u,,u—' u..?q•"uwy' u

Mk€"— 'q'u' —"q'"►u•vq'u"uwy' u

Since then mixed policies but more neo-liberal developmental regime

What did East Asia do?

Political stability, strict control

Few political and social rights

Mostly developmental

Political stability + small populations and/or homogeneity (in most cases)

US support

Three " "

welfare state regimes

Informal security regimes and

Insecurity regimes

Tables from Social policy in development contexts by Geof Wood and Ian Gough

Topic 092: Ministry of Social Welfare over the Years

History

Ministry of Health, Social Welfare & Community Development (1957-58)
 M/O Health and Social Welfare (1958-62)
 M/O Health, Labor and Social Welfare (1962-71)
 M/O Health, Social Welfare and Family Planning (1971-72)
 Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (1972-74)
 M/O Labour, Health, Social Welfare and Population Planning (1974-78)
 Ministry of Health, Social Welfare & Special Education in 1982-90
 Ministry of Social Welfare & Special Education 1990-1997
 Ministry of Women Development, Social Welfare & Special Education (1997-2008)
 Ministry of Social Welfare & Special Education (2008-10)
 18th Amendment: Most functions shifted to provincial social welfare departments

18th Amendment

Devolution
 12 departments to other Federal institutions and the rest to the provinces
 Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal to Cabinet Division
 National Commission for Child Welfare and Development to CADD and then Ministry of Human Rights
 DG, Special Education became part of CADD

The National Institute of Special Education
 National Training Centre for Special Persons
 National Braille Press
 The Women Welfare and Development Center
 Social Welfare Training Institution
 Institutions of Special Education in Islamabad
 National Trust for the Disabled
 National Council for Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons
 National Council of Social Welfare
 National Library and Resource Center to National History & Literary Heritage Division
 under Ministry of Information, National History & Literary Heritage

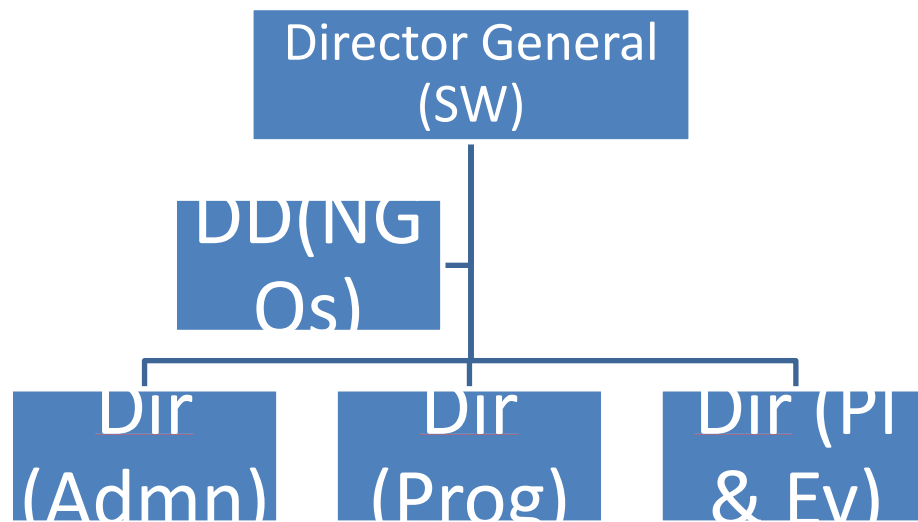
Topic 093: Department of Social Welfare over the Years

History

Under one-unit, West Pakistan Directorate General of Social Welfare and the West
 Pakistan Council of Social Welfare
 In 1969, both these were divided into four parts
 Became the Social Welfare Department in 1979
 dxu'y. s—"q'y-.-v"xu" g -' u.'Ou,u—' u.?'—"volio in 1996
 Incorporation of the Bait-u--Mal portfolio in 1998
 In 2012, Women Development became a separate department
 In 2010, the 18th Amendment was passed which devolved many functions
 Punjab Social Protection Authority Act 2015

Mandate

Mandate according to the Punjab Government Rules of Business 2011
 Registration, technical assistance and monitoring of social welfare agencies
 Social protection including institutional care, skill development and rehabilitation
 Registration, assessment, training, employment, and rehabilitation of disabled persons
 Eradication of social evils
 Coordination with NGOs in the field of narcotics control and rehabilitation of drug
 addicts
 Relief during calamities and emergencies
 Financial assistance to poor and needy through Punjab Bait-ul-Maal



Topic 094: Case study: Understanding Policy Making and Implementation

Hospital autonomy

Policy making and implementation are two very vital processes of the governance system of any country and part of policy process (Sutton, 1999). Policy making involves developing policies to address problems being faced by a society. In a democratic polity this is considered to be the domain of the public representatives. Once policy is developed, it is handed over to the executive part of the government i.e. bureaucracy who then carries it out in such a way that the need of the society is met. Policy making is seen as a political process (Birkland, 2010) as different parties, interest groups, pressure groups, media etc. try to influence it such that it eventually suits their

interests. However, Policy implementation has been seen an administrative, rational and apolitical process where implementers are considered to be impartial, rule-bound, selfless, machine-like entities who would just stick to their task and perform the it efficiently. Wilson (1887) alluded to this phenomenon as dichotomy between politics and administration. Hospital autonomy reforms were initiated in Pakistan in 1990 (Abdullah & Shaw, 2007). First they were launched in two hospitals of ICT (Islamabad Capital Territory) and later introduced in thirteen Teaching hospitals of Punjab in 1998. Due to different reasons, the reforms were halted twice; however, since 2003 it is in process. This case study attempts to understand the process of development and implementation of the policy of these reforms. Different stakeholder including politicians, doctors, bureaucrats, and the employees of Services Hospital Lahore were interviewed. Apart from this various documents including the initial USAID report, World Bank project for Punjab, and other related official documents were used for acquiring contextual and secondary data. While going through the data collection process, researcher got exposed to myriad of nuances of governance system of Pakistan. At the final stages, the researcher was able to construct a story of how this policy was developed and how later it was implemented. So in this article, the case study of implementation of hospital autonomy reforms is used as a prism to visualize the type of governance system which prevails in Pakistan and in the process to find out as to what extent the proposition of dichotomy of politics and administration holds true in the case of governance system of Pakistan.

The case study was conducted in the traditions of qualitative research where in depth interviews were conducted with the key stakeholders including administrators of the hospitals, doctors, bureaucrats both federal and provincial. Keeping in view the political nature of the topic, interviews were not audio-recorded, rather they were transcribed. In order to ensure that the meanings of the interviewee were not lost, the transcription was done the same day with the help of the notes of the interviews. The names of the respondents are replaced by codes to ensure their anonymity. This research was an exploratory research where information had to be dug out, so snow ball sampling was used where every respondent provided lead to some other key figures who had been part of the autonomy project at some stage. To understand the implementation process at the local level, Services Hospital was chosen and information was retrieved from various present and past key stakeholders.

Topic 095-096: Governance Issues in Pakistan-I, II

Elite-controlled

1947: two groups ascendant: Muhajirs and (civil) bureaucracy
 Supported by military and feudals
 1960s: Military supported by feudals and bureaucrats + the US
 Bhutto: Middle class, marginalized ethnic groups & feudals
 1980s: Military supported by religious elite, feudals and business + the US
 1990s: Military indirectly ruling
 2000s: Military supported by religious elite, feudals and business + the US
 Present: Tussle between politicians & the military
 Devolution: 18th Amendment

Low level of Governance

Multi-ethnic federation: inter-ethnic conflict

Poverty & economic distress
 Rapid urbanization: Rural and urban gap
 Religious landscape: variety, violence and sectarianism
 Three decades of Afghan wars (drugs, bombs and Kalashnikovs) Refugees
 Fragmentation of civil society into smaller and smaller groups
 Fiscal space shrinking: Debt servicing and defense (20% to now 50%)
 Allowance to militarized group to train and operate, with impunity, Population bomb

Good Governance

There are some solutions of good governance:

No easy, short-term solutions
 Motivated bureaucracy
 Less rules and regulations, better enforcement
 Better equipped and paid police force
 No to militias
 Proper and impartial accountability for all: bureaucrats, politicians, judges and generals
 Local governance
 Impartial and less corrupt judiciary
 Growth, employment and extreme poverty
 National reconciliation
 Long-term planning
 Charter of democracy and economic development

Reference:

Saeed, A. (2013). Understanding Policy Making and Implementation in Pakistan: A Case of Hospital Autonomy Reforms. *Pub Pol Admin Res*, 3, 23-32.

Lesson 17

**WHO PAYS FOR SOCIAL POLICY? BUDGETARY IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL
POLICIES-I
(Topic 097-101)**

Topic 097: Public and Private Welfare Spending

Our focus in this chapter is going to be on public, rather than private, spending, but we should recognize that not all welfare spending and provision in the UK is public. It is both public and private. Welfare can refer to welfare provided by the public sector; it can refer to the fees and charges levied by public sector welfare providers for their services; it can refer to welfare provided by the private sector; or it can refer to informal welfare provided by family, friends and neighbours. There is no area of public spending on welfare which is not also an area of private spending in some sense. In some cases private spending on a particular good or service is dominant, as in the case of housing. In others, such as health and education, public spending is dominant and the private sector residual. Some areas of income maintenance, such as the provision of income in unemployment, are dominated by public spending. Others, such as pensions, are, in the UK, heavily private. Social care is an area in which the private, informal, sector is dominant.

Topic 098: Private Spending on Welfare: Commercial Welfare Provision

There is a great amount and variety of private, commercial, market-based welfare provision and financing in the UK, as in other countries. Education, health care, pensions, life assurance and long-term care are all examples. Individuals who choose private provision for secondary or sixth form education of their children but not for primary or tertiary level (there is as yet only one private university in the UK). For most users of private medical services, private provision supplements but does not displace public, NHS, provision. In some cases the State may subsidize, or partially subsidize, private provision. Independent schools, if able to claim charitable status, can take advantage of tax reliefs. Contributions to private pension schemes are eligible for income tax relief, as well as, in the case of company pension schemes, National Insurance rebates.

Topic 099: Private Spending on Welfare: Fees and Charges

Something which has been increasing in recent years is the raising of revenue for welfare spending through the imposition of fees or charges on users of public services. The introduction of university tuition fees, charges for eye tests, dentistry and means tested support for long-term care are all examples of this. Charges for private welfare, even though the service is provided by a public agency most of whose funding is from public sources, such as taxes, National Insurance or the Council Tax. Fees or charges rarely or never cover the full cost of a service and are only a supplement to public spending. Charges for state-provided welfare are in fact nothing new. The charge for NHS prescriptions, for example, dates back to 1951, although removed for a short period by a Labour government in the 1960s. Charging for social services was widespread before the welfare state

and continued to flourish subsequently, even under post-war Labour governments, despite the alleged incompatibility between universalist welfare state values and cash payment (Judge, 1980; V&t wu"q.t."Y q''xu►'3'8DC7E'808'P,,u..'' -t u• welfare state countries, such as Sweden, make extensive use of charges for services such as primary health and hospital care (Ham et al., 1990: 22; Rehnberg, 1997: 73).

Topic 100: Private Spending on Welfare: Charity and the Voluntary Sector

Another area of private welfare spending is that of charitable giving and the voluntary, -'''' .:-'- for-''-vy' 3'us'-''-v' u'',ysu''-''-,y y-.S'd xu'',-€..q''''y -€'u"xq' always been, and continues to be, important in welfare (Glennerster, 2003: 32-3). The total amount of charitable giving in the UK at around 1% of GDP – roughly £10 billion per year – is small by comparison with the amount raised by taxation and spent on social services, and also compared with that in other countries such as the USA, where it is around 2% of GDP, and of course not all of this is for what we ►-€'t "sq•" ►u•q'u " it includes donations to, for example, animal charities, the arts and religious organizations (Glennerster, 2003: 50-51). The voluntary sector is, nevertheless, valued as a dynamic and innovatory sector of the welfare industry.

Topic 101: Private Spending on Welfare: Informal Welfare

What we are going to discuss in this chapter is spending that is recorded as part of the formal economy and which will appear in national accounts statistics. We are completely ignoring the vast amount of informal welfare provision by the family in relation to social and health care and education. It must never be forgotten how important this is. Most of the welfare, in the broadest sense, produced in society is that produced by and within the family, not only by the nuclear family but by the extended family too, to some extent. We can also add to this welfare provided by friends and neighbors.

Lesson 18

**WHO PAYS FOR SOCIAL POLICY? BUDGETARY IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL
POLICIES-II
(Topic 102-108)**

Topic 102: Why Public Spending?

Why do we typically have public spending on welfare? Why not leave it all to private markets? The argument that we explore in this section suggests that, in terms of the production and distribution of welfare, the market or commercial sector, the voluntary sector and the informal, do not ensure an amount and distribution of welfare that is what we would like. This does not mean that they do not have a valuable role to play. It means that they must be supplemented, or even, in some areas of welfare, replaced, by the public sector – the state. We will begin by exploring some characteristics of the market.

In thinking about meeting our needs and wants for goods and services in a modern capitalist economy such as the UK, it is natural to begin by thinking of the market as an appropriate device for securing this. Many of our everyday wants are effectively met by private markets (as well as, of course, by the family). The market as a mechanism for supplying wants and allocating goods and services has been much studied by economists since the time of Adam Smith (1723–90) and his famous *The Wealth of Nations* (published 1776), who have identified many advantages and a number of disadvantages of the market mechanism. A basic feature of markets is the idea of self-interested exchange between individuals for mutual advantage. It is a system that is based on the profit motive, competition and choice, and, according to its defenders, possesses the characteristics of dynamic efficiency, productive efficiency and consumer sovereignty (Glennister 2003: 17). In their search for profit, individuals will establish businesses to meet our wants; firms and businesses will innovate, creating new products and services; markets are thus said to be dynamically efficient. They will also attempt to organize production at the lowest possible cost – they are said to be productively efficient. At the same time they will respect consumer sovereignty. Most productive activity in contemporary societies is apparently successfully carried on by markets, especially by comparison with the communist states, such as the Soviet Union.

Should we leave it to the market? (As we have already seen, some welfare goods and services are supplied by the market.) Of course, there are a number of writers, of a liberal, free-market persuasion, who have favoured leaving most welfare to be provided by markets, the voluntary sector and the family (see Chapter 10). Milton Friedman's famous twentieth-century statement of the case for market provision of a range of social services, but on the whole, arguments of this type have never found general favor, at least in European countries. There are two points to note about the description of the market given above. First, it is an idealized picture of the market and how it works. Few markets work perfectly in practice, and generations of economists have documented these failings in detail. Secondly, the market as depicted in this idealized way can be contrasted with the family, which is another major supplier of our wants and needs. The market

embodies self-interested behavior, whereas the family is supposed to embody altruism; it is about loving, caring, and taking care of others and their needs, rather than profiting from them. This too, of course, is an idealized picture. This is not, however, the place for a detailed examination of the family as a welfare Agency.

Topic 103: Market Failure

There are a number of explanations for public spending, in terms of economic *efficiency* as well as in terms of fairness or justice. The arguments against relying on private financing of welfare are therefore a mixture of economic arguments and ethical arguments. A basic argument for some kind of public involvement in welfare provision is that, in relation to many aspects of **►u•vq'ũ3"xu'u'y'3q' "►u".-.'ut "qr-,u3' market failure 5"U!-.'xu"►-.'t '3'-**private markets for these goods sometimes or often do not work efficiently or fairly. (And private *insurance* markets for welfare, such as health insurance, also do not work efficiently or fairly.) Examples of market failure are the existence of what are called *public goods* and *externalities*. Another is that of *information failure*.

Topic 104: Public Goods

Some welfare services possess some of the characteristics of *public goods*. A public good is a good which people cannot be excluded from consuming. They are not simply individual benefits which an individual can pay for and exclude others from consuming. Clean air is an example of a public good; defence is another. The existence of public goods provides arguments for public spending on some services, such as public or preventive health services. We all benefit from other people being healthy, in the sense of being free from infectious diseases. Disease control by public agencies via vaccination, screening and quarantine can therefore be justified. Not all aspects of health care have this public good character; much individual care and treatment provided by the NHS is presumably of benefit only to the individual and 'xu'y.t.y,yt €q• ".uq'u' " and dearest (but see the remarks below on externalities and health care). Another example of an at least partial public good would be that of education. Education is not just a benefit to the y.t.y,yt €q•"►x-" s-..€' u' 'y3thereby acquiring skills and competences and enhancing their own earning power. We all benefit from other individuals being educated. There are collective or public benefits from living in an educated society, in which most people are literate.

Topic 105: Externalities

There is also a related problem of what are called *externalities*—effects of particular activities. Industrial pollution is a classic example of a negative externality. A smoking factory chimney imposes a variety of costs, for example health costs and additional cleaning costs, on the surrounding area and its inhabitants, but from a pure free-market perspective, there is no way of dealing with these. The polluting factory owner imposes costs on others, but does not have to compensate affected people for these costs, nor is there any incentive for the owner to clean up the factory emissions. There is therefore a case for government to intervene to correct the externality, for example by regulation prohibiting smoke emissions. An example of this is the UK Clean Air Act of 1956 which limited smoke pollution in urban areas and is credited with significant improvements in the respiratory health of urban dwellers.

More recently, in the face of global, and not merely national, challenges such as climate change, the policy response to this kind of externality problem has shifted away from regulation and towards either taxation of the dangerous activity, as in carbon taxes, or cap-and-trade schemes which effectively allow polluters to purchase the right to emit. These are schemes which effectively allow polluters to purchase the right to emit or non-carbon-emitting firms or businesses.

Traffic congestion in urban areas is an externality brought about by unrestricted, unpriced use of private transport. It has been dealt with by taxing or charging for the use of the externality—congestion charges—and by publicly subsidizing the provision of public transport. A further application of this approach to social issues is the idea of social insurance, created by poverty and deprivation. One reaction to this particular externality, an individual one, is charitable giving, important in the nineteenth century. The volume of charitable giving exceeded Poor Law budgets in this period, but much of it was haphazard and unregulated. Voluntary effort is thus inefficient and fails to overcome the externality. There is therefore a case for the state to take over and organize, via public systems of

redistribution, involving taxation and cash benefits, the efficient correction of the externality (Glennerster, 2003: 20–21). It is also possible to view public health and education provision in the same way. We dislike, for example, the spectacle of untreated suffering produced by bad health and want to do something about it.

Topic 106: Information Failure

Markets depend on information to work properly. As consumers, we need information about products that they exist in the first place, for example, as well as something about their quality. No information, no market. Consider the vital role of advertising in a market economy. Advertising is information, but so is *Which?* magazine. This serves to remind us that information varies in terms of quality and accuracy. For many market-supplied products our knowledge is adequate, and there is a rough equality between supplier and consumer, a necessary condition for a market to work properly. For others, there may not be. Medical care is a well known product about which consumers (i.e. patients) may be badly informed, relative to the supplier. This is an example of a service or product where the supplier – the doctor – knows more than the consumer. To judge the quality – the treatment – of medical care is difficult. It is hard to judge the quality of treatment (Glennerster, 2003: 22–25).

Topic 107: State and Welfare and State Failure

Welfare needs to the extent that we would like, then we are, by elimination, apparently left with the state as an agency for overcoming these inadequacies. In other words, there is an argument for public spending and/or public provision of welfare services. It is possible to tell a story of the emergence of state welfare in the twentieth century in terms of the dawning recognition of the failure of non-state forms of welfare.

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Public policy making since the 1970s. A variety of failings of government have been identified. For example, public officials may be self-interested, rather than motivated by public welfare. Professionals such as doctors and social workers may have self-interest motivations. Voters, too, may be selfishly motivated rather than, as in the argument about externalities cited above, being sympathetically concerned about the welfare of the less well-off. Voting systems and political parties are imperfect means for representing citizen preferences (Glennerster, 2003: 25–30).

The alleged existence of state failure has been used by neo-liberal critics of state welfare as a rationale for privatisation and for the introduction of *quasi-markets* or the introduction into hitherto publicly provided services, by, for example, the Thatcher and Major governments from 1979 to 1997, a policy continued to some extent by the Blair and Brown governments since 1997 (Le Grand and Bartlett, 1993; Glennerster, 2003: 25–32). This has been a highly controversial policy. It has also, on the other hand, led to attempts to manage the public services more

rigorously, through targets, performance indicators, Public Service Agreements and payment and reward systems.

Topic 108: Types of Public Welfare Spending: C " "K

It is important to distinguish between benefits in *kind* services such as health care, education, social care and housing and benefits in *cash*. The latter are called " "and include such things as Child Benefit, Income Support, V-r 'uuéu' "L •-►q.su3' 'q'u' "u'y'u' u.?" pensions and the Pension Credit. These social security payments or cash benefits are *income transfers*, involving the transfer of purchasing power to individuals to meet their own needs. They have a variety of purposes including the relief of poverty, assisting individuals and families with the costs of child-rearing and shifting income around over the life-cycles of individuals and families.

A vital distinction that we must introduce here is that between *financing* (or *funding*) of services on the one hand and *provision* or delivery of services on the other. These two things are separable. Governments may do both, or one or the other. (This is the theory in practice no government anywhere provides a service without also funding that service.) The government may spend money on providing services directly, by employing front-line professionals doctors, social workers, teachers working in state-run agencies such as the NHS, local social services or schools. Public health care in Britain, for instance, is an example of a service funded publicly through taxes and National Insurance contributions which is also publicly provided via a public corporation called the National Health Service. Funding and provision are combined. Hospitals and health care producing assets are publicly owned, and health care personnel are public employees. State schooling in Britain is another example of combined funding and provision. Schools are owned by public authorities local government in this case and teachers are public employees.

Welfare services need not be directly provided by governments in publicly owned facilities using publicly employed workers. Governments may choose to provide the funding for services without engaging in direct provision. In fact, virtually all welfare states fund social services and programmes in some way or other, but service provision is often left to private providers. Most welfare systems are a mixture of public and private 'xu"u" " 'v-"xy" 'q'u"-v'qwqy" 'q'u" *mixed economy of welfare* " " welfare pluralism " and this has long characterized systems such as those of the UK. Services may be provided by non-state organizations, either commercial (for-profit) or voluntary (non-profit). In the Canadian health care system, for example, provincial governments pay for health care for their populations that is purchased from private providers hospitals and physician practices. Financing of health care is mostly public, via federal and provincial taxes, but provision of hospital and physician services is mostly private. Coverage is universal and health care is available to all free of charge on the basis of need, as in the British NHS (Ham *et al.*, 1990: Ch. 6). Similar mixtures are found in many other health care systems, including those of Continental Europe, in which varying amounts of public and private in both funding and provision are combined (Freeman, 2000: Ch. 4).

In fact the public funding private provision model is not unknown in Britain. Public money may be spent on goods and services purchased from the private sector, commercial or voluntary for example, medical equipment and drugs bought by the NHS. A variation of this is the purchase of

care services such as residential or nursing home care from private suppliers. Social care is often purchased from private-sector nursing and residential care homes by local authorities. These may be either commercial or voluntary organisations. Routine specialist surgical procedures, such as cataracts and hip replacements, have been purchased in bulk by the NHS from private suppliers Independent Sector Treatment Centres (ISTCs) since 2003 (see Chapter 12).

The question of public and private has been a hard-fought one in British social policy in recent years, since Conservative governments in the 1980s and 1990s sought to reform social services along more market-like lines, by means of competitive tendering, contracting-out and the attempt to devolve service provision via the s'ūq'y-...-v' "€q'y"-y. 'u".q• " ' q'ēu' " q.t. " 'u' y- autonomous delivery agencies '€sx"q' " v-€.t.q'y-...!x- ' -y'q•" "€' " 5

Lesson 19**WHO PAYS FOR SOCIAL POLICY? BUDGETARY IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL POLICIES-III**
(Topic 109-116)**Topic 109: Growth of Social Welfare Spending**

In this section we look at some aspects of size and the growth of spending on welfare both over time and in comparison with other countries. An important fact about welfare spending is its growth over time. From less than 5% of GDP or national income at the end of the nineteenth century, social welfare spending now accounts for around 25% of GDP. (Public spending as a whole now accounts for around 43% of GDP.) It is evident from these figures that social welfare spending therefore accounts for the greater part of public spending. In fact, the relative importance of welfare spending as a proportion of public spending has grown over time with the decline in such traditional areas of spending as defence and the payment of interest on the National Debt. The picture throughout the twentieth century and into the twenty-first is one of seemingly relentless upward pressure to spend. If we look more closely at trends, however, we discern a pattern. Spending has not increased smoothly and continuously over the period but discontinuously, much faster in some periods than others.

These are associated particularly with wars – the Boer War of 1899–1902, the First World War of 1914–18, and the Second World War of 1939–45. The period of the late 1960s and early 1970s also saw a period of faster than average growth. Since the mid-1970s, the picture has been one of greater stability and slower growth.

Topic 110: Planning and Controlling Welfare Spending: The Role of the Finance Ministry and Departments

Government spending

Three governments

- National
- Provincial
- Local (140-A)

Previously, federal government more in control

1955 One Unit

1962 Centralized power

1973-2008: Same party govts everywhere

1962 Constitution as we have discussed

President all powerful: Federal legislature subservient

Governor appointed by President: Provincial Legislatures subservient

ZA Bhutto: KP & Balochistan

BB: Punjab

MNS: Punjab & Sindh

AAZ: Punjab

Change

18th amendment

Opposition provincial governments
 7th National Finance Commission award
 Increase share of provinces in divisible pool
 Less collection charges
 Additional payments

In the Federal government, all other ministries are directed to spend, only one ministry is responsible for restricting spending: MoF. Interior Ministry: how well you have dealt with terrorism, insurgencies, etc. Climate Change Ministry: how well you have reduced CO2 and other emissions? Similar is the role of Provincial FDs, Health Department: How many more hospitals, doctors, nurses, BHUs? Education Department: How many more schools, colleges, teachers?

Topic 111: Planning and Controlling Welfare Spending: The Role of the Planning Ministry and Departments

Revenue-raising powers in the British system lie with central government, which has sole power to initiate taxing and spending proposals. Unlike the US Congress, the UK Parliament has little independent power to initiate or change taxes and spending, its role being largely confined to examining, approving and voting on Finance Bills and expenditure estimates introduced by the government. It does have, however, an important monitoring role.

Local government, too, is weak in the UK. Unlike state- and provincial-level local governments in federal political systems such as those of the USA, Canada, Australia and Germany, it is subject to central control and has little financial independence. (A partial exception to this is the devolved governments for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland set up in the UK since 1998 see below.)

The key agency in the planning and control of social spending is the *Treasury*, the most important department of British government, headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The planning of individual departmental spending involves bilateral negotiations between the Treasury and departmental officials and politicians. The present system has evolved from the process established in the 1960s known as PESC, which was designed to place spending decisions on a more rational footing (Heclo and Wildavsky, 1981; Pliatzky, 1984; Glennerster, 2003: 183–185). Since 1998 the process has taken the form of two-yearly spending reviews, in which departments are given budgets for a three-year period beginning the year after the review (Glennerster, 2003: 186). The first of these was published, a year late, in October 2007.

Spending reviews have subsequently taken place in 2000, 2002 and 2004. In planning spending, the Treasury adheres to two rules – the so-called ‘golden rules’ – that public sector debt is limited to a maximum of 7% of GDP; and the rule that government borrowing takes place only to invest, that is, to spend on infrastructure (roads, hospitals, etc.) rather than current spending, as on wages or benefits (Glennerster, 2003: 187–188). The purpose of these rules is to assist in creating a stable climate for economic activity and to promote confidence among business decision-makers and financial markets in the UK. The Treasury has noted that the

Treasury has lost *direct* control over one key tool of economic management, with the Monetary Policy Committee in 1997 (Keegan, 2004). There is some flexibility in the interpretation of the two rules, however, and the Chancellor has some room for manoeuvre in determining when the rules have been conformed to. Another important element in the system is Parliament, and particularly the House of Commons. Scrutiny of departmental spending and decision-making is one of its most important functions. Such scrutiny takes place via parliamentary agencies such as the National Audit Office, working especially in conjunction with the Public Accounts Committee of the House of Commons, and via a system of House of Commons Select Committees which shadow particular Departments of State. There is, for example, a Health Select Committee, which shadows the Department of Health in England, conducts inquiries and investigations of departmental policy, and publishes reports.

The basis of public expenditure planning at present is in terms of cash. The present system of cash planning has its origins in the spending control crises of the mid-1970s. Prior to that, for example, numbers of teachers, doctors, nurses, social workers, and health and education infrastructure regardless of the cash cost of these inputs. No regard was had to the effects of inflation on the costs of resources. With the high rates of inflation of the mid-1970s, this system became unworkable. A system of cash limits was established by the then Labour government and the cash planning system has been refined by successive governments. In the 1990s the Treasury came to assume a more active role in relation to spending departments and programmes (Glennerster, 2003: 189) as a result of the Southgate Report on Treasury functions. This argued that the Treasury should have an active role in improving the supply side of the economy. Unemployment, for example, had come to be defined as a micro-economic rather than a macro-economic policy issue. The new view held that the Treasury had a role in encouraging improvements, perhaps through increased spending, or changed spending priorities, for example, in relation to claims.

Topic 112-113: v 'Budget-I, II

Budget

- Constitutional requirement
- One year (3 years)
- MTBF and MTEF
- Ministry of Finance and Departments of Finance

Article 80(1) and Article 120(1)

Annual Budget Statement - The Federal Govt shall, in respect of every financial year, cause to be laid before the National Assembly a statement of the estimated receipts and expenditure of the Federal Govt for that year, in this Part referred to as the Annual Budget Statement.

Types of Budgeting

- Incremental and input-based budgeting
- Zero-based budgeting
- Output-based budgeting
- Performance-based budgeting

Budget

- Current budget
- Development budget
- Supplementary Budget
- Revised Estimates
- Budget Estimates
- Actuals
- Federal Consolidated Fund (All tax and non-tax revenues)
- Public Account (National saving schemes, postal life insurance, court fees, provident funds, etc.)
- Voted and charged expenditure
- Revenues and Expenditures

Two types of Revenues

- Tax Revenue
 - Major source
 - Primarily FBR
- Non-tax revenue
 - Primarily interest, profits and dividends

Tax Revenue

- Direct Taxes
 - Income tax
 - Worker welfare fund
 - Capital value tax
- Indirect Taxes
 - Sales tax
 - Federal Excise Duty
 - Custom duty

Direct and Indirect taxes

More direct taxes are better
In Pakistan, indirect taxes are increasing

Other taxes (not collected by the FBR)

Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Resources collects
Gas Infrastructure Development Cess (businesses)
Natural Gas Development Surcharge (differential between prescribed price and fixed sales price)
Petroleum Levy (OMC, dealers, and equalization)
Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT) Administration taxes
Airport Tax administered by Civil Aviation Authority
Mobile Handset Levy, Health Levy, etc.

Non-tax Revenue

Major receipts
Interest receipts
Dividends received from public sector entities (SBP, etc.)
Profits earned by various regulatory authorities (PTA, etc.)

External Revenue

Project loans
Program loans (improve policies and implement general system reforms)
Other loans (Budgetary support)
Grants

Public Account Receipts

National Saving schemes
Postal insurance fund
Provident fund
Security deposits of contractors

Expenditure

Two types
Current budget (recurring)
Development budget (one-off)
Lots of grey areas

Major Expenditure Areas

Debt Servicing
Defense
Civil administration
Grants, transfers, subsidies
Railways, Bait-ul-Mal, WAPDA, CCP, provinces

Budget-in-Brief (Ministry of Finance)

Development Expenditure
PSDP
Provincial annual development programs (ADPs)

Topic 114-115: y 'h 'l 'and Social Policy Budget-I, II

Fiscal constraints

Pakistan plagued by fiscal and current account deficits for most of its history
Not this govt, not the previous two, not Musharraf

Economic Survey 2019

Fiscal constraints

- Revenue increasing
- Since 2009, 400% increase
- But expenditure also increasing

Economic Survey 2019

Fiscal constraints

How can we spend on social services, when we are poor?
We hope that our economy will improve and then we will spend on poor and reduce poverty

UN ESCAP Report 2018

UN ESCAP Report 2018

UN ESCAP Report 2018

We can still spend (ESCAP Report)

Social investments can help development

Poor countries should not wait to become rich before stepping up this investment

Not money, but political commitment

Politically committed not only spend a higher share but tend to spend more effectively with better results

Topic 116: Can Private Philanthropy Pay For Social Policy Expenditure?**From ESCAP Report, 2018**

Social spending, here defined as public spending on education, health care and social protection, is instrumental for accelerating poverty reduction

Poverty reduction means

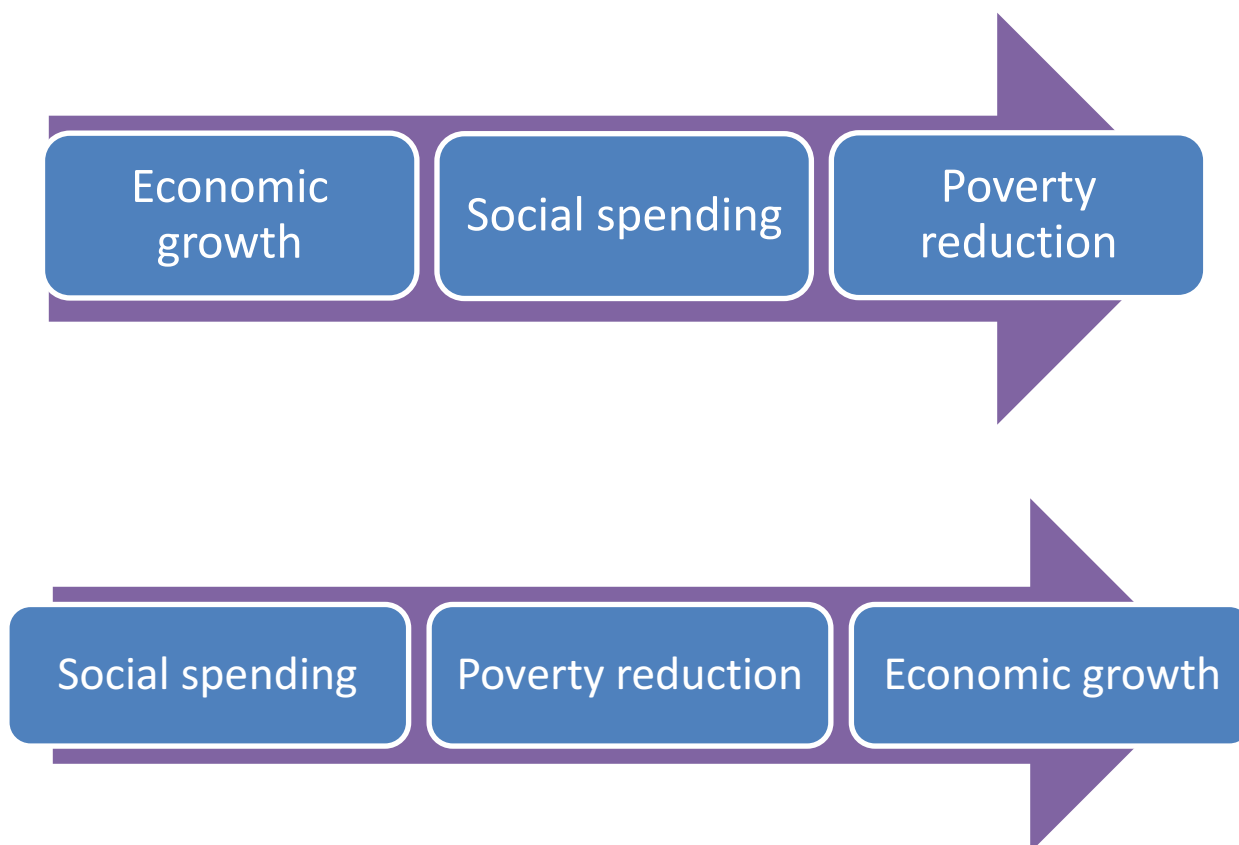
More contribution from poor

Less conflict

Increased productivity

More innovation

More economic growth



Developing countries of Asia not spending enough (3.7% of GDP)

1/3rd of the global average of 11.2 %

OECD countries spend an average of 21% of GDP on social protection, excluding health

U ' ". :- " -. : " " -. u' q' " " —, , u' " " " r € " q' " —" € • y — u' t u — y, q' y — . .

