

CHRI 2015

POLICE ORGANISATION IN INDIA



CHRI
Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative

Working for the practical realisation of human rights
in the countries of the Commonwealth

Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative

The Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative (CHRI) is an independent, non-partisan, international non-governmental organisation, mandated to ensure the *practical* realisation of human rights in the countries of the Commonwealth. In 1987, several Commonwealth professional associations founded CHRI. They believed that while the Commonwealth provided member countries a shared set of values and legal principles from which to work and provided a forum within which to promote human rights, there was little focus on the issues of human rights within the Commonwealth.

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Police Organisation in India

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CHRI would like to thank Kamal Kumar for his valuable inputs

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Contents

FOREWORD	viii
I. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Political Profile	1
1.2 Legislative Powers	1
1.3 The Criminal Justice System	2
1.3.1 Citizens' Rights under the Constitution	2
1.3.2 Criminal Law	3
1.3.3 The Process of Criminal Justice	4
1.3.4 The Courts	5
II. STATE POLICE FORCES	6
2.1. Unity in Diversity	6
2.2 Superintendence over the Police	6
2.3 The Police Hierarchy	7
2.3.1 Rank Structure	7
2.3.2 Rank-Wise Strength in State Police Forces	7
2.3.3 Badges of Rank	9
2.3.4 Police Medals	10
2.4. Police Strength	11
2.4.1 Police Strength in states/UTs	11
2.4.2 Police-Population and Area Ratio	13
2.4.3 Increase in Police Manpower	13
2.4.4 Representation of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Muslims in State Police Forces	14
2.4.5 Women Police in the states and union territories	15
2.4.5.1 Strength of Women Police in the states and union territories	15
2.4.5.2 Increase in Women Police	16
2.4.5.3 Rank-wise Increase in the Strength of Women Police in the Force	17
2.5 Organisational Structure	18
2.5.1 Field Establishment	18
2.5.1.1 Units	18
2.5.1.2 The District Police	19
2.5.1.2.1 Branches in the Office of the District Superintendent of Police	19
2.5.1.2.2. Police Lines	19
2.5.1.2.3 District Police Officers	19
2.5.1.2.4 Duties of the District Superintendent of Police	20
2.5.1.2.5 System of Dual Control at the District Level	20
2.5.1.2.6 The Police Commissioner System	21

2.5.1.2.7	The District Armed Reserve	23
2.5.1.2.8	The Police Station	23
2.5.1.2.8.1	The Number of Police Stations	24
2.5.1.2.8.2	Women Police Stations in the states/ union territories	24
2.5.1.2.8.3	Police Station Roles and Functions	25
2.5.1.2.8.4	Police Station Functionaries: Their Strength and Duties	25
2.5.1.2.8.5	Police Station Records	28
2.5.2	Police Headquarters	29
2.5.2.1	Role and Responsibilities of the Police Headquarters	30
2.5.2.2	Selection and Tenure of the Head of the Police Force	30
2.5.2.3	Departments/ Branches at Police Headquarters	31
2.5.2.3.1	The Criminal Investigation Department	31
2.5.2.3.2	The Intelligence Department	32
2.5.2.3.3	The Armed Police	32
2.5.2.3.4	The Railway Police	33
2.5.2.3.5	The State Crime Records Bureau	33
2.5.2.3.6	The Training Directorate	34
2.5.2.3.7	The Anti- Terrorism Squad/ Cell	34
2.5.2.3.8	The Police Establishment Board	34
2.6.	Duties and Responsibilities of the Police	35
2.6.1	As Laid Down in the Police Act, 1861	35
2.6.2	The National Police Commission	36
2.6.3	The Sorabjee Committee's Recommendations	36
2.6.4	Code of Conduct for the Police	37
2.6.5	Code of Behaviour for Police Officers	38
2.6.	Recruitment	40
2.6.1	Recruitment of Constables	41
2.6.2	Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors of Police	44
2.6.3	Recruitment of Deputy Superintendent of Police	46
2.6.4	Recruitment to the Indian Police Service (IPS)	47
2.7	Police Training	48
2.7.1	Training of Constables	48
2.7.2	Training of Sub-Inspectors	49
2.7.3	Training of IPS Officers	50
2.7.4	Pre-Promotion Courses	51
2.7.5	Refresher/Specialised Courses	51
2.7.6	Some Central Police Training Institutions	52
2.7.7	Expenditure on Police Training	53
2.8	Police Expenditure in the states and union territories	54
2.8.1	State Budgets and Expenditure on Police	54
2.8.2	Annual Increase in Police Expenditure	55

III. FORENSIC SCIENCE IN INDIA	57
3.1 Important Historical Landmarks	57
3.2 Forensic Science Laboratories in the States	57
3.3 Forensic Science Laboratories under the Centre	58
IV. THE CENTRE'S ROLE IN POLICING	59
4.1 Constitutional Provisions	59
4.2 The Role of the Ministry of Home Affairs	59
4.3 The Indian Police Service	60
4.4 Central Police Organisations (CPOs)	61
4.4.1 Central Armed Police Forces (CAPFs)	61
4.4.1.1 The Assam Rifles	62
4.4.1.2 The Border Security Force	63
4.4.1.3 The Central Industrial Security Force	65
4.4.1.4 The Central Reserve Police Force	66
4.4.1.5 The Indo-Tibetan Border Police	68
4.4.1.6 The National Security Guards	69
4.4.1.7 The Sashatra Seema Bal	69
4.4.1.8 The Growth of CAPFs	70
4.4.1.9 Women in CAPFs	71
4.4.1.10. Expenditure on CAPFs	71
4.4.1.11. Establishment of the India Reserve Battalions	72
4.4.2 Other Central Police Organisations	72
4.4.2.1 The Bureau of Police Research and Development	72
4.4.2.2 The Central Bureau of Investigation	73
4.4.2.3 The Directorate of Coordination, Police Wireless	75
4.4.2.4 The Intelligence Bureau	76
4.4.2.5 The National Crime Records Bureau	77
4.4.2.6 The Lok Nayak Jayapraksh Narayan National Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science	78
4.4.2.7 The National Investigation Agency	79
4.4.2.8 The Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel National Police Academy	80
V. SCHEME TO MODERNISE THE STATE POLICE FORCES	82
5.1 The Objectives of the Scheme	82
5.2 Brief History	82
5.3 Deficiencies/ Shortcomings	84
5.4 Summing Up	85
VI. Annexure First Information Report of a Cognizable Crime Reported Under Section 154 Code of Criminal Procedure	

FOREWORD

While the police is the most visible arm of the state, the public has little knowledge about the internal structure and organisation of the various police forces – state and central – in India. Most people do not know how the police is organised, staffed, governed, financed and run; or the differences between police organisations in size, scope and mandate. This lack of knowledge not only reinforces the large gulf between the public and police, it also makes it all the more difficult for the ordinary citizen to hold the police accountable.

To fill this information gap, the Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative (CHRI) published the first edition of this booklet, *Police Organisation in India: Some Basic Information* in 2002. Our intent was to provide an accessible and comprehensive resource to explain all aspects of police structure and organisation, such as rank structure and duties, the internal hierarchy, recruitment, training, supervision and budgets, among others, for both state and central police forces. Since 2002, there have been many new developments and changes in most of these areas, within and across police forces. Thirteen years on, CHRI has updated the booklet to reflect the changes that have taken place. While largely modelled on the first edition, this new 2015 edition of *Police Organisation in India* contains a vast amount of additional information to provide a richer and even more comprehensive resource.

There is no question that the amount of information available has also improved since 2002. Transparency is now the norm. With the passing of the Right to Information Act in 2005, there is a statutory duty on all public authorities to routinely and proactively publish authentic, useful and relevant information on their structure, functioning and decision-making. The police too, is required to make this information available through a wide variety of methods and in local languages. While this has certainly prompted efforts by police departments to make basic information on organisation and structure more readily available, there is still an information deficit and a need for this resource.

Good policing is too important to neglect and too urgent to delay. Regular and proactive disclosure of information about policing in accessible forms is a sure way to build public trust and awareness, and for police departments to demonstrate transparency.

Maja Daruwala

Director, CHRI

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Political Profile

India, with an area of 32, 87,782 sq km and a population of about 1.28 billion, is a sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic republic, following a parliamentary system of governance.

The polity is federal in structure. India is a union of 29 states and seven union territories,¹ including the National Capital Territory of Delhi.

The government at the Centre consists of a council of ministers headed by the Prime Minister, which is collectively responsible to the house of the people in Parliament (Lok Sabha). In states, the council of ministers headed by the Chief Minister is responsible to the legislative assembly (Vidhan Sabha) of the state.

1.2 Legislative Powers

Powers, functions and responsibilities of the Union and States are demarcated in the Constitution of India. The Constitution distributes legislative powers between Parliament and the state legislatures.² It prescribes three lists of subjects, which are spelt out in the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution.

List I is the Union List, which enumerates the subjects on which Parliament has the sole power to make laws. List II is the State List that specifies the subjects on which the state legislature has the exclusive power to make laws. List III is the Concurrent List that documents subjects on which both Parliament as well as the state legislatures enjoy concurrent powers to make laws.

Parliament is also empowered to make any law with respect to any subject not enumerated in the State or Concurrent List.³ If any provision of a law passed by the state legislature is repugnant to any provision of a law made by Parliament, the latter prevails.⁴

“Police” and “Public Order” figure in the State List of the Seventh Schedule.

1 **States:** Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Telangana, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and West Bengal.

Union Territories: Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, National Capital Territory of Delhi, Lakshadweep Islands and Puducherry. Union territories are areas, which do not form part of state jurisdictions and are under the administrative control of the central government.

2 The Constitution of India (1949), Article, 246.

3 *Ibid.*, Article 248 (1).

4 *Ibid.*, Article 251.

However there are certain provisions in the Constitution that empower the central government to establish police organisations and to intervene in certain situations that impinge on the maintenance of public order in states. The Union List authorises Parliament to make laws, inter alia, on the following subjects that have a bearing on police work:

- “Deployment of any armed force⁵ of the union... in any state in aid of the civil power...” and “powers, jurisdiction, privileges and liabilities of members of such forces while on such deployment”.⁶
- Central Bureau of Intelligence and Investigation.⁷
- Union agencies and institutions for (a) professional training, including the training of police officers, or (b) promotion of research, or (c) scientific or technical assistance in the investigation or detection of crime.⁸
- All India Services, which includes the Indian Police Service.⁹

In addition to police and public order, Article 246 of the Constitution of India places administration of justice, including the constitution and organisation of all courts (except the Supreme Court and High Courts), prisons, reformatories, borstals and other allied institutions in the State List. Criminal law and criminal procedure are included in the Concurrent List. The states have equal rights with the central government to legislate on these subjects. The state governments have framed rules and regulations to govern the administration and working of different agencies of the criminal justice system.

1.3 The Criminal Justice System

The broad philosophy of the criminal justice system is laid down in the Constitution of India. It starts by conferring numerous fundamental rights on all citizens.

1.3.1 Citizens’ Rights under the Constitution

Some of these rights are:

- The State shall not deny to any person equality before law or equal protection of laws within the territory of India (Article 14).
- No one is to be convicted of any offence except for violation of a law in force at the time of the commission of the offence and no one is to be prosecuted or punished twice for the same offence. No one can be compelled to be a witness against himself (Article 20).

5 Includes the central armed police forces under the administrative control of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India.

6 The Constitution of India, Seventh Schedule, List I, Entry 2 A.

7 Ibid., Entry 8.

8 Ibid., Entry 65.

9 Ibid. Entry 70. The Indian Police Service is one of the three all India services set up by the central government.

- No one is to be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to the procedure established by law (Article 21).
- No arrested person is to be detained in custody without being informed of the grounds for such arrest, nor denied the right to consult and be defended by a legal practitioner of his choice. Every arrested person is to be produced before the nearest competent magistrate within 24 hours of such arrest and cannot be detained in custody beyond this period without the authority of the magistrate (Article 22).
- No person is to be deprived of his property except by the authority of law (Article 31).

1.3.2 Criminal Law

Criminal law consists of the substantive law contained in the Indian Penal Code (IPC) and various special and local laws enacted by the central and state legislatures on different occasions and the procedural law laid down mainly in the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (Cr.P.C) and the Indian Evidence Act, 1872.

These three major Acts i.e the I.P.C, Cr.P.C and the Indian Evidence Act were enacted by the British during the second half of the 19th century. Of these, the only major law that has been revised comprehensively since Independence is the Cr.P.C. The other two laws, except for some amendments, have remained mostly unchanged.

The IPC defines different types of crimes and prescribes punishment for offences. Besides the IPC, local and special laws (SLL)¹⁰ also contain penal provisions. These laws were enacted periodically to deal with new forms of crime thrown up by the process of development and to protect the interests of the weaker sections of society.

The CrPC prescribes the procedure to be followed in a criminal case from the registration of the complaint to investigation and final trial. The state police forces derive their powers of policing mainly from this law. It also prescribes the boundaries within which the police have to operate while exercising their powers of arrest, search, seizure, examination of witnesses etc.

The Indian Evidence Act, 1872 prescribes the principles and procedures for tendering evidence in courts of law, spelling out rules governing the admissibility of evidence in judicial proceedings.

Criminal law makes a distinction between two categories of offences – cognisable and non-cognisable.¹¹ In cognisable offences, the police are empowered

¹⁰ Local law is applicable to a specific jurisdiction and special law is applicable to a particular subject.

¹¹ The First Schedule of the CrPC lists all offences in the IPC and mentions whether they are cognisable or non-cognisable.

to undertake direct investigation and to arrest a person without warrant, while in non-cognisable offences, they cannot investigate without the permission of a magistrate, nor arrest anyone without a warrant.

1.3.3 The Process of Criminal Justice

The process of criminal justice is set into motion with the registration of a complaint by the police about the commission of a cognisable offence. In so far as the police is concerned, there are a few major steps in the process:

Step-1: Registration of a complaint about the commission of a cognisable offence by the police, known as the First Information Report (FIR). Information on the commission of a cognisable crime, whether oral or written, that reaches the police first in point of time, is called the First Information. The complainant or the informant is legally entitled to a free copy of the FIR.

Step-2: The police officer proceeds to the scene of crime and investigates the facts of the case. The process of investigation includes:

- Preservation, examination and recording of the scene of crime.
- Examination of witnesses and suspects.
- Recording of statements.
- Conducting searches.
- Seizing property and collecting other evidence.
- Consulting records and making entries in the prescribed records, such as the Station Diary.
- Seeking expert evidence.
- Arrests and detention.
- Interrogation of the accused.

Step-3: After completing the investigation, the Officer-In-Charge of the police station sends a report to the area magistrate. If there is sufficient evidence to prosecute, the report sent by the Investigating Officer is in the form of a charge sheet. If sufficient evidence is not available, the report is called the final report.

Step-4: On receiving the charge sheet, the court takes cognisance and initiates the trial of the case.

A distinction is made between bailable and non-bailable offences. In bailable offences, bail is a matter of right and the police are empowered to release arrested persons on bail. In non-bailable offences, granting bail is a matter of judicial discretion.

If the police are unable to complete the investigation within 60 days in respect

of some offences and within 90 days in respect of others, the accused has to be released on bail.

1.3.4 The Courts

The court system in the country is based on the provisions contained in the Constitution of India. The Judiciary has the Supreme Court at the apex, with original, appellate and advisory jurisdiction. Below it are the High Courts at state level, followed by subordinate courts in the districts:

- Supreme Court of India (the Apex Court)
- High Court (highest court at the state level)
- Sessions/District courts¹²
- Judicial Magistrates of the First Class/Metropolitan Magistrates
- Judicial Magistrates of the second class
- Executive Magistrates

The law treats the accused as innocent until his guilt is established through a full and proper trial conducted by an authorised court of law. The procedures require the prosecution to prove the case against the accused beyond reasonable doubt. The accused is given full opportunity to defend himself.

A confession recorded by a police officer is not admissible in evidence.

¹² The courts of session exercise original and appellate jurisdiction. Major offences such as murder, dacoity, robbery and rape cannot be tried in a court below the sessions court.

2 STATE POLICE FORCES

The police is a state subject and each of 29 states and seven union territories has its own police force. The organisation and working of the police are governed by rules and regulations framed by the state governments. These are spelt out in the police manuals of the state police forces.¹³

2.1. Unity in Diversity

Despite the existence of numerous state police forces, there is considerable uniformity in their structure and functioning. This is due to four main reasons:

1. The structure and working of the state police forces are governed by the Police Act of 1861 or by the state police acts modelled mainly on the 1861 legislation modified to some extent by the directions given by the Supreme Court in its judgment of 22 September 2006.¹⁴
2. Major criminal laws, such as the IPC, the CrPC and the Indian Evidence Act, are uniformly applicable to almost all parts of the country.
3. There is an All India Service, the Indian Police Service, which is recruited, trained and managed by the central government and which provides the bulk of senior officers to the state police forces.
4. The quasi-federal character of the Indian polity allows a coordinating and counselling role for the Centre in police matters and even authorises it to set up certain central police organisations.

2.2 Superintendence over the Police

The Police Act, 1861 vested the superintendence over the police in the state government.¹⁵ Some new state police acts enacted recently following the Apex Court's judgement of 22 September 2006 have more or less similar provisions.

While superintendence is exercised by state governments, the police legislation vests the state police's administration in the head of the police force, the Director General of Police.¹⁶ However, the words "superintendence" and "administration" have not been defined in any law sufficiently clearly and effectively to

13 Research by the Bureau of Police Research and Development has revealed that some of these manuals are "old, archaic and outdated" as they "have not been revised for decades". Some states do not have their own manuals and adopted those of neighboring states. Some have neither their own manuals nor have they adopted any from other states.

14 *Prakash Singh & Ors Vs Union of India & Ors.*

15 Police Act, 1861, Section 3.

16 Police Act, 1861, Section 4. At that time the head of the state police was an officer of the rank of Inspector General of Police.

prevent state governments from exercising total, unquestioned control over their police forces. This control in many cases extends to operational matters too.

2.3 The Police Hierarchy

Every state police force has a hierarchical structure, which is more or less uniform in all states.

2.3.1 Rank Structure

The Rank Structure of the state police forces is:

1. Director General of Police (DGP)
2. Additional Director General of Police (Addl. DGP)
3. Inspector General of Police (IGP)
4. Deputy Inspector General of Police (Dy. IGP)
5. Senior Superintendent of Police (SSP)
6. Superintendent of Police (SP)
7. Additional Superintendent of Police (Addl. SP)
8. Assistant/ Deputy Superintendent of Police (ASP/Dy. SP)
9. Inspector of Police
10. Sub-Inspector of Police (SI)
11. Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police (ASI)
12. Head Constable (HC)
13. Police Constable (PC)

Serial numbers 1-8 are officers' ranks, mostly belonging to the Indian Police Service (IPS). Some, such as those at serial numbers 6-8, may be from the state police service too. Serial numbers 9-13 are subordinate ranks. In some states, they are again divided into two categories. ASIs to Inspectors are called upper subordinates and the constabulary (Head Constables and Constables) are dubbed lower subordinates.

In addition to these police ranks, police organisations have clerical, mechanical and technical staff.

2.3.2 Rank-Wise Strength in State Police Forces

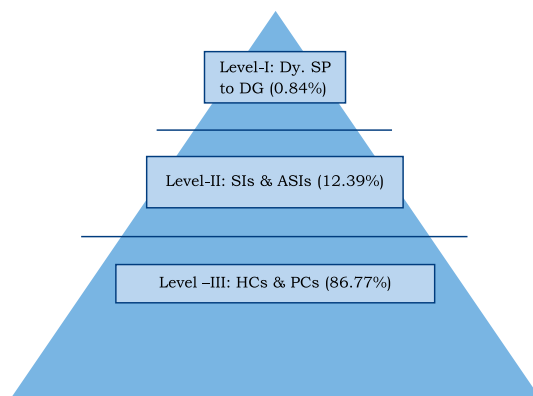
The sanctioned strength in different ranks in police forces in the states and union territories on 1 January 2014 was:

Table 1: Rank-wise Sanctioned Police Strength (As on 1 January 2014)¹⁷

S. No.	Rank	Strength
1	DGP	80
2	Addl. DGP	316
3	IGP	562
4	Dy. IGP	607
5	SSP/SP	2,833
6	Addl. SP	2,331
7	ASP/Dy. SP	12,445
8	Inspector	31,754
9	SI	1,28,220
10	ASI	1,22,948
11	HC	3,57,893
12	Constable	16,23,657
	Total	22,83,646

The police structure in India is pyramid-shaped. The base of the pyramid formed by the constabulary (Constables and Head Constables of Police) is very wide. The middle level is defined by upper subordinates (Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Assistant Sub-Inspectors of Police). The cone at the top consisting of officers (from Dy. Superintendent/Assistant Superintendent of Police up to the Director General of Police) is very thin.











These statistics reveal that the constabulary accounts for about 86.77% of the total police strength. Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Assistant Sub-Inspectors of Police constitute about 12.39% and officers account for less than 1% (0.84) of the police strength. Thus it is a very small group of senior officers, who consult and advise state governments on police matters; decide the policies of the organisation; issue instructions to the rest of the force; and supervise the work of the subordinates.



¹⁷ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, Table 3.6.

2.3.3 Badges of Rank

A police officer is required to wear his name tag with his uniform. His rank can be recognised by the badges he wears. The badges of rank are shown below in two parts: those worn by senior officers belonging to the IPS and those worn by the junior ranks:

Indian Police Service Officer Rank Insignia	
Rank	Insignia
Director Intelligence Bureau Crossed sword & baton, a star and state emblem	
Director General of Police Crossed sword & baton and state emblem	
Inspector General of Police Crossed sword & baton, and one star	
Deputy Inspector General of Police State emblem and three stars	
Senior Superintendent of Police State emblem and two stars	
Superintendent of Police State emblem and one star	
Additional Superintendent of Police State emblem	
Assistant Superintendent of Police Three stars	
Assistant Superintendent of Police (Probationary Rank: 2 years of service) Two stars	
Assistant Superintendent of Police (Probationary Rank: less than two years of service) One star	

Badges of rank are of silver medal, but embroidered badges of rank, worked in dark blue silk thread, are also worn, with informal working dress.

The Indian Police Service officers wear a silver departmental badge “IPS” in half-inch block letters at the base of the shoulder strap. State police service officers holding some of the above ranks wear the same badges but do not use the letters “IPS”. They use the letters that stand for their own state police force.

Officers of the rank of Senior Superintendent of Police (selection grade SPs) and Deputy Inspectors General of Police are authorised to wear gorget patches of dark blue woollen material with a central silver stripe on their shirt collars. Officers of the rank of IGP and above wear a silver design of a long leaf rather than a simple silver lining on their collar patch.



An Officer in Uniform with Collar Tabs

State Police- Subordinate Ranks' Insignia						
Insignia						
Rank	Inspector of Police: Red and blue ribbon with three stars	Sub-Inspector of Police: Red and blue ribbon with two stars	Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police: Red and blue ribbon with one star	Head Constable: Three chevrons, points facing downwards	Senior Police Constable or Police Naik: Two chevrons, points facing downwards	Constable: No Insignia

2.3.4 Police Medals

Sometimes, particularly on ceremonial occasions, police personnel wear medals awarded to them on their uniform. Four such medals awarded to them by the Government of India are:

State Police- Subordinate Ranks' Insignia

	<p>1. The President's Medal For Gallantry: This medal is awarded for conspicuous gallantry in saving life and property, preventing crime or arresting criminals. All police personnel of the country, irrespective of rank and length of service, are eligible for this award. The recipients are granted a monthly allowance which is paid to them even after retirement. After the death of the recipient, it is paid to his widow at the same rate. Recipients of this award are eligible to travel free by train throughout India with an attendant.</p>
	<p>2. Police Medal for Gallantry: This medal is awarded for conspicuous gallantry. All police personnel of the country irrespective of rank and length of service are eligible for this award. The recipients are granted a monthly allowance which is paid to them even after retirement. After the death of the recipient, it is paid to his widow at the same rate. Recipients of this medal are eligible to travel free by train throughout India with an attendant.</p>
	<p>3. The President's Medal for Distinguished Service: This medal is awarded every year on Independence Day and Republic Day in recognition of a special distinguished record of service rendered by a police officer. All police personnel with at least 21 years of service are eligible for this award.</p>
	<p>4. Police Medal for Meritorious Service: This medal is awarded every year on Independence Day and Republic Day in recognition of meritorious service rendered by a police officer. Police personnel with a minimum of 15 years of service are eligible for the award.</p>

2.4 Police Strength

2.4.1 Police Strength in the States and Union Territories

Information about the strength of the police forces in the states and union territories is given below.

Table 2 Sanctioned and Actual Strength of Police in states/ union territories¹⁸

S. No.	State	Strength		
		Sanctioned	Actual	Vacancy
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1,29,585	1,06,635	22,950
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	12,764	11,247	1,517
3.	Assam	64,386	55,033	9,353

¹⁸ Data on Police Organisations in India, BPR&D, 2014, Table 3.1

4.	Bihar	1,04,387	68,819	35,568
5.	Chattisgarh	67,821	54,693	13,128
6.	Goa	7,118	5,924	1,194
7.	Gujarat	1,16,893	74,023	42,870
8.	Haryana	61,681	41,112	20,569
9.	Himachal Pradesh	16,209	14,024	2,185
10.	J & K	78,351	72,196	6155
11.	Jharkhand	73,707	56,439	17,268
12.	Karnataka	1,06,785	72,011	34,774
13.	Kerala	51,701	47,782	3,919
14.	Madhya Pradesh	1,01,638	86,946	14,692
15.	Maharashtra	1,84,856	1,71,359	13,497
16.	Manipur	32,071	24,832	7,239
17.	Meghalaya	13,287	11,453	1,834
18.	Mizoram	11,265	9,895	1,370
19.	Nagaland	24,284	24,030	254
20.	Odisha	58,413	51,396	7,017
21.	Punjab	80,064	73,872	6,192
22.	Rajasthan	1,18,833	92,330	26,503
23.	Sikkim	5,390	4,281	1,109
24.	Tamil Nadu	1,35,683	1,11,448	24,235
25.	Tripura	27,433	23,619	3,814
26.	Uttar Pradesh	3,68,271	1,68,851	1,99,420
27.	Uttarakhand	21,030	18,187	2,843
28.	West Bengal	1,10,107	79,476	30631
29.	A&N Islands	4,468	3,947	521
30.	Chandigarh	7,873	7,181	692
31.	D&N Haveli	328	261	67
32.	Daman & Diu	422	373	49
33.	Delhi	82,242	75,704	6,538
34.	Lakshadweep	349	263	85
35.	Puducherry	3,951	3,143	808
	Total	22,83,646	17,22,786	5,60,860

On 1 January 2014, the total sanctioned strength of the state police forces was 22.83 lakhs¹⁹ (2.283 million). Of this the civil police had a sanctioned strength of 18.38 lakhs (1.838 million) and the armed police had 4.45 lakhs (0.445 million). The actual strength, however, was much less. It was only 17.22 lakhs (1.72 million). There were thus as many as 5.61 lakhs (0.56 million) vacancies at the beginning of 2014. In other words, slightly less than a quarter (24.56 %) of the total sanctioned strength of the police in the states and union territories was vacant.

Police strength varies from state to state. On 1 January 2014, nine state police forces had a strength of over one lakh each. Of these, Uttar Pradesh had the

¹⁹ One lakh is equivalent to one hundred thousand.

largest sanctioned police strength (3.68 lakhs), followed by Maharashtra (1.85 lakhs), Tamilnadu (1.36 lakhs), Andhra Pradesh (1.30 lakhs),²⁰ Rajasthan (1.19 lakhs), West Bengal (1.10 lakhs), Karnataka (1.06 lakhs), Bihar (1.04 lakhs) and Madhya Pradesh (1.01 lakhs). Amongst the union territories, Delhi had the largest sanctioned police strength (82 lakh), while Dadar & Nagar Haveli had the smallest contingent (328).

2.4.2 Police-Population and Area Ratio

Details regarding the police-population and area ratios are given below.

Table 3: Police-Population and Area Ratio (As on 1 January 2014)²¹

S. No	Item	Sanctioned	Actual	Vacancies
1.	Police strength	22,83,646	17,22,786	5,60,860
2.	Police per lakh of population	185.25	139.76	
	Civil Police per lakh of population	149.15	109.35	
3.	Police per 100 sq km of area	72.12	54.41	
	Civil Police per 100 sq km of area	58.07	42.57	

On 1 January 2014, the number of sanctioned police personnel per lakh of population was 185.25, but only 139.76 were available on the ground. The police-population ration was, in fact, much less if it is calculated on the basis of civil police strength.²² The number of sanctioned civil police personnel per lakh of population was 149.15, but the number on the ground was much less. Only 109.35 civil police personnel were available for one hundred thousand of population.

Though there was a sanction of 72.12 police personnel per hundred sq km of area, the actual strength worked out to only 54.41. The sanctioned and actual strength of civil police per hundred sq km of area was only 58.07 and 42.57 respectively.

2.4.3 Increase in Police Manpower

There has been a significant increase in police manpower since Independence, as shown below:²³

²⁰ These figures are no longer relevant as Andhra Pradesh has since then been bifurcated into two states.

²¹ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, p. 29.

²² It is relevant to do so as the public interact in their day to day dealings more with civil than armed police

²³ *Crime in India* published by the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB), *Data on Police Organisations in India* published by the BPR&D and the records of the National Police Commission.

Table 4: Increase in Police Manpower since Independence

Year	Civil Police	Armed Police	Total Strength
1947	2,38,368	1,42,550	3,80,918
1951	2,72,156	1,95,584	4,67,740
1961	2,99,750	2,26,399	5,26,149
1971	5,34,236	1,72,659	7,06,895
1981	6,92,132	2,05,698	8,97,830
1991	9,03,849	2,48,747	11,52,596
2001	10,77,415	3,72,346	14,49,761
2011	16,40,342	4,24,028	20,64,370
2014	18,38,616	4,45,030	22,83,646

The total sanctioned strength of the police in different states and union territories in 1947 was about 3.81 lakhs. By 2014, the strength had increased to 22.83 lakhs.

During the period 1947-2014, the civil police grew by nearly 771%, while the armed police during the same period increased by only 312%. The total police strength registered an increase of slightly less than 600% since Independence.

2.4.4 Representation of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Muslims in State Police Forces

Crime in India published annually by the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) in the Ministry of Home Affairs provides information on the representation of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Muslims in the state police forces. This data for the period 2000 to 2013 is presented below:

Table 5: Representation of SCs, STs and Muslims in Police Force (2001-2013)²⁴

Year	SC	ST	Muslim
2001	1,65,187	99,377	1,03,545
2002	1,58,740	93,872	97,928
2003	1,69,428	1,00,518	94,556
2004	1,75,215	1,06,738	93,691
2005	1,73,944	1,08,331	1,00,634
2006	1,80,964	1,09,519	69,365
2007	1,84,354	1,16,907	1,01,843
2008	1,85,548	1,27,513	98,462
2009	1,96,412	1,33,519	1,03,226
2010	2,11,385	1,53,385	1,09,262
2011	2,27,057	1,66,114	1,08,389
2012	2,34,796	1,73,852	1,08,975
2013	2,54,644	1,87,324	1,08,602

In 2001, the police force had 1,65,187 persons from Scheduled Castes, 99,377 from Scheduled Tribes and 1,03,545 were Muslims. In 2013, the number of

²⁴ Data compiled from *Crime in India* published annually by NCRB.

members from the Scheduled Castes had grown to 2,54,644 (an increase of 89,457); while the share of members from the Scheduled Tribes went up to 1,87,324 (an increase of 87,947). The number of Muslims, on the other hand, increased only to 1,08,602 (an increase of 5,057).

According to NCRB data, Muslims constituted 13.43% of the country's population in 2011, but their representation in the police was a meagre 6.52%.

2.4.5 Women Police in the States and Union Territories

2.4.5.1 Strength of Women Police in the States and Union Territories

Women police form a part of the police forces of all states and union territories. Information about their strength is given in the following Table:

Table 6 - State/UT wise Strength of Women Police and its Percentage to total Police Strength (As On 1 January, 2014)²⁵

S. No.	State	Actual Strength		Percentage of Women Police to Total Police
		Of Police Force	Of Women Police	
1.	And. Pradesh	1,06,635	4622	4.33
2.	Aruna. Pradesh	11,247	582	5.17
3.	Assam	55,033	510	0.93
4.	Bihar	68,819	2341	3.40
5.	Chattisgarh	54,693	2348	4.29
6.	Goa	5,924	366	6.18
7.	Gujarat	74,023	2691	3.64
8.	Haryana	41,112	2734	6.65
9.	Him. Pradesh	14,024	1552	11.07
10.	J & K	72,196	2252	3.12
11.	Jharkhand	56,439	2906	5.15
12.	Karnataka	72,011	3682	5.11
13.	Kerala	47,782	3067	6.42
14.	Madhya Pradesh	86,946	4190	4.82
15.	Maharashtra	1,71,359	17,957	10.48
16.	Manipur	24,832	2040	8.22
17.	Meghalaya	11,453	329	2.87
18.	Mizoram	9,895	568	5.74
19.	Nagaland	24,030	253	1.05
20.	Odisha	51,396	4381	8.52
21.	Punjab	73,872	4761	6.44
22.	Rajasthan	92,330	6568	7.11
23.	Sikkim	4,281	333	7.78
24.	Tamilnadu	1,11,448	13,842	12.42

²⁵ BPR&D, Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014, Table 12.4

25.	Tripura	23,619	777	3.29
26.	Uttar Pradesh	1,68,851	7238	4.29
27.	Uttarakhand	18,187	1528	8.40
28.	West Bengal	79,476	3791	4.77
29.	A&N Islands	3,947	445	11.27
30.	Chandigarh	7,181	1017	14.16
31.	D&N Haveli	261	26	9.96
32.	Daman & Diu	373	34	9.12
33.	Delhi	75,704	5413	7.15
34.	Lakshadweep	264	16	6.06
35.	Puducherry	3,143	165	5.25
	Total	17,22,786	1,05,325	6.11

Women police constitute only 6.11% of the total police force in the country. Amongst states, the highest percentage of women police is found in Tamilnadu (12.42), followed by Himachal Pradesh (11.07), Maharashtra (10.48), Odisha (8.50), Uttarakhand (8.40) and Manipur (8.22). Of the remaining states, Sikkim, Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, Kerala and Goa exceed the country's percentage of 6.11 and the remaining fall below that limit. Amongst the union territories, Chandigarh occupies the top place, with its women police force accounting for 14.16% of its police force. Delhi and Puducherry are the only two union territories that have not been able to reach the country's percentage of 6.11; all others exceed that average.

2.4.5.2 Increase in Strength of Women Police

During the last few years, there has been a significant increase in the strength of women police in the country. Annual increase in strength during a fifteen year period is shown below:

Table7: Annual Increase in Women Police from 2000 to 2014²⁶

Year	Strength
2000	24,713
2001	26,018
2002	31,446
2003	32,481
2004	NA
2005	39,954
2006	45,886
2007	52,723
2008	57,466

²⁶ Compiled from information contained in Data on Police Organisations published annually by BPR&D.

2009	56,667
2010	66,153
2011	71,756
2012	84,479
2013	97,518
2014	1,05,325

Thus from 24,713 women police in 2000, the number increased to 1,05,325 in 2014. Though the strength of women police registered an increase of 426.2 % during this period, they still constituted only 6.11% of the total police force in 2014. In 2000, they only constituted 1.67% of the total police strength.

2.4.5.3 Rank-wise Increase in the Strength of Women Police

Though even now they constitute a very small percentage of the police force, what is significant is that their number in each rank is growing. A number of women police officers are working in senior ranks. The rank-wise growth of women police is seen in the following Table:

Table 8: Rank-wise Increase in Women Police from 2001 to 2014

Rank	2001 ²⁷	2014 ²⁸
DGP/Addl./Spl.DGP	Nil	16
IGP	2	44
DIG	7	20
SSP/SP/Commdt.	29	190
Addl. SP/ Dy. Commdt.	-	162
ASP/DSP/Asst. Commdt.	79	496
Inspector	255	1,234
SI	1,343	5,668
ASI	777	3,553
Head Constable	2,649	8,246
Constable	20,877	85,696
Total	26,018	1,05,325

While no police woman occupied the top rank in 2000, 16 had risen to the ranks of DGP/Addl. DGP by 2014. The number of women IGPs increased from 2 to 44; DIGs from 7 to 20; SSP/SP from 29 to 190; and ASP/Dy. SP from 79 to 496 during this period.

²⁷ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India* (As on 1.1.2001), p. 26.

²⁸ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India* (As on 1.1.2014), p. 141.

2.5 Organisational Structure

The organisational structure of the state police is best explained in two parts. One is the field establishment that performs the actual day-to-day policing and the other is the headquarters establishment, which frames policies, issues instructions, liaises with the government and administers the police force.

2.5.1 Field Establishment

2.5.1.1 Units

States are divided territorially into administrative units called districts. A Superintendent of Police (SP) heads the district police force. In some larger or important districts, a Senior Superintendent of Police (SSP) is posted as the head of the district police force.

A group of districts form a range, which is under the charge of a Deputy Inspector General of Police. In some states, police ranges are headed by Inspector General of Police (IGP) too. Generally, IGPs are in charge of police zones, each comprising two or more ranges.

A district is divided into sub-divisions. A sub-division is under the charge of an officer of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police/Deputy Superintendent of Police. Every sub-division is further divided into a number of police stations, depending on its area, population and volume of crime. In between the police station and the sub-division, there are police circles in many states - each circle headed generally by an Inspector of Police. In some states, they have Police Circles in place of Police Sub-divisions.

The number of field units at different levels in the country on 1 January, 2014 is shown below:

Table 9: Number of Field Establishment Units (As on 1 January 2014)²⁹

S. No.	Unit	No.
1	Police zones	101
2	Police ranges	179
3	Police districts	718
4	Police sub- divisions	2,105
5	Police circles	2,387
6	Police stations	14,786
7	Police posts	8,583

Officers in charge of police ranges and zones mainly do supervisory work. Amongst the field units, the most important component of the police establishment in the country is the district police and its head plays a pivotal role in the policing of the area.

²⁹ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, Table 1.1.

2.5.1.2 The District Police

The Law authorises the state government to declare by notification any area within the state to be a Police District. The police legislation vests the administration of the police throughout such district in the Superintendent of Police to be assisted by as many Additional, Assistant or Deputy Superintendents of Police as deemed necessary.³⁰

2.5.1.2.1 Branches in the Office of the District Superintendent of Police

The office of the District Superintendent of Police generally has the following branches:

- Administration/ Establishment branch
- Crime branch
- Special branch
- General branch
- Accounts branch
- Confidential branch
- Complaints/ Anti corruption or Vigilance cell
- Traffic Police branch
- Police Control room.

2.5.1.2.2. Police Lines

The district police has its own police lines, equipped with a parade ground and branches, such as the motor transport (MT); canteen and stores; dog squad; mounted police; arms and ammunition store (kot); bomb disposal squad; etc.

A police line is under the charge of an Inspector of Police, who is known as the Reserve Inspector (RI). He maintains a roster of men posted in the police line; ensures that the daily roll call is held; arranges for all guards and escorts required for various duties; organises parades; and supervises the custody and supply of various items, such as clothing, accoutrements, arms and ammunition, tents and other stores.

2.5.1.2.3 District Police Officers

A police district has police officers of following ranks:

1. Superintendent of Police
2. Additional Superintendent of Police

³⁰ Assam Police Act, Section 9.

3. Assistant/ Deputy Superintendent of Police
4. Inspector of Police
5. Sub-Inspector of Police
6. Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police
7. Head Constable of Police
8. Constable of Police

Besides these, every police district has requisite ministerial, technical and support staff for its various branches/units.

2.5.1.2.4 Duties of the District Superintendent of Police

The District Superintendent of Police (SP) is the head of the police force in the district. The SP ensures that the police force in the district provides an efficient and honest police cover to the public. Some of the important duties laid down for the SP in state police manuals³¹ are:

- Maintain peace, law and order in the district
- Prevent and investigate crimes speedily and efficiently
- Take measures to protect lives, liberty and property of all sections of the people
- Supervise the work of officers and coordinate with the various wings of the police in the district
- Promote and maintain good police-public relations
- Keep the force disciplined, motivated, properly trained, professionally competent, honest and service-oriented
- Inspect all police units and lines in the district periodically
- Personally visit and handle situations when incidents of grave nature endangering life and property occur
- Gain the confidence and loyalty of subordinates by personal integrity, impartiality, devotion to duty and a high sense of justice
- Ensure the honesty and integrity of subordinate officers
- Tour villages and other parts of the district, spending more time in the troublesome localities
- Ensure that the vehicles, arms and ammunition, stores and buildings belonging to the department are maintained in good condition.

2.5.1.2.5 System of Dual Control at the District Level

Section 3 of the Police Act, 1861 vested the superintendence of the state police

³¹ This information has been taken mainly from the BPR&D's *Model Police Manual and the Karnataka Police Manual*.

force in the state government. Section 4 of the same Act introduced a system of dual control at the district level. It put the police forces under the District Superintendent of Police, but subject to the “general control and direction” of the District Magistrate (DM). This was done deliberately because the District Magistrate as the chief officer of the district was considered essential to maintain British rule in India.

The Police Act of 1861 did not define the phrase “general control and direction” of the District Officer to which the district police force was subjected. This was therefore often interpreted to mean virtual total control of the district police organisation, at times leading to avoidable friction between the District Collector and the District Superintendent of Police.

The system continued to exist after Independence. The relationship between the district police and executive magistracy was examined by the National Police Commission (NPC) in detail. The Commission concluded that “in the existing circumstances there are no reasons to subject the district police administration to any control other than that exercised by officers in the departmental hierarchy”.³² The Commission, however, recognised a coordinating role for the district magistrate in the district administration, particularly in matters relating to land disputes, law and order disturbances, conduct of elections, handling of natural calamities, etc.

As mentioned earlier, some states have passed new legislation to replace the Police Act, 1861. There is no uniformity in the new laws on dealing with the system of dual control over the district police. The problem has been handled in three different ways. One, some states have retained the provision contained in Section 4 of 1861 Act,³³ after tweaking a few words. Two, in a few states, the administration vests in the District Superintendent of Police, subject to the control of the Director General of Police³⁴ Three, some states have followed the NPC’s recommendation and entrusted control to the District Superintendent of Police, simultaneously acknowledging a coordinating role of the District Magistrate³⁵

2.5.1.2.6 The Police Commissioner System

There was considerable opposition to the system of dual control at the district level even when it was introduced. In fact, even the government had realised that the district system prescribed by Section 4 of the Police Act, 1861 would not work efficiently in metropolitan areas, which faced complex policing problems. Therefore, in some metropolitan areas, such as Bombay, Calcutta and Madras,

32 National Police Commission, Fifth Report, November, 1980, p. 39.

33 Assam Police Act, 2007, Section 14, Bihar Police Act, 2007 (Section 7), Chattisgarh Police Act, 2007 (Section 5) and the Uttarakhand Police Act, 2007 (Section 5)

34 Rajasthan Police Act, 2007 (Section 16) and Tripura Police Act, 2007 (Section 4)

35 Haryana Police Act, 2007 (Sections 10 & 14), Punjab Police Act, 2007 (Sections 10 & 16) & Sikkim Police Act, 2008 (Sections 8 & 13)

they introduced another system i.e the commissioner system of policing. This system was introduced in Bombay in 1864, in Calcutta by the Calcutta Suburban Police Act of 1866, in Madras by the Madras City Police Act of 1888 and in Hyderabad by the Nizam's government through the Hyderabad City Police Act (Act IX of 1348 F)

The system has been extended to many new cities since Independence. Information about the areas where this system exists presently is given in the following table:

Table 10: Cities with Police Commissioner System (As on 1 January 2014)³⁶

S. No	Unit	No.	Names of Cities
1	Andhra Pradesh	4	Vishakapatnam, Vijayawada, Hyderabad, Cyberabad
2	Gujarat	4	Baroda, Ahmedabad, Rajkot, Surat
3	Haryana	3	Gurgaon, Faridabad, Ambala-Panchkula
4	Karnataka	4	Bengaluru, Mysuru, Hubli-Dharwad, Mangalore
5	Kerala	5	Thiruvananthapuram, Kochi, Kozhikode, Kollam, Thrissur
6.	Maharashtra	10	Mumbai, Nashik, Aurangabad, Sholapur, Pune, Thane, Navi Mumbai, Nagpur, Amravati & R. Mumbai
7	Odisha	2	Bhubaneswar, Cuttack
8	Punjab	3	Amritsar, Jalandhar, Ludhiana
9	Rajasthan	2	Jaipur, Jodhpur
10	Tamilnadu	7	Greater Chennai, Salem, Coimbatore, Madurai, Tiruchirappalli, Tirunelveli, Tiruppur
11	West Bengal	6	Asansol-Durgapur, Barrackpore, Bidhannagar, Howrah, Kolkata, Siliguri
12	Delhi	1	Delhi
	Total	51	

The officering pattern in these cities is not uniform. In large metropolitan cities such as Delhi and Mumbai, the Commissioner of Police holds the rank of Director General of Police (DGP), while in some cities they hold the rank of additional DGP/IGP/DIG.

The rank structure of police officers in this system differs, though the subordinate police personnel have the same ranks as the district police. The rank structure in the police commissioner system is as follows:

- Commissioner of Police
- Special Commissioner of Police
- Joint Commissioner of Police (JCP)
- Additional Commissioner of Police (Addl. CP)
- Deputy Commissioner of Police (DCP)

³⁶ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, Table 2.6.

³⁷ The Commissioners of Police in these cities do not enjoy magisterial powers.

- Additional Deputy Commissioner of Police (Addl. DCP)
- Assistant Commissioner of Police (ACP)
- Inspector of Police
- Sub-Inspector of Police
- Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police
- Head Constable
- Constable

There are two main differences between the commissioner and district systems of policing:

1. The Commissioner of Police does not work under any functionary other than his departmental heads in the organisation and in the government, while the district Superintendent of Police functions under the general control and direction of the district magistrate too. In Kolkata and Mumbai, the commissioners of police function directly under the state governments.
2. Unlike the head of the district or state police force, the Commissioner of Police is vested with magisterial powers of regulation, control, licensing, etc., in addition to regular police powers.

2.5.1.2.7 The District Armed Reserve

The District Armed Reserve is the armed wing of the district police that assists the civil police in emergent law and order situations in the district and meets the requirements of security guards, escorts and other similar prescribed duties. Just as armed police battalions are the state level reserve, this reserve is of the district police and functions under the control and supervision of the District Superintendent of Police.

The organisational structure of this Reserve may vary from district to district, but in many states, an officer of the rank of Inspector of Police is in charge of the reserve. Like armed police units, this Reserve is divided into platoons and sections, each headed by a Sub-Inspector and Head Constable of Police respectively.

2.5.1.2.8 The Police Station

In the district set-up, the police station occupies a very important position. It is the basic unit of all police work. Under the CrPC, all crimes are to be recorded at a police station and all preventive, investigative and law and order work is carried out from there. It is the most prominent point of contact and interaction between the police and the public in the district.

The Police Acts authorise the state governments to create, in consultation with

the Director General of Police and by notification, as many police stations in a district as necessitated by the requirements of population, area, crime and law and order situation and the distance to be traversed to reach the police station.

2.5.1.2.8.1 Number of Police Stations

The number of police stations in the country at the beginning of the year 2014 is shown in the following Table:

Table 11: Number of Sanctioned and Actual Police Stations in the Country (As on 1 January 2014)³⁸

SANCTIONED				ACTUAL			
Urban	Rural	Railway	Total	Urban	Rural	Railway	Total
4810	9,477	499	14,786	4,798	9,314	499	14,611

The number of sanctioned police stations in the country on 1 January 2014 was 14,786, of which 9,477 (64.1%) were in rural areas, while 4,810 (32.53%) were in urban locations. The remaining 499 (3.37%) were government railway police stations (GRP). However, all the sanctioned police stations had not been established by the end of 2013. The actual number that existed was 14,611. There was thus a shortfall of 175 police stations on the ground.

The number of police stations has increased significantly during the last few years. From 12,476 police stations on 1 January 2003, it grew to 14,786 on 1 January 2014, thus registering an increase of 18.32%.

2.5.1.2.8.2 Women Police Stations in the States/Union Territories

Some states/cities have also experimented with setting up police stations managed and run exclusively by women police personnel. On 4 September, 2009, the Centre had issued a detailed advisory to all state governments to set up a dedicated desk to deal with crimes against women and children in each police station, special women police cells and all-women police stations.

At the beginning of January, 2014, there were as many as 518 all women police stations in the country.³⁹ The largest number i.e. 199 (38.42) were functioning in Tamilnadu alone. UP had 71. Bihar and Rajasthan had 40 each and Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat 32 each and Jharkhand 22. Amongst states, as many as six i.e. Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura had not set up any such police station by the end of year 2013.

³⁸ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014, Table 2.2.*

³⁹ These women police stations are included in Table 11

2.5.1.2.8.3 Police Station- Role & Functions

People go to a police station not merely to report crime or law and order disturbance, but also to seek assistance and relief in distress situations. They go there to lodge complaints and seek redress.

The charter of work at the police station, based on law and police manuals is very wide. Some of the important functions performed at the police station are:⁴⁰

1. Prevention of crime by using effective crime prevention measures
2. Registration of cognisable offences on information received
3. Speedy, impartial and efficient investigations
4. Maintenance of peace and tranquillity in the area
5. Ensuring safety and security of citizens and protecting their property
6. Handling and dealing properly with complaints received at the police station
7. Providing relief to people coming for help and attending to distress situations
8. Establishing friendly and cordial relations with different segments of society
9. Collection of intelligence required for efficient and honest police work
10. Attending to regulatory duties and managing crowds.

2.5.1.2.8.4 Police Station Functionaries: Their Strength and Duties

The CrPC, from which the police derive their powers to deal with crime and law and order problems, recognises only one police rank-the Officer-in-Charge of the police station. According to the state police acts, this officer cannot be below the rank of Sub-Inspector of Police. The CrPC allows the officer next in rank to the Officer-In-Charge to take over when the incumbent is absent from the police station.⁴¹ All officers higher in rank to the Officer-In-Charge of the police station are empowered to exercise the same powers as are exercised by such officer within his jurisdiction.⁴²

Now-a-days, in most cities and metropolitan areas, the Officer-In-Charge of a police station is an Inspector of Police. Even in other places, where police stations are larger in terms of area, population, crime or law and order problems, the Officer-In-Charge is an Inspector of Police. In rural areas or smaller police stations, the Officer-In-Charge is usually a Sub-Inspector of Police.

An average police station generally has the following ranked officers:

- Inspector of Police
- Sub-Inspector of Police

40 Based on BPR&D's *Model Police Manual*, Volume 1, Chapter 10.

41 The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, Section 2 (o).

42 *Ibid.*, Section 36.

- Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police
- Head Constable
- Constable

There are disparities in the staffing pattern of police stations in the country. The average police strength in some police stations, particularly in rural areas, is much less than in urban or metropolitan areas. The average rank-wise strength of a standard rural and urban police station is shown below:⁴³

Table 12: Average Sanctioned Strength of a Rural and Urban Police Station (As on 1 January 2009)

Police Station	Inspector	SI	Asst SI	Head Constable	Constable
Urban	1	5	5	11	49
Rural	0	2	2	5	21

Duties of each of these ranks are discussed below.

Inspector of Police

An Inspector of Police functions either as an Officer-In-Charge of the police station, i.e. Station House Officer (SHO) or as a Circle Inspector of Police.

As SHO

The SHO can be an Inspector or Sub-Inspector of Police. As head of the police station, he is primarily responsible for its effective working and management. It is his responsibility to ensure that the police station performs its functions as listed above with efficiency and honesty. In short, it is his duty to do all that he can to prevent crimes, register complaints, investigate and detect offences, preserve peace, apprehend offenders and bring them to justice. Providing a feeling of safety and security to all living in his jurisdiction is essentially his job.

It is his duty to administer the staff, supervise their work, keep close watch on their activities and manage the resources efficiently. He has to assign duties to the staff under him and see that these are honestly performed.

It is his responsibility to acquire full knowledge of the area and the problems of the people in his jurisdiction.

Maintenance of good relations with the public is an important part of his charter.

As Circle Inspector

An Inspector of Police in some states also functions as a Circle Inspector. A circle generally consists of two or more police stations, where the Officer-In-Charge is a Sub-Inspector of Police.

⁴³ BPR&D, *National Blueprint on Policing Issues, 2010*, pp. 251-252.

The principal duties of the Circle Inspector are to investigate heinous cases, supervise the police work of his Circle in all its branches, maintain discipline among his subordinates, look after their welfare, see to the upkeep of arms, accoutrements and other Government property and to keep the District Superintendent and Sub-Divisional Police Officer (SDPO) informed of the policing problems of the Circle.⁴⁴ The District SP or the SDPO often assigns him the work of inquiring into complaints received from the public.

Sub-Inspector of Police

A Sub-Inspector of Police working as an Officer-In-Charge of the police station (SHO) performs the same duties that an Inspector of Police in that capacity does. His charter of work as SHO is exactly on the same lines.

Most Sub-Inspectors of Police posted in police stations carry out investigation work. They can also be assigned law and order work when the need arises.

Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police

The duties of Assistant Sub-Inspector of Police are:⁴⁵

- Investigation of simple cases as directed by the SHO
- Petition enquiry
- Checking enquiries into verification rolls
- Supervision of process work (serving of summons and warrants)
- Checking of beats and patrols
- Supervision of station scriptory work
- Detailing duties to the staff during the Sub-Inspector's absence and exercising supervision over them
- Maintenance of arms and ammunition and registers connected therewith
- Such other work as may be entrusted to him.

Head Constable of Police

Head Constables of police are employed generally in three ways: on general duty at police stations; as station writers; and in charge of outposts.

A Head Constable cannot be given charge of the police station except under Section 2 (o) of the CrPC when the SHO is absent.

The primary duties of a Head Constable on general duty in a police station are to:

- supervise the work of the Constables, see to their drill and provide instructions
- perform duties allotted to him by the Station House Officer
- accompany the SHO or Investigating Officer on investigation work, when required

⁴⁴ The Karnataka Police Manual, Volume 1, Chapter 6

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*

- be in charge of a guard or escort when deputed on such duty
- visit the villages in the station jurisdiction at least once a quarter
- check and supervise beat work
- attend to court work under the orders of the Station House Officer
- conduct enquiries into petty complaints and
- to conduct investigation into simple cases when asked by the SHO to do so.

As a station writer, his main duty is to perform the ministerial work of the station under the direction of the SHO. He maintains all records and registers in the police station.

As in charge of a police outpost, the duty of the Head Constable is to supervise the work of the men posted in the outpost, maintain prescribed records and send timely reports to the police station.

The Head Constable in charge of an outpost is not empowered to record FIRs. If information of the commission of a cognisable offence is received at the outpost, he must forward it to the police station after recording the facts of the case in the outpost's diary. It is his duty to proceed at once to the scene of occurrence, preserve it, collect information regarding the case and take necessary action, such as arresting the accused.

Constable of Police

The main duties of a constable are to:

- a. do beat patrol and surveillance work
- b. collect intelligence about crime and criminals and communicate the same to the concerned authorities
- c. assist the Investigating Officer in carrying out arrests, recoveries, searches and seizures
- d. serve processes
- e. guard and escort prisoners
- f. escort the injured to the hospital
- g. help in controlling crowds and providing relief in emergencies
- h. control and regulate traffic when posted on such work
- i. keep track of local disputes and brewing conflicts and
- j. do any other work assigned to him.

2.5.1.2.8.5 Police Station Records

Different types of records are maintained at the police stations. Some of these are as follows:

1. First Information Report Register
2. Daily Diary / Station General Diary
3. Crime Register
4. Arrests Register
5. Absconders and Deserters Register
6. Village Crime Note Book
7. Surveillance Register
8. Petty Cases Register
9. Processes Register
10. Confidential Register
11. Register of Licenses
12. Register of Correspondence
13. Standing Orders & Circulars Book
14. Minute Book for Gazetted Officers

From the public point of view, two of these records are important: the First Information Report book and the Daily Diary register.

The First Information Report book keeps a record of all FIRs registered during a given year. Cases bear an annual serial number in each police station for each calendar year. The report contains information about the name and residence of the complainant; a brief description of the offence; date and time of occurrence; place of occurrence, distance and direction from the police station; steps taken regarding investigation; explanation for delay in recording information, if any; and date and hour of dispatch of FIR from the police station.

The Daily Diary register is the police station's log of main activities carried out during the day. It contains a gist of FIRs as well as of non-cognizable case reports; information about arrests; persons in custody; deposit of case property seized by Investigating Officers (IOs) and its dispatch from PS; receipt of summons and warrants; checking of properties, including cash, lying in 'Malkhana'⁴⁶; information about checking of bad characters; action taken by the Investigating Officers in cases entrusted to them etc. Another part of Daily Diary keeps routine entries like arrival & departure of police personnel, dispatch of patrolling staff, posting of pickets, arrival to & departure from police station of policemen deployed on different duties.

2.5.2 Police Headquarters Establishment

In addition to the field units, every state police has its headquarters establishment. The state police force consisting of its field units and headquarters es-

⁴⁶ Room where case property is kept

establishment is headed by an officer of the rank of Director General of Police. The headquarters has senior police officers of the rank of Additional Directors General, Inspectors General, Deputy Inspectors General and Assistant Inspectors General of Police to assist him in his work.

The establishment is divided into various branches/departments, which are generally headed by officers of the rank of additional DG or IGP. In some states, officers even of the rank of DGP (but not appointed as the head of the state police force) are sometimes given the charge of these departments.

2.5.2.1 Role and Responsibilities of the Police Headquarters

Police legislation vests the administration of the state police force in the Director General of Police (DGP). The police headquarters plays an important role in the overall functioning and management of the state police force. Some important attributes of this role are:

1. The DGP as the head of the force is the main advisor to the state government on all matters relating to the administration and efficiency of the police
2. The DGP monitors & coordinates the functioning of all the branches in Police Head Quarters as well as field units
3. As the head of the force, it is the DGP's job to motivate members of the organisation, ensure effective communication and evaluate performance of the different units and departments of the organisation
4. The headquarters exercises administrative control and supervision over the force and provides it the required direction and guidance
5. It is responsible for policy formulation, planning and implementation of various schemes and orders designed to ensure that policing is efficient, effective and honest. It sets objectives for the force and provides directions on all important matters
6. It is the responsibility of the headquarters to see that the force gets adequate strength, equipment, budget and other resources to meet its requirements
7. It is the responsibility of the headquarters to ensure that the field units do not misbehave with the public.

2.5.2.2 Selection and Tenure of the Head of the Police Force

The Supreme Court in its judgement in Prakash Singh's case⁴⁷ directed that the Director General of Police of the state should be selected by the state government from amongst the three senior-most officers of the department who have been empanelled for promotion to that rank by the Union Public Service Commission. He should have a minimum tenure of at least two years irrespective of his date of superannuation.

⁴⁷ Prakash Singh & Ors v. Union of India & Ors on 22 September, 2006.

Provisions in the police acts framed by the state governments vary from the Court's directive. Most state governments have legislated that the selection of the head of the state police force should be done from amongst officers who hold that rank or are eligible for promotion to the post of DGP. Similarly, on the security of tenure, some have prescribed a minimum tenure of two years, while others are not willing to provide more than one year's tenure to the DGP.

2.5.2.3 Departments/ Branches at Police Headquarters

To enable it to discharge its role and responsibilities effectively, the state police headquarters is divided into different branches/departments. There may be some minor differences among the states, but broadly speaking, the main departments in the headquarters of state police forces are:

1. Administration/Establishment branch
2. Criminal Investigation Department (CID)
3. Intelligence department
4. Armed Police
5. Railway Police
6. Traffic Police
7. Anti-terrorism Squad/ Cell
8. Training Directorate
9. State Crime Records Bureau
10. Police Establishment Board
11. Protection of Civil Rights Cell
12. Motor Transport Unit
13. Police Telecommunications Branch
14. Right to Information (RTI) Cell.

Information in respect of some of these departments is given below:

2.5.2.3.1 The Criminal Investigation Department

The CID is the most important investigation agency of the state police. It takes over the investigation of certain specialised crimes such as counterfeiting of currency, professional cheating, gang cases, grave crimes with inter-district or inter-state ramifications etc. Sometimes, when certain major crimes remain unsolved or there is public demand for the investigation to be carried out by an agency other than the concerned police station, the government or the head of the state police force transfers cases for investigation from the local police to the CID. At times, the courts direct the government to hand over investigation to the CID. A complaint from a citizen is not directly accepted by the CID.

The CID has specialised branches to deal with specific crimes, such as homicides, offences against property, fraud/ cheating, economic offences, counterfeiting, etc.

2.5.2.3.2 The Intelligence Department

This department is responsible for collection, collation, analysis and dissemination of intelligence on crime, law and order disturbances and on issues important from the security point of view. It keeps a watch on subversive activities of persons, parties and organisations and keeps all concerned informed about such activities. It deals with matters relating to foreigners and passports. It has separate units to deal with militancy, communalism, political parties, labour unions, students' fronts, etc. It works in coordination with the intelligence agencies of other police forces at the central and state levels. Most state intelligence departments have their own training schools to organise specialised training courses for their staff.

2.5.2.3.3 The Armed Police

A state police force has two main components – civil police and armed police. The primary function of the civil police is to control crime, while the armed police assists the civil police in dealing with law and order situations. The civil police includes district police forces, supervisory structures at the range, zone and state police headquarters and specialised branches to deal with crime, intelligence and training problems. The armed police is in the form of battalions, to be used as striking reserves to assist the civil police in dealing with emergency situations.

Almost all states have their own armed police forces. An officer of the rank of Addl. DG or IG supervises the work of the State Armed Police. The Armed Police is meant to function as reserve force to be deployed in areas where the district police are unable to cope with situations effectively.

Data on the sanctioned and actual strength of the state armed police has been given above (page 12). This strength is spread in the form of battalions. On 1 January 2014, there were as many as 434 state armed police battalions plus four companies.⁴⁸

A state armed police battalion is divided into companies. Generally, there are six service companies in a battalion. A company is further divided into platoons and platoons into sections. Ordinarily, three sections constitute a platoon and three platoons a company. The strength of an armed police battalion ranges from 800 to 1000 personnel.

The rank structure of an armed police battalion is different from that of the civil

⁴⁸ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, p. 13.

police. The head of a battalion is called the Commanding Officer or the Commandant, who is equivalent in rank to a Superintendent of Police. Generally, he has a second in command, who is called the Deputy Commandant, similar in rank to an Additional SP. A company in most cases is commanded by an officer known as Assistant Commandant, equivalent to a Deputy Superintendent of Police. In some states, a company may be commanded by a Subedar, who is equivalent in rank to an Inspector of Police. A platoon is commanded by a Sub-Inspector and a section is in charge of a Head Constable. The second in command to a Head Constable is called a Naik. In some cases, between Naik and Constable, there is another rank known as Lance Naik.

2.5.2.3.4 The Railway Police

Most states have railway lines passing through their jurisdiction. Policing on the railways is done by the Government Railway Police (GRP). Controlling crime on the railways is the main responsibility of this organisation. Though GRP is a part of the state police force, expenditure on this establishment is shared between the State Government and the Railways. An officer of the rank of Addl. DG or IGP supervises the work of GRP. The jurisdiction of the Superintendent of a Railway Police District may cut across the boundaries of several districts.

The GRP should not be confused with the Railway Protection Force (RPF), which is raised and maintained by the central government, essentially to guard railway property. The RPF works under the control of the Ministry of Railways, Government of India, while the GRP is part of the state police force.

2.5.2.3.5 The State Crime Records Bureau

The State Crime Records Bureau's (SCRB) main task is to collect, collate, analyse and disseminate data on various crimes, particularly those of cheating, counterfeiting, criminal breach of trust, dacoity, robbery, murder, kidnapping and abduction for ransom, extortion, explosives, sabotage, offences against the state, terrorist acts and drugs. Besides crimes, it collects information about persons arrested and convicted in inter-district crimes, absconders, missing persons and unidentified dead bodies. It maintains details of property stolen and recovered. It keeps track of the modus operandi employed by criminals in different types of crimes.

This work is carried out through its various systems, such as the crime and criminal information system; fingerprint system; information system on economic offences, narcotics and drugs; property coordination system; counterfeit currency system; arrested/wanted persons information system; terrorist information system; personnel information system; portrait building system, etc.

The SCRB keeps in constant touch with the National Crime Records Bureau and exchanges data with it as well as with District Crime Record Bureaus in the state. It works as a nodal agency to promote computerisation in the state police force.

2.5.2.3 .6 The Training Directorate

The Training Directorate is generally headed by an Additional Director General of Police. Its main job is to arrange for training aimed at developing police personnel of different ranks into professionally efficient, effective and honest members of the police organisation. Some of the specific functions of the directorate are:

1. To review periodically arrangements for police training so as to formulate training policies to meet the changing requirements of police work
2. To review the syllabi of existing courses and suggest changes in the training programmes
3. To devise new refresher, pre-promotion, specialist and orientation courses considered necessary for different ranks
4. To oversee and supervise the police training institutions in the state and their activities
5. To improve the infrastructure and training facilities in the state police training institutions
6. To prepare standard educative literature for the police training institutions
7. To standardise training equipment and aids for production and supply to training institutions.

2.5.2.3. 7 The Anti- Terrorism Squad/ Cell

A separate department to deal with terrorism does not exist in all states. Some states have set up such departments owing to the spread of terrorist activities. The department is meant mainly to keep track of terrorist organisations and their activities and take necessary steps to neutralise such anti- national forces. It works in close coordination with central intelligence and investigating agencies, like IB, CBI, NIA etc and also with similar agencies in other states.

2.5.2.3.8 The Police Establishment Board

The establishment of this Board in the state police headquarters is a new initiative.

The need for such a Board was first recommended by the Ribeiro Committee on Police Reform.⁴⁹ The Committee recommended that a Police Establishment Board comprising the Director General of Police as chairman and four senior-

⁴⁹ Set up by the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, vide Office Memorandum No. 11018/1/98-PMA dated May 25, 1998.

most officers who are immediately junior to him in the police hierarchy should be set up to monitor transfers, promotions and other related matters of officers of and below the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police.⁵⁰

These recommendations were accepted by the Supreme Court in its judgement in Prakash Singh's case. The Court directed that every state should have a Police Establishment Board to "decide all transfers, postings, promotions and other service related matters of officers of and below the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police".⁵¹ The Establishment Board should be a departmental body comprising the Director General of Police and four other senior officers of the Department. The Court was of the view that the state government could interfere with decision of the board but only in exceptional cases and that too after recording its reasons for doing so. The board should also be authorised to make appropriate recommendations to the state government regarding the posting and transfers of officers of and above the rank of Superintendent of Police. The government should normally accept such recommendations.

The Court further directed that this board should also function as a forum of appeal for disposing of representations from officers of the rank of Superintendent of Police and above regarding their promotion/ transfer/ disciplinary proceedings or their being subjected to illegal or irregular orders and generally reviewing the functioning of the police in the state.

Police Establishment Boards have been set up in many states where new police legislation has been enacted to replace the old Police Act, 1861. In some states, this has been done through executive orders. However, the composition and charter of functions of most such boards differs from the recommendation of the Apex Court. To give only one example, the Haryana Police Act, 2007 has the following provision on the subject: "(1) The state government may constitute a police establishment committee... with the Director General of Police as its Chairperson and two other senior officers not below the rank of Inspector General of Police...as members for administrative matters. (2) The establishment committee may prepare an action plan for improving the infrastructure facilities, professionalism, general discipline in the service, modernisation, training, welfare of the police personnel and any other work assigned by the state government."⁵²

2.6. Duties and Responsibilities of the Police

2.6.1 As Laid Down in the Police Act, 1861

The Police Act, 1861 envisaged a very limited role for the police. Section 23 of

50 *Ibid.*

51 The Supreme Court's judgement in Writ Petition (civil) 310 of 1996 of Shri Prakash Singh delivered on 22 September 2006.

52 The Haryana Police Act, 2007, Section 34.

the Act laid down only the following duties for police officers:

1. Obey and execute all orders and warrants lawfully issued by any competent authority
2. To collect and communicate intelligence affecting public peace
3. To prevent the commission of offences and public nuisances
4. To detect and bring offenders to justice
5. To apprehend all persons who he is legally authorised to apprehend and for whose apprehension sufficient ground exists.

2.6.2 The National Police Commission's Charter

The charter prescribed by the National Police Commission (NPC) in its model Police Bill⁵³ went beyond the 1861 charter and stressed that the police has a paramount obligation and duty to function according to the requirements of the Constitution, the law and the democratic aspirations of the people. It required the police to be professional, service-oriented, free from extraneous influences and yet accountable to the people. The NPC prescribed a detailed charter in its Model Police Bill.

2.6.3 The Sorabjee Committee's Recommendations

In 2006, the Soli Sorabjee Committee, relying on the NPC's Bill, divided the police charter into two categories – general duties and social responsibilities. Most new police acts legislated by the state governments following the Supreme Court's judgement of 22 September 2006 borrowed heavily from the model recommended by the Soli Sorabjee Committee.

According to the Sorabjee Committee's model, the role and functions of the police shall broadly be:

1. to uphold and enforce the law impartially, and to protect life, liberty, property, human rights and dignity of the members of the public
2. to promote and preserve public order
3. to maintain internal security
4. to protect public properties
5. to prevent crimes
6. to accurately register all complaints and take prompt follow-up action thereon
7. to register and investigate all cognisable offences, to apprehend the offenders, and extend requisite assistance in the prosecution of offenders
8. to create and maintain a feeling of security in the community

⁵³ National Police Commission, Eight and Concluding Report, May 1981.

9. to provide all possible help to people in situations arising out of natural or man-made disasters
10. to provide necessary help and afford relief to people in distress situations
11. to facilitate orderly movement of people and vehicles and to regulate traffic on roads and highways
12. to collect intelligence relating to matters affecting public peace and disseminate the same to all concerned agencies
13. to take charge of all unclaimed property and take action for their safe custody and disposal in accordance with the procedure prescribed.

Most of the social responsibilities of police laid down in the Sorabjee Committee's Model Police Act, 2006 are covered in the Code of Conduct and Code of Behaviour prescribed for the police in the country.

2.6.4 Code of Conduct for the Police

The code of conduct for the police in the country was adopted at the Conference of the Inspectors General of Police in 1960. This was later approved by the Government of India and circulated to all the state governments. This code, approved by the government, is reproduced below:

1. The police must bear faithful allegiance to the Constitution of India and respect and uphold the rights of the citizens as guaranteed by it.
2. The police should not question the propriety or necessity of any law duly enacted. They should enforce the law firmly and impartially without fear or favour, malice or vindictiveness.
3. The police should recognise and respect the limitations of their powers and functions. They should not usurp or even seem to usurp the functions of the judiciary and sit in judgement on cases to avenge individuals and punish the guilty.
4. In securing the observance of law or in maintaining order, the police should as far as practicable, use the methods of persuasion, advice and warning. When the application of force becomes inevitable, only the irreducible minimum of force required in the circumstances should be used.
5. The prime duty of the police is to prevent crime and disorder and the police must recognise that the test of their efficiency is the absence of both and not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with them.
6. The police must recognise that they are members of the public, with the only difference that in the interest of society and on its behalf they are employed to give full-time attention to duties which are normally incumbent on every citizen to perform.
7. The police should realise that the efficient performance of their duties will be dependent on the extent of ready cooperation that they receive from the

public. This, in turn, will depend on their ability to secure public approval of their conduct and actions and to earn and retain public respect and confidence.

8. The police should always keep the welfare of the people in mind and be sympathetic and considerate towards them. They should always be ready to offer individual service and friendship and render necessary assistance to all without regard to their wealth and/or social standing.
9. The police should always place duty before self, maintain calm in the face of danger, scorn or ridicule and be ready to sacrifice their lives in protecting those of others.
10. The police should always be courteous and well-mannered; dependable and impartial; possess dignity and courage; and cultivate character and trust of the people.
11. Integrity of the highest order is the fundamental basis of the prestige of the police. Recognising this, the police must keep their private lives scrupulously clean, develop self-restraint and be truthful and honest in thought and deed, in both personal and official life, so that the public may regard them as exemplary citizens.
12. The police should recognise that their full utility to the state is best ensured only by maintaining a high standard of discipline, faithful performance of duties in accordance with law and implicit obedience to the lawful directions of commanding ranks and absolute loyalty to the force and by keeping themselves in the state of constant training and preparedness.
13. As members of a secular, democratic state the police should strive continually to rise above personal prejudices and promote harmony and spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities and to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women and disadvantaged segments of society.

2.6.5 Code of Behaviour for Police Officers

The NPC felt that, in addition to the Code of Conduct, which would be applicable to the police organisation as a whole, there should be a set of rules that would regulate the behaviour of individual members of the organisation. The Code of Behaviour approved by the government and circulated to all the states and union territories, is summarised below:

1. Neglect of Duty

No police officer without good and sufficient cause shall:

- (a) neglect or omit to attend to or carry out his duties with due promptitude and diligence, or

- (b) fail to work his beat in accordance with orders, or leave the place of duty to which he has been ordered, or
- (c) be absent without leave from or be late for any duty, or
- (d) fail properly to account for any money or property received by him in the course of his duty.

2. Disobedience to Orders

No police officer, shall, without good and sufficient cause, disobey or omit or neglect to carry out any lawful order, written or otherwise, or contravene any provision of the Police Regulations.

3. Discreditable Conduct

No police officer shall act in any manner prejudicial to discipline or conduct himself in such a manner as is reasonably likely to bring discredit on the reputation of the police force or of the police service.

4. Misconduct Towards a Member of a Police Force

A police officer shall not commit misconduct towards a member of a police force

- (a) by being oppressive or abusive, or
- (b) by assaulting or misbehaving with him.

5. Falsehood or Prevarication

No police officer shall:

- (a) knowingly or through neglect make any false, misleading or inaccurate oral or written statement or entry in any police record, or
- (b) either wilfully and without proper authority or through lack of due care destroy or mutilate any police record or document, or
- (c) without good and sufficient cause alter or erase any entry in such a record or document, or
- (d) knowingly or through neglect make any false, misleading or inaccurate statement in connection with his appointment to the police force.

6. Corrupt or Improper Practice

No police officer shall:

- (a) in his capacity as a member of the force, directly or indirectly, solicit or accept any gratuity, present or subscription, or
- (b) place himself under a pecuniary obligation to any person that prevents him from carrying out his duties, or
- (c) improperly use, or attempt to use, his position as a member of the force for his private advantage, or
- (d) write, sign or give a testimonial of character or other recommendation with

the object of obtaining employment for any person or of supporting an application for the grant of a licence of any kind.

7. Abuse of Authority

- (i) A police officer shall be deemed to have committed abuse of authority if he:
 - (a) without good and sufficient cause makes an arrest, or
 - (b) uses any unnecessary violence towards any prisoner or other person, or
 - (c) is uncivil to any member of the public.
- (ii) No police officer shall commit abuse of authority as aforesaid.

8. Neglect of Health

No police officer shall neglect his health or, while absent from duty on account of sickness, commit any act or adopt any conduct calculated to retard his return to duty.

9. Improper Dress and Untidiness

No police officer shall, while on duty, or while off duty but wearing the uniform in a public place, be improperly dressed or be untidy in appearance.

10. Drunkenness

No police officer shall be in a state of drunkenness which renders him unfit for duties.

11. Being an Accessory to a Disciplinary Offence

No police officer shall be an accessory to a disciplinary offence either by conniving at it or knowingly becoming accessory to any offence against discipline.

12. Damaging the Unity of the Force

No police officer shall by commission or omission do or fail to do anything, which creates or is likely to create divisions in the police force or affect the reputation and effectiveness of the force as an unbiased and impartial agency.

13. Anti-National Conduct

No police officer shall do anything which affects or is likely to affect the security and integrity of the nation or lowers or is likely to lower the repute of the country.

2.6. Recruitment

The most important asset of any organisation is its manpower. The success of the organisation in achieving its objectives ultimately depends on the quality of personnel who man it. This is true of all organisations, but more so of an organisation like the police, where the conditions of service and requirements of the job are highly exacting and demanding.

The police in India is one of the largest employers of manpower. The sanctioned strength of police forces in the states and union territories on 1 January 2014 was around 22.83 lakhs, while the seven CAPFs (Assam Rifles, BSF, CISF, CRPF, ITBP, NSG and SSB) on that date had a combined sanctioned strength of 9.32 lakhs. The total sanctioned strength of the police in the states and union territories plus the armed police forces under the Centre is round about 3.2 million. This huge reservoir of manpower can do enormous good to society if they are recruited, trained, led and used well.

Direct recruitment to the state police is done generally at three levels- Constable, Sub-Inspector and Deputy Superintendent of Police. Recruitment to the IPS is done at the level of Assistant Superintendent of Police. While recruitment to the first three ranks is done at the state level, IPS officers are recruited at central level.

Even in the same state, there are variations in the requirements prescribed for recruitment to a particular rank. Sometimes, the standards for recruitment to a particular rank in the civil police are different from those prescribed for the armed police. Standards prescribed for recruitment of female candidates are obviously different from those laid down for male candidates. Rules are relaxed for candidates belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in all states. Relaxation in height is also available to persons belonging to hilly areas.

There is also reservation of posts for candidates belonging to different categories, like Scheduled Castes, Backward Castes and Scheduled Tribes in all states. Some states also reserve a certain percentage of vacancies for freedom fighters, ex-servicemen, Home Guards, sportsmen and freedom fighters.

What is discussed in the following paragraphs are the conditions of eligibility and selection prescribed for recruitment of general category male candidates for civil police.

2.6.1 Recruitment of Constables

Constable being the lowest rank, the entire recruitment to this rank is made directly. So far as other ranks are concerned, vacancies are filled by direct recruitment, promotion and transfer. The largest recruitment is at the level of Constable. Data about qualifications/ standards prescribed for recruitment to this rank and procedure for selection are summarised in the following Table:

Table 13: State-wise Requirements for Recruitment as Constable

State	Age	Education	Physical Standards		Selection Procedure	Selection Authority
	In years		Height	Chest		
Assam	18-25	HSLC/CI 10	162.56	80-85 cm	PM; PET & WT	DSC
A Pradesh	18-22	10+2	167.6	86.3-91.3	PM;PET &WT	SPRB
Arun.Prade	17-21	Class X	5'5"	31-33"		DSC
Bihar	18-23	10+2	165 cm	81-86 cm	WT &PET	DSC
Chattisgarh	18-28	10+2	168 cm	81-86 cm	PET & WT	DSC
Goa	18-22	Hig. Sec.	168 cm	80-85 cm	PET; WT& Interview	DSC
Gujarat	18-28	12th+Comp. Knowledge			PET & WT	
Haryana	18-25	12 class	5'7"	33-34.5"	PM;PET;WT	H P R Board
H Pradesh	18-23	10+2	5' 6"	31-32"	PM;PET,WT& Pers. Test	D R B
J & K	18-23	Matric	5' 6"	33- 33.5"	-----	-----
Jharkhand						
Karnataka	19-25	12thstandard	168 cms		PM; PET; WT -----	DSC
Kerala	18-25	SSLC	167 cms	81-86 cms	PM;PET;WT	K P S C
M. Pradesh	18-25	10th class	168 cms	81-86	WT & then PET	MPPEB
Maharashtra	18-25	XII th Standard	165 cms	79-84 cms	PET: WT; Interview	
Manipur	18-23	Matric	5'.3"	31-33"	PM; PET; WT; Interview.	Class III Rect. Board
Meghalaya	18-21	HSLC	162 cms	76-81 cms	PM. PET;WT;Pers. Test	DSC
Mizoram		High School				
Nagaland	18-30	Class VIII	5' 5"	78-83 cms	PET; WT	D RB
Odisha	18-23	Hih. Secy.	168 cms	79-84 cms	PM; WT	D S B
Punjab	18-22	10+2	5'7"	33-34.5	PM; PET; WT & Interview	Rect. Board
Rajasthan	18-23	10th	168 cms	81-86 cms	WT;PM;PET	D R B
Sikkim	18-22	10th	5'3"	32-34"	P M; PET; WT	D R B
Tamilnadu	18-24	10th	168 cms	81-86 cms	WT; PET	T U S RB
Tripura	18-22	8th class	167.64 cms	74-78 cms	PM; PET; WT; Interview.	D S C
UP	18-22	12th class	168 cms	79-84 cms	PM ;WT; PET	UP P R & P Board
Uttarakhand	18-22	High School	165 cms	78.8-83.8 cms	PM.;PET;WT; Interview	D RB
W. Bengal	18-27	Madhyamik Exam.	167 cms	78-83 cms	PM.; PET; WT; Interview	W.B. P RB
Delhi	18-21	10+2	170 cms	81-85 cms	PM; PET' WT; Interview	DSB

Abbreviations:
cm-centimetres
PM-Physical measurements
PET-Physical efficiency/ endurance test
WT-Written test
Pers. test-Personality test
DSC/DRB-District Selection Committee/ District Recruitment Board
SPRB-State Police Recruitment Board
HPRB-Haryana Police Recruitment Board
KPSC-Kerala Public Service Commission
MPPEB-Madhya Pradesh Professional Examination Board
TUSRB-Tamil Nadu Uniformed Services Recruitment Board
UPPR&PB-Uttar Pradesh Police Recruitment & Promotion Board
WBPRB-West Bengal Police Recruitment Board

Most states have prescribed Higher Secondary (Class 12) as the minimum educational qualification, though in some states, the minimum is Class 10 or even Class 8. In states like Gujarat, besides the Class 12 qualification, constables are required to have working knowledge of computers.

The NPC recommended that the minimum age for a constable's recruitment should be 17 years and maximum 21 years. The minimum age in most states now is 18 years and the upper age limit for general category candidates ranges from 21 to 30 years. Relaxation in age up to five years is given to candidates belonging to Scheduled Casts/ Scheduled Tribes.

There are variations in physical standards prescribed for recruitment. For constables, the minimum height prescribed in different states varies from 162 cm to 168 cm for candidates of the general category with a relaxation of 2 cm for persons belonging to hilly and tribal areas. Most states have adopted 168 cm as the minimum standard.

The deflated chest measurement varies from 76 to 86.3 cm. Expansion recommended in most states is 5 cm. The standard norm in most states appears to be 81 cm unexpanded and 86 cm expanded.

The candidates are first screened and those who fulfil the prescribed requirements of age and physical measurements are subjected to a physical efficiency test designed to assess their stamina and endurance. In a few states, they are subjected to the one-star standard of the National Physical Efficiency test. All the states have formulated their physical efficiency tests based on events such as 1500- or 1600-metre races; 100- or 500-metre sprints, shot put, push ups, long jump and high jump. Distance/ time standards are laid down and those who qualify then appear for a written test. Selection is finally done on the basis of aggregate marks obtained by the candidates.

Recruitment of constables is generally done on a district/battalion basis. In most cases, it is done by a District Selection Board presided over by the district SP

or the Commandant of an armed police battalion. In Kerala, the State Public Service Commission is involved in the recruitment exercise even for constables. Some states have set up professional bodies to conduct or supervise recruitment to the police department, including that of the constables. A few examples are the Andhra Pradesh State Police Recruitment Board, Haryana Police Recruitment Board, Madhya Pradesh Professional Examination Board, Tamilnadu Uniformed Services Recruitment Board, Uttar Pradesh Police Recruitment and Promotion Board and West Bengal Police Recruitment Board.

2.6.2 Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors of Police

A Sub-Inspector is one of the most important functionaries in the police organisation. This is essentially for two reasons. One, an officer of this rank holds the charge of a police station in most cases. Two, most investigation work of important cases is done at this level.

The eligibility and other conditions prescribed for recruitment to the post of Sub-Inspector of Police are summarised below.

Table 14: State-wise Requirements for Recruitment to Sub-Inspector's Post

State	Age	Education	Physical Standards		Selection Procedure	Selection Authority
	In years		Height	Chest		
Andhra Pradesh	21-25	Graduate	167.6 cms	86.3-91.3	PM;PET;WT	State Police Rect. Board
Assam	20-24	Graduate	5' 3"	78.5-83.5	WT & PET	Selection Board
Arunachal Pradesh	20-25	Graduate	165 cms	79-84 cms	PM; PET; WT; Interview	-----
Bihar	21-37	Graduate	165 cm	81-86 cm	PET & WT	Bihar Staff Selection Commission
Chattisgarh	18-28	Graduate	168 cms	81-86	WT;PET; Interview	Selection Board
Goa	20-25	Graduate	171 cms	80-85	PM; PET; WT & Interview	-----
Gujarat	21-30	Graduate & Comp Knowl	165	84-89	PET; WT; Interview	GPSC
Haryana	22-28	Graduate	5'8"	---	PM;PET;WT	HPRB
Him.Pradesh	-----	Graduate	-----	-----	PM;WT;PET	H P Pol. Rect. Board
J&K	18-25	Graduate	5'6"	33"-33.5"	PM;PET;WT; Pers. Test	Selection Board

Jharkhand	18-28	Graduate				PMT; WT	
Karnataka	21-26	Graduate	168 cms	81-85 cms		PM;PET;WT & Interview	State Pub Service Commission
Kerala	20-30	Graduate	167 cms	81-86 cms		PM; WT;PET	KPSC
MP	18-28	Graduate	167.5 cms	81-86		PM; WT; PET;Interview	MPPEB
Maharashtra	19-28	Graduate	167.6 cms	81-86		WT; PET & Interview	MPSC
Manipur	18-25	Graduate	5' 3"	31-33"		PM; PET; WT & Interview	Selection Board
Meghalaya	20-27	Graduate	162 cms	76-81		PM; WT; Pers. Test	Central Sel. Board
Mizoram	-----	-----	-----	-----		-----	-----
Nagaland							
Odisha	20-25	Graduate	168	79-84		Preliminary WT; PM, PET; Main WT; Interview	Odi-sha Staff Selection Commission
Punjab	18-25	Graduate	5' 7"	33-34"		PM; PET; WT & Interview	Selection Board
Rajasthan	20-25	Graduate	168 cms	81-86 cms		WT;PET; Interview	Raj. Pub. Ser. Commission
Sikkim	18-25	Graduate	5' 3"	32-34"		Preliminary WT, PET; Main WT & Interview	Sikkim Public Ser. Comm.
Tamilnadu	20-28	Graduate	168 cms	81-86 cms		WT; PET	TUSR B
Tripura	21-27	Graduate	167.64 cms	78.74-83.82 cms		PM; PET (One Star Standard); WT; Personality Test	TPSC
UP	18-25	Graduate	168 cms	79-84 cms		PET, WT, Interview	UPPR&PB
Uttarakhand	21-27	Graduate	167.7 cms	78.8-83.8 cms		PM; PET;WT;	-----
West Bengal	20-27	Graduate	167 cms	79-84 cms		WT; Personality Test	W.B. P RB

There are three main points relating to the recruitment of Sub-Inspectors that need emphasis. First, this is done centrally, while the recruitment of Constables is unit or district based. Second, in most states, Sub-Inspectors are recruited under the supervision of the State Public Service Commission or similar body established for such recruitments, unlike the constable's recruitment which is done by a district selection board generally headed by the District Superintendent of Police. Third, in all states, graduation is the minimum qualification for recruitment of Sub-Inspectors. While the physical measurements and endurance test standards are more or less similar, there is a marked emphasis on higher educational standards. This is understandable because of higher respon-

sibilities associated with this post. The written test prescribed for Sub-Inspectors generally examines candidates in essay writing, general knowledge, arithmetic, current affairs and history. In some states, a preliminary objective written test is held to screen the candidates. In most states, the written examination is followed by an interview.

2.6.3 Recruitment of Deputy Superintendent of Police

The post of Deputy Superintendent of Police belongs to the state police service. Recruitment to this rank is governed by the rules framed by the state governments for the service. We have studied the rules framed by five state governments – Assam, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Tamilnadu.

Except for minor differences, the rules in different states are more or less similar. They provide two methods of recruitment – direct recruitment through a competitive examination and promotion from the rank of Inspector of Police. In most states, 50% of vacancies are filled by direct recruitment and 50% by promotion. A few states, like Gujarat, divide the vacancies at a ratio of 1: 2 for direct recruitment and promotion respectively.

The minimum educational qualification prescribed for direct recruits is a graduate degree from a recognised university. There is variation in the minimum and maximum age limits for direct recruits. For instance, it is 21- 25 years in Assam, 21-28 years in Gujarat, 20-25 years in Madhya Pradesh, 21-32 years in Odisha and 21-30 years in Tamilnadu. The minimum height prescribed ranges between 165 cm and 168 cm and for chest measurements most states have stipulated 81-85 cm.

Direct recruitment is done through a written examination conducted by the State Public Service Commission. In many states, a preliminary test is held to weed out candidates. Only those who qualify in the preliminary test are allowed to appear for the final examination. Candidates successful in the written tests are interviewed by the State Public Service Commission. The Commission prepares a list of candidates in order of merit, based on marks obtained and sends it to the government.

Recruitment through promotion is done from confirmed officers of the rank of Inspector of Police, who have completed a minimum period of service in that rank, which varies from 5 to 8 years. Selection is done by a Committee headed by the Chairman or a member of the State Public Service Commission with the Chief Secretary or Home Secretary and DGP/IGP as members. The list of suitable officers is forwarded by the government to the commission with the character rolls, personal files and other relevant details. The names of officers whom the commission considers suitable for promotion are returned to the government.

2.6.4 Recruitment to the Indian Police Service (IPS)

Appointment to the Indian Police Service is also done by two methods direct recruitment and promotion. Two-thirds of the appointments are made by direct recruitment while one-third is made through the promotion of officers of the State Police Service cadre.

The following rules and regulations govern recruitment to the Indian Police Service:

1. The Indian Police Service (Recruitment) Rules, 1954
2. The Indian Police Service (Appointment by Competitive Examinations) Regulations, 1955
3. The Indian Police Service (Appointment by Promotion) Regulations, 1955
4. The Indian Police Service (Special Recruitment) Regulations, 1957.

Direct recruitment to the Indian Police Service is done on the basis of a combined examination conducted by the Union Public Service Commission for All India and Group A Central Services. The candidate must be a citizen of India and should be between 21 and 30 years of age on the first day of August of the year in which the examination is held. SC/ST/OBC candidates and ex-servicemen are given an exemption of 3 to 5 years for the upper age limit.

The minimum educational qualification for recruitment is a graduate degree from a recognised university.

The height prescribed for the general category candidates is 165 cm for males and 150 cm for females. Five cm relaxation in height is allowed to candidates belonging to SC/ST/OBC. The chest measurements prescribed for male candidates are 84 cm (unexpanded) and 89 cm (expanded).

Selection of directly recruited candidates is done in three stages by the Union Public Service Commission. The first is the preliminary test, which results in weeding out a large number of candidates. Those who qualify appear in the main examination, which constitutes the second stage. In the third stage, the successful candidates are put through a personality test during an interview. A final list is prepared on the basis of performance in the main examination and the interview.

Appointment to the IPS by promotion is governed by rules framed separately for this purpose. According to The Indian Police Service (Appointment by Promotion) Regulations, 1955, a committee headed by the Chairman or a member of the Union Public Service Commission and having the Chief Secretary, Home Secretary, Director General of Police of the state government and two nominees of the Government of India not below the rank of Joint Secretary as members ordinarily meets every year and prepares a list of members of the state police service that are considered suitable for promotion to the service. According to

the rules, the committee does not consider members of the state police service who have attained the age of 54 years on the first day of the year for which the selection list is prepared.

The selection committee classifies the eligible officers as “outstanding”, “very good”, “good” or “unfit” based on an overall relative assessment of their service records. Recommendations are made on the basis of this assessment and the list is forwarded to the commission by the state government with all relevant records. The Select List is finally prepared by the commission. Appointments to the service are made by the central government in the order in which the names of the members of the state police service appear in the Select List.

2.7 Police Training

All states have set up their own police training colleges or academies to impart training to directly recruited Sub-Inspectors and Deputy Superintendents of Police and training schools for their constabulary.

Most central police organisations have established their own training institutions, which impart basic training for their officers and also refresher and specialised courses for them and for others.

There were 325 police training institutions in the country on 1 January 2014. Of these, 225 belonged to the states and 100 to the Centre.⁵⁴

Different types of training courses are organised by police training institutions:

1. Basic induction level courses for fresh recruits
2. Pre-promotion in-service courses for those about to be promoted
3. Refresher courses
4. Specialised courses.

Practical training is also imparted to police personnel who have undergone their basic induction course.

2.7.1 Training of Constables

Basic training course for Constables in the states ranges from nine months to one year. The recruits are imparted indoor training in subjects, such as: the police role in modern India; organisation and administration; law, crime prevention, maintenance of law and order; police duties; code of conduct and behaviour; police-public relations; human rights; etc. Considerable emphasis is laid on imparting outdoor training: Physical training; drill; handling of weapons and explosives; field craft and tactics; first aid; riot control; traffic control; unarmed combat; etc. are taught during the basic training.

⁵⁴ BPR&D, Data on Police Organisations in India as on January 1, 2014, p 171

The Model Police Manual designed by the BPR&D has suggested that an additional practical training module should be introduced in all states.⁵⁵ Its duration should be six months. First month should be used to learn routine duties in a police station, next two months to learn preventive work, fourth month to study the basics of investigation and fifth and six months to understand the problems of urban policing by being attached to an urban police station.

2.7.2 Training of Sub-Inspectors

The training of directly recruited Sub-Inspectors is conducted at the police training colleges of the states. The duration of the basic course is generally 12 months. The syllabus suggested by the Gore Committee on Police Training was adopted by most states. Except for some minor variations, the subjects taught during the basic course include: modern India and the role of the police; organisation and administration of the police; leadership and supervision; human behaviour, police attitudes, police image and police public relations; law; criminology; police science that includes crime prevention, crime investigation incorporating forensic medicine and science; maintenance of order; traffic control; security; and matters relating to foreigners. Outdoor subjects include physical training; drill; weapons training; crowd control; maintenance and mechanism of automobiles and driving; handling of R/T equipment; unarmed combat and field craft and tactics.

After the Sub-Inspectors pass out from the training college, they are attached to different police units for practical training in the work performed by police officers of different ranks. There are variations in the duration and format for this in the different states. The Gore Committee had worked out a twelve-month practical training programme, which was recommended by the BPR&D in its *Model Police Manual*.⁵⁶ This practical training programme includes the attachment of the trainee to officers in rural and urban police stations to learn crime prevention and investigation work and crowd control methods. Attachment is also made to the prosecution branch to study court work and to the district crime branch to learn how to deal with inter-district and inter-state crime and criminals. The practical training includes a posting for two months as an extra Investigating Officer in a city police station with a heavy crime load. There is a one-month attachment to the office of the district SP's office as his Reader to learn the working of the district police headquarters and another month to an armed police battalion to be trained in the working of the armed police as part of this practical training.

The subjects included in the basic course for Deputy Superintendent of Police are more or less similar, with a greater emphasis on some subjects and a focus on developing qualities of management and leadership.

55 BPR&D, *Model Police Manual*, Vol III, 2010, pp87-88

56 BPR&D, *Model Police Manual*, Vol III, 2010, pp 93-94

2.7.3 Training of IPS Officers

Officers recruited to the IPS are trained in the Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel National Police Academy (NPA) at Hyderabad after they have done a foundational training course along with officers of other All-India and Group A Central Services at the Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration at Mussorie in Uttarakhand. The aim of the Foundational Training course is to provide understanding of the constitutional, economic and social framework within which the All India and Central Service officers function and to give them an idea of the basic principles of administration, functioning of the government machinery etc.

This is followed by a basic training course of 46 weeks conducted at the NPA.⁵⁷ This includes a study cum cultural tour of 3 weeks and attachments of 1 week each to Bureau of Parliament Study and Training, CRPF and the Army. They are then required to do 28 weeks state/district practical training, They then return to the Academy for Phase II of the training of six weeks, that includes two weeks of foreign training, during which they are exposed to international policing practices.

The indoor training includes subjects like Modern India and the Role of Police; General Administrative Set up and Police Organisation; Management Concepts and Techniques; Human Behaviour and Police Attitudes; Law; Criminology; Police Science; Map Reading and Plan Drawing; First Aid and Ambulance Drill; Motor Transport; Wireless Communication; Languages and Tutorials. Outdoor training includes Physical Fitness Programme (that includes Yoga asans, rock climbing, obstacle courses, swimming, scuba diving, river rafting, body building etc); Drill; Weapons Training; Crowd Control; Equitation; Unarmed Combat; Field Craft and Tactics; Games and Driving. Training in Jungle warfare and in dealing with terrorism, left wing extremism and other forms of violence is also imparted.

Apart from the Basic Training Course for IPS officers, the Academy also conducts compulsory mid career training programme for officers of the rank of Superintendent of Police, Deputy Inspector General, Inspector General and Additional Director General of Police of the Indian Police Service. The first programme of six weeks duration, including two weeks abroad, is for promotion of Superintendents of Police to Junior Administrative Grade. This is meant for officers who are in their seventh to ninth year of service. The next phase, again of the same duration (with two weeks abroad), is for promotion from Deputy Inspector General to Inspector General of Police and is to be done by officers in their fourteenth to sixteenth year of service. The last phase of 4 weeks duration (with two weeks abroad) is meant for officers in their twenty-fourth to twenty-sixth year of service and is to be done to avail annual increment on completion of 28 years of service.

⁵⁷ Details of training programme given here are of the 66 RR (2013 Batch)

Training of Trainers' Courses for trainers of various police training institutions in the country; IPS Induction Training Course for State Police Service Officers; short specialised thematic courses, seminars and workshops on professional subjects for all levels of police officers are also organised by the Academy.

The Academy organises refresher courses for senior officers. During 2014, 26 in-service training courses (including 7 seminars on national security issues), wild life crime detection, community policing, innovations in forensic science, investigation of crimes against women, cyber crime investigation and human rights and police were organised. These were attended by 843 senior officers from different police organisations.

It is mandatory for lower ranks to successfully complete the prescribed training courses to get promotion to the next higher rank. Such training courses are called pre-promotion courses. The object is to equip officers for the duties of the next higher rank. The course contents of such courses differ from rank to rank and also sometimes from state to state.

2.7.4 Pre-Promotion Courses

In case of lower ranks, successfully completing prescribed training courses is mandatory to get promotion to the next higher rank. Training courses conducted for this purpose are called pre-promotion courses. The object is to equip officers for the duties of the next higher rank. The course contents of such courses differ from rank to rank and also sometimes from state to state.

According to the recommendations of the Gore Committee on Police Training, Constables aspiring for promotion to Head Constables should be trained in procedures and techniques of investigation, related laws, forensic science and preventive aspects of police work. The duration of such pre-promotion course should be six months. Similarly, a three months course for Assistant Sub-Inspectors to become Sub-Inspectors and a six to eight weeks course for Sub-Inspectors to become Inspectors should be organised. The emphasis should be on supervision and leadership, prevention and investigation of crime and maintenance of law and order.

2.7.5 Refresher/Specialised Courses

Besides the above, refresher courses are also conducted to sharpen the professional skills of existing police personnel and also to bring about the required changes in their attitudes. There is no standard format either about the duration or the contents of such courses, which are organised to reorient the skills and attitudes of police personnel of different ranks.

Specialised training courses, conducted on different subjects, are organised by

the police as well as other training institutions, including those on management, public administration and behavioural sciences.

Some of the subjects covered by the specialised training courses are:

- Crime investigation skills
- Advanced techniques of scientific investigation
- VIP security
- Dealing with insurgency/ terrorism
- Detection and disposal of bombs/explosives
- Computer applications
- Management/public administration
- Forensic science
- Vigilance and anti-corruption
- Dealing with special crimes, such as those against women and children
- Gender sensitisation
- Drugs/ narcotics
- Training of trainers
- Human rights
- Radio wireless
- Traffic control
- Commando training
- Intelligence
- Rock climbing/ mountaineering
- Cyber crimes and their investigation
- Field craft/ tactics.

2.7.6 Some Central Police Training Institutions

All the central police organisations have their own police training institutions set up mainly to train their own personnel, though they do also organise training courses for state police personnel, particularly in areas of their expertise. However, there are some police training institutions which have been established by the central government mainly to train state police personnel.

The most prominent of these are the Central Detective Training Schools (CDTS) functioning under the administrative control of the Bureau of Police Research and Development. Presently, there are five such schools, located at Kolkata, Hyderabad, Chandigarh, Ghaziabad and Jaipur. CDTS Kolkata was set up in 1956, CDTS Hyderabad, in 1964, CDTS Chandigarh, in 1975 and the other two were established in 2012.

These Schools are meant to improve the standard of crime investigation in the country by training Investigating Officers of the rank of Assistant Sub-Inspector to Dy. Superintendent of Police in advanced scientific methods of investigating crimes. Police officers from neighbouring foreign countries also come to these institutions to attend the courses.

A Central Academy of Police Training (CAPT) was established in 2013 under the BPR&D at Bhopal to train officers of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police and Additional Superintendent of Police from states and union territories. Conducting Training of Trainers Course for faculties of State Police Academies is also a part of the mandate of this institution. The Academy is headed by an officer of the rank of Inspector General of Police.

Another important training institution under the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India is the North Eastern Police Academy (NEPA), which was established near Shillong in 1978. It is the only regional police training institute in the country, which conducts basic courses for directly recruited Deputy Superintendents of Police and Sub-Inspectors of police for the eight North Eastern states of the country. It also organises in-service courses, seminars and workshops for police officers of all states.

The training directorate of BPR&D sponsors vertical interaction courses for senior police officers of all ranks to be conducted by police and non-police training institutions in the country. Some of the subjects selected for such courses during 2014 were Interpersonal Effectiveness and Leadership Experience, Communication and Presentation Skills, Managerial Leadership and Conflict Resolution, Leadership and Change Management, Emotional Intelligence, Knowledge Management etc. Most of such courses are of short duration.

Senior police officers are sent abroad every year for training in foreign training institutions.

2.7.7 Expenditure on Police Training

The State governments have not been able to spare sufficient funds to meet the requirements of police training. The percentage of expenditure incurred on police training to total police expenditure ranged from 1.09 to 1.41 during the period 1990-91 to 1999-2000. There has not been much improvement in the position during the last five years, as is seen from the following table:

Table 15 - Expenditure on Police Training as Percentage of Total Police Expenditure during 2009-10 to 2013-14⁵⁸

(Rs. In Crores)

Year	Total Police Expenditure (Rs. In Crores)	Expenditure on Police Training	Percentage to Total Expenditure
2009-10	41307.66	481.37	1.17
2010-11	49,576.27	708.56	1.43
2011-12	55,747.00	911.70	1.64
2012-13	58,028.05	937.61	1.62
2013-14	63,146.04	1118.23	1.77

2.8 Police Expenditure in the States and Union Territories

2.8.1 State Budgets and Expenditure on Police

Information about the total budgetary expenditure of state governments during the financial year 2013-14 and the money spent on their police forces is given below:⁵⁹

Table 16- Total State Budget and Expenditure on Police For Year 2013-14

(Rs. In Crores)

Sl. No.	State	Total Budget	Police Budget	Percentage of Police Budget To Total Budget
1.	And. Pradesh	1,61,464.78	3,861.04	2.39
2.	Aruna. Pradesh	NA	NA	NA
3.	Assam	48,553.64	2020.81	4.16
4.	Bihar	NA	3,279.30	NA
5.	Chattisgarh	NA	1, 627.90	NA
6.	Goa	NA	257.70	NA
7.	Gujarat	1,11,984.00	1,879.00	1.68
8.	Haryana	75,093.28	1,612.85	2.15
9.	Him. Pradesh	24,594.95	613.27	2.49
10.	J & K	38,068.00	2,157.37	5.67
11.	Jharkhand	NA	2,403.72	NA
12.	Karnataka	1,21,610.87	2261.17	1.86
13.	Kerala	80,660.51	1578.97	1.96
14.	Madhya Pradesh	1,12,803.64	2,545.41	2.26

⁵⁸ Information extracted from Data on Police Organisations for different years published by BPR&D

⁵⁹ BPR&D, *Data on Police Organisations in India, 2014*, p. 77.

15.	Maharashtra	1,94,067.06	5803.8	2.99
16.	Manipur	8,980.30	632.64	7.04
17.	Meghalaya	5,874.07	325.00	5.53
18.	Mizoram	5,397.33	307.41	5.70
19.	Nagaland	10,057.94	685.06	6.81
20.	Odisha	6,88,576.20	2028.60	0.2
21.	Punjab	NA	3975.34	NA
22.	Rajasthan	94,871.95	3,037.70	3.20
23.	Sikkim	4,379.48	242.24	5.53
24.	Tamilnadu	1,49,815.20	3,412.57	2.2
25.	Tripura	9,416.49	521.17	5.53
26.	Uttar Pradesh	NA	8,541.86	NA
27.	Uttarakhand	25,329.84	742.04	2.93
28.	West Bengal	1,18,180.99	2,824.48	2.39
29.	A&N Islands	3,303.42	165.54	5.01
30.	Chandigarh	3,208.85	309.00	9.6
31.	D&N Haveli	NA	15.62	NA
32.	Daman &Diu	1,431.29	8.55	0.60
33.	Delhi	35,423.59	3314.59	9.36
34.	Lakshadweep	1024.73	18.32	1.79
35.	Puducherry	5,890.00	136.00	2.31
	Total	2,140,062.40	63,146.04	2.95

Since data for all the states is not available, police expenditure as percentage of state budget has been estimated only for 27 states. This data shows that police departments get a fairly small proportion of the available resources from the state governments. The average budget allocation for Police in the twenty seven states in 2013-14 was only 2.95% of the total budget. It is in North-eastern states like Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura, some of which have been fighting the problem of insurgency, that the average expenditure on police exceeded 5% of their budgets. Amongst union territories, expenditure on Delhi Police and Chandigarh Police is more than 9% of their budgets.

2.8.2 Annual Increase in Police Expenditure

Even though police receive a small portion of total budget, expenditure incurred on State Police Forces has risen every year. Information about state police expenditure incurred during different years is given below:

Table 17: Expenditure Incurred on Police Forces in the States and Union Territories from 2001-02 to 2013-14⁶⁰

(Rs. In Crores)

Year	Expenditure on the Police in the States
2001-02	16,004.06
2002-03	16912.67
2003-04	18,044.22
2004-05	19,915.88
2005-06	21,070.60
2006-07	22,716.79
2007-08	26,269.09
2008-09	31,748.30
2009-10	41,307.66
2010-11	49,576.27
2011-12	55,747.00
2012-13	58,028.05
2013-14	63,146.04

From Rs. 16 thousand crores in 2001-02, expenditure on the police went up to slightly over Rs. 63 thousand crores in 2013-14. Thus during the last 13 years (2001-02 to 2013-14), the total expenditure incurred on police forces in different states registered an increase of about 394.56%. This does not reflect the total expenditure on the police in the country, as the central government's expenditure on its police organisations is not taken into account here. The actual expenditure spent by the central government on its seven armed police forces⁶¹ alone during 2013-14 was Rs. 37,723.94 crores. Thus, even if other central police organisations are not taken into account, the total expenditure on the police during 2013-14 was as high as Rs. 1,00,869.98 crores.

⁶⁰ Extracted from Data on Police Organisations in India for different years published by BPR&D.

⁶¹ AR, BSF, CISF, CRPF, ITBP, NSG and SSB.

3 FORENSIC SCIENCE ESTABLISHMENT IN INDIA

3.1 Important Historical Landmarks

No full-fledged forensic science laboratory existed in the country before Independence. Most forensic work during British rule was undertaken by the laboratories of the Chemical Examiners of the Government of India at Agra, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, the Finger Print Bureau, Serologist to the Government of India, Chief Inspectorate of Explosives, Government Examiners of Questioned Documents and Scientific Sections of the CID Branches.

The first Chemical Examiner's Laboratory was set up in the Madras Presidency, under the Department of Health, in 1849. Later, similar laboratories were set up at Calcutta (1853), Agra (1864) and Bombay (1870). An explosives department came into existence with the appointment of a Chief Inspector of Explosives at Nagpur in 1898. The most significant development in the field of forensic science was the creation of the Finger Print Bureau in Calcutta in 1897, which was the first of its kind in the world. A Central Serologist Laboratory under the Imperial Serologist to the Government of India was established in Calcutta in 1910. In 1930, an Arms Expert was appointed and a small ballistic laboratory was created under the Calcutta Police to deal with the examination of firearms.

3.2 Forensic Science Laboratories in the States

After Independence, State Governments realised the need to set up full fledged forensic science laboratories and now almost all big states have them. Presently, 30 forensic science laboratories are functioning in the states and union territories.

In most states, forensic science laboratories function under the head of the state police force. In some (Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamilnadu and West Bengal), they function under the home department of the state government.

Some state forensic science laboratories have set up regional, district and mobile laboratories too. Currently, in addition to State Forensic Science Laboratories (SFSs), there are 50 Regional Forensic Science Laboratories (RFSs) and 317 District Mobile Forensic Units (DMFUs) in the country.

The work of an average state forensic science laboratory is divided into various divisions or branches such as ballistics, biology, chemistry, documents, explosives, physics, photography, serology and toxicology.

3.3 Forensic Science Laboratories under the Centre

The central government has established its own institutions to advance forensic science. The Directorate of Forensic Science Services (DFSS) under the Ministry of Home Affairs is a nodal agency to promote forensic science in the country. It formulates plans and policies to promote quality and capacity building for forensic services in the country.

The DFSS administers six central forensic science laboratories located at Kolkata, Hyderabad, Chandigarh, Bhopal, Pune and Guwahati.

A seventh Central Forensic Science Laboratory (CFSL) was established in Delhi in 1965 under the administrative control of the Director, CBI, to provide scientific support to the investigation of crimes. It is one of the most comprehensive and fully equipped laboratories in the country.

The DFSS also administers three offices of the Government Examiner of Questioned Documents located at Shimla, Kolkata and Chandigarh.

4 THE CENTRE'S ROLE IN POLICING

4.1 Constitutional Provisions

Even though the Constitution of India states that “Police” and “Public Order” are state subjects, the distribution of legislative powers between the Centre and the states indicates several areas of police work in which the Centre can play a vital role. The Constitution imposes on the central government the responsibility to deploy the armed forces of the union, which includes the central armed police forces, in aid of civil power; to maintain the Intelligence Bureau and the Central Bureau of Investigation; to set up institutions to train police officers, promote research and render scientific or technical assistance in investigation and detection of crime; and to recruit and manage the Indian Police Service.⁶² Criminal laws and criminal procedure figure in the Concurrent List, which empower the central government to enact or amend substantive as well as procedural laws dealing with criminal matters.⁶³ The Centre can also extend the powers and jurisdiction of members of one state police force to another state with its consent⁶⁴. A significant provision in the Constitution makes it the “duty of the Union to protect every State against external aggression and internal disturbance and to ensure that the government of every State is carried on in accordance with the provisions of this Constitution.”⁶⁵ If there is a breakdown of the constitutional machinery in any state, the central government can take over all the functions of the state government.⁶⁶

Besides these constitutional provisions, the central government provides substantial grants to state governments to modernise their police forces.

4.2 The Role of the Ministry of Home Affairs

The central government through the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) performs the following duties with respect to the police:⁶⁷

1. Recruiting and managing the Indian Police Service
2. Operating the Intelligence Bureau, the Central Bureau of Investigation and other central police organisations
3. Raising, maintaining and deploying central armed and paramilitary forces to assist the civil power

62 The Constitution of India, Seventh Schedule, List 1, Entry Numbers 2, 8, 65 & 70.

63 The Constitution of India, Seventh Schedule, List III, Entry Numbers 1 & 2.

64 The Constitution of India, Seventh Schedule, List 1, Entry Number 80.

65 The Constitution of India, Article 355

66 Ibid, Article 356

67 National Police Commission, Seventh Report, May 1981, p. 68.

4. Maintaining a Directorate of Coordination of Police Wireless to provide an independent channel of communication to state police forces in the country
5. Maintaining the National Crime Record Bureau, which is responsible for collating and disseminating national-level crime-related data; computerisation of crime records and application of computer technology to police work
6. Establishing and maintaining institutions for police research and training and rendering scientific aid to investigations
7. Enacting laws for the functioning of a uniform criminal justice system in the country
8. Coordinating the activities of various state police organisations
9. Rendering advice and assistance to state governments in dealing with crime, law and order and internal security matters
10. Providing financial assistance to modernise state police forces.

In addition, the MHA exercises administrative control over the police forces in the union territories.

4.3 The Indian Police Service

At Independence, the country inherited two all-India services – the Indian Civil Service (ICS) and the Indian Police (IP). These were renamed the Indian Administrative Service (IAS) and the Indian Police Service (IPS) respectively. These were constituted under Article 312 of the Constitution of India and legislation was enacted to govern them.

The authorised strength of the IPS officers on 1 January 2015 was 4,756.⁶⁸ The number of officers who are selected for the IPS varies from year to year depending on the vacancies. The officers provide senior-level leadership to the police forces in the country at the Centre as well as in the States.

The IPS cadre is controlled by the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India. The Ministry takes all decisions relating to the Service, including its strength, training, cadre allocation, confirmation, empanelment, deputation, pay and allowances, disciplinary matters, etc. The Service is organised into state cadres. There is no separate cadre for the union government, even though IPS officers also serve the central government. They come on deputation to the Centre from the central reserve built into the state cadres.

The officers selected to the IPS join as Assistant Superintendents of Police and are allotted to the different state cadres by the Government of India. All matters relating to postings, transfers, promotions etc. of IPS officers in the states are handled by the state governments, while similar administrative control is exercised by the central government in respect of officers working under the central

⁶⁸ Ministry of Home Affairs, Annual Report, 2014-15, p. 125.

government. An IPS officer can be removed or dismissed from service only by the central government.

4.4 Central Police Organisations (CPOs)

The central government has established a number of police organisations known as the central police organisations (CPOs). CPOs functioning under the central government can be broadly divided into two groups. One is the armed police organisations, known as Central Armed Police Forces (CAPFs), such as the Assam Rifles (AR), Border Security Force (BSF), Central Industrial Security Force (CISF), Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF), Indo Tibetan Border Police (ITBP), National Security Guard (NSG) and Seema Suraksha Bal (SSB). They are funded out of the “police” budget of the Ministry of Home Affairs and function under its administrative control.

The other group consists of organisations such as the Bureau of Police Research and Development (BPR&D), Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI), Directorate of Coordination of Police Wireless (DCPW), Intelligence Bureau (IB), National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) and National Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science (NICFS). In addition, there are police training institutions, such as the National Police Academy (NPA) and the North Eastern Police Academy (NEPA), which have been discussed above.

Some intelligence and investigating agencies under the Ministry of Finance also do policing work. They are involved in collecting intelligence and investigating economic offences pertaining to customs, excise, income tax, foreign exchange, money laundering and narcotics smuggling. Some of these are the Central Economic Intelligence Bureau, Directorate General of Revenue Intelligence, Directorate of Enforcement, Financial Intelligence Unit, Directorate General of Anti-Evasion, Directorate General of Income Tax (Investigation), Narcotics Control Bureau, etc. Similarly, there are some intelligence organisations, such as the National Technical Research Organisation (NTRO), Research and Analysis Wing (RAW), Aviation Research Centre of RAW, that function under the Cabinet Secretariat. Another organisation under the Cabinet Secretariat is Special Protection Group, which provides security to Prime Minister and his family members. There is a Railway Protection Force that functions under the control of the Ministry of Railways. We propose to leave all organisations except those which come under the administrative control of the Ministry of Home Affairs at the Centre out of this analysis.

4.4.1 Central Armed Police Forces (CAPFs)

Of the CAPFs, the AR, BSF, ITBP and SSB are Border Guarding Forces. Though the AR functions under the administrative control of the MHA, its operational control rests with the Ministry of Defence. The NSG is a commando force trained

for special operations. The CISF provides security and protection to industrial undertakings and vital installations. The CRPF is deployed in aid of civil power in matters relating to maintenance of law and order, internal security and counter-insurgency.

A brief description of such central armed police forces is given below:

4.4.1.1 The Assam Rifles

Assam Rifles (AR) is the oldest of all the CAPFs. It was set up as a small unit of 750 men known as Cachar Levy in 1835, to guard the British settlements and tea estates in Assam and its neighbouring areas. It was renamed in 1891 as the Cachar Levy Frontier Police, as the Assam Military Police in 1913 and as the Assam Rifles in 1917.

Before Independence, the Force formed a part of the Assam Police under the control of the head of that police force. After Independence, it was de-linked from the Assam Police and since then has always been headed by Army officers. Presently, it is headed by a Director General, who is a Lt. General from the Army. Though the organisation has a cadre of its own officers, most senior positions are filled by officers on deputation from the Army.

The Force is presently governed by the Assam Rifles Act, 1941. Its headquarters is at Shillong in Meghalaya. In addition to a Directorate General Headquarters, the Force has 3 Inspectorate General Headquarters, 12 Sector Headquarters, 46 battalions, a training centre, some administrative units, with a total sanctioned strength of 65,902 personnel.⁶⁹

Its charter of functions includes:

- maintaining security of the North Eastern sector of the international border spread over 1,631 KMs;
- helping states in the North East in maintaining law and order and other states as and when needed; and
- taking counter insurgency measures in the states of North East.



⁶⁹ *Ibid*, p 133.

4.4.1.2 The Border Security Force

Before the Indo-Pak war of 1965, maintaining security on the Indo-Pak border was the responsibility of the armed police forces of the concerned states. The war led the Government of India to recognise the need to set up a specialised force to maintain security on the Indo-Pak international border and established the Border Security Force (BSF) on 1 December 1965. All the twenty five and a half state armed police battalions posted on the Indo-Pak border were merged into this Force.

Since then, the Force has expanded considerably. Its headquarters is in Delhi and it is headed by a Director General of Police. The headquarters establishment is divided into different directorates, dealing with matters such as administration, personnel, provisioning, communication and information technology, operations, intelligence, training, accounts, law, etc. Its field formation includes Special Directorate General, Eastern Command and a similar Directorate General, Western Command, 13 Frontiers and 46 Sector Headquarters and 179 battalions. There are 5 major training institutions, 11 subsidiary training centers and 3 minor training institutions. In addition, there are Signal Regiments, Artillery regiments, an Air Wing and a Water Wing. The total sanctioned strength of the Force on 1 January, 2015 was 2,52,059. Its operational responsibility is spread over 6, 386.36 km of international border with Pakistan and Bangladesh. It is also deployed on Line of Control in J&K under the operational control of the Army.⁷⁰

The Force is governed by the BSF Act, which was passed by Parliament in 1968 and came into effect on 1 March 1969. BSF Rules under the Act were framed in 1969.

The BSF is assigned peace as well as war-time tasks.⁷¹

1. Peace Time Tasks:

1. To prevent trans-border crimes, unauthorised entry into or exit from the territory of India
2. To prevent smuggling and related illegal activities
3. To promote a sense of security amongst the people living in the border areas
4. To help civil administration in maintaining public order.

2. War-Time Tasks

- To hold ground in less threatened sectors as long as the main attack does not develop in a particular sector
- To protect vital installations against enemy commandos and para-troop raids

⁷⁰ Ibid, p 135.

⁷¹ <http://bsf.nic.in/en/introduction1.html>.

- Limited aggressive action against paramilitary or irregular forces of the enemy within the overall plan of the armed forces
- Performing special tasks connected with intelligence, including raids
- Maintenance of law and order in enemy territory administrated under the control of army
- Anti-infiltration duties in specified areas
- Provision of escorts
- Guarding prisoners of war.



Late Shri K. F. Rustamjee, Founder Director General of the BSF



Camel Contingent of the BSF Patrolling the Rajasthan Border



Mahila Contingent of the BSF

4.4.1.3 The Central Industrial Security Force

The Central Industrial Security Force (CISF) was set up by an Act of Parliament (Central Industrial Security Force Act, 1968) to provide for “better protection and security of certain industrial undertakings.”⁷² It came into force on 10 March 1969. The Act envisioned the Force as a watch and ward organisation. It was amended in March 1983 to make the CISF an armed force of the Union. It was amended again in 1989 and in 1999. The 1999 amendment provided, inter alia, for deployment of the CISF in industrial organisations owned or funded by the central government, running of consultancy service by the CISF for public and private sector enterprises and deployment of the CISF on any other duty entrusted to it by the central government.⁷³

The CISF had a sanctioned strength of 1,41,342 personnel on 1 January 2015.⁷⁴

Presently, the force provides security cover to 313 units, including 59 domestic and international airports and fire protection cover to 91 industrial undertakings. It provides security to major critical installations, such as atomic power plants, space installations, defence production units, mines, oil refineries, sea ports, steel plants, airports, power plants, government buildings, heritage monuments and important public sector units. It provides security to 136 metro stations in the country⁷⁵ and is also deployed on internal security and election duty, when required.

The Force is headed by an officer of the rank of Director General, who is assisted by an Additional Director General, two Inspectors General and other officers at the headquarters. The headquarters has various directorates to deal with matters of establishment, induction and planning, training, provisioning, operations, personnel etc. These Directorates are under officers of the rank of Inspector General/Dy. Inspector General.

The field establishment is divided into five Sectors⁷⁶ - Airport Sector Headquarters, North Sector, North East Sector, Eastern and Western Sectors. The Airport Sector Headquarters is commanded by an Additional Director General, who is assisted by an Inspector General, a Dy. Inspector General and some other officers. Each of the other four Sectors is headed by an Inspector General, assisted by other officers and staff. A Sector consists of one or more Zones set up for supervision of field units. A Zone is headed by a DIG.⁷⁷ Contingents posted in the public sector undertakings or government establishments are headed by DIG/ Commandant/Dy. Commandant/Assistant Commandant/ Inspector depending upon the strength of the unit.⁷⁸

72 Preamble to the Central Industrial Force Act, 1968.

73 *Central Police Organisations, Part I*, Allied Publishers Private Limited, 2005, p. 75.

74 Ministry of Home Affairs, *Annual Report, 2014-15*, p. 136.

75 *Ibid.*

76 <http://www.cisf.gov.in/directory/force-head-quarters/#>

77 *Central Police Organisations, Part I*, Allied Publishers Private Limited, 2005, p 88

78 *Ibid*, p 90

The concerned public sector undertakings bear the expenses of the CISF personnel deployed for their security.

4.4.1.4 The Central Reserve Police Force

This Force was raised in 1939 as the Crown Representative Police and utilised to maintain law and order in the then princely states of the central India. After Independence, the Force was rechristened the Central Reserve Police Force. It was given statutory status with the passage of the Central Reserve Police Act in 1949.

At Independence, the Force consisted of one battalion, with a total strength of 1,038 personnel.⁷⁹ Since then, the Force has grown and its total strength on 1 January, 2015 was 3,03, 535.⁸⁰

The Force is headed by an IPS officer of the rank of Director General of Police, who is assisted by three Additional Directors General of Police, seven Inspectors General of Police, a Financial Advisor and Director (Medical). Each of the seven Directorates in the headquarters i.e Administration, Personnel, Training, Operations, Provisioning, Intelligence, Establishment is headed by an Inspector General. I G (Establishment) looks after Communication and Works.

Presently, the Force has 231 battalions, 41 Group Centres, 20 Training Institutions, 7 Arms Workshops and 3 Weapon Stores. Its supervisory formations in the field include three Special Zones, each headed by a DG, one Additional DG Zone, 20 IG Sectors, two IG Ops Sectors, 36 DIG Ranges and seven Ops Ranges.⁸¹

The Force is divided into Sectors, each headed by an IG. The Sectors have Group Centres under them. Five to seven battalions are attached to each Group Centre. The head of a Group Centre is a Dy.I.G. The Sectors and Group Centres are located at different places in the country so that the Force can be speedily mobilised and deployed at any place or time to deal with an emergency situation.

The 231 battalions constituting the Force include 4 Mahila battalions, 10 each of Rapid Action Force (RAF) and Commando Battalions for Resolute Action (COBRA). The CRPF is the only central armed police force that has 3 Mahila battalions and a contingent of 96 ladies in each of the 10 RAF contingents. While the RAF has been raised mainly to deal with communal riots, the COBRA is meant for guerilla/jungle warfare operations to fight extremists and insurgents.

79 *Ibid*, p 39

80 Ministry of Home Affairs, Annual Report, 2014-15, p 137

81 *Ibid*



A CRPF Mahila Battalion Officer



Mahila Contingent from CRPF Undergoing Training



RAF Unit on Duty

According to the CRPF Act and Rules, the Force acts in aid of civil power. Its main role is to help the states/union territories to maintain law and order. Besides dealing with riots, it has over the past few years also been deployed on anti-insurgency and anti-terrorist operations, VIP security, aviation security, protection of vital installations, election duties, guard duties, army convoy protection duties etc.

4.4.1.5 The Indo-Tibetan Border Police

The ITBP was raised in the wake of Chinese aggression in 1962, with a modest strength of four battalions. It was originally conceived as a “guerrilla cum intelligence cum fighting force,” fully self sufficient in terms of supplies, communication and intelligence. Over time, it has grown in strength and become a conventional border guarding force. It guards 3,488 kms of Indo-China border through its 163 Border Outposts located at altitudes ranging from 9000 ft. to 18,750 ft. along the Himalayas.

The force was originally set up under the CRPF Act, 1949. It is now governed by a separate law – the Indo-Tibetan Border Police Force Act, 1992. Under this Act, Rules were framed in 1994:

The main role of this Force is to:

- maintain vigil on borders, detect and prevent border violations, and promote a sense of security among the local populace;
- check illegal immigration, trans-border smuggling and crimes;
- provide security to sensitive installations, banks and protected persons; and
- restore and preserve order in any area in the event of disturbance.

While the primary role of the ITBP is policing the Indo-Tibetan border, it is also deployed on internal security duties.

The Force is headed by a Director General, who is assisted by an Additional Director General. The headquarters has four Directorates- Provisioning, Operations, Personnel and Works & Welfare, each headed by an IG. The field establishment is divided into Frontiers, Sectors and Battalions. There are 5 Frontiers, each under an IG, 15 Sectors, each commanded by a DIG and 56 Service Battalions. In addition, there are 4 Specialised Battalions, 2 DM Battalions and 17 Training Centres. The total strength of the Force on 1.1.2015 was 89, 438.⁸²



An ITBP Officer Taking the Salute

82 *Ibid*, p 139

4.4.1.6 The National Security Guards

The National Security Guards (NSG) was established in the aftermath of the 'Blue Star' operation in 1984 to deal with the problem of terrorism in its various forms, such as hostage-taking, hijacking of aircrafts, kidnapping, etc. It is specially equipped and trained to deal with specific situations and is used only in exceptional situations. Its commandos are trained in handling high-risk tasks such as counter-hijacking and counter-insurgency operations. It has two main components: the Special Action Group (SAG) consisting of army personnel and Special Rangers Group (SRG) comprising personnel drawn from the central armed police forces / state police forces.

The Force is regulated by the National Security Guards Act, 1986 and the Rules framed under the Act in August 1987. This Act formally declared the NSG as an Armed Force of the Union.

In 2009, four regional hubs of the NSG were established at Mumbai, Hyderabad, Chennai, and Kolkata to enable its speedy deployment in a crisis situation.

The NSG maintains the National Bomb Data Centre, which monitors, records and analyses all bombing incidents in the country.

The Force is headed by a Director General, who is assisted by four IG level officers. There are DIGs to look after various functions, such as intelligence, operations, training, communication, administration and engineering. The NSG has no cadre of its own and is manned by officers and men on deputation, mainly from the Army and the CAPFs, though the DG is from the Indian Police Service. Its total strength on 1.1.2014 was 9,508.

4.4.1.7 The Sashatra Seema Bal

The Sashatra Seema Bal grew out of the Special Service Bureau, which was set up in 1963 in the wake of the Indo-China conflict of 1962 to build up morale and the capability of the border population against threats of subversion, infiltration and sabotage from across the border. It became a border guarding force in 2001 and was renamed Sashatra Seema Bal. It is deployed on the Indo-Nepal border covering 1,715 km and the Indo-Bhutan border covering 699 km.⁸³

Its role is to:

- promote sense of security among the people living in the border area
- prevent trans-border crimes and unauthorised entries into or exit from the territory of India
- prevent smuggling and other illegal activities.

83 *Ibid.*, p. 141.

The Force has an officer of the rank of DG as its head, who is supported by an Additional DG. There are five main branches in the headquarters- Operations, Intelligence and Communication; Personnel and Training; Administration, Provisioning; and Medical. An officer of the rank of IG is heading each of these branches. The field establishment is divided into five Frontiers, 15 Sectors and 67 battalions. The total sanctioned strength of SSB on 1.1.2015 was 91,234.⁸⁴

4.4.1.8 The Growth of CAPFs

According to the statistics published annually by the central government, out of the total sanctioned strength of 22.83 lakhs of the state police forces on 1 January, 2014, the armed police component was 4.45 lakhs.⁸⁵ The combined sanctioned strength of the seven central armed police forces discussed above was 9.32 lakhs on that date.⁸⁶ Even if other central police organisations are not taken into account, the armed police in the country added up to 13.77 lakhs on 1 January, 2014, accounting for slightly more than 42.83 % of the total police strength in the country.

The armed police has registered phenomenal growth in the country during the last few decades, mainly due to the establishment and expansion of the armed police forces by the centre. Before Independence, only two central armed police forces existed- the Assam Rifles (AR) and the Crown Reserve Police (CRP). Presently, there are seven under the Ministry of Home Affairs alone. Except for the NSG, other six CAPFs have seen huge and rapid expansion over a period of time.⁸⁷ This data is shown below:

Table18: Increase in Manpower in CAPFs

Year	AR	BSF	CISF	CRPF	ITBP	NSG	SSB	Total
2000	52,275	1,82,874	88,322	1,67,367	30,356	7,357	31,750	5,60,301
2005	60,365	2,08,442	94,265	2,48,690	36,324	-----	31,543	-----
2006	65,185	2,08,937	93,521	2,48,689	36,375	-----	47,147	-----
2007	67,266	2,09,361	94,289	2,60,751	36,495	7,314	55,351	7,30,827
2008	65,185	2,10,244	1,03,872	2,60,873	50,326	7,314	55,351	7,53,165
2009	65,187	2,10,271	1,10,349	2,63,598	57,475	7,314	55,397	7,69,591
2010	65,389	2,19,560	1,22,268	2,75,675	57,439	9,506	55,353	8,05,190
2011	65,375	2,28,737	1,28,471	2,85,630	57,709	9,506	64,730	8,40,158
2012	66,412	2,40,532	1,30,156	2,90,752	70,523	9,507	78,702	8,88,584
2013	66,412	2,43,161	1,33,628	2,96,752	77,022	9,507	83,409	9,09,891
2014	65,819	2,46,963	1,38,557	2,98,597	84,003	9,508	88,458	9,31,905

84 *Ibid*

85 Data on Police Organisations in India as on 1.1.2014, BPR&D, p 28

86 *Ibid*, p 67

87 Extracted from Data on Police Organisations in India for different years published by BPR&D

On 1 January, 2000, the total combined strength of central armed police forces was only 5,60,301. By 1.1.2014, the strength had reached a staggeringly large figure of 9,31,905. During this period, the strength of CRPF went up from 1.67 to 2.98 lakhs; BSF from 1.82 to 2.46 lakhs; CISF from .88 to 1.38 lakhs, SSB from 31.7 to 88.5 thousands; ITBP from 30.3 to 84.0 thousands and AR from 52.2 to 65.8 thousands.

4.4.1.9 Women in CAPFs

During the last few years, a number of women have joined the central armed police forces. The present strength of women in CAPFs is as follows:

Table 19 – Strength of Women in CAPFs as on 1 January, 2015⁸⁸

CPMF	Actual Strength	Strength of Women	Percentage
AR	65,545	484	0.74
BSF	2,45,779	3,366	1.37
CISF	1,25,687	6,126	4.87
CRPF	2,86,187	5,954	2.08
ITBP	79,051	1,212	1.53
SSB	77,674	1,186	1.53
Total	8,79,923	18,328	2.08

4.4.1.10. Expenditure on CAPFs

The central government's expenditure on its armed police forces has been increasing by leaps and bounds. This information is given in the following table:

Table 20- Actual Expenditure on CAPFs from 2003-2004 to 2013- 2014⁸⁹

(Rs. In Crores)

Year	AR	BSF	CISF	CRPF	ITBP	NSG	SSB	Total
2003-04	929.15	2970.24	982.19	2087.78	468.32	113.81	315.92	7867.41
2004-05	1005.64	2635.76	1061.24	2516.96	552.72	128.00	381.84	8282.16
2005-06	1314.17	3560.45	1134.07	3228.03	576.25	14028	381.97	10335.22
2006-07	1478.29	3398.85	1225.59	3642.40	707.99	151.19	779.92	11384.23
2007-08	1541.81	3879.00	1376.23	3911.69	1000.73	163.90	943.70	12817.06
2008-09	2016.27	5398.50	2169.28	5557.82	1433.24	210.52	1241.63	18027.26
2009-10	1599.02	4472.66	1978.88	5262.33	1134.05	231.70	801.31	15479.95
2010-11	2814.79	7366.87	2780.44	8128.10	1862.35	491.77	1630.36	25074.68
2011-12	3207.91	8741.67	3382.72	9662.89	2208.09	578.59	2073.08	29854.95
2012-13	3359.83	9772.55	3967.95	11040.13	2917.85	541.77	2765.16	34365.24
2013-14	3651.21	10904.74	4401.49	11903.70	3346.94	536.70	2979.16	37723.94

88 MHA, Annual Report, 2014-15, p 147

89 MHA, Annual Report 20014-2015, p 144

While in 2003-04, the central government spent only Rs. 7,867.41 crores on CAPFs, by 2013-14, this expenditure had gone up by 479.5% to reach Rs. 37,723.94 crores.

4.4.1.11. Establishment of the India Reserve Battalions

India Reserve Battalions do not form a part of central armed police set up, but are discussed here as they are raised to help state governments to meet their requirements of armed police.

A scheme to raise the India Reserve Battalions was introduced by the Centre in 1971 to strengthen the capabilities of states to deal with law and order disturbances and to reduce their dependence on the central armed police forces. The scheme provided for central assistance to states for raising armed police battalions.

Only initial cost of raising the battalion was reimbursed to the states on standard cost basis as 50% grant-in-aid and 50% long term interest free loan.

Recently, while raising 4 IR battalions each for Andhra Pradesh and Telengana, financial norms were revised. The standard cost of raising one IR battalion is Rs 34.92 crores. 75% of this amount is to be reimbursed to the states as grant in aid by the Government of India, while 25 % is to be borne by the state governments. In addition, the Government of India will reimburse 50% of the cost of infrastructure.⁹⁰

Since the IR battalion is a part of India reserve, the central government has the first charge and can deploy it in case of requirements elsewhere. In such a case, the recurring expenditure is to be borne by the borrowing state government.

So far, 144 out of 153 sanctioned India Reserve Battalions have been raised.⁹¹

4.4.2 Other Central Police Organisations

4.4.2.1 The Bureau of Police Research and Development

The Bureau of Police Research and Development (BPR&D) was set up in the Ministry of Home Affairs in August, 1970 to promote a speedy and systematic study of police problems in a changing society and to bring about rapid application of developments in science and technology to police work. Over the years, the BPR&D has also been entrusted with the responsibility of monitoring the training needs of police forces in the country and take measures to improve quality of that training. It also assists states in modernisation of their police

⁹⁰ Ministry of Home Affairs, Annual Report, 2014-15, p 154

⁹¹ Ibid, 153

forces and correctional administration. More recently, the BPR&D was entrusted with the responsibility of anchoring and coordinating the work of the National Police Mission, which is required to develop “projects, fast tracking the development of police techniques in all aspects in a mission mode.”⁹²

The Bureau conducts the All India Police Science Congress on subjects of topical interest to the police. To promote research amongst students of social sciences in police problems, it awards 12 fellowships annually to postgraduate students for PhD work. The Fellowships are operated on the pattern of the University Grants Commission. The Bureau brings out some important publications of interest to the police. One is the annual publication entitled *Data on Police Organisations in India*, which provides comprehensive and useful statistical information about the state police forces and central police organisations. The second is the quarterly publication, *The Indian Police Journal* (IPJ), which publishes articles from police officers and social scientists on different topics of interest and importance to the police forces in the country. A similar publication in Hindi called *Police Vigyan* is also published every quarter.

Presently, the BPR&D has the following six divisions:

1. Research and Correctional Administration.
2. Modernisation and Development.
3. Training
4. National Police Mission
5. Special Units
6. Administration

The organisation has a Director General as its head, supported by an Additional Director General and a group of officers of the rank of IGP, each of whom is heading one of the six divisions.

4.4.2.2. The Central Bureau of Investigation

What is known today as the Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI) was originally set up as the Special Police Establishment (SPE) in 1941 to investigate cases of bribery and corruption involving the employees of the War and Supply Department of the Government of India during the Second World War. The role of the SPE was gradually enlarged and by 1963, it was authorised to investigate offences under various Sections of the Indian Penal Code, Prevention of Corruption Act and 16 other central acts.

In 1963, the Government of India set up the Central Bureau of Investigation.⁹³ Presently, the CBI comprises nine divisions:

⁹² <http://bprd.nic.in/>

⁹³ It was constituted by the Government of India Resolution No. 4/31/61-T dated 1 April 1963.

- (1) Anti-Corruption Division
- (2) Economic Offences Division
- (3) Special Crimes Division
- (4) Legal Division
- (5) Coordination Division
- (6) Administration Division
- (7) Policy and Organisation Division
- (8) Technical Division
- (9) Central Forensic Science Laboratory.

The first three divisions carry out the investigation work. The Anti-Corruption Division deals mainly with corruption cases under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988, the IPC and other special laws. The Economic Offences Division investigates cases of fraud in banks and other financial institutions, misappropriation of public funds, criminal breach of trust, counterfeiting of currency, violations of foreign exchange and customs laws, narcotics and drug trafficking, arms peddling, theft of cultural property, adulteration, black marketing, etc. The Special Crimes Division investigates offences relating to terrorism, murder, attempt to murder, rape, riots, espionage, kidnapping, smuggling of arms, illicit immigration, hijacking, dacoity, robbery, crimes against women, organised crimes, etc.

The Legal Division aids and advises the Investigating Officers and conducts prosecution of cases in courts. The Coordination Division collects and disseminates information on crimes of interstate or international ramifications, organises conferences, publishes the CBI Bulletin, maintains liaison with INTERPOL through which it seeks foreign assistance in investigation when required and looks after the Training Academy of the CBI.

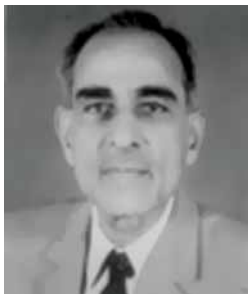
The field establishment of CBI is divided into Zones. Each Zone is headed by an officer of the rank of IGP and deals with the work of a few states. There are ten Zones all over the country. In addition, some central investigation Zones with all India jurisdiction are located in Delhi. Each Branch in a Zone is generally looked after by an officer of the rank of SP. To supervise the work of the Branches, there are regional Dy.Is.G.

The CBI's legal powers of investigation are derived from the Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946 (DSPE Act). The organisation can investigate only such offences or classes of offences as are notified by the central government under Section 3 of the DSPE Act. The Act authorises the officers to enjoy all powers, duties, privileges and liabilities that police officers of the area enjoy.⁹⁴ The organisation cannot exercise its powers and jurisdiction in any area in a state without

94 The Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946, Sections 2(2), 5 (2) & 3.

the consent of the government of that state.⁹⁵ The CBI thus does not have original jurisdiction to do crime investigation work in a state. If the state government does not invite the CBI, the only way it can do work there is when the Supreme or some High Court asks it to do so. The courts get this power by virtue of their obligation and duty under the Constitution to protect citizens' fundamental rights.

The head of the organisation is called Director, CBI. He is an IPS officer on deputation from a State cadre. He is assisted by officers of the rank of Special Director and Additional Director and a number of Joint Directors.



Late Shri D. P. Kohli, Founder Director of the CBI

Source of Picture: <http://cbi.nic.in/history.php>

Though the CBI has been in existence for a long time, it is still governed by the old Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946. Section 4(1) of this Act vests the superintendence over the organisation in the central government. The Department of Personnel in the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions exercises the superintendence. However, the Central Vigilance Commission Act, 2003 vests the superintendence in the Commission but only in respect of investigation of offences under the Prevention of Corruption Act. Thus there is a system of dual control over the CBI – one exercised by the Central Vigilance Commission in respect of corruption cases and the other by the central government in respect of its other work.

4.4.2.3 The Directorate of Coordination, Police Wireless

The need for an independent and reliable police telecommunication system was recognised by the Government of India way back in 1946 when an Inspectorate of Wireless was set up under the Ministry of Home Affairs. This Inspectorate was later renamed the Directorate of Coordination, Police Wireless (DCPW) in 1950.

The organisation is headed by a Director, who is assisted by an Additional Director (Headquarters) and an Additional Director (Operations). Each of them has two Joint Directors and other officers of the rank of Deputy and Assistant Directors to look after their areas of responsibility.

⁹⁵ *Ibid.*, Section 6.

The organisation is responsible for coordinating the establishment of police telecommunication network in the entire country. It is the premier police telecommunication organisation, which provides vital communication to its Inter-state Police Wireless Stations (ISPW) and the national capital. It operates the ISPW Network through its 31 stations in all capitals of states and union territories to deliver emergent messages pertaining to law and order.

The DCPW is an advisory body to the Ministry of Home Affairs on matters relating to police telecommunication in the country and for laying down technical specifications for communication equipment to be inducted into the police forces in the country.

The directorate provides cipher documents to state police organisations and provides cipher cover to the government's classified messages.

It also imparts basic and advanced training to the state and central police telecommunication organisations through its Central Police Radio Training Institute.

4.4.2.4 The Intelligence Bureau

The Intelligence Bureau (IB) is the oldest intelligence agency in the world. It was established as the Central Special Branch by an order of the Secretary of State for India in London on 23 December 1887 for the "collection of secret and political intelligence in India". It is thus over 127 years old. Following the recommendations of the 1902-03 Indian Police Commission, the organisation was renamed the Central Criminal Intelligence Department. Gradually, the security tasks of the organisation started overshadowing its responsibilities in respect of criminal work. The word "criminal" was therefore dropped from its name in 1918 and its present nomenclature Intelligence Bureau was adopted in 1920.

The first Indian to head the organisation was Shri T. G. Sanjeevi Pillai, who was appointed as Director IB on 12 April 1947 and remained in that position till 14 July 1950. His successor was Mr. B.N. Mullick, who had the longest tenure as the head of IB after Independence and is generally known as the "Father of Intelligence" in post-independent India. He remained in the post from 15 July 1950 to 9 October 1964.

The IB's main task is to collect intelligence about political subversion, espionage, incipient insurrection, insurgency, terrorism and security-related problems, along with maintaining a vigil on vulnerable land and sea borders. It has to disseminate such information in time to the concerned authorities and adopt strategies to counter threats to the internal security of the country and its institutions.

For a considerable time after Independence, the IB was the only organisation at the Centre that had police expertise and was therefore required to function not merely as an intelligence collection agency but also as an advisory body to the

Government of India on police matters. Later, with the establishment of other central police organisations such as the CBI and BPR&D, most of its work relating to the police was transferred to these organisations. However, even now, the IB organises an annual meeting of the heads of police forces in the country to discuss important problems facing the police and suggest remedial measures.

The IB was also responsible for collecting foreign intelligence. In 1969, a separate organisation called the Research and Analysis Wing (RAW) was carved out of the IB and assigned this responsibility.

4.4.2.5 The National Crime Records Bureau

The National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) was constituted in 1986 through a merger of the following four units:

1. Directorate of Coordination of Police Computers
2. Crime Records Section of the CBI
3. Central Finger Print Bureau of the CBI
4. Statistical Section of the BPR&D

The organisation is headed by a Director General, who is assisted by two Joint Directors of the rank of IG heading different branches. One looks after the Statistical, Administration, Training and Crime Records branches. The other is in charge of Crime & Criminal Tracking Network System (CCTNS) Branch, Central Finger Print Bureau Branch (CFPB) and Data Centre Activities (DCT) Branch.

The main functions of the NCRB are to:

- I) function as a clearing house of information on crime and criminals
- II) store, coordinate and disseminate information on inter-state and international crime and criminals
- III) collect, compile and publish crime statistics
- IV) develop and modernise the Crime Records Bureaus in the states
- V) develop computer based systems for police organisations and to cater to their data processing and training needs for computerisation and
- VI) function as storehouse of finger print records.

The NCRB has installed 762 server-based computer systems at district crime records bureaus and state crime records bureaus across the country. It has designed systems to collect and disseminate information about crime and criminals. The Crime and Criminal Information System (CCIS), which is being implemented in 36 states and union territories and at the central level, makes crime and criminal information available anywhere anytime through the Internet. This proves useful to police officers not only in investigation work but also in other police activities.

The Crime and Criminal Tracking Network System (CCTNS) is another initiative, which, once fully implemented, would facilitate collection, storage, retrieval, analysis, transfer and sharing of data at the police-station level and between police stations, state headquarters and central police organisations. It would provide Investigating Officers with tools, technologies and information to facilitate faster and more accurate investigation of crime and detection of criminals; speedy sharing of information amongst different units; and easy filing of complaints by citizens.

NCRB's Portrait Building System (PBS) assists Investigating Officers of police agencies by preparing portraits of accused persons based on eyewitness accounts.

The Central Finger Print Bureau (CFPB) of the NCRB maintains a database of fingerprints of national and international criminals that helps in solving cases.

The NCRB has also set up a Motor Vehicle Verification Counter at its headquarters in New Delhi to provide information to the general public about the recovery status of a stolen vehicle. The Counter helps the potential buyer of a second-hand vehicle to know whether the vehicle is a stolen one or involved in any crime.

Every year, the NCRB brings out three important publications- (i) Crime in India (ii) Prison Statistics in India and (iii) Accidental Deaths and Suicides in India. The Crime in India is the most comprehensive and authoritative publication of its kind on crime in this country. The publication contains data on incidence of crime in different states and union territories under important heads of Indian Penal Code and local and special laws; its disposal by the police and courts indicating the arrest and clearance rates; the number of persons arrested under these laws and their disposal; incidence of violent crimes, including the break up under different heads; crime against women and children; incidence of juvenile delinquency; property stolen and recovered; economic crimes; cyber crimes; police firings and casualties; police personnel killed and injured on duty; custodial crimes; complaints against police personnel; and police strength and expenditure. Prison Statistics in India provides information about prisons, prisoners and prison infrastructure. Accidental Deaths and Suicides gives information about deaths due to accidents and suicides.

4.4.2.6 The Lok Nayak Jayapraksh Narayan National Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science

The Lok Nayak Jayapraksh Narayan National Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science (NICFS) was originally set up as the Central Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science by the Government of India in 1973 as part of BPR&D. It was de-linked from BPR&D and given the status of an independent organisation

under the Ministry Of Home Affairs in 1976. Its status was upgraded to that of a National Institute in 1991, and in 2003, it was named after Lok Nayak Jayaprakash Narayan.

The NICFS's charter was defined in the Government of India's Resolution dated 25 September 1976. Its role was to advance knowledge in the field of criminology and forensic science; organise in-service training courses for officers in the police, judiciary and correctional services; and to act as a reference body in the field of criminology and forensic science for national and international institutions. The efforts and resources of the organisation are mostly concentrated on organising in-service training courses for functionaries of the criminal justice system. The Institute also offers MA/MSc courses in Criminology and Forensic Science in affiliation with the Guru Govind Singh Indraprastha University.

The Director of the Institute is a police officer on deputation from the IPS. An officer of the rank of Dy. IG assists him in administrative and other work. There are two faculties: criminology and forensic science. The criminology faculty is headed by a professor, who supervises the work of the Departments of Criminology, Sociology, Psychology and Law. The head of the Faculty of Forensic Sciences is the Additional Director of the Institute. This faculty comprises six divisions – ballistics, biology, documents, chemistry, physics and photography, each headed by an officer of the rank of Assistant Director. In addition, there are junior scientific assistants, laboratory assistants and attendants.

4.4.2.7 The National Investigation Agency

After the 26/11 terror attack on Mumbai, the Government of India realised that terror required fighting on many fronts and a well-established national agency could do this work much more speedily and efficiently than the state police forces. Accordingly the government enacted the National Investigation Agency (NIA) Act on 31 December 2008, setting up the NIA.

The Agency is headed by a Director General of Police, who is assisted by a Special Director General and an Additional Director General. In addition, there are four officers of the rank of Inspector General of Police, including one who looks after administration and training.

Field establishment consists of five branch offices located at Hyderabad, Guwahati, Kochi, Lucknow and Mumbai, each headed by a DIG. These branches are divided into investigation units, which are headed by officers of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The legal work is looked after by a deputy legal advisor, who is assisted by a senior and other public prosecutors.

The government has notified special courts for trial of offences committed in different states and union territories.

Some of its functions are to:

- investigate scheduled offences using the latest scientific methods of investigation;
- ensure speedy and effective trial;
- assist other investigating agencies in investigation of terrorist offences;
- build a comprehensive data base on terror related cases and share this data with state police forces and other agencies; and
- regularly evaluate the adequacy of existing laws and suggest necessary changes.

NIA Act vests the superintendence of the Agency in the central government.⁹⁶ The Act requires the state government to inform the central government about the commission of a scheduled offence.⁹⁷ It is for the central government to decide, firstly, whether it is a scheduled offence and, secondly, whether it is a fit case to be taken up for investigation by the Agency.⁹⁸ The Act debars the state government to proceed with the investigation once the Agency has been asked to do so.⁹⁹

4.4.2.8 The Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel National Police Academy

The National Police Academy (NPA), named after Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, the first Deputy Prime Minister of India (1947-1950), is the premier police training institution in the country. The NPA trains officers of the Indian Police Service. It is presently located in Hyderabad. Earlier, it was called the Central Police Training College (CPTC) and was based at Mount Abu in Rajasthan.

According to the Academy's mission statement: "The primary purpose of the Academy is to prepare leaders for the Indian police, who will lead/command the force with courage, uprightness, dedication and a strong sense of service to the people."¹⁰⁰

The training activities of the NPA have already been discussed above under 'Training of IPS Officers' (2.7.3).

The Academy is headed by an IPS officer of the rank of Director General of Police and assisted by two Joint Directors of the rank of Inspector General of Police, seven Deputy Directors of the rank of DIG of Police and 13 Assistant Directors. The sanctioned strength of the faculty also includes a Professor in Manage-

96 The National Investigating Act, 2008, Section 4 (1)

97 The list of offences given in the Schedule to the Act includes offences under The Atomic Energy Act, 1962; The Unlawful Activities Prevention Act, 1967; The Anti-Hijacking Act, 1982; The Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against Safety of Civil Aviation Act, 1986; The SAARC Convention on (Suppression of Terrorism) Act, 1993; The Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against Safety of Maritime Navigation and Fixed Platforms on Continental Shelf Act, 2002; The Weapons of Mass Destruction and Their Delivery Systems (Prohibition of Unlawful Activities) Act, 2005; and offences under Sections 121 to 130 of Chapter VI and under sections 489-A to 489-E of the Indian Penal Code.

98 The National Investigating Act, 2008, Section 6 (1) to (3)

99 Ibid, Section 6 (6)

100 <http://www.svpnpa.gov.in/>.

ment, a Reader in Behavioural Sciences, a Reader in Teaching Methodology, two Medical Officers, a Junior Scientific Officer, a Hindi Instructor, a Photographer and a Chief Drill Instructor. Total Sanctioned staff strength is 692. ¹⁰¹

An Academy Board, headed by the Union Home Secretary and comprising senior civil and police officers and eminent social scientists and educationists as members, periodically reviews the syllabi and training methodology of various courses conducted at the Academy. The board oversees the work and problems of the NPA.

101 *Ibid*

5 POLICE MODERNISATION SCHEME

The Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India launched a scheme in 1969-70 to extend financial support to the State Governments for the modernisation of their police forces. To start with, it was introduced for a period of ten years, but it has continued to remain in existence and has undergone many changes since it was instituted.

5.1 The Objectives of the Scheme

The objective of the Scheme is to modernise the state police forces by strengthening their training infrastructure and providing them with the required mobility, modern weaponry, forensic science aids, communication equipment, data processing machines and buildings. The idea is two-fold: to improve the effectiveness of the state police forces in meeting new emerging challenges on the law and order and internal security front and thereby reduce their dependence on the army and central armed police forces when such situations arise.

5.2 Brief History

When the Scheme was introduced in 1969-70, the pattern of assistance given by the central government was 75% loan and 25% grant. In 1973-74, this was changed to 50% grant-in-aid and 50% loan on the recommendations of the Sixth Finance Commission.

In the first phase of the Scheme, Rs. 43.84 crores were released to the state governments from 1969-70 to 1977-78¹⁰² to purchase data processing machines for crime records; equipment for forensic science laboratories, fingerprint bureaus, centres for examination of questioned documents and scientific aids to investigation; wireless equipment for police; equipment for police training institutions; and vehicles for increased police mobility.

The National Police Commission recommended that the Scheme be extended for another ten-year period from 1978-79, with substantial increase in allotment of funds.¹⁰³ The Government of India extended the Scheme up to 1989-90 with an outlay of Rs. 100 crores. During this phase, an amount of Rs. 89.29 crores was released to the states.

¹⁰² National Police Commission, Third Report, January 1980, p. 40.

¹⁰³ *Ibid*, p 41

The Scheme was further extended to a third phase, which lasted from 1991 to 2000. The outlay was increased and an amount of Rs.120 Crores was sanctioned for release during the five year period 1991-95. The amount was increased to Rs.50 crores in1996-97 and during 1999-2000 further enhanced to Rs.100 crore.

The funds were allocated to the states according to the following criteria:

Criteria	Weightage
• Population of state	35%
• Sanctioned strength of police	25%
• Number of police stations	15%
• Crime per lakh of population	25%

Item wise allocation was also fixed during this phase. This was as follows:

Item	Percentage of Allocation
Police training – buildings and equipment	20
Forensic science – buildings and equipment	20
Light weaponry/ aids for crowd control/	
Traffic control/ VVIP security	20
Acquisition of new vehicles	20
Communication	10
Aids to investigation/ data processing/ office equipment	10

In 2001, the government enhanced the annual allocation to Rs. 1,000 crores with effect from 2000-01. In the review of the Scheme undertaken in 2005, states were categorised into two groups: 'A' and 'B.' Jammu & Kashmir and all eight North Eastern states were included in category 'A' entitling them to 100% central assistance and the remaining 19 states were put in category 'B', which allowed them 75% assistance. A special component to strengthen police infrastructure in the 76 Naxal-affected districts of nine states at the rate of Rs. 2 crores per affected district annually for five years was introduced. A special provision of Rs.1 crore per district per year for a period of 5 years for 30 districts situated on the Indo-Nepal and Indo-Bhutan borders was included in the Scheme from 2005-06. A new concept of Mega City Policing (MCP), covering the seven cities of Mumbai, Bengaluru, Hyderabad, Chennai, Delhi, Kolkata and Ahmedabad under the Scheme was introduced from 2005-06. The total funds released from 2000-01 to 2009-10 to various states under the Scheme was Rs. 10,086.83 crores.¹⁰⁴

¹⁰⁴ The entire information in this paragraph has been taken from Modernisation of Police Force (MPF) Scheme Book Drafted by the Modernisation Division of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India on 9 November, 2010.

The Government of India has continued the Scheme for a further period of five years i.e. from 2012-13 to 2016-17. An amount of Rs.8628.43 crore has been allocated under 'Non-Plan' and Rs.3750.87 crores under the 'Plan' items.¹⁰⁵ Non plan expenditure included Rs.432.90 crore for Mega City Policing¹⁰⁶ in Ahmedabad, Mumbai, Chennai, Hyderabad, Kolkata and Bengaluru.

States continue to be divided into the same two groups- 'A' & 'B', but funding pattern sees a change. While group A states receive 90% central assistance with 10% to be shared by them, group B states share the expenditure in the ratio of 60:40 (Centre: State).

There has been another change recently. According to the 2014-15 revised budget estimate, the Centre granted around Rs. 1,433 crores to the states for the Scheme. Another Rs. 537.50 crore was given as non-plan expenditure under this head.

5.3 Deficiencies/ Shortcomings

The Comptroller and Auditor General carried out a "performance audit" of the Scheme covering a period between 2000 and 2007.¹⁰⁷ The CAG's audit identified several deficiencies in the working of the Scheme and on its impact. Some of these were:

- Submissions by states to the MHA were not always on time
- There were delays in the clearance granted by the MHA
- An overall shortage of vehicles was observed
- The police response time was too long in some states
- There was considerable delay in construction of buildings in most states
- Police forces in the states continued to depend on outdated weapons
- The shortage of weapons was because acquisition from ordnance factories was very slow
- The procured weapons were mostly kept in the district headquarters
- Police telecommunication networks were not set up successfully in some states. In others, the network was functional only up to the district level
- Shortages of various communication equipments were observed
- In most states, the forensic science laboratories lacked adequate infrastructure
- In the absence of automatic fingerprint identification systems, investigation was carried out manually in some states.

105 Money spent on vehicles, weaponry and equipment for training, forensic laboratories and policing are components of 'non-plan' expenditure, while 'plan' expenditure covers construction of police stations and outposts, police lines, police housing, laboratories and training infrastructure (buildings).

106 Mega City Policing expenditure has both technological and non technological components. While the former includes CCTV Surveillance, Command Control Centre, Dial 100 system, Fusion Centre/ Data Centre, Highway Patrol Cars & Aerial Surveillance. Non- technological components includes Community Policing, Training on soft skills/ attitudinal change in Police men and Women Police

107 CAG Compendium of Performance Audit Reviews on Modernisation of Police Force as cited in a PRS Blog.

5.4 Summing Up

The Police Modernisation Scheme has been in existence for about four and a half decades now. Though it has definitely resulted in improving the mobility, communication and some other facilities available to the police, the Scheme has not succeeded in giving a comprehensive modern look to the State Police forces. There are various reasons for this. The requirements are huge and the central government has not been able to spare enough funds. Inflationary pressures combined with the expansion of police forces have also reduced the impact of whatever increase in grants occurred. The State Governments have not provided enough funds out of their budgets. Utilisation of funds released under the scheme has not been effective. Monitoring of the Scheme has not ensured proper and efficient utilisation of funds.

VI Annexure

FORM NO.

FIRST INFORMATION REPORT of a COGNIZABLE CRIME REPORTED UNDER SECTION 154 CODE of CRIMINAL PROCEDURE

Police StationDistrict

No. Date and hour of occurrence

1	Date and hour when reported	
2	Name and residence of information and complainant	
3	Brief description of offence (with section)	
4	Place of occurrence and distance and direction from Police Stn	
5	Steps taken regarding investigation, explanation of delay in recording information	
6	Date and hour of despatch from police station	

Signed

Designation

CHRI Programmes

CHRI's work is based on the belief that for human rights, genuine democracy and development to become a reality in people's lives, there must be high standards and functional mechanisms for accountability and participation within the Commonwealth and its member countries. CHRI furthers this belief through strategic initiatives and advocacy on human rights, access to justice and access to information. It does this through research, publications, workshops, information dissemination and advocacy.

Access to Justice

Police Reforms: In too many countries the police are seen as an oppressive instrument of state rather than as protectors of citizens' rights, leading to widespread rights violations and denial of justice. CHRI promotes systemic reform so that the police act as upholders of the rule of law rather than as instruments of the current regime. In India, CHRI's programme aims at mobilising public support for police reform. In South Asia, CHRI works to strengthen civil society engagement on police reforms. In East Africa and Ghana, CHRI is examining police accountability issues and political interference.

Prisons Reforms: CHRI's work is focused on increasing transparency of a traditionally closed system and exposing malpractices. A major area is focussed on highlighting failures of the legal system that result in terrible overcrowding and unconscionably long pre-trial detention and prison overstay, and engaging in interventions to ease this. Another area of concentration is aimed at reviving the prison oversight systems that have completely failed. We believe that attention to these areas will bring improvements to the administration of prisons as well as have a knock-on effect on the administration of justice overall.

Access to Information

CHRI is acknowledged as one of the main organisations working to promote access to information across the Commonwealth. It encourages countries to pass and implement effective right to information laws. We routinely assist in the development of legislation and have been particularly successful in promoting right to information in India, Bangladesh and Ghana where we are the Secretariat for the RTI civil society coalition. We regularly critique new bills and intervene to bring best practices into governments and civil society knowledge both in the time when laws are being formulated and when they are first being implemented. Our experience of working across even in hostile environments as well as culturally varied jurisdictions allows CHRI to bring valuable insights into countries seeking to evolve and implement new laws on right to information. In Ghana, for instance we have been promoting knowledge about the value of access to information which is guaranteed by law while at the same time pushing for introduction of an effective and progressive law. In Ghana as and when the access to information law comes into being we intend to build public knowledge in parallel with monitoring the law and using it in ways which indicate impact of the law on system accountability – most particularly in the area of policing and the working of the criminal justice system.

Strategic Initiative Programme:

CHRI monitors member states' compliance with human rights obligations and advocates around human rights exigencies where such obligations are breached. CHRI strategically engages with regional and international bodies including the Commonwealth Ministerial Action Group, the UN and the African Commission for Human and People's Rights. Ongoing strategic initiatives include: Advocating for and monitoring the Commonwealth's reform; Reviewing Commonwealth countries' human rights promises at the UN Human Rights Council and engaging with its Universal Periodic Review; Advocating for the protection of human rights defenders and civil society space; and Monitoring the performance of National Human Rights Institutions in the Commonwealth while advocating for their strengthening.

While the police is the most visible arm of the state, the public has little knowledge about the internal structure and organisation of the various police forces – state and central – in India. Most people do not know how the police is organised, staffed, governed, financed and run; or the differences between police organisations in size, scope and mandate. This booklet seeks to fill the information gap and provide a comprehensive resource to the public that explains all aspects of police structure and organisation, such as rank structure and duties, the internal hierarchy, recruitment, training, supervision and budgets, among others for both state and central police forces.

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