DISCLAIMER

The Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018 is based on official data provided by Government Departments/Bodies including federal, provincial and district level organizations and entities. While the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women has verified data to the fullest extent possible, the responsibility of accuracy lies with the original providers of data.

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The development of a nation is intrinsically tied to the human development of its population. Since the turn of the new millennium, Pakistan has made considerable progress on many developmental fronts; Pakistanis live longer lives, more children are enrolled in school, there has been an improvement in literacy rates and simultaneous increases in economic output and growth. Despite these advancements, the pace of development has been slower than anticipated, and men and women have not shared equally in the benefits of national advancement.

Pakistan’s commitment to the Sustainable Development Agenda recognizes the fact that without the assured participation of women who make up half of its population, Pakistan will fall short of its development targets. Government efforts to address gender gaps and ensure participation of women in all aspects of women’s lives show that regressive traditional practices and antiquated social norms can be challenged and transformed. Following groundbreaking legislation on the prevention of rape and honour killings in 2016, the federal and provincial governments have continued to pass pro-women legislation in 2017. At the federal level, the Hindu Marriage Act 2017 will help Hindu women obtain documentary evidence of their marriage and prevent them from becoming victims of forced conversion. In the same vein, the Punjab government has passed the Punjab Protection of Women Authority Act 2017 to outline the implementation mechanism for the ‘Punjab Protection of Women Against Violence Act 2016’. These acts create mechanisms for oversight and accountability that ensure implementation of women-centric laws.

As a statutory institution, the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW) endeavors to create momentum towards pro-women social, legislative, policy and administrative change.

In 2017, PCSW continued to play an active role in keeping gender issues at the forefront of the governmental agenda. PCSW realizes that research conducted on the forms and extent of gender disparities in Punjab can provide a solid foundation for evidence-based policymaking, which can lead to positive changes for women. The Punjab Gender Management Information System and the Punjab Gender Parity reports are part of our concerted effort to provide an annual portrait of the status of women in Punjab.

The Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018 is the 3rd in the annual series of status reports on women in Punjab. This report presents an in-depth look at the magnitude of gender disparity in the province across 6 thematic areas covering 300 indicators. The key areas covered in the report are Demographics, Governance, Health, Education, Economic Participation and Opportunities, and Justice. The report also provides a status update on the implementation of pro-women special initiatives taken by the government. PCSW has sought to improve the report through better data collection procedures, expansion of Divisional presence, greater collaboration with Divisional Administration and a review of indicators used in the report. The report makes legislative, policy and procedural recommendations to concerned parties based on the analysis of collected data.

This comprehensive and objective document has been prepared to aid policymakers in the identification of institutional gaps that perpetuate gender inequality and prevent women from participating actively in society. The timely report will inform development planning of Punjab, Pakistan in the near and distant future with the hope that development interventions will address persistent gender disparity. We are confident that this data-driven effort will help establish gendered policy making and interventions as a norm at both the provincial and federal level.

Fauzia Viqar
Chairperson
Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW)
The Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW) is grateful to everyone who assisted in the development of the Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018.

Firstly, we would like to thank Minister, Women Development for her leadership and the Women Development Department for its continued support and guidance.

We are grateful to the Office of the Chief Secretary whose support made it possible for us to achieve the targets for this project. We are also grateful to all Commissioners who provided support to PCSW staff in its data collection efforts.

We would also like to thank PCSW Board members for their diligence and consistent support for PCSW projects. We extend our gratitude to the Planning & Development Department for the continuous support they have extended to PCSW.

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Finally, we would like to thank all Provincial Departments/Institutions as well as all District Offices who have been responding to our requests for data since October 2015 and have provided us with the information that has formed the basis of this report.

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GRAPHICS
Syed Muhammad Khalid Shah
## Abbreviations And Acronyms

| A | ANC: Antenatal Care
APWA: All Pakistan Women's Association |
| B | BHU: Basic Health Unit
BISP: Benazir Income Support Program
BOP: Bank of Punjab |
| C | CCC: Citizen Contact Center
CEDAW: The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CHARM: Chief Minister's Initiative for Attainment & Realization of MDGs
CM: Chief Minister
CMSES: Chief Minister's Self-Employment Scheme
CMW: Community Midwife
CNIC: Computerized National Identity Card
CP: Condemned Prisoner
CPR: Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
Cr:PC: Criminal Procedure Code
CTP: City Traffic Police |
| D | DC: Death Certificate
DCC: Day Care Center
DHQ: District Headquarters
DVEC: District Voter Education Committee
DWPO: District Women Protection Officer |
| E | EmONC: Emergency Obstetric And Newborn Care
EOBI: Employees Old Age Benefits Institution (EOBI)
ESP: Economic Survey of Pakistan
EVS: Education Voucher Scheme |
| F | FALAH: Family Advancement for Life and Health
FATA: Federally Administered Tribal Areas
FIR: First Information Report
FOS-PAH: Federal Ombudsman for Protection Against Harassment at Workplace
FWBL: First Women Bank Limited |
| G | GDP: Gross Domestic Product
GMIS: Gender Management Information System
GoP: Government of Punjab
GPI: Gender Parity Index
GRD: Government Rural Dispensary
GSP: Generalized System of Preferences |
| H | HBW: Home-Based Workers
HDR: Human Development Report
HTSP: Healthy Timing and Spacing of Pregnancy |
| I | ICCPR: International Covenant on Civil & Political Rights
ICESCR: International Covenant on Economic, Social & Cultural Rights
ICT: Islamabad Capital Territory
IDA: Iron Deficiency Anemia
IMR: Infant Mortality Rate
ILO: International Labour Organisation
IRMNCH: Integrated Reproductive Maternal Child Health & Nutrition Program |
| K | KPK: Khyber Pakhtunkhwa |
| L | LBW: Low Birth Weight
LFPR: Labour Force Participation Rate
LFS: Labour Force Survey
LG & CDD: Local Government & Community Development Department
LG: Local Government
LHW: Lady Health Workers
LRMIS: Land Record Management and Information System |
| M | MCH: Mother and Child Health
mCPR: Modern methods Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
MFB: Microfinance Bank
MFI: Microfinance Institution
MFLO: Muslim Family Law, 1961 Ordinance
MICS: Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey
MMR: Maternal Mortality Rate
MO: Medical Officer
MPA: Member of Provincial Assembly |
| N | NADRA: National Database and Registration Authority
NCSW: National Commission on the Status of Women
NICOP: National Identity Card for Overseas Pakistanis |
| O | OPD: Outpatient Department
OTP: Outpatients Therapeutic Program |
| P | PBIT: Punjab Board of Investment and Trade
PBS: Pakistan Bureau of Statistics
PDCF: Punjab Day Care Fund
PECA: Prevention of Electronic Crimes Act (2016) |
PEEF: Punjab Educational Endowment Fund
PEF: Punjab Education Foundation
PESRP: Punjab Education Sector Reform Program
PESSI: Punjab Employees Social Security Institute
PGPR: Punjab Gender Parity Report
PHC: Population and Housing Census
PITB: Punjab Information Technology Board
PMHI: Punjab Mental Health Institute
PML-N: Pakistan Muslim League – Nawaz
PPC: Pakistan Penal Code
PPSC: Punjab Public Service Commission
PSLM: Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement
PSPU: The Policy and Strategic Planning Unit
PTI: Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf
PWD: Population Welfare Department
PWEI: Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative
PWEF: Punjab Women Empowerment Fund

RES: Resolution
RHC: Rural Health Center

SBP: State Bank of Pakistan
SDGs: Sustainable Development Goals
SECP: Securities and Exchange Commission of Pakistan
SFM: Skills for Market Training
SMEs: Small and Medium Enterprises

TEVTA: Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority
TFR: Total Fertility Rate
THQ: Tehsil Headquarters
TT: Tetanus Toxoid

UC: Union Council
UDHR: Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN: United Nations
UNCRC: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNHRC: UN Human Rights Council
UNICEF: The United Nations International Children’s Fund
UPR: Universal Periodic Review
USAID: United States Agency for International Development
UTP: Under-trial Prisoner

VAW: Violence Against Women
VAWC: Violence Against Women Center

WBIC: Women Business Incubation Center
WDD: Women Development Department
WEF: World Economic Forum
WHO: World Health Organization
WMO: Woman Medical Officer
WPOs: Women Protection Officers

ZTBL: Zarai Taraqiati Bank Limited
Message From the
Chief Minister, Punjab

Increasing the capacity of our nation’s human resource is fundamental to sustainable development. With a relatively young population, investment in our youth is likely to reap high benefits in the future. As a signatory to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Pakistan recognizes that any efforts geared towards developing human resource need to be based on the principle of equity. Women make up almost half of our population and therefore, any and all progress we make is contingent upon the extension of the same opportunities to all our citizens.

With the aim of supporting Pakistan’s commitment to achieving its SDG targets, the Government of Punjab is committed to removing all barriers that prevent women from reaching their maximum potential. In our quest for gender equality and women’s empowerment, we seek to provide equitable access to socioeconomic and political opportunities and financial resources so that we can benefit from improved prospects of economic growth, enhanced governance and sustainable development.

The government of Punjab continuously strives to invest its resources in crosscutting gender sensitive policies and strategies. Not only do we try to provide equal opportunities to women in all sectors, we firmly believe in taking affirmative action in order to reverse and eventually eliminate gender gaps in health, education, and access to justice, political representation and economic opportunities. As the chosen representatives of Punjab’s citizens, we aim to provide services to help women harness their potential as well as reduce all instances of abuse, discrimination and violence against them.

Introduction of policies such as the Women Empowerment Packages of 2012, 2014, 2016 and 2017 and the establishment of provincial machineries for women such as the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW) are a testament to our commitment to gender parity and women’s empowerment.

The Gender Management Information System (GMIS) has been developed to make reliable gender disaggregated data available for evidence-based and informed policymaking at the provincial and local levels. It enables the government to cater more effectively to the needs of women and to achieve gender parity across various sectors, regions, classes and fields. GMIS is also an instrumental provincial monitoring tool that can be used to assess Punjab’s progress on SDG targets, especially those that pertain to gender equality.

I would like to congratulate PCSW’s Chairperson Ms. Fauzia Viqar and her team on preparation of the 3rd Punjab Gender Parity Report and for their commendable efforts in furthering the cause of women in Punjab. We hope that PCSW continues to work towards improving the status of women and advocating for positive change.

Muhammad Shehbaz Sharif
Chief Minister, Govt of Punjab
The government of Punjab reaffirms its strong commitment to working towards women’s empowerment and removing barriers that prevent women from advancing in the socio-economic and political sphere. We recognize that inclusive and sustainable development cannot be achieved unless gender disparities are reduced and eventually eliminated.

In this regard, I truly appreciate the efforts of the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women and congratulate the Chairperson on the compilation of the third annual Gender Parity Report. In addition to bringing women’s equality to the forefront of provincial policy agendas, the report is a testament of the government of Punjab’s commitment to track progress towards meeting SDG targets on an annual basis. I sincerely hope that the concrete recommendations put forward in the report are put into action.

The availability of sex-disaggregated data has been a challenge for the Government of Punjab, which is being managed to a great extent through GMIS. Data relating to health, education, political and economic fields is now available online. It shall enable the Government of Punjab to focus on gender sensitive policies and their implementation. I would like to congratulate Chairperson, PCSW and her team for achieving the objective in true letter and spirit.

I hope that the 3rd annual Punjab Gender Parity Report shall overcome the loopholes and deficiencies in compilation and analyzing the data of previous reports of 2016 and 2017. The report throws light on various thematic areas and addresses the dire need to sensitize our educational, health, demographic and justice systems to be more gender responsive. This report can be a useful reference as well as indicator for achieving national and international commitments. Women Development Department is committed to achieve gender equality across Punjab and support every effort for meeting the objectives of gender-responsive policy making and its implementation.

Congratulations to the Commission’s team on successfully compiling the 3rd annual Punjab Gender Parity Report. This publication not only provides an in-depth overview of gender disparities in the province on an annual basis; it also raises awareness and promotes dialogue and discourse around women related issues. It reinforces the need to formulate inclusive and gender sensitive policies as a prerequisite for achieving socio-economic development.

By highlighting specific areas of concern and disparities at various levels, this report can help prioritize the allocation of resources and guide the development of relevant and effective policies. Punjab Gender Parity Report can also help the government in monitoring the implementation of national and international commitments on women’s empowerment, including the Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Minister for Women Development, Punjab

Chief Secretary, Punjab

Secretary, Women Development Department
Introduction to the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women

The Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW) is a statutory, autonomous body established in February 2014 for the promotion of women’s rights. After the devolution of women’s development to the provinces under the 18th Amendment to the Constitution of Pakistan, PCSW was conceived as an oversight body to ensure policies and programmes of the government promote gender equality in Punjab.

To fulfil its mandate, PCSW collects in-depth data depicting the status of gender equality in Punjab, tracks the implementation status of the government of Punjab’s initiatives, and advocates for the empowerment of women in the province. It has established an official Helpline (1043) through which women are provided information regarding their rights, as well as referrals to service providers/institutions.

The following projects are a testament of PCSW’s commitment to its mandate:

(i) Gender Management Information System (GMIS): A computerized repository of women related statistics, organized and programmed to produce regular analysis and reports on the status of women in Punjab.

(ii) Transitional Housing for Women (THW): A project to support women’s empowerment through social and economic enhancement with the objective of enabling them to be self-sufficient and self-reliant.


(iv) Training of Nikah Registrars (TNR): A capacity building initiative through which approximately 39,000 Nikah Registrars and 9,000 officials of the Local Government and Community Development Department will be trained on recent family and inheritance laws, proper filling of Nikah Nama, and marriage registration.

(V) Generating Data to Advance Women’s Social & Economic Wellbeing in Pakistan: A project to generate data on the economic and social status of women in Punjab and establish a baseline for monitoring of SDGs 5 and 8 to support policy actions.
Executive Summary

Introduction to the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women

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DEMograPhics

After a delay of 19 years, Pakistan conducted its 6th Population Housing Census in 2017. The country's population is now recorded at 207.7 million with an average annual growth rate of 2.4%. The population of Punjab is 110,012,442 with an average annual growth rate of 2.13%, with 55,958,974 (51%) men, 54,046,759 (49%) women, and 6,709 (0.00%) transgender persons. There are approximately 1 million more men than women in Punjab.

The sex ratio for Punjab is 103 men for every 100 women. Of the 11 million people living in Punjab, 40.4 million (37%) live in urban areas while 69.6 million (63%) live in rural areas. 110 million people live in 17.1 million households, with an average household size of 6.43 persons as compared to 7 persons in 1998. The decrease in household size can partly be attributed to a declining Total Fertility Rate (3.2 in 2012 to 2.7 in 2017).

Data indicates that women lag behind men in terms of registration with the local authorities e.g. birth, death, marriage, and divorce registration. In 2016, out of a total of 2,097,510 birth registrations, 1,129,028 (54%) were for boys and 968,482 (46%) were for girls. Compared to 2015, registrations of the girl child decreased by 38% in 2016. 351,316 deaths were registered in Punjab in 2016. Out of these, 205,777 (59%) were male deaths and 145,539 (41%) were female deaths. 613,264 marriages were registered in Punjab in 2016. This is a 10% decrease from 2015 in which 683,504 marriages were registered. In 2016, 93,507 divorces were filed, out of which 72,179 (77%) were filed by men and 21,328 (23%) were filed by women.

By the end of 2015, NADRA had issued 57,127,166 CNICs in Punjab. Of these, 32,230,945 (56%) were issued to men and 24,896,221 (44%) were issued to women. By the end of 2016, NADRA had issued 58,797,101 CNICs, 33,102,382 (56%) to men and 25,694,719 (44%) to women, with a GPI of 0.776. In 2017, an additional 7,496,446 CNICs were issued, of which, 4,442,350 (59%) were issued to men while 3,054,096 (41%) were issued to women. By the end of 2017, NADRA had issued a total of 66,293,547 CNICs in Punjab.

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GOVERNANCE

In the federal and provincial legislature, female members are significantly outnumbered by their male counterparts. In the National Assembly, there are, at present, 71 (21%) women compared to 271 (79%) men. Within the Punjab Assembly, 66 female MPAs account for 20% of the membership of the Assembly compared to 294 men.

Although constitutional quotas reserving seats for women in the National Assembly and Punjab Assembly are being met, women remain disproportionately under-represented within the executive branch of the government. In Punjab Assembly, there are only 4 female provincial Ministers (compared to 30 men), 5 female Parliamentary Secretaries (compared to 38 men) and 2 female Chairpersons of Parliamentary Committees (compared to 34 men).

Women’s participation as voters has improved with a 13% increase in the total number of female registered voters between 2013 and 2017. At the district level, percentage increase was highest in Sheikhupura at 40.2%, and lowest for Chiniot at 4.4%. Nevertheless, the gap between male and female registered voters remains significant at 6.7 million in 2017. Moreover, the gap between female registered voters and female CNIC holders at the end of 2017 remains significant, and was recorded at 4.24 million.

Within the public sector, the number of female officers (Gazetted and Non-Gazetted) remains significantly lower than men. In the 181 provincial departments who responded to data requests, out of a total of 26,033 Gazetted Officers, there were 18,408 (70.7%) male Gazetted Officers and 7,625 (29.3%) female Gazetted Officers, with a GPI of 0.29. In case of Non-Gazetted Officers, out of a total of 62,098 officers, there were 5,526 (8.9%) female officers and 56,572 (91.1%) male officers, denoting an even lower GPI value of 0.098.

It was found that among the 181 entities who responded, 54 (78%) Boards, 108 (53%) Committees and 3 (43%) Taskforces were in compliance with the 33% quota in PWEP 2012 for representation of women in decision-making positions. It was also found that out of the a total of 133 out of 181 provincial departments/institutions, and 137 out of 663 district offices, did not fulfill the 15% requirement stipulated under PWEP 2012.
Health is a basic capability that determines the quality of life and wellbeing that individuals and communities experience. Phenomena such as morbidity, ill health, hunger and disease restrict choices available to individuals and undercut their ability to reach their maximum potential. Access to public health facilities is, therefore, paramount for human development.

Maternal mortality in Pakistan has been improving steadily over the past 3 decades. From 1990 to 2015, the Maternal Mortality Rate has declined from 431/100,000 live births to 178/100,000 live births. Despite progress, MMR in Pakistan is still extremely high. From 2012 to 2017, the Infant Mortality Rate declined from 66.2/1,000 live births to 58.4/1,000 live births. Infant mortality in Punjab is lower than the national average of 66/1,000 live births. As compared to the national Total Fertility Rate (TFR) of 3.0 in 2017, Punjab has a lower TFR of 2.7.

In Punjab, life expectancy of both men and women has seen a steady improvement in the past 5 years. Since 2012, male life expectancy in Punjab has increased by 2.2 years and female life expectancy by 1.7 years. On average, males in Punjab had a life expectancy of 68.2 years in 2017 as opposed to national male life expectancy of 65.8. On the other hand, women in Punjab had a lower life expectancy of 67.2 years as compared to the national female life expectancy of 68.2 years.

In 2017, there were 4,719 healthcare facilities providing services ranging from basic to specialized healthcare. In Punjab, of these 4,603 (97.5%) were facilities under Primary & Secondary Healthcare Department and 116 (2.5%) were specialized health facilities. There were 47,638 personnel employed by Primary & Secondary Healthcare Department. Of these, 20,398 (43%) were male and 27,240 (57%) were female, with a GPI of 1.36. Nurses, general medical practitioners and community health workers comprised almost 70% of total staff. In 2017, SH&MED employed 9,057 doctors of which, 5,584 (62%) were male and 3,473 (38%) were female, with a GPI of 0.621.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of patients at health facilities increased from 77 million to 100 million showing an increase of 29.9%. Of these, approximately 44.1 million (44%) new patients were male and 55.9 million (56%) were female.

In 2017, there were 2,080,127 family planning visits made to health facilities across Punjab. From 2016 to 2017, there was only a 5.4% increase in the number of family planning visits made to health facilities as compared to a 100% increase observed between 2015 and 2016. In 23 districts, the number of family planning visits increased and in 13 districts there was a significant drop in family planning visits.

There were 3,861,204 first ANC visits and 3,221,204 follow-up visits in 2017. In all facilities, the number of follow-up visits was less than first visits indicating that a lot of pregnant women did not complete the recommended 4 visits. In 2016, 24.8% of women were anemic at their first ANC visit. In 2017, 20% of women availing their first ANC visit were anemic.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of live births across health facilities in Punjab increased from 826,750 to 1,024,221, an increase of 23.9%. From 2016 to 2017, the number of deliveries at public health facilities by C-
EDUCATION

Education plays a pivotal role in development because it has distinct intrinsic and instrumental value. As an essential ability that is fundamental to the wellbeing of individuals and by extension, enlightened societies, it has huge potential to act as a potent redistributive and empowering tool. Investment in women's education not only bolsters income and economic growth but also positively reinforces a nation's development agenda in health, political participation and governance.

Literacy Rates (LRs) (10 years and above) in Punjab saw no change between 2014-15 and 2015-16 and remained at 63%. However, the male LR increased from 71% to 72% and the female LR declined from 55% to 54%. In 2015-16, LRs in urban areas were significantly higher for both males (82%) and females (73%) as compared to LRs of males (66%) and females (44%) in rural areas. From 2011-12 to 2013-14, the overall Net Enrollment Rate (NER) remained the same (64%). However, it dropped to 61% in 2014-15 along with a widening of the gender gap from 3% to 4%. In 2015-16, overall NER declined further to 59%. However, the gender gap narrowed to 2%. Declining NERs and the persistent gender gap are indicative of decreasing access to schools, especially for girls.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of formal schools increased nominally from 51,416 to 51,499. Of these, 27,504 (53.4%) were boys' schools and 23,995 (46.6%) schools were for girls. Of the total number of formal schools, 36,059 (70%) were primary schools, 8,358 (16.3%) were middle schools, 6,402 (12.4%) were high schools and 680 (1.3%) were higher secondary institutions. With each successive level of schooling, the number of formal schools declined rapidly. There were 77% fewer middle schools as compared to primary schools with 81% fewer middle schools for boys and 71% fewer middle schools for girls.

In 2016-17, 5,864,961 boys (52%) and 5,406,337 (48%) girls were enrolled in formal schools. The number of male students increased by 4% whereas the number of female students increased by 5.2% resulting in an increase in GPI from 0.910 in 2015-16 to 0.922 in 2016-17. Gender parity in enrollment was achieved by 12 of Punjab's 36 districts as compared to only 8 districts in 2015-16. In 9 of these 12 districts, female enrollment was higher than male enrollment. Across all districts, total enrollment decreased with each successive grade.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of teachers employed in formal schools increased from 335,344 to 341,939, reflecting an increase of 2%. Of the teachers employed in 2015-16, 154,426 (45%) are males and 187,513 (55%) are females, with a GPI of 1.21. Punjab has a Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) of 33:1, which is much higher than the global average of 18:1. In none of the districts is the PTR lower than the global average.

From 2014-15 to 2015-16, the number of Grade 5 students who could read sentences in English decreased from 60% to 57%, and students who could read stories in Urdu declined from 70% to 65%. From 2014-15 to 2015-16, learning levels in Arithmetic showed a slight improvement with the percentage of Grade 5 students who could do two-digit division in Arithmetic increasing from 59% to 60%. In the school-going age cohort of 5-16 years, 49% of boys could not read stories in Urdu and sentences in English as compared to 52% of girls. 53% of boys and 56% of girls were unable to do subtraction in Arithmetic.