Pakistan, however, scores badly in both

Human Development Index HDI

Based on social indicators
Mahbub-ul-Haq and Amartya Sen
Health, income and education
Mean Years of Schooling
Expected years of schooling
Life expectancy
GNI

Lesson 20**EDUCATION POLICY-I**
(Topic 117-120)**Topic 117: Arrival of Education Policy**

555y'w'—€"xy.é"ut €sq'y-. 'y' 'u' —u. 'y,u3'"'"'yw.-"q. su5555 Tony Benn

The aim of this chapter, therefore, is to explain the nature of education policy and how it has developed over the twentieth and into the first part of the twenty-first century.

The news report in Box 15.1 highlights how important and emotive issues about education can be in the UK. Parents, particularly, can become very concerned about the education of their children and some will do all that they can to get their children into what they regard as a good state school.

'Education policy and provision in the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century;

'The nature of the post-war settlement in terms of education policy;

'The development of education policy and provision under the Conservative governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major;

'More contemporary education policy under New Labour and how this compares with the policies of the New Right.

Ancient times, on-job vocational training

Boys & girls: 6-7 years of age or earlier

It would seem preposterous and foolish: 20-99"uq"x"—v"byu" •uq".y.w 'y.'!—" ' "q. t." buildings

Scam by universities and professors

What can you possibly learn about agriculture or social welfare sitting in a room?

Go out there and experience it

At some level, our forefathers were right: practical experience is essential for any learning

However, being totally dependent on practical experience is also absurd

Basic education and theoretical education are important

Many important things cannot be seen or experienced or enacted

Modern world too complex

An engineer has to do lots of calculations herself before actually building a bridge

A cardiologist has to learn a lot before she is handed a patient

What is education?

Our q'u'qr—€'" t uu. y "q. t." t €.:q,y "ut €sq'y-...

Did British destroyed our education system or gave us an education system?

Topic 118-119: Public vs. Private Provision of Education-I, II

Y €' "'►u•vq'u"r u"—,,yt ut "r "'xu" 'q'uJ "y"q"•uqt y.w"€u' 'y-..!y..!—syq•"—ys"5[.u"►q'"—v answering it is to look at what happened in history when the state, or government, did not take on a welfare—".,yt y.w"—u5'U."xu"y' u"r uv—"u"xu"u"q"—v" r yw"w-,u"'.! u.?. "q. t. the twentieth-century expansion of the state, people asked whether it was right for central government to

provide any services at all. Education is a good example of this debate because, in Britain, arguments about the proper role of central government have continued uninterruptedly from the nineteenth to the twenty-first centuries. Compared with other educq'y-. q"'"'u' '3M'ÿqy.. 'xqt been relatively decentralized (Rust and Blakemore 1990). For example, only since 1988 have we had a National Curriculum defined by central government. In this and in other ways, British educational policy has been rather different from the French, German and other European systems.

dxu't u,u—' u..'—v'q" s—.'qs"'q'u 'y.'ut €sq'y.. Before 1870, the responsibility for providing, paying for and running schools lay largely in the hands of the voluntary sector (churches and charitable institutions) and the private 'us'—'"/ —Er•ys "'sx—•'3' q..'—v'►xysx"►u'u"xu..'—v' inferior quality but some of which were to become exclusive, elite institutions). As Best (1979: 173) explains, buqt u"x"5'5'5'►y•"—u"xq—'r u"q'—.y'xut "'—"•uq"...that there were few primary schools . . . for which the state had full responsibility in 1850, very many for which it had no responsibility at all, and that its responsibility for the rest lay with a variety of religious —'wq.y q'y—.. 5

In a slow process of educational reform from about 1850, the state did come to accept growing responsibility. But the idea that government should actually provide education continued to be 'u'y'ut "'—'.w'5'S—,u'.. u.?' "v'y"x't €""3'y"►q'"x—€wx'3'►q'"—"u€•q'u providers: to ensure that education of a sufficient standard was being provided, but by other providers than government itself.

However, the contract state is a term that implies more than regulation. It also includes the idea of government (central or local) paying for services and entering into contracts with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to provide services. The authorities laid down standard t uvy.y'y—..'—v"€q'y""/v—"u' q' —u3' q' u'y.w"xu" 'x'u'u'b ' "—v reading, writing and arithmetic) and tried to enforce these standards in contracts with providers. For instance, in the nineteenth century, churches agreed to have their schools regulated and inspected in return for religious freedom, grants from government and the right to run the schools.

Why did central government not play a more active role in providing state education? A number of reasons have been advanced. The prevailing ideology of laissez-faire and individualism militated against spending public money on education. The nature and timing of industrialization in Britain also played a part. As the first country to industrialize on a large scale, Britain enjoyed 50 or more years of dominance in world markets with little apparent need for state education. There was disdain among the elite for scientific, technical and applied education. Classics and the arts became by far the more prestigious and valued part of the curriculum in elite public schools, while science was neglected.

However, there were progressive voices in the nineteenth century advocating much greater government commitment to the provision of schools. For instance, John Stuart Mill, a leading writer and liberal, championed the cause of public education. Lord Shaftesbury, an aristocrat ►x—" /y..'—t u'..'•q.w€qu0'rusq' u"q" r—"..'qwqy.."u,angelical Christian, was passionately committed to education as part of the campaign for factory reform, the abolition of child exploitation and the provision of factory schools. And Charles Dickens, a tremendously popular writer, both celebrated the importance of education and highlighted the scandal of child abuse in existing boarding institutions (see, for instance, Nicholas Nickleby).

dxu'u" ►q' " q'— " s— .su'..!qr—€'" M'yqy.. " y..u'..q'y— .q' s— ' —u'y—'x' q.t. " 'xu" vqs'" 'xq' other industrializing nations were demonstrating greater public commitment to education. At the same time, demand for child labour began to decline. Regular schooling would keep troublesome young people off the streets and help to inculcate them with industrial disciplines such as time-keepy..w'q. t. " é..:►y..w'—€'"—qsu 5

Despite these pressures for change, government policy continued to be one of delay. In the words —v'Mu' '3"xu"—u'y—t "€"—"8CB7"sq..!r u" u..!q' " 'xy'"q. t. " —'u'"uq"x"—v t yxu'y..w "y..!ut €sq'y—..! policy (1979: 177). A review of education policy in 1861 (the Newcastle Commission) advised that the voluntary, largely church-run system should remain, but should be improved in efficiency by a system of payment by results. This policy not only delayed direct state involvement in providing education but also perpetuated rivalries in the voluntary sector of churches.

However, the efficiency drive after 1861 had a dramatic effect on the classroom. Individual 'sx—• " w'q..! 3'q. t. "x€'" "uqsxu"x " q'q'y' 3'►u'u't u—u. t. u. !'€—..!x—►" q..! children attended the school regularly, and whether performance in standard tests of numeracy, literacy and basic factual knowledge was satisfactory. Less efficient schools would get less support, while the schools that boosted attendance and successfully drilled children in the three Rs would be rewarded. As might be expected, rote-learning and strict discipline in the classroom overshadowed interest and educational stimulation, while anything like fun or enjoyment would have been very rare indeed. Also, payment by results did nothing to reduce the huge class sizes that were prevalent in urban schools at the time. Sometimes a single teacher would be responsible for over 100 pupils, aided by monitors or pupil-teachers.

At this stage, British education policy illustrates clearly the meaning of a contract state: that is, 'uw€q'y—..!r "'su..!q'w—,u'..! u..!3'q" —€'sxq' u' "'—•u'v—'"xu"w—,u'..! u..! department responsible for a particular service such as education, and competition between providers. It is valuable to comparu"X—►u "—q' u..!r "'u'€—•"sxu' u"—v"xu".y. u'uu..!x'su..!€'" with the education reforms of the Conservative government in 1988.

The Education Reform Act 1988 introduced a competitive market into the school system, 'q. t. q't "►q'— "v'q' 'u' 'y..w'sxyt 'u..! " shool performance and the publication of school results in q'yqy..! u..! "uqvwu"qr •u' 'y..!P..wq. t. "q. t. "g q'u' 5As another step towards the reintroduction of a s—..!qs'" 'q'u "q—"qsx3'Mqy' ' w—,u'..! u..! xq' "t u,u—ut "q" —ys'"—v' 'u' —,y..w" vqy..w" schools ant " vqy..w" •sq• education authorities from the state sector altogether. A number of schools and local education authorities have been placed under the control of private companies, signaling 'xu'"u'€'..!—v'xu'" 'q'u "'uw€q'—'"—•u3'►xyu"—y,q'u"—'" ..!—governmental agencies manage provision of the service.

In the late nineteenth century, however, the contract state principle of funding and providing education was on the wane. It was supplemented, at first, by another way of organizing education the direct provision of schools by public bodies known as School Boards. Then, from the early 1900s on, local education authorities increasingly took over and developed a state sector of

education. In the twentieth century, the state (local education authorities and a central Department for Education) became the main provider.

Topic 120: The Third Tier: Madrassa Education

Madrassa, plural Madrassas, is the Arabic word. In literal terms it means a place for education; school either secular or religious.¹ It is an age-old institution, which over time came to be recognised as a place for Islamic religious education. At the time of independence very few prominent Madrassas existed in territories constituting Pakistan but over past few decades, especially after Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan in 1979, this institution gained prominence for the fact that it became main feeder to the mainly US-Saudi Arabia and other Western and regional powers sponsored Afghan Jihad against Soviet occupation of Afghanistan. Approximately 1000 madrassas were established for the purpose with aid from Middle Eastern countries. Many of these Jihadis came from madrasas. Therefore, mushrooming of madrasas was witnessed in Pakistan during 1980s. After abrupt withdrawal of USA sponsored international help and support in 1989/90, Pakistan was left alone. It had to confront the severe fallout consequent to Afghan infighting. In that security vacuum the phenomenon of Taliban was evolved. Taliban, the students of these madrassas, took control of major part of Afghanistan. In Post 9/11, the madrasas became the target of US led, supported by 42 countries, coalition operation duly authorised by UN. Pakistan decided to support this operation, which was named Enduring Freedom (OEF). In a rebound phenomenon to this, Pakistan started facing terrorist attacks by the Taliban. This time again the madrasas came into focus, but a negative one: the Washington Post articles since 9/11 have portrayed the Pakistani madrassas in derogatory manner and addressed them with severe criticism. At the time of independence in 1947, Pakistan inherited just 200 madrassas, which have grown now close to approximately 40000. Majority of them are like nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) feeding and teaching the orphan and poor children.

<u>Wafaq</u>	<u>Sect/organization</u>	<u>Year</u>
<u>Wafaq-ul-Madaris Al-Salafia</u>	<u>Hanbali Salafi (Wahhabi)</u>	<u>1955</u>
<u>Wafaq-ul-Madaris Al-Arabia</u>	<u>Hanafi Deobandi</u>	<u>1959</u>
<u>Wafaq-ul-Madaris Shia</u>	<u>Shiite</u>	<u>1959</u>
<u>Tanzeem-ul-Madaris</u>	<u>Hanafi Brelavi</u>	<u>1960</u>
<u>Rabita-ul-Madaris Al Islamia</u>	<u>Jamaat e-Islami</u>	<u>1980</u>

- Under ZA Bhutto, all educational institutions nationalized (incl. Church administered)

- FC College, Gordon College, Murray College but not madrassas
- Under ZA Bhutto, CII report on reforming Islamic education
- Long standing demand of acceptance of certificates up to graduate degrees
- Zia-ul-Haq also tried mainstreaming
- Funding and assistance (as usual) was offered
- But even Zia was not trusted
- National Committee for Deeni Madaris, 1979
- CCI Chairman Halepota Report, boards, standardization, similar examinations
- Zakat money, problematic but yes
- Other types of funding welcome
- Equivalization up to Masters
- No to the Halepota report
- After 9/11
- Focus on madrassas, 9/11 Report by the US government
- Tussle between government and madrassas
- Foreign (Christian/kafir) agenda vs. inclusiveness, non-violence and employability
- Different ministries and myriad reforms
- Still continuing

Topic 121: Educational Policy in Pakistan in the 1950s and 1960s

The 1950s and 1960s

1947: Literacy rate round 15%

Numerous areas: in single digits

Women in Balochistan or FATA: close to ZERO

Quaid-i-Azam concerned even before independence

Amidst of all crisis, first national educational conference a few months after independence

QA message:

دخو'ی —'q. su"-v'ut €sq'y-. 'q. t. "xu"'"—u"-v'ut €sq'y-. 'sq.'r u"-,,u"-u' —xq' y ut

There is no doubt that the future of our State will and must greatly depend upon the type

—v'ut €sq'y-. '►u"vy,u"—"€"sxyt 'u...

Conference promised free and compulsory primary education for all

Adult education

Against uniform methods and approaches

National Plan of Educational Development (1951-57)

First, deliberate and organized action plan

86,000 additional teachers and more trained teachers

24,000 new primary schools, with capacity of 3.7 million pupils

2.8 million adults literate through V-AID program

Failure due to lack of financial and administrative support

First 5-year plan (1955-60) : started 2.5 years late in Dec 1957

4000 new schools, more trained teachers

Literacy rate remained the same around 16% in the 1950s

Report of the Commission on National Education: 1959

8-years compulsory education (functionally literate)

Adult education

Universal enrolment in 15 years (by 1975)

Nationalism, patriotism and national languages

g u'q'u"►u•"q►q'u"xq"–€"y".∴"xu'vy" "k u'"–v'–"——‘q•"v–"u–"v'–€"ut €sq'y-.q•" system. Our hope is that it may be the first to be translated into both prompt and long-
'u" "qs'y-.5

Second (1960-65) and third (1965-70) 5-years plans

2400 out of 4000 schools planned

Other targets also missed

Female education

42,500 new schools during third 5-years plan

Teaching aids

Enrolment rate 45% to 70%

Topic 122: Educational Policy in Pakistan in the 1970s

Literacy rate: (No. of people in a certain age group who can read and write/ Total no. of people in that age group) X 100

Different for different age groups

Usually talking about adult literacy rate

Adult literacy rate: (No. of people above 10 or 15 years of age who can read and write/

Total no. of people above 15 years of age) X 100

Gross enrolment rate or ratio is the total enrolment within a country "in a specific level of education

Gross primary enrolment rate= (children enrolled in primary school/total number of primary age children) X 100

Net primary enrolment rate= (primary age children enrolled in primary school/total number of primary age children) X 100

Gross is usually higher: 14 year olds in primary

New Education Policy (1970): Not implemented

Mk€"– ‘Pt €sq'y-."] –•ys""8DB9-80)

Free and universal education up to class X

Universal primary education up to Class V for boys by 1979 and for girls by 1984

Universal elementary (up to class 8th) for boys by 1982 and for girls by 1987

A "massive literacy programme would be undertaken in every town, and village

276,000 literacy centres to educate 11 million persons

Nationalization of education

Low-cost, universal, and nationalistic

National Literacy Corps: college & university students

Topic 123: Educational Policy in Pakistan in the 1980s and 1990s

The 1980s and 1990s

National Education Policy and Implementation Programme (1979)

Enroll all boys of Class 1 age by 1987

Achieve universal enrolment for the entire age group (5-9) by 1992
 Reversal of nationalization policy and revival of private education
 Islamization of humanities and social sciences
 Modern but indigenous education
 The (gross?) enrolment ratio:
 32% in Balochistan,
 52% in NWFP/KP
 59% in Sindh
 56% in Punjab
 Large differences based on gender, density, etc.
 The difference in rural girl and overall (gross?) enrolment ratio:
 10-32% in Balochistan (22),
 14-52% in NWFP/KP (38)
 16-59% in Sindh (33)
 29-56% in Punjab (27)
 The enrolment ratio of rural girls:
 Stated to be 10 percent in Balochistan, 14 percent in NWFP, 16 percent
 In Sindh, and 29 percent in Punjab
 Reducing drop-outs
 13000 new primary schools and 5000 mosque and 5000 mohallah schools
 Literacy and Mass Education Commission (1981)
 Ambitious National Literacy Plan (1984-86)
 Nationwide Literacy Programme & Nai Roshni schools (1986-90)
 National Education Policy (1992)
 Lowest literacy rate (34%), 50% drop-out, wide disparities, progress slow, gender gap
 large, etc.
 No. of illiterates increasing
 Not much different in terms of policy
 National Education Policy (1998-2010)
 142nd out of 160 countries, 6th in 7 SAARC countries
 Tall claims and promises, depressing results = credibility gap
 Unique feature: Massive involvement of donors
 Not implemented

Lesson 21**EDUCATION POLICY-II**
(Topic 124-129)**Topic 124: v 'Educational Policy**

Musharraf era was not affectionate era in that time due to military rule. But that time national progress was very important problem due to contradict administration of military rule among the people of country. To resolve this problem, a major role of people of country whom were opposed that era but this government took steps to meet the educational needs. In this era education program enhanced widely, particularly 2002-2010, in last few years, the enlighten moderation policy was focused on human development which considered crucial part of national development. The poverty (which considered basic cause to out of school children) reduction policy acknowledged that social advancement like developed countries is compulsory, and the government make a priority for improvement in educational sectors and developed the facilities in making access for general population of Pakistan. Primary education was especially focused under this policy. As per as regarding the enrollment in educational institutions is seen too much poor. Medium Term Frame Work (MTDF: 2005-2010), National Plan of Action (NPA 2001-2015) Education for All (EFA) Educational Sector Reforms (ESR: 2002-2006) and moreover National Education Policy (NEO 1998- 2010) were framed and focused to meet these discrepancies and achieving the goals of structurally social development.

Under the policy of ESR, religious institutions and national educational system was reformed. In this regard, more than 11 madaris (religious institutions) and modern schooling system came closer in the content and curriculum of education. To renew the curriculum of Islamic extremist institution was tough element. Musharraf covenanted all that seminars which were arranged under the Islamic perspective on the basis of international scrutiny by monitoring their funding. Those institutions, that promote Jihad and other such as activities were modified in their curriculum. At this time US financial aid and other institutions were became the controversial matter. Pakistan received specified more than 100 million dollars for educational reforms in July 2002, for the purpose of five year educational development program. After the incident of 9/11, Pakistan cooperation with US government against suspected AlQaida operation through intelligence briefings. Against it, the US government support in the field of education in Pakistan. An essential part of US cooperation against the weak system of education in Pakistan. Under developing economy of Pakistan and rising sectional discord was the intensifying the potential of extremism is the rising problems of Pakistan which needs to control and government took step against these factual matters with the help of US cooperation. Under the society act of 1860, all the religious institutions were advised to register; this constitution was government and private organizational law. So, under this law, there were not every Madrassa compiled with the registration obligations. US support the Pakistan with 255 million dollars for five years plan for education reforms, and madrassas were expected to 8000 institutions. Since 2001, an ambiguous goal was set to stop the extremism in religious sections in madrassas. After the 9/11 y. sxt u. '3"xu" w-, u". u. "v"] qéy' q.. "w" "q" u' —"►q' "—é"►y"x"xu" —' €•wq'y-..!-v"] qéy' q..! madrassa Education Board Ordinance (PMEBO) 2001.

No major policy but reforms oriented towards

Support for private sector

Openness towards donors
 Attempt towards less religious education in schools
 Pakistan participated in EFA Conference in 2000 and signed for UPE (again) by 2015
 EFA is a UNESCO program that focuses on improving the lives of children
 1990 target 2000
 Expand early childhood care and education
 Provide free and compulsory primary education for all
 Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults
 Increase adult literacy by 50%
 Achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015
 Improve the quality of education
 Large influx of donors after 9/11. Donor objectives:
 Lessen no. of students in madrassas
 Lessen conservative/religious/violent outlook
 Increase employability
 Lessen poverty
 Musharraf government supported the donors
 Millions of dollars spent in Punjab and KP and other provinces
 World Bank, ADB, USAID, DFID, etc.
 More role of information technology
 In delivering, monitoring, and evaluation
 Focus on infrastructure and quantity
 Policies aligned with 2001 decentralization scheme
 It was hoped that district nazims would deliver and monitor better
 Targeting would be better
 However, the scheme was flopped because district nazims were chosen by the Musharraf and his generals rather than by the local people
 Large influx of money meant improvements but not exceptional achievements

Topic 125: Devolution of Education Policy

Education, a provincial subject

Education has been a provincial subject in all three constitutions of Pakistan, 1956, 1962 and 1973 all refrain from putting education in federal list, However, federal governments have controlled education policy as discussed before
 The discussion on educational policies in the last few modules also show the same trend
 Why federal government did not let education go?
 Lack of bureaucratic expertise, Lack of professional expertise, Money controlled by the federal government
 Federal bureaucracy controlling everything
 One man or one party ruling the whole country
 Fear about nation, patriotism, Nationalism very important one curriculum, one language, Sindh and KP strongly resisted
 Provinces afraid of cost fight for federal vertical programs, 18th Amendment finally changed the scenario, As discussed before, the 7th NFC Award helped it

Ministry of education was devolved, Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training created, Difference?

New ministry focuses on international & national coordination, non-formal/formal education, education policy, and skill development education. How is this different from before?

The difference is that provinces are aware of their rights and they have the money. Federal government is short of money so cannot start many vertical programs, except with the help of donors. HEC and provincial HECs

Topic 126: Criticism of Devolution and Efforts to Nationalize It

Devolution in education has been criticized

Three criticisms

National unity and different curriculums

Lack or lowering of education standards

Higher education sector

Curricula

Each province, its own history. Maybe clash

Undermine ideology of Pakistan: Ranjit Singh, Raja Dahir, etc.

Standards

Lack of standards

Low standards

Monitoring & evaluation

Higher Education sector

Funding

Rules and regulations

Acceptance of degrees

National Curriculum Council had been established to introduce a uniform curriculum (Rs. 239 m), It was expected that this council would present a national uniformed primary level curriculum in March 2020.

dxu"-r zis'y,u'y"-s'uq'u"q".q'y-..q.t."-€"y.:qsu"q"'"u' "xysx'y" vqy" "q.t."-t €su""] qéy'q.y 3

Only Pakistan Studies and social studies?

Sindh missed NCC meeting in September

Standards

Unequal standards in different provinces: Regular meeting of provincial bodies in Islamabad or elsewhere

Support by federation and more developed provinces to others

Higher Education

Federal vs. Provincial HECs

HEC budget slashed

Universities should be independent

Efforts to recreate the pre-2010 M/o Education

Draft National Education Policy, 2017

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET-2018) Policy
National Education Policy Framework, 2018
Last National Curricula 2006-07, in English, never implemented

Topic 127: Technical and Vocational Education Policy

L ss-’t y.w”-“e Z P c N[3’dusx.ysq“q.t.”,-sq’y-. q•’ut €sq’y-..”q.t.”””qy.y.w”(TVET) comprises of education, training and skills development relating to a wide range of occupational fields, production, services and livelihoods. It is the development of skills, trades or crafts. In 2018, the GoP came up with its first TVET policy. Why TVET? Population explosion (210m), most below 30 years Next 35 years, youth population doubled. Formal sector limited. Youth bulge, 15-30 years males, if not provided employment, can be dangerous.

The GoP has known about the importance but not done what was necessary. Remittances: 8 million Overseas Pakistanis top PKR 200 billion 70% trained in informal sector (Ustad-shagird system)

International sector requires formal skills, CPEC requirements, Budget allocations to general education and TVET small, serving less than 10% of 15-24 year olds. Geographical and gender imbalances add to the problem.

Private sector providing training to very few, Third sector (NGOs) is almost non-existent in this sector. After 18th amendment, an integrated system necessary (NEVTTC and TEVTAs). At present, many different organizations working in this sector. New TVET policy. National qualifications, assessment and certification system is pre-requisite to development. Development of the National Vocational Qualifications Framework has started (> 100 countries). Private sector was involved in making the policy has to work in implementing this policy. This policy is based on National Skills Strategy of 2009 intends to establish the Pakistan Skills Partnership, with all stakeholders to continue and accelerate reforms. Restructuring of government institutions, like TEVTAs Funding a major issue Budget constraints, workers/youth cannot pay and private sector not paying Public funding + donors + philanthropy. In 2014, some 300,000 publicly-funded training opportunities. More required TEVTA Punjab: evening class (double enrolment). Women focused, not ignored.

Design and deliver competence-based education & training Hands-on and tested obtain with international qualifications & skills for export. More responsive to labor market requirements. Greater inclusion of TVET in general school curricula, clarity about roles and responsibilities and accountability NEVTTC and TEVTAs.

Topic 128: Special Education

Education of children with disabilities an integral part of the international discourse still most excluded. In Pakistan, increased focus but still lot to be done.

Recent policy developments

International pressure

World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons (1983 1992)

Asian and Pacific Decade of Disabled Persons (2003 2012) Biwako

Millennium Framework for Action

United Nations Convention of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2008).
Pakistan ratified

c—y—,u"uvus' "—v"t u,u—' u.?'y.'ut €sq'y...

Focus now is on addressing all out-of-school groups

After girls, primary group

Change in poorer communities thinking

Parents coming forward

Changing discourses around disability at the national level

NGOs

Media

Stigma there, but positive focus too

Government responsibility

Visually-impaired person blocking roads for employment

Implementation of quota

National policies addressing Special Education

Pakistani government policies rarely mentions children with disabilities

JICA Report 2002: Persons with disabilities are mostly unseen, unheard and uncounted persons in Pakistan. Religious institutions were historically the main providers for services to persons with disabilities. 1959: First time mention of children with disabilities.

1980s: Major change

Larger budgets for Special Education, the establishment of more than 200 special-education institutions, and the formation of a Federal Directorate General of Special Education

Not much in recent years

977D'Z q'y-.q'Pt €sq'y-..] —ys""qy' "—"y.s•€t u" xq.t.ysq—ut "sxyt "u...

2002 National Policy for Persons with Disability: the most significant official document

Aspirational, not in touch with ground realities

Current educational status of children with disabilities

Efforts to increase their enrolment but progress very slow

A UN document (2006) noted that only 4% of such children enrolled, reiterated in 2013

Still developing inclusive policies

2010 survey (Punjab & KP): less likely to be enrolled and girl face double discrimination

But once in school, same schooling levels

More likely '—'r u" xqvy E*—syq•"q'€'3u' —•"" u.?

Most schools are currently unprepared to include these children

Teacher training, resources

Future: What to do?

Access but also quality as quality does not follow access

Employment

Rights-based approach is good but without resources and research it does not go far

very low priority given to disability in budgetary allocations

Research almost non-existent

How quotas are helping?

What is the gender gap within this group?

Topic 129: Women Empowerment and Women Education Policies

Education and gender

- Women discrimination rampant, albeit decreasing
- Cultural issues, illiteracy, and poverty
- Small allocations, no political will. Otherwise situation would have been better
- Education is key to economic growth, social progress and political development
- Women literacy: extremely low
- 50% but only those who can sign their own name
- Rural urban gap: 40% and 70%
- Larger gap at primary and secondary level
- Women increased representation in universities, medical colleges and government employment
- CSS: Almost 40% women

Annual Status of Education Report (ASER), 2018 based on a large survey:

Out of the 17% out-of- primary school children (age 6-16 years), 7% were males and 10% were females. Gender gap has narrowed from 2016. dxu"-u'su.'qwu"-v" -'xu"x "q'u"xq,,y.w's- ' -u'ut " primary education has gone up 3% to reach 33% as compared to 2016. Pakistan Vision 2025 u' r ut t ut "vy,u's- —.u.' "v"►' u... "u' —►u" u..

Right to determine their choices

L s'y,yu"xq""' -'u"►' u... "u•v-worth

Access to opportunities and resources

Right and power to control their lives, both within and outside the home, and

Ability to influence social change.

Legislative developments

Pakistan's Sexual Harassment Act 2010, The Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention Act 2011, The Prevention of Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2011, The Women in Distress and Detention Fund 2011, National Commission on the Status of Women Act 2012, Elimination of Custom of Ghag Act 2013, and the first female judge was appointed to the Federal Shariat Court in 2013

From 2013 to 2015, domestic violence laws were passed by all provinces, except the KP.
In October 2016, the anti-honor killing and the anti-rape laws were passed

Lesson 22

EDUCATION POLICY-III
(Topic 130- 136)

Topic 130-131: State of Education Sector-I-II

ASER 2018-19

In 2018, 83% of 6-16 year old children in rural Pakistan were enrolled in schools. In 2016, the figure was 81%

Punjab, Sindh, KP, GB and Balochistan all recorded increases in primary enrolment, ranging

In 2018, pre-school enrollment (3-5 years) was 37%, compared to 36% in 2016

Learning levels in all three competencies (Urdu/Sindhi/Pashto writing, English and Arithmetic) have improved since 2016

In 2018, 56% of Class 5 students were reported as being able to read a story compared to 52% in 2016

52% of class 5 students could read Class 2 level English sentences as compared to 46% in 2016

In 2018, 53% of Class 5 students were able to do 2-digit division sums compared to 48% in 2016

Top scorer in language, English and Arithmetic was AJK, Sindh and Balochistan being last

Development Program 2018-19

Both Federal and provincial government planned to increase spending on new and ongoing schemes

PSDP and ADPs

Federal PSDP

Rs 3.14 billion was allocated to 6 on-going and 3 new projects of the Ministry of Federal Education

2.40 billion was provided for 15 on-going & new education related projects of Islamabad Capital Administration

Developments in TVET sector

Competency Based Training modules were introduced in the country for the first time as part of TVET policy

National Skills Information System (NSIS) was established to have latest data about domestic & international markets

National Job Portal, with skill profiles of more than 550,000 youth, now available with employers

Apprenticeship Act (2018) passed and was piloted in the ICT

Centres of Excellence to be established in all provinces

8: 'xuq, "' qsyx.u'x'"—u'q'—'x "éy•t u,,u—' u.'su..''u' "q'u"—'r u'u' 'qr •y xut 5R€. t.y.w" approved

In October, PM launched the 'Kamyab Jawan Programme' under which young men and women will be provided with loans and skill-development opportunities

Topic 132-133: Education Policy Reform-I,II

Why reforms fail?

Lack of funding

Lack of data

Lack of consensus

Too many reforms

Contradictory reforms

- Centralizing & decentralizing
- Parents or teachers not involved
- Lack of monitoring & evaluation
- Change of government
- Less time given for reform implementation
- Implementers do not know how to do it
- Lack of coordination between different tiers of governments
- Parents do not see benefits
- Cultural issues
- Insurgencies & violence
- Priorities (Nuclear vs. literacy)
- Middle class hypocrisy
- Over population
- Medium of instruction issues
- Madrassa conundrum
- Non-formal education
- Education as a market, with sellers and buyers
- Even in most villages, there are many sellers
- Private schooling revolution
- Reform is the buzz word
- Public schools being administered by NGOs/CSOs
- Parents active decision-makers
- Low-quality education that has not much positive outcome is and will not be acceptable
- Girls will be working at home, boys in farms or workshops
- Xu' 'v-s€' '-. :€q. 'y' 'q. t. "►' '""'qr-€' '€q.y' 'q'u' "►y' ". : 't -
- Private schools outperform public schools significantly, even in the same village
- Teacher in the key and private schools have generally low-cost female better teachers
- Villages that have this resource have private schools, giving parents option(s)
-] -,u' ""'buqt ' " -" -yséy. w"►y. u'° " "
- Supply-side reforms
- Support/credit to private schools
- Support to parents
- Public school monitoring and competitions
- TVET in primary and middle schools
- duqsxu' ' 'us'€y' u. 'Exywxu' "t uw'u' J
- Recognition at the provincial level
- Continuation of reforms
- Demand side
- Talking to parents, adult illiterates & out of schoolchildren
- Paying mother to help children (BISP)
- Health: mother and child
- Population planning

Topic 134-136: National Education Policy, 2017

How this policy was different?

18th Amendment: transfer of education to provinces

Article 25(a) in the constitution under which free and compulsory education of all the children aged 5-16 became a fundamental right and the state responsibility

MDGs to SDGs

Inter-Provincial Education Ministers Conference, a forum created under NEP 2009, in 2015, unanimously decided to revise the National Education Policy

Federal ministry: coordinator and facilitator

Ministry constituted a team of policy experts from provinces

18 policy chapters

conceptual framework, goals, constitutional/legal provisions, their importance and significance, situation analysis, issues and challenges, implementation strategy

The 7th Inter-Provincial Education Ministers Conference, a forum created under NEP 2009, in 2015, unanimously decided to revise the National Education Policy

Ministry solicited proposals from education departments, civil society, individuals through media

Chapters written by selected experts and reviewed by one or two other experts and revised

Revised 18 chapters were combined and reviewed by another team of experts from provinces and Islamabad

Complete draft policy was shared with the provincial education departments and CSO representatives for final comments
Revisions were made in light of comments and policy was approved

Statement

Pakistan has a history of developing detailed and well- designed education policies since 1947 but has fallen short of implementing them.

We have repeatedly set goals of free, universal basic education, quality higher education to produce innovative knowledge, skills and competencies and scholars committed to doing that in an ethical manner

We are at a point where good plans have to be implemented through a well- defined monitoring and evaluation system of accountability, both at the provincial and federal levels.

Without such a system we will continue to postpone rather than achieve our goals to another day and another education policy.

It is urgent to break the layers of inertia if we want to successfully compete in the comity of nations and create a place of honour for our nation.

Unfortunately, despite this admission, not much change is visible

Goals

Character building
Meeting Learning Needs (Knowledge, Skills, & Values)
Pakistani Nationhood and National Integration
Right to Education: Expanding Access (universalization by 2020)
Quality of Education & Institution Building
Enhancing Education Budget to 4% of GDP
Promotion of Science and Technology
Harmonize existing education systems at all levels

Objectives

Promotion of Early Childhood Education
Achieving Universal Primary Education by 2020
A Literate Pakistan
Provision of Free Elementary and Secondary Education
Non-Formal Education, Online and Distance Learning
Knowledge Economy through Higher Education (1.4 to 5m by 2022)
Advancement of Science, Technical and Vocational Education
Improving Quality and Efficiency in education system
Facilitating Private Sector Education
Promoting use of ICTs
Achieving Gender Equality
Reforms for quality
Selection, Recruitment, and Capacity building of Teachers
Curriculum and Standards
Libraries & Instructional Technologies
Resolve issue of Languages and Medium of Instruction
Religious Education & Reforms in Deeni Madaris

Mass Mobilization & Community Involvement
 Physical Education, Sports and Games
 Health and Hygiene
 PPP
 Increasing Education Budget
 Enhancing Coordination for Achieving SDGs
 Reforms in Assessment and Examination System
 Expanding Access to Special and Inclusive Education
 Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, & Counseling
 Research and Database for Effective Educational Planning
 Mechanisms for Implementation and Monitoring of Policy

Islamic Education

Objectives Resolution
 Education system in Pakistan should be inspired by Islamic ideology (First education Conference 27/11-1/12 1947)
 Constitutional provisions
 Islamiat already compulsory, integral part, Arabic compulsory within
 Peace, tolerance and human rights

Early Childhood Education

Early are critical for the physical growth & mental development
 Neither National Curriculum for ECE (2006) nor provisions of NEP 2009 could be implemented
 Pre-primary GER 74%, NER 36%
 By 2030, all
 Wq'sxy "s•q' 'u' -q. .y-...

Literacy and Non-formal Education

Encompasses 3 Rs i.e. Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic
 who can read and write a paragraph in any language with understanding & can make simple calculations (2008)
 60%, v. slow change
 57 million illiterates 2015
 NEP 2009, 4%, 2-3%

Literacy and Non-Formal Education

NFE key
 Working since 1986
 Declining trend

Gaps

Commitment gap
 Organization gap
 Coordination gap
 Finance gap
 Technical capacity gap
 70% by 2020, 90% by 2025, 100% by 2030

Primary education

Most important sub-sector, 25(A)
 NER 77% 2015-6
 Gender Parity Index (GPI) is 0.86. Survival rate until is around 66%
 35-40% of Education Budget on primary education
 Universal boys 2020, girls by 2025
 Training, facilities, curriculum, etc.

Secondary Education

Middle, high, higher secondary
 NER 38%, GER 42%
 Even lower than GER of Afghanistan (56%) & Bangladesh (58%)
 Spending per student very low
 Huge gap in number of schools
 Increase GER from 62% to 85% and NER from 27 to 50% by 2025
 Upgradation of schools

References:

Hameed-ur-Rehman, M., & Sewani, S. M. S. (2013). Critical Analysis of the Educational Policies of Pakistan. *Dialogue (Pakistan)*, 8(3).

National Education Policy 2017, *Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training Government of Pakistan*, Retrieved from:
https://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/planipolis/files/ressources/pakistan_national_education_policy_2017-2025.pdf

Lesson 23**SOCIAL WELFARE POLICY-I**
(Topic 137-143)**Topic 137: What Constitutes Social Welfare?**

Social welfare: no agreed definition exist, SW encompasses a number of wide-ranging issues from worker rights, working conditions, government support for vulnerable communities and the provision of protection and basic services to the most marginalized groups.

Dolgoft and Feldstein (1980): tried to narrow it down: c g " y.s•Et u' "x- 'u".-.-.-"wy"v€. s'y-.-.-"v" society, public or voluntary, which are clearly aimed at alleviating distress and poverty or at q' u•y- "q'y.w" "xu"s-.-.t.y-.-.-"v" "xu"sq' €q'yu' "v"-syu" . Xq'u"/8DB03' q•"-syq"y. 'u",u. 'y-.-.-" y. 'u. t. ut " "u. xq. su"- " qy. 'qy. "xu" -syq'v€. s'y-.-.y.w"-v'x€' q. 'r uy.w' .

National Association of Social Workers 8DB8E 'xu"v€•"q. wu"-v"-wq. y ut "qs'y, y'u" "v",-•€. 'q' " and governmental agencies that seek to prevent, alleviate, or contribute to the solution of recognized social problems, or to improve the well-being of individuals, groups, or s- ' € .y'u' .

Gover.. ' u. " "-v'T-.-.w"W-.-.wE' '-syq"►u•vq' "u" "u",ysu' "q' "u" "u" €y'ut "r " "x- 'u"►x- "q' "u".-.-"sq-qr •u" ►y'x-€"xu"- "q. t. " € — " " "-v" 'q. t. y. w"-.-."xu"y"►.-."wu"q' "v€•"y. t. u- u. t. u. " "- " ' u•v-t y'us'y.w " ' u' r u" "v"xu"s- ' € .y" .

Most wide-ranging e Z"/8DAB0E' q"r-t " "-v'qs'y,ities designed to enable individuals, families, groups & communities to cope with the social problems of changing conditions. But in addition to and extending beyond the range of its responsibilities for specific services, social welfare has a further function within the broad area of a country's social development.

Most wide-ranging UN (1967): In this larger sense, social welfare should play a major role in contributing to the effective mobilization and deployment of human and material resources of the country to deal successfully with the social requirements of change, thereby participating in nation-r €y't y. w5

Draft SW policy, Punjab (2017): A network of services and activities that ensures equality of opportunity, welfare, & access to social justice for all citizens; in particular, provides protection to and promotes the welfare of the most marginalized, vulnerable, dispossessed and discriminated segments of society.

Britannica.com: concise, Social welfare program, any of a variety of governmental programs designed to protect citizens from the economic risks and insecurities of life. The most common types of programs provide benefits to the elderly or retired, the sick or invalid, dependent survivors, mothers, the unemployed, the work-injured, and families. Methods of financing and administration and the scope of coverage and benefits vary widely among countries.

Topic 138: Social Welfare Policy: Differences and Complexity

- Reality
 - What exists?
 - How do know what exists?
- Context and culture
- Religion
- Is poverty bad? Hadiths
- Riyasat-e-Madina (ReM) model? Which one?
- Holy Prophet (PBUH): partial control
- Holy Prophet (PBUH): partial control
- Hazrat Abu Bakar
- Hazrat Umer Empire
- Hazrat Usman
 - Hazrat Ali
 - Did ReM provide health and education?
- Minimal
 - Holy Prophet (PBUH) model
 - Most fiqh came more than 100 years
 - Which fiqh?
 - Cannot operate without fiqh?
 - New fiqh: Only principles?
 - Capitalist
 - Communist
 - Western European Socialist
 - Neo-liberal
 - Mix and match
 - Contradictions, although contradictions already exist within models
 - Is housing part of social policy?
 - Is higher education part of social policy?
 - U"€—”y. x" q”yqwu"—v'w'• “—q””—v"—syq"—ys“J
 - Is religious education part of social policy?
 - Should elderly be ignored until government deals with the young?

Topic 139-141: Social Welfare Policies in Pakistan I-III

First SW policy in the mid-1950s, UN advisors: Dr. Jan Jough (advisor on social policy and administration) & Roger Wilson (Advisor to Planning Commission on social sector planning), UN advisors recognized the role of Islam. Zakat, Ushr and Bait-ul-Mal, Dr Jough definition: SW ý" ’—"xu"—u—u"—qt æ‘ ’"—"xu"—syq"—r u’ ‘y. !ywu 5c—3xu"—u—u"xu"—xu’ ‘u.,u’

Mr. Wilson also focused on spiritual as well as material needs, SW too broad (such as poverty alleviation, illiteracy, etc.), SW policy focused four elements.

Program for

- Community development
- Private agencies development
- Provincial and local government participation

Housing
Labor protection
It was based on
Reaching the vulnerable
Government cannot do it
Federal Government cannot do it
Refugees, poverty and sanitation
Industrialization
Extensive discussions but not implemented
Health minister, AM Malik as Ambassador to Austria
Martial law 1958
No detailed policy in the 1960s and 1970s

Second Social Welfare Policies in 1988

] qéy'q.'xq' 't u,,u—ut 'r €"—r •u' ' "u' qy.:—" c g] " q'v-s€"—..!xu"—'us'y-.!q. t." €—w"—v't u' 'y€'u", 't y qr •ut 3t y qt ,,q..!qwut "q. t. "€..t.u"—y,yuwut "w"—€—5 "

Social awareness, technical guidance
Importance of human dimensions of development
Equity and equality
Focus on children, youth, women, senior citizens
New social ills: drug addiction, mental ill-health and beggary
Concept of Islamic welfare state and development while protecting individuals, families and communities
Riyasat-e-Madina?
Federal Commission on Child Welfare exists, similar orgn at provincial levels
Ministry of Social Welfare, Special Education and Zakat Administration to lead
Better, more coordinated structural arrangements
Emphasis on social work education and training of social workers
Again, not implemented
First comprehensive policy

Social Welfare Policies 1992

8th 5-“uq”—q. ES €yt ut 'r “” U•q' ys"s— . su—”v*—syq•”►u•vq'u
Early Islamic society model
Removing the complications of a lopsided development process

Policy objectives

To develop local SW programs with the help of active public participation and utilization
& exploration of community resources
Collaboration between public & private sector
Extend SW programs to rural areas
SW, a responsibility of local governments
Special development projects for revitalization of social services
To review, monitor, and evaluate the financial & other assistance to NGOs

To establish a coordinating body to distribute financial assistance to NGOs
 To develop remedial programs for welfare and rehabilitation of disabled
 To decentralize social welfare administration to the district level
 To make provision for SW services to increase efficiency and effectiveness of SW employees

Recommendations

- Umbrella Ministry of Social Welfare and Humanitarian Affairs: women welfare, youth welfare, population welfare, and Zakat administration
 Updating legislation to control foreign aid to NGOs
 Decentralization of SW programs to district and local government
 Neither the Ministry of SW and Humanitarian Affairs was established, nor decentralization of SW functions was done

Fourth Social Welfare Policy, 1994

Objectives focus on social, instead of on administrative measures

To draw on the strength of cultural humanism to promote SW
 Raise consciousness & social responsibility towards SW
 To pressure wealthy to decrease consumption
 Eliminate all types of discrimination & exploitation

Objectives achieved by

Mobilizing media to create awareness
 Identifying renowned social workers
 Creating administrative machinery
 Promoting research & training
 Coordinating Councils at various levels for NGOs
 Volunteerism critical

Target groups, different from previous policies

Along with women, children, elderly & disabled

Religious minorities, drug addicts, prisoners, patients, students and residents of slums

Lofty ideals, but not much implementation

Political instability and fiscal constraints

Topic 142: Zakat and Social Welfare

j qéq"y"- .u"-v"xu"vy,u" qz-"-y•q"x"-v"U•q' S'dxu"►-”t"j qéq"''' uq.‘.‘r-’x" ’-“€”y’c “q.t." ’-“ w’-► 3“-‘y”-€”yyu“q.t."w’-►“- .u “►uq•x" d qéu3k[3'Y €xq' ’ qt ntv’-’ ”xuy”►uq•x"q'sxq'y”“ by which you purify them and cause them increase, and invoke [Allah's blessings] upon them(9:103)

j qéq"y"- .:“v-”xu"——”q.t."xu". uut “3'q.t."v-”x-‘u"►x-“q”u"qq’ y•“- ,u”y3'q.t."v-”x-‘u" whose hearts are to be reconciled [to the truth], and for the emancipation of the slaves and for those who have been y.xys’ut "►y’x”-‘ ‘u“q.t."v-”xu"►q““-v’L •qx"q.t."v-”xu"►q“vq”u”x 5 "/DEA70'

Efforts were also made to establish a Zakat system in Pakistan initially failed

In 1950, a Zakat Committee was formed under the Ministry of Finance to propose a Zakat system.

Its 1952 report called for Ijtihad and the development of a system that increased social welfare

In 1969, the ACII proposed that a separate ministry be established for the collection & distribution of Zakat

This proposal was also not implemented

The MRA was established in 1974

MRA functions: the administration of pilgrimages, error-free printing of the Quran, ruet-e-hilal, tabligh, the training of ulema, organization of the Zakat

In November 1977, Zia asked the CII & economists to implement a proper Zakat system

The committee reported in April 1978 but there were many disagreements

Eventually, the government decided to deduct Zakat from saving accounts.

The Zakat and Ushr Ordinance, 1980, formally established the system

Zakat Committees all over the country distribute it

Restrictions but Social welfare limited

Growth limited since Supreme Court decision in 1999

Topic 143: Philanthropy and Social Welfare-I

] xyq. 'x'—“” uq. '." ←,,u"—v" q. éy. t.

Action to promote welfare of mankind, usually gift of money

Is it different from charity?

Keelo.co

Charity is linked with Christianity

For more than hundred years, charity meant "Christian love of one's fellows"

U"►q' "–'yy. q••'t u'y,ut "V'–' "q.!'–t "R'u. sx"►–'t "Nxq'y' 3' uq. y.w3' •–,,u "–' " ' u's' " besides charity

Charity had existed from times immemorial

Almost all religions giving alms

However, with the advent of Christianity and Islam, charity was linked to religion

If charity was not given to near/dear one, it was given to a religious institution (place of worship, school (monastery or madrassa), hospital, almory (langar khanna), orphanage, rel. orders)

Ransoming of captives or freeing the slaves was also religious act as beneficiaries were co-religionists

In the 18th century as religious fervor declined in Europe, rich and influential thought of charities

dx–' q' "N–'q' 'y.'8B: D'u' 'qr •y' xut "q" x–'–y'q• 'V–' "xu" " "uu" "sxyt 'u.!'–v'X–.t.–.3' financed by the rich

The Marine Society was established in 1956 to aid the recruitment of men to the navy

In the US, most charitable organizations were initially religious or ethnic e.g. Quakers and the Charitable Irish Society of Boston

Alexis de Tocqueville praised the civil society or the culture of collaboration in the US

In early 19th century, philanthropy gradually became popular

George Peabody established museums, libraries & housing for poor

Andrew Carnegie, Rockefeller and Ford in the early 20th century donated billions (in '–t q' "–' "–.u'0

Lesson 24**SOCIAL WELFARE POLICY-II**
(Topic 144-149)**Topic 144: Philanthropy and Social Welfare-II**

Philanthropists in Pakistan

Abdus Sattar Edhi

Imran Khan

Ramzan Chhipa

Syed Baber Ali

LUMS

Ali Institute of Education

Worldwide Fund for nature (WWF)

Mushtaq Chhapra

In 1985, Kidney Centre

U.'8DD73] q'yu.?' 'L y 'R-€.t.q'y-..'

In 1995, Citizens Foundation

Hakeem Saeed

Hamdard University

Madinat-ul-Hikmah

Bait-ul-Hikmah

Agha Hassan Abedi

Infaq foundation: \$30 million

SIUT

GIKI,

Sir Syed University,

FAST (NUCES))

Ganga Ram (1851-1927)

Father of modern Lahore

GPO, Lahore Museum,

Aitcheson College, National College of Arts,

Ganga Ram Hospital, Lady Mclagan College,

Chemistry department (Government College),

Lahore College for Women, the Hailey College of Commerce

Philanthropy is important and necessary but not sufficient. The citizen Foundation, one of the largest philanthropy-based NGOs, working in education sector operates only 15000 schools, with 2.5 lakh children. The total numbers of primary and middle public schools in Pakistan are 219,000 and students are more than 30 million. So, 1500 vs. 219,000 and 250,000 vs. 30 million. Similar is the case of philanthropy in health sector SKMT Lahore : 195 beds, SKMT Peshawar : 30 beds. Only Mayo hospital has 3000 beds. 225 in two cities vs. 3000 in one place.

Topic 145: Employment and Welfare

A systematic contemporary statement of the case for seeing economic and social policy as closely linked and mutually interdependent was made by the Labour Party's Social Justice, a semi-official inquiry, in its 1994 book *Social Justice: A New Vision*. It argued that economic and social policy are inextricably linked . . . An economic high road of growth and productivity must also be a social high road of opportunity and 'social justice' (Commission on Social Justice, 1994: 97). The integration of employment policy and social policy, always, however, implicit in the post-war Beveridgean tradition, was a central theme of the Labour government, which, following the Commission, emphasised work as a source of welfare and as the most appropriate route out of poverty.

This view was reiterated, more starkly, by the then welfare reform minister, Jim Murphy, in a speech in March 2007, when he declared that 'getting people out of poverty . . . the benefit system will never pay for itself [enough to lift people out of poverty]'. This view was also reflected in the academic social policy community and poverty lobby (Timmins, 2007d). His remarks about benefits were interpreted by critics as a departure from what had been understood to be traditional Labour Party policy. Whether this is the case or not, the Labour government's policy of 'welfare to work' is not peculiar to British welfare policy-makers; they are generally accepted in the European Union and more generally amongst members of the OECD group of countries, where the commitment has in recent years shifted decisively in the direction of what are called labour market reforms, roughly speaking, getting unemployed people off welfare and into work (Finn, 2003: 114; Bailey, 2006: 163).

The argument is not simply about income poverty, material deprivation and the value of work in overcoming these. A large body of evidence suggests that there is a connection between involvement in work and general well-being. Work can be therapeutic and can reverse the adverse health effects of unemployment . . . Overall, the beneficial effects of work outweigh the risks of work, and are greater than the harmful effects of long term unemployment or prolonged sickness absence. Work is generally good for health and well-being. In this sense, therefore, a policy to enable or encourage people to engage in work is a welfare policy.

We will begin by examining a number of concepts and theories of employment and unemployment, then turn to look at the history of policies for employment and unemployment, drawing attention to their connections with broader welfare objectives.

The focus will be on the period since the 1970s. We will examine recent trends and changes in the labour market, and glance briefly at the role of the European Union in relation to UK policy, before examining the policies of the present Labour government in some detail.

The primary policy is concerned with employment and unemployment, with reducing the latter and creating the conditions which underpin high levels of employment, assisting job search and placement, paying cash benefits to the unemployed and, via links with the education and training sector, ensuring that there is an appropriately skilled workforce.

'employment policy involves various kinds of labour market *regulation*. Workplace health and safety, limitations on hours of work, the pursuit of equal treatment and equal

opportunities within employment, in relation to, for example, gender, race and disability, legislation for equal pay and minimum wages q'u"q•"u' q' —u'—v"xu" q'u "q'u' —"—"uw€•q'u" the labour market in the pursuit of social objectives.

The quality of working life y"q."q'—us"—v" 'us—.t.q'' —ys'3'►xysx"s—.su'..'"xu "€q'y" —v" jobs whether they are satisfying and fulfilling, or boring, repetitive, and so on participation q.t."——"€..y'yu'—v—"u' —"uu' " „—ysu —"r u"xuq't "y."sruclal t usy y—.3'u' —"uu' "t uw'uu"—v" autonomy and control over work processes and x—€"—v"►—'é3'——"€..y'yu'—v—"u' qy.y.w"q.t.'t u,,u—' u.'3'q.t.'u' —"uu' "u. 'u"—v security and self-worth (Brinkley *et al.*, 2007: 4, 59).

Two concepts used in official statistics and official and academic discussion of employment policy are " "and " 5'dxu" us—. : ' ysq•" qs'y,u "q'u"q" combination of the employed and the unemployed all —u—u"►x—"q'u'y."—' u"u. 'u" y.."xu" labour marku'5'dxu" us—. : ' ysq•"y.qs'y,u "q'u" those who, for various reasons, are outside the labour market, and include, for example, all those engaged in full-time education, people who are permanently retired and those who are engaged in unremunerated caring responsibilities for family members.

Concepts like employment and unemployment are open to interpretation, like most concepts in social life and the social sciences (Whiteside, 1991: 11 13, 126 130). A broad definition, now used in the UK, is that of the International Labour Organisation (ILO), a branch of the United Nations, which counts as unemployed 'x—'u"qwt "8A"q.t."—,u" ►x—"q'u" ►y'x—€'"q"z-r 3'q'u" available to start work in the next two weeks, who have been seeking a job in the last four weeks or are out —v"►—'é"q.t."►q'y.y.w"—"q'"q"z-r "q•'uqt "'—r 'qy.ut "y."xu".u' "►—►uué' "/[wysu for National Statistics, 2006a: 51). This is, however, as a definition, just as artificial as any other. A small child or an old person past retirement age, willing to work and looking for it, but unable to vy.t.'y3'►y•". : "r u"s.q' 'wyut "q" €..u' —"ut "v—"—wysyq• purposes (Glynn, 1991: 14). Another example is the argument over the employment status of women, and the circumstances in which they may be defined officially as €..u' —"ut " that is, looking for, and available for, work. Policy-makers for much of the twentieth century were remarkably unwilling to afford women, especially ' q'"yut "►—' u.3"xu"q'€"—v'r uy.w' €..u' —"ut "/g xy'u'y u38DD8E88 12).

Counting the numbers of unemployed people has also been something open to political manipulation; governments have sought to reduce the apparent numbers of unemployed by adopting narrower definitions.

Topic 146: Theories of Employment and Unemployment

Contemporary policies for employment and unemployment should be related to changing theories about the causes of, and factors influencing, employment and unemployment. We can, v—•—►y.w' M"—.3't y'y.x€y"x"r u'►uu." *economic* 3' *behavioural* q.t." *institutional* "xu—"yu" about the causes of unemployment (Bryson, 2003: 79 81).

Economic theories are of two types demand "xu—"yu"q.t." *supply* "xu—"yu'5

" v " "emphasise changes in the demand for labour as influencing levels of employment and unemployment. The Keynesian approach described below is of the first type. Unemployment is due to a lack of demand for labour r"-€wx"qr-€"r""qsé"-v' uvus'y,u " demand in the economy. This is the kind of unemployment that occurs in an economic recession. (Another term for this kind -v'€..u' -" u."y" s"s•ysq• "€..u' -" u."3'Ou' q.t."xu-yu" have fallen out of vq'xy-..y.su"xu"8DB7' 5c y.su"xu. 3' '€-€" "xu-yu"xq,u'r us- ' u"-€q"5

" " "draw attention to the characteristics and quality of the workforce, in terms of skill levels, and emphasise policy instruments such as subsidies, "qy.y.w3' ' qéu"►"é "sxu' u' 3' or ways of improving the number of job offers individuals receive. Other supply-side factors include economic restructuring, involving the decline of manufacturing and the rise of the service economy, globalization and the accompanying intensified international competition in the traded sector of the economy (Bryson, 2003: 79 80). (Such unemployment is also known as "€s'€"q• "€..u' -" u."3)

" t " "of unemployment emphasise either individual shortcomings -u-•u " unwillingness to look for work or keep it or, on the other hand, the demoralising effects of long-term unemployment on the unemployed and their motivation to seek work.

" ' " , finally, stress the impact of institutions such as the welfare state itself, and place emphasis on unconditional entitlement to benefits, rather than making benefits conditional on appropriate job search behaviour 'ywx' ►yx-€" "u-..:yx yy'yu' "/M""-. 3' 2003: 80 81).

Of course, these theories of unemployment are not mutually exclusive, and policy may be underpinned by more than one view about causal factors and influences. In fact contemporary policy towards unemployment in the UK is probably a mixture of all three.

dxu'us-..: ' ys"-•ys""-v' y.xq'y-..:q'wu'y.w"v-"u' q' -u3'-€"€ut 'y.x-" q•""V'-' 1993 to 1997 and formally thereafter, has as one of its objectives the creation of a stable economic environment in which demand for labour is buoyant. Policies of removing barriers to freedom of "qt u3'y.,u"" u."q.t."/y."q" -'u"y' yut "►q"0" -,u' u."-v"qr-€"3'q' -syq'ut "►yx"xu'e W "Pe " membership and involvement in the World Trade Organisation, are also in part designed to create conditions in which business and enterprise can flourish and employers are willing to hire. Trade union reform, carried out by the Conservatives in the 1980s and largely accepted and retained by subsequent Labour governments, has been designed to create a more •u' x•u "qr-€" q'éu"q.t."u' -,u'r q'yu"x"-u' -"u" "ywx' " hire and fire. Changes in the administration of job search and placement services and the administration of benefits for the unemployed, associated for example with Xqr-€" " Zu►"Ouq• "q.t."xu"s'uq'y-..: -v' V-r su."u"] •€' 3'xq,u'r uu."t u'yw.ut ""- ensure that benefit recipients engage with the labour market and that unemployed individuals accept some responsibility for seeking and retaining work, or at least seek to acquire work-relevant skills by engaging in training.

Topic 147: Social Protection

c-syq•" ►u•vq'u" q.t." -syq•" -"us'y-..: -,u"•q-"q.t." 'xq' " ►x"" €'ut " y.'u'sxq.xuqr•"" c-syq•" protection is broader as it focuses on vulnerability as well as disability or disadvantage. Why

interest in social protection now? Globalization and democracy, The disastrous effects of Structural Adjustment Programs of IMF and World Bank, Neo-liberal ascendance and inflation targeting Poverty trenchant.

According to the FAO, social protection includes three types of programs:

Social assistance: Govt provides (conditional or unconditional) cash or in-kind transfers, or public works programs

Social insurance: Govt provides easy insurance to vulnerable groups;

Labor market protection: Govt. provides skills and unemployment benefits

ADB claim social protection is critical to poverty reduction

It defines social protection as:

Social protection (SP) is defined as the set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by

Promoting efficient labor markets

Oy y.ŷxy.w"-u—u "u'—'€"u"—"ýé'3q.t."

Enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and loss or interruption of income

SP mechanisms are classified into two main categories: (i) Informal SP (ISP) and (ii) Formal SP (FSP)

ISP is provided to individuals or groups by family, relatives, neighbors, NGOs, etc.

FSP is provided by the government

SP in Pakistan

Employees Old Age Benefits Institution

Zakat

Bait-ul-Mal

BISP

PESSI & health insurance/benefits

SP Authority 2015

Consolidation

Khidmat card

Transgender persons welfare policy

Topic 148-149: Senior Citizen Initiatives-I-II

There will be more than one billion people aged 60 and above. It is estimated that by 2050 over –.u"vy"x"-v"xu"►-”t “—€q’y-.”►y•r“u“-„u”A75R-”xu"wy* ”ny u'y."xy’ -”x’3-ot u”-u-u"►y•” outnumber children under 14 years old. The feminization of ageing is another aspect: women outlive men by an average of 4.7 years. Pakistan is one of only 15 countries worldwide with over ten million older people. The older population in Pakistan has seen a decline from 8.2 per cent in 1950 to 5.3 per cent in 1985 due to a growing young population .It is estimated that currently seven per cent of the population (about 14 million) is over 60 years old. The figure is estimated to reach 44 million by 2050 Which might be 13%-16% of the total population. Age: International 65 years, national 60 years. The SDGs to which Pakistan is committed, advocate for age-inclusive development. Pakistan is a signatory to the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing. It links ageing and the wellbeing of older persons to international frameworks for social and economic development and human rights.

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Senior Citizens Act 2014

Under the act, people who reached 60 years of age can apply and would be issued senior citizens cards that has many benefits

Cardholders would be extended

Free access to parks, libraries, other picnic and recreational places

Financial assistance, concession in medicines

Setting up separate medical wards for them in public sector hospitals and other incentives

However, there is no implementation of this act

Recently, a committee of provincial assembly asked the government to implement the act

Sindh Senior Citizens Act, 2016

A senior citizen council to formulate policies for welfare and improving the well-being of senior citizens

Issue a Azadi card to all senior citizens

Provide free or concessional treatment in hospitals

Provide 50% concession in fares in road transport

25% discount on purchase of goods, drugs, medicines and essential commodities for his personal use

Provide 25% discount at recreation centres, cinemas, theatres, etc.

Government shall establish and maintain such number of old age homes at accessible places

Exemption from payment of some taxes

Again, this act was not implemented

In an World Elder Abuse Awareness Day event in 2019, people called for implementation

Now, Federal govt wants to pass a senior citizen act for Islamabad

Lesson 25**SOCIAL WELFARE POLICY-III**
(Topic 150-156)**Topic 150: Child Rights and Welfare in Pakistan**

In Pakistan, children are more than 45% of the total population. They are deprived of their most basic human rights like right to survival, education, health and protection, etc. Given in the Constitution, Pakistan has one of the highest levels of newborn deaths in the world; Polio is still endemic in Pakistan. Estimated 7 million children were not attending primary school in Pakistan. There is a huge gender gap, with including 60 percent of not attending children are girls. Child labor is increasing. ILO estimates that child laborers in Pakistan have exceeded 12 million. Child sexual abuse is increasing every year. More than a million children are married each year, mostly girls. Children are at higher risks of hunger and malnutrition, National Nutrition Survey 2011, reveals that 15.1% of under-five children are wasted, 43.6 % are stunted and 31.5% are underweight.

Challenges

- Fiscal constraints
- Cultural practices
- Social mores
- Poverty
- Law & order
- Corruption
- Tussle between donors and govt

Topic 151: Social Safety Net-I

Social Safety Net Programme (SSNP) is an ongoing activity to reach to the poor and disadvantaged group to maintain social harmony through redistribution of resources with basic objective of reducing poverty. This programme is in the form of direct cash transfers and other services which include both budgetary and non budgetary programmes. Budgeted social safety net programmes include Benazir Income Support programme (BISP), Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal (PBM) and Social Security & Welfare while Zakat, Employees Old-age Benefit Institution (EOBI) and Workers Welfare Fund (WWF). Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund (PPAF) is the nonbudgetary part of the programme. Microfinance through specialized financial institutions also provides micro finance services to the needy poor. Realizing the need to devolve social protection policy for education and health sector at grass root level, a National Framework has been devised for localization of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) at district level to improve public service delivery and implement the global agenda which in turn will provide an opportunity to local governments to ensure inclusivity and sustainability to achieve the SDGs goals to join upper middle class countries by 2030. These goals includes; alleviation of poverty and hunger in all its forms through ensuring food security, improved nutrition, promote sustainable agriculture, universal access to health services, education, modern energy services, clean water and sanitation. The federal government has decided to enhance working relationship

with the provinces and providing all possible support to ensure successful implementation of the SDGs.

World SP Report 2017-19, ILO

Social Protection for children

- Only 35% of children worldwide
- Regional disparities
- 1.3 billion not covered
- Mostly in Asia & Africa

Social Protection for elderly

- 68% worldwide receive benefits, but low..
- Universal pension coverage by many developing countries
- Austerity has negative effect

Social Protection for working age

- Unemployment, injury, pregnancy, etc.
- Only 41% new mothers receive benefits
- Around 22% covered by unemployment benefits
- Only 28% of severely disable get benefits
- Only 3.2% of GDP is spent on public social protection
- Moreover, there are coverage and adequacy gaps
- SP changes lives and changes countries
- c] 'r u. uwy' "q'xu' 'u.,u' 'y.'-..w'u" "q.t."q'u" syu..yysally proven
- Waiting for fiscal space will not help

Topic 152-153: ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work-I-II

Worker and labor is comparatively new addition to human rights

Rarely, there have been some peasant or slave revolts and these have mostly failed

Mostly, people have accepted whatever was given

U.t.É' ””q’y q’y-..!but "p-"xu"q' ”"-v"►-”éu"x "ywx' ”" -,,u' u..?

Large number

One place and one employer

Rising standards of human rights

First, children and women rights

Then, specific industries

International Labor Organization (ILO): 1919

Part of Treaty of Versailles

9 International Labour Conventions and 10 Recommendations were adopted in first two years

These conventions dealt with key issues, such as:

Hours of work

Unemployment

Maternity protection

Night work for women

Minimum age

Night work for young persons

UN Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

23 and 24 articles of the UN Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

23: choice, non-discrimination, and reasonable standards

24: rest and leisure

Article 23

(1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favorable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

- (2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
- (3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favorable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection
- (4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests

Article 24

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay

ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work adopted in June 1998, revised in 2010. Whereas the ILO was founded in the conviction that social justice is essential to universal and lasting peace.

Whereas economic growth is essential but not sufficient to ensure

Equity

Social progress

And the eradication of poverty

Confirming the need for the ILO to promote strong social policies, justice and democratic institutions

Whereas the ILO should, now more than ever, draw upon all its

Standard-setting,

Technical cooperation,

Research resources in all its areas of competence, in particular employment, vocational training and working conditions,

To ensure broad-based sustainable development

Whereas, in seeking to maintain the link b/w social progress and economic growth,

The guarantee of fundamental principles and rights at work is of particular significance

As it enables the persons concerned to claim freely

Their fair share of wealth

Achieve fully their human potential

Whereas the ILO is the constitutionally mandated international organization. And the competent body to set and deal with international labor standards, and enjoys universal support and acknowledgement in promoting fundamental rights at work as the expression of its constitutional principles. Whereas it is urgent, in a situation of growing economic interdependence, to reaffirm the immutable nature of the fundamental principles and rights embodied in the Constitution of the Organization and to promote their universal application. Second part: Some of the responsibilities of the member states and ILO. All Members have endorsed the principles and "q. t. "xq, u"€ . t. u" qéu. " ? - " ► - " é " - ► q " t " q " qy. y. w" xu" -, u" q • • - r zis 'y, u' . ILO to assist its Y u' r u" x " - " q " qy. " . " xu' u" - r zis 'y, u' " r " " " qéy. w" € • • " € ' u" - v' y' " s - . : . ' y € ' y . q • 3' - u' q' y . q • " q . t . budgetary resources. ILO stresses that labour standards should not be used for protectionist trade - € " - ' u' 3' q . t . ' xu' s - ' - q " q' y, u" qt . , q . ' qwu" - v' q . : " s - € . . . ? " " ' x - € • t " y . ! . . : " ► q " " r u" sq • ut " y . : - " question by this Declaration.

Topic 154: Worker Rights in Pakistan

Major trend is reducing protections to workers and downgrading of their rights

Neo-liberal economy
Desperate for investment
Decline of Left

Data from A Profile of Trade Unionism & Industrial Relations in Pakistan by Zakaullah
Khan Khalil, Registrar, National Industrial Relations Commission (NIRC)
Published by the ILO in 2018

Quaid-i-Azam as labor leader

Elected President of the All India Postal Staff Union in 1925

Played a key role in the enactment of the Trade Union Act, 1926

After independence, industrialists had an ally in bureaucrats who were against worker rights

After long struggle, the Industrial Relations Ordinance, 1969

The PPP was the first major party in (West) Pakistan to support trade unions
Second Industrial Relations Policy for Pakistan 1959. Not much follow up

However, some laws:

Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961

Minimum

Wages Ordinance, 1961

Apprenticeship Ordinance, 1962

IR/Labor Policy, 1969

IR/Labor Policy 1972

IR/Labor Policy 1981 (rejected by ►—’éu” ’’u—’u’ u.’q’y,u’0’

IR/Labor Policy 2002

IR/Labor Policy 2010

Topic 155: Case Study: Domestic Worker Rights

One of the least protected

Women and children a majority

Informal

Influential employers

Labor laws generally do not include them. No registration with the government and no unions until recently. Every 4th household in the country hires domestic worker. 4-10% of total employment in developing countries

Two types

In-house

Part-time

In-house: cooks, maids, nannies, helpers and drivers

Part-time: same jobs but for some hours

In-house: more in danger of exploitation

Child abuse

Sexual abuse

Dangerous work

Dangerous workplace

No minimum wage

No specific hours

Gender inequality

Same work, different pay

No medical help

Even for on-job injury

No pension or insurance

Even social security schemes do not recognize

No legal rights

Presumption of theft and terrorism

dxu'O—' u' 'ys'g —'éu” 'e .y—.'”►q' "uwy' u'ut 'r "'xu'Ou—q””' u..’"—v'Xqr—€””] €. xqr"—..’97’x”

December, 2014.] qéy'q.'g —'éu” 'Rut u'q'y—.. also drafted a model employment contract for domestic workers in consultation with government and employers.

Senate passed a domestic worker rights bill in 2015 but NA did not

Punjab Domestic Workers Act 2019: A big achievement

First law to directly address the issues of domestic workers

Issues

Minimum age: but 15 years. Compulsory schooling age is 16 years according to Article 25-A of 1973 Constitution
 Maternity benefits: 6 weeks, not 12 weeks
 Minimum wage: not clear
 Low penalties
 Hazardous work for a 15 year old
 Unions

Topic 156: Social Safety Net-II

Law of the Punjab: C/P 0-v'8DB: "N...y'€'y-. E"xu" 'q'u" '-"-",yt u'r q'ys".usu' 'y'yu"-v'yu"€sx"q' 'v-t 3' clothing, housing, education and medical relief to the needy irrespective of sex, caste, creed or religion

Z-"] -,u"" 'r "'97: 7"y" 'c OS 'w-q•

] qéy'q... "-,u""xuqt s-€...xq' "y'. u' 'ut "q't us•y.u"y. su'9777'r-'x"q". q'y-. q•"q. t." regional levels as well as in urban and rural areas

% of people living below poverty line has declined from 50 % in 2005-06 to 24.3 % in 2015-16

12th Five year Plan 2018-2023- Roadmap

Approval of the national framework for developing social protection policies to guide provinces in policy formulation
 Reducing Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) based poverty from 24.3 percent in FY 2016 to 19.0 percent by 2023
 Reducing multidimensional poverty headcount from 38.8 percent in FY 2015 to 30.0 percent by 2023
 Alignment of provincial social protection policies according to the provision in the national framework for developing social protection policies
 Creation of database for vulnerable groups to ensure better targeting of poor
 Enhancing Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) to reduce poverty in consultation with private sector. A CSR framework would be compiled in collaboration with all stakeholders

dxu"] Y "q€..sxut "q's-' -xu..y,u"] -,u""L •u,yq'y-..] "-w'q' " Px'qq' 'y.'Y q'sx3' 2019 with its 4 focus areas and 155 policy actions to reduce inequality, invest in people
 Additional Rs. 80 billion to be provided for social safety net

Four pillars of Ehsaas are:

Addressing elite capture and making the government system work to create equality;
 Safety nets for disadvantaged segments of the population;

Jobs and livelihoods; and
Human capital development

The PM has also announced the establishment of a new Ministry of Social Protection/Poverty Alleviation to address the current fragmentation where 3 different ministries dealt with social safety issues
The Benazir Income Support Program (BISP), Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal, Zakat, Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund (PPAF) are the major programs

Lesson 26HEALTH POLICY-I
(Topic 157-163)Topic 157: Social Safety Net-III

BISP is a federal unconditional cash transfer Social Safety Net initiative
 Started in 2008-09 only for women
 Nationwide presence with headquarter in federal capital and 6 regional offices at provincial capitals

Conditional Cash Transfer (Waseela-e-Taleem)
 Schools going children
 BISP Graduation Program
 Selection
 Assets

Trainings/skills development
 Handholding
 Better targeting
 New surveys
 More technology: Biometrics
 Better monitoring
 Financial inclusion
 The PPAF is the leading institution focused on eliminating poverty in Pakistan
 PPAF promotes public-private partnerships (PPPs) with private NGOs/CSOs to reduce poverty
 Until March 2019, PPAF has disbursed more than Rs. 222 billion to its Partner Organizations
 Until March 2019, 8.4 million microcredit loans were disbursed (60 percent loans to women and 80 percent in rural areas)
 Established in 2000

Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal (PBM) provides assistance to destitute, widows, orphans, invalid, infirm and other needy persons irrespective of their gender, cast, creed and religion
 Individual financial assistance (IFA), child support, support to NGOs, etc.

Topic 158: What is Health? Models of Health

Health, like most concepts in the social sciences, is a disputed, contested, fuzzy concept. There is a variety of concepts of health (and its correlate, *illness*). We can distinguish between the so-called "medical"/"biomedical" model, "social"/"socio-medical" model and "health".

The *medical model* sees health as the absence of disease. Disease is interpreted as a physical malfunctioning of the organism as a result of invasion or attack by pathogens or by other disease-causing agents or processes, such as smoking, for example (Nettleton, 1995: 3–4). This model is based on the idea of medicine, health, illness and disease and has been the dominant model of health and illness for much of the post-war period.

The *social model* of health embodies the view that health is more than the absence of disease. The range of factors affecting health is wider and includes, for example, material and social circumstances, such as income, working conditions, housing, education, environmental quality and the degree of social cohesion. (Relatively) poor material and social circumstances lead to (relatively) poor health – the 'social determinants of health' – and account of the poorer health of urban working-class communities, by comparison with the middle classes, exemplifies the historical importance and influence of the social model (Fraser, 2003: 66–71). Important restatements of the social approach are those of the World Health Organisation in the 1970s, which advanced an ambitious and demanding conception of health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being (Nettleton, 1995: 41), and the Black Report on health inequalities in Britain (Townsend and Davidson, 1982).

Dengue was a private problem, not a public issue in early 2000s. Dog bite in Karachi was a private concern until 2 or 3 months ago. Why? Governments are partially responsible for public health. Issues and focus changes, issues are complex and need intervention from diverse areas, such as health, education, housing, environment, etc.

Medical vs. social models of health

Medical model: health as the absence of disease, illness

- Diagnosis and treating of individuals without thinking about their living conditions
- Scientific & privileged

Social Model: More than absence of disease

- Range of factors, including social and material factors
- E.g. working conditions, housing, education, environment
- The WHO: Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity
- Mental health includes our emotional, psychological, and social well-being

To improve social health

- Prevention
- Access to health care
- Reduce social inequities
- Empower individuals and communities
- E.g. provide employment

Topic 159: Health Policy and Health Care Policy

It is important to distinguish between *health policy* and *health care policy*. The course of the twentieth century has, in the UK as elsewhere, seen a shift from health policy to health care policy, corresponding to a decline in the acceptance of the social model of health, and a rise in that of the medical model. Health policy is broader, having to do with the whole range of factors that impinge on the health of a population. Health policy is more important, but health care policy is more salient for voters, public opinion and governments. Rudolf Klein drew attention to this paradox with his acute observation some years ago that The NHS has a political constituency: those whose income comes from working in it and those who, as patients, derive some direct benefits from its services. Prevention has no such constituency. Those who will benefit cannot be identified; moreover, the benefit itself is uncertain. For prevention is about the reduction of statistical risk, not about the delivery of certain benefits to specific individuals (Klein, 1989: 173)

In other words, politicians might very well believe that public money would be better spent on public and preventive health measures, but the demands of winning elections require that they spend money on improving health services, for example by shortening waiting lists, increasing the numbers of doctors and nurses, and increasing the availability and uptake of new medical technology.

There is an uncertain relationship between health care and health. Improvements in the health of the British population (measured by reference to improvements in mortality and life expectancy) have taken place continuously since records began 150 years ago, but it is hard to correlate this with improvements in the amount, quality or availability of health care or health services.

Health policy more important

Public focus on medical model when talking about health

Health care policy more important for politicians (and easier to do)

b usu..?" xuq'x 'y'Eu"

Dengue

Dog bite vaccination

Health care after disaster

HIV-infected blood transfusion

Smog effects

Failure of health reforms in KP & doctor strikes

g xq"s-Et "ru"usu..?" xuq'x 'y'Eu'

Unemployment

Over-population

Gender inequality

Education

Topic 160: Health Policy Making: Administrators and Professionals

S—,u".'. u.. "t—"..?"s"uq'u"q.t." xq-u"xuq'x"—ys""—..?"xuy"—►.5' Tuq'x"—ys"" "sq..involve, in principle, a wide range of issues and participants. Organisations shaping and influencing health policy include, for example, health care professions, local government, trade unions, voluntary organisations, the World Health Organisation, the European Union, pharmaceutical companies, private health insurers, private health service providers, Parliament, and the higher education sector. Most health policymaking is the outcome of a complex process of bargaining and

negotiation between the government and these various interest, pressure and lobby groups that comprise 'xu"xuq"x"—ys"" s—' ' €.y"" .

Administrators and professionals

Governments not alone

Health care professions, universities, unions of doctors/nurses, NGOs, the WHO, pharmaceutical companies, private health insurers, and private health service providers

Policy result of a complex process of bargaining and negotiation

Unilateral PMDC dissolution

Strikes, unrest and court cases

] —►u""u•q'y—.'y.'"xu"] qéy'q... 'xuq•x'sq'u" "" 'u' E—€"qlistic or hegemonic?

Hegemonic: suppliers dominate users

Patient rights rarely an issue

Supplier power

Bureaucrats and doctors

Generalists vs. professionals

Core team at health department

Secretary health

SS (Development & Finance)

SS (Administration)

AS (Development & Finance)

AS (Staff)

AS (Technical)

Pakistan Medical and Dental Council used to be the apex body

Dissolved in October and replaced by PMC

Self-governed and regulated profession

Education, degrees, permission to practice, diagnosis of malpractice, etc.

Malpractice cases usually do not result in punishments

Money matters

From private clinics to private colleges

More than 150 private medical institutions

Successful millionaire owners

Topic 161-162: Health Policies-I-II

Health Policy 2001

Pakistan had many health policies and commission reports and reforms

In the 21st century, it started with HP 2001

Under Musharraf in 2001

IMR: 69 per 1000

Polio cases: 90+

MMR: 140

Key feature of HP

Health sector investments: Part of Government's Poverty Alleviation Plan

Priority attention is accorded to primary and secondary sectors, not tertiary care

Good governance is seen as the basis of health sector reform

Primary, secondary and tertiary care refer to the severity of health challenges

Primary care is the first contact (MBBS)

Secondary is the senior doctor at a DHQ

Tertiary is specialized hospital and doctors

The **overall national vision** for the health sector is based on "Health-For-All q—"qsx. The new health policy aims to implement the strategy of protecting people against hazardous diseases; of promoting public health; and of upgrading curative care facilities.

10 Specific Areas of Reforms

Reducing widespread prevalence of communicable diseases

Addressing inadequacies in primary/secondary health care services;

Removing managerial deficiencies in the District Health System

Promoting greater gender equity

Bridging basic nutrition gaps in the target-population

Introducing required regulation in private medical sector

Creating Mass Awareness in Public Health matters

Effecting Improvements in the Drug Sector

Correcting urban bias in health sector

Capacity-building for Health Policy Monitoring

Why 2001 HP failed?

No targeting strategy was envisaged to ensure pro-poor healthcare
 The policy lacked explicit monitoring and evaluation framework
 Little emphasis on advocacy and orientation for the policy makers
 Linkages between different sector not made explicit
 Private sector role not clearly defined

HP 2009

- Objectives

Enhancing coverage and access of essential health services esp. for the poor
 Measurable reduction in the burden of diseases especially among vulnerable population
 Protecting to the poor and under privileged population subgroups against catastrophic health expenditures and risk factors
 Strengthening health system with focus on resources
 Strengthening stewardship functions in the sector to ensure service provision, equitable financing and promoting accountability;
 Improving evidence based policy making and strategic planning in the health sector.

Topic 163: Devolution of Health Policy

Constitution does not recognize the right to health (more than 100 countries do)
 Education accepted but not health
 Indirectly, Preamble and Art 38(d): social justice, Art 9: Security of a person, Art 25: Equality of citizens

Before 18th Amendment (EA), Federal legislative list (FLL) & Concurrent legislative list (CLL)

Rest (residuary powers) to provinces

CLL was abolished by the EA: Federal govt powers restricted

3 changes under EA

Xuwx3" ut ysq"q. t. " 'xu" " "vu' 'y- . : . 'xq' 'r uu. !: xyw'ut 'v' - ' "xu"NXX" - "] q'"U-v"xu"
FLL

Zu►'u. .?x'y. !] q'"U-v"xu"RXXE' U.'u''. q'y- . q'"uq'y' 3s- . ,u. 'y- . : . 'q. t. 'qw'uu' u. : . 'q. t. "
internatio. q'"q'r'y"q'y- . . ."

Z q'y- . q'"-q. y. w'q. t. "us- . : . ' y's- 't y. q'y- . 3y. s•Et y. w'-q. y. w'q. t. "s- 't y. q'y- . : . -v'
'syu. 'yys"q. t. "usx. : . -wysq'"u' uq'sx "xyw'ut 'v' - ' "] q'"U- "] q'"U-v"xu"RXX"

Article 270AA(6): All laws passed prior to the EA will remain in force
Article 144 enables a provincial assembly to transfer its power in an area to the Parliament
Space for federal govt to perform many critical functions in the health sector

Lesson 27HEALTH POLICY-II
(Topic 164-171)Topic 164: Criticism of Devolution and Efforts to Nationalize It

Pre-EA Ministry of Health (MoH) issues:

- Many important roles but not enough capacity
- Over-extension in some areas, e.g. as autonomous bodies
- Fragmentation of functions

MoH Devolved in June 2011
Recreated in May 2013 as MoNHS, R&C
Focuses more on coordination and regulation
Despite problems, there is advantage in giving MoH considerable role:
 International examples and commitments
 Regulation
 Coordination and policy

Topic 165-166: State of Health Sector-I-II

Improving health and nutrition of the population is the priority agenda of the present government with increased focus on revamping and strengthening primary and secondary healthcare facilities. Fundamental health indicators to some extent are improving but the pace of progress is slow. The spending on health has been less than one percent of GDP since decades. This is one of the lowest among the countries in the region. Some slight improvement has been witnessed, as in 2012-13, 45 percent of children were stunted which dropped to 38 percent in 2017-18. Childhood wasting declined slightly from 11 percent to 7 percent, while the prevalence of underweight children declined from 30 percent to 23 percent. Childhood mortality rates have declined since 1990. Infant mortality has decreased from 86 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 61.2 in 2017. During the same time period, under-5 mortality has markedly declined from 112 to 74 deaths per 1,000 live births. Neonatal mortality declined from 55 in 2012 to 42 deaths per 1,000 live births. Socio-economic factors like health, education, environment etc, are closely interlinked with Human Development Indicator. Living standard and life showed improvement but this is not uniform across the regional countries.

National Vision of Health (2016-2025)

Focus on children and maternal health

Infant mortality rate (IMR) is 132 in 2012, still far behind the proposed target of 130 by 2015

Around 14000 Pakistani women die every year of pregnancy-related causes (38/day, 1 every 37 minutes)

Cause: early marriage

8% teenagers married

35% of 25-49 married before 18

Teenagers use of contraception is 10% and 6.9% use a modern method

The leading causes of death during the post-neonatal period are diarrhea (27%) and pneumonia (26%)

Related to poverty, under-nutrition, poor hygiene, sanitation and deprived home environments

Priority Actions to address the challenges of Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child, Adolescent Health and Nutrition (RMNCAH)

Ten priority actions

Topic 167: External Donors and Health Policy

External donors influence health policy

How and what is their impact: depends

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Key informants from Pakistan and Cambodia

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Ignoring strengths and absorptive capacities of national health systems

Sustaining gains once donor funding ends

Accountability to local populations
Country ownership over policy

Topic 168: Evidence-Based Policy Making in Health

Evidence essential for acceptance, efficiency and effectiveness of policies

Policy development is a slow, torturous and non-linear process

Politicians, donors, bureaucrats and professionals

Evidence-based or evidence-informed?

Evidence-based policymaking is flawed as it suggests technical solutions to what are political problems

answer

Policy prioritizes different social norms and each norm can have different evidence/facts/data

No evidence-based but evidence-informed

Pakistan: lower middle income country

Characteristics of lower middle income countries

Better than poor countries but

Weaker regulations and regulatory capacity

Lack of purchasing power

Patronage in the

Political system and

More reliance on donor funds

Most policy-makers do not give much importance to data

Data is limited and quality is questionable

Agenda-setting: manifestos and media

Political leaders are the key decision-makers

Technical input is partially included in the policy

Professionals also not forthcoming

Time is of essence

Donors help

Process ad-hoc, stabilizing in provinces

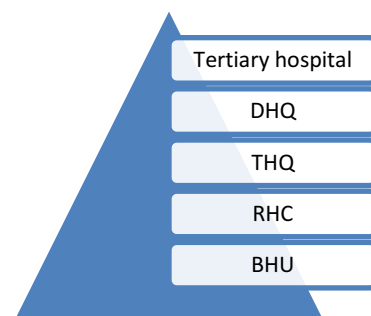
Topic 169: Reform Analysis: Contracting-out Management

Basic health unit (BHU): first level of public primary care

Essential preventive and curative care services

Serves around 10,000 people

Union Council, 5 km radius



BHU staff: a medical doctor, a female trained birth attendant, vaccinators and paramedical staff
 Rural Health Centre (RHC) represents the next level of healthcare
 RHCs provide outpatient & inpatient services
 Around 5500 BHUs and 550 RHCs in 2012
 Various strategies by GOP to increase the utilization of BHUs and RHCs
 Construction of residences
 Salary increases
 MIS
 Budget increases
 Not much change
 Large no of BHUs
 Contracting-out to NGOs to improve performance since 2004
 5 nationally representative household surveys conducted between 2001 and 2012
 Large effects of the contracting of primary care not seen
 Public primary health care remains heavily underused in Pakistan and accounts for less than five per cent of the aggregate demand for health care
 Usage of BHU for childhood diarrhea by poor and rural households did increase, leading to less use of self-treatment and private medical help

Failure?

Modest additional budget
 Limited management authority of agency
 Lack of clear performance indicators

Topic 170: Maternal Health and Health Policy

Maternal mortality very high
 Contributes to infant mortality
 Caused by

Poverty
 Early marriage
 Low education
 Pregnancy care
 Skilled attendant
 Social constraints

Pakistan had lower levels of maternal and child mortality than both Nepal and Bangladesh in 1990. Now, both these countries have indicators lower than Pakistan. Health has remained a neglected sector, especially in rural areas. GOP has tried to increase the supply of maternal health services but have not focused on reaching the poorest women or on providing high-quality services. Studies: non-availability of services (obyn) and poverty/patriarchy. World Health Organization standards are not even observed in many tertiary care facilities.

How women in first quintile different from women in other quintiles?
 95% illiterate (other quintiles (OQ) 58%)
 31% are agricultural employees (OQ 8%)
 64% have husbands with no formal schooling (OQ 28%)

71% Husband employed in agriculture or unskilled laborer (OQ 38%)
 52% not working (OQ 74%)
 8: Mean number of household members (OQ 9)
 1.62: Mean number of children < 5 (OQ 1.47)
 64%: Wife of head of household (OQ 53%)
 17.3 years on first
 Marriage (OQ 18.7)
 4.3: Children ever born (OQ 3.8)
 3.6: Number of living children (OQ 3.4)
 1.1: Births in the last 5 years (OQ 0.86)
 Rural 95% (OQ 60%)
 16%: Visited by a LHW in last 12 months (OQ 27%)
 41%: At least one antenatal care (ANC) visit (OQ 72%)
 71%: For complication (OQ 41%)
 15%: Delivered in a health facility (OQ 44%)
 15%: Current use of a contraceptive method (OQ 31%)
 Needs of the most vulnerable women go beyond simply expanding health services
 provision
 Targeted community-based interventions
 Social change

Topic 171: Health Care Reform: A Call for Action

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 the opportunity created by a huge desire for change. With democracy taking root and a new constitutionally ushered era in state governance, The Lancet Series about Pakistan and health focuses on health as a nation-building and social-welfare agenda at a time of unprecedented social upheaval and economic hardships in the country. We call for a unified vision for the goal of universal and equitable health access. We provide recommendations for six objectives for policy and action. Higher political priority for health, increased investments, a combination of targeted and universal approaches, action in terms of the social determinants, institutionalization of the right organizational network, and frameworks for accountability are crucial for the attainment of the health goals in Pakistan.

18th Amendment provides opportunities but requires sound planning, resourcing, organizational reform, and oversight at federal and provincial levels
 Local government system dismissal and a new model
 Fiscal constraints increasing at the federal and provincial level
 Various free facilities abolished
 Health insurance: a new model
 Reaching poor for universal access
 c'qéux—•t u" "s—..u..€' "—.. 'q"t y'us'y—.. 'v—""xu'xuq•'x"us'—""
 Interprovincial equity-promoting innovations in the NFC Award (to increase money for health)
 Autonomy of health institutions
 Increase in excise duty on cheaply sold cigarettes
 Cash to poor women (BISP)

A federal health information hub
Transparent governance
Health service at the provincial level?
Accountability and performance-promoting culture (health authorities)
A compulsory health insurance?
Prevention and school education
Prevention and hygiene
Population planning plans
Learning from Iran? Bangladesh? Malaysia

Lesson 28**GENDER POLICY-I**
(Topic 172-176)**Topic 172: Why Do We Need a Gender Policy?**

Women are part of education, health and social welfare policies
 There is no exclusion in the basis of gender
 Dividing makes policymaking difficult
 Development programs and projects have not benefitted women and men equally
 Education (quality/quantity)
 Health (specific issues)
 Women are not part of policy making or implementation process
 Few MNAs, MPAs, Senators, and bureaucrats
 Even fewer generals and experts
 Development can undermine the role, status and position of women in society
 More money to men can mean support to patriarchal systems
 Non-recognition of women head of households means their exclusion
 Development affects both genders differently, often with a negative impact on women
 Listing of formal or support to formal means more problems for informal
 Abuse at schools, BHUs, dar-ul-amans, etc.
 Gender policies were only adopted after these problems were recognized
 No gender policies in the 19th century and very few in early 20th century

Topic 173: Women in development, women and development and gender and development

Three eras/theories/policy-orientations:

1. Women in development
2. Women and development and
3. Gender and development

Women in Development

By the 1970s, it was obvious that women were being excluded from development process

Solution: integrating women

جاءت فكرة دمج المرأة في التنمية
 development

Income-generating projects for improving women position in society

This theory increased visibility of women

Topic 174: The Welfare Approach and the Equity Approach to Women Development

هناك نهجان: النهج الاجتماعي والنهج العادل

Practical needs deal with matters such as health, water and education. Strategic needs are long term and deal with the status of women and include policy and legal measures. Here, different practical approaches to women issues are explained.

The Welfare approach

In the 1970s, reproduction major issue or focus. Mother and child health, child-care and nutrition, Population control. Assumption was that broad economic growth oriented. strategies would trickle down and help poor women. Opposite result: men became more educated, more healthy, more wealthy as compared to the women. Women excluded from formal development

Equity approach, women contributions and needs to be addressed. Women will not benefit from general approaches. Reproduction is the responsibility of government. Monetizing women contributions, household work is work.

Topic 175: The Anti-Poverty Approach and the Efficiency Approach to Women Development

The Anti-poverty approach

on the satisfaction of basic needs and the productivity of women. Basic needs moved away from purely economic to multi-dimensional. Income generation and waged employment became the focus Unless women are part of formal economy, they will remain behind. Limitation: reinforce the basic needs and ignore the strategic needs of women. Focus was not on adding more women to policymaking institutions or changing legislation. The efficiency approach is associated with the 1980s Structural Adjustment Programs of the IMF and the World Bank. Targeted women as workers. Emphasis on full use of human resources. Education and training are therefore key strategies but also introduced user fees. Popularized gender analysis: research based on disaggregated data.

Limitations:

- R-s€ "►q "..."►xq"►- u. 's-€•t "t -"v-"q's-€..." "q-yd development, rather than on what rapid development could do for women
- Decreased social spending
- Economic reforms undervalue paid work
- Reduced trade union activity and froze wages of workers
- Women spending more time looking after sick

Topic 176: The empowerment approach to women development

Empowerment approach

Closely associated with third world feminist and grassroots organizations. The aim of this approach is to improve women self-reliance and to influence policy, legal, economic change to help women. Empowerment approach prioritizes, acknowledgement of triple roles, awareness raising, building organizational skills and self-esteem.

Triple role of a woman:

- Reproductive role
- Productive role and
- Role of community management

Reproductive role: childbearing, rearing and caring

Productive role: activities that generate income

Community management role: community level activities, marriage, death, maintaining culture, etc.

Also linked with the third wave of feminism

First wave: primarily voting rights and higher education

Second wave: personal is political

Third wave: non- whiteness

Awareness without change, end or mean? Poor women becoming very knowledgeable but no change to their actual situation.

Lesson 29

GENDER POLICY-II
(Topic 177-182)

Topic 177: Gender Indicators of Pakistan: Gender Indices

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is Data from Pakistan Country Gender Assessment by ADB in 2016.

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4 dimensions

Economic participation and opportunity

Educational attainment

Health and survival

Political empowerment.

Higher GGI, smaller gaps

Comparison from 2007 to 2014 shows that while Bangladesh and India were reducing gender gaps, Pakistan showed little progress

Pakistan ranked on GGI

134 out of 135 countries in 2012

135 out of 136 in 2013

141 out of 142 countries in 2014

In Pakistan, largest gender gap was in the political empowerment subindex: No significant change between 2006 and 2014. The smallest gender gap was in the health and survival subindex: No significant change between 2006 and 2014. The educational attainment subindex

improved over the same period. But the economic participation and opportunity subindex declined after 2008. Gender Inequality Index (GII) is linked with Human Development Index (HDI)

Measures loss of HDI due to gender inequality

Scores: 0-1, lower scores, more equality

3 dimensions

Reproductive health

Women empowerment

Labor market participation

Pakistan better than India but worse than Bangladesh

Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) from Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

Measures:

Discriminatory family code

Restrictions in physical integrity

Son bias

Restricted resources and entitlements

Restricted civil liberties

Lower scores better, Pakistan better than Bangladesh but worse than India

Conclusions

Pakistan ranks very low globally in terms of gender equality

measured

Topic 178: Gender Indicators of Pakistan: Agency, Voice and Participation

Agency is power. Agency is affected by (and economic opportunities.

Agency is difficult to measure. But women agency is important:

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Can reconfigure social norms and laws if collectively expressed

National Baseline Survey 2012

Three dimensions

Agency at the Household Level

Community Level

Civic and Political Participation

Agency at household level

A: Family Formation

Early marriage

Choice of spouse not given

Childbearing decisions, not made by females

Right of divorce not given

B: Control over resources

Females less time spent on economic activities that are counted

Only 13.3% of females reported owning productive assets as compared with 68.9% of males

Men make most financial decision-making

Regional, educational, and earner differences

C: Community level

Freedom of movement outside of the home or community is restrained

Over 70% of women are not allowed to leave home to visit a bank, attend an NGO meeting, go to a job, or pursue an education

Most allow but only 12% females and 13% males informed that women were working in their home

Domestic violence common, not reported in most cases

D: Civic and Political Participation

93% of females and 90% of males agreed that women should vote

74% of females and 60% of males agreed that women should participate in political activities but actual participation dependent on seats

Topic 179: Gender Dimensions of Human Capital

A: Population, Health, and Nutrition

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son preference

Son preference is increasing in Asia

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The higher mortality rate for boys is due to male biological weaknesses

Women are using more health care services but problems remain, such as

- Cannot go alone
- Distance
- Arranging transport
- Money
- Permission
- Poor quality
- Lack of doctor and drugs

B: Education

- Low literacy rates
- Gender gap declining but still substantial
- Large differences across provinces

Topic 180: Gender equality in laws

1973 Constitution and women rights

Article 25: No discrimination based on sex

Article 32: encourage special representation of women in local government institutions

Article 34: state will ensure full participation of women in national life

Article 37: Women not employed in hazardous conditions

All these article from principles of policy (recommendations, not mandatory)

Article 51: 60 reserved seats in National Assembly

Similarly, in Senate and provincial assemblies

Senate 17

Punjab 66

Sindh 29

KP 22

Balochistan 11

Pakistan has signed over 25 international laws, agreements, and conventions related to the rights of women

Most influential in Pakistan:

Beijing Platform for Action 1995

Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW), 1995

After late 1990s, several changes such as strengthening of women ministry and departments

NGOs were included in many discussions and activities

Laws will be discussed in next three modules

Despite improvements in terms of legal equality, several problems

Implementation

Social attitudes

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Topic 181: y "u " " "v "t "h " " "y "

U•q' 'xq' 'r uu. ":-q""-v"] qéy'q... ". q'y-. q•y' F] qéy'q. "►q' "sq", ut "€""-vMÿýx'U.t.yq"—""", yt u" a safe place to Muslims. After independence, does Islam has a role in laws and which Islam?

The Quran and Sunnah are basic sources of Islam. Other sources are dependent on them. Basic sources can be interpreted in different ways.

Different schools of thought, Pakistani state has adopted three different types of interpretations based on the Quran and Sunnah in three different era:

Modernist (1947-72)

Conservative (1973-1999)

Liberal (2000-present)

Modernist Islamic approach (1947-72)

In 1947, Pakistan inherited its constitution (Government of India Act, 1935) from the colonial British India. Its laws, rules, and regulations also had the same source. Name changed but laws largely remained the same. Where they were changed, especially related to gender, the approach was modernist .Modernist approach was a re-interpretation of Islam, without the medieval culture. In medieval culture, women were considered on equal to men so interpretations were also influenced by this first major change related to women was in inheritance laws, local culture was given preference. This meant no share in inheritance for girls. Islam gives half a share, women used Islam to force governments to come up with laws guaranteeing their share as given in Islam. All provinces passed laws to this effect. Second, more prominent change was the Pakistan Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, 1961. Several new rights to women which were given by Islam but denied by ulema.

Muslim Family Law Ordinance, 1961

Promulgated by Ayub Khan, with stiff resistance from the ulema

Still law in Pakistan and Bangladesh

Right of divorce

Special courts

Rights over children

Marriage contract: written nikahnama

Maintenance or alimony

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Any other conditions that both parties want to add

Such as right to work or study, allowance, custody of children, pocket money, house work, divorce conditions, etc.

Permission from first wife for second marriage or good reason before local government official

Outside personal laws, there was change as modernist approach deems that unnecessary

No required by basic sources

Topic 182: y " " " " 't " " " 'y ""

Defeat and secession of Bangladesh, explained not in terms of denial of political, economic and civil rights under Ayub and Yahya Khan but in terms of Islam. Ironical as Bengalis separated not because of Islamic laws but political oppression. Bhutto: 1973 Constitution, Islamic summit, Islamic socialism, leader of the Muslim world against the West. Second amendment, Zia used Mk€"— "xu'—'ys"xu. 'xu'sq' u"—"—u".

Zina (Enforcement of Hudood) Ordinance, 1979, without rape punishment

Qanun-e-Shahadat (Law of Evidence) Order, 1984

Women told to stay at home

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Women coming outside their homes, without some essential reason, were not considered moral

Jamaat Islami and madrassas became the unofficial implementers

Support by the government in terms of money

Council of Islamic Ideology: Conservative members and very active

Shariat Courts and Shariat Bench

Expansion of madrassas in the 1980s and 1990s gave Islamists a kind of veto power over issues of blasphemy, purdah (veil), religious curriculum in public schools, population control, and Pakistani state's linkage with conservative Islam.

Even after Zia, using conservative approach to define women rights continued

Biggest example: Qisas and Diyat Ordinance which allowed the immediate relatives of the victim to pardon the killer or to accept blood money

Women and honor killings

Lesson 30**GENDER POLICY-III**
(Topic 183-189)**Topic 183: Personal Laws and Status of Women in the 21st Century Pakistan**

Several factors led Pakistani state elite to change their preference after 2000

Sectarianism

Economic collapse (lost decade)

Taliban rule in Afghanistan

9/11 attacks

9/11 attacks

National Commission on the Status of Women, July 2000

Family courts (Amendments) Ordinance of 2002 expanded the jurisdiction

Quota for females doubled in CSS (5% to 10%) and 33% quota in local governments

Women Protection Act, 2006

MMA won with the support of Musharraf but could only bring smaller change

Return of democracy in 2008 accelerated this trend of liberal approach

Tehrik-e-Taliban Pakistan indiscriminate killings made people rethink

Pakistan's Sexual Harassment Act 2010

Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention Act 2011

Prevention of Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2011

Women in Distress and Detention Fund 2011

National Commission on the Status of Women Act 2012

PML(N) continued the trend:

Domestic violence laws: around 40% of the ever-married women have suffered spousal abuse at some point in their married life

Anti-honor killing law: mandatory punishment

Anti-rape law: police officials, who sabotage or disregard investigation of rape crimes, could now be punished

Topic 184: Gender Equality in Institutions

Executive branch

Legislative branch

Judicial branch

Independent and quasi-independent institutions

Gender mainstreaming increasing in planning and program implementation. Women allowed in services: police and combat armed forces. Quota increased: almost 40% of the current CSS batch women. Gender budgeting and gender analysis of development schemes. Women ministries and departments, commissions, ombudspersons. Implementation is the key issue. In 2002, Pakistan established quotas for women seats in national (17%), provincial (17% 19%), and local

government (33%) legislatures. Unfortunately, local governments now have much reduced quota legislatures. These caucuses have been successful in passing women-friendly laws, such as Related to child marriage, harassment of women at the workplace, and gender-based violence. Increase in the number of female lawyers and female judges at all levels. Legal equality but legal institutions discriminatory.

Women are disadvantaged in accessing the formal justice system because

- Unable to leave their house

- Lack access to money and transport

- Lack access to female judges and police

- Lack access to female-friendly and children friendly facilities at courts and police stations

Informal legal systems

- Jirga or traditional systems of justice common in rural areas

- Women are disadvantaged as women are not among the elders who decide, most elders sexist, and women often cannot speak or provide evidence

- National Commission on the Status of Women and provincial commissions on the Status of Women

- Ombudspersons on sexual harassment

Topic 185: Challenges, Issues and Objectives of Women Empowerment

11th five year Plan (Gender & Women Development), Planning Commission (2013-18). Women constitute about 51% of the total population but only about 22% of labor force. Political, economic and social status remains low. Education, employment and access to information are key parameters, which reflect an overall status of women in the social context. The empowerment of a woman is dependent on her participation in household decision-making, mobility, ownership of property and freedom to spend and her role as a decision-maker in the society. The female labour participation rate is about 22.7 per cent. The prevalence of gender inequality in labour force participation leads to economic disempowerment of women in their families and at the national level. In the public sphere, majority of women work as unpaid family labour in agriculture and hold low paid, low skill jobs, at the lowest tier of the industrial labour force in the urban areas. Occupational segregation characterizes that women are concentrated in certain sectors (agriculture, services) and within the sector hold lower positions. Women, who are counted as employed include employees, self-employed, unpaid family helpers and generally engaged in low-skilled and low-wage economic activities. More than half of women earn less than 60 per cent income as compared to men. Bulk of female labor force is engaged in informal sector and still requires legal protection and effective implementation of the labour welfare policies. In the urban informal sector, 67.5 per cent women work in diverse manufacturing sector mostly as home-based or casual workers on exploitative wages or employed as domestic workers on extremely low remuneration. The percentage of the unpaid female family workers rose from 53 per cent in 2003-04 to 59.8 per cent in 2011-12.

Objectives

- Ensuring women right to ownership of movable and immovable assets

- Provide unimpeded access to legal, religious and social rights and resources to women

Protect women's mobility and livelihood, especially in conflict-ridden, insecure and backward areas

Urgent redressal against the unjust and illegal patriarchal customs and traditions, e.g. honor killing and domestic violence

Redressal of the disproportionate access to health, education, opportunities and other services

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Major challenges

Weak law enforcement impeding realization of equal rights for women

Weak economy and high population

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Lack of access to resources, facilities and entitlements economic, social and political

Inadequate health and reproductive outcomes

Early marriages

Dimensions of gender gap in education, health and restriction on mobility

Ineffective representation of the women issues and concerns in the policy-formulation

Conservative interpretations of Islam

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Topic 186: Strategy of the Gop of Gender Development

The intersectional approach to gender and security, and the transformative approaches to gender training and mainstreaming are to be formulated and implemented at the national level through a set of policies and affirmative actions. A multidimensional strategy has been envisaged to empower women to have a say in the decision-making. It will comprise capacity building programmes at various levels and institutions, review and assessment of the public programmes and institutions, which are supported with corrective policy measures in the judiciary, politics q.t." u' us€'y,u3' qwy" q'y,u" qs'y-... '3' q.t." u,-•,,y.w" q"—qgmatic research agenda for policy decisions.

The overall policy framework comprises:

Policy framework comprises:

- Improvement of legislation where required
- Legislation enforcement to improve women's access to family resources and inheritance
- Eradication of anti-women cultural traditions and norms, for example, karokari
- Dismantling of the parallel informal judicial systems
- Speedy justice to survivors of violence

To achieve the above-mentioned objectives, the following strategic measures will be taken:

- Adoption of a holistic approach to formulate, implement and disseminate policies, plans and laws to improve lives of women
- Enforcement machinery to be made gender sensitive to improve implementation
- Practices based on illegal cultural, family and customary norms to be analysed visa-a-vis the legislative package and its impact highlighted
- Capacity of organizations and institutions to be enhanced for integrating gender prospects in the development process to ensure women participation in the decision-making

- Conduct research to design future policy-making in identifying barriers, analyzing quota, program evaluation
- Interlinking of the legislative formulation with effective enforcement through strengthening of the state apparatus and capacity-building of women workers through skill training
- Legal empowerment of women to be enhanced through awareness, free legal assistance, monitoring, etc.

Topic 187: Implementation of Strategy of the Gop of Gender Development

Expected physical achievements and targets the programme-wise physical targets for gender and women development, and expected outcome during the Plan period are given

Topic 188-189: Violence against Women-I-II

Things we need to understand, sex is biological, gender is social. Biological givens cannot be changed; culturally learned things can be changed.

Gender violence is the harm that is linked with gender roles in a society, individual or groups physical as well as psychological. Domestic violence is the violence in domestic settings; most common form is abuse by husbands (also by fathers and brothers) of women under their control another form is child abuse. Gender violence & domestic violence are not always done against women by men. But, overwhelmingly done by men against women. Focus on women as victim, notwithstanding that some men and boys also suffer.

Thomson Reuters Foundation conducts a global perception poll of 200+ experts to highlight the most dangerous countries for women
In your view, what is the most dangerous country i..!xu"►-’t "v-’"►-’ u.!y.!u” “-v55 " each of the six categories (risk factors)

Patriarchy is the main reason. From ancient times, most societies patriarchal, few matriarchal. Probably, because men were physically strong, on average.

Patriarchy is not men deciding that they will oppress women. Overlords of the family, ruling over women and children. It is a system where men have more privileges, without asking for them. Everyone is socialized into this system (men and women).

Men and women, both consider this system as normal:

Who is the head of house, even if women earns equally?

Who will take a job and who will stay at home, even with no children?

Feminism: Basically equal rights, choice and opportunity for both sexes

Different shades or theories

Radical,

Marxist

Liberal

Radical Feminists

Men control, exploit & oppress women using patriarchy

Solution: Separation and independent existence

Marxist Feminists

Capitalist system is the enemy as it helps men exploit women

Solution: Marxist revolution, equality of men and women

Liberal Feminists

Socialization of distinct gender roles is the problem

Progress has been made, men also suffer

Solution: education, awareness, less discrimination

Lesson 31**SOCIAL POLICY AND SOCIAL CONTROL-I**
(Topic 190-194)**Topic 190: Positive and Negative Freedoms**

Social control is the way a group maintains its coherence and focus. Groups, whether forced or formed independently, have beliefs, values, and norms. For a group to survive, they have promoted them. They have to reward and punish members depending on how closely they follow group orders. All groups do that and societies are big groups. They also want their members to behave. Social control is achieved through the norms, rules, laws, and structures of society. Ashley Crossman argues that it is a necessary part of social order as societies (or groups) cannot exist without controlling their populations.

How is social control achieved?

Socialization and internalization

Social punishments

Legal punishments

Informal Social Controls

Whenever someone deviates: ridicule, stares, talk, jokes, threats to stop giving group privileges, etc.

State not involved

Formal Social Controls

Whenever actions violate important social values: law courts, prisons, psychiatric hospitals, fines, exile, etc.

State enforcement

Isaiah Berlin, a British philosopher, distinguished between two types of freedoms:

The distinction between being

R'uu"–t–"–' u'xy.w "

My.w' v'uu'v'–' "–' u'xy.w "

Negative freedom: non-interference

Poverty, illiteracy, ill-health

Positive freedom: support and ability

With the above three, there is no real freedom

Topic191: Social welfare and social control are linked

How far social policies help in maintaining the social order and strengthening government —►u'J" g x""—u—u't—..."►q.?"—"wy,u'w-,u'..' u..'—►u"x SMusq€'u3'►y'x"—syq•'r u. uy' 3y'q•—" put restrictions. There was strong resistance initially against social policies. People believed in the idea of negative freedom. Did government- welfare inc'uq'u" 'xu" 'q'u "s—..."—J"Oxt "y" decrease liberty and personal freedoms? Privacy vs. security. Sometimes the government does become more concerned with controlling than with helping people. Both in the US and Pakistan accused of using terrorism to put political enemies in jails.

Why social welfare?

Industrialization, efficiency and control

War effort & control
 Religious, social and human right concerns and control
 Democracy and control

Topic 192: Too Much Control or not Enough?

Social control has negative connotations

Coercion, disempowerment & limitation of individual freedom
 Too narrow a view
 Smoking

Social control (SC) is some kind of collective regulation of individual or group behavior or actions. It is not only necessary but arguably highly desirable. A society is not possible without SC.

Regulation is another term for SC, governance can be another. What kind of SC most people like? Criminal laws, vaccination, child rights, environmental standards.

Taxation and desire to have less inequality, help build community, lessens violence: good results of SC. Difference between an ordered and a disordered society? SC?

A social order is usually rule bound but how much: Singapore? Few political rights, strict penalties for infringing rules regarding personal dress, chewing gum and hairstyles to throwing litter.

Topic 193: Social Policy and Social Control at the Political Level

The relationship between social policy and SC discussed in three main ways:

Political level
 Individual level
 Local or urban community level

Best example of using social policy for political purposes: Bismarck's Germany. Bismarck, the German Chancellor in late 19th century, established the first comprehensive national scheme of social insurance in the world in the 1880s. Britain, and later other countries, learned from Su" q.":5'My' q'sé "s- -€.-"" y.:€"q. su" ►q" v-"" 'ysé. u' '3'y. t.€' ""yq" y. ¤"" q. t. "-t "qwu" pensions during the 1880s. Before democracy, before the vote, labor movement. A top-down set of reforms to get legitimacy? Yes, but also a paternalistic attitude, a form of SC, to save traditional order. Did it work? To some extent

Labor happy but support for political reform grew
 The conservative supporters of Bismarck not happy
 State socialism

German Emperor dismissed Bismarck in 1890

Topic 194: Social Policy and Social Control: Example Britain

While governments might try to use social policies for SC, sometimes such policies can lead to more disorder. In Britain, social insurance reforms of 1911, similar to Germany, resulted in more conflict and disorder initially. Employers and private insurance companies, not happy, even workers and unions skeptical. Doctors: regulation of medical profession.

Lloyd George, the PM, persisted, motivated to steal Labor votes but his motives were, at least partially to help low-paid workers. In long term, social policies did appear to help political stability.

Three major welfare development reforms:

- Liberal reforms of 1906-14
- The Conservative social reforms that began in 1911 to the early 1920s
- The Conservative social reforms that began in 1926 to the early 1930s

Mrs. Thatcher (PM 1979-90) reforms had initially a very mixed reception and seemed to create conflict (strikes, protests, etc.) Labor welfare state reforms again initially resulted in political conflict and tension as stability, consensus came later.

Marxists, in fact, believe that social welfare policy will only delay social conflict

First two reforms did result in stability

The third one, in the opposite direction, also resulted in stability

Labor did slow some initiatives and put more money into social welfare

NHS is still there, so is free education at the lower level and state insurance

Lesson 32**SOCIAL POLICY AND SOCIAL CONTROL-II**
(Topic 195-200)**Topic 195: Social Policy and Social Control: Example New Zealand**

Xu' 's- ' -q'u"►y'x"q.∴'xu'"s-€...3"xu" -syq" —ysyu' "v-'" —y'ysq" —t u'" —'"k' q' y'". New Zealand (NZ) was ahead of Britain. M'8D C3Zj "xqt "u' q' y' xut "xu" ' - 's- ' —uxu.∴y,u" -syq" 'us€y'"k'"u' "y.!"xu"►—"t .

Some of the social security benefits that were introduced and later reformed:

- Child Disability Allowance
- Jobseeker Support
- New Zealand Superannuation
- Orphan's Benefit scheme
- Sole Parent Support
- Supported Living Payment
- Unsupported Child's Benefit
- Veteran's Pension
- Young Parent Payment
- Youth payment

This brought stability but there were drastic cutbacks in the 1990s. Less funding, more means tests, more user-pays charges for state services, less staff, less housing. No large scale disorder or violence. The link between social policies and social order is there but social order is not dependent on social policies only.

Other factors:

- History of conflict
- Level of development
- Level of awareness
- Gradual or drastic imposition/removal
- Type of society: France?
- Other fissures: multi-ethnic, multi-religious, multi-linguistic
- Poverty levels
- Leadership
- Availability of ammunition
- Police effectiveness

All these factors affect the link between social policies and political order and social control.

Topic 196: Social Policy and Social Control at the Local Level

National level new, state-system product of the 19th and 20th century. Previously, empires and kingdoms and city states. Empires and kingdoms:

- lose control
 - Communications
 - Resources
 - Local feudal, landlord, zamindar, etc. was king in his own realm

All he had to do: tribute, men and resources (ghori-pal) for war
Main/only employer, law-enforcer, judge, jailor, executioner, tax collector
City states: few

The government in all three forms was local

Was there a link between local social policy and social control? Social policy as policy did not exist. There was some help from the community, later from the church or mosques but not much from the lord or king. But these primitive societies were largely stable, same ruling family continued for hundreds of years except for war & epidemics, large-scale deaths not common. The role of culture and religion is important. People usually accepted their station in life. And wait for the next life patiently. No awareness of what was possible. Poverty, sickness and madness was glamorized.

Topic 197-198: Social Policy and Social Control at the Individual Level-I-II

To fully understand the impact of social policy and SC at the individual level distinguish between two types of SC

Directly coercive SC

Oy'us'•'s-u'sy,u'cN'y"►xu'u"q"-u~-....'v'ut -' 'y't u•r u'q'u•'"ut €sut

Subtly coercive SC

c€r'•'s-u'sy,u'cN'y"►xu'u"-u—•u'q'u" u.s-€'qwut "'-v'y'.?-"qssu-ut "—syq•"—u'3q.t." suppress their own desires and choices

Coercive SC

The most obvious type of coercive SC through social policies or rules has become rarer. Most clear examples of such SC is in mental asylums, long-stay hospital care and jails.

U!"' u.'q'q'•€' '3' ' qt 3' y.'q.u "q.t." •€.q'ys' "►u'u"qt ' y'ut . Before the 19th century, families took care of them. Later, states houses where patients were chained, tortured and starved '—'t uq'x3y'xu'•'t yt ".-'" r uxq,u .

U'•—€'xq,u'y' u't—"uu" —,yu" [.u'R•►] „u'xu'N€sé—. 'Zu' ' /8DB?0'r q'ut "-.!'xu'r—é'r "' Ken Kesey: It is based on life in a mental asylum under a nurse who wants to break each —q'yu.'. "►y•. Long-stay hospitals were also problematic. To a lesser level than people in asylums, but long stay patients also had few rights. Total submission was what staff demanded. While those jailed had committed crimes, they do have rights. In our justice system, many are, however, totally innocent. Torture, bad food, extremely dirty environment, no sun, no activity were/are commonplace.

Gradually, things are getting better. In societies, where social welfare system is in place, coercive control is in the form of:

- Restrictions on behavior
- Means-testing

Since the 1980s, there have been trends towards decreasing social welfare costs. Through u•y q.y'w'v'q€t 3'q€u'r u.uvysq'y'u'q.t." •q y.u'• .

- Not money, but food stamps
- Drugs testing
- Time-bound benefits
- No choice of training or work
- Stringent tests for disability
- Deviant behavior, no benefits

Subtly indirect oppressive SC, oppressive in the sense that it denied person choice and dignity. It u. s-€”qwu‘ ”-€”-”-”xq”-€”-”-.””q.”-”-”-3u,,u.”y/y”y”uy€”u. Take the example of old age pensions in Britain. When it was introduced, an arbitrary age (70) was chosen, possibly because most people died by that age. U”q”wy,u.”q” ”wy’5 ”Mu.uwysq”yu” ”x-€”t ”ru”w”q’uv€”. Then, age was changed and men and women had different ages (65 and 60) for qualification. Again, arbitrarily. Another restriction: cannot do work, if want pension. Now, means-testing, If you have to answer private questions, then your dignity is gone. Similar is the case of other welfare benefits. It creates divisions and then stereotypes and resentment, refugees & immigrants.

They are lazy, rapists, criminals, not interested in integration, young men on prey. Sometime divisions are there and social policy is used to deny a special group of benefits that are available to other groups. In India, initially SC and ST were at the lowest level, Muslims were above them. Gradually, rights and economic benefits to lower castes, nothing to Muslims. Now, Muslims in many areas at the lowest level but no benefits

Topic 199-200: Social Policy and Social Control in Pakistan-I-II

Social control (SC) theory argues that values, norms, beliefs and relationships, commitments can assist in reducing crimes or criminal behavior. People will not commit crime if it affects what is important to them or what they believe in. Thus, if social and moral codes are internalized and y.t.y,yt €q” ”,q€u”-syu” ” ”uzis’y-.3”xu” ”y.”-.”s-’ ’ y”s’y’ u\$N”y’ u is the absence of social control.

p ” ”

Attachments

In Pakistan, biggest role is that of family. Family is very powerful because families make lots of sacrifices for the individual. Second, culture promotes family. Religion/Islam promotes family. Mother, father, close relations, etc. Family is a very important institution in Islam Sexual boundaries to preserve family. Friends are significant influences. In most cultures, friends are important. Western societies: old friends more important than family. A person without family

and friends is considered deficient. Even those who do not add to the family are considered inferior. Childless couples are to be pitied. People who are unmarried are also somewhat abnormal. Especially those that do not show their remorse at not being married. Spending 3 hours daily with friends is normal, reading books is not.

Islam is the other important influence. It affects directly as well as through families which encourage following Islamic rituals. Family and religion reinforce each other.

Belief ý" 'xu" 'xy't " ' usxq. ý' " -" 'u•u' u. " -v" Ty* sxy " 'xu- " -v" 'u•v' s- . " -•3' L • - " 'q••" -€" beliefs come from Islam. Honesty and truthfulness are good because Islam says so We teach our children not to hurt others because it will lead them to hell, not because hurting others will lead to other hurting them, making Pakistan a violent country. Respect for laws is low and people can succeed without respecting laws. This means **commitment** ' -" - . u "sq' uu' 6€' €' u3' 'xu" 'ucond u•u' u. " -v" Ty* sxy " 'xu- " 3' t -u' " . " -" ' -"] qéý' q. ý" v' - " s' ý y. q" r uxq, y- . Maybe from violent crime but not from white collar crime.

Involvement ý" t ywu' u. " -" -syq•" w' -€-3' 'xu" vy. q" u•u' u. " -v" Ty* sxy " 'xu- " 3' ý" qwqy. " . " -" completely stopping one from criminal behavior. Only some kind of criminal behavior. The social control by family and religion has a strong possibility in Pakistan and they did exert control on individuals previously. But now families and friends have stopped disliking white col•q" s' ý u" q. t. " u•wy- . . " €•u' " xq, u' r uu. " q. y- €•q' ut " -" €' 'w' " s' ý y. q" qs' y, ý" . Corruption is the case in point. Families encourage corruption and money earned from corrupt means is used to build mosques and to perform hajj and umras.

Lesson 33CRIMINAL JUSTICE POLICY- I
(Topic 201-204)Topic 201: The Legal and Social Construction of Crime

The Code of Hammurabi (1792 1750 BC) is believed to form the basis of one of the earliest surviving criminal justice systems and was originally developed by the Babylonians in a province of the Middle East that is now known as Iraq (Langer, 1987), ironically, one of the most lawless regions in the world today. The Code still exists and has been preserved on basalt rock columns. Within its scribe the concept of crime is recognized along with methods of trial and a series of punishments, which appear to be based on the Old Testament retaliatory principle of *lex talionis* (an eye for an eye). Our modern system of administering criminal justice is undoubtedly more complex and varied as it attempts to address a myriad of issues which seem to be in a constant state of flux, including the integration of human rights legislation, the influence of European Union policy, the management of cross-border crimes resulting from globalization and terrorism, and the impact of new technologies such as the Internet and DNA profiling on crime investigations and criminal justice management (Davies *et al.*, 2005). Yet, in many respects, both systems are essentially the same in the sense that each appears to be organized around four principal elements:

1. A series of substantive laws which define what forms of behavior are to be criminalized and so subject to control.
2. A process for responding to crime in terms of capturing, convicting and punishing offenders.
3. A dominant mode of thinking that helps guide policy makers in terms of how they should interpret notions of justice.
4. An established justification for punishment along with a series of sentences that reflect the leading penal philosophy.

A further issue linking the Code of Hammurabi to modern systems of criminal justice is that despite almost 4,000 years of administrative effort we have still not succeeded in managing and controlling crime. In fact, recent research has shown that the public has lost patience with our current s'y y.q'Æ' 'ysu' "'u' 3'r u•yu, y.w" xq' "u. 'u. su "q'u" '—"u. yu. ' 3" xq' Æt wu "q'u" -€"-v' '—€sx "►y" popular views on matters of law and order, and that the prison and probation services were doing q" —"z-r "q'" q. qwy.w"—wu. t.u" "/T—' u"[wysu3977708Y q. : "'sx—q"x "q'u" u" €q• "' disillusioned, with some asserting that the official response to crime has become such a s—' —u'u" vq•€"u " 'xq" yw our own domestic heating systems worked as inefficiently as our criminal justice system we would have all frozen to death by now (Wilson and Ashton, 2001).

The aim of this lesson is to critically introduce a range of issues significant to understanding the nature of criminal justice policy and practice, and why it has proved difficult to resolve the central problem of crime. In particular, our discussion will be organized around four highly divisive questions which emanate from each of the principal criminal justice elements mentioned earlier, namely:

"g xqt is crime?

"g x—"q'u"xu's'y y.q' J

"T—►sq. "►u" 'q'" "—" qéu" u. 'u"—v"—€" "u' "—v's'y y.q'Æ' 'ysuJ

"g x""t—"►u"—€.ýx"—wu.t.u""J

The legal and social construction of crime An important starting point for any system of criminal justice is to define the forms of behaviour that are to be regulated. This is achieved through the s'ý y.q"•q►E q body of specific rules regarding human conduct which have been promulgated (written down and distributed) by political authority, which apply uniformly to all members of the classes to which the rules refer (equally to everyone in society), and which are enforced by —€.ýx' u.:"qt ' y.ý'u'ut 'r ""xu""'q'u "/c€'xu"•q.t."q.t. Cressey, 1970: 8). The two main sources of criminal law in England and Wales, and countries of the British Commonwealth, are common law (case law) and statutory law (Ormerod, 2005). Scotland, the United States and the countries of Continental Europe operate through a slightly different approach to creating laws, namely, an Established codified constitution.

dx€'3'-.u"u'—.'u"—"xu""€u'ý-..! ►xq"ý"s'ý uJ "uu' "'u•v-u,ýt u.'E N'ý u'ý any intentional act in violation of the criminal law (statutory or common law) committed without defence or excuse and penalized by the state as an indictable or summar""—wu.su "/dq—q.39778E: 808c€sx" a legalistic approach has the advantage of precision as it provides a formal definition of most indictable (serious) criminal acts and judicial guidance on the maximum penalty that can be administered for each offence. For example, S. 1 (2) of the Theft Act 1968 clearly states that a person ý"wey""—v"xuv"y"xu"—"'"xuE Oy x-.u.'•""q—""ýq'u" "k'qéu' m"—u""r u•-.wy.w to q.-'xu""►ýx""xu'y.ý.u.'ý-..!-v'-u"" q.u.'•""t u—ý,y.w"xu"—'xu""-v'ý 5'Y —'u-,u'3 section 7 of the Act goes on to state that a person convicted of theft can be sentenced to prison for up to seven years.

However, it is important to note that there is nothing about the specific nature of an act itself that makes it inherently criminal. In other words, the types of behavior defined as deviant by the criminal law do not represent naturally distinct categories of conduct which possess a series of characteristics that make them identifiable as crimes. Instead, crime should be understood as a socially constructed phenomenon which is shaped and defined by the legal rules that any given society or culture decides to set for itself (Henry and Lanier, 2001).

Once deviance is understood in these terms, it becomes apparent that there exists no objective reality from which to make judgments about what constitutes the right or wrong way to behave. Nor does there appear to be a consensus either within or across societies about which forms of conduct should be criminalized (Sellin, 1938). For example, some people might consider the use of drugs such as cannabis as unhealthy, dangerous and immoral, while others may view them as beneficial and a normal part of their leisure activity. The point is that the activity of cannabis use itself has no natural value status outside the subjective opinions of other people. In other words, what you do is not as important as the social context within which your actions take place and the kind of popular reaction they receive (Becker, 1963). For example, even the meaning attributed to the act of taking the life of another person against their will is dependent on the social circumstances. Thus, although we usually define such conduct as murder, this outcome is not inevitable: during wartime the military may be labeled as *heroes* for killing the enemy; the state provides itself with the legitimate power to execute some offenders in the name of *punishment*; and we explain and legally justify other forms of taking human life by using various labels such as *accidents*, *self-defense*, *infanticide*, *suicide* and in some countries such as Switzerland, *euthanasia*. Once you start to recognize that deviance can only be conceptualized as a social phenomenon, it soon becomes apparent why criminal justice systems throughout the world have never succeeded in resolving the problem of crime.

Topic 202: Who are Criminals?

Most criminological research attempts to understand the causes of crime by engaging in a game –v" –—"xu't ywu'u. su "ru'►uu.!"–wu. t.u"× "q. t.". ...-offenders (Coleman and Norris, 2000). If it can be shown that criminals possess biological, psychological or social characteristics not typically found among the law-abiding population, then criminal justice policy and practice can be formulated in an effort to account for any such differences. For example, because we now know that some offenders commit crime as a result of severe mental health difficulties, a series of initiatives have been developed in order to divert mentally disordered offenders away from the punitive aspects of the criminal justice process and into care by health and social services (Department of Health and Home Office, 1992).

An immediate difficulty for researchers and policy makers, however, is in trying to establish who should be classified as a criminal for the purpose of criminological study. One possible approach might be to state that if crime is any behaviour in violation of the criminal law, then the criminal can be defined as any person who behaves in ways that are prohibited by the criminal law (Tappan, 2001). Unfortunately, while such a definition may seem obvious, it is not sufficiently discerning, as most (if not all) of us have broken the law at some point in our lives even if we would consider our actions to constitute only minor indiscretions, such as driving above the speed limit or not returning items taken from our place of work. In an effort to resolve this problem, Tappan (2001) responded to such claims by asserting that convicted offenders represent the closest possible approximation to those who have violated the criminal law. His argument is that while this population is not representative of all offenders, the fact that they have been formally identified as criminal through the selective processes of detection, prosecution and punishment makes them sufficiently distinct for the purposes of research.

Furthermore, Tappan argues that it would be morally wrong to identify someone as a criminal unless they had been formally convicted of a crime in accordance with the due process of the law. However, such an approach significantly reduces the size of the population that could potentially be defined as criminal. For example, according to the official statistics, it is estimated that around 10,850,000 offences were committed during the year 2004/05, yet only 181,000 offenders were convicted by the courts and received either a custodial or a non-custodial sentence (Home Office, 2005). One reason for such disparity in these figures is because as offenders move through the various stages of the criminal justice process there exist a comprehensive range of sieves and filters which may result in a resolution to their case prior to it being fully adjudicated within the criminal courts.

Thus, criminals are not always caught, convicted and punished for their offences. In this section we discuss the key stages suspected offenders must go through within the criminal justice process, and consider the various ways in which they can be diverted away from experiencing the full force of the criminal law. In fact, control theorists (see next section) would probably liken any discussion concerning these various diversionary sieves and filters as akin to a guide on *how to get out of jail free!* dxu" t q"ë"vwx"u "–v's"ý u You may be interested to learn that in the case of the majority of criminal offences committed each year, the various agencies of the criminal justice system never respond. In fact, it is widely acknowledged that the Official Criminal Statistics, which are reported annually and aggregate crime data obtained from the 43 police forces in England and Wales, tell us about less than half the volume of crime that actually

takes place. The remainder constitutes 'xu" t q'ë"vw€"u "-v's'y u"►xysx"w-u' unreported to the police (Coleman and Moynihan, 2000).

Since the 1980s, the British Crime Survey (BCS) has, amongst other things, been used in order '—" "" "" "—" wqy." q" s•uq'u"™ € .t.u"x'q .t.y.w" -v' 'xy" t q'ë" vw€"u " r "" q' éy.w people about their experiences as victims of crime. For example, data from the BCS for 2004/05 estimates that around 5,250,000 crimes went unreported in this particular year (Home Office, 2005). It is also interesting to note that respondents provided a range of reasons why offences are not reported, including lack of faith y."xu"—•ysu " "qr yy"" "" —'—•,,u"xu"s'y u3'wq""—v""uprisals from the offender, or because the offence amounted to a victimless event such as substance abuse (Coleman and Moynihan, 2000).

Once a suspected crime has been reported and the police consider the allegation as significant enough to officially record, the formal process of investigation begins. During the annual period 2004/05, the police in England and Wales recorded over 5.5 million offences.

Topic 203: The Justice System: Courts

Whenever anyone writes anything about the criminal justice system it soon becomes a retrospective. Trying to keep up with the scope, scale, pace and persistence of change, in terms of new legislative reforms, policy initiatives, new agency formations and reformulations, review and report proceedings, etc., is at times overwhelming. For example, at the time of writing the administration of justice in England and Wales is experiencing significant change: a new Ministry of Justice has been established in order to take charge of crime-related matters which have traditionally been the responsibility of the Home Office; the administration of punishment is being streamlined through merging the National Probation Service and the Prison Service into one agency, now known as the National Offender Management Service (NOMS); and the series of wide-ranging reforms introduced by the Criminal Justice Act 2003 continue to have a significant impact on the criminal courts, judiciary, criminal procedures, and the administration of justice.

Many of the reforms consolidated in the 2003 Act originate from the government White Paper, *Justice for All* (Home Office, 2002). At the heart of these reforms is the political intention to create a criminal justice system that on the one hand commands the respect of the public by delivering faster and more effective justice for victims, while on the other follows the principles of due process in order to safeguards the rights of the accused (Home Office, 2002).

For many scholars, however, this approach to the administration of justice is fundamentally flawed because its goals originate from two diametrically opposed perspectives on how the criminal justice system should operate namely the *due process* and the *crime control* models of criminal justice (Packer, 1968; King, 1981).

The court system in Pakistan is complex. The type of crime determines the court. At the Apex of the system is the Supreme Court.

Three types of jurisdictions

Appellate

High courts

Federal Shariat Court

Original

Fundamental rights
 Between federation and provinces and between provinces
 Advisory
 Federal Shariat Court
 Established in 1979
 Related to Shariat, Hadood Ordinances
 Primary jurisdiction: Suo moto or a petitioner can ask whether a certain (part of) law is repugnant to the injunctions of Islam.
 High Courts: five high courts
 Appellate jurisdiction over district courts, special courts, etc.
 Original jurisdiction over fundamental rights
 Administers lower courts
 Subordinate judiciary
 Two types: criminal courts and civil courts established under Civil Courts Ordinance 1962, and the Code of Criminal Procedure 1898
 Civil courts: district judge and subordinate judges
 Criminal courts: Sessions judge and subordinate judges
 Appeals to high courts
 Territorial or pecuniary jurisdictions
 Special courts under special laws
 Some of the Federal special courts & tribunals
 Banking Courts
 Accountability courts
 Special Courts (Narcotics)
 Special Courts (Customs, Taxation & Anti-smuggling)
 Income Tax Appellate
 Tribunal
 Environmental Tribunal
 Insurance Appellate Tribunal
 Anti-terrorism Courts
 Some of the provincial courts and tribunals
 Labour Courts
 Consumer Protection
 Courts
 Anti terrorism Courts
 Anti-corruption Courts
 Revenue Courts
 Service Tribunals
 Federal and provincial
 Appeal to the Supreme Court

Topic 204: The Justice System: Police

The police represent the front-line agency within the criminal justice process and spend around 85% of their time patrolling the streets investigating offences and dealing with traffic management issues, all in an effort to protect the public and keep the peace (Bayley, 2005).

Because of their daily contact with the public, the actions of the police are high profile and so tend to have a significant impact on popular perceptions of the criminal justice system in general (Home Office, 2000). As an agency, they are divided into 43 separate forces across England and Wales, which inevitably leads to variations in policing practice as they respond to particular geographic (rural/urban) and socio-cultural needs of the communities they serve.

The police are also afforded a great deal of legitimate discretion in terms of how they do their job, which inadvertently means that their actions can have a significant impact on the execution of justice. For example, the Macpherson report (also referred to as the Stephen Lawrence inquiry) concluded that the police had made a catalogue of errors during the course of investigating the death of Stephen Lawrence, a black victim who was attacked and stabbed to death by a group of youths. A particularly significant conclusion in this report was that because of racist attitudes, believed to be institutional within the police force, they were too slow in responding to the crime, which might have resulted in the loss of important evidence (Macpherson, 1999). As a result, no one has ever been convicted of Stephen Lawrence's murder. Actually, during the annual period 2004/05, of the 5.5 million crimes recorded by the police, they managed to detect an offence, i.e. identify the person believed to be responsible, in only about 1.4 million cases. In other words, on average, the police solve one in four crimes, or one in four recorded offences. This rate varies for different offences, so for murder the detection rate is around 90%, while it might be as low as 10% for theft. However, in surveys the public consistently overestimates the amount of crime that is actually solved by the police (Home Office, 2000).

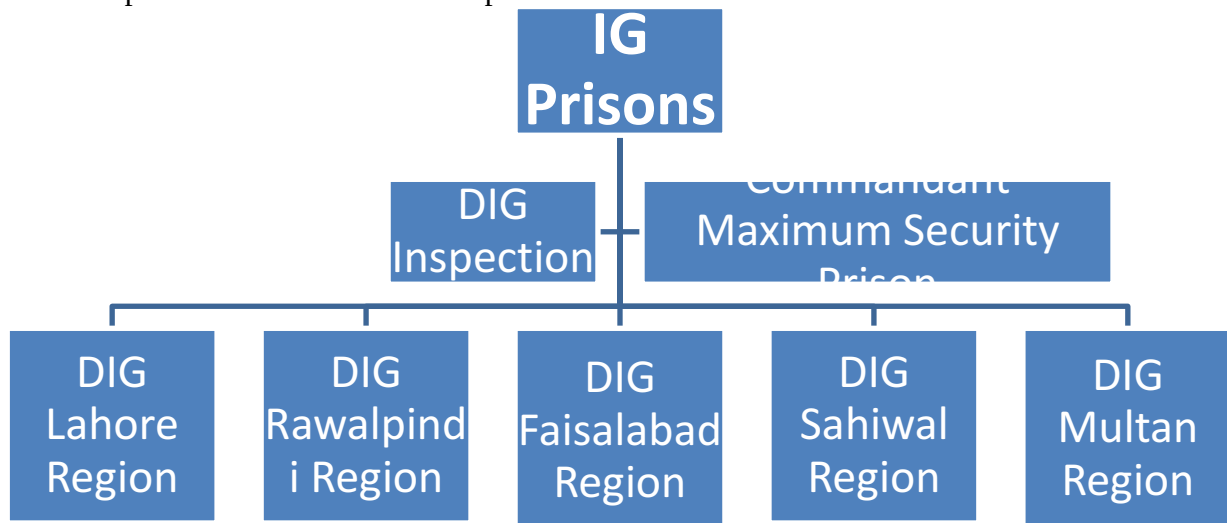
Once someone has been detected for an offence, there are a number of legitimate courses of action available other than charging the accused and sending them to court. The police can choose to take no further action (NFA) where, for example, the victim and police do not feel it would be appropriate to continue. Moreover, in cases which involve young offenders or people suffering from drug, alcohol, mental health or other specific problems, there are a number of options available via health and social services.

A traditional form of disposal employed by the police is the formal caution. For an offender to receive a caution there must be sufficient evidence to prove guilt and they must admit to the offence. The caution is then placed on their record. More recently, under the Crime and Disorder Act 1998, the use of cautions has been replaced by introducing a system of pre-court reprimands and final warnings for young offenders. During the annual period 2004/05 only 4% of offenders were given a formal caution, while 9% of cases were filtered in other ways such as through NFAs or diversion to a mental health unit. Thus, out of the 26% of detected offences, only 13% of offenders were actually formally charged with an offence.

Lesson 34CRIMINAL JUSTICE POLICY- II
(Topic 205-209)Topic 205: The Justice System: Jails

Prison departments are at the provincial level, secretary Home heads the department, Each province has its own IG Prisons, supported by DIG Prisons. The IG Prisons (BPS-21) is the head of the prison police in province.

- In Punjab, there are 7 DIG Prisons (BPS-20)
- Punjab Prisons comprises 5 regions namely Lahore, Rawalpindi, Faisalabad, Multan and Sahiwal Region.
- A DIG Prisons oversees each region
- Individual prisons are managed by Senior Superintendent Prisons
- Other provinces have similar set-ups



Punjab has 40 prisons:

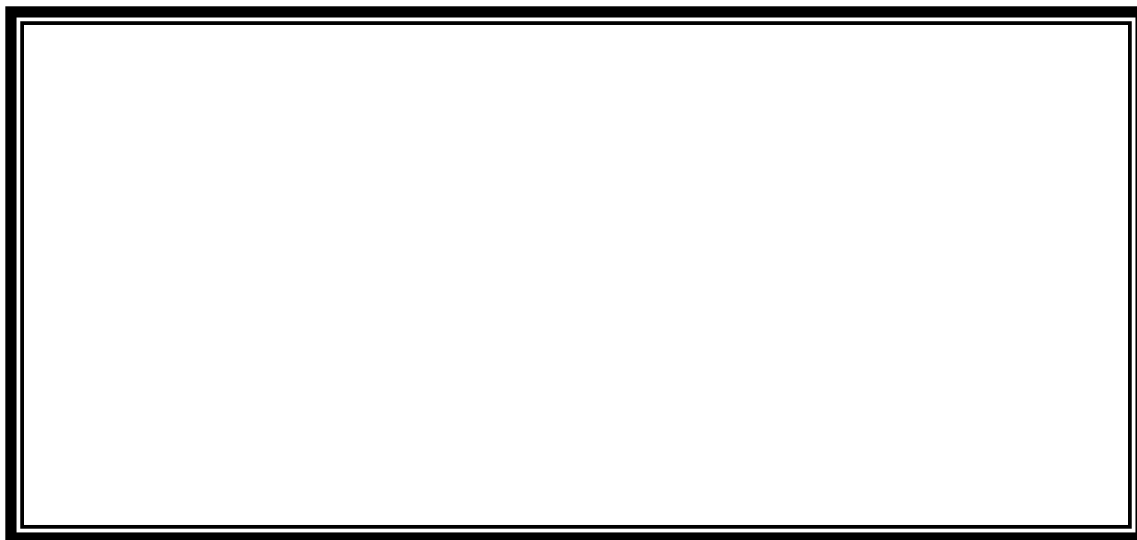
- One high security prison
- Nine central jails
- Twenty Five district jails
- Two Borstal Institutions & Juvenile Jails
- One Women Jail, Multan
- Two Sub Jails
- Occupancy higher than recommended

Problems

- Overcrowded
- Lack of training
- Lack of staff
- Money for maintenance and improvements

Topic 206: Principles of the Justice System: The Due Process Model

ℳ' `y'q3"xu"r •y.t."w-t t u' " "-v"ℳ' `ysu3"y'€q'ut "-€'`yt u"xu" [•t "Mty•u' "N"-►.."N-€" in London, symbolises the key principles underlying the due process model of criminal justice.



<https://ak0.picdn.net/shutterstock/videos/6928480/thumb/1.jpg>

The sword in the right hand represents punishment and the scales in the left hand signify the importance of determining who should be punished after making a rational and balanced

consideration of all the evidence. Justitia is blindfolded to denote impartiality under the rule of law; that everyone, regardless of who they are or what crimes they may have committed, should be treated equally, fairly and dispassionately. A principle that should also be exercised in accordance with the presumption of innocence before the criminal law.

Generally, supporters of this approach, such as the organizations Liberty and the National Council for Civil Liberties, believe that a primary concern of the due process model should be to inject justice into the criminal process through establishing policies and procedures which create impartiality – a fair and equitable balance between the rights of the accused and the power of the state. In other words, due process advocates would argue that in order to safeguard against potential abuses of power, the criminal justice system must be structured to ensure that the accused is treated fairly and that the state's power is not abused. This approach emphasizes the importance of procedural fairness and the protection of individual rights, even if it means that some guilty individuals may go free. Proponents of the due process model argue that this is a necessary trade-off to ensure a just and fair legal system. (Packer, 1968).

A good example of such a procedural safeguard is the Police and Criminal Evidence Act, 1984 (PACE) which, along with its associated Code of Practice, tries to create a balance between the powers of the police and the rights of the accused. Among other things, the PACE Act 1984 places limits on the length of time a suspect can be held for questioning, requires the police to notify the suspect of their right to legal advice, sets out conditions for the admissibility of evidence, requires that all interviews are recorded, and ensures that the accused is notified of their right to remain silent from which no adverse inferences can be drawn about their level of involvement in the offence. However, some due process advocates argue that this legislation does not go far enough and cite several post-PACE miscarriages of justice to support their case, including revelations concerning the West Midlands Serious Crime Squad whose unlawful practices led to the wrongful conviction and eventual release in 1993 of 14 people.

Article 10 (1): Safeguards as to arrest and detention. No person who is arrested shall be detained in custody without being informed, as soon as may be, of the grounds for such arrest, nor shall he be denied the right to consult and be defended by a legal practitioner of his choice.

Article 10-A: Right to fair trial. For the determination of his civil rights and obligations or in any criminal charge against him a person shall be entitled to a fair trial and due process
Included in the 18th Amendment

Due process not followed:

NAB Ordinance (presumption of guilt, no right of bail, long imprisonment without trial)

Missing persons and detention centers

KP law challenged in Supreme Court

Torture and other unlawfully obtained evidence

Erstwhile military courts

Corruption & blasphemy cases

Topic 207: Principles of the Justice System: The Crime Control Model

In direct contrast to the due process model, a pure crime control perspective views the repression of all criminal conduct, regardless of its nature, as the most significant function to be performed by the criminal justice system. Without this degree of control, it is envisaged that disrespect for the criminal law would develop, resulting in the

collapse of public order, creating fear and anxiety among law-abiding citizens. In order to avoid such an infringement of our social freedom, a high rate of detection and conviction of suspects must be upheld and this can only be effectively achieved through minimizing the opportunities for a case to be challenged. Thus, according to the crime control perspective, the criminal justice system should function much like a conveyor belt, where the police are given extensive powers and freedom to act on their own professional assumptions in order to establish the facts necessary to differentiate the innocent from the guilty. This then leaves the remaining stages of the criminal process with the task of swiftly trying and sentencing the offender.

Earlier it was noted that under the PACE Act 1984 a number of due process safeguards were y.?"-t €sut 'y.'q.'q'u' —"-"ut 'u' "xu" r q•q. su 'r u' ►uu. "xu"—►u'"-v the state and the rights of the individual. However, a closer look at the way the criminal process actually operates in practice reveals the presence of a number of features highly characteristic of the crime control model. Focusing specifically on the PACE Act 1984, the Philips Commission 1981 advocated giving greater powers to the police so that they could be more effective at repressing crime. Thus, many of the operational rules that were once informally used by the police have now been legitimized. For example, before 1984 many suspects were induced to come to the police station without being charged on the basis that they we"u" xu•y. w"xu"—ysu ►y"x"xuy"y.:"€y"u' 's'd xu" PACE Act 1984 now formalizes this practice by allowing for pre-charge detention. Hence, —€q" 's'y' u"s-...?"-•"y.u' "€sx"q' " 'xu"—ysu"q'u v-'sut "'-r' 'uqé" xu"q►'y.:"'t u'"-'wu'"u'€•" " have in some cases been removed: —ysu"q. t. "s-€""-wysyq' ". uut ". :-"qr €' u"xu"q►'y.:"'t u'"-" subvert the principles -v'€' 'ysuF"xu' ". uut "-. •"€' u'y' "Y sMq". u'38DC: E8? A05

Lt „-sq'u' "-v' 'xu"s'y' u"s-...?"-•"-q"qt yw' "►-€•t "q' "-q' 'u'" "xq'" "xu"€t ysyq" s-.,,u' "- r u' " process of dealing with offenders could be made significantly quicker and simpler if those accused of a crime could simply be persuaded to admit their offence at the outset and so enter a guilty plea, thus leap-frogging the trial phase altogether and moving directly on to sentencing. Reading in the area of criminal law and policy for the first time, one might understandably be forgiven for thinking that the adoption of such an approach is more akin to a game of Monopoly move directly to jail rather than a fair and equitable system of criminal justice. In reality, however, such an approach is a typical feature of the criminal process. In both England and North America a large majority of defendants plead guilty and forgo their right to an adversarial trial (Baldwin and Y sN-.,,y•u38DBB03'. :-"uq' 'r usq€' u"-v"xu"—u'q'y-..:-v' -uq-r q'wqy. y. w"q. t. inducements in terms of reduced sentences for early guilty pleas. Thus, the alleged evidence against them is never heard, the reliability of witness statements is not cross-examined and the all-y' —"q.:" r u' "-. t. "uq' -. qr •u't -€r ' "u'€' -y-..y' never tested.

Supporters of the crime control perspective, therefore, clearly envisage a criminal justice system which is primarily managed and controlled by the police. Generally, y"y"qssu-ut "xq" q"vu►" ' y' qéu'" q'"—" 'yr•"r u" qt u't €'y. w"xu"—ysu "uw-"" to try to differentiate the probably guilty from the probably innocent. However, it is also argued that such mistakes should be tolerated as they are insignificant relative to the larger goal of repressing crime. Ideally, of course, the aim would be to secure as many guilty pleas as possible before the trial stage, thus eliminating the possibility for any potential errors to be uncovered, which might be interpreted as weaknesses in the system and so consequently reduce respect for the law.

If the system did show signs of weakness, perhaps through revealing that guilty defendants were being released or that too many innocent defendants were being convicted, then the introduction of some degree of due process safeguard into the system would be tolerated. However, only

those rules which may make fact finding more reliable, such as preventing coercive interrogation practices, would be acceptable.

However, to suggest, as do due process supporters, that illegally obtained evidence should be deemed inadmissible or that a conviction relying on such evidence should be quashed is viewed by crime control advocates as ridiculous: why should perfectly credible evidence be ruled as inadmissible simply because the methods used to obtain it were improper?

The due process and crime control models create a constant tension within the criminal justice system, essentially between the rights of the accused and those of the victim. This tension is made more complicated by the fact that these two perspectives cannot be separated from one another like oil and water. Instead, the pure form of each tends to be diluted by aspects of the other, ultimately forming a new hybrid paradigm. In the future it is likely that greater emphasis will be placed on formulating an evidence-based system of criminal justice that is organized around a combination of due process and crime control policies which have been shown to

►”é ”y.”u” ‘ of their ability to manage and reduce the risk of crime (Farrington, 2002).

Many people in Pakistan believe in crime control model

cqr ”é-”Xq’éq”t –

We know he is guilty, the whole country knows he is guilty, no need of trial

We need Khomeini model (summary trials and firing squad)

Support for military courts

Every country has a mix system

The tilt should be towards due process model

Civilized people believe in due process

P’ –’y-. q3r’É’q” q,qwu’ ”yéu” •q’éq”t – ”

Topic 208-209: Why Do We Punish Offenders?-I-II

Punishment may r u”r ”-qt •“”t uvy.ut ”q’ ” ’xu”t u•x u”q’u”É’ u”-v”-Ér •ys”-►u””-”y.xys’ pain on -wu.t.u” ”/L .t.”u►’ 3’977: E89C08’L ss-’t y.w”-”xu”s•q’ ’ysq”-xy-’-xu” Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham, punishment is essentially an evil process which must be justified if societies are to avoid their actions being denounced as primitive and barbaric (Beccaria, 1764, in Bellamy, 1995). In this respect, attempts should be made to link the use of punitive sanctions such as imprisonment with a desired outcome (Cavadino and Dignan, 2002). To date, however, moral philosophers have been unable to agree on precisely what is being achieved by the infliction of pain and hardship on known offenders (Walker, 1991). Our aim in the final section of this chapter is to critically introduce a number of possible justifications for the use of punishment.

Reductivism

A traditional moral justification for the use of punishment is based on the philosophical notion of *reductivism*, a utilitarian principle which asserts that the use of punitive methods such as imprisonment will help prevent future incidents of crime (Walker, 1991). Towards this goal, the key reductivist strategies include deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation.

Deterrence

This approach starts from the assumption that people are rational beings who are able to calculate the costs and benefits associated with committing crime (Cavadino and Dignan, 2002). Thus, it is believed that punishment is justified on the grounds that potential offenders will be

deterred from their actions because they fear the unpleasant consequences that may result if they are caught. Punishment may act as either a specific or a general deterrent to crime. The former seeks to influence the future behaviour of an individual offender, while the latter attempts to control the future conduct of society in general.

Specific deterrence may be delivered in a variety of ways. For example, a severe sanction may be imposed in the hope that the offender finds the experience so unpleasant that they stop offending through fear of having to experience more of the same or worse punishment the next time. Indeterminate imprisonment may also be given in which decisions about release are based on clear evidence that the offender is unlikely to reoffend. Punishments are designed to send a broad message of discouragement to all would-be offenders. For example, prior to the eighteenth century use of the death penalty and public executions were common even for the most minor of crimes (Emsley, 2005).

The problem with the notion of deterrence, however, is that it is only likely to work effectively when extreme sanctions are imposed, and even then the research evidence is inconclusive. For example, during the 1980s the Conservative government introduced 'treatment' for young offenders, though crime continued to rise, suggesting that this approach had failed as a deterrent (Muncie, 1990). West (1982) also showed that after experiencing severe punishment, inmates were actually more likely to reoffend as they developed a grudge against the prison system. The best way to stop recidivism is not to catch the offender in the first place, as crime naturally stops as offenders get older.

Even if punishment did operate as an individual deterrent, other social factors such as the stigma associated with being labeled a criminal may have a negative effect by denying them access to legitimate opportunities such as work, which in turn increases the likelihood that they might return to crime. Moreover, the logic behind the notion of punishment operating as an effective general deterrence suggests that it would only be necessary to lock up a few people who would serve as an example to the rest of society. However, the UK prison population as of June 2007 stands at 80,205 an increase of around 20,000 from just a decade ago (National Offender Management Service, 2007). Moreover, we put more people in prison than any other country in Western Europe (Cavadino and Dignan, 2002). Finally, using deterrence as a moral justification offers no rights to the accused. For example, if punishing one person may be viewed as likely to benefit the majority, then what is wrong with punishing the innocent? As a general deterrence, the fact that you may be innocent is not so important relative to the wider utilitarian objective of controlling future levels of crime.

Incapacitation

The aim of incapacitating offenders is to protect society from the actions of criminals. It can take various forms: imprisonment, which physically removes the offender from society; injunctions, which prevent the offender from entering areas where they are likely to offend, thus a paedophile may be prevented from going near schools or playgrounds; and disqualification such as from driving in order to prevent motoring offences. The logic of incapacitation as a justifiable form of punishment appears to make sense; if you are denied the opportunity for offending, then future levels of crime will be reduced.

Consequently, it has been argued that imprisoning more offenders and for longer periods of time will have a significant impact on levels of crime (Wilson, 1975). However, the evidence supporting such an assertion is inconclusive. For example, Tarling (1993), using official criminal statistics, has noted that a 25% increase in the prison population would only lead to a 1% drop in

crime, which questions the economic viability of such an initiative. Furthermore, he argues that a 40% drop in the prison population would only lead to a 1.6% increase in the overall level of offending (Brody and Tarling, 1980).

Some scholars argue that the recent political willingness to embrace incapacitation as a solution to crime has started to have a fundamental impact on how we understand the nature of punishment itself. In particular, it is argued that a new form of penology is starting to emerge which has little concern for the moral justification of punitive sanctions.

Instead, criminal justice agencies and legislators are starting to place a greater emphasis on managerialism – the ability to identify, manage, contain and control groups of people who are assessed, via risk measures, as a potential danger to society (Feeley and Simon, 1992). These scholars go on to argue that traditionally understood terms such as guilt, recidivism and rehabilitation are becoming less important relative to the specialist language of risk, prediction and management. Ultimately, the underlying logic of incapacitation is that it helps make crime levels more tolerable by locking up those who are deemed by criminal justice experts to constitute a social threat.

Rehabilitation

This is another approach to reducing future levels of crime. Punishment is inflicted in an attempt to change the personal values and behaviour of offenders. Such an approach was particularly popular prior to the 1960s when it was believed that scientific developments in areas such as biology, psychology and social work would be able to resolve many social problems such as crime (Coleman and Norris, 2000).

This line of thinking is also associated with the positivist paradigm which tried to understand crime and criminal behaviour as analogous to an illness in which the underlying disease causing dysfunctional conduct could be treated through various forms of behavioural modification programmes. However, during the 1970s much of this work was discredited on the basis that nothing seemed to work (Martinson, 1974), though the methodological nature of this research was itself later criticized and its results dismissed (Martinson, 1979).

Today, there has been a small revival in the rehabilitative approach. Therapeutic programmes – such as cognitive behavioural therapy – aim to help offenders understand the consequences (unacceptable nature) of their own behaviour in the hope that they will decide to change. A good example of such an approach is referred to as restorative justice. This focuses on resolving the dispute, conflict or trouble (formally known as crime) between the victims, the offender and the wider community. Within this context crime is viewed not as an abstract violation of the law, but as a form of interpersonal harm (Hughes, 2001).

Restorative justice involves the victim and offender meeting in order to discuss the offence that has taken place. In particular, the aim is to provide the victim with an opportunity to explain to the offender how the crime has affected them. In this way, it is hoped that the offender will come to understand and feel remorse for the consequences of their actions, and in turn decide to change their future conduct. Such an approach may well work in cases involving property crime, such as theft or burglary, but it is questionable whether offences against the person such as rape and violence could be effectively managed in this way.

Retributivism

Retributivism is backward-looking in the sense that punishment is justified because it penalizes criminal behaviour that has already taken place. In other words, it is not concerned with future conduct as was the case with the reductivist approach.

Instead, offenders are punished on the basis of what they deserve for their unlawful conduct 'xuy' "Æ' "t u' u' " " 5dx€' 3"xu'€' u"-v"-qy."q.t.",y-•u.su'r "'xu" "q'u'y "legitimized on the basis that society is perceived as entitled to seek revenge against those who commit crime (Lacey, 2003). An immediate difficulty with such an approach is that the use of state violence legitimizes the use of social violence and as a solution to problematic situations. It also ignores the collateral impact that punitive sanctions may have on the relatives of offenders.

A further retributivist justification for punishment is that it acts as a mechanism for restoring social harmony and balance. The logic here is based on the theoretical idea that we are all bound to one another under an implicit social contract which protects each of us from any harm to ourselves or our property. This social contract is made explicit by the criminal law which applies equally to all members within any given society. Thus, if someone were to break the law then this social contract would be disrupted and the offender is viewed as having gained an unfair advantage over the law-abiding community. In such cases punishment is administered in an attempt to adjust for any advantage gained through crime by taking away the gains from their offending behaviour. For example, the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002 established the Assets Recovery Agency whose job it is to recover the proceeds gained from unlawful acts.

In the broadest of terms the retributivist approach is akin to the biblical principle of *lex talionis*. However, the classical thinker Beccaria was not in favour of extreme punishments such as the death penalty, as he believed this would lead to irrational practices and disrespect for the criminal law. Instead, he argued that punishment should be no harsher than was necessary. This '–v'u' "q—qsx"y' " –'u"–q•q'qr •u within modern Western societies and has encouraged the u' u'wu.su"–v'q" .u►"u'y'€'y,y' (Hudson, 2003), the key principles of which are that more emphasis be placed on the offence committed rather than the circumstances of the offender; that punishment is administered in proportion to the seriousness of the offence; and that punishment (as opposed to rehabilitation) should be the main aim of the penal system (Von Hirsch, 1976). Furthermore, in order for punishment to be proportionate to the seriousness of the offence, Von Hirsch argues that it is necessary to develop a tariff system that provides a fixed penalty for every type of crime, which is set out in advance so that everyone is clear about what punitive sanctions they could expect to receive for particular forms of unlawful conduct.

Lesson 35**CRIMINAL JUSTICE POLICY- III**
(Topic 210-215)**Topic 210: Criminal Justice Policy and Its Constituents**

The three primary constituents of the criminal justice policy are:

Police
Courts
Prisons

Discussed the various approaches to punishments such as

Rehabilitation
Reductivism
Retributivism

Is our justice system based on Islamic law or British common law?

In Pakistan, both have not been accepted
Common law is based on judgments of the courts
Britain has no constitution, only conventions
Pakistan has a constitution. Laws and judgments have to be according to the supreme law
i.e. constitution
Islamic law? Few laws
Haddood and Zakat and Ushr Ordinances
Zakat collected is clearly not based on Islamic law as one-year requirement is ignored
Haddood ordinances were promulgated but not implemented and are limited to a few
offences
Questions have also been raised about whether they are truly based on the Quran
Implementation of Islamic law leads us to differences between fiqahs and interpretations
that prefer men and give more privileges to men
Pakistan is a federation and it is possible to have separate laws for federation and
provinces or different provinces
However, since independence, colonial penal code and procedures are applicable all over
Pakistan
Pakistan Penal Code, 1860
Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898
Still applicable in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh
Pakistan Penal Code, 1860 was prepared by First Law Commission chaired by Lord
Macaulay
Their brilliance or our laziness?
They were racist, cruel and autocratic but also brilliant
However, it can also be argued that PPC is only there because it has become part of our
culture
If Moghal penal system had been allowed to continue, it would also had been developed
Nepal had a penal code based on old cultural code

Topic211: Juvenile Crime Policy in Pakistan

Juvenile crime is a broad term used to denote crimes by children. It could be minor offence like loitering or even murder. The key aspect is the age of the criminal. Juvenile delinquency is the another term used to refer to crime by minors

Why minors commit crime?

Lack of education or not attending school

Time available

No skills

Low quality education

Violence at home

Victims

Anger

Run away from home

Learned behavior

Violence around

In school, in community

Anger

Learned behavior

Two parent home

Poverty

Stability

Morality

Responsibility

Moral compass

Parents cannot provide

Ru•ywy-€“uqt u” ‘x”—s”y”

No role models

Poverty

Stability

Suffering violence at work

Suffering violence in streets

The Juvenile Justice System Act (JJSA), 2018

It replaced the Juvenile Justice System Ordinance 2000 under the military government

Applicable to children, defined as those under 18

Pakistan is a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC). Article 37 of the CRC asks state parties to ensure the following:

- No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or —€ .y’x’ u.?
- Z-’sxyt “xq•’r u’t u—y,ut “-v’xy’ “-”xu”’yr u””€ .•q▶v€•• “-”q’r y”q’y• “
- Every child deprived of liberty shall be treated with humanity and respect for the inherent dignity of the human person, and in a manner which takes into account the needs of persons of his or her age.
- Every child deprived of his or her liberty shall have the right to prompt access to legal and other appropriate assistance

JJSA declares that all offences, whether minor and major, are bailable. It informs that a juvenile interrogation will not be done by a police officer below the rank of a sub-inspector and (s)he will

be assisted by a probation officer or social welfare officer. It asks govt to establish juvenile justice committees in each district to dispose of cases with the consent of the accused by resorting to ways other than imprisonment. It penalizes anyone who discloses the identity of a juvenile. The law declares that no female juvenile shall in any circumstance be apprehended or investigated by a male officer. Female juvenile will be kept in a designated female juvenile rehabilitation centers. Juvenile courts to be established in each province. Arrested juveniles put in observation homes, not police stations. No juvenile offender to be given death sentence. Juvenile Rehabilitation centers to be established in each province and inspected regularly.

Topic 212: Gender and Crime

Different aspect of gender violence have been discussed under Gender Policy. Here, women experience with the justice system will be discussed. Police is the first contact with the law. Common observation is that police is highly discriminatory towards women. Women are harassed, abused and even raped in police stations. Women police officers form a very small proportion of the total police force. Until a few years ago, women were not allowed to join Police Service of Pakistan. There are few women police stations. Toxic masculinity is common in Pakistani culture but it is even more common in police. Every few months, we hear new reports of sexual harassment and abuse of women accused at police stations. Courts are also infested with the same illness: rampant sexism. Few women lawyers and judges. Courts, not safe places for women. In May 2014, a young woman was killed by her family in the court premises. In July 2019, a woman was killed when there was shoot out in the court premises. Laws interpreted discriminately. Women do not have money to hire lawyers and society does not allow them to go to courts. Men are imprisoned more than women. But women are treated differently starting when they were arrested. Jails provide a big opportunity for men incharge to harass women. Everything can be cashed in terms of sexual favors. From family meetings to a glass of water.

Topic 213: Police Reforms

Roger Myerson, Nobel Prize Laureate:

A state cannot achieve sovereign national authority without an ability to protect its supporters throughout the nation. Basic military control is not sufficient to provide such protection for individual citizens until it is complemented by effective policing and law enforcement.

Recommendation from a Asia Society, NYC study:

Police Order 2002 must be implemented, with minor amendments, throughout Pakistan to ensure that the country is governed by a clear and uniform set of rules

Modification of the Evidence Act and High Court Rules is essential to convening incognito trials, maintaining the protection of the identity of witnesses

An overhaul of the system of promoting and hiring police would help to ensure reasonable and fair opportunities for advancement

An improvement in working conditions and salaries and changes to organizational culture

To check police corruption, the federal government should establish an independent police complaint authority under a Supreme/High Court judge

Training and curriculum throughout the police academies should be revamped to address the needs of vulnerable groups (women, children, minorities, etc.)

A VIP Secret Service to protect top state functionaries and to lessen the security burden on police

The National Assembly and Senate should appoint intelligence committees to monitor the performance of the intelligence agencies

Ensuring tenure security for all federal and provincial police chiefs to minimize political pressures

A special cadre of terrorism investigators with the expertise and resources that police currently lack must be created

dxu's-€..'' "t u-radicalization program must be expanded and strengthened

Strengthened cooperation between the military and police would better u. q̄r •u"] qéy 'q... " civilian law enforcement bodies to take responsibility

Provision of better custom-built vehicles, equipment, and weapons

NACTA may take lead in developing an intelligence sharing mechanism between different agencies and police and between provincial police forces

Greater coordination between international donors and local law enforcement stakeholders

Role of private sector enhanced, like in case of Citizen-Police Liaison Centre (CPLC) in Karachi

Bigger budgets and more research

Topic 214: Reforms in Justice System

Everybody wants to reform the judicial system, even the judges want to do it. With thousands of cases undecided at every level, there is no denying the ineffectiveness of the current system.

Reform socially de-contextualized. The narrow perspectives and agendas of what I call the 'legal reform community' monopolize the justice sector reform discourse in Pakistan. This 'legal reform community' includes judges, lawyers, government policymakers and law officials, as well as local and international consultants. Subject and object of reform.

dxu'u"y" w'-€-"xy. éš' dxu"-u' s'y-y-.. "wy, u.. "q'u"xywx•"" u' s•€' y-. q'""-v", y'q•" 'qéux-•t u' " views. The largely ignore the various social, economic and political contextual constraints that may inxy'y" "uv-" " "uwus'y, u. u' 'š' dxu" "uv-" " "•q'wu•"" s-.. 'y' " -v" qt „-sqš"" v-" w'uq'u" numbers, better infrastructure, higher remuneration, and greater staff support for the judiciary.

Another issue is legally solving complex social problems. Complex development issues are discussed and debated in a legal framework, with legal remedies. This creates burden for police and judiciary, leading to new avenues of corruption and ineffectiveness. Another issue is that justice sector reform discourse is ahistorical. Colonial laws, colonial polices and rules have a large imprint on our society. It needs to be studied before going for judicial reform. There is a need to revisit the design and content of colonial laws and rules in light of contemporary realities and institutional challenges. Furthermore, legal reform should not be about uniformity and formality. The diversity and pluralism of Pakistan must be acknowledged as well as the informal nature of many relationships and transactions. Purely technocratic and legalistic reform approaches may be rejected in favor of culturally-embedded solutions. To transfer the focus from the courtroom to the dispute and contesting parties. Rural areas and alternate dispute mechanisms should be the focus. How only some of the disputes become legal contestations? Whether some of these alternative informal modes of dispute resolution ought to be rejected or bolstered or

reformed. CSOs, academics, labor, consumer groups, human rights groups, policy experts, media, etc. must be included.

Topic 215: Honor Killings

Five facts about honor killings:

1. Honor killings are an extreme form of gendered domestic violence. Mostly, involve young, single female victims and a male killer who is a relative. Can include male victims and women co-killers; ' - ' " [v u . " t - . u " - " u ' - ' u " q " - s y q • " u - € q ' y - . S f y s ' y ' - " - u ' s u y , u t " - ' " q s ' € q • r ' u q s x " - v " conduct norms. Sometimes just to deal with property disputes and tribal feuds; honor is just a camouflage. A collective family affair
2. Reliable country-level data not available. Frequency is impossible to ascertain. Estimates 5000 per year in the world. High rates of honor killings and low score in HDI and the Gender Inequality Index related.
3. It is likely that the majority of perceived transgressions of honor do not provoke a murder. Most premarital sexual relationships and out-of-wedlock pregnancies hushed and/or dealt with nonviolently.
4. Islam plays a prominent role in public debates on honor killings, yet honor killings are a pre-Islamic tribal tradition and an extra-judicial punishment that is not part of Sharia law. Both Muslims and Islamophobes focus on Islamic law, where there is none. They occur among the Arab Christians and the Sikh community. They are non-existent in some Muslim-majority countries, such as Oman, and less frequent in others Muslim-majority countries, such as Algeria and Tunisia.
5. Some Islamic law interpretations justify them. Findings from the World Values Survey highlight a notable split of orientations in many countries with high levels of honor killings.

Lesson 36**FAMILY POLICY-I**
(Topic 216-220)**Topic216: What is a Family or Household?**

The study of the family as a social institution has an extensive history, beginning with the work of nineteenth-century European sociologists such as Le Play and Westermarck, and Marxists such as Friedrich Engels, and continuing with work of twentieth-century writers such as the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski and the American sociologist William J. Goode (Therborn, 2004). In recent decades the study of the family and its evolution in past times has been significantly advanced by the work of a number of social historians (Anderson, 1980; Laslett, 1983).

The *household* is an important unit for social policy and demographic purposes, distinct from the family. Means-tested social security benefits, for example, are calculated on a household basis. A household is defined as a person living alone or a group of people who have the address as their only or main residence and who either share one meal a day or share the living space. (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 202).

A *family* is defined as a group of people who live together in a household and who are related by blood, marriage or adoption. This includes couples with no children or a lone parent together with his or her never-married child or children provided they have no children of their own. A family could also consist of a grandparent(s) with their grandchild or grandchildren if the parents of the grandchild or grandchildren live with them. (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 202). The Census definition of a *lone-parent family* is a lone parent living with his or her never-married child or children. (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 202). The Census definitions of households, families and lone-parent families vary slightly between the various official surveys sponsored by the government – the Census, the Labour Force Survey and the General Household Survey (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 202).

Contemporary comment and research on the family emphasises the diversity of family forms, both historically and comparatively, as well as in present-day Western societies, where cohabiting, unmarried parenthood, lone parenthood, step-families and same-sex relationships have become more common (Pahl, 2003: 160–162).

Single-person households have also become much more common. The traditional family of Western European and North American societies, it is argued, is in decline, if indeed it was ever really dominant as a family form.

Household size

Household size varies by ethnic group, with some groups having larger families and being more likely to live in extended families. Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi

families contain more members than other ethnic groups. According to the 2001 census, employing official definitions of ethnicity (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 201), Bangladeshi households were largest, with 4.5 people per household, followed by Pakistani (4.1) and Indian (3.3); White British and Black Caribbean had 2.3 persons per household, and White Irish had the smallest households, at 2.2 persons (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 15). To some extent these differences are related to age structure. Smaller households – White British, White Irish and Black Caribbean – have, on average, an older age structure and are more likely to be single-person households (Office for National Statistics, 2007: 14–15).

Topic 217: Marriages, Divorces and Fertility Rates

Marriage: civil and religious since 1961, Muslim Family Law Ordinance, an overwhelming majority both. Requirement is only legal, registered with a nikah-khwan or at a court. Only nikah-khwan, without registration, is not acceptable. Divorces similarly have to be registered. Non-registration of divorce may lead to imprisonment for up to one year, or with fine up to Rs. 5000, or both. Marriage is part of adulthood in Pakistan. For women, it is part of early adulthood as most are married before the age of twenty. The legal age of marriage is 18 for men and 16 years for women

According to UNICEF report, 21% of Pakistani women are married by the age of 18, and 3% before 15

Child marriage Restraint (Amendment) Bill, 2019

18 years for both sexes

Passed by the Senate

But not by the National Assembly

Results of early marriage

No secondary school for girls
Pregnancy problems
More years of fertility
Less use of contraceptives
Increased power differential between husband and wife
More domestic abuse
More children and poverty
Less educated children
Divorces were rare but the trend is increasing
Reasons of divorce
Incompatibility
Less stigma
Less patience to accept violence or patriarchy
Educated women

Topic 218: Religion and family

Family is an important component of Islam. Keeping family intact is very important for Islam. Responsibilities as well as rewards.

L .t.'q' - .w'xy' kw .:'y' "xy ST u's'uq'ut 'v-''-€'k —€'u' 'V'-' '€''u•.,u' S"xq'"€''' ywx''
find rest in them. and Tu"-t qy.ut 'r'u'►uu.:'€'•.,u'q.t.'" u's''S'/L •Rum-21)

O-... "éy•"€-"sxyt "u."v-"vuq"-v"-.,u""5ÿ'y "g u"►x-"",y u"€'u.q. su"v-"xu' " q.t."€-€F",u"ÿ•"éy•y.w"xu' 'ÿ"q" - "xuy.∴€"s'ÿ u5%/L•-U"q E: 80

L. t. "u. z-y. .- "q" u" €- . . " € " vq' y " " kq. t. " - u - um q. t. " r u " ' uqt vq' " " xu' uy. 5 " / d q T q 3' 20:132)

[¹ε-ε] x-¹xq, u¹r u¹y, ut 3¹—¹us¹ε-ε u¹, u¹q. t. t¹ε-ε v¹ y¹u¹ v¹—¹ q¹Ry¹u¹ %d q x¹y¹ 3¹

g xu."q"Y€'•y "—u.t."—..xy"q' y•""uuéy.w"u►q't "v-''y'v'-' 'L•qx3y"s-€..: "v-''xy" " q"sxq'y'5 "Y€'•y 0

U'y'u...w'x"y.v"q" q...w'x,u"v-t "x"u".u" x- "xu"y"€—'ut"—vut 5 "
(Abu Dawud)

c- u't u'u" L'qr "sq' u"—xy' ".u't q'q.t."q' éut E' O—"€"éy' "€"sx'yt 'u. I. "Tu"
q. .►u't E' i u' 5'dxu" q't E' g u".u,u"éy' "xu' 5'dxu"] —xu"/'q►0' q't E' g xq"sq. "I
t—w'€—xuq" 'xq,u'r uu. !: "y—ut "v's—' q' y. I. "Méxq'y0

dxu'r u' "v'€—y' "xu'r u' "xy' "vq' y' 3'q. t. "Uq' "xu'r u' "q' —.w' "€"—" " "vq' y' 5 "
Tirmidhi, IbnMaajah

As mother is most important element in the family, she has been given exalted status in Islam

g yx"€r •u't yt "xy' " —'xu'r uq'xy' "q. t. ►yx"€r •u't yt "xu'r y. w'xy' "v—xFq. t. "xu"
r uq'y. w—v'xy' "q. t. "xu"►uq. y. w—v'xy' "►q' "xy"€" —.x' "/; A8?0
L's—' —q. y. .". su'q' éut "xu"] —xu'3' g x—"t u' u", u' " "w—t "uq' u. ." —'J " i —€" —'xu'3'
'q't "xu"] —xu'3' g x—.u' 'J " i —€" —'xu'3' 'xu'u—yut "qwqy. 3' g x—.u' 'J " i —€" —'xu'3' 'xu'
q. .►u't "u"qwqy. 3' g x—"qv'u" xq'J " i —€" vq'xu'5 Islam does give an edge to men over women
in family The Quran explain it because husband is the main provider. This verse has been
criticized in the Western world . Women groups have come up with a re-interpretation. The
argument is that as men have become less and less sole provider, the edge over women has also
decreased.

Topic 219: Human Rights and Family

Artic•u"8A/80'—v"xu"e .y'ut "Zq'y—. :. "8D C'e .y,u"xq"Ous•q'q'y—. :—v'T€' q. "b yw" explicitly
enunciated the right of men and women to marry and found a family as a basic human right
(Sieghart, 1985: 120 121, 174).

Article 16(1) also states that dxu"q'u"u. y'ut to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage
q. t. "q'y' t y' —€'y... 5

L"ys•u"8A/90'w—u—" :. :—" 'q'u" xq' " Y q' "qwu" xq•"r u"u. 'u'ut "y. :—" :. :—" ►yx the free and full
s—. :. u. :—"v" xu'y. 'u. t. y. w—€' u' 5'

L"ys•u"8A: 0' "q'u" xq' " dxu family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is
entitled to protection r—"syu"q. t. "xu" 'q'u "c yuwq" 38DC? E897 121, 174). These provisions
on the family are echoed in all other human rights declarations, and articulated at considerably
greater length in some, such as the European Social Charter, adopted in 1961.

Severe restrictions on marriage and family life existed in virtually all societies until the late
twentieth century, and still continue in some (Mount, 1982: 32 33). China, for example, imposed
q' y. y' €' " " q' "qwu" qwu"—v'9?3'q. t. "q" —.u" sx'yt "—ys'3'y...1980. In some countries, until
comparatively recently, there were prohibitions on interracial marriage, and in many, if not most,
countries, women are far from enjoying equal rights in rela'y—. :—" " q' "qwu"q. t. "vq' y—"y"y"3' v'uu"
q. t. "v€•"s—. :. u. :. to marriage may not exist and women may be treated as chattels.

More recently, a human rights perspective has been applied to the status and interests of children
(Hewitt and Leach, 1993: 1 6). The UK ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of
the Child in 1991. UK policy is obliged to conform, or appear to conform, to its provisions.

Some radical feminists, not all, consider family as a regressive institution and call for its end.

Family is called

Tool of oppression

Source of oppression

Instrument of oppression

N—"u"x'—.u"—v"►—' u... "s—. :. y. €y. w—'u' y—...

Family is where the patriarchy starts

Family leads to labor and sexual exploitation

Family results in women giving up the ownership of their minds, bodies and lives

Even children are abused in the family

The socialization of primitive gender roles starts in the family

These statements are exaggerated but they have an element of truth. Wife-battering is a universal phenomenon. Wife battering: Violent actions (psychological, sexual and/or physical) by a husband against his wife. Family has existed from ancient times and beating of wife or wives was common across cultures. As discussed earlier, over 70% of women are not allowed to leave home to visit a bank, attend an NGO meeting, go to a job, or pursue an education.

Even in the 21st century, men and (even) women believe that a husband is justified in beating his wife if she argues with him

Rural married women 42%

Rural married men 22%

Urban married men 13%

Urban married women 18%

Assumptions

Wife should not work if the husband earns enough
 If she works and there are problems, then she is to blame
 There should be children within the first two years of marriage
 Mothers working are neglecting children
 Working women should do all housework
 Bringing up infants is the responsibility of women
 Parents can do no wrong
 Children are to the honor their families
 Excel academically
 Nx-yu"-"-vu' 'y-.'q' "-u'"-q'u. .': "►y•
 Choice spouse as per paru. .': "►y•
 An ideal family tolerates violence and abuse for the sake of children
 Parents are hitting their children, they are doing it for their own good
 g -' q. .!►x-"s- ' -qy. .'"-"xu'"-q'u. .': "qr-€'"xu'"x€' r q. t. ' ".,y-•u. su" 'x-€'t "r u"
 sent back as husbands improve
 Families have to become more loving
 Where there are problems, problems should be resolved rather than ignored or
 swept under the carpet
 One thing should be clear: Violence is a no-no

Topic 220: What is Family Policy?

Talking about the family (whatever the family may be) involves aggregating individuals and their interests. Recent and not-so-recent discussion has drawn attention to some of the anomalies and deficiencies involved in this. Feminists from the time of Eleanor Rathbone onwards have drawn attention to the absurdity of assuming that, v-'"u' q' -u3'q" q•u"r "uqt ►y. u" "uq". y. w" are always shared equally within the family unit on the basis of need.

Broader and narrower definitions of family policy are possible. Family policy could be defined broadly as any policy directly or indirectly affecting the family. On this basis it would be hard to exclude any social policy from the definition. This, however, would be too broad a definition to

be useful. One approach to this might be to focus on what governments actually do when they q'u"t-y.w"- u'xy.w" xysx"xu"s.qy' "-r u" vq' y'"—ys" 5'dxy"y'" -'u"t ywys€' for the UK than for other countries, because British governments have been shy about employing the concept of family policy. Kamerman and Kahn di'y.w€y x"r u' u. .xq'"xu"s q•ut " u'—ysy' q.t." y'—ysy' family policy and, employing this distinction, classified a number of countries in terms of their policies for and towards the family (Kamerman and Kahn, 1978: 3).

Some countries, such as France, xq,u" u'—ysy' "vq' y'"—ysy' F'—xu"x 3'€sx"q'"xu UK, have .:€"—'w' -'•€" y'—ysy' "vq' y'"—ysy' 5'U."R"q. su3" €sx"—syq'—ys'"y' deliberately directed at the family; in the UK, policy is usually only indirectly concerned with it.

Family policy is .:~".usu' q'y'€" —w'u' 'y,u "—syq'—ys" 5'U." q.:s—€.:y'xu" pursuit of u'—ysy'"vq' y'"—ysy' "xq' "r uu."r—€."€—"y'x"q" —-.q'q'y' "q.t." q'ur €yt y.w view of the family the need, for example, to boost birth rates and population growth, depleted in some cases by the losses of war, as in France after the First World War, or the pursuit of aggressive foreign policy, in the cases of Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union (Pedersen, 1993). National strength has been seen as depending on high population numbers. The liberal, breadwinner-focused UK state, viewing the family as the private business of its citizens, has never been pro-natalist in this sense, even if pro-natalist sentiments have informed, if not determined, the views of some policy make"x 3q'"xu"t yt "—" u'u' 'u.:y.:xu"sq' u"—vMu,u'yt wu ' „yu"—.sxyt 'u..€" allowances (Beveridge, 1942: 154, para. 413).

For conservatives, the family is an institution under threat

Easier divorce and less stigma

Single parenthood becoming normal

The gradual decline in the popularity of marriage

More women working

Decrease in the power of religion

Longer time in education and changing careers

Broader and narrower definitions of family

Broad definition: Family policy is any policy directly or indirectly affects the family

Nothing can be excluded so not useful

Zq'"—u'EU s.€t u"xq'u,u'"xu" w.,u".: u.:y.s.€t u'y.:xu" vq' y'"—ys"

But governments have not been enthusiastic about formally proclaiming a family policy

Explicit and implicit family policy

France is a country that gives importance to family and explicitly favors families

And this has led to good results, according to National institute for demographic studies

Questions related to family policy

What is a family? Nuclear, extended, etc.?

What is the ideal family?

How much focus to produce ideal family?

How many children in the family?

Pro-.q'q'y' "—" —w'u' 'y,u "—"q€"—s'q'ys"—.u-child?

What are the rights of women and children in the family?

How much government should interfere to preserve these rights?
What is the role of religion in family matters?
Should family policy be based on religion?
Should state support families or individuals or both?
Should women supported more in the family as they spend more on family? BISP strategy?
Domestic violence, right to marry, right to cohabit,
How many husbands & wives?
Homosexuality? Same-sex marriage?
Who is an adult? Who does not need a guardian?

Lesson 37

FAMILY POLICY-II
(Topic 221-225)

Topic 221: Historical Background: Development of Family Policy in Developed World

In the UK the family has been regarded as a private institution, into which the state should intrude in only limited ways, although the family has been subject to state regulation in relation to, for example, marriage and divorce (Glennerster, 2007: 153). Welfare policy has been circumscribed by such views, and also by the political salience of social class as a social division. The labour movement in the UK, for example, agitated for much of the twentieth century not for family benefits but for q "•y,x.w"-~" vq' y'" "►quw3"—r u"wqy.ut "x"—€wx""qt u" union collective bargaining and, failing that, through minimum wages in particular industrial sectors. Some of the first state welfare interventions outside the ambit of the Poor Law, such as school feeding and school medical inspection, introduced by a Liberal government in 1906 and 1907, related to children. Another was the introduction of tax allowances for children for income tax payers in 1909 by the same government. The development of health services in the UK in the twentieth century also u' xy'y' "q" r'uqt ►y.....u" "v-s€' F'xu"Zq'y-.q."Tuq'x"xU:€"q.su"'sxu' u" introduced in 1911, for example, although not formally exclusionary, assumed that the r'uqt ►y.....u" ' (effectively, the mq... '0'xuq'x"x"►q' "-v' -'-'y —"q.su"q.t."y.:€"ut "-.:' "'xu r'uqt ►y.....u"3'.-.' "xu'r'uqt ►y.....u" "vq' y'"5Nxyt'u... "xuq'x"x"►q' "qéu."sq'u"—v3yw at all, through maternal and infant health services provided by local authorities, as was that of women. g -' u... "xuqlth was a matter of public concern largely in relation to their role as mothers until 'xu"8D, 7'5'g -' u... "q.t."sxyt'u... "qssu' "'— GP and hospital-provided health care would depend until then on their ability to pay or on the possibility of obtaining means-tested fee exemptions.

William Beveridge took for granted, in formulating his plans for post-war social security in his 1944 report, that the family was based on a separation of male and female roles, the concept of the male breadwinner and the dependent housewife. In this he was merely conforming to prevailing norms about desirable family forms, not least those of the Victorian era. The contemporary opinion, turned out to be unsound.

The period of the 1940s, dominated by war and post-war reconstruction, can in some respects be regarded as a major era of family policy, implicit if not explicit, and also of the sanctification of 'xun' ' 'qt y' y. q' " vq' y' '3' y' —yut " y. ". Mu, u' yt wu " „, yu' cited above. Such policies as food subsidies and food rationing, major components of social policy at the time, improved the diets of the mass of British working-class families (it had been estimated that half of British children in the inter-war period were malnourished), while the creation of a universal health service improved ►—' u. .: "qssu' ' "—'xuq' x' s' q' u' s' d' xu' Rq' y' "L •—►q. su" a weekly flat-rate cash benefit payable for the second and subsequent children was legislated by the wartime coalition government in 1945, and introduced the following year. The Xqr—€' "w, u' ".: u. .: " "uv—' " "—v' social security, inspired by Beveridge, introduced new cash benefits for maternity a cash lump sum together with weekly benefits, payable to the mother. The expansion of educational opportunities initiated in the 1940s was also eventually to have a significant impact on the lives of women, as well as working-class children.

dxu"8D7" "►q" "xu't usqt u"-v"xu's•q' 'ys" "qt y'y-.q• ".£s•uq"vmily, with a strong division of labour between wage-working male breadwinner on the one hand and home-based housewife and mother on the other. This was, however, to prove a temporary state of affairs. The relatively successful performance of the post-war British economy, generating jobs and strong demand for labour, drew women into paid work in increasing numbers, just as, of course, it drew in increasing numbers of migrants from abroad. This was also an era of increasing educational opportunity, involving developments in particularly secondary schooling and higher education, which was eventually to benefit girls as much as, or more than, boys. From the 1950s onwards, ►' u... "s-...?y'£'y-..."-vq' y' "q.t."x-£'ux-£t "y.s-' u gradually became indispensable, as a 'uq'-..qr•u " 'q.t.q't " -v'•y,y.w'r usq' u"t uy.ut in relation to that available to a two-earner household. The single-earner household would be, from now on, subject to an increased risk of poverty, defined in relative t u-?y,q'y-... 'u" 'S'g -' u... "uq".y.w" .-."-nly boosted family incomes and standards of living, but enabled them to achieve a degree of independence and autonomy, as did other changes in the period, such as improved opportunities to control fertility and limit family size.

Few of the trends and tendencies so far described, policy and other, were promoted or introduced or came about with the intention of liberating or empowering women; they were not the product of feminist ideology or movements, for these as yet hardly existed. Such liberation as was to take place was a largely unintended consequence of policy and broader social and economic changes and changes in technology, as in the case of contraception.

Topic 222-225: Issues in Family Policy-I-IV

In this section we look at a number of family policy issues which became salient in this period social security, the tax treatment of the family and domestic violence. Social security policy, like -'xu" -£r•ys" —ys"3' ' qéu" q'£' -y-... " qr-£" q—"y'u family structures. These assumptions, of course, no longer hold good. In this model, the male breadwinner was seen as the primary claimant and beneficiary, and other family members as dependents, mirroring the economic dependency of working life. Non-contributory means-tested benefits such as the non-contributory „u"y-...-vV-r 'uuéu" 'L •-►q.su"/'xu'u'y'q'-q's-...?y'£'-...3Zq'y-.q•'U.£"q.su version of this), Income Support and Pension Credit are assessed on a household, rather than an individual, basis, as were their predecessors.

Feminist writers in the 1970s and later were particularly concerned by certain features of the '-syq"us£'y" "" 'u' 3'£sx"q' "xu" .-.-y-£" s-xqr yq'y-... "£•u3'►xysx prevents a lone parent claiming means-tested benefits such as Income Support in her -►."ywx"y"xu'y" s-xqr y'y.w3' that is, living with a man (who is self-supporting) (Wilson, 1974: 20). Feminists have criticized the rule for appearing to make a lone female parent dependent for her upkeep and that of her children on a man, thereby upholding and enforcing a particular model of conventional family life (Pateman, 1988: 248). The rule is, however, merely an application of the general principle that means-tested benefits such as Income Support and its predecessors are, and always have been, assessed on a household r q'y'S'N-£-u' ". uut "q'u"qww'uq'ut "v-"r u.uy' purposes. The non-►-"ëy.w"-q".u"-v'q"►-"ëy.w" q."-?"►' q.'y."q" s-..u..y-.q• family relationship, living in a single household, whether married or not, and caring for children, has never been able to claim Income Support in his or her own right. Contrary, furthermore, to the assertions of some feminists, the cohabitation rule does not discourage women from forming new relationships, although it might require them to be circumspect about doing so, nor does it prevent women

being financially supported by men who remain non-resident (Pascall, 1986). There is also something inconsistent in criticising the rule for apparently upholding a conventional model of the family, and at the same time criticising it for discouraging women from entering into new family relationships. What most people found objectionable about the cohabitation rule was the policing and surveillance of intimate relationships that were involved as part of the fraud-prevention activities of the social security agencies. Of course, media and public opinion was to some extent inconsistent about this, concerned as it was at the same time about the evils of benefit fraud.

Other feminists have recognised that the benefits system is not quite as morally conservative, in relation to lone parents, as some critics have thought. Income Support and its means-tested predecessors supported lone-parent claimants without stigma and without a requirement to work, q"—'y-y-..":ú'€' qr •""t u'y,ut "v'-' " '''qt y-y-.q• assumptions that children are better off being looked after at home by their mothers, and also to the fact that Income Support was a universal benefit claimed by all unemployed, disabled, pensioners (until the introduction of similar but separate benefits such as MIG, later Pension Credit, for pensioners) who satisfy the income and needs criteria. One feminist commentator observed that ' -t u'..! ▶u•vq'u" —•ysu' "xq,,u" permitted the transformation of traditional family forms and the formation of autonomous households by lone mothers while at the same time attempting to enforce assumptions about ' u... "—r •ywq'y-..":—" qy.:qy..! a Janus-vqsut "k—•ys"m"/Xu▶y'3'9777EC93'syut "r "'S •u...u"x'u'3' 2007: 30). There is a range of different cash benefits for people in financial need. Meanstested, non-contributory benefits for families with children such as Income Support (IS) and V-r 'uuéu"x "L•—▶q.su"/V&L0' may include additional payments for carers and children, in the latter case, for claims made before April 2004. Since that date, financial needs of children have been met by the Child Tax Credit, also available for low-earning working parents. Since the mid-1980s it has been possible for either adult in a couple to be the named claimant for IS and JSA. However, in the overwhelming majority of cases it remains the man who is named as the head of household and who receives the benefit (Pascall, 1997).

Religion and family

How much of the family policy should come from the majority religion of the country?

Initially, all countries gave importance to religion

Religions, especially Abrahamic religions, have specific instructions about family

Buddhism or Hinduism do not prescribe to a specific type of family

Confucianism, however, does

All Western countries did give importance to church as most had official churches

By the 20th century things changes and religion became less and less important

In developing world religion still important

Gradual decreasing of importance of religion

Experience of Iran

Policy under Reza Shah

Policy under Mohammad Raza Shah

Islamic Revolution and Imam Khomeini

Decrease or instrumental use of religion after Khomeini

Experience of Turkey

Rejection of religion under Ataturk

Gradual return of religion
 But still very secular
 Experience of Pakistan
 Personal laws
 MFLO, 1961
 Islamization in the 1980s
 Gradual relaxation after 2000
 Rights of women and children in family. From ancient times, patriarchal systems mostly prevailed. Few rights for women and children. Property of men

As seen earlier, most religions also supported the dominance of men in family. Women secondary inferior position. Accept everything coming from her man. In many cultures and religions, women were presented as bringer of unhappiness and vices. To take the moral men away from the right path. Property, titles even names from men and for men. Emotional, with weak judgment. Some Islamic interpretations, two women equal to one man in terms of giving evidence. In Rome, women could inherit property but cannot control it. Although Islamic did give women rights that were not common at the time. Things started changing in the 19th century, First in the European countries and in the 20th century in the developing world.

Women rights

- Right to inherit and manage property
- Right to do business
- Right to travel alone
- Right to education
- Right to marriage
- Equal rights to child custody
- Right of divorce
- Equal division of property after divorce
- No domestic violence
- Monogamy

Child rights

- Right of independent existence (not a property of father)
- Right to be fed and treated when sick

Human rights as an individual, protected by the state

Right to be educated

No sexual or physical abuse

Right to chose profession and spouse

Right to separate laws in case of criminal behavior

Many of these laws are still not acceptable in many cultures and countries

Who is heir (pronounced air)? Who will inherit after a person dies intestate

Intestate: without a valid will

Testate: with a valid will or testament

Different countries have different laws and they are part of family policy. Why?

Because it is the family that usually inherits

Initially, like other matters of family policy, this was a religious matter

Like still is the case of Pakistan. In case of intestate succession, there are usually laws. From ancient times, patrilineal inheritance more common than matrilineal inheritance. Patrilineal inheritance means only males inherit, women are excluded. Matrilineal inheritance means only females inherit, men are excluded extreme case.

Primogeniture: a principle of inheritance, in which the firstborn child receives all or his parents

Male primogeniture was the law until 1925 in England

Other siblings would depend on the generosity of their elder brother

Jewish religious law calls for patrilineal inheritance

Daughters only inherit, if there are no sons

Later on, another rule

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Later, first-born had double inheritance than other brothers

Christianity did not have specific law so the Jewish law continued in many cases

Islam added many new heirs, such as spouses and parents

Gave double the share to sons as compared to daughters but no importance to first-born

Illegitimate children and adopted children: no inheritance

The one who is making will also has to follow certain rules

Cannot bequeath to a heir and cannot bequeath more than one-third of the total inheritance

Murderer of father/mother or non-Muslim cannot inherit

Most countries in the world now give equal inheritance rights to all children

In the US, the rights of the spouse are protected

There are two type of states: community property states and common law states

Community property: half of whatever was earned during marriage is given to the surviving spouse

Common law: no right but half or one-third of what was earned during marriage can be claimed by the surviving spouse as (s)he cannot be disinherited

Rest is then distributed equally among children

The UK law also favors surviving spouse

Spouse or civil partner inherits all personal property, the first £250,000 of the estate and half of the remaining estate

Lesson 38**FAMILY POLICY-III**
(Topic 226-229)**Topic 226: Family Policy in Pakistan: Marriage**

As already discussed, the Muslim Family Law Ordinance, 1961 governs the issues of marriage and its dissolution. Marriage is not defined in the ordinance but it is between two adults of the opposite sex. A nikah khwan is not necessary for marriage but for registration of marriage. Even court marriages need registration with a nikah khwan. Nikah nama: The marriage contract.

Mehr or dower is the right of the women

Special conditions: can get education, can work, is entitled to maintenance, no of children, will not live with extended family, etc

With right to divorce, you have only to inform as does the husband

With right of divorce, wife also keeps the her mehr, maintenance and alimony which she cannot have in case of khula

And khula takes time, courts and lawyers
 Four marriages allowed but Arbitration Council (AC) approved which consists of
 representatives of both husband and wife or wives
 Easy, if you present agreement by the first wife in the AC
 AC has also a role in divorce
 Registered, not effective before 90 days and within this time reconciliation possible
 Encouraged by the AC
 So, official law different from Hanafi law
 Wife can also ask for maintenance allowance and AC can fix the monthly amount,
 recoverable by law.

Topic 227: Family Policy in Pakistan: Maternity and Paternity Leaves

Leave, most of it paid, to a mother before and after birth
 Now, also paternity leave so that fathers share the burden and love of the new arrival
 Maternity leaves became popular as more and more women start working outside home
 Agreed at the UN that maternity leave should be a minimum of 14 weeks of leave, paid at
 two-thirds of a worker's salary up to a cap
 Most countries now exceed this standard
 At least 50 countries: 6 months or more paid maternity leave

West Pakistan Maternity Benefits Ordinance, 1958
 All establishments but usually fully implemented only in public sector
 Benefits: 12 weeks (6 weeks prior and 6 weeks after birth)
 At least 4 months of employment necessary before the birth
 Paid leave requires a certificate from the birth attendant or doctor
 May not be possible for all women
 The law prohibits the employment of any women during the six weeks following birth

This was added to save women but now used to discriminate against women by denying them employment
 Women not to be dismissed during maternity leave
 Women regularly dismissed: strict monitoring required and fine (only Rs. 500) should be increased
 No paternal leave in Pakistan
 Increasingly common
 90+ countries give some form of paternal leave

Topic 228: Family Policy in Pakistan: Tax Advantages and Other Benefits

Article 35 of the 1973 Constitution: Protection of family etc. The state shall protect the marriage, the family, the mother and the child
 All major political parties in Pakistan talk about protection of family
 The PTI talked about protecting family and promoting family planning
 The PML-N (2013) talked about providing housing, health, jobs, etc.
 The PPP had the most mentions
 Family health service/card, Benazir food card, detailed program about family planning
 Nothing much related to the financial issues
 No tax benefits
 Pakistan taxation rules acknowledge only individuals, partnerships and corporations
 Individuals- personal capacity
 Partnerships business agreement between two or more persons
 Corporation entity separate from the individuals incorporating it
 Limited liability
 Private or public: data, shares, etc.
 Family: not recognized
 A bachelor and a married person with 4 dependents are taxed equally
 Other countries do give family tax credits
 Uq•“EE—” C77"v-”t u-u.t.u.?”►yu"q.t."E—” 8977"v-”uqsx"t u-u.t.u.?”sxyt

France: A tax credit for dependent child under 7

Later, tax credit for schooling expenses

India, Algeria, Argentina and Egypt: nothing

Malaysia: for total income below ringgit 35000, 800 ringgit

Other benefits: health insurance

Public sector: dependents (spouse, children and parents)

Private sector: dependents (spouse and children)

Trend: giving only lump sum, especially for out-patient services which can be a burden for some families

Education: Some educational institutions give siblings benefit

Housing by employer: family: bigger housing, bachelor: individual rooms (very few outside public sector)

Topic 229: Family Policy in Pakistan: Child Care, Child Protection and Child Services

To understand/ compare child rights, protection, etc., there is an international gold standard

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

The most widely ratified human rights treaty in history

196 countries ratified (all the UN members except the US)

CRC adopted in November 1989 and came into force in September 1990

Previous international agreements: Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924 and the UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1959

Pakistan was the sixth in the world to sign and ratify the CRC
2018 UNICEF Annual report
Data from this latest report

Lesson 39**HOUSING POLICY-I**
(Topic 230-235)**Topic 230-231: Why Housing is Important?-I-II**

A safe, decent, affordable home is essential for a family

Proper housing impacts health

Vaccination

Safe from extreme environment

Probability of clean drinking water increases

Sleeping properly

Malnutrition

Safe birth

Proper Housing essential for education

Movement means disruption or ending of school

New school creates stress. May lead to drop-out

Improper housing, no schools

Need home to feel safe and study

Improper housing: child spend most of the time outside home

Low quality schooling

Maternal and infant mortality rates are linked with improper housing

Child malnutrition and stunting linked with improper housing

Illiteracy linked with improper housing

Housing and employment

Improper housing illiteracy and low skills

Informal sector

Housing and poverty

Far away from the employment opportunities

Low pay, no rights

Slums and domestic workers

Housing and security

Low quality housing and crime linked

Low employment opportunities

Limited police presence

Threats from local mafias

Availability of drugs and guns

Female harassment

Child and female trafficking

Sexual abuse

Intergenerational costs of no or improper housing

Health: stunting and malnutrition

Education: Illiteracy and low skills

Employment: informal

Security: Drugs, injury or death by bullet injuries

Housing: not considered a right

In the 1973 Constitution, housing mentioned but..

Article 24: Protection of property rights:

- (1) Z—“u”x—..!xq••r u's—' —€•—”y•“t u—y,ut “-v'xy”——u”“
- (3) Nothing in this Article shall affect the validity of
 - (e) any law providing for the acquisition of any class of property for the purpose of:
 - (ii) providing housing and public facilities

Article 25 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Many national constitutions also accept housing as a fundamental right

South African Constitution; 2(26)

P,,u”x—..u'xq“”xu”ywx”p—”xq,,u'qssu“‘”—”qt u“€q'u'x—€‘y..w

Housing a human right

Free from

Discrimination based on race, religion, gender, color, sexual orientation, caste,
marital status, age
Health hazards
High rents
Secure
Domestic abuse
Extreme effects of climate
Immediate eviction

Implicit discrimination

Credit checks
Rental history
Employment history
Security deposit
Income information
History on social media: political and religious views
Approval by previous residents

Topic 232: Significance of Housing Policy

Do we need a housing policy?

Concern about affordable housing is old and has increased with urbanization

States, however, were not concerned

In the 19th century, reports of sickness and immorality

Private and philanthropic housing

Some landlords built for poor

Some industrialists built whole villages, such as Saltaire

Built in 1851 by Sir Titus Salt, a textile magnate near Bradford

A UNESCO World Heritage Site

The City of London Corporation first built flats in 1865 in the first large-scale public housing project. It replaced an infamous slum, Old Nichol, where thousands of people lived in abject poverty. World War I made government concerned about health (41% of men were unfit to serve). Since WWII, housing policies common in the Western world

Four types of housing policies

Focusing on

Increasing demand

Increasing supply

Increasing houses available on rent

Increasing houses for ownership

Communism gave boost to housing

Housing policy in communist countries

All land was state land

No property rights

No question about ownership

State financing and building by the state

No frills housing (very basic)

Standardized housing

Housing policy in communist countries

Central rent control

Central planning meant state priorities, not demand decided construction of projects

Limits on space that a person is entitled

No link between the buildings and their neighborhood

Romania and Cuba followed the pattern set by the USSR

Objectives and results

Housing a right

Housing for all, even for the poorest
 Equal space for almost all people
 Actually, in later years, severe shortage
 Corruption
 Elite had big houses and dachas (country/holiday homes)
 Low quality
 Rent control, not effective

Topic 233: Housing and Social Welfare

Housing policy is broad. Different type of government action. It covers government actions, legislation or economic policies that have a direct or indirect effect on housing. Homeless is not only the one who is living on streets. Homeless is the one who does not have quality housing and/or does not have autonomy in their homes. As mentioned, housing was initially not a direct concern of the government. It only became concern because it affected other social welfare objectives. During the WWI, another issue was industrial peace which led to rent subsidies. In communist countries too, housing was part of industrial policy. And housing was part of dealing with different nationalities.

More housing in area where you want people to live and less investment in other areas
 Housing affects education, health, security, employment, crime, gender, social control and family policies

Housing policies have also led to social division

After the WWII, the American government/states adopted policies that promoted racial segregation

Market also segregates, especially based on income

Can lead to racial and ethnic tensions and riots

Riots in Oldham and Burnley towns (UK) in 2001

Paris riots 2005

We live in ghettos (No employment, poverty, crime, police discrimination), etc.

Topic 234: Housing Utopias and Ideals

Housing has long been the subject of utopian plans and ideals. Based on British history, three models of housing: In the 19th century, Housing schemes, usually good quality, in a period where most of the urban people lived in shabby, overcrowded structures in slums. Industrial paternalism

From 1920s to 1960s: Housing tool for social engineering

Garden cities, ideal communities

Low-cost housing

Where sometimes people of different classes and color would interact

local councils as providers of housing

After 1970s, home ownership and market

Socialist dream of housing failed

Current Housing crisis in England in 2019
 More than 8 million people in England are living in an unaffordable, insecure or unsuitable home, according to the National Housing Federation
 Government said in 2010 that housing was a priority
 The government delivered 430,000 affordable homes since then but not enough
 Social housing required
 Social housing has 50% lower rents and more security

Topic 235: Residualization of Public Housing in the West

Residualization is a concept in social policy. It refers to a situation where public services are provided to the community as a whole. Under Residualization, two type of facilities develop. Most rich and middle class uses private sector services which they or their employers pay for and have good quality. Poor are left with public welfare services. Funded by decreasing tax revenues. So, low quality socially stigmatized.

- Poor live in council housing
- Poor live in projects
- Poor live across the railroad
- Poor live in degenerating inner cities, with broken windows

Residualization in Pakistan

- Education (private and public schools)
- Health (private and public hospitals)
- Housing (apartments vs. GORs)
- Security (Gated communities, guards and electric fences vs. little security and dependence on police)
- Utilities (Electric generators vs. off and on electricity)

Opposite of Residualization

- Water (tap water vs. buying or bringing water)
- Security (living in areas which are well lit, with police presence)
- Gas availably/pressure

Lesson 40**HOUSING POLICY-II**
(Topic 236-243)**Topic 236: Housing Policy before Bhutto**

First housing crisis and solutions (1947-60):

- Settling migrants/refugees

- The allotment of evacuee property to the migrants

- This activity lasted till 1960. Significant malpractices

In the 1950s and 1960s, government housing policy: two elements

- Construction of houses in the public sector

- Provision of serviced plots

- The emphasis was on placed construction of houses

- Construction of houses by public sector and by the large companies for the public sector became a reality

- Islamabad: Focus on the new capital. A gigantic project.

- Problems of the rest of the country in terms of housing ignored

- Government primarily concerned about its own employees

As Pakistan became wealthy and a sizable middle class became visible in the cities, housing schemes and construction became profitable. Private sector jumped on this new opportunity. Al-Azam builders: concessional land for high rise.

Katchi abadis grew around cities, especially around Karachi and Lahore. Government ignored them most of the time and few systematic efforts were done to assist the poor. In 1958, the Government launched two low income housing schemes for the rehabilitation of squatters.

The Greater Karachi Resettlement Program (Korangi Township) and North Karachi Township which were very successful. Government also planned to construct 300,000 nuclear houses over a period of 15 years. Only 10,000 were built and then plan was shelved.

Self-help housing: plot at low prices to middle income groups so that they can build it themselves. Also did not succeed:

- Far away for employment opportunities

- High standards by housing authority

- Other restrictions

Topic 237: i 'Roti, Kapra aur Makan

Urbanization is happening at a high rate in Pakistan since the 1950s

- Three reasons

- Migration to urban areas

- Natural increase in population in urban areas

- Changing of rural areas to urban and peri-urban areas

Zulfiqar Ali Bx€’–'sq’ u”–"—►u”q’"xu'vy”’"—€•q’•“'u•us’ut '•uqt u”y.[] qéy’q...‘'xy’–’”. He
 sxq. xut "xu". q’€’u”–v[] qéy’q. y’—•yys’r “”q•éy. w’qr –€”–’t y. q’”€”—u—•u ‘s–. su”... Roti, kapra
 and makan was his slogan.

- From 22 families to the people
 From businessmen to labor
 From landlords to the haris and peasants
 From trickle-down economics to redistribution of resources
 People really believed in what he was saying and promising
 Bhutto government planned several initiatives
 Katchi abadis were given property rights and provision of urban services , instead of
 eradicating them
 For poor, 3 Marla housing plots were distributed in urban areas
 While 5 Marla plots were given to landless peasants in rural areas
 Government also built small houses and flats for low-income households in major cities,
 Karachi, Lahore, Hyderabad, and Faisalabad
 Zu►t u, u—’ u. :’ "Xq’yqr qt "s—•. :’y. :T “t ”qr qt 3[] u—•u ‘N—•. :’ "Rqy’q•qr qt 38A77"
 acre scheme in Lahore, and Karachi
 Development Authorities were established for metropolitan cities to undertake major
 public works and to develop land for urban expansion

Development Authorities established

- Lahore Development Authority
- Hyderabad Development Authority
- Multan Development Authority
- Faisalabad Development Authority
- Urban Development Board in N.W.F.P

Only seven years and last couple of years, the focus was diverted

- Many of the promises remained unfulfilled
- Major change: Housing a right of the people
- Necessary for survival, like roti and kapra
- Government assumed the responsibility for housing of the poor

Topic 238: Housing Policy in the 1980s and 1990s

Urban policy changed in some significant ways the Zia years
 Less focus on labor and landless, more on middle class
 Main instrument of urban policy was private sector
 The changes were linked with the politics
 Zia tried to improve the lot which he thought were more likely to support him
 Pressure from the World Bank and the IMF

The fifth Five-Year Plan (1978–1983) continued some of Bhutto policies, such as

- Site development for housing
- Slum improvements
- Provision of civic amenities (Water, sewerage)
- But role of public sector decreased

The Seventh Plan (1988–1993) allocated Rs 20 billion for the Physical Planning and Housing

- W. uz- ‘?’-point plan and National Housing Authority
- Z q►q "cxq"y ‘” u”q'ghar scheme

The aim was to meet the demand of serviced plots for low income households through the public sector on self-financing basis

Some local initiatives were also executed with the help of self-help groups

The Orangi Pilot Project in a Karachi slum (1980) was the most famous and successful of these projects

A matching grants programme for union town and district councils was also introduced. It distributed grants for local projects. However, inefficiency and corruption hindered it from being effective.

The 1980s and 1990s saw increasing shortfall in the housing supply as population growth outstripped the slowly increasing capacities of private and public sectors. But land development and house building also became a booming industry during this era. Government departments and cooperative societies started hundreds of schemes. For example, defense housing authorities became a major cash cow for the military. The urban land markets became highly speculative by the 1990s. Land mafias emerged in all the big cities. Market prices became unaffordable even for middle and professional classes.

Topic 239: National Housing Policy, 2001

According to the 1998 census, the total number of housing units in Pakistan, was 19.3 million
 67.7% housing was in rural areas and 32.3% in urban areas.

The overall housing stock comprised of:

- 39% kuchha houses, 40% semi-pukka houses and 21% pukka houses.

In 1998, the housing backlog was 4.3 million units

The annual additional requirement was around 570,000 units, while only 300,000 units were estimated to be built

Resulting an addition of 270,000 units in the backlog annually

The household size was more than 6 persons and the occupancy per room was 3.3 persons

Shortage of Finance was identified as the major constraint

Land prices very high

The policy aimed to meet the shortfall in the next twenty years

It planned to increase the housing production to 500,000 housing units annually

To achieve its aims, government planned to take several measures

- Priority Identification of Land for Housing
- Removal of procedural and legal bottlenecks in the acquisition process
- Development of land information systems
- Banks encouraged to give mortgage loans
- Housing bonds to raise money by banks and housing financial institutions
- Provision of micro loans for housing to low income group through CSOs and NGOs
- Insurance companies, provident fund holders, EOBI etc. to be encouraged to invest in the housing and construction sector
- Part of the sale proceeds from the sale of public land to be set aside to subsidize low income housing
- Foreclosure laws to be introduced to ensure effective recovery of loans
- Tenancy laws to be reviewed and rationalized
- Property tax on rented property to be reduced from the high rate of 25% to 5%
- There were several other measures
- However, most of the measures remained unimplemented and the policy was failure
- Like other policies, it made all the required sounds, but nothing much was done on the ground
- Some Katchi abadis were regularized
- State Bank made some changes to make housing finance easier
- Management of land records was digitized and gradually improved but it was incomplete

Topic 240: Housing Policy from 2008 to 2018

No major policy initiative

The estimated housing backlog had increased to 7.57 million units by 2009

And became 9 million by 2015 according to Ministry of Climate Change

Both the PPP and PML-N promised better housing and new initiatives

PPP 2013 manifesto

- Housing a right
- Government committed to low income groups

Plans:

Provide housing for the poor through special public private partnership schemes that will build up to 500,000 houses for the homeless poor.

Construct low-cost housing developments on government land with a 20-year mortgage facility to enable low-income households to shift from rental to owner-occupied dwellings

PML-N commitment of a house for every Pakistani

At least 1,000 clusters of 500 houses each for lower income families will be developed on a public private partnership model

Construction industry to be promoted for solving housing & employment crisis

Industry will be encouraged to expand investment and to provide employment opportunities in the adjoining areas

Ashiyana housing scheme

The 18th Amendment impact

Nothing much was done in these eras for housing

Topic 241: Scarcity of Low-Cost Housing in Pakistan

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From 1998 to 2017, growth rate 2.4% annually

Urban population, same period, growth rate 2.7% annually

Now, 75.5 million

The urban housing demand in Pakistan is 350,000 units

Of this 62% is for lower income groups, 25% for lower middle income groups, and 10% for higher and upper middle income groups.

The formal supply per year is 150,000 units.

The informal settlements of two kinds fill the gap

Occupation and subdivision of government land (Katchi abadis)

- Informal subdivision of agricultural land (ISALs) on the periphery of the urban settlements
- But both kachi abadis and ISALs are far away from economic activity
- Tendency of high rise in low income settlements
- Very dangerous
- People sleeping in parks and bridges
- Data and discussion based on Pakistan: Urban Housing Issues By Arif Hasan & Hamza Arif
- Gated communities for the elite and middle classes
- Segregating cities into rich and poor areas
- Increasing the possibility of urban conflict
- Gentrification: improving localities so that it conforms to tastes of middle/upper classes
- Plotting and less and less open spaces
- Credit facilities of banks and the House Building Finance Company (HBFC) not sufficient
- An outlay of Rs. 100 billion required while Rs. 2.3 billion allocated in 2017-18
- Each year, the shortage of houses increases by 200,000
- Urban services been given to private companies
 - Water, Parks, Parking, Garbage collection, toll taxes
- Not wrong per se, but strong regulatory framework
- Expansion of cities, in the absence of land use planning and implementation
 - Decreasing agricultural land
 - Polluting and depleting water resources
 - Affecting forests
 - Destroying natural drainage systems causing flooding
 - Increasing temperatures
- Urban land reform
 - A heavy non-utilization fee on land and property
 - An urban land ceiling acts whereby no one person can own more than 500 square meters of urban land.
 - No settlement should have a density of less than 400 persons per hectare
 - No person who has taken a loan for house building once should be given another loan

Topic 242-243: Urban Housing Initiative-I-II

To deal with the housing crisis, the PTI government has launched the Naya Pakistan Housing Program (NPHP). Pictures from Optimising the Naya Pakistan Housing Policy Opportunity by Ibrahim Khalil, Umar Nadeem.

Salient features:

- NPH Authority will be established and will acquire the land
- It will also provide the necessary infrastructure
- Construction companies will bid to construct housing units on reverse auction basis
- Funds for construction to be arranged by the winning companies
- The cost of land will not be subsidized and will be paid by the owner

Houses allocated on first come first serve basis
 Preference will be given to those who do not own a house
 Buyers will pay 20% of the house cost as down payment, rest from a commercial bank
 Mortgage loan up to 20 years
 NPHA will not play any role in arranging housing finance for builder or owner

Analysis

Without subsidy, a low cost house can only be possible far away from city center
 If we take the example of Lahore, a house closer to Raiwind or Kasur than Lahore
 Without urban amenities
 Without employment opportunities
 So, both urban and rural poor will not benefit from such housing
 An alternative is high-rise low cost buildings near the city center
 Although NPHP has deemphasized y"/-..:."D) "-v"xu"-q•B'u' 't y s€' 'y'q' "J Y "xq' " tweeted about it in March 2019
 [€"q'qr •u"q. t. 'y' r uy. w'uq'u. 'E—t "'x—€' y. w*—syu'yū' "q. t. "xq' "w'q, u" consequences for our food security in the future. Also, we are in the process of making laws to allow buildings, built to international safety standards, to go as xywx"q' "y.": 'xu' "syū' "qs"—' "xu"►—'t 5

High rise buildings for poor people is not a new solution
 It has been adopted in the US and it led to ghettoization, increase crime and poverty
 Because poor are unable to contribute towards maintenance of the community
 Gradually, few better one move away
 Banks will not give twenty-year mortgages for houses/units in such communities
 Getting mortgages for the poor will be difficult everywhere
 68% of urban working people part of informal economy
 Informal economy mostly means no documents, no paperwork, all cash transactions
 NPHP focusing on houses for low income but most of them will not have documents
 There will be no history of employment/income, tax returns or bank deposits
 Banks will understandably be reluctant to loan for 20 years

Recommendations

Encouraging banks to increase mortgage lending or give more money to HBFC
 However, it does not mean forcing them to lend to people they consider risky

Urban planning reform

Too many jurisdictions in one city
 Local governments controlling all city, making integrated city plans
 High-rise buildings mandatory in city center

Laws for high-rise buildings
Efficient, low-cost transport part of city planning
Low cost unit part of all communities (single units and high-rise)
Mortgage solutions for middle-income group
Politically may not be good but essential

Lesson 41

GLOBALIZATION AND SOCIAL POLICY-I
(Topic 244-250)

Topic 244: Globalization Impacts

What is Globalization?

For centuries, local was the everything

Localities defined people

Distinct culture

Distinct language

Distinct social structure

Distinct tribe

Foreigner meant person from other village or tribe

Globalization started after the age of discovery. Age of discovery (15th to the 18th century).

Scientific revolution:

New scientific discoveries, colonialism, exploitation and slavery. Global trade but only with

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First wave of globalization (19th century-1914), British Empire dominant: Sun never
 ‘u’ U,,u..?y-...“yéu”xu”k’uq’ ’u..wy.u3”xu”y.t.€’ ””yq”►uq,,y.w” qsx.y.u3’u’s5’
 Factories to make large number of products. Transport to take them away to faraway lands &
 military forces to protect trade. International market and colonies ready to accept new products.
 International companies and investments.

Second wave of globalization (1945-1989)

Two World Wars and Great Depression

New hegemon (USA) led the world using new technologies, such as automobiles and airplanes

Soviet Union also helped the global trade in its own sphere

World peace (local wars continued)

Global trade again increased to 14% of world GDP

Rise of China

Third wave of globalization (1990-2008)

Globalization became an all-conquering force

Soviet Union collapsed

China became the global workshop

World Trade Organization was created

Major economies slashed tariffs (India, Brazil, China, etc.)

Computers, internet and mobile communication technologies

Global exports quarter of world GDP and global trade half of world GDP

Integration of supply chains like never before

Fourth wave of globalization (2010-)

Dominated by the US and China

E-commerce, digital services, and artificial intelligence

Topic245: Multi-level Governance

Debates on nation-state since the start of third wave. However, nation-state has weakened but not out. Backlash by nationalists (Trump election, Brexit, Bolsonaro and Boris wins).

Problems and confusion

- Rise of global capitalism and the failures of global economic governance
- Emergence of a global risk society, especially regarding the Climate Change
- Growth of identity politics
- Threat of new forms of terrorism and dispersed network warfare

Five conceptual clarifications

- State rest on the territorialization of power. Other visions possible
- Nation-states but not one nation within the state
- Constant redefining of the state and its functions
- All states not equal
- State and globalization are not in a zero-sum game

Since the 1990s, Multi-level Governance (MLG) or meta-governance

- The MLG refers to the re-articulation of territorial and functional powers of the state
- Denationalization of statehood
- De-statization of politics

Example: European Union

State and governance focused approaches to the MLG

State-focused MLG approaches

- Changes in state as international bodies impinge on them
- Multi-level government or multi-arena government

Governance focused MLG approaches

- The legitimate monopoly of violence and the top-down modes of intervention of state-centred app are no longer useful

In fact, it has become irrelevant and harmful in our complex global global/social order

De-statization of politics required

As discussed before in this course, state is linked with hierarchy and bureaucracy while governance is by networks & negotiations

Governance is also not always linked with state (exclusive territory)

The development of MLG is demonstrated by the rise of tangled hierarchies & complex interdependence

Pe "y".-."q" 'q'uEY "q" y 'E'u"-V'y. ?u't u-u. t.u. ?"t usy y-. -making for a

Struggle between the local, national, and international is unending

States have accepted the strategic use of MLG to realize their objectives that can no longer be resolved at state-level

A new trend: reject MLG and adopt hard power but available to few

MLG is only one aspect of the overall reorganization of statehood and politics

Globalization, technology and capitalism has upended the world

Topic 246-247: Comparative Social Policy-I-II

Comparative social policy is a composite term and both its constituents are contested. What is comparative analysis? What is social policy? At the start of this course, we have discussed different definitions of social policy. Are economic or defense policies social policies? Tax concessions to families are fiscal or social policy? Is social policy a discipline? Part of sociology or social work or public policy?

- Multidisciplinary field, with no distinct methodological approach

- Cross-fertilization from other subjects

- Closer to comparative public policy

- How and what policies are delivered in different countries or regions

- Why some countries have similar policies while others have completely opposite policies?

- Why similar policies result in different outcomes?

- Higgins wrote that comparative analysis is a methodology. It should be employed wherever it help answer questions

- So, comparative analysis can be used in economics, politics, philosophy, sociology, etc.

- But all social sciences are comparative

- Always have an implicit or explicit model while doing research

- g x"" .ut " s- ' -q'q'y,u"q.q""y "

Comparative analysis also has other problems

- Unavailability of comparable data

- Difficulty in identifying appropriate functional equivalents

- Missing variables

- Keeping an adequate sensitivity towards the different historical and cultural contexts

Comparison

- Two or less than five countries (primarily qualitative)

- Large number of countries (primarily quantitative)

- Can be two different time periods of the same region or country

- Large N studies: few quantifiable variables

- Small N studies: variables + contexts

- Countries are usually the unit of analysis

- But sometimes, countries are too big and other times too small for analysis

- Impact of Catholicism or caste on social policy

- Sub-national or supra-national

- Sometimes studies are not comparative even when have data from several countries

- Books with different chapters looking at same/different variable in different countries

Growth of comparative social policy

- Until the late 1970s, not many books on the subject

- Methodological issues

- Primarily Western countries

- Comparative studies of welfare policies

- In the 1980s, a new addition

- Studying the impact of social policy on particular groups

- Or particular problems

- Better data sets and more computational power helped

- Textbooks and courses on comparative social policy in the 1990s

Vigorous debates on methodological and epistemological issues
Which group of countries? Which method? Why a certain definition?

Topic 248-249: Globalization, Human Security and Social Policy: North and South-I-II

Globalization and human security linked

9/11 attacks and ISIS

Great Recession (2008-09)

Bird-flu, Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), Ebola virus, and mad-cow disease

The capacity of the state to ensure human security have been limited

Until the 17th century, medieval empires and kingdoms were the most common form of state.

Modern state was different in many ways:

Centralization

Single law

Single economy

Nationalism

David Gross: Institutionalization of the modern state came to represent specialization of time and experience

Time and experience both linked to territory

What are the things that come to your mind when you think of

1960s

1970s

1980s

1990s

2000s

Our local experiences & thoughts have become unimportant

State: a synchronizer of social expectations and social experiences

dxu"t u' -s"q'ys" 'q'u"u'—.t.ut " '-u—u "t u' q.t. ' b€"y"q'—s'uq'ut"—u—u "t u' q.t. '3' aspirations and memories. Idea that democratic state would increase security challenged. Ruthless capitalism, disconnect between global elite and people, media and information control of global elite resulting in controlled democracies.

The modern democratic state was a product of centuries of Western European history. However, it was imposed/adopted as a normative model on the rest of the world. This transplantation resulted in the acceptance of the nation-state system.

It became cognitive models defining the nature, purpose, and objectives of a good state. Most developing countries (the South) are product of very different historical dynamic than that of Western Europe. Even Eastern Europe, the closest neighbor, has a different history. Most states in the South could not regulate/control social relations. After two centuries of independence, state power in Latin America appears intermittently outside the big cities.

In Africa, state is weaker. In South Asia, the weakness of the state is visible in varieties of ethnic, caste and religious conflict. Low regulatory capacity of state and the normative model resulted in two types of social policy systems.

In clientelistic welfare systems, social policies are designed and implemented keeping in view powers of different social groups

Residual welfare systems were developed where even the basic legal, bureaucratic and political capacity was absent

In these societies, state is primarily coercive and have not much interest in improving the system for most of the people

Neo-patrimonial societies: The aim is to maintain the status quo with minimal costs

In both the North and the South, globalization is a threat to human security

In the North

Low and sticky wages

Fluidity of capital

Erosion of welfare state

Political instability and populism

In the South

Neo-liberal reforms

Fiscal and current account deficits

Increased awareness and expectations

Fluidity of capital

Differences in effects of globalization important

Topic 250: Social Development and Social Welfare: Implications for Comparative Social Policy-I

As discussed, mainstream comparative social policy inquiry has neglected normative concerns

Normative concerns are implicit, primarily Western European

New normative frameworks to deal with the South

Knowledge of indigenous social welfare perspectives studied and used

Social Development approach, promoted by international bodies

Ignored by the academia

Writings among comparative social policy in southern context increasing since the 1990s

Construction of welfare taxonomies: major preoccupation

Also explanatory theory: Why more welfare and why less? Why certain policies?

Trying to understand South through the Western constructs, e.g. East Asian welfare states
Role of an authoritarian state providing social welfare is difficult to accept in Western scholarship

Role of Western imperialism ignored or deemphasized
Boundaries in Africa and civil wars are directly linked
And civil wars result in the destruction of all types of social welfare
As Feminist perspective has shown, general focus on social welfare hides as much as it reveals
Women contribution to social welfare is not acknowledged
Similar is the case of religious organizations that the West does not like
Madrassas or shrines do not regularly appear in western scholarship

Lesson 42GLOBALIZATION AND SOCIAL POLICY-II
(Topic 251-255)Topic 251: Social Development & Social Welfare: Implications For Comparative Social Policy

Social welfarism in the North, nationalism and independence in the South after WWII. After independence, modernization and development begin usually state-led. Some support from the North through money and technical assistance, poverty, illiteracy and ill health was the rule. Colonialists benefitted only a small portion.

Industrialization necessary, Soviet example of rapid industrialization

- 5-year plans

- Limited welfare services introduced

- Social development: the linking of social welfare with a strong commitment to economic development

- UN assumed the leadership of the effort

- Initially, social work and community development

- Later, also macro-economic fundamentals

- Central planning agencies in the 1960s

- Planning Commission

- 1980s, neo-liberal ideology

- Social welfare services retrenched and social budgets curtailed

- A new approach to social development

- Aid providers, consultants and NGOs

- State declared detrimental to welfare

The 1990s saw a shift from social to human development (HDI). World Summit for Social Development in 1995 and 2000: MDGs. Eight goals and plan of action

2010 meeting: progress in East Asia and China but many goals missed in Africa and South Asia

- Sustainable Development Goals

- Different

- All countries

- Sustainability

Extensive

SDGs are now the goals for the world
Five years passed
Pakistan is still behind in many areas, especially education and health

Topic 252-253: Social Policy Regimes in the Developing World-I-II

Analyze social policies in the South. Using not the Western framework. But by developing a variegated middle-range model it avoids both over-generalization and over-specificity. Adopt a regime approach which is based on historical-institutional school of social research. This

First, a look at welfare regime model

Then, two alternative ideal-type models are devised and discussed

An informal security regime

An insecurity regime

Welfare regimes

Different patterns of state, market and household forms of social provision

Different welfare outcomes, assessed according to the degree to which labor is
t u-commoditized "–"xyut ut "v–' " q"éu"v–'su"

Esping-Andersen identifies three welfare regimes in advanced democratic capitalist countries

Liberal,

Conservative-corporatist

Social-democratic

Criticism of the model

Only three types and allocation of countries

Different stratification outcomes

Class analysis focused, ignores other sources of stratification such as religion, caste, race, ethnicity and gender

Emphasis on de-commodification (insulation from market forces) overlooks other components of well-being, such as autonomy and need satisfaction

Focusing on domestic institutions and coalitions it overlooks the role of the global political economy and supranational institutions

This criticism has forced modification of this approach even for OECD

The new framework is required

Informal Security Regime
 Dominant form not capitalist
 Exclusion and coercion
 Livelihoods, not labor market
 Political mobilization takes different forms
 Race, religion, class
 States are weakly differentiated from neighboring systems
 Welfare mix is informal
 De-co modification even less suitable
 Economic behavior is not commoditized
 Path dependency more applicable
 Social policy has limited effect on behavior

Topic 254-255: Crossing Cultural Boundaries-I-II

Problems of cross-cultural research and cross- cultural collaboration in Europe. Johan Galtung
 yt u. 'yyut "x'uu't —' y. q. ." y. 'u•us '€q•" "'•u' "-v'u' uq'sx'y. 'P€"—u. Saxon, Teutonic and Gallic
 Based on four sets of tasks

- Exploration of paradigms (what kinds of phenomena exist)
- Empirical tasks (how to describe phenomena)
- Theoretical tasks (looking for explanations)
- Review the work of other intellectuals

Saxon style is empirical: strong on data collection but weaker on the philosophical basis and theory formation

Teutonic and Gallic intellectual styles are more cerebral and philosophical

Within Saxon differences

Americans like large-N studies and statistical analysis

British emphasize small-N case studies, ideographic history and social anthropology

Teutonic style focuses on derivation and repatriation

For Gallic style, expression is as important as content

The division is exaggerated but focuses on significant differences in research cultures, even within Europe

Prior to the 1990s, it was difficult to research in East-West European teams due to ideological differences

Even neighboring Western European states have different research cultures such as British vs. French

State-protected French research environment is different from the competitive liberal environment of the US

If researchers are civil servants, there is no incentive to disseminate research or even to do it, though it gives more independence from dominant paradigms. British/Americans: publish or perish

Applied, policy-oriented research rather than theoretical

Many of research problems might be avoided if members of international research teams were more explicit about their culturally and linguistically determined assumptions and mindsets

Some evidence of empirical and cultural approaches from the Saxonic realms

Looking for general among particular

Cerebral styles: more societal and political economy analysis

Actors cannot be separated from structures

Societal analysis particularly useful for cross-national comparisons in social policy

Large-scale correlational approach was progressively declining in favour of cross-national case studies

Difficulty in multi-dimensional statistical modeling of complex social welfare systems

More recently, interest in the case study approach has increased because of path dependency concept

Jörg Sydow, Georg Schreyögg, Jochen Koch (2009)

Language barriers in research

Saxonics have enormous advantage: lingua franca

Saxonics research culture is increasingly being adopted by the Nordic states, the Netherlands, and Portugal

Publication ratings and impact factor biased towards Anglo-American English-language literature

In social science disciplines, however, English speakers are at a disadvantage

They tend to believe that the concepts transmitted through English are universally understood which is not true

Researching other cultures in English leaves many important things as everything cannot be translated

Selecting countries for cross-cultural analysis

In European Research Area, countries primarily selected for pragmatic rather than scientific reasons

The number and mix of countries and the variables selected have several consequences for the research process and for the findings

From the object under observation affects the way it is observed

Long distance perspective: description and snapshot

Close-up comparisons: detail, context, differences

Research and policy

British: policy dimension required

French: independence

Lesson 43

**GOVERNANCE ISSUES HAMPERING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL
POLICY-I
(Topic 256-261)**

Topic 256-257: Structured Diversity: A Framework for Critically Comparing Welfare States-I-II

There are three broad approaches to comparing welfare states, all of which are useful for critical comparison

- Functionalism
- Path dependency and
- Regime analysis

Functionalism suggests that there are strong socioeconomic forces or structures that control the development of welfare states. These forces are generally hostile to social justice and equality. E.g. class, patriarchy and supremacism. Path dependency is based on the idea that welfare states are formed because of particular historical and institutional forces. E.g labor rights and women liberation social movements. buw' u"q.q'“'y"/-'“'xu" —►u'“'u'—€'su' "q——qsx0'y"vq'“" somewhere between functionalism and path dependency. It differentiates between different models of welfare capitalism.

c "€s'€'ut "t y,u"x'y" " ' uq.:" q" s'yysq" s—' —q'y—.'—v' ►u•vq'u" ' 'q'u' 3' t "q►y.w"—.'! q••' 'x'uu" approaches. g u•vq'u" 'q'u"►q' "q.t."y"q"►q'“"—" ywq'u"xu"uvus"—v" ' "€s'€'u' "that control our lives. Structures of class, race, gender, etc.

Some scholars/ analysts argue that the effects of class, race, and gender have been erased because of social welfare but these structures are still strong and influence.

Class

Class is difficult to define unlike race or gender

It is also linked with Marxism which makes people and governments uncomfortable talking about class differences

There are no laws that specifically address class domination

But class is important in academic research

Most de-commodification is countries where labor movement is strong

Two different meaning of class in class analysis
 Poor and lower income groups
 Structured socioeconomic inequality
 Income inequality the basis of class

Those with more progressive tax systems and generous social welfare systems have lower income inequality
 Progressive taxation and welfare systems are linked
Gender issues have been discussed at length and its link with social policy has also been analyzed

Welfare states decrease unjust gender differences by
 Giving women access to formal welfare
 Paying them for their role in social welfare
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 protection from violence & child maintenance
 Feminism focuses on the welfare interests of women in two different areas
 g - ' u . . : " q € ' - . . : ' " " q ' y . t . y , y t € q • "
 Transforming patriarchy in the family
 M - ' x " u s - . . : ' y s " q . t . " r - t y " " q € ' - . . : ' " " q ' u " . u s u ' ' q ' " "
 Gender autonomization is the capacity to form and maintain an autonomous
 x - € ' u x - • t "
 Gender autonomization, in the liberal states, is severely constrained by the
 marketization of services and the absence of adequate care rights
 De-familization: the extent to which state provision of services to mothers and
 other family members
 The diversity of the welfare states can also be seen in ways they have moved
 away from preferring the male breadwinner model
 The liberal, Anglophone states, policy has encouraged private and occupational
 measures that have reinforced class inequalities, while at the same time moving

more slowly towards gender symmetry as compared to Nordic and social democratic states

Race

The role of social policy in both furthering and mitigating racial and ethnic divisions is evidently a hugely significant

European colonialism and the slave trade were the reasons previously but what is the situation now

Many anti-racism movements

To defeat US segregation, Nazi anti-Semitism and South African apartheid

Diversity of racisms creates enormous difficulties in trying to develop cross-national analysis

Race vs. ethnicity

Immigration policies

Policies related to work and pay

Policies related to ability to live freely

Educational policies

Reparations?

M²-►... 'y' "xu". u►" M_qsé

Brown and East Asian discriminated more

Which minority group to benefit: Admission in elite universities

Topic 258: Fiscal Issues: Center vs. Provinces

Fiscal policy is deliberate changes in government revenue collection and expenditure to achieve desired objectives

Monetary policy is focused on changing money supply or interest rates to achieve w₋,u²... u... ' " -r as 'y,u²"

Changes in government spending and taxation can have a significant impact on the economy

Three type of changes

Level

Timing

Composition of changes

Data & figures from Economic Survey and Budget-in-Brief, pub by GoP

Article 160 of the Constitution a National Finance Commission (NFC) has to established after every five years (of before) to make decisions about the distribution of resources between the Federal and Provincial Governments

Consensus required so NFC Award usually delayed

Year	Provincial Share
1997 Award	62.5%
2009-10	50%
2010-11	56%
2011-12	57.5%

<u>Year</u>	<u>Provincial Share</u>
<u>1997 Award</u>	<u>62.5%</u>
<u>2009-10</u>	<u>50%</u>
<u>2010-11</u>	<u>56%</u>
<u>2011-12</u>	<u>57.5%</u>

Two types of transfers from Federal Government to provinces

Share from divisible pool of taxes

Straight transfers

Issues

What should be in divisible pool of taxes

How it should be divided?

Grants and anti-terrorism?

Straight transfers: unjust to some provinces

Topic 259: Fiscal Issues: Priority Areas (Health, Education and Infrastructure)

Objectives of Government expenditure

Provision of Public and Merit Goods

Provision of Social Security

Regulation/Level of Economic Activity

Improving the Efficiency of Allocation of Resources

First, analyze federal budget expenditure

dxu. 3] €. xqr 'r Et wu'u' -u. t.y€'u

Clarify where the functions and priorities are

From Federal Budget-in-Brief

Pictures and tables from the latest Annual Budget Statement of Punjab (2019-2020)

ABS is a constitutional requirement

It gives details of both revenues and expenditures

Topic 260: Fiscal Issues: Current vs. Development Expenditure

Government expenditure is spending by the public sector i.e. expenditure by the central, provincial and local government and any loans or grants to the nationalized industries. Examples: Defense expenditure, BISP, loans to Steel Mills, grant to Ganga Ram Hospital or Citizen Foundation, etc.

Three types of expenditures

Current Expenditure

Development Expenditure

Capital Expenditure

Current Expenditure: It is the spending on the day- to-day running of the public services e.g.

duqsxu" "-q"

Roads buildings repair and maintenance

Purchase of medicines

Ny,yqyq."q.t."Y yqyq""-wysu" "-q"

Utility bills

Development Expenditure: It is spending to jumpstart the economy. It primarily consists of development projects

Most of it is capital expenditure

Capital Expenditure: This is spending on the infrastructure and includes e.g. spending on new hospitals new schools and roads

Nq-yq•'u' -u.t.y€'u'qt t " "-xu"s-€..."" 'sq-yq•'q' 'u'

Topic 261: Bureaucratic Issues: Federal Bureaucracy vs. Provincial Bureaucracy

Pakistan: A federation, one federal government and four provincial governments. Federal bureaucracy and four provincial bureaucracies.

Article 240: **Appointments to service of Pakistan and conditions of service**

Subject to the Constitution, the appointments to and the conditions of service of persons in the service of Pakistan shall be determined-

(a) in the case of the services of the Federation, posts in connection with the affairs of the Federation and All-Pakistan Services, by or under Act of Majlis-e-Shoora (Parliament); and

(b) in the case of the services of a Province and posts in connection with the affairs of a Province, by or under Act of the Provincial Assembly.

From colonial times, central bureaucracy is predominant

In colonial times, most of the federal/central bureaucrats were British and most of the provincial bureaucrats were Indians

Federal bureaucracy

Recruitment

Federal Public Service Commission (FPSC)

Central Superior Services (CSS) examination

Others by FPSC

Basic Pay Scale (BPS): 1-22

Previously grades

Types

CSS

Professional

Clerical and lower staff

CSS groups

Pakistan Customs Services, Pakistan Administrative Service, Police Service of Pakistan, Foreign Service of Pakistan,
Inland Revenue Service of Pakistan, Commerce & Trade Group, Information Services of Pakistan, Military Lands & Cantonment Group, Office Management Group, Pakistan Audit and Accounts Service, Postal Group, Railways Group

Professional

Doctors, engineers, professors

Provincial bureaucracy

Recruitment

Provincial Public Service Commission (such as PPSC)

Provincial Services: PCS examination

Others by PPSC

Others

Basic Pay Scale (BPS): 1-22

Previously grades

Types

PMS/PCS

Professional

Clerical and lower staff

PAS dominates everywhere

Almost 90% of the Secretaries of the Ministries

Most of the additional secretaries in the ministries

All Chief Secretaries

Almost all provincial secretaries

Around half or more of the additional provincial secretaries

Around 90% of commissioners and deputy commissioners

Control of Establishment Division and Services and General Administration Departments (S&GAD)

Establishment Division manages promotions and transfers of most higher level bureaucrats

S&GAD same job at provincial level

Provincial bureaucrats also start at BPS 17 but retire in 20 or 21

Most of the other federal services, except PAS, also retire at 20 or 21

So, the top jobs are always with the PAS

Resentment at the provincial level

Of and on strike calls

Cases in the High courts and Supreme Court

PAS has access to courts also

Previously some became judges

Now, registrars

Power of the PAS

Local Government Ordinance, 2001 reversed

Balochistan A & B areas division reversed

Local Government Ordinance, 2001 reversed

Balochistan A & B areas division reversed

Lesson 44

**GOVERNANCE ISSUES HAMPERING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL
POLICY-II
(Topic 262-267)**

Topic 262: Bureaucratic Issues: Provincial Bureaucracy vs. Department Employees

Division between provincial bureaucracy (PCS/PMS) and departmental employees. Many departments, sometimes, through PPSC, recruit officers. These officers are in competition with federal/provincial bureaucracy.

Irrigation Department

Civil engineers as sub-divisional officers that later become chief engineers
However, they rarely become deputy secretary, additional secretary and secretary
Irrigation Department
Health Department
Doctors (Principals of medical colleges, Medical superintendent of hospitals)

Health Department

However, they rarely become deputy secretary, additional secretary and secretary
Health Department
Education Department
Lecturers and Assistant Professors (Principals and Vice Chancellors)
But rarely become deputy secretary, additional secretary and secretary Education
Department

Local Government and Community Development Department

Engineers and architects, town planners
However, they rarely become deputy secretary, additional secretary and secretary
local government Department

Planning & Development Deptt

Planning officers (later chief of different sectors)
However, they rarely become deputy secretary, additional secretary and secretary
Planning & Development Department
Excise and Taxation Deptt
E&T officers through PPSC

Almost all departments hire lower grade and BPS-17 officers

Lower grade do not have an issue

PCS/PMS also start at BPS 17 and departmental employees also start at 17

Most departments clear division

Policy work by provincial employees
Field work by departmental employees
Issues
Promotions and transfers controlled by those sitting in Lahore

Field knowledge with departmental employees that does not translate to policy

Issues

As promotion becomes less of a concern, other considerations take over
Politics within the department creates inefficiency and ineffectiveness

Topic 263: Bureaucratic Issues: Technical vs. Generalists

Corresponding issue is the division between generalists and technical experts
Difference in management philosophy
Broad vs. Focused
Is management a separate expertise?
Can technical experts learn management late in their careers?
Is finance and marketing similar to management or different?
British legacy: well-rounded individuals
Groomed in public schools about national ethos and patriotism
Learnt Latin and read Classics and other literature, history and politics to understand human nature

Rest of the learning on job and from seniors and situations. Technical experts can deal with machines effectively but not humans. Whole civil service is based on this philosophy. Generalists are to lead. Politicians are also generalists and they lead so why cannot civil servants? In the later half of the 20th century a change in philosophy. Rise of technical experts. Importance of long expertise. Management is easy to learn rather than engineering or medicine at 40+ age. Technical experts are managing people from the start. Division of policy and technical expertise leads to ineffectiveness and inefficiency.] qéý 'q... 'u' -u'yu.su" ý" 'xu" '€•u" -v" generalists. Initially, generalists of Indian Civil Service, who became part of Pakistan Civil Service (PCS) controlled everything. PCS then changed to District Management Group (DMG) and now to Pakistan Administrative Service (PAS) to keep control on power (Brahmins). Technical experts remained in their position of lower castes.

Since the 1980s, PAS officers have been seeing stiff competition from another generalist group

Army officers

They have not become Secretaries or lower officers (except in M/o Defense) but have become head of a variety of government organizations

WAPDA, CAA, FPSC, PPSC, VC of universities, heads of national sports bodies,

Supreme Court decisions in favor of technical expertise

Tussle continuing

Topic 264: Bureaucratic Issues: Government Policies vs. Donor Priorities

Donors playing a major role y.'] qéý 'q... 't usý y-.-making since the 1960s.

Some interventions in the 1950s

Ford Foundation: Harvard Advisory Group in the 1960s

Since the 1950s, the IMF has played a major role

December 1958 after martial law

1965 and 1968: even when Pakistan was growing a very high rate

WB: Indus Water Treaty, 1960
 In the 1970s, bilateral instead of multilateral
 Russia
 China
 Arab
 Since the 1980s, donors have become regular and big players
 USAID, World Bank, IMF, DFID, ADB, CIDA, JICA, Scandinavian bilateral development agencies
 From Muslim countries: Saudi Arabia, UAE, Libya, Islamic Development Bank
 USAID: based on bilateral relationship
 World Bank and ADB: major donors, more than one billion dollars
 IMF: short-term, focused
 CIDA, Scandinavian bilateral development agencies: small, gender and rights issues
 Muslim countries: no policy prescriptions
 Benefits of donors
 Creation of fiscal space
 Technical expertise
 Administrative expertise
 Support for inclusive development (children, ethnic minorities)
 Support for marginalized groups (women, religious minorities)
 Foreign exchange
 Disadvantages
 No local ownership as donors impose their priorities
 One sector, many donors (lack of coordination)
 Dependency syndrome
 Favorite sectors vs. necessary sectors
 O—...” “—q.‘. and aims change
 To get foreign exchange, useless projects
 Debt burden

Topic 265: Bureaucratic Issues: Department vs. Authorities

When Pakistan became independent, government structure was simple
 There are ministries in the federal government and departments in the provincial governments
 Some of the ministries and departments had attached departments
 Gradually, two problems were realized, autonomy required
 Diverse situations, timely action
 Operating in the market
 Autonomous bodies
 How autonomous bodies are different?
 100% ownership
 Financial rules
 HR rules
 Profit distribution, expansion, bonuses, etc. beyond a certain level
 Posts & Telegraph Department (1949)
 Pakistan Telephone & Telegraph Department (1962)

Pakistan Telecommunication Corporation Act (1991)

Pakistan Telecommunication (Reorganization) Act and Telecommunication Company Limited (1996)

Later, it was realized that even autonomous bodies are also not good enough

More autonomy

Companies under Companies Act (1984, 2017)

Private companies

Two types

100% owned but governed by a board

With a majority share, traded on stock market

Nothing wrong per se

However, some government officers used them to milk the state

Supreme court action

Good- some correction was required

Bad- some good companies and people were also criticized

Now, the whole model is under a cloud

Social Welfare Department vs. Social Protection Authority

Topic 266-267: Cultural Issues-I-II

Difficult to define culture: beliefs and culture, art, music, literature and culture, performances, plays, movies and culture. Language and culture, Greetings, manners and culture, geography and culture, family and culture, food and culture, Games, leisure, enjoyment and culture, dressing, fashion and culture, holidays, festivals and culture, helps define culture and is itself affected by culture.

The more things added to culture, the more difficult to identify its impact

However, if it is limited to religion, clothing, manners, family, literature, fashion, then its true impact is not found

Economists try to measure things

N€‘-’ q’“r u•yuv ‘q. t. „,q•Eu‘ “xq”u’x. ys3”u•wy-€‘3q. t. “-syq•w”-€-“”q. .’ y”\qy”•“
 €. sxq. wut ‘V’-’ “wu. u”q’y-..!”-“wu. u”q’y-...”/S €y-3c q-yu...q”q. t. ‘j y. wq•u‘3977A0’

Second problem: Culture is changing

It is sometimes defined as something that are permanent

Pakistani culture in the 1960s or 1970s, same as now?

Third problem: Culture is mostly defined as national but most of the time it is not

Where are the boundaries?

Pakistani culture or Sindhi culture?

European culture?

Islamic culture? Or fifty Muslim cultures?

Does culture affect development and social welfare? Yes, although defining culture is difficult.

Defining development is again difficult as we will see in green social policy modules

Culture affects role of women in the community

Culture affects which groups are considered entitled of social welfare and who is a moocher, a parasite?

Children

Old people

Disabled

Poor people

Drug addicts

Culture affects the definition of poverty

Culture affects acceptance of rule of law

Culture affects how much one values education and hygiene

Culture affects the relationships and the number of children we have

Culture affects how ambitious we are?

Culture affects how your own group is identified? Pakistani, Muslim or Pakhtun

But do rich and poor in Pakistan have different cultures?

If yes, who has the true Pakistani culture?

Do we adopt a different culture as we cross motorway toll plaza?

Culture is not very useful explanation

Lesson 45**GREEN SOCIAL POLICY**
(Topic 268-273)**Topic 268: Green Thinking and Social Policy**

- What social policy has to do with the environment?
- Is traditional social policy part of the problem for environment?
- People have started thinking about a sustainable social policy
 - Green, organic and sustainable living was a reality before industrial revolution
 - Most people ate organic food, did not use fossil fuels and had no carbon footprint
- Industrial revolution changed humans and their living
- Benefits
 - Less poverty
 - Less hunger
 - More education & health
 - Longer lives
 - More leisure
 - More human rights
 - In the 1970s, realization of the coming environmental catastrophe
- Problem
 - The Earth has finite (physical) resources
 - Yet humanity is using those resources at an unsustainable rate
 - Humans are producing huge amounts of toxic waste, which is further degrading 'xu"-q.u' '""u'-e'su'
 - More and more obvious that the Western growth model of increasing rates of production and consumption is unsustainable
 - The problem is compounded by the adoption of same model by the developing world (China & India)
- There are limits to economic growth
 - Age of accelerating industrialization
 - Rapid growth of the global population
 - Western living style
 - Fast depletion of non-renewable natural resources
 - Deteriorating environment
 - Debate between the developed and developing countries
 - Climate change is the biggest threat
 - And the window to stop it is closing fast

Topic 269: Is Current Social Welfare Against Environment?

- Social welfare and environment catastrophe are linked
- Three things
 - The current conception of welfare and welfare solutions leads to environmental problems
 - Traditional welfare provision has to be decreased

Greener social welfare policies have to be adopted
 Discuss in detail the problem of welfare thesis
 Welfare solutions are generally consumption-oriented
 Poverty: More consumption
 Maintain standard of living
 How to measure poverty? Basket of goods
 TV, washing machine, toilet, etc.?
 1960s Britain and current Britain
 Relative and absolute poverty
 Welfare means goods so more welfare means more goods
 Problematic: more production and more consumption
 Energy used per capita: mark of development
 Will a greener policy mean less welfare?
 Depends on the definition of welfare
 Current definition: yes
 Environmentalists want change but
 Should poor not allowed to have car, TV, vacations?
 Should we stop it for everyone?
 Maybe market can do it?
 Without water, electricity?
 Diminishing welfare is by no means universally, or even widely, accepted. Bringing welfare and environment closer: recycling, bio fuels. Issues of fairness and justice (can we stop poor and developing world?)

Topic 270: Green Theory

New welfare settlement
 Away from productivity and consumption oriented models
 Growth but slower and sustainable
 Start with the Western world
 Maybe new welfare will increase emotional, social and psychological development that is severely damaged by the pursuit of economic growth. New theory and thinking, Green Theory and green social theory
 Green Theory
 Environmental disasters will affect us all
 Depletion of resources will affect us all
 Future generations will suffer if we do not change
 More acceptability of greens (environmentalists) but not united
Light greens and dark greens
 Light greens
 Growth and green
 Growth comes first
 No radical solutions
 Reducing consumption: Western luxury
 Pro-business: green entrepreneurs
 Dark greens

Light greens: delay but not avert catastrophe
 Prioritize nature over humankind
 Population growth: forced reduction or allow nature?
 Minimalism and go local

Another way to divide greens

Free-market environmentalists (allow the market, fossil fuel taxes, etc.
 Environmental pragmatists, govts work and apply minimal force
 Environmental radicals, do what's necessary

Topic 271: Green Social Policy: Transport

Without deciding what is essential for human survival and dignity, social policy and sustainability cannot planned

What is clear is the need of change

Current consumer society cannot survive a more ecological world

What is not clear is what to change, what to change first, and the rate of change

The foundations of a green social policy can be:

A basic (citiz... '0y s-' uF

Decentralized and deregulated communities;

Redefining of freedom.

Three areas of concern

Transport

Food

Work

Transport direct impact on Climate change

Usage of fossil fuels

Greenhouse gases

Rise in temperature

Automobiles increasing all over the world
 For many households, now two cars are essential
 Great utility for men, women, children, disabled, old people
 But more CO₂, more roads, more accidents, less walking & cycling, health issues,
 ‘y’y.w”xu”.u▶”’ –éy.w
 Sea and air travel also increased

Topic 272: Green Social Policy: Food

World population 7.7 billion now and likely to be around 11 billion in 2100
 The rate of increase in population is declining but overall population is increasing
 How to feed all these people?

UNICEF estimates: Around 800 million children are undernourished and 2 billion have poor diets, and most of these children are in countries that are least able to feed themselves

Population control?

Genetically-modified food and animals?

Cash crop vs. Food crops

Overconsumption on one hand, starvation on the other

Food subsidies in the West

Destroy food or destroy poor farmers

Unhealthy diets

To maintain lifestyle

Longer working hours, dual-earner households and greater commuting to work

Less home-cooked food

Intensive farming

More food but also more food diseases

Food distribution:

Epidemics not because of non-availability of food

Costly

Supermarkets: not local

Refrigeration: climate change effects

Food miles and food deserts

Topic 273: Green Social Policy: Work

Work is perhaps the most critical area

Greens: core problem is the obsession with production and consumption

Work outside home that has monetary value is considered work

If 10 women are sitting in a circle with their own babies on their laps. That is not work

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Now that is work

Discussed how to decrease informal economy

Informal economy is important and should not be erased

Friends and family may decrease the need of doctors and medicine

Increase in anti-social behavior of the youth has links with the decrease in mothers at home?

Primary way of decreasing social exclusion and improving welfare is paid work?

The story of a Mexican fisherman and Harvard MBA

John sees a Mexican fisherman relaxing and ask him about his work and why he is relaxing

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Maria, and each evening I sip wine and play guitar with my amigos. I have a full and busy life,
'u.:-'5

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