### Literacy Rate 10 Years and Above in Punjab (2014-15 and 2015-16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Overall Literacy Rate</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014-15</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015-16</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: PSSM 2014-15 and 2015-16)
ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION AND OPPORTUNITIES

Gender disparity in the economic sphere doesn’t only hinder the wellbeing of women; it entails negative consequences for all members of the household and society as well as the economy in general. Enhancing women’s economic participation and opportunities is, thus, not merely a goal in itself; it is in some ways a pre requisite for reducing disparities in other areas of women’s lives.

Labour Force Survey (LFS,2014-15) reveals significantly different figures for men and women's Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) in Punjab, indicating differences in the availability and accessibility of economic opportunities for men and women. Female LFPR, at 27.8%, is considerably lower than the male LFPR at 69.4%. Rural female LFPR, at 35.5%, significantly exceeds urban female LFPR of 12.8%. A higher rural LFPR of women can be contributed to their greater representation in the Agriculture sector. In Punjab, 20.7% of women and 23.9% of men are employed in agriculture. In the non-agriculture sector, there are only 7.7% women as compared to 47.7% men. LFS findings reveal that at all levels of education; a higher number of men are employed as compared to women. Only 3.7% of the literate female population is employed as opposed to 20.9% of the literate male population.

Women who are employed experience considerable wage disparities. In Punjab, 53.6% of women (in paid employment) in rural areas and 40.2% of women in urban areas earn less than Rs. 5,000 per month as compared to only 8.9% and 6.6% of men in rural and urban areas respectively.

Not only do women lack access to income-generating opportunities, they are also disadvantaged in terms of resource ownership. In Punjab, there is a considerable variation between the number of male and female agricultural landowners. Of the 63,560,831 agricultural landowners, 43,655,022 (68.7%) are men and 19,905,809 (31.3%) are women, with a GPI of 0.455. There is also a huge disparity in the number of men and women who own vehicles and possess driving licences in Punjab. In 2017, out of the 1,649,044 vehicles owned, 1,23,448 (1%) were owned by women. In 2017, the number of licences issued were 305,146, out of which 15,883 (5.2%) of licences were issued to women.

Women remain relatively disadvantaged in terms of access to finance. At the end of Fiscal Year (FY) 2016-17, women owned 26.8% of deposit accounts, 24% of the current accounts, 6% of loan accounts, and 5% of long-term loan accounts in Bank of Punjab. In 2017, out of the 264,000 borrowers at Zarai Taraqiati Bank Limited (ZTBL), there only 14,000 (5.3%) female borrowers. In the same year, Rs. 80,475 million of loans were disbursed; out of which the value of loans extended to women was 5.9%. The Microfinance Institutions and Banks registered with Punjab Microfinance Network (PMFN) dealt with 3,488,224 borrowers in 2016-17, out of which 1,752,331 (50.2%) were women. Women, however, held 39,981 million (34.3%) of the Gross Loan Portfolio (GLP) as opposed to the GLP of men at 76,514 million rupees (65.7%).

The provision of social security and safety nets remains far from inclusive in Punjab. Data provided by Employees Old-Age Benefits Institution (EOBI) indicates that of the 180,278 pensioners in Punjab in 2016-17, only 67,083 (37%) were women. In 2017, out of all the beneficiaries of Punjab Employees Social Security Institution (PESSI), 4% were female beneficiaries. In the same year, however, 41% of the value of Zakat payments were allocated to women. Of the Khidmat card beneficiaries in 2017, 43.7% were women and 56.3% were men.

JUSTICE

SDG 16 targets promotion of the Rule of Law, reduction of all forms of violence, ensuring complete access to justice, and developing effective institutions at all levels. The state of human rights in Pakistan, however, remains largely inconsistent with the country’s Constitution and international standards. In recent years, women in Punjab have faced violent attacks, discrimination and persecution, while the government continues its struggle to strengthen existing mechanisms to ensure adequate protection for survivors, and stringent implementation of laws and policies to hold perpetrators accountable.

In comparison with 7,313 cases in 2016, 7,678 cases of violence against women were reported in 2017, representing a 5% increase since 2016. In addition, 3,031 cases of assault and 11,017 cases of kidnapping/abduction were reported. Similar to 2016, when 2,938 cases of rape were reported in Punjab, rape is still the second highest reported offence in 2017, with a total of 3,378 cases reported, including those of gang rape (251) and custodial rape (44). 904 cases of domestic violence were reported, of which 402 cases were of murder in domestic violence, 141 cases of domestic attempted murder, and 361 cases of domestic violence as "beating." Comparatively, 2016 figures revealed 539 cases of beating only. 222 cases of honour killings were reported in Punjab in 2016 and 2017.

In 2017, courts across Punjab decided 7,219 cases of VAW. Of the cases decided, 315 resulted in convictions and 6,904 cases resulted in acquittals, usually due to lack of forensic evidence or resiling witnesses. Among prisoners incarcerated in Punjab, women remain more at risk of abuse as compared to men. At the end of 2017, there were 50,825 prisoners in 39 prisons of Punjab, of which only 961 (2%) were women. 97 (10%) of 961 female prisoners were accompanied by their children in 24 prisons.

Women’s access to justice in Punjab has seen a nominal improvement since 2016. The increase in reported cases may be attributed to efficient redress mechanisms set up by the government, including helplines, 4 women police stations, social service institutions, and a one-stop shop Violence against Women Center in Multan. Human resource stations, social service institutions, and a one-stop shop for women comprising only 2.7% of the police force, 15% of the district judiciary, 14% of prosecutors and 11% of advocates in Punjab.

Human development has made great strides in the last 25 years. Across the globe, life spans have increased, literacy levels are on the rise and people's access to basic social services has improved. Despite the impressive gains made, development has not been equitable and certain sections of society have been left behind.

Women and girls, in particular, have not shared equally in the development boom. They face many challenges to inclusion in society pronounced by lack of access to the labour force, fewer economic opportunities and absence of independent decision-making in their public and private lives.

There is growing international consensus that women make up a disproportionately large number of the world's poor. This 'feminization of poverty' has resulted from persistent gender inequality in household decision-making, legal protection, labour markets and political agency.

A myriad of arguments is given for the glaringly different levels of development of men and women around the world. One of the most common arguments is based on cultural diversity and posits that in many traditional societies, the gender roles of women have been defined by centuries of prevailing norms of restraint, obedience and deference. The same argument is extended to defend cultural practices that reinforce such power dynamics. This is despite recognition by the comity of nations in the UN Conventions, that while cultural contexts are necessary to understand the social relationships between genders in different societies, they cannot supersede intrinsic and inalienable rights that women possess as human beings.

The negation of universal benchmarks, in favour of cultural relativity as a frame of reference for understanding gender differentials results in a perpetuation of gender gaps in men and women's rights.

Maintaining the status quo with regards to gender inequality is detrimental to the developmental efforts of nations. Women's empowerment and equality has a bi-directional relationship with development and an improvement in women's economic situation has a positive impact on women's ability to access various constituents of development such as basic education and health. Access to developmental tools such as better health and education increases the rate of economic development. Conversely, if discrimination against women and persistent gender gaps are not eliminated, economic development is hindered.

Due to its crosscutting nature, the measurement of gender gaps or inequalities requires a broad framework of development that gives due consideration to cultural contexts but does not let them supersede universally recognized rights of men and women.

Data evidence from different countries shows that where gender inequalities are larger and more persistent, the rates of poverty, malnutrition, illness and other deprivations are also high. These inequities not only impact the wellbeing of women but also have large negative spillover effects that undermine developmental policies across society. Eradicating gender gaps, therefore, becomes a development goal in and off itself.

Gender equality for women, however, cannot be treated just as a means to increasing economic growth. It should be pursued because the ability to live with autonomy, dignity and freedom is a fundamental human right that is independent of gender.
1.1 Gender Equality and Development

Human development has made great strides in the last 25 years. Across the globe, life spans have increased, literacy levels are on the rise and people’s access to basic social services has improved. Despite the impressive gains made, development has not been equitable and certain sections of society have been left behind. Women and girls, in particular, have not shared equally in the development boom. They face many challenges to inclusion in society pronounced by lack of access to the labour force, fewer economic opportunities and absence of independent decision-making in their public and private lives. There is growing international consensus that women make up a disproportionately large number of the world’s poor. This ‘feminization of poverty’ has resulted from persistent gender inequality in household decision-making, legal protection, labour markets and political agency.

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1.2 Pathways to Gender Equality

A commitment to the progressive realization of gender equality is the hallmark of feminist struggles around the world. At its conceptual and philosophical core, the ideal of gender parity is a corollary to the global agenda for achieving human rights for all, without distinction on the basis of ‘race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status’. Since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in

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3. Moghadam, 2005
4. (Meek, 1994)
5. (Nussbaum, 2001)
6. Ibid
7. (Duflo, 2012)
10. (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948)
1948, United Nations (UN) member states, including Pakistan, are obliged to take steps to eliminate all forms of discrimination and violence on the basis of gender. In recent years, there has been a growing realization among governments, development agencies as well as independent researchers, academics and other stakeholders that historically and culturally embedded gender roles continue to account for major social, economic and political inequalities that operate to the exclusive detriment of gender-ed minorities i.e. women and members of the transgender community.

Since the near universal adoption of the Convention against the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, an overwhelming majority of 189 UN member states have incurred legally binding commitments to protect the rights of women within their territories. More recently, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), successor to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), reaffirmed this commitment to achieving equality of the sexes by proposing an aspirational policy framework comprising 17 Goals, 169 Targets, and 230 indicators/sub indicators. The centrality of gender equality to development, growth and prosperity is acknowledged as a separate goal where in SDG 5 requires the world to:

"Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls by 2030"

Under various other instruments of international law (including the Beijing Declaration and numerous resolutions of the UN General Assembly), states have committed themselves to undertaking concrete, sustainable and practical steps to "promote, protect and fulfill" the rights of women through legal, administrative and policy measures. As a member of the international community, Pakistan has signed, ratified and/or acceded to a majority of the core international human rights conventions. Some of these pertain specifically to women and girls. These include, CEDAW, the International Labor Organization (ILO) Equal Remuneration Convention No. 100 and the ILO Maternity Protection Convention No. 183. Under these multilateral agreements, Pakistan is required to undertake efforts for the protection, development and empowerment of women and girls.

Moreover, compliance with international human rights standards is often attached as a political conditionality under Pakistan’s various trade, aid or debt agreements with international financial or commercial organizations, including, Pakistan’s GSP+ status with the European Union. Across low and middle-income countries, there is a dire need to formulate gender-responsive laws, policies and institutional mechanisms in order to build more inclusive, effective and equitable models of government. This is especially important for developing societies where socially ingrained and culturally reinforced standards of behavior can act as veritable barriers for women’s access to social, economic, cultural, civil and political rights. An evidence-based approach to gender differences, grounded in research and scholarship, has the potential to inform the process of development and growth in a meaningful way by mainstreaming legitimate demands and needs of women into actionable policies at the domestic level.

Cognizant of Pakistan’s international commitments and constitutional duties, successive governments in Pakistan have undertaken significant efforts to safeguard the interests of women. At the federal level, since 2005, there has been a surge in the number of pro-women laws, policies and institutions; a positive and forthcoming trend that speaks to the growing consciousness among policy makers that all existing and new policies must be sensitive and responsive to the needs, rights and interests of women (See Legislation, Chapter 9). Under Articles 25 and 34 of the Constitution of Pakistan, 1973 (Constitution), affirmative action is stipulated as an additional policy directive aimed at protecting the interests of women and children. Similarly, specific rules of civil and criminal law (including the Pakistan Penal Code, 1860) also exist to safeguard a woman’s right to life, dignity, and physical security. Special monitoring institutions like the National Commission on the Status of Women (NCSW) have also been established to ensure that all governmental practices promote gender equality, eliminate all forms of Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG), and provide them access to the professional and educational opportunities necessary for harnessing and actualizing their individual potential.

At the provincial level, recently promulgated pro women laws (See Legislation, Chapter 9) represent a positive development in the strategic plan to materialize the goal of women’s empowerment. Moreover, government policies such as the Punjab Women Empowerment Packages and Initiatives of 2012, 2014, 2016 and 2017 have been introduced to embed a gendered component into the...
Packages and Initiatives of 2012, 2014, 2016 and 2017 have been introduced to embed a gendered component into the public sector. In line with its efforts to mainstream women in society, the provincial government has established the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW) and the Ombudsperson's Office for the Protection of Women against Harassment at the Workplace. These institutions are a manifestation of CEDAW recommendations and persistent demand of women's rights activists in Pakistan that specific institutions be set up in the public sector to champion the cause of women empowerment.14

Despite these legal, policy and administrative measures, women continue to face barriers to the exercise of their fundamental civil, political, and economic human rights. As illustrated throughout this report, the underlying social norms, cultural values, and traditional belief systems prevalent at the societal level continue to perpetuate and reinforce gender disparities across sectors, fields, and industries in Punjab.

### 1.3 Measuring Gender Equality: Development for Everyone

The Punjab Gender Parity Report (PGPR) 2018 views gender equality through the 'Human Development and Capability Approach' lens (Box 1).

**The Human Development and Capability Approach**

The Human Development and Capability Approach is a people-centered approach to development. It presents a comprehensive, normative framework that allows for the evaluation and assessment of both individual wellbeing and social arrangements. Universalism is a key attribute of this approach and implies that human development is attainable by everyone regardless of gender, race, religion or any other similar division.

With its focus on wellbeing and agency, this approach is based on the following key principles:

- **Functionings** are things that people value doing or being such as happy, educated, self-respecting etc.
- **Capabilities** are the various functionings a person is able to achieve.
- **Agency** is the ability to pursue goals that one finds valuable.

As the objective of development is enlarging freedoms and choice for people, this approach has two fundamental aspects. First, the freedom of wellbeing as represented by functionings and capabilities and second, the freedom of agency represented by the level of voice and autonomy individuals possess. Both freedoms of wellbeing and agency are necessary for holistic development.

The Capability Approach, as conceptualized by Amartya Sen, has become the leading framework used to analyze poverty, inequality and development. The main principle of this approach is increasing people's freedom so they can make choices that they have reason to consider valuable. Looking at gender equality from this perspective brings the focus on the wellbeing and agency of people instead of income and economic growth. It follows then that this approach focuses more on the provision of public services that enhance basic capabilities of women through education, health and other social services rather than on the growth of private income only. This report utilizes the Human Development Approach as its analytical lens because of its emphasis on development being universal and, therefore, attainable by everyone. Figure 1.1 shows the fundamental principles of the Human Development Approach.

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14 (Mcbride & Maur, 2012)  
15 (Clark, 2005)  
16 (Human Development Report, 2016)  
17 (Anand & Ravallion, 1993)  
18 (Robyns, 2005)
1.4 Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018: Towards Evidence-based Policymaking

Punjab Gender Parity Report (PGPR) 2018 reflects PCSW’s commitment to aid in the development of evidence-based policies that take into account existing gender disparity in Punjab. This report presents data collated under the Gender Management Information System (GMIS) and highlights the status of men and women in Punjab. It also examines gender inequality in 6 key thematic areas and uses qualitative analysis to explain existing differentials between men and women. Figure 1.2 depicts the main thematic areas covered in this report.
PGPR 2018 not only assesses gender gaps that exist in the thematic areas but also presents a baseline assessment of development. Where possible, comparisons between international benchmarks as specified by the Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs) and other international frameworks such as the Gender Gap Reports have been drawn to highlight Punjab's overall progress. The report also provides an implementation status of provisions contained in all Women Empowerment Packages introduced by the Government of Punjab since 2012. These status updates are aimed to help policymakers and government officials identify areas where concerted effort is needed to ensure implementation of women-centric policies.

1.5 Methodology

Since 2016, the annual Gender Parity Report series has provided an in-depth quantitative overview and a year on year trend analysis of the relative status of men and women in Punjab across 6 broadly defined thematic areas. The selection of these thematic areas has been based on the universal concept of human development that focuses on expansion of freedoms and choice. The thematic areas encompass both the fundamental aspects of the Human Development Approach i.e. the freedom of wellbeing and the freedom of agency. Figure 1.3 shows the conceptual framework used to identify thematic areas.

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**Figure 1.3**

Conceptual Framework for selection of Thematic Areas

- **Human Development**
  - Freedom of Wellbeing
    - Functionings & Capabilities
  - Freedom of Agency
    - Voice and Autonomy

- Thematic Areas
  - Education
  - Health
  - Economic Participation & Opportunities
  - Demographics
  - Governance
  - Justice
Following the identification of these areas in 2015, an Indicator Framework comprising of 274 indicators and sub-indicators was finalized after a series of consultations with leading academics, gender specialists and development experts. Every year, this framework is revised and refined in light of latest developments on the ground as well as challenges in data collection. For this year’s report, the framework has 300 indicators. Figure 1.4 illustrates the complete methodological framework for PGPR 2018 as a 5-step process starting with the conceptualization of gender parity through the use of broad thematic categories to extrapolating actionable

For PGPR 2018, Divisional Coordinators based in the 9 Divisions of Punjab collected official government data, through correspondence and follow-up visits, from 347 provincial departments/institutions and 702 district offices. Data collected is disaggregated according to sex, district, and year, and further disaggregated according to the rural/urban divide, where possible. Figure 1.5 shows the increase in response to data collection efforts over the last 2 years. The process of data collection has benefited from the streamlining effect of increased inter-departmental cooperation and better communication between PCSW staff and the personnel from relevant
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1.6 Challenges in Data Collection

Delays in the Provision of Data

Delays in the provision of data are a major barrier to an efficient data collection process. These delays were exacerbated by the organizational workload of all data providing institutions in addition to the backlog of requests for data from other official government bodies, individual citizens and civil society organizations. Moreover, government departments/offices often lack computerized software for storage and organization of data.

Unavailability of Data

For a number of indicators, PGPR 2018 utilizes data from surveys conducted at the national and provincial levels. These surveys include the Labour Force Survey (LFS), Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement (PSLM), Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) and Pakistan Population and Housing Survey. Since these surveys are not conducted on an annual basis, data from the most relevant and recently conducted surveys has been used. For example, LFS 2014-15 has been used for labour force and employment related statistics in the chapter on Economic Participation and Opportunities.

At times, data was not available at the district level, limiting the utility of specific information and also restricting the possibilities for comparing datasets to extrapolate meaningful inferences. On several occasions, data was not available in a gender-disaggregated form. This was particularly problematic for Health when measuring the prevalence of diseases among women prevented the research team from drawing comparisons between the physical and mental wellbeing of women and men. Data analysis was rendered difficult in cases where relevant.
data was measured for a time period other than the calendar year ending on 31st December 2017 (for example, the fiscal year or the parliamentary year).

Changes in Local Government Structures

Since the enactment of the Punjab Local Government Amendment Act, 2016, the number of district level offices, directorates, functional units, local government bodies and functionaries have increased. As a result of these structural changes, the work of the data collection team increased significantly in 2017.
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SECTION 02

SECTION
DEMOGRAPHICS

Pakistan’s population is recorded at 207.7 million, out of which 106 million (51%) are men, 101 million (49%) are women, and 10,418 are transgender persons.

Punjab is the most populous province with a population of 110 million, out of which 56 million (51%) are men, 54 million (49%) are women and 6,709 are transgender persons.

Punjab’s urban population is 40.4 million (37%), of which 20.8 million (51%) are men and 19.6 million (49%) are women. The rural population is 69.6 million (63%), of which 35.2 million (51%) are men and 34.4 million (49%) are women. 4,585 (68%) transgender persons live in urban areas while 2,124 (32%) live in rural areas.

Punjab’s average annual population growth rate (2.13%) from 1998 to 2017 is the lowest in the country. Punjab’s share in the total population has dropped by 3%; from 56% in 1998 to 53% in 2017.

The sex ratio for Punjab is 103 men for every 100 women with a higher ratio for urban areas (106 men for every 100 women).

In Punjab, 110 million people live in 17.1 million households, with an average household size of 6.43 persons as compared to 7 persons in 1998.

In 2016, 2,097,510 births were registered, of which 1,129,028 (54%) were for boys and 968,482 (46%) were for girls. Compared to 2015, registration of the girl child decreased by 38% in 2016.

In 2016, 613,264 marriages were registered and 93,507 divorces were filed, out of which, 72,179 (77%) were filed by men and 21,328 (23%) were filed by women. 2016 witnessed an overall increase in the number of divorces filed by approximately 17% while marriage registration decreased by 10%.

In 2017, NADRA issued 7 million Computerized National Identity Cards (CNICs) in Punjab, of which 4 million (59%) were issued to men and 3 million (41%) to women, with a GPI of 0.687. Compared to 2016, 74% more CNICs were issued to women in 2017.

In 2017, NADRA issued 272 CNICs to the transgender community in Punjab, out of which 194 (71%) were issued to male eunuchs, 70 (26%) to female eunuchs and 8 (3%) to khunsa-e-mushkil persons.

15,579 CNICs with disability logo were issued in Punjab in 2017, of which, 12,067 (77%) were issued to men while only 3,512 (23%) were issued to women, with a GPI of 0.291. Compared to 2016, 17% more CNICs with disability logo were issued to women in 2017.
**DEMOGRAPHICS**

**KEY FINDINGS**

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Introduction

Demography, referred to as the "science of human populations," studies the size, distribution, and composition of populations, and explores how changes in these are closely connected with the three quintessential population processes of mortality, fertility, and migration.  It is inextricably linked to issues of socio-economic development such as poverty, public finance, infrastructure, and climate change. The population processes, also referred to as demographic drivers, either restrict or promote development. Hence, analyzing population characteristics and demographic drivers is a prerequisite for formulating policies that can ultimately lead to sustainable human development and inclusive economic growth.

The population processes of mortality, fertility, and migration have a decisive impact on population sizes. For decades, policymakers have debated the influence of population growth and size on economic growth and social progress. However, the recent demographic transition in developing countries has made social scientists take note of the changing age structure of the population as well. Due to declining population growth and consequent changes in age structure (attributed to increased usage of contraceptive facilities and family planning), the proportion of working-age population is increasing in most developing countries. This increase poses a window of opportunity or a demographic dividend.

As the economic needs and behavior of people varies at different stages of life, varying age structures tend to have different and significant effects on the economic performance of nations. Countries with a high proportion of children are likely to spend more on health care, which dampens economic growth whereas countries with a greater proportion of population falling in the working age group are likely to progress because the added productivity of this group can produce a demographic dividend of economic growth.

Research suggests that Pakistan is also undergoing demographic transition, and is experiencing a demographic dividend as the working-age population bulges and the dependency ratio declines. The youth bulge may either represent an opportunity for growth if accompanied by conducive labour and educational policies, or it may result in lost opportunities if citizens within the working age bracket are not adequately utilizing their individual potential and productivity.

Although the relationship between demography and development (particularly with regards to the demographic dividend) is well established, there is also a strand of literature that emphasizes the significance of the role of gender in demography. Gender dynamics set the context in which decisions affecting demographic changes are made within the household and the society at large, and the resulting changes and population processes affect men and women in different ways. For instance, promoting gender equality and women's empowerment influences the extent to which women are able to exercise their sexual and reproductive health rights, and therefore, carries implications for processes such as fertility and mortality. Likewise, processes such as migration or internal displacement influence women differently as compared to men. Women, who are normally confined to household activities and child upbringing in developing countries, may be forced to become more independent and assume a greater degree of financial responsibility in the context of migration (their own migration or the migration of the male household head). Thus, when tackling population issues, the government can play an instrumental role in formulating effective policies that not only ensure women's empowerment but also help influence behavior of the individuals, families, and the society, in ways that leads to desirable demographic changes.

The government of Punjab has taken several steps to ensure inclusion of women in the discourse related to population and the development agenda.

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20 (Gregory, 2009)
21 (Nugent & Seligman, 2008)
22 (Brander & Dowlird, 1994) and (Becker, Glaeser, & Murphy, 1999)
23 (Durr-e-Nayab, 2008)
24 (Bloom, Canning, & Sevilla, 2001)
25 (Durr-e-Nayab, 2008)
26 (Presser & Sin, 2000) and (Riley, 1998)
27 (Muller, n.d)
The Punjab Population Policy (2017) aims to improve access and the quality of reproductive health care for women through integrated service delivery and promote the importance of Healthy Timing and Spacing (HTSP) to all women by 2020. The government has also introduced a series of women empowerment packages that focus on pro-women initiatives (Refer to Chapter 8). However, pockets of the female population are still lagging in terms of socio-economic development. Considering that women constitute nearly half of the population of Punjab, a gendered demographic analysis would allow the government to recognize diversity and devise policies that pave the way to further women’s empowerment and gender equality.

Organization of Analysis

This section presents a detailed overview of demographic trends in Punjab; with analysis based on the results of the 6th Population and Housing Census (PHC); birth, death, marriage and divorce rates of the population, as well as issuance of Computerized National Identity Cards (CNICs). It is structured as follows:

i. Population Profile
   a. Punjab
   b. Rural/Urban
   c. Household Size

ii. Registrations with the Local Government and Community Development Department (LG&CDD)
   a. Birth Registration
   b. Death Registration
   c. Marriage Registration
   d. Divorce Registration

iii. Issuance of CNICs
   a. CNICs Issued to Transgender Persons
   b. CNICs with Disability Logo

2.1 Population Profile

After a delay of 19 years, Pakistan conducted its 6th PHC in 2017. The country’s population is now recorded at 207.7 million with an average annual growth rate of 2.4%. Of the 207.7 million, 101 million (49%) are women, 106 million (51%) are men, and 10,418 are transgender persons. Out of the country’s total transgender population, 7,651 live in urban areas and 2,767 in rural areas of the country. While inclusion of the transgender community in the national population census is a credible step, it must be noted that these numbers might be understated. It was established post-survey that in many cases, enumerators inferred the response on transgender because they felt it was unethical or offensive to ask the head of the household such questions.

Punjab has the largest population (110,012,442) with the lowest average annual growth rate (2.13%) over the 19-year period from 1998 to 2017. Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT) has the lowest population (950,727) but the highest average annual growth rate (4.91%). Table 2.1 shows the region-wise population profile of Pakistan with corresponding growth rates.
According to the results of the census, there are 5 million more men than women in Pakistan. The sex ratio for the country is 105 men for every 100 women, which negates the demographic norm.

Among the provinces, the highest sex ratio is that of ICT followed by Balochistan with 111 and 110 men for every 100 women respectively. The sex ratio is higher for urban areas in Pakistan (107 men for every 100 women) as compared to rural areas (104 men for every 100 women). PHC 2017 has highlighted the problem of ‘missing women’ in the country.

Literature suggests that imbalance of the sexes implies the existence of millions of missing females; and while some of these are due to unreported births, others are due to high early female mortality and sex selective abortions.

### 2.1.1 Punjab

The population of Punjab is 110,012,442 with an average annual growth rate of 2.13%, with 55,958,974 (51%) males, 54,046,759 (49%) females and 6,709 (0.00%) transgender persons (Figure 2.2).

According to PHC 2017, there are approximately 1 million more men than women in Punjab. The sex ratio for Punjab is 103 men for every 100 women with a higher ratio for urban areas (106 men for every 100 women). Lahore (110 men for every 100 women), Kasur (108 men for every 100 women) and Sheikhupura (107 men for every 100 women) have the highest sex ratio while Attock (99 men for every 100 women), Chakwal (94 men for every 100 women) and Gujrat (94 men for every 100 women) have the lowest sex ratio.

District wise analysis of Punjab reveals that Lahore, Faisalabad, Rawalpindi and Gujranwala have retained their positions as the most populous districts with 11 million, 7.8 million, 5.4 million and 5 million people residing in each district respectively. Hafizabad, Jhelum, Khushab and Nankana Sahib are the least populous districts with 1 million, 1.2 million, 1.3 million and 1.4 million people living in each district respectively. Lahore (0.910), Kasur (0.930) and Sheikhupura (0.933) have the highest gender disparity while Chakwal (1.066), Mandi Bahauddin (1.064) and Gujranwala (1.053) exhibit the lowest gender disparity. Figure 2.3 depicts the district wise population of Punjab according to PHC 2017.

The demographic norm suggests that there is a higher ratio of women as compared to men in a country’s population primarily because women have a higher life expectancy. The term ‘missing women’ was coined by the Nobel-Prize winner economist Amartya Sen. He proposed that the pr" oporon of women is lower than what it would be if girls and women were born and died at the same rate relative to boys and men.

Table 2.1 Region-wise Population Profile (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Transgender</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth Rate (1998-2017)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>101,314,780</td>
<td>106,449,322</td>
<td>10,418</td>
<td>207,774,520</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>54,046,759</td>
<td>55,958,974</td>
<td>6,709</td>
<td>110,012,442</td>
<td>2.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindh</td>
<td>22,956,478</td>
<td>24,927,046</td>
<td>2,527</td>
<td>47,886,051</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber Pakhtunkhwa</td>
<td>15,054,813</td>
<td>15,467,645</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>30,523,371</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balochistan</td>
<td>5,860,646</td>
<td>6,483,653</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>12,344,408</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FATA</td>
<td>2,445,357</td>
<td>2,556,292</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5,001,676</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamabad</td>
<td>950,727</td>
<td>1,055,712</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>2,006,572</td>
<td>4.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An analysis of the share of individual regions in the national population reveals that Balochistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) have experienced an increase of 1% and 2% respectively, while Punjab’s share has dropped by 3%, from 56% in 1998 to 53% in 2017. ICT, Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and Sindh’s population share has remained the same. Figure 2.1 illustrates the region-wise share of population and the change in this share over the 19-year period i.e. from 1998 to 2017.
According to the results of the census, there are 5 million more men than women in Pakistan. The sex ratio for the country is 105 men for every 100 women, which negates the demographic norm. Among the provinces, the highest sex ratio is that of ICT followed by Balochistan with 111 and 110 men for every 100 women respectively. The sex ratio is higher for urban areas in Pakistan (107 men for every 100 women) as compared to rural areas (104 men for every 100 women). PHC 2017 has highlighted the problem of ‘missing women’ in the country. Literature suggests that imbalance of the sexes implies the existence of millions of missing females; and while some of these are due to unreported births, others are due to high early female mortality and sex selective abortions.

2.1.1 Punjab

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Figure 2.2

Source: Population & Housing Census 2017, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics

Lahore, Faisalabad, Rawalpindi and Gujranwala are the most populous districts of Punjab

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12 The demographic norm suggests that there is a higher ratio of women as compared to men in a country’s population primarily because women have a higher life expectancy. 
13 The term ‘missing women’ was coined by the Nobel Prize winner economist Amartya Sen. He proposed that the proportion of women is lower than what it would be if girls and women were born and died at the same rate relative to boys and men.
14 (Gillis, 1995)
Out of the country’s total population, 67,300,171 (51%) men and 64,886,593 (49%) women live in rural areas while 39,149,151 (52%) men and 36,428,187 (48%) women live in urban areas. Urbanization trends in Pakistan reveal that, of its total population, almost 40,956,323 (20%) people live in 10 major cities and that the populations of these cities have increased significantly over the last 19 years. Out of these 10 cities, 5 are in Punjab (Table 2.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>5,143,495</td>
<td>11,126,285</td>
<td>116%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peshawar</td>
<td>982,816</td>
<td>1,970,042</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>529,180</td>
<td>1,014,825</td>
<td>92%</td>
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<td>2,027,001</td>
<td>79%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quetta</td>
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<td>Karachi</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Multan</td>
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<td>2,098,231</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyderabad</td>
<td>1,166,894</td>
<td>1,732,693</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2 Population of Major Cities of Pakistan (2017)

Of the 110 million people living in Punjab, 40.4 million (37%) live in urban areas while 69.6 million (63%) live in rural areas. Figure 2.4 illustrates that of the 40.4 million people living in urban areas, 19.6 million (49%) are women while 20.8 million (51%) are men, with a GPI of 0.942. Of the 69.6 million people living in rural areas, 34.4 million (49%) are women while 35.2 million (51%) are men, with a GPI of 0.977. Punjab is home to 6,709 transgender persons, out of which 4,585 (68%) live in urban areas while 2,124 (32%) live in rural areas.

As men noted earlier, this might not reflect the actual number of transgender people living in Punjab.
2.1.2 Urban/Rural Divide

Out of the country’s total population, 67,300,171 (51%) men and 64,886,593 (49%) women live in rural areas while 39,149,151 (52%) men and 36,428,187 (48%) women live in urban areas. Urbanization trends in Pakistan reveal that, of its total population, almost 40,956,323 (20%) people live in 10 major cities and that the populations of these cities have increased significantly over the last 19 years. Out of these 10 cities, 5 are in Punjab (Table 2.2).

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36 As mentioned earlier, this might not reflect the actual number of transgender people living in Punjab.
2.1.3 Household Size

In Pakistan, 207.7 million individuals live in 32.2 million households, translating into an average household size of 6.45 persons as compared to 6.89 persons in 1998. In Punjab, 110 million people live in 17.1 million households, with an average household size of 6.43 persons as compared to 7 persons in 1998 (Figure 2.5).

Research studies have shown that the parameter with the strongest effect on household size is Total Fertility Rate (TFR), whereby an increase in TFR leads to a rise in the average household size while the opposite holds true when TFR decreases.77 Considering the decreases in average household size, both at the national and provincial levels, it can be said that TFR has declined and the family size is shrinking (Refer to Section 4.4.3). This may be attributed to greater availability and accessibility of contraceptive facilities, with the use of modern contraceptives increasing from 21% in 2015 to 21.6% in 2016 and TFR decreasing from 3.2 in 2012 to 2.7 in 2017.78

SDG 16.9: By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including free birth registrations

2.2 Registrations with the Local Government and Community Development Department

2.2.1 Birth Registration

A name and nationality is every child’s right. Globally, however, births of around one fourth of children under the age of 5 have never been registered.79 A natural consequence of non-registration is that the child will not get a birth certificate and will subsequently be denied access to education, health facilities, income support programs, old age benefits and social security coverage.

Birth registration offers far more benefits than merely securing the child’s right to a name and nationality. Although it does not provide any guarantees, it assists in combating various forms of exploitation of children. Research suggests that illicit trafficking of children, child labour, or child prostitution, are significantly higher in areas with low birth registration rates.80 Moreover, studies have shown that even in countries where laws prohibiting early age marriage exist, non-registration of births makes age verification difficult.81 Thus, in cases where there is no document to prove the age and identity of the child, it becomes difficult for the state to protect him/her from socio-economic exploitation.

Goal 16 of SDGs aims to "promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels." Relevant provincial and federal departments are working in close coordination to

77 (Jiang & O'Neill, 2007)
78 (PCS, 2017)
79 (UNICEF, 2017)
80 (Todres, 2003)
81 (Jansen & Thornton, 2003)
develop and execute suitable policies and programs to ease the birth registration procedure.

Of the total number of births (2,843,768) registered in Punjab in 2015, 2,121,527 (75%) were fresh registrations while 722,241 (25%) were late. In 2016, out of a total of 2,097,510 birth registrations, 1,851,840 (88%) were fresh while 245,670 (12%) were late. However, the percentage of boys and girls registered remained the same (54% and 46%) for fresh and late registrations. Figure 2.6 provides the number of births registered in Punjab in 2015 and 2016.

From 2015 to 2016, birth registrations of boys and girls decreased by 34% and 38% respectively.

2.2.2 Death Registration

Death registration is a necessary process for inheritance, marriage, insurance and pension-related matters. A Death Certificate (DC) ensures the deceased’s family’s right to inherit property, to access business and financial entitlements, and to claim any available insurance or pensionary benefits. Moreover, in case of women, a DC would be required for re-marriage.

For death registration in Pakistan, the National Database & Registration Authority (NADRA) issues a Cancellation Certificate, which is a document, issued to register the termination of the CNIC in case of death of any citizen. The deceased’s next-of-kin, possessing a valid CNIC or National Identity Card for Overseas Pakistanis (NICOP), death certificate from the relevant Union Council (UC) and a graveyard certificate of the deceased family member, can apply for the cancellation.

As illustrated in Figure 2.7, 351,316 deaths were registered in Punjab in 2016. Out of these, 205,777 (59%) were male deaths and 145,539 (41%) were female deaths.

42 (Mikkelsen, Lopez, & Phillips, 2015)
43 (NADRA, 2017)
Possible explanations for lower numbers of registered female deaths could be the persisting practice among families to either forego registration since female members of the family may be less likely to own property, or due to concealment of female deaths in order to usurp property belonging to deceased women.

2.2.3 Marriage Registration

When a Muslim marriage is contracted, the marriage contract, also known as the Nikah Nama, must be registered with the nearest UC. After registration, the married couple can obtain a Marriage Certificate from NADRA. As shown in Figure 2.8, 613,264 marriages were registered in Punjab in 2016. This is a 10% decrease from 2015 in which 683,504 marriages were registered.

District wise analysis for 2016 reveals that the 3 districts with the highest number of registered marriages in 2016 were Lahore (74,594), Sialkot (37,631) and Multan (33,550), while the lowest numbers of marriages were registered in Mandi Bahauddin (196), Rajanpur (386) and Dera Ghazi Khan (1,397). In 2015, Lahore (61,133), Faisalabad (58,143) and Muzaffargarh (33,102) had the highest numbers of registered marriages while the lowest numbers of marriages were registered in Sargodha (2,533) and Khushab (7,866). Figure 2.9 depicts the numbers of marriages registered in all districts of Punjab in 2016.

2.2.4 Divorce Registration

Divorce, whether pronounced by men, or obtained by women either through khula or the right to delegated divorce (haq-e-tafveez) is required to be registered with the nearest UC. Figure 2.10 provides details of the number of divorces filed in Punjab from 2014 to 2016. In 2016, 93,507 divorces were filed, out of which 72,179 (77%) were filed by men and 21,328 (23%) were filed by women.

As shown in Figure 2.11, districts with the highest number of divorces filed by women in 2016 included Sialkot, where men filed 9,901 (91%) divorces and women filed 1,032 (9%) divorces, Lahore, where men filed 6,087 (69%) divorces and women filed 2,679 (31%) divorces, and Faisalabad, where men filed 6,230 divorces (75%) and women filed 2,076 (25%) divorces. In Bahawalpur, Okara, Multan, Khanewal, Dera Ghazi Khan and Rajanpur, all divorces were filed by men. It is interesting to note that in Bahawalnagar and Hafizabad, more women (3,225 and 818) filed for divorce as compared to men (1,914 and 195).

2016 witnessed an overall 17% increase in the number of divorces filed. Divorces filed by men increased by 19% while those filed by women increased by 11%.

Source: Local Government & Community Development Department

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Data from LG&CCD only reflects Muslim marriages
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2.3 Issuance of Computerized National Identity Cards

NADRA was established in 1998 as a National Database Organization. It is an attached department of the Ministry of Interior, Government of Pakistan, and has a statutory mandate to organize an efficient way of automation, creation of databases and related facilities.

NADRA is primarily responsible for registration of all citizens and issues CNICs to citizens of age 18 and over. Since the age and date of birth of a minor is proven via the birth registration certificate and 'Form-B', it is imperative to get a child's birth registered. In cases where the birth registration form is missing, it is not only difficult to prove the age of the citizen but also to obtain a CNIC.

In 2017, 7,496,446 CNICs were issued in Punjab, of which 4,348,160 were issued in rural areas and 3,148,286 were issued in urban areas (Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.13 illustrates the number of CNICs issued in Punjab from 2015 to 2017. By the end of 2015, NADRA had issued 57,127,166 CNICs in Punjab. Of these, 32,230,945 (56%) were issued to men and 24,896,221 (44%) were issued to women, with a GPI of 0.773. By the end of 2016, NADRA had issued 58,797,101 CNICs, 33,102,382 (56%) to men and 25,694,719 (44%) to women, with a GPI of 0.776. In 2017, an additional 7,496,446 CNICs were issued, of which, 4,442,350 (59%) were issued to men while 3,054,096 (41%) were issued to women. By the end of 2017, NADRA had issued a total of 66,293,547 CNICs in Punjab, with a GPI of 0.766.

Figure 2.14 depicts issuance of CNICs in 2017 according to age. The highest numbers of registrations fall within the 18-19, 20-24 and 30-34 age brackets. However, registration for girls/women has been far less than registration for boys/men in all age brackets.

All figures provided by NADRA are cumulative figures for the end of each year.
Section 5 of the NADRA Ordinance 2000 relates to NADRA’s functions.
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NADRA is primarily responsible for registration of all citizens and issues CNICs to citizens of age 18 and over. Since the age and date of birth of a minor is proven via the birth registration certificate and ‘Form-B’, it is imperative to get a child’s birth registered. In cases where the birth registration form is missing, it is not only difficult to prove the age of the citizen but also to obtain a CNIC.

In 2017, 7,496,446 CNICs were issued in Punjab, of which 4,348,160 were issued in rural areas and 3,148,286 were issued in urban areas (Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.13 illustrates the number of CNICs issued in Punjab from 2015 to 2017. By the end of 2015, NADRA had issued 57,127,166 CNICs in Punjab. Of these, 32,230,945 (56%) were issued to men and 24,896,221 (44%) were issued to women, with a GPI of 0.773. By the end of 2016, NADRA had issued 58,797,101 CNICs, 33,102,382 (56%) to men and 25,694,719 (44%) to women, with a GPI of 0.776. In 2017, an additional 7,496,446 CNICs were issued, of which, 4,442,350 (59%) were issued to men while 3,054,096 (41%) were issued to women. By the end of 2017, NADRA had issued a total of 66,293,547 CNICs in Punjab, with a GPI of 0.766.

Figure 2.14 depicts issuance of CNICs in 2017 according to age. The highest numbers of registrations fall within the 18-19, 20-24 and 30-34 age brackets. However, registration for girls/women has been far less than registration for boys/men in all age brackets.

All figures provided by NADRA are cumulative figures for the end of each year.

Figure 2.15 provides details of district wise issuance of CNICs to men and women in 2017. District wise analysis shows that Rajanpur (65,753 men and 30,127 women), Bahawalnagar (106,643 men and 52,898 women) and Muzaffargarh (139,700 men and 69,346 women) show the highest gender disparity at 0.458, 0.496 and 0.496 respectively. On the other hand, Chakwal (68,951 men and 61,808 women), Attock (76,954 men and 65,397 women), and Khushab (49,885 men and 41,955 women) show the lowest gender disparity with GPIs of 0.896, 0.850 and 0.841 respectively.

In 2017, the number of CNICs issued to men (4,442,350) exceeded those issued to women (3,054,096) by 18.5%.
Research suggests that lack of official identification in developing countries disproportionately affects women and girls, who face significant barriers to obtaining identification documents. In Pakistan, these barriers include restrictions on women’s freedom to travel outside their homes or community, distance to offices, financial costs, time constraints, illiteracy, lack of awareness and opposition from other family members. To counter some of these barriers, NADRA launched a campaign in December 2017 to ensure free of cost registration of 12 million women in the country. As part of the campaign, Friday is exclusively reserved for the issuance of CNICs to women in 14 exclusive NADRA offices throughout the country, especially in rural areas. 80 mobile vans have also been designated for this purpose.

2.3.2 Computerized National Identity Cards Issued to Transgender Persons

In 2009, the Supreme Court of Pakistan rendered a judgment saying that members of the transgender community in Pakistan should enjoy equal rights similar to other citizens of the country. In accordance with the Supreme Court’s decision, NADRA introduced 3 gender options for issuance of CNICs to transgender persons, including male eunuch, female eunuch and khunsa-e-mushkil.

To facilitate registration of transgender persons, NADRA has introduced a new measure in its registration policy whereby, during the registration process, a ‘Guru’ may be listed as head of the applicant. Earlier, only those transgenders whose parents’ names were known and attested by a Social Welfare Officer were able to obtain a CNIC. It was then identified that many eunuchs do not possess valid legal documents as they were abandoned by their biological families at a very young age. As shown in Figure 2.17, NADRA issued a total of 1,090 CNICs to transgender persons by the end of 2016 which increased to 1,362 by the end of 2017. In 2017, 194 (71%) CNICs were issued to male eunuchs, 70 (26%) to female eunuchs and 8 (3%) to khunsa-e-mushkil persons in Punjab.

2.3.3 Computerized National Identity Cards with Disability Logo

In 2009, the ‘Special Persons – Special Cards’ scheme for disabled persons was introduced by the then President, Asif Ali Zardari. Under the scheme, a disabled person is required to visit the nearest District Headquarters (DHQ) and obtain a form from the Social Welfare Officer. After the form has been filled and the Medical Officer has given clearance, a Disability Certificate is issued. After a few days, a CNIC can be obtained from any NADRA branch throughout Pakistan upon presenting the Disability Certificate.

By the end of 2015, 56,194 (45,037 for men and 11,157 for women) CNICs with disability logo had been issued, with a GPI of 0.248. By the end of 2016, the registration of disabled persons increased to 78,237 (61,630 men and 16,607 women), with a GPI of 0.269. NADRA issued 15,579 CNICs with disability logo in Punjab in 2017. Of these, 12,067 (77%) were issued to men while only 3,512 (23%) were issued to women. By the end of 2017, the total number of CNICs issued with disability logo had increased to 93,816 (Figure 2.17), with a GPI of 0.273.

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47 [World Bank, 2015]
48 [Kanjial, 2017]
49 [PLD 2009 SC 879]
50 Male eunuch, female eunuch and khunsa-e-mushkil are three terms used for transgender persons in the NADRA database. Within the transgender community, khunsa-e-mushkil is used to refer to trans gender persons with special needs or disabilities
51 Leader of a trans gender group is known as a Guru
52 [Business Recorder, 2017]
2.4 Conclusion

According to PHC 2017, Punjab remains the most populous province of the country. With the rapid rise in its population, the demographics in Punjab have changed drastically. A major challenge for the provincial government is to effectively capitalize on the potential of its burgeoning youth population in the years to come by creating employment opportunities and adopting effective population control policies.

To regulate the relationships between private persons involving matters of inheritance, family disputes, and payment of life insurance, it is extremely important to ensure timely and accurate registration of birth, death, marriage and divorce with relevant local government bodies. Registration of citizenship gives individual citizens a sense of national identity as well as the opportunity to exercise the fundamental civic, political and socio-economic rights guaranteed to them under national and international laws. Moreover, the registration process has immense utility for the government as it helps lawmakers and policy-formulators in identifying and studying demographic patterns (for example, causes of death, prevalence of diseases, loopholes in family planning programs), and reformulating more effective and responsive policy strategies accordingly. Based on analysis of data, the next subsection presents a list of concrete recommendations for members of the government and policy makers.

2.5 Recommendations

Legislative/Policy

Accountability of Nikah Registrars

i. Compliance of Nikah Registrars with the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance (MFLO), 1961 must be regularly monitored by identified public offices.

ii. Nikah Registrars must hold at least an intermediate degree.

iii. Nikah Registrar’s license must be renewed periodically and renewal should be based on compliance with MFLO.
**Procedural**

**Compliance with Punjab Family Laws must be ensured**

i. The *Nikah Nama* Form must be standardized across all districts of Punjab.

ii. To safeguard women’s rights in maintenance disputes, the *Nikah Nama* should include a provision regarding qualifications, profession and monthly income of the bride and groom.

iii. *Talaq* Notice given by the husband/wife to the UC should follow a standardized format.

iv. LG&CDD and NADRA databases must be linked so that at the end of 3 months after giving notice of *talaq* to UC, the *Talaq* Certificate is issued automatically by NADRA.

**Gender sensitized enumerators**

i. Enumerators must be trained so that they may be able to gather accurate data on transgender members of households. This will help the next census be much more representative of the Pakistani population.

**Guarantee 100% birth registration**

i. Processes of birth registration and attainment of Form-B must be consolidated to ensure that every child is properly documented. NADRA and LG&CDD processes should be linked to make the system more efficient.

**Ensure 100% CNIC registration of women**

i. NADRA mobile vans must enhance outreach to cover rural areas, especially districts in South Punjab.

ii. CNIC registration efforts must be made more inclusive to be accessible to women with disabilities and transgender communities so that they may become citizens.
Compliance with Punjab Family Laws must be ensured

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ii. To safeguard women’s rights in maintenance disputes, the Nikah Nama should include a provision regarding qualifications, profession and monthly income of the bride and groom.

iii. Talaq Notice given by the husband/wife to the UC should follow a standardized format.

iv. LG&CDD and NADRA databases must be linked so that at the end of 3 months after giving notice of talaq to UC, the Talaq Certificate is issued automatically by NADRA.

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ii. CNIC registration efforts must be made more inclusive to be accessible to women with disabilities and transgender communities so that they may become citizens.
GOVERNANCE

KEY FINDINGS

- In the Senate of Pakistan, there are 104 members, of which 85 (82%) are men and 19 (18%) are women, with a GPI of 0.223.

- The National Assembly of Pakistan comprises of 342 members, of which 271 (79%) are men and 71 (21%) are women, with a GPI of 0.262. Of the 71 women, 10 were elected on General Seats, 60 were appointed on seats reserved for women, and 1 on a seat reserved for minorities.

- The Punjab Assembly comprises of 369 members, of which 294 (80%) are men and 75 (20%) are women. 66 (88%) of these women were appointed on reserved seats, 1 (1%) was appointed on a seat reserved for minorities, and only 8 (11%) were elected on general seats.

- A majority of female Members of the Punjab Assembly (MPAs) (55 or 73%) are currently serving their 1st term. 13 (17%) are serving a 2nd term and only 7 (10%) are serving their 3rd term.

- There are 34 Ministers in the provincial Cabinet, of which 30 (88%) are men and only 4 (12%) are women, with a GPI of 0.133.

- There are 43 Parliamentary Secretaries in the Punjab Assembly, of which 38 (88%) are men and only 5 (12%) are women, with a GPI of 0.131.

- There are 36 Parliamentary Standing Committees in the Punjab Assembly. Of these, 34 (94%) are presided over by male chairpersons and only 2 (6%) are presided over by female chairpersons, with a very low GPI of 0.058.

- 32 bills were passed into laws in 2017. Of these, 26 were Government Bills and 6 were Private Member Bills. Of the 26 Government Bills, only 1 was introduced by a woman. Of the 6 Private Member Bills, 3 were introduced by women.

In 2017, there were 55.8 million (male and female) registered voters in Punjab, signifying a 6% increase from 2015, and a 13% increase from 2013. The number of female registered voters increased by 10% between 2013 and 2017.

In the Local Government Elections of 2015, there were 54,867 (46%) polling stations and/or booths for women and 64,880 (54%) polling stations/booths for men.

In the Local Government Elections of 2015, 32 out of 26,689 female candidates were victorious as members of UCs (0.12%), 2 of 3,994 (0.05%) as Vice Chairpersons and 5 of 3,941 as Chairpersons.

In the General Elections of 2013, there were 2,258 candidates running for seats in the National Assembly. Of these, 2,156 (95.5%) were men and 102 (4.5%) were women, with a very low GPI of 0.047.

In the General Elections of 2013, there were 5,511 candidates running for seats in the Punjab Assembly, of which 5,361 (97%) were men and 150 (3%) were women, denoting an even lower GPI of 0.027.
Introduction

A dynamic, multi-sectoral and layered phenomenon, governance is inextricably tied into the fabric of modern societies. Varyingly defined and understood, this phenomenon is concerned with three core processes, the development of human potential, democratization of political power, and the strengthening of state institutions.\textsuperscript{53} The ability to govern through a set of formal rules, bureaucratic structures and individual actors, allows any organization, in the public or private sector, to maintain the institutional, and often hierarchical, framework needed to regulate its internal and external activities.

The complex nature and broad scope of governance, as both, an area of study, and practice, is reflected in the rich body of scholarly works, policy documents and journalistic material on the subject. The World Bank defines governance as ‘the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s social and economic resources for development.’\textsuperscript{54} Cutting across the legal, political, economic, administrative and civic aspects of the so-called social contract between individual citizens and individual governments, ‘good governance’ has been shown to have potentially far-reaching implications for a country’s development vis-à-vis political culture, economic standing and social prosperity.\textsuperscript{55} Incorporated as a political conditionality into trade and loan agreements enforceable under international law, conditions of good governance are being increasingly used, world over, as a tool to promote sustainable development of communities and societies at the regional and global levels.\textsuperscript{56}

Figure 3.1 provides a conceptual breakdown of fundamental elements of ‘good governance’ as identified, over the years, within contemporary literature on human development, public policy and gendered governance as well as traditional religious, political and moral thought.\textsuperscript{57}

![Figure 3.1](image_url)

**Elements of Good Governance**

- Inclusion, Representation & Participation in Public Life
- Government Effectiveness & Efficiency
- Rule of Law & Respect for Human Rights
- Responsiveness to Citizens’ Needs
- Transparency & Accountability

The presence of women in leadership or senior management positions\textsuperscript{58} has been theoretically and empirically shown to benefit the policy-making process in positive and meaningful ways. Comparative studies have demonstrated how women in political forums and corporate boards bring a more community-based,\textsuperscript{49} family-oriented and humanistic approach to the table (all at the same time). Moreover, it is a well-established notion that for a diverse range of goals, tasks and leadership roles, women are, in fact, more suitable than men to achieve positive changes in their professional environment by virtue of their individual traits,\textsuperscript{46} values, preferences, affinities, instincts and knowledge.\textsuperscript{42}

\textsuperscript{53} (Fukuyama, 2013)
\textsuperscript{54} (Bank W., Governance development, 1992)
\textsuperscript{55} (ibid)
\textsuperscript{56} (Abella f, 2003)
\textsuperscript{57} (Botchway F. N., 2000)
\textsuperscript{58} (Botchway F. N, 2000)
\textsuperscript{59} (Phillips, 1995)
\textsuperscript{60} (Rega & Brooks, 1995)
\textsuperscript{61} (Ibid)

**SDG TARGET 5.5**
Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life.
To level the field for men and women, more robust and ambitious efforts are needed to ensure that women have equitable access to basic human rights, socio-economic opportunities and public services. On the part of individual governments, this calls for a commitment to recognize, rationalize and materialize the need for affirmative state action in the form of interventionist policies that exclusively benefit, target and favour women, a demographic that has historically, been excluded from political and public life within Pakistan, neighboring South Asia and beyond.

At the 1995 World Conference held in Beijing, the efforts of 189 national governments (including Pakistan), NGOs and media representatives resulted in the Beijing Declaration, an aspirational policy framework that identifies women’s access to, and full participation in, leadership or decision-making roles as one of the principal themes of the larger rights-based movement to empower women. More recently, under Goal 5 (Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls) of the SDGs, women’s enhanced role in political decision-making processes is recognized as a specific target requiring affirmative state action.

Over the past few decades, Pakistan has signed several legally binding international instruments that seek to promote fundamental human rights, implement universal labour standards, institute environmental best practices, and ensure good governance. Of all the 27 Conventions ratified by Pakistan that are periodically reviewed to maintain the country’s preferential status under the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP), there is only one that deals exclusively with governance - the UN Convention against Corruption. However, in the context of gender and governance, specific provisions under CEDAW explicitly direct individual states to progressively realize every female citizen’s right to ‘participate in the formulation of government policy,’ and ‘hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government.’

Pakistan has a multi-tier system of governance spanning a range of institutional and individual actors operating at the federal, provincial and local levels. In the wake of the 18th Amendment to the Constitution of Pakistan, 1973, a host of legislative areas were devolved to the provincial/sub-provincial levels with a view to make public administration and public resource management more effective. The interests of women are safeguarded at all levels through parliamentary quotas, special provisions in service rules and public-sector employment contracts as well as statutory guidelines to ensure women’s critical mass in government forums and as part of the electorate.

Despite international commitments, constitutional Principles of Policy, and laws enacted at the federal and provincial levels, Pakistan has maintained a low-tier/below-average position in most international rankings that measure and compare the gendered aspects of governance across country contexts (Figure 3.2).Experts and analysts have identified various socio-economic, cultural and infrastructural factors responsible for Pakistan’s continually low rankings on governance related indices (Figure 3.3). These factors have, and continue to, alienate women from the process of governance as voters, political workers/candidates, legislators, ministers, civil servants, policy-makers, bureaucrats and government personnel.

### Table 3.2: Governance Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Index</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Thematic Area</th>
<th>Pakistan’s Rankings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global Gender Gap Index (2017)</td>
<td>World Economic Forum</td>
<td>Political Empowerment of Women</td>
<td>95 (Rank out of 144 Countries)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldwide Governance Indicators</td>
<td>The World Bank</td>
<td>Voice and Accountability</td>
<td>29 (Percentile Rank from 0 to 100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy Index (2016)</td>
<td>Economist Intelligence Unit</td>
<td>Type of Regime and Level of Democratization</td>
<td>4.33 (Score on a scale of 0 to 10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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31 Pakistan’s Rankings

32 Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018

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*http://www.un.org/geninfo/bp/women.html*

*The Generalized System of Preferences, or GSP, is a preferential tariff system, which provides for a formal system of exemption from the more general rules of the World Trade Organization (WTO). GSP Plus status is awarded to individual countries by the European Union, and reviewed every 2 years on the basis of the country’s compliance with 27 international law instruments.*

*Article 7, CEDAW*

*(Jabeen & Jadoon, 2009)*
Challenges to Women's Participation in Public and Political Life

Challenges for Female Voters
- Inadequate female-friendly infrastructure, including female polling stations/booths.
- Traditional norms limiting the role of women to caretakers of the household, especially in rural areas.
- Political interference in the polling process.
- Restricted physical mobility.

Challenges for Women in Decision-making Positions
- A male-dominated political landscape at the federal, provincial and local levels.
- Limited functional capacity of female decision-makers in terms of education, exposure, leadership skills, training and financial resources.
- Lack of support from voters at the grassroots level.

Challenges for Political Workers/Candidates
- Lack of measures to ensure female representation in intra-party decision-making platforms.
- Segregation of the sexes in public spaces adversely affects the performance of female political workers/candidates.
- The combined effect of a predominantly male-centric and largely feudal culture within the internal organizational structures of political parties.

Organization of Analysis

This section depicts and analyzes the representation and participation of women at the federal, provincial and local levels of government as well as the public sector at large. Data pertaining to women’s participation in the election process as voters, political candidates and electoral staff has also been analyzed. This section has been divided into the following chapters:

i. Political Participation and Representation of Women
   a. Federal
   b. Provincial
   c. Local
ii. Women in the Public Sector

a. Gazetted and Non-Gazetted Officers
b. Administrative Staff
c. 15% Representation of Women in Public Offices
d. 33% Representation of Women in Public Boards, Committees and Special Taskforces
e. District Press Clubs
f. Punjab Bait-ul-Maal Council
g. Zakat and Ushr Committees

iii. Women in the Electoral Process

a. Registered Voters
b. District Voter Education Committees
c. Electoral Staff and Infrastructure

iv: Women in Democracy

a. Political Candidature
b. Political Parties

3.1 Political Participation and Representation of Women

Equal representation of men and women in the legislative and executive branches of government is universally seen as an important milestone in the road to true democratization. Researchers and scholars have explored the relationship between gender differences, governance models, and development practices, and posited a number of arguments in support of increasing the number of female decision-makers at the national and sub-national levels. The argument from 'experience' necessitates the involvement of women in law and policy-making forums as a natural result of the fact that men and women, by virtue of their biological, dispositional and sociological differences, have very different life experiences, which can only be accounted for by giving political voice, space and agency to individuals who can relate to their experiences, often at a personal level. The argument from 'experience' necessitates the involvement of women in law and policy-making forums as a natural result of the fact that men and women, by virtue of their biological, dispositional and sociological differences, have very different life experiences, which can only be accounted for by giving political voice, space and agency to individuals who can relate to their experiences, often at a personal level. Lastly, the argument from 'efficiency' understands women’s contribution to the law and policy-making process as one of the key aspects of citizen responsive policy programs and gender-responsive budgeting as women bring problem solving, informational and thought diversity to the table.

Institutionalized quotas are followed by parliaments around the world to ensure a minimum, if not equal, level of representation of women in political decision-making. Internationally, the so-called critical mass of 30% is widely recognized, including by the UN Economic and Social Council, as the minimum number of women necessary for women to ‘make a visible impact on the style and content of political decision-making.’ To this end, the Constitution lays down broad as well as specific guidelines for federal, provincial and local decision-making bodies with a view to offset male dominance in the political arena.

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67 [UN, Expert Group Meeting]
68 Ibid.
69 [Lee, Marshall, Rollis, & Matt, 2015]
70 [Tripp & Kang, 2008]
71 [UN, 2005]
72 [Folks, 2012]

SDG Indicator 5.5.1
measures the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments. For our purposes, this would be interpreted as the proportion of women in the National Assembly, Senate, provincial Assemblies and the local government system.
and in doing so, include the voices of a demographic that has historically been marginalized as a result of regressive social customs and patriarchal values, norms and traditions.

Nevertheless, literature cautions against misinterpreting the remarkable, though still modest, increase in the number and proportion of female decision-makers around the world after the adoption of quotas. Research conducted by the Inter-Parliamentary Union concludes that quotas can only be justified as *transient or corrective* measures to promote gender equality at the 'entry' level. Proponents of substantive, as opposed to merely descriptive standards of political empowerment take additional stock of the state of *de facto* inequality that remains despite *de jure* adoption of quotas. Ultimately, it seems that *true* participation is only possible if women are well-represented in the executive branch where the real decision-making power lies.

### 3.1.1 Federal

#### 3.1.1.1 Head of State/Government

Since the creation of Pakistan in 1947, no female has ever served as the Head of State (or President). However, twice in the country’s history of 70 years, a female political leader has been elected as the Head of Government (or Prime Minister). Ms. Benazir Bhutto was the Prime Minister from 1988 to 1990 and 1993 to 1996.

#### 3.1.1.2 Senate of Pakistan

The Senate is the upper house of the parliament (*or Majlis-e-Shura*) and in line with its constitutional role to promote national unity, harmony and cohesion, membership of the Senate is allocated on the basis of equal representation of provinces/regions. There are 104 Senators in the Senate of Pakistan. Of these, 19 (18%) are women and 85 (82%) are men, with a GPI of 0.223. Table 3.1 depicts that while women’s share of membership in the Senate is higher than the regional average, it remains significantly lower than the global average of women’s representation in upper houses of parliaments in 144 countries.

Of the 23 Senators on seats allocated to Punjab, only 3 (13%) are women as compared to 20 (87%) men, with a GPI of 0.150.

#### 3.1.1.3 National Assembly of Pakistan

The National Assembly of Pakistan consists of 342 members, of which 271 (79%) are men and 71 (21%) are women, with a GPI of 0.262. Of the 71 women, only 10 (4%) women have been elected on general seats as compared to 262 (96%) men, with an extremely low GPI of 0.038. The overwhelming majority (60) is appointed on seats reserved for women and 1 on a seat reserved for minorities. Table 3.2 compares the level of women’s representation in the National Assembly of Pakistan against the regional and global averages for the lower houses of parliaments in 144 countries.

Figure 3.4 shows the regional distribution of reserved seats for women across Punjab, Sindh, Balochistan and KPK. In Pakistan, distribution of seats is in accordance with constitutional guidelines whereby reserved seats for women are allocated to each province through a proportional representation system, with the number of seats determined on the basis of the number of general seats won by each political party from that province.

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73 According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, there are 38 States in which women account for less than 10% of parliamentarians in single or lower houses.

74 Data has been compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union on the basis of information provided by National Parliaments by 1st October 2017. The percentages do not take into account the case
3.1.2 Provincial

3.1.2.1 Punjab Assembly

As depicted in Figure 3.5, the Punjab Assembly consists of 369 members, of which an overwhelming majority (294 or 80%) is men and 75 (20%) are women, with a GPI of 0.255.

![Members of Punjab Assembly (2017)](image)

Figure 3.5

Figure 3.6 depicts that an overwhelming majority of 66 (88%) women was appointed on seats reserved for women, 1 was appointed on a seat reserved for minorities and only 8 (11%) women were elected on general seats.

![Female Members of Punjab Assembly (2017) (General and Reserved Seats)](image)

Figure 3.6

The overall female membership in the current i.e. the 16th tenure of the Punjab Assembly (on general seats and otherwise), has slightly decreased in comparison to the last tenure when the number stood at 82 members, a result of more women being elected on general seats in the General Elections of 2008.

Figure 3.7 depicts the number of female MPAs during the 14th, 15th and 16th tenures of the Punjab Assembly.
3.1.2 Provincial

3.1.2.1 Punjab Assembly

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Figure 3.5 Members of Punjab Assembly (2017)

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Figure 3.7 depicts the number of female MPAs during the 14th, 15th and 16th tenures of the Punjab Assembly.

For inter-provincial comparison, Table 3.3 shows the number and percentage of female MPAs in each provincial Assembly of Pakistan (regardless of type of seat on which appointed or elected). As of December 2017, Punjab is leading with the highest GPI at 0.255.

Table 3.3 Female MPAs in Pakistan (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCE</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>GPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PUNJAB</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SINDH</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPK</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>0.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BALOCHISTAN</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2.2 MPA Profiles

In this sub-section, the educational, professional and political profiles of sitting female MPAs are analyzed to gain a better understanding of the collective profile of the female membership of the house.

3.1.2.2.1 By Age

Both younger and older political leaders have the potential to positively contribute to parliamentary business. Literature and intuitive logic suggest that a higher age is associated with more political experience, greater exposure to day-to-day parliamentary proceedings, and a seasoned approach to politics. Conversely, younger women in political leadership positions are, presumably, more ambitious, career-driven, and in a better position to bring a more innovative and neoteric approach to the work of the Assembly.76

The minimum age required to be eligible for membership of the Punjab Assembly is 25. As illustrated in Figure 3.8, the majority of female MPAs i.e. 38 (51%) falls within the age bracket of 40-55 years, while 25 (33%) fall within the age bracket of 55 and above. Only 12 female MPAs (16%) are under 40 years of age, indicating the absence of young women in the provincial legislature.

3.1.2.2.2 By Level of Education

As lawmakers and policy-formulators, MPAs have the opportunity to channel their academic knowledge, expertise and specialized insights, often developed over years of professional experience, towards eliciting positive changes in public policy. As depicted in Figure 3.9, 31 female MPAs have a graduate level qualification whereas 29 hold a postgraduate degree and 1 has a doctorate level degree. It is important to note that 9 female MPAs have only passed their Intermediate level, 5 have only completed a Matriculation degree and 1 has received no formal education at all.

76 (Twenge, 2008)
3.1.2.3 By Political Experience

The current majority of female members of the Punjab Assembly are serving their 1st term as MPAs. In comparison, 13 (17%) are serving a 2nd term and 7 (10%) are serving their 3rd term. Appointment to political office for a 2nd or 3rd term signifies a learning curve for individual MPAs in terms of their exposure to parliamentary politics and processes. Fewer numbers of more experienced MPAs may be construed as a lost opportunity cost for the provincial legislature as it deprives the institution of experientially gained understanding of political work and public service.\(^{36}\)

Figure 3.10 shows the number and relative proportion of current female MPAs serving their 1st, 2nd and 3rd term in office.

3.1.2.4 By Party Affiliation

Female political candidates are generally less likely to receive monetary assistance from party leadership or other independent sources to support them through their electoral campaigns.\(^{37}\) None of the current female MPAs elected to general seats were elected as independent political candidates. As shown in Figure 3.11, the vast majority of current female MPAs i.e. 64 (85%) are affiliated with the ruling Pakistan Muslim League – Nawaz (PML-N) party whereas 7 (9%) are from Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf (PTI) and the remaining 4 (6%) are from other parties, including the Pakistan People’s Party Parliamentarians (PPPP) and Pakistan Muslim League-Z.

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\(^{36}\) Norris, 1997

\(^{37}\) Rosenbluth, 2015
3.1.2.3 Participation of Women in the Punjab Assembly

Law-making and policy-formulation with respect to areas such as health, education and environment, as stipulated in the 18th Amendment to the Constitution, is the core and primary function of provincial assemblies. The process of introducing, lobbying, vetting, debating, examining, voting on and adopting new legislation is an insightful area of study as it allows researchers to compare the level of performance and quality of participation of men and women in the work of the Assembly.

3.1.2.3.1 Bills

During 2017, 32 of all bills that were introduced were eventually enacted into legislation. Of these, 26 were Government Bills and the remaining 6 were Private Member Bills.

Of the 26 Government Bills passed in the Punjab Assembly during 2017, only 1 (The Punjab Finance Bill passed on 13th June 2017) was introduced by a female MPA. Of the 6 Private Member Bills passed in the Assembly, 3 were introduced by women. Several studies posit that compared to men, women are more likely to prioritize bills related to women’s, elderly person’s and children’s rights. They are also more likely to adopt a welfare-oriented approach to law-making by prioritizing bills that seek to regulate public health and education systems. Bills introduced by women in the Punjab Assembly in 2017 included Bill No. 08 of 2017 (introduced by Ms. Gulnaz Shehzadi) focusing on improving private education sector, and Bill No. 09 of 2017 (introduced by Ms. Faiza Mushtaq) seeking to regulate the sale of tobacco for the health of under-age consumers.

3.1.2.3.2 Resolutions

In 2017, the Punjab Assembly passed 35 Resolutions of which 12 (34%) were introduced by female MPAs and 23 (66%) were introduced by male MPAs.

Of the Resolutions introduced by women, 2 related to regulation of road traffic (RES No. 175 and 172); 2 sought better protection of children through regulation of television and gaming zones (RES No. 166 and 171); 2 pertained to healthcare and medical relief (RES No. 168 and 197); 1 called for implementation of better hygiene

---

78 A Bill is a Government Bill if introduced in the Assembly by a government Minister of the executive.
79 A Bill is a Private Member Bill if introduced by a Member of the Punjab Assembly who is not part of the executive/cabinet.
80 (Berkman, 1993)
standards in workshops (kaar-khaanas) (RES No. 174); 2 related to curbing the practice of prognostication and faith-healing (RES No. 198 and 187); 1 asked for immediate removal of blasphemous content on social media against religious personalities (RES No. 181); 1 related to granting official martyrdom status to police personnel who have lose their lives during the course of their professional duties (RES No. 184), and 1 recommended the government to take measures for women’s empowerment (RES No. 178).

3.1.2.3.3 Attendance Record

In 2017, 8 sessions of the Punjab Assembly were convened spanning across a period of 2 parliamentary years i.e. 2016-17 and 2017-18. In all sessions of the Punjab Assembly held during 2017, the percentage of female MPAs in attendance was higher than the percentage of male MPAs (Table 3.4).82

Table 3.4 Attendance of male and female MPAs in Punjab Assembly (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session-26</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-27</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-28</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-29</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-30</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-31</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-32</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session-33</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average attendance of women for any one Session of the Assembly during 2017 was highest for Session 28 with 52 female MPAs in attendance. In comparison, Session 30 was attended by the highest average number of male MPAs (143). Conversely, the number of both male and female MPAs, on average, was lowest for Session 32. Figure 3.12 depicts the Attendance Record of male and female MPAs.

81 Calendar year, 2017
82 The number of attendees has been calculated as an average of the number of members who attended each sitting within each session of the Assembly. The number of absenteees for each session was calculated after subtracting the average number of attendees for each session from the total number of sitting MPAs.
3.1.2.4 Decision-making Positions in the Punjab Assembly

Even though women constitute 20% of the membership of the Punjab Assembly, there are very few women in decision-making positions in the Assembly. Figure 3.13 provides an overview of the number of male and female MPAs as provincial Ministers, Parliamentary Secretaries, and Chairpersons of Standing Committees.

![Figure 3.13](image)

3.1.2.4.1 Ministers

There are 34 Ministers in the provincial Cabinet. Of these, 30 (88%) were men and only 4 (12%) were women, denoting a GPI of 0.133. A low GPI for ministerial positions is illustrative of the challenges faced by female MPAs in gaining enough political favour with successive governments in Punjab to be promoted to senior and influential positions. Table 3.5 provides a list of all current female provincial Ministers alongside their ministerial portfolio.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minister</th>
<th>Provincial Ministry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Hameeda Waheeduddin</td>
<td>Women Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Zakia Shahnawaz</td>
<td>Environment Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Ayesha Ghous Pasha</td>
<td>Finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Naghma Mushtaq</td>
<td>Zakat and Ushr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2.4.2 Parliamentary Secretaries

There are 43 Parliamentary Secretaries in the Punjab Assembly, of which 38 (88%) are men and only 5 (12%) are female, with a GPI of 0.131. Table 3.6 provides a list of all current female Parliamentary Secretaries in Punjab alongside their secretarial portfolio.

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3 According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union and UN Women, only 18.3% of government ministers were women. The most commonly held portfolio by women ministers is environment, natural resources, and energy, followed by social sectors, such as social affairs, education and the family. [As of January 2017]
3.1.2.4.3 Parliamentary Standing Committees

As permanent legislative panels established with a specific mandate, Standing Committees play an instrumental role in setting the parliamentary agenda. They also provide a platform for detailed and expert consideration of specific issues, policies and bills. Each Standing Committee has 10 members with the relevant Minister and concerned Parliamentary Secretary being ex-officio members.

3.1.2.4.3.1 Chairpersons

There are 36 Parliamentary Standing Committees in the Punjab Assembly. Of these, 33 (92%) are presided over by male chairpersons and only 3 (8%) are presided over by female chairpersons, with a very low GPI of 0.058. Table 3.7 provides a list of all current female Chairpersons and the Committees they preside over.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliamentary Secretary</th>
<th>Portfolio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Nazia Raheel</td>
<td>Revenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Shaheen Ashfaq</td>
<td>Cooperatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Mehwish Sultana</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Joyce Rofin Julius</td>
<td>School Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Azma Zahid Bukhari</td>
<td>Information &amp; Culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2.4.3.2 Members

There are 360 sanctioned positions in the Parliamentary Standing Committees of the Punjab Assembly. As of the time of writing, however, there were 354 members of which 267 (75%) were men and 87 (25%) were women, with a GPI of 0.326.

Figure 3.14 shows the number of men and women in all 36 Standing Committees as well as the GPI value for each individual Committee.
3.1.2.4.3 Parliamentary Standing Committees

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### Table 3.6 Female Parliamentary Secretaries in Punjab (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Revenue</td>
<td>Ms. Shaheen Ashfaq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperales</td>
<td>Ms. Mehwish Sultana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Ms. Joyce Rofin Julius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Education</td>
<td>Ms. Azma Zahid Bukhari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information &amp; Culture</td>
<td>Ms. Nazia Raheel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.7 Female Chairpersons of Standing Committees in the Punjab Assembly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Chairperson</th>
<th>GPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Mainstreaming</td>
<td>Ms. Sultana Shaheen</td>
<td>2.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Welfare and BaitulMaal</td>
<td>Ms. Raheela Khadim Hussain</td>
<td>0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zakat &amp; Usrah</td>
<td>Ms. Sultana Shaheen</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Government &amp; Community Development</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information &amp; Culture</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock &amp; Dairy Development</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation and Energy</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Rights and Minorities Affairs</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment Protection</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperatives</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonies</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auqaf and Religious Affairs</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management and Professional Development</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing, Urban Development and Public Health Engineering</td>
<td>Ms. Madiha Rana</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.14

---

GPI: Gender Parity Index
Committees with a higher number of female members as compared to male members include the Social Welfare and Bait-ul-Maal Committee, the Population Welfare Committee, and the Chief Minister’s Inspection Team with 9, 7 and 6 female members respectively. The Gender Mainstreaming Committee has only female members. It is pertinent to note that total exclusion of men also runs against the current of gender movements as it is likely to perpetuate the misguided notion that gender differences, gender stereotyping and gender-based violence and discrimination, only have a negative impact on women and girls – a fact that is disproven by the violence, persecution and social, economic and political hardships faced by other gendered minorities such as members of the transgender community in Punjab. Moreover, an exclusively female membership also results in lesser opportunities for creating synergies between men and women holding political office on gender-related policy issues.

### 3.1.3 Local

Local Government (LG) systems interact heavily with multiple aspects of an individual citizen’s life including his/her access to medical care, free education, food, clean water and road infrastructure. The delegation of financial, administrative and legislative authority to smaller and locally elected units of government can go a long way towards building more effective and efficient systems of public service delivery. This may be due to a number of factors. Firstly, government functionaries belonging to, and representing, a local demographic, are in a much better position to understand the nature and magnitude of challenges faced by members of that given population. Secondly, the overall institutional and procedural framework of the LG system is, more or less, predominantly concerned with the provision of basic amenities, utilities and necessities of life. In addition to the above, in terms of their level of accessibility, approachability and availability, members of the local government are ‘closer’ to the masses, and for that reason alone, are in a better position to contribute to more citizen-responsive administration of public affairs, and the optimum and need-based utilization of public resources.

The LG system forms the third tier of governance in Punjab. As the official agent of the Federation operating at the community level, the LG system is responsible for providing a diverse range of services to specific populations residing within clearly demarcated constituencies. Within Punjab, the LG system is based on four levels; tehsil, district, municipal and metropolitan, each headed by elected representatives. Under the Constitution, there are broad guidelines for local government institutions to ensure ‘special representation will be given to peasants, workers and women.’ More recently, the Punjab Assembly passed the Punjab Local Government Act, 2013 to ‘reorganize’ the LG system in the province wherein under Article 13, 14 and 15 of the Act, a minimum threshold for female representation has been stipulated on the basis of reserved seats. Statutory requirements, as applicable to all four sub-tiers of the LG system, are reproduced in Table 3.8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of LG Institution</th>
<th>Seats Reserved for Women (per institution)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Union Council</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Council</td>
<td>Equal to or less than 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Committee</td>
<td>Equal to or less than 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan Corporation Lahore</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Committees without Female Members
- Agriculture Committee
- Excise & Taxation Committee
- Food Committee
- Revenue, Relief and Consolidation Committee
- Housing, Urban Development and Public Health Committee

### Article 32, Constitution of Pakistan, 1973

Promotion of Local Government institutions: The state shall encourage local government institutions composed of elected representatives of the areas concerned in such institutions special representation will be given to peasants, workers and women.
3.1.3.1 Women in LG System of Punjab

Under the Punjab Local Government Act 2013, seats are reserved for women at all tiers of Local Government. The LG Elections of 2015 marked the first time that this multi-tier statutory formulae to ensure minimum representation of women was implemented in practice.

For this sub-section, data collated by Women in Struggle for Empowerment (WISE) has been studied to depict and analyze the LG system within Punjab, in general, and Lahore, in specific, from a gendered perspective. This data identifies the number of posts officially sanctioned for women, as allocated by the Election Commission of Pakistan (ECP). The constituency and district level information has, in turn, been derived from a series of notifications issued by the ECP in 2015.

Table 3.9 depicts the number of women in the LG system in Punjab. It bears to note that the numbers provided include the number of women on general as well as reserved seats.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LG LEVEL</th>
<th>LG UNITS</th>
<th>NUMBER OF WOMEN</th>
<th>SIMPLÉ AVERAGE (WOMEN PER LG UNIT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Union Council</td>
<td>4,104</td>
<td>8,030</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Committee</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3.2 Women in the LG system of Lahore

There are 3,562 members in 274 UCs in Lahore. Of these, 3,014 (85%) are male Councilors and 548 (15%) are female Councilors, denoting a GPI of 0.182.

In the Metropolitan Corporation Lahore (MCL), there are 319 members. Of these, 291 (91%) are men and 28 (9%) are women, with a GPI of 0.096. The proportion of women declines significantly from 15% at the UC level to 9% in Metropolitan Corporation, Lahore. Figure 3.15 depicts the number of women in the LG system in Lahore.

Figure 3.15
Figure 3.16 shows a profile overview of women in the LG system of Lahore by Seat Status, Political Experience and Party Affiliation.

### PROFILE HIGHLIGHTS OF WOMEN IN THE LG SYSTEM OF LAHORE
(Union Council and Metropolitan Corporation Lahore)

**Seat Status**
- In MCL, there are 25 women on reserved seats in addition to 1 woman on a minority seat and 2 female Chairpersons.
- 97% of 477 women occupying positions in the LG system of Lahore were elected on reserved seats, 1.6% on minority seats, 1% on general seats, and 0.4% on youth seats.
- No woman was elected on a worker/peasant seat at the UC and the Metropolitan level.

**Political Experience**
- A majority of women councilors/LG representatives were elected for the first time.
- At the UC level, 382 (82%) women were elected for the first time, 43 (9%) were elected to a second term and 42 (9%) were elected for their third term.
- At the MCL level, 14 (56%) women were elected to their first term, 2 (8%) for a second term, and 9 (36%) for a third term.

**Party Affiliation**
- At the UC and MCL levels, an overwhelming majority of women i.e. 470 (95%) is affiliated with PML-N.
- 14 (3%) women are affiliated with PTI.

Source: WISE

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### 3.2 Women in the Public Sector

The public sector in Punjab comprises provincial departments attached to the Punjab Secretariat, autonomous/semi-autonomous bodies (including, companies) established by statute, and district government offices. Through an extensive system of public service delivery, the public sector provides a broad range of services to individual citizens domiciled in Punjab. These include, administrative, regulatory, educational, vocational, medical, cultural, commercial, rehabilitative and other services.

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**Article 27(1), Constitution of Pakistan, 1973**

No citizen otherwise qualified for appointment in the service of Pakistan shall be discriminated in respect of any such appointment on the ground only of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth
This sub-section analyzes the number of women currently employed in the public sector. Unfortunately, the public sector in Punjab remains a predominantly male-dominated space. A number of structural and agency-centric factors work in tandem to not only discourage women from seeking employment in the public sector, but also limit their individual chances of progress and promotion once inducted into careers in public service. These factors include, but are not limited to restricted physical mobility due to lack of transport facilities as well as practical concerns for safety; lower educational levels among women compared to men; socially conservative mindsets prevailing at the family and community levels; a dearth of female role models within the family, domestic obligations such as household chores and child rearing.90 Additionally, limited job options within a society where patriarchal norms perpetuate and reinforce the dichotomy between typically male and female jobs contribute to low levels of female participation in the public sector.91

In recent years, the Government of Punjab has adopted a number of measures to include and facilitate women in the public sector. With the establishment of the Women’s Development Department, an administrative unit has been created within the Punjab Secretariat to execute, sponsor and monitor the implementation of women-centric policy initiatives. These initiatives include inter alia an increased quota for female employees in public offices (from 5% to 15%),92 33% representation of women in public Boards, Committees and Taskforces; policy to avail one additional chance of transfer to the place of residence of spouse in case of marriage,93 and policy to ensure that there is at least 1 woman in all Selection and Recruitment Committees for regular and contractual employment.94

### 3.2.1 Gazetted and Non-Gazetted Officers

181 out of 347 Provincial Departments/Institutions provided data in 2017. Aggregate numbers of female Gazetted officers, Non-Gazetted officers and contract-based employees were significantly lesser than their male counterparts for each category. Out of a total of 26,033 Gazetted Officers, 18,408 (71%) are men and 7,625 (3%) are women, with a GPI of 0.414. Of the 62,098 Non-Gazetted Officers, 5,526 (9%) are women and 56,572 (91%) are men, with an extremely low GPI value of 0.097. Of the 13,499 contract-based staff working in 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 11,090 (82%) are men and 2,409 (18%) are women, with a GPI of 0.217. Figure 3.17 provides the number of male and female Gazetted and Non Gazetted officers in Punjab.

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Source: Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

**Figure 3.17**

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90 (Commission, 2009)
91 Ibid
92 Notification No. SOR-N(S&GAD)05-1/2012 Dated 21-05-2012 of S&GAD
94 Notification No. SOR-N(S&GAD)10-1/2003 Dated 17-05-2012 of S&GAD
663 out of 702 District Offices provided data in 2017. In these offices, the number of Gazetted Officers was 47,761, of which 28,906 (61%) were men and 18,855 (39%) were women, with a relatively high GPI of 0.652. Of the 173,952 Non-Gazetted Officers, 116,632 (67%) were men and 57,320 (33%) were women, denoting a GPI of 0.491. Out of 50,812 contract-based employees working in 663 District Offices, 31,556 (62%) were men and 19,256 (38%) were women, with a GPI of 0.610. It bears to reiterate that the GPIs for District Offices are significantly higher than the GPIs for Provincial Departments/Institutions.

![Chart showing the distribution of male and female employees in Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices in Punjab (2017)](chart)

A more in-depth analysis of women working in 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions on a contractual basis demonstrates that a majority of women are employed in health and education-related services. 1,637 (68%) women are working in hospitals, medical institutes, colleges and universities. The highest number of women was employed at the Faisalabad Institute of Cardiology with 360 women. Although further bifurcation in terms of job roles/titles was not available, it is reasonable to presume that the majority of these women are working as nurses and teachers. (Figure 3.19)

![Chart showing the distribution of female contract-based employees in public health and education sectors in Punjab (2017)](chart)

After the introduction of PWEP 2012, it is mandatory for all public offices in Punjab to ensure 15% representation of women. Previously, this requirement was set at 5% (See Chapter 9: Legislation) and has been raised in line with the provincial government’s goals of mainstreaming women into the public sector in Punjab.
3.2.2 Executive Service

In the Punjab Administrative Service (PAS), there are 259 officers between Grade 18 and 22. Of these 259 Officers, 193 (74.5%) are men and 66 (25.5%) are women, with a GPI of 0.342. From Grade 18 to 22, the number of women employed decreases with each grade. This steep decline in the number (and relative proportion) of women after BPS–17 is depictive of women’s limited access to senior administrative and managerial-level positions.

In the Punjab Civil Service (PCS), there are 250 officers employed between Grades 18 and 22 out of which only 10 (4%) are women while the remaining 240 (96%) are men, denoting a very low GPI of 0.042.

In the Punjab Secretariat Service (Ex-PSS), there are 117 officers between Grades 18 and 22. Of these, 111 (95%) are men and only 6 (5%) are women, with a GPI of 0.054. It is pertinent to mention here that out of 6 Special Grade Officers (SGOs), there are no females. It is also pertinent to note that there are no women in Grade 22 in PAS, PCS and Ex-PSS. Figure 3.20 provides the number of male and female offices in Grades 18-22 in PAS, PCS, Ex-PSS and as SGOs.

3.2.3 15% Representation of Women in Public Offices

After the introduction of PWEP 2012, it is mandatory for all public offices in Punjab to ensure 15% representation of women. Previously, this requirement was set at 5% (See Chapter 9: Legislation) and has been raised in line with the provincial government’s goals of mainstreaming women into the public sector in Punjab.

181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 663 District Offices provided data in 2017. As illustrated in Figure 3.21, only 48 (27%) out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions fulfilled the 15% quota requirement. Of the 663 District Offices, only 137 (21%) fulfilled the 15% quota requirement.
3.2.4 33% Representation of Women in Public Boards, Committees and Taskforces

According to PWEP 2012, all public Boards, Committees and Special purpose Taskforces are required to ensure 33% representation of women. This provision was further strengthened and operationalized by subsequent legislation i.e. The Punjab Fair Representation of Women Act, 2014 whereby amendments have been made within the founding statutes of 66 provincial government entities to bring them in compliance with the 33% threshold.

181 Provincial Departments/Institutions provided data for 69 Boards, 204 Committees and 7 Taskforces. Of the 69 Boards, 54 (78%) fulfilled the 33% quota requirement. Of the 204 Committees, 108 (53%) fulfilled the 33% quota requirement while 3 (43%) of the 7 Taskforces were in compliance with the 33% quota.

Figure 3.22 depicts the compliance status of these Boards, Committees and Taskforces.

---

**Figure 3.21**

15% Representation of Women in Public Offices in Punjab (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District Offices</th>
<th>Provincial Departments/Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>526</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In Compliance</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>337</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not in Compliance</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>137</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>133</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

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**Figure 3.22**

33% Representation of Women in Boards, Committees and Taskforces (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boards</th>
<th>Committees</th>
<th>Taskforces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td><strong>108</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices
3.2.5 District Press Clubs

Modern-day media spans across a diverse and dynamic combination of mass communication channels. These outlets, including print, broadcast, outdoor, electronic and social media, collectively play an instrumental, often game-changing, role in influencing public opinion, shaping popular discourse, and cultivating a sense of civic and political awareness among the masses.96

In 2017, there were 7,104 journalists registered with District Press Clubs in Punjab. Of these, 6,829 (96%) are men and 275 (4%) are women, with an extremely low GPI of 0.040. The highest numbers of registered female journalists are in Lahore (112) and Rawalpindi (140). For the same districts, the numbers of male journalists are also the highest with 1,885 and 2,260 male journalists, respectively. This may be attributable to a number of reasons including, the presence of more media-based educational and training facilities, increased numbers of local media companies due to a higher population demand, and the geographical proximity to provincial and federal government institutions in these cities.97

23 (64%) District Press Clubs have no female journalists registered with them and 4 have only 1 female member each. Figure 3.23 shows all 23 districts with no female members.

![District Press Clubs with and without Female Members in Punjab (2017)](image-url)

Source: District Press Clubs in Punjab

96 (Protess, 2016)
97 (Middaugh, 2013)
98 (GALLUP)
3.2.6 Punjab Bait-ul-Maal Council

The Punjab Bait-ul-Maal Council was established in 1991 to provide financial, rehabilitative, medical, educational and professional services to the marginalized and under-privileged sections of society. The current Council was constituted by CM Punjab on 14th November 2014 with a view to facilitate widows, orphans, disabled persons, addicts, students and other needy or destitute persons. It consists of 14 members, of which 4 (31%) are women and 9 (69%) are men. and 1 seat is currently vacant, denoting a GPI value of 0.444.

![Members of Punjab Bait-ul-Maal Council (2017)](image)

3.2.7 Zakat and Ushr Committees

Zakat and Ushr Committees (generally, one in each village, Mohalla or a revenue unit) are responsible for the disbursement of funds, provision of subsistence allowance, medical treatment and social rehabilitation of deserving candidates (or mustahqeen).

In 2017, there were 24,438 Zakat and Ushr Committees in Punjab. These Committees consisted of 244,376 members, of which 171,065 (70%) are men and 73,311 (30%) are women, denoting a GPI of 0.428. Figure 3.25 depicts the male and female members of the Zakat and Ushr Committees in Punjab.

![Members of Zakat and Ushr Committees in Punjab (2017)](image)

3.3 Participation of Women in the Electoral Process

An individual’s freedom to vote for a party of his or her choice and to contest for elections is recognized as the cornerstone of a functional and representative democracy, and is a political right guaranteed to Pakistani citizens under domestic and international law.**

Free and fair elections are instrumental in ensuring the stability of a political system. In Pakistan, an elaborate framework of electoral laws, rules and procedures provide specific guidelines to the Election Commission on how to administer the polling process, register individual voters, delimit constituencies, enhance voter turnout, and dispose off election petitions through appointment of Election Tribunals among other things.

** (Thernstrom, 1987)
Increased agency as voters is seen as a measure of women’s political empowerment. Moreover, the extent to which female citizens are facilitated in voter registration and polling processes has a direct bearing on the extent to which a democratic system may be qualified as truly participatory, representative and inclusive. Within Punjab, a number of factors, including restricted physical mobility, persisting gap between registered and eligible voters, conservative socio-cultural attitudes, and lack of political exposure and civic awareness, work in tandem to alienate women and prevent them from registering and casting their votes.

### 3.3.1 Voter Turnout

Although lack of official gender disaggregated data makes it difficult to analyze trends in voter turnout, reports from government bodies, reputable media sources, and local and international Observer Groups identified an increase in the number of female voters in the LG Elections of 2015 as compared to the General Elections of 2013.

According to the Elections Act 2017, ECP has been granted the power to declare polling in one or more polling stations or in an entire constituency void. According to the 10% rule enshrined under Section 9(1) of the Act, if the turnout of women is less than 10% of the total voter turnout in a given polling station, the Commission may presume that ‘women voters have been restrained from casting their votes.’

#### 3.3.1.1 LG Elections of 2015

According to PCSW’s Monitoring Report of the Local Government Elections of 2015, the over-all turnout of female voters was high in most districts although significant disparities remained intact with most districts having more male voters than females. This was attributed to a number of reasons, including but not limited to, tribal jirga decisions, a traditional socio-cultural bias against women, and lack of infrastructural facilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTRICTS</th>
<th>UNION COUNCIL No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MIANWALI</td>
<td>UC No 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAKWAL</td>
<td>UC No 67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KHANEWAL</td>
<td>UC No 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KASUR</td>
<td>UC No 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KASUR</td>
<td>UC No 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KHUSHAB</td>
<td>UC No 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.10 Union Councils with Low Female Voter Turnout during Local Government Elections of 2015

#### 3.3.2 Registered Voters

At the end of 2017, the number of registered voters in Punjab was 55,781,200. Of these 55,781,200 voters, 31,280,907 (56%) are men and 24,500,293 (44%) are women, with a relatively high GPI of 0.783. The total number of registered voters in 2017 signifies a nearly 6% increase from 2015, and an approximately 13% increase from 2013. It bears to note that the gap between male and female registered voters still remains high, and has, in fact, significantly widened over the years with 6.8 million less women registered to vote at the end of 2017.

Figure 3.26 show trends in the number of male and female registered voters between 2013 and 2017.

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Gender disaggregated figures for Voter Turnout for the General Elections of 2013 or the Local Government Elections of 2015 are not available.
As illustrated in Figure 3.27, districts with the highest numbers of female registered voters are Lahore, Faisalabad, and Rawalpindi with 2,058,148, 1,725,419, and 1,235,179 female voters, respectively. The lowest numbers of female registered voters were recorded in Hafizabad, Nankana Sahib, and Chiniot with 233,592, 287,624, and 287,789 female registered voters respectively.

Figure 3.28 shows the absolute gap in the number of male and female registered voters and the GPI scores from 2013 to 2017. The gap between the absolute total number of male and female registered voters in all 36 districts of Punjab increased from 6,155,339 in 2013 to 6,780,614 in 2017. Despite the widening gap in absolute terms, the higher rate of increase of female registered voters as compared to male registered voters resulted in a slight improvement in GPI from 0.778 in 2013 to 0.783 in 2017.
Figures 3.27 shows the absolute gap in the number of male and female registered voters and the GPI scores from 2013 to 2017. The gap between the absolute total number of male and female registered voters in all 36 districts of Punjab increased from 6,155,339 in 2013 to 6,780,614 in 2017. Despite the widening gap in absolute terms, the higher rate of increase of female registered voters as compared to male registered voters resulted in a slight improvement in GPI from 0.778 in 2013 to 0.783 in 2017.

To map women’s participation levels in elections, the trends in female voter registration from 2013 to 2017 were studied. It was found that Sheikhupura had the highest percentage increase (40%) for female voters. Comparatively, Chiniot had the lowest percentage increase (4%) for the same time period. Figure 3.29 shows districts with the highest and lowest percentage increase between 2013 and 2017.

**3.3.2.2 Registered Voters vs. Eligible Voters**

As of 31st December 2017, the total gap between male and female registered voters, and male and female CNIC holders was 10.5 million. For men, this gap was calculated at 6.3 million, amounting to approximately 60% of total CNIC holders that had not registered to vote. For women, this gap was calculated at 4.24 million which means that for every 5 females holding a CNIC, 4 had registered their vote.
Figure 3.31 shows that the gap between female CNIC holders and female registered voters was highest in the highly urbanized districts of Lahore, Rawalpindi and Faisalabad at 683,427, 362,776 and 359,323 respectively. The greater gaps in absolute terms may be explained by the greater population density in these areas. The gap was found to be smallest for Hafizabad and Rajanpur at 42,423 and 38,211, respectively.
3.3.3 District Voter Education Committees

Under the Voter Education Plan 2012-13, the ECP adopted a district-centric approach and constituted district Voter Education Committees (DVECs) to enhance voter participation, disseminate awareness materials, and engage with a wide range of stakeholders including, political parties, civil society organizations, women, disabled persons and minority communities. As of 31st December 2017, approximately, 130 DVECs had been established across Pakistan. As shown in Figure 3.32, there are 485 members of DVECs established in Punjab. Of these, 423 (87.2%) are men and 67 (12.7%) are women, with a GPI of 0.147. The highest number of female members of DVECs was recorded for Chakwal, Jhang, Pakpattan and Multan with 4 female members each. In Bhakkar, Faisalabad and Sahiwal there are no female members.

3.3.4 Electoral Staff and Infrastructure

Unfortunately, in the rural areas of Punjab, women are still unable to participate in the polling process due to conservative socio-cultural attitudes, restricted physical mobility, and the fear of being harassed in crowded and congested spaces such as polling stations. To offset these factors, female-friendly infrastructure, well-trained polling staff, and adequate security arrangements are widely recognized as practical solutions linked to an increase in women’s political participation as voters.

In recent years, ECP has taken a number of initiatives to increase voters’ participation. Prior to the General Elections of 2013, ECP introduced a short messaging facility to assist the public in identifying relevant polling stations as well as Mobile Registration Vans (MRVs) to expedite the voter registration process. As of 1st January 2018, voter registration has been automatically linked to the issuance of a CNIC – a measure that is expected to remove logistical difficulties associated with the registration of a vote. More recently, ECP has also launched its official smartphone application to assist voters in identifying relevant polling stations, contacting relevant ECP staff, and staying up-to-date about ECP’s past and on-going initiatives.

3.3.4.1 Polling Stations

Figure 3.33 shows the number of male and female polling stations/booths in the LG elections 2015. There were 54,867 (46%) polling stations and/or booths for women as compared to 64,880 (54%) polling stations/booths for men.
3.3.4.2 Polling Staff

In the 2015 LG Elections, and as shown in Figure 3.34, there were 9,350 female Presiding Officers and Returning Officers. PCSW observed that female polling staff was well-trained and well-aware of their role as detailed under the ECP Code of Conduct. However, it was noted that on several occasions, female polling staff faced logistical challenges in terms of lack of adequate transportation facilities.

3.4 Women and Democracy

3.4.1 Political Candidature

3.4.1.1 Candidature for Local Government Elections 2015

In the 2015 LG Elections, 32 out of 26,689 female candidates were victorious as members of UCs (0.12 %), 2 of
3,994 (0.05%) as Vice Chairpersons and 5 out of 3,941 (0.13%) as Chairpersons. While the number of women contesting for seats is quite remarkable, the fact that only a handful of candidates were able to win, points to the significant challenges faced by politically-driven women within their local communities.103

For seats in the Punjab Assembly during General Elections of 2013, there were 5,511 candidates, of which 5,361 (97%) were men and 150 (3%) were women, denoting an even lower GPI of 0.027. Women from 33 districts contested for general seats in the Punjab Assembly with no women contesting for a seat from Attock, Khanewal and Khushab.

Figure 3.35 illustrates men and women’s share of the political candidature during the General Elections of 2013.

![Candidates in the General Elections of 2013](image)

This notable discrepancy between the number of men and women contesting and winning elections reflects voting behavior patterns. These are biased in the favor of men based on negative voter perceptions of women’s leadership abilities.104 Additionally, a low winning proportion among females could also be attributed to the lack of financial and logistical support forthcoming from political parties they are affiliated to. These numbers demonstrate that within a traditionally masculinized state, government and society, aspiring female politicians find it more challenging than men to gain traction within Punjab’s multi-tiered political system.

### 3.4.2 Political Parties

As organized platforms seeking electoral support on the basis of ideological affinities, door-to-door campaigns, or the symbolic power of charismatic leadership, political parties are the life-line of the democratic process.105 Parties offer individual citizens a choice in governance through the polling process, an opportunity for interest-based lobbying, and an avenue to exercise their basic civil and political rights.106 Moreover, as members of the opposition, representatives of political parties play an instrumental role in fostering a culture of transparency and professional integrity by holding provincial Ministers accountable for the performance of attached departments.

Unfortunately, requisite data was not available for most political parties. However, data was accessible for Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf (‘PTI’) and Pakistan People’s Party Parliamentarians (‘PPPP’), and has been retrieved from their official websites.

#### 3.4.2.1 PTI

PTI’s Central Leadership comprises of 6 members (including the Chairman of the Party), of which 5 are men and 1 is a woman, with a GPI of 0.166.107 PTI also has a Women’s Wing with 5 women in Central Leadership positions, 4 women provincial Presidents, and a Central Executive Council comprising of 40 women members, of which 23 are from Punjab.

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103 (WISE, 2017)
104 (Huddy, 1993)
105 (National Democratic Institute, 2017)
106 (The State of Research on Political Parties and Interest Groups , 2010)
107 Data has been retrieved from the official website. Accessible at: http://www.insaf.pk/about-us/contact-us/leadership.
3.4.2.2 PPPP

There are 6 Central Office Bearers in the Pakistan People’s Party’s internal decision-making structure. Of these, 5 are men and only 1 is a woman, with a GPI of 0.166.

Conclusion

Analysis of over 30 specific indicators in this section reveals the deep-rooted gender disparity with respect to men’s and women’s representation, inclusion and participation in public and political life in Punjab. Although constitutional quotas reserving seats for women in the NA and PA are being met, women remain disproportionately under-represented within decision-making positions. In PA, there are only 4 female provincial Ministers (compared to 30 men) and 5 female Parliamentary Secretaries (compared to 38 men). Across the board, in the federal, provincial and LG tiers of government, an overwhelming majority of women were appointed to political office on the basis of reserved seats with only 11% women elected to General Seats in the Punjab Assembly. Additionally, among the 75 female MPAs, it was found that more than half (51%) fall in the age bracket of 40-45 years and 73% are serving their 1st term in office.

Women’s participation as voters has improved with a 13% increase in the total number of female registered voters between 2013 and 2017; at the district level, percentage increase was highest in Sheikhupura at 40.2%, and lowest for Chiniot at 4.4%. Nevertheless, the gap between male and female registered voters remains significant at 6.7 million in 2017. Moreover, the gap between female registered voters and female CNIC holders also remains significant for most districts. Within the public sector, the number of female officers (Gazetted and Non-Gazetted) remains significantly lower than men in all grades (1-22) with the number of women decreasing, invariably, with each grade up after BPS 17. It was also found that, at present, a majority of district and provincial government offices are not complying with the 33% and 15% quotas introduced under the PWEP 2012.

Although, in recent years, a series of legal, policy and administrative measures have sought to ensure that women have a voice in law-making, policy-formulation and public administration, only a modest improvement, at best, is visible over the years. While efforts to ensure a minimum level of women’s representation and inclusion have been partly successful, in terms of quality of participation and access to senior leadership positions, the situation has shown little improvement Robust corrective mechanisms are needed to address this policy-area in the future.

Recommendations

Legislative/Policy

Facilitate Female Employees in the Public Sector

i. The Planning and Development Department should issue clear directives for all development scheme budgets to be devised in a gender-responsive manner.

ii. Female employees should be given equal opportunity with regards to participating in international conferences and training programs with a view to building their exposure and knowledge.

Ensure women’s participation in intra-party decision-making structures

i. Amend Section 4 of the Political Parties Order 2002 to ensure that all political parties include specific provisions within their respective constitutions to guarantee women a minimum representation in intra-party decision-making structures.
Procedural

Enhance capacity of female MPAs

i. Punjab Assembly in collaboration with Law and Parliamentary Affairs Department, Women’s Development Department and Civil Society Organizations should organize regular training programs on legislative development, leadership skills and public policy.

ii. Punjab Women’s Parliamentary Caucus should organize regular trainings for female MPAs to keep them abreast of initiatives undertaken by the government to empower and protect women including, pro-women laws, policies and programmatic interventions.

Achieve 100% Female Voter Registration/Turnout

i. NADRA should issue CNICS to citizens upon turning 18 years of age.

ii. ECP should identify districts with large gaps in CNIC and voter registration. Targeted interventions focusing on increasing female voter registration should implemented through Mobile Registration Vans.

iii. Trainings provided by ECP to Presiding Officers, Returning Officers and other ECP personnel should be revised to include a gender sensitivity component.

iv. District governments should take special administrative and procedural measures including door-to-door awareness campaigns and voter registration drives to improve female voter turnout.

v. More female police officers should be stationed at polling booths to facilitate female voters.

vi. Polling stations and booths should be made accessible for women with disabilities.

Achieve 15% and 33% quotas for Women in all Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

i. All government departments/offices need to undertake focused recruitment measures in order to comply with the 15% quota requirement of PWEP 2012.

ii. Steps need to be taken to ensure all Provincial Departments/Institutions have 33% representation of women in all Boards, Committees and Taskforces as mandated by PWEP 2012.
Pakistan's average overall life expectancy of 66.6 years (68.2 for females and 65.8 for males) is lower than the global average of 71.5 years. In Punjab, men have a life expectancy of 68.2 years and women have a lower life expectancy of 67.2 years.

Maternal mortality in Pakistan has been decreasing steadily over the past 3 decades. From 1990 to 2015, the Maternal Mortality Rate has declined from 431/100,000 live births to 178/100,000 live births.

Infant Mortality Rates (IMR) in Punjab have shown a steady decline from 66.2/1,000 live births in 2012 to 58.4/1,000 live births in 2017. This is lower than the national IMR of 66/1,000 live births in 2017.

From 2016 to 2017, Punjab's Total Fertility Rate (TFR) improved from 2.8 to 2.7, which was lower than the national TFR of 3.0.

Since 2014, the Contraceptive Prevalence Rate using modern contraceptive methods in Punjab has remained steady at 39% whereas the unmet need for contraception is estimated to be 17.5%.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of health facilities providing basic to specialized healthcare increased from 4,603 to 4,719, reflecting a 2.5% increase. Of these 4,719 facilities, 4,603 (97.5%) were facilities under the Primary and Secondary Health Department (P&SHD) and 116 (2.5%) were specialized health facilities under the Specialized Health and Medical Education Department (SH&MED).

From 2016 to 2017, the number of beds in institutes within P&SHD and SH&MED increased from 43,826 to 70,341, reflecting a 60% increase. The hospital bed density in 2017 was 6.4 beds/10,000 population.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of beds in Punjab Institute of Mental Health (PIMH) increased from 1,333 to 1,410 beds, reflecting a 5.8% increase. Of these, 1,010 (74%) beds were for males and 400 (26%) beds were for females.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of patients visiting PIMH increased from 180,179 to 194,603 patients, representing an 8% increase. Of the patients who visited or were admitted to PIMH, 126,935 (65%) were male and 67,668 (35%) were female.

In 2017, SH&MED employed 9,057 doctors of which, 5,584 (62%) were male and 3,473 (38%) were female, with a GPI of 0.621.

In 2017, 47,638 personnel were employed by P&SHD. Of these, 20,398 (43%) were male and 27,240 (57%) were female, with a GPI of 1.36. Nurses, general medical practitioners and community health workers comprised almost 70% of total staff.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of Population Welfare Department Service Centers increased from 2,080 to 2,344, reflecting a 13% increase. Of these, 2,100 (89.5%) were Family Welfare Centers, 129 (5.5%) were Family Health Clinics and 115 (5%) were Mobile Service Units.
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In 2017, IRMNCH employed 48,382 health workers as compared to 48,526 health workers in 2016. Of these, 44,834 (92.7%) were Lady Health Workers, 1,800 (3.7%) were Lady Health Supervisors, 1,554 (3.2%) were Lady Health Visitors and 194 (0.4%) were nurses and Women Medical Officers.

In 2017, there were 2,080,127 family planning visits made to health facilities across Punjab as compared to 1,973,241 visits in 2016. From 2016 to 2017, there was only a 5.4% increase in the number of family planning visits as compared to a 100% increase observed between 2015 and 2016.

From 2016 to 2017, first Antenatal Care (ANC) visits increased by 33%, with the number of visits increasing from 2,900,617 to 3,861,204. In all facilities, the number of follow-up visits was less than first visits indicating that many pregnant women did not complete the recommended 4 visits.

In 2017, there were 774,371 cases of anemia at first ANC visits as compared to 720,963 cases in 2016, showing an increase of 7.4%. In 2016, 24.8% of women were anemic at their first ANC visit as compared to 20% in 2017.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of live births in health facilities increased by 23.9%, with the number increasing from 826,750 to 1,024,221. The number of deliveries by Cesarean section at public health facilities also increased from 40,899 to 64,699, reflecting an increase of 58.2%.

The number of Low Birth Weight (LBW) babies fell by 37.2%, with the number falling from 27,224 in 2016 to 17,093 in 2017. District wise analysis revealed that the number of LBW babies declined in 16 districts but increased in 20 districts.
4.1 Health, Wellbeing and Gender

Health is a basic capability that determines the quality of life and wellbeing that individuals and communities experience. As a fundamental basic freedom, every individual has the right to the highest attainable standard of health regardless of any distinction based on sex, race, religion, political opinion or economic condition. Phenomena such as morbidity, ill health, hunger and disease restrict choices available to individuals and undercut their ability to reach their maximum potential. Access to public health facilities is, therefore, paramount for human development. Public provision of facilities that improve health such as clean drinking water, primary and secondary healthcare and sanitation infrastructure lead to healthier populations.

From the perspective of human development, health and wellbeing encompass both physical and mental health. The World Health Organization (WHO) has defined health as

“

a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.”

Whilst being healthy is a goal in its own right, health outcomes of individuals and societies cut across and reinforce other objectives of socio-economic advancement. A bidirectional relationship exists between health and productivity in key sectors such as education, employment, economy, agriculture and energy. In particular, investment in health is vital for the development of human capital, as healthier populations will have lower morbidity and greater productivity.

Due to its centrality to both human and economic development, health is a focal point for international and national development agendas. Trends over the last three decades show that the global health landscape has seen major shifts. Global life expectancies have increased by 3 years per decade since 1950 except the 1990s (due to HIV outbreak in Africa). The global disease burden has seen a change from communicable diseases that resulted in epidemics towards non-communicable ailments. In 1990, 47% of the disease burden was caused by communicable, neonatal and maternal illnesses and 43% from non-communicable conditions such as heart disease and diabetes. By 2010, the non-communicable disease burden had risen to 54% and communicable diseases were down to 35%.

Between 2000 and 2015, global Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) and Infant Mortality Rates (IMR) declined by 37% and 44% respectively. In the same time period, incidence of AIDS declined by 46%, Tuberculosis dropped by 17% and Malaria was reduced by 41%. Despite these advances, significant inequalities exist in the health of individuals in developed and developing countries as well as within countries. Populations that have been marginalized in their access to healthcare are made more vulnerable with factors such as ageing, increasing urbanization and globalization contributing to their exposure to both communicable diseases and non-communicable disorders. The sex of individuals impacts the behavioral and socio-economic consequences of health as men and women have different risk factors, morbidity and mortality rates. Globally, women on average live longer than men with female life expectancy at birth of 73.8 years as compared to male life expectancy of 69.1 years in 2015. However, women experience poorer health over the course of their lifetime. Women in developing nations in particular still face great inequality in access to health. Risks, especially related to reproductive morbidity and mortality, create an added burden on women’s health. In South Asia, women’s health prospects are affected adversely by prevailing socio-cultural norms and lack of access to economic resources. Figure 4.1 shows the cycle of gender discrimination women face over their lifetimes in South Asia.

111 (World Health Organization, 2017)
112 (Sen, 1988)
113 (Anand & Ravallion, 1993)
114 (WHO Constitution, 1948)
115 (Fukuda-Parr, 2003)
116 (World Health Statistics, 2016)
117 (Murray, et al., 2012)
118 (World Health Statistics, 2016)
119 (Maccoby, 1998)
This discrimination accumulates over the course of women’s lives and results in the loss of the “female advantage.” A strong social preference for sons results in an exceptionally high number of sex-selective abortions in Pakistan and the sex ratio at birth in Pakistan is estimated to be 108.7 boys per 100 girls. Between 2000 and 2014, approximately 1.2 million female fetuses were aborted in the country. Neglect of girls in the form of delays in treatment of disease, poor nutrition and lack of immunization create large gender disparities in the ‘under 5’ population with girls having a 30-50% higher chance of dying than boys. Early marriage, childbirth and sexual violence over the course of adolescence and adulthood result in higher morbidity amongst women. Reproductive risks are compounded by lack of antenatal care, anemia and home deliveries without the presence of skilled birth attendants. In tandem with international development’s focus on gender equality, women’s health has also become central to the sustainable development agenda proposed in 2017. SDG 3 focuses on all health related areas including, maternal and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases, mental health, and universal health coverage. In total, SDG 3 has 13 targets and 29 indicators. Other SDG goals also contain health related targets such as targets for water, sanitation, air quality and violence. Figure 4.2 shows the main SDG targets related to women’s health.

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

- 3.1 By 2030, reduce global MMR to less than 70/100,000 live births
- 3.2 By 2030, reduce neo-natal mortality to 12/1,000 & under 5 infant mortality to 25/1,000 live births
- 3.3 By 2030, end epidemics of AIDS, Malaria, Tuberculosis & combat Hepatitis, water-borne & communicable diseases.
- 3.2 By 2030, reduce by 1/3rd premature mortality due to non communicable diseases & promote mental health & wellbeing
- 3.7 By 2030, ensure universal access to reproductive health services including for family planning, information & education
- 3.7 Achieve universal health coverage including financial risk protection & access to quality healthcare services, essential medicines & vaccines for all

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Footnotes:
120 (Filmer & Pasha, 2004)
121 Female advantage refers to the global phenomena where women’s life expectancy is, on average, greater than men’s life expectancy.
122 (World Fertility Patterns, 2015)
123 (Zakria, 2015)
124 (Filmer, King, & Pritchett, 1998)
125 (Filmer & Pasha, 2004)
126 (World Health Statistics, 2016)
As a signatory to the SDGs and its predecessor, the MDGs, Pakistan is committed to achieving its SDG targets in order to meet its obligations towards global health security. With this focus, Pakistan National Health Vision 2016-2025 (Vision 2025) aims to improve healthcare delivery, especially for women and children. Although healthcare became an aim of provincial governments in 2011, the Federal Government has re-established the Ministry of National Health Services, Regulation and Coordination to coordinate between national and provincial efforts aimed at improving health outcomes. Vision 2025 pledges to increase healthcare spending from 0.6% to 3% of GDP by 2025. The Prime Minister Healthcare Program is a health insurance initiative that was launched in January 2016 and aims to benefit 3.2 million people across Punjab, FATA and Balochistan by subsidizing healthcare costs.

At the provincial level, the government of Punjab has also introduced several programs to improve public health. The Epidemic Prevention & Control Program targets Dengue outbreaks in Punjab through disease surveillance, community mobilization and awareness campaigns. Additional programs to combat infectious diseases include the Malaria Rollback Program, the TB Control Program, Punjab AIDS Control Program and Prevention and Control of Hepatitis Program.

Despite these efforts, there is serious lack of data on health targets including but not limited to gender disaggregated disease prevalence and universal health coverage especially at the provincial level. Box 1 shows data on HIV/AIDS provided by the Punjab Aids Control Program. This is the only available gender-disaggregated, administrative level data tracking a SDG 3 health target on disease surveillance and monitoring. In order to measure improvements in public health and observe progress towards SDG goals, it is crucial to have proper standard operating procedures for data collection for all SDG indicators, especially those affecting women.

### Disease Surveillance and Monitoring - HIV/AIDS in Punjab

Target 3.3 of the SDGs specifies eradication of the AIDS epidemic. Monitoring the number of AIDS cases in Punjab helps to ensure that this highly communicable disease is not posing a danger to public health. Punjab has 14 HIV Treatment Centers of which 11 are located in north Punjab and 3 in south Punjab. Lahore has 5 HIV treatment facilities.

In 2017, there were 6,920 reported cases of HIV/AIDS. Of these, 5,325 (77%) were male, 1,503 (22%) were female and 92 (1%) were transgender. The highest number of cases was in Lahore with a total of 2,579 (37.3%) followed by Dera Ghazi Khan with 1,099 (15.9%). In all districts, the number of males affected by HIV was larger than the number of females. The graph shows the number of AIDS patients at HIV Treatment Centers in 2017.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HIV/AIDS Patients in Punjab (2017)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHQ Hospital, Dera Ghazi Khan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>294 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allied Hospital, Faisalabad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jinnah Hospital, Lahore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117 (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aziz Bhatti Shaheed DHQ, Gujrat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayo Hospital, Lahore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaukat Khanum Memorial Hospital, Lahore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>204 (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benazir Bhutto Shaheed Hospital, Rawalpindi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>392 (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Hospital, Multan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services Hospital, Lahore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>165 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment Center, Rahim Yar Khan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHQ Hospital, Sargodha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pediatric Center Services Hospital, Lahore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHQ Hospital, Sheikhupura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHQ Hospital, Chiniot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Punjab Aids Control Programme (NACP)

---

127 (National Health Vision 2016-2025)
128 (Prime Minister National Health Program)
129 (Punjab Health Department, 2017)
4.2 Organization of Analysis

This chapter looks at indicators of public health to ascertain disparity in men and women's health and wellbeing. As the report focuses on women's health in particular, this chapter examines their access to standard public health services as well as access to maternal and child healthcare. The focus on maternal and child health takes into account biological differences between men and women that necessitate specialized reproductive health facilities in order to give women an equal chance to attain good health. This section also includes national and provincial health profiles, which give a brief overview of Pakistan's health delivery system, disease profiles and women related summary health indicators including MMR, IMR, 'under 5' mortality ratio and TFRs.

This chapter is structured as follows:

i. National Health Profile
   a. National Disease Burden and Leading Causes of Death
   b. Maternal Mortality Ratios
   c. National Health Delivery System

ii. Punjab Health Profile
   a. Life Expectancy
   b. Infant Mortality Rates
   c. Total Fertility Rates
   d. Health Budget

iii. Access to Healthcare
   a. Government Health Facilities
   b. Number of Beds
   c. Human Resource at Government Facilities
   d. Patients at Health Facilities

iv. Reproductive Health
   a. Population Welfare Department Programs
   b. Integrated Reproductive Maternal and Newborn Child Health and Nutrition Program (IRMNCH)
   c. Family Planning
   d. Antenatal Coverage
   e. Births at Health Facilities
   f. Low Birth Weight Babies
4.3 Pakistan Health Profile

4.3.1 National Disease Burden and Leading Causes of Death

The overall health situation in Pakistan has seen major improvements over the past three decades. However, Pakistan has yet to meet its international health commitments and is ranked 6th out of 22 High Disease Burden countries. It is 1 of only 3 countries in the world including Nigeria and Afghanistan, where Poliovirus still persists. Figure 4.3 shows the top ten causes of death in Pakistan.

![Top 10 Causes of Death in Pakistan (2012)](image)

As seen in Figure 4.3, the incidence of infectious diseases such as tuberculosis, diarrheal diseases and lower respiratory infections is high and totals to 17.8% of all deaths. Non-communicable diseases including heart disease, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and diabetes mellitus cause 22.3% of total deaths. 12.8% of all deaths in Pakistan result from complications in women’s reproductive health from neonatal sepsis and infections, birth asphyxia and trauma, and preterm birth complications.

Due to the high disease burden, Pakistan’s average overall life expectancy of 66.6 years is lower than the global average life expectancy of 71.5 years. Nationally, women live longer than men with female life expectancy of 68.2 years as opposed to male life expectancy of 65.8 years. Infant and under-5 mortality rates in Pakistan are some of the highest in the world. It is estimated that 1 in 14 children in Pakistan dies before reaching the age of 1, and 1 in 23 children are stillborn. An examination of Pakistan’s TFR and its Replacement Rate shows that Pakistan’s population will continue to grow. Pakistan’s TFR decreased from 3.2 in 2015 to 3.0 in 2017. However, this is still higher than the global and national Replacement Rate of 2.1 and 2.6 respectively. In comparison, India and Bangladesh had TFRs of 2.4 and 2.1.

4.3.2 Maternal Mortality

Maternal mortality in Pakistan has been improving steadily over the past 3 decades. From 1990 to 2015, MMR has declined from 431/100,000 live births to 178/100,000 live births. Despite progress, MMR in Pakistan is still extremely high. A skilled birth attendant attends less than 50% of the births in Pakistan and the lifetime risk associated with pregnancy-related death is 1 in 93 for Pakistani women. Socio-cultural norms restricting the access to maternal healthcare, high levels of anemia in pregnant women, child marriages and lack of tetanus toxoid vaccination contribute to the high national MMR.

---

1. Pakistan Economic Survey, 2016-17
2. World Health Organization, 2017
3. World Health Organization, 2013
5. Pakistan Economic Survey, 2016-17
6. Ibid
8. Ibid at 26
10. The State of World’s Midwifery, 2014
11. Pakistan Demographics and Health Survey, 2012-2013
4.3.3 Healthcare Delivery System

Pakistan has a multi-tiered Healthcare Delivery System with well-developed public and private sectors. The private sector caters to almost 70% of Pakistan’s health needs and employs a range of medical professionals from trained medical personnel to traditional healers.\(^{143}\) The public sector provides access to subsidized basic and specialized healthcare. Currently, Pakistan’s health infrastructure boasts 5,654 Basic Health Units (BHUs), 675 Rural Health Centers (RHCs) and 5,695 government run dispensaries (GRDs) providing basic preventive health services across the country. Additionally, 1,167 hospitals provide specialized healthcare. Most of the BHUs, RHCs and GRDs provide only outpatient services. On average, there is 1 doctor available for 1,063 persons, and 1 hospital bed for 1,613 persons. These numbers fall short of the WHO recommended norm of 5 beds/1,000 population and 1 physician/1,000 population. Pakistan needs to increase both health facilities and human resource to provide adequate healthcare to its large patient pool. Figure 4.4 provides a snapshot of health facilities that were available to the public in 2017.\(^{143}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Health Units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Health Centers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispensaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital Beds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Doctors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.4**

4.4 Punjab Health Profile

4.4.1 Life Expectancy

In Punjab, life expectancy of both men and women has seen a steady improvement in the past five years. Since 2012, male life expectancy in Punjab has increased by 2.2 years and female life expectancy by 1.7 years. On average, males in Punjab had a life expectancy of 68.2 years in 2017 as opposed to national male life expectancy of 65.8.\(^{144}\) On the other hand, women in Punjab had a lower life expectancy of 67.2 years as compared to the national female life expectancy of 68.2 years.\(^{144}\) Figure 4.5 shows male and female life expectancy in Punjab.

---

\(^{142}\) (Kumar & Bano, 2017)  
\(^{143}\) (Pakistan Economic Survey, 2016-17)  
\(^{144}\) (Ibid)  
\(^{145}\) (Population Welfare Department, 2017)
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Figure 4.5 shows male and female life expectancy in Punjab.

From 2012 to 2017, male life expectancy increased from 66 to 68.2 years, and female life expectancy increased from 65.5 to 67.2 years.

4.4.2 Infant Mortality

Figure 4.6 depicts the steady decline in IMR in Punjab in the past 5 years. In 2012, IMR was projected as 66.2/1,000 live births and under-5 mortality was 93.3/1,000 live births. By 2017, infant and under-5 mortality had declined to 58.4/1,000 live births and 80.7/1,000 live births respectively. Infant mortality in Punjab is lower than the national average of 66/1,000 live births. Punjab has to further accelerate the rate of decline in order to meet SDG 2030 requirements of infant mortality below 12/1,000 live births and under-5 mortality below 25/1,000 live births. Maternal and child health is intrinsically linked and integrative approaches such as timely vaccinations for mother and child, emergency obstetric care, increase in deliveries with skilled attendants and massive awareness and outreach campaigns are needed to safely help women through pregnancies.

Lower life expectancy of women in Punjab can be attributed to social inequality that mitigates the ‘female advantage’ of longer life spans enjoyed by women across the globe. In particular, high maternal mortality in reproductive years, sexual violence and unequal access to healthcare at all stages of women’s lives negatively impact life expectancy of women.

144 (Population Profile, 2017)
145 (Agonizing State of Maternal and Infant Mortality in Pakistan, 2015)
4.4.3 Total Fertility Rate

As compared to the national TFR of 3.0 in 2017, Punjab has a lower TFR of 2.7. Contributing to this decline is the increase in the Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR),\textsuperscript{150} which increased from 35% in 2011 to 39% in 2014.\textsuperscript{155} Additionally, TFRs in Punjab also declined because of increase in average childbearing age from 23.2 years in 2007 to 28.6 years in 2017.\textsuperscript{154} The Contraceptive Performance Report (2015-16) shows that the provincial CPR on the basis of modern contraceptive methods (mCPR) was 38.9%.\textsuperscript{154} It must be noted that change in fertility rates are unequal across income and education levels. Women in the poorest quintile had 2.5 more children than women in the richest quintile. Additionally, mothers with some tertiary education had 2.5 children as opposed to women with no education who had 4.4 children.\textsuperscript{154} Figure 4.7 shows projected TFRs in Punjab from 2012 to 2020.

![Total Fertility Rates in Punjab (2012 to 2020)](image)

**Figure 4.7**

4.4.4 Punjab Health Budget

Budget allocations for health need to reflect public health priorities that governments hope to achieve through provision of healthcare based on national epidemiological profiles.\textsuperscript{156} Historical trends indicate that government spending on health in Punjab remains around 0.5% of GDP, which is significantly lower than the average health spending of 2% in other developing countries.\textsuperscript{157} A greater focus on public health at the political level over the past few years has, however, increased investment and resources allocated to the health sector in the provincial budget.\textsuperscript{157}

In the last five fiscal years, allocation for health has been steadily increasing. However, the rates of increase vary from year to year. The greatest increase in resource allocation for health was seen from 70.1 billion rupees in 2016-17 to 111 billion rupees in 2017-18, reflecting an increase of 58.4%. An additional 20.41 billion was allocated for the provision of free medicines in the province.\textsuperscript{158} Despite the increase in budget allocation, spending priorities at the provincial and district level determine whether there is a commensurate improvement in public health outcomes. Figure 4.8 shows allocations for health in the provincial budgets from 2012-13 to 2017-18.

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\textsuperscript{150} The CPR is the percentage of women who are practising, or whose sexual partners are practising, any form of contraception. It is usually measured for married women of reproductive age i.e., 15-49 years.

\textsuperscript{151} Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, 2014

\textsuperscript{152} Population Welfare Department, 2017

\textsuperscript{153} Contraceptive Performance Report, 2015-16

\textsuperscript{154} Pakistan Demographics and Health Survey, 2012-2013

\textsuperscript{155} World Health Organization, 2010

\textsuperscript{156} Savedoff, 2003

\textsuperscript{157} Pakistan Institute of Legislative and Policy Development, 2013

\textsuperscript{158} Punjab announces Rs1.96 trillion budget with focus on development. Dawn News. https://www.dawn.com/news/1336980
4.5 Access to Healthcare

Disparity in access to public healthcare in developing countries results from differences in geographical accessibility, acceptability of services offered, availability of healthcare services and financial costs associated with obtaining healthcare. To remove barriers to access, especially for poorer communities, the Alma-Ata Declaration 1978 envisaged primary healthcare as the most effective means of providing universal, affordable and equitable health coverage in all countries.

Punjab’s healthcare system is multi-tiered with a vertical increase in specialized coverage from primary to secondary to tertiary education. Primary health facilities are the most common and include BHUs, RHCs, Mother and Child Health Centers (MCHs) and GRDs. These facilities provide outpatient services (OPD) and also administer prophylactic programs aimed at disease prevention. The Tehsil and District Headquarters (THQs and DHQs) form the secondary healthcare tier and provide inpatient services. Teaching hospitals and specialized institutes form the tertiary level where medical education and training is imparted.

4.5.1 Government Health Facilities

In Punjab, geographical barriers create huge disparity in the availability of health services. Whilst urban areas have a greater density of hospitals and clinics, rural areas suffer from lack of basic facilities. To improve equitable access
to public healthcare services, the government of Punjab bifurcated the Health Department in 2015. Under the
bifurcation, the Health Department is now divided into the Primary & Secondary Healthcare Department (P&SHD)
and the Specialized and Medical Education Department (SH&MED).

In 2017, there were 4,719 healthcare facilities providing services ranging from basic to specialized healthcare. Of
these, 4,603 (97.5%) were facilities under P&SHD and 116 (2.5%) were specialized health facilities under SH&MED.

4.5.1.1 Institutes under P&SHD

P&SHD administers primary health programs related to epidemics prevention and control, maternal and child
health, immunization, family planning, child nutrition and control of Hepatitis, Aids, Tuberculosis and Malaria. In
2017, P&SHD operated 4,603 health facilities of which 2,519 (55%) were BHUs, 1,186 (26%) were GRDs, 315 (7%)
were RHCs, and 301 (6%) were MCH Centers. DHQs and THQs numbered 157 (3%). Specialized health was provided
by only 125 (3%) specialized health facilities and teaching hospitals. Figure 4.9 shows breakdown of the type of
facilities under P&SHD.

District wise analysis reveals significant geographical disparity in the availability of public health facilities across
districts and a clear urban/rural gap can be observed. Faisalabad has the highest number of facilities with 298
(6.5%) followed by Lahore with 256 (5.6%) and Rawalpindi with 212 (4.6%) facilities. Districts with the lowest
number of facilities are Chiniot and Rajanpur with 57 facilities (1.2%) each and Hafizabad with 61 facilities (1.3%).
Figure 4.10 shows district wise availability of health facilities in Punjab.

162 (Chaudhry, 2016)
163 (Chaudhry, Bifurcation of Health Dept Proposed, 2015)
4.5.1.1 Institutes under P&SHD

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Types of facilities available in districts also vary and are concentrated in relatively urbanized districts. Faisalabad has the highest number of BHUs (168) whereas Lahore has the highest number of specialized hospitals (9) and teaching facilities (41). Together, the top 3 districts of Lahore, Rawalpindi and Faisalabad account for 17.7% of all facilities, 59% of teaching health facilities and 24.5% of specialized health facilities whereas the bottom 3 districts of Chiniot, Rajanpur and Hafizabad account for only 3.8% of total health facilities and have no teaching health facilities or specialized health facilities.
Concentration of health facilities in urban areas is a result of greater population density and availability of human resources and infrastructure that is essential for the provision of healthcare. As the greater availability of medical facilities in urban areas is matched by the increase in population density, access to healthcare may not be adequate for the larger population.

The urban-rural skew has a detrimental impact on equitable access to healthcare in the province. Rural populations are burdened with additional costs in order to access specialized healthcare. In resource constrained households, females and girls are discriminated against and diagnostic visits for women are delayed for months. This can be attributed to lower female mobility due to cultural norms, lack of autonomy and financial independence.

4.5.1.2 Institutes under SH&MED

Specialized healthcare in Punjab serves as the tertiary tier of healthcare delivery. SH&MED manages teaching hospitals, specialized health institutes, medical education, drugs and pharmaceuticals, blood banks and medical education. In 2017, there were 116 specialized health facilities in Punjab. Of these, 45 (39%) were hospitals, 44 (38%) were nursing schools, 14 (12%) were colleges and 6 (5%) were Universities. There were 5 (4%) attached departments and two other teaching facilities. These facilities are situated in urban areas especially, Lahore, Faisalabad, Multan and Rawalpindi. As a result, populations in rural areas have less access to special diagnostic facilities and treatments. Figure 4.11 shows health facilities under SH&MED in Punjab.
4.5.1.3 Mental Health Facilities

Pakistan has a severe shortage of mental health facilities. There are only 5 public mental health institutes with inpatient facilities in the country whereas WHO estimates that a significant proportion of the population (10-14%) suffers from mental disorders.\(^{167}\) In Punjab alone, over 11.8 million people suffer from mental illness.\(^{168}\) There are significant gender differences in mental health afflictions. WHO estimated that 46-66% of women and 15% of men in Pakistan suffer from anxiety and depression.\(^{169}\) Women who experience domestic violence are more likely to suffer from emotional distress and anxiety.\(^{170}\)

The Punjab Institute of Mental Health (PIMH) located in Lahore is the only public institute for mental health in the province. In 2017, PIMH was equipped with 1,410 beds of which 1,010 (74%) were for males and 400 (26%) were for females. From 2016 to 2017, the number of patients visiting PIMH increased by 8% from 180,179 to 194,603 patients. Of these, 126,935 (65%) were male and 67,668 (35%) were female. 35% of all old and new OPD patients were female. However, only 11% of the new admitted cases were female. This can be a reflection of the lower number of beds available for female inpatients as compared to males. Another contributing factor can be socio-cultural constraints such as women’s limited mobility and financial dependence on male family members. Figure 4.12 shows patient in-flows at PIMH.

![Patients in Punjab Institute of Mental Health (2017)](image)

**Figure 4.12**

4.5.2 Number of Beds

Service delivery is a cornerstone of health systems. Inpatient bed density is a key indicator of the access and capacity of secondary healthcare provision. WHO defines Hospital Beds as "number of in-patient beds per 10,000 population"\(^{179}\) and includes both elective and emergency in-patient beds as well as maternity beds.\(^{180}\) The global average of hospital bed density is estimated to be 30 beds/10,000 population.\(^{178}\) From 2016 to 2017, the number of beds in P&SHD and SH&MED institutes increased from 43,826 to 70,341, showing a 60% increase. The hospital bed density of Punjab in 2017 was 6.4 beds/10,000 population for Punjab.\(^{174}\)

4.5.2.1 Beds in P&SHD Institutes

In 2017, there were 43,949 beds available in P&SHD institutes, of which, 20,771 (47.2%) were in Teaching Health Facilities, 6,854 (15.6%) were in THQs, 5,990 (13.6%) were in RHCs, 4,818 (11%) were in DHQs and 4,707 (10.7%) were in BHUs. There were only 544 (1.2%) beds available in specialized hospitals and 265 (0.7%) beds in

\(^{167}\) (Mahmood, 2014)

\(^{168}\) [Curriculum of Mental Health in Primary Care, n.d]

\(^{169}\) (World Mental Health Atlas, 2005)

\(^{170}\) (Niaz, 2004)

\(^{171}\) See World Health organization. http://www.who.int/whosis/whostat2006/HospitalBeds.pdf

\(^{172}\) Ibid

\(^{173}\) See World Health Organization http://vsearo.who.int/entity/health_situation_trends/data/bh/hospital-beds/en/

\(^{174}\) Number of Beds/10,000 population calculated using the following formula: Number of inpatient beds / Total population for Punjab.
dispensaries and MCHs. The distribution of beds was concentrated in urban centers creating differential access to inpatient services. Since most of the teaching health facilities and specialized hospitals are located in urban centers such as Lahore and Multan, residents of rural Punjab need to travel to larger cities to access secondary healthcare. For low-income households, this acts as an additional financial burden. Figure 4.13 shows availability of beds in different facilities under P&SHD.

District wise analysis reveals that north Punjab has a higher capacity to provide secondary health. In north Punjab, Lahore (9,709), Faisalabad (3,223) and Rawalpindi (2,902) have the highest number of beds. Cumulatively, these account for 36% of total bed availability. A staggering 22% of beds available are in Lahore, which has 40% of teaching health facilities and specialized hospitals in the province. In south Punjab, Bahawalpur (2,464), Multan (2,131) and Rahim Yar Khan (1,699) have the highest number of beds. Cumulatively, these account for 14% of total bed availability. Chiniot, Hafizabad and Lodhran have the lowest number of beds that account for only 2.2% of overall hospital beds in Punjab. Despite the greater availability of inpatient services in urban centers, the pressure on health resources is high due to Punjab’s high population density in urban areas. Figure 4.14 shows district level availability of beds in institutes under P&SHD.

### Figure 4.13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility Type</th>
<th>Beds</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Health Facilities</td>
<td>20,771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehsil Head Quarter Hospitals</td>
<td>6,854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Health Centers</td>
<td>5,990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Head Quarter Hospitals</td>
<td>4,818</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basic Health Units</td>
<td>4,707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized Hospitals</td>
<td>544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispensaries</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCH Centers</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>43,949</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary & Secondary Healthcare Department

### Figure 4.14

Number of Beds in Health Facilities in Punjab (2017)

Source: Primary & Secondary Healthcare Department
4.5.2.1 Beds in SH&MED Institutes

SH&MED institutes have 26,392 beds in 12 districts. There is more extensive concentration of inpatient services in north Punjab. Lahore (11,549 beds), Faisalabad (3,754) and Rawalpindi (2,786) have the highest number of beds. Cumulatively, they account for 68.5% of overall bed capacity. In South Punjab, Bahawalpur (1,925), Multan (1,863) and Rahim Yar Khan (954) have the highest inpatient capacity, which accounts for 13.4% of overall available hospital beds. The lowest number of beds is found in Gujrat (492), Dera Ghazi Khan (500) and Sialkot (534). These districts only account for 5.8% of total available beds.

Specialized healthcare is not available in two-thirds of Punjab’s districts. Additionally, there is a large variation in capacity in districts where specialized healthcare is accessible. With teaching health facilities and specialized hospitals concentrated in cities, rural Punjab suffers from a lack of access to specialized healthcare. When health systems have a systematic urban bias, differences in the health of rural and urban populations become more pronounced. Figure 4.15 shows district wise hospital beds in SH&MED institutes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Beds in SH&amp;MED Institutes in Punjab (2017)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>11,549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisalabad</td>
<td>3,754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawalpindi</td>
<td>2,786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahawalpur</td>
<td>1,925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>1,863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahim Yar Khan</td>
<td>954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sargodha</td>
<td>731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadiqabad</td>
<td>584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sialkot</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dera Ghazi Khan</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujrat</td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Specialized Healthcare & Medical Education Department

Figure 4.15

4.5.3 Human Resource in Government Health Facilities

Human resource is a key input of effective health systems. In the context of healthcare, it is defined as various clinical and non-clinical staff needed to perform individual health interventions. A health system should not only have an adequate sized health workforce but also an appropriate mix of the different types of healthcare professionals, with the distribution of the health workforce within countries being a key concern.

Global Health Workforce Standards recommended by WHO suggest 23 health professionals (doctors, nurses and midwives) per 10,000 population as the minimum level required for the provision of adequate healthcare services. According to WHO, Pakistan currently has only 11.6 health professionals/10,000 population. In Punjab, despite an increase in the number of medical colleges and registered doctors, the doctor patient ratio stands at 1 doctor per 1,702 people. It is pertinent to note that doctor availability is further exacerbated by the brain drain of doctors to industrialized nations. Pakistani doctors comprise 5% of the foreign doctors in the United States of America and 11% of the foreign doctors in the United Kingdom.
### 4.5.3.1 Human Resource in P&SHD Institutes

In 2017, there were 47,638 personnel employed by P&SHD. Of these, 20,398 (43%) were male and 27,240 (57%) were female, with a GPI of 1.36. Nurses, general medical practitioners and community health workers comprised almost 70% of total staff.

An examination of categories reveals that the positive GPI is a result of the fact that 97% of the nursing staff and 94% of community health workers are female. In the more specialized categories, males outnumbered females by large margins. 69% General Practitioners, 70% of Specialist Medical Practitioners, 86% of Health Managers and 63% of Dental Surgeons were male. These figures reflect how women are generally clustered in traditionally female jobs such as nurses and community health workers. The higher numbers of males employed as administrative health managers and specialist practitioners indicate that women are not undertaking specialized medical education and are less visible as administrators within hospitals. Figure 4.16 shows employed health personnel by category in primary and secondary healthcare in Punjab.

![Human Resource in P&SHD Institutes in Punjab (2017)](source)

**Figure 4.16**

### 4.5.3.2 Human Resource in SH&MED Institutes

In 2017, SH&MED employed 9,057 doctors of which, 5,584 (62%) were male and 3,473 (38%) were female, with a GPI of 0.621. No district achieved gender parity in number of doctors. Lahore had the highest number of female doctors (1,678). Rawalpindi, however, was the closest to achieving parity with female doctors comprising 49% of its total doctors. Gujrat employed the least number of female doctors with 31 but Dera Ghazi Khan had the greatest gender inequality with females making up only 28% of doctors in the district. Having fewer female doctors can inhibit health-seeking behavior amongst women as female service providers greatly increase utilization of health services. This gender disparity is worsened by the low transition rate of female doctors to the health workforce; 50% of female doctors never work after graduation. Figure 4.17 shows the number of Doctors employed by SH&MED and also depicts districts with highest and lowest parity.

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183 (Junaidi, 2014)
There is a severe shortage of nurses in Pakistan. The nurse to doctor ratio is 1:3 and the nurse to patient ratio is 1:50,000. In 2017, there were 13,782 nurses employed in SH&MED. Of these 76% were employed in Lahore (7,986), Faisalabad (1,412) and Rawalpindi (1,137). In South Punjab, the highest number of nurses was in Multan with 1,126 nurses and Bahawalpur with 703 nurses. Continuing nursing shortages negatively impact healthcare delivery and patient wellbeing. Figure 4.18 shows the district wise availability of nurses in Punjab.

Figure 4.17

Figure 4.18

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183 [World Health Organization, 2012]
185 [Oulton, 2006]
4.5.4 Patients in Health Facilities

From 2016 to 2017, the number of patients at health facilities increased from 77 million to 100 million showing an increase of 29.9%. Of these, approximately 44.1 million (44%) new patients were male and 55.9 million (56%) were female. Facility wise analysis shows that of all the new patients at BHUs, RHCs and THQS, 44% were male and 56% were female. The proportion of male to female patients at DHQs differed slightly with 46% male patients and 54% female patients. Increases in numbers of new patients can imply expansion of access to health facilities, especially in rural areas. Figure 4.19 shows the increase in the facility wise number of new patients in 2016 and 2017.

4.6 Reproductive Health

Decreasing maternal and child mortality is crucial to improving community level health outcomes. As maternal health impacts family health, a focus on maternal mortality can help in the design of interventions that make childbearing safer for women. Improving reproductive health requires the implementation of multi-pronged health strategies as no singular intervention can significantly impact maternal or infant mortality. WHO recommended a four tier Safe Motherhood Strategy that can help extend better reproductive healthcare to women. Based on the principle of healthcare equity for women, the four pillars of this strategy include Family Planning, Antenatal Care (ANC), Safe/Clean Delivery practices and Provision of Emergency Obstetric Care to pregnant women. This sub-section examines Punjab’s primary healthcare services specific to reproductive health.

4.6.1 Population Welfare Department Programs

As Punjab’s TFR is greater than its Replacement Rate, and MMR continues to be higher than global standards, the government needs to ensure equitable and easily accessible reproductive health services. With this goal, the Population Welfare Department (PWD) provides family planning services and maternal and child health care services. Following the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), PWD has included additional components of reproductive health, including treatments for reproductive tract infections (RTIs), sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), infertility and adolescent health problems.
4.6.1.1 Service Centers

PWD Service Centers are categorized as Family Health Clinics (FHCs), Family Welfare Centers (FWCs), and Mobile Service Units (MSUs). FHCs provide a range of services including contraceptive surgery for males and females, family planning services, ultrasound diagnoses, treatments for RTIs, STDs, and infertility. FHCs also have Male Advisory Units (MAUs). FWCs provide family planning guidance, temporary contraceptive measures and treatment for STI and RTI infections. They also refer patients to FHCs. MSUs, headed by Women Medical Officers (WMOs) or teams from FWCs, provide family planning services, temporary contraceptives and also refer patients in need of contraceptive surgery to FHCs.

In 2017, there were 2,344 PWD Service Centers of which 2,100 (89.5%) were FWCs, 129 (5.5%) were FHCs and 115 (5%) were MSUs. There was an overall increase in the number of Service Centers (13%) from 2016 to 2017, with the number of FWCs having increased by 15% whilst the number of FHCs declined by 2%. Figure 4.20 shows the numbers of PWD Service Centers in 2016 and 2017.

![Service Centers under Population Welfare Department in Punjab (2016 and 2017)](image)

District wise analysis reveals that the highest numbers of Service Centers were in Sargodha (125), Lahore (111) and Rahim Yar Khan (103). The lowest numbers of Service Centers were in Chiniot (20), Nankana Sahib (26) and Lodhran (40). PWD has greatly expanded its services especially in districts where its presence was previously insufficient. While Chiniot had no FWCs and FHCs in 2016, the district now has 17 FWCs and 2 FHCs. Lahore and Rawalpindi have the highest number of FHCs (8) whilst Sargodha has the highest number of FWCs (116). Figure 4.21 shows district wise availability of PWD Service Centers in Punjab.

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190 (Population Welfare Department, 2017)  
191 Ibid  
192 Ibid
4.6.1.2 Human Resource in PWD Service Centers

PWD employs 36 District Population Welfare Officers (DPWOs), 1 in each district of Punjab. Of these, 33 (92%) are male and 3 (8%) are female, with a GPI of 0.090. Female DPWOs are appointed in Bahawalnagar, Muzaffargarh and Rawalpindi. This extremely large gender disparity in DPWOs can undermine the objectives of the family planning initiatives PWD rolls out, as women health officers are more likely to change attitudes towards reproductive health and family planning as opposed to male health officers. Figure 4.22 shows gender wise employment of DPWOs in Punjab.

4.6.2 Integrated Reproductive Maternal and Newborn Child Health and Nutrition Program

In order to meet international benchmarks on maternal and child health, the government of Punjab has integrated the Lady Health Workers (LHW) Program, Maternal and Newborn Child Health Program, Child Nutrition Program and 24/7 Basic Emergency Obstetric and Neonatal services under the Integrated Reproductive, Maternal, Child Health and Nutrition Program (IRMNCH). The program aims to reduce MMR, USIMR, and IMR. Additionally, it aims to alleviate stunting and wasting among children.

4.6.2.1 IRMNCH Facilities

In 2017, there were 2,949 IRMNCH facilities in Punjab. Of these, 1,397 (47%) were BHUs without 24/7 facilities, 803 (27%) were 24/7 BHUs where emergency obstetric care was available, and 297 (10%) were BHUs Plus Model. IRMNCH also had facilities in 310 (11%) RHCs, 116 (4%) THQs and 26 (1%) DHQs. Figure 4.23 provides an overview of IRMNCH facilities in 2017.
In 2017, IRMNCH employed 48,382 health workers as compared to 48,526 health workers in 2016. Of these, 44,834 (92.7%) were Lady Health Workers (LHWs), 1,800 (3.7%) were Lady Health Supervisors (LHS), 1,554 (3.2%) were Lady Health Visitors (LHV) and 194 (0.4%) were nurses and women medical officers (WMOs). LHWs are extremely important in IRMNCH’s effort to increase the utilization of preventive and curative health services at the community level, especially in remote rural areas.

Research on the Lady Health Worker Program found that LHW presence at the community level greatly increased the use of contraceptives in rural areas. Owing to their importance in creating healthcare access for women, Lady Health Workers were regularized in 2014.

Figure 4.25 shows the staff employed by IRMNCH in 2016 and 2017. Overall, there was little change in the total number of employees. However, the number of LHWs declined by 144 (>0.1%), while the number of WMOs increased by 143%, and the number of LHVs increased by 9%. The decline in the number of nurses employed was 46%.

Figure 4.26 shows district wise distribution of IRMNCH employees in 2017. Faisalabad employed the largest number of IRMNCH staff with 2,559 employees followed by Sialkot and Multan with 2,078 and 2,056 employees respectively. Cumulatively, these 3 districts accounted for approximately 14% of all IRMNCH employees. Districts with the lowest numbers of employees were Chiniot (463), Hafizabad (623) and Nankana Sahib (635). Together, these districts employed only 3.6% of the entire IRMNCH staff.

Faisalabad, Sargodha and Rahim Yar Khan have the highest number of facilities with 188, 149 and 118 facilities respectively. Together, these 3 districts account for 15.4% of total IRMNCH Centers. The lowest numbers of facilities were in Hafizabad (41), Chiniot (42) and Rajanpur (43). These districts accounted for only 4.3% of IRMNCH facilities. Overall, all districts had a combination of all facilities provided by IRMNCH. Most importantly, all districts had at least 10 24/7 BHUs where services such as delivery, antenatal coverage and childhood immunization are provided. Figure 4.24 provides a district wise breakdown of IRMNCH facilities in Punjab.
4.6.2.2 Human Resource in IRMNCH Facilities

In 2017, IRMNCH employed 48,382 health workers as compared to 48,526 health workers in 2016. Of these, 44,834 (92.7%) were Lady Health Workers (LHWs), 1,800 (3.7%) were Lady Health Supervisors (LHS), 1,554 (3.2%) were Lady Health Visitors (LHV) and 194 (0.4%) were nurses and women medical officers (WMOs). LHWs are extremely important in IRMNCH’s effort to increase the utilization of preventive and curative health services at the community level, especially in remote rural areas. Research on the Lady Health Worker Program found that LHW presence at the community level greatly increased the use of contraceptives in rural areas. Owing to their importance in creating healthcare access for women, Lady Health Workers were regularized in 2014.

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![IRMNCH Staff in Punjab (2016 and 2017)](image)

Figure 4.25

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197 (Hafeez, Mohamud, Shiekh, Shah, & Jooma, 2011)
198 (Douthwaite & Ward, 2005)
Figure 4.26

IRMNCH Staff in Punjab (2017)
District Wise

- Faisalabad
- Sialkot
- Multan
- Muzaffargarh
- Rahim Yar Khan
- Khanewal
- Lahore
- Sargodha
- Gujranwala
- Bahawalpur
- Okara
- Bahawalnagar
- Gujrat
- Rawalpindi
- Sahiwal
- Kasur
- Jhang
- Vehari
- Toba Tek Singh
- Dera Ghazi Khan
- Mandi Bahauddin
- Narowal
- Chakwal
- Sheikhupura
- Bhakkar
- Mianwali
- Lodhran
- Pakpattan
- Layyah
- Attock
- Khushab
- Jhelum
- Rajanpur
- Nankana Sahib
- Hafizabad
- Chiniot

Total:
2016: 48,526
2017: 48,382

Source: IRMNCH & Nutrition Program, Punjab

Figure 4.27

Figure 4.28

PDHS (2012-13) showed that CPR in Punjab was 39%. Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014 estimates show that the total satisfied demand for family planning was 69% though there was a significant difference in satisfied demand in rural (66%) and urban (74%) areas.

Despite having family planning initiatives in place since the 1950s, Pakistan still struggles with high birth rates and low prevalence of contraceptive use.

Figure 4.28 shows district wise family planning visits to health facilities in Punjab in 2016 and 2017. The highest numbers of visits were made in Okara (137,234), Muzaffargarh (131,969) and Bahawalnagar (107,275) whereas Hafizabad (32,711), Pakpattan (32,213) and Mandi Bahauddin (27,421) saw the lowest number of family planning visits. In 23 districts, the number of family planning visits increased and in 13 districts there was a significant drop in family planning visits. The greatest increase was in Bahawalnagar where family planning visits rose by 107%. Toba Tek Singh and Hafizabad also saw considerable increases of 35% and 28% respectively. Lahore saw the largest drop with 63% followed by Sialkot and Faisalabad with 18% and 15.6% drops respectively.
4.6.3 Family Planning

Family planning programs have great potential and can help lower birth rates, reduce poverty and maternal and child mortality rates. These programs also contribute to lessening fertility rates and increasing contraceptive use. Despite having family planning initiatives in place since the 1950s, Pakistan still struggles with high birth rates and low prevalence of contraceptive use. PDHS (2012-13) showed that CPR in Punjab was 39%. Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014 estimates show that the total satisfied demand for family planning was 69% though there was a significant difference in satisfied demand in rural (66%) and urban (74%) areas. PDHS (2012-13) showed that CPR in Punjab was 39%. Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014 estimates show that the total satisfied demand for family planning was 69% though there was a significant difference in satisfied demand in rural (66%) and urban (74%) areas. Figure 4.26 shows the number of family planning visits from 2015 to 2017. In 2017, there were 2,080,127 family planning visits made to health facilities across Punjab. From 2016 to 2017, there was only a 5.4% increase in the number of family planning visits made to health facilities as compared to a 100% increase observed between 2015 and 2016.

Figure 4.27 shows district wise family planning visits to health facilities in Punjab in 2016 and 2017. The highest numbers of visits were made in Okara (137,234), Muzaffargarh (131,969) and Bahawalnagar (107,275) whereas Hafizabad (32,711), Pakpattan (32,213) and Mandi Bahauddin (27,421) saw the lowest number of family planning visits. In 23 districts, the number of family planning visits increased and in 13 districts there was a significant drop in family planning visits. The greatest increase was in Bahawalnagar where family planning visits rose by 107%. Toba Tek Singh and Hafizabad also saw considerable increases of 35% and 28% respectively. Lahore saw the largest drop with 63% followed by Sialkot and Faisalabad with 18% and 15.6% drops respectively.

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Decrease in the number of family planning visits in heavily populated districts like Lahore and Faisalabad undermine Punjab’s goal of decreasing TFRs and increasing its CPR to 55% by 2020. Family Planning visits at health facilities are a key avenue through which unmet need for contraceptives can be met in Punjab. Unmet need for contraceptives is defined by the Demographic Health Survey as “the percentage of women of reproductive age, either married or in a union, who have an unmet need for family planning. Women with unmet need are those who want to stop or delay childbearing but are not using any method of contraception.” In 2014, Punjab’s unmet need for contraceptives stood at 17.5%. Figure 4.29 shows the use of contraceptives by method in Punjab. Condoms (39%) were the most used contraceptive method followed by oral pills (23%). Surgery (2%) and implants (1%) were the least utilized contraceptive methods. Unmet need for contraception leads to unplanned pregnancies particularly in women at the extremes of reproductive age (very young or very old). Unintended pregnancies have an adverse impact on maternal and child health. Women with unintended pregnancies are less likely to use antenatal services and more likely to opt for unsafe abortions. Children born of unintended pregnancies are also likely to be born preterm and have LBW.

ANC is an important influence in preventing maternal mortality and ensuring safe deliveries. Antenatal screening helps in identification of complications in pregnancies and provides information to pregnant women that can help them ensure the health of their infants and themselves. Utilization of ANC services also leads to the use of safe delivery care. Under-utilization of ANC results from a combination of lack of facilities providing ANC and women’s socio-cultural and economic circumstances. The uptake of ANC services in Punjab is relatively low and shows a large rural-urban bias with only 50% of rural women using ANC as opposed to 71% of urban women.

From 2016 to 2017, ANC first visits increased by 33% and the number of followup visits increased by 31.8%.

4.6.4.1 Antenatal visits

According to WHO standards, pregnant women should visit ANC facilities at least four times during pregnancy. Figure 4.30 shows the trends in first and follow up ANC visits at health facilities in Punjab from 2015 to 2017. At all public health facilities providing ANC, the number of first visits shows a steady increase. From 2015 to 2016, there
was an overall increase of 5.6% in first ANC visits. Visits in 2017 showed a 33% increase over number of first visits in 2016. The number of follow up visits also increased but they remained less than the number of first ANC visits. The

![First and Follow-up Antenatal Care Visits in Punjab (2015 to 2017)](image)

Although the increasing number of first visits is an encouraging development, maximizing the benefits provided by ANC requires follow-up visits. In Punjab, however, number of first visits exceeded follow-up visits at all health facilities. Figure 4.31 shows first and follow-up ANC visits at different health facilities in Punjab. In 2017, there were 3,861,204 first ANC visits and 3,221,204 follow-up visits. In all facilities, the number of follow-up visits was less than first visits indicating that a lot pregnant women did not complete the recommended four visits. The difference in follow-up visits was most discernible in DHQs where follow-up visits only accounted for 34.6% of total ANC visits.

![First and Follow-up Antenatal Care Visits in Punjab (2017)](image)

Figure 4.32 shows district-wise first and follow-up ANC visits at health facilities. In 8 districts, the number of follow-up visits exceeded first visits indicating better service delivery. The greatest difference in follow-up and first visits was in Sargodha, Gujrat and Sialkot where follow-up visits made up 64.7%, 62.4% and 60.7% of total visits respectively. Districts with the lowest percentage of follow-up visits were Pakpattan (27.4%), Lodhran (31%) and Bahawalnagar (31.5%).
4.6.4.2 Anemia in Women using Antenatal facilities

Anemia is a condition in which there are an insufficient number of red blood cells to meet physiological needs of the body. Pregnant women with hemoglobin levels below 10g/dl are considered to be anemic and anemia is one of the leading causes of maternal mortality, especially within low-income groups in developing countries. Anemic pregnancies are also more likely to result in pre-term births and LBW infants.

It is estimated that in Pakistan, 47% of rural women and 26% of urban women who have ever married (aged 15-44) are anemic.

Figure 4.33 shows the number of women who were anemic at their first ANC visit from 2015 to 2017. In 2017, there were 774,371 cases of anemia at first ANC visit as compared to 720,963 cases in 2016, showing an increase of 7.4%.
Figure 4.34 shows district wise distribution of the number of women suffering from anemia at their first ANC visit in 2016 and 2017. In 2016, 24.8% of women were anemic at their first ANC visit. In 2017, 20% of women availing their first ANC visit were anemic. In the urban areas of Lahore, Rawalpindi and Faisalabad, reported cases of anemia fell by 85.4%, 62.9% and 22.6% respectively. The greatest growth in reported anemia cases was seen in Chiniot, Layyah and Dera Ghazi Khan where anemia cases increased by 92.9%, 91.9% and 77.5% respectively. These trends show that urban women are less likely to suffer from anemia as opposed to rural women.

The high prevalence of anemia in pregnant women across Punjab makes ANC visits even more important. Research has found that quality ANC helps in preventing anemia from causing complications that lead to maternal morbidity and mortality by creating awareness of good nutritional and prenatal practices. 216

4.6.6 Births in Health Facilities

Childbirths in medical institutes in the presence of skilled attendants are related to lower maternal and child mortality as compared to home births. 217 Most maternal deaths during pregnancy occur during delivery or within the first 24 hours following birth. Therefore, attended childbirth needs to be a core component of primary healthcare strategies. 218 Decisions regarding childbirth are influenced by physical and social accessibility of maternal health facilities. Physical accessibility is the availability of primary health centers with the requisite staff that are situated within 2 to 5 km or 20 to 60 minutes walking distance from a proportion of the population. Social accessibility is the individual, familial, societal and religious attitudes that influence decision-making regarding the utilization of health services for childbirth. 219 Punjab suffers from low physical and social accessibility to primary health services as skilled attendants attend only 41% of all births. 219 This section looks at trends in births at primary health facilities in Punjab.

215 [Aneey & Ibrahim, 2015]
216 [Stekelenburg, et al., 2004]
217 [Pfeifer & Mwasipo, 2013]
218 [Ali, Bhatti, & Kuroiwa, 2008]
219 [Chaudhry, 2015]
4.6.6.1 Live Births

From 2016 to 2017, the number of live births across health facilities in Punjab increased from 826,750 to 1,024,221, an increase of 23.9%. Figure 4.35 shows district wise distribution of live births for 2017 and district wise live births for 2016. In all districts except Khushab, the number of live births in health facilities increased. In Khushab, the number of live births in health facilities decreased by 3.1%. The greatest increase was seen in Multan (67.6%), Mandi Bahauddin (44.9%) and Rahim Yar Khan (43.6%).

Increasing utilization of primary health facilities for childbirth, especially in the relatively more conservative districts of south Punjab, indicates the increasing physical accessibility of maternal health services as well as changing social attitudes towards childbirth in medical institutes. In the heavily populated urban centers of Lahore and Rawalpindi, the number of child births at public health facilities remained relatively constant in 2016 and 2017. However, this is not commensurate to the population due to a considerable presence of private health service providers.

4.6.6.2 Births by Cesarean Sections

WHO recommended limit for C-sections falls between 10-15% of all deliveries at health facilities. Less than 5% of births by C-section imply poor maternal and child health facility availability.220 In Punjab, 19% of all births at health facilities (public and private) are estimated to be C-sections. The prevalence of births by C-section shows an urban bias with 27% of all deliveries in urban areas done by C-sections as opposed to 15% in rural areas.221 From 2016 to 2017, the number of deliveries at public health facilities by C-section increased by 58.2%, with numbers increasing from 40,899 to 64,699. This accounted for 6.3% of all live births at health facilities and falls well below WHO recommended limits for C-Sections.

Figure 4.36 shows district wise births by C-section in 2016 and 2017. In all districts except Bahawalnagar, the number of deliveries by C-section increased. In Bahawalnagar, C-section deliveries dropped by 55.8%. In 6 districts (Dera Ghazi Khan, Chiniot, Lodhran, Sargodha, Sahiwal and Mandi Bahauddin), the number of C-section deliveries more than doubled. In Dera Ghazi Khan, C-section deliveries saw more than a fourfold increase.

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220 (Statement on Cesarian Section Rates - WHO)
221 (Pakistan Institute of Development Economics)
4.6.6.2 Births by Cesarean Sections

From 2016 to 2017, the number of deliveries at public health facilities by C-section increased from 40,899 to 64,699, which is a more than a fourfold increase. This increase is commensurate to the population due to a considerable presence of private health service providers.

In 6 districts (Dera Ghazi Khan, Chiniot, Lodhran, Sargodha, Sahiwal and Mandi Bahauddin) except Bahawalnagar, the number of deliveries by C-section increased. In Bahawalnagar, C-section deliveries dropped by 55.8%.

In 221 centers of Lahore and Rawalpindi, the number of childbirths at public health centers of Lahore and Rawalpindi, the number of childbirths at public health services in the Punjab Institute of Development Economics) (BHU (2017) and THQ (2017) increased by 58.2%, with numbers increasing from 40,899 to 64,699.

In the heavily populated urban areas of Faisalabad (92.8%), Rawalpindi (91.8%), and Multan (75.1%), C-section increased by 23.9%.

Figure 4.36 shows district wise births by C-section in 2016 and 2017. In all districts, the number of live births in health facilities decreased by 3.1%. The greatest increase was seen in Multan (67.6%), with LBW.

4.6.6.1 Live Births

Infants born weighing less than 2.5 kg at birth are classified as LBW babies. The causes for LBW in neonates are a host of maternal health factors including non-pregnant weight, maternal height and severe anemia during pregnancy. WHO estimates that 748,100 children born in Pakistan annually suffer from LBW. Research has found that mother’s education level, rural residence, lack of ANC and family planning are significant risk factors associated with LBW.

From 2016 to 2017, the number of Low Birth Weight babies in Punjab fell by 37.2% from 27,224 in 2016 to 17,093 in 2017, reflecting a 37.2% decrease. District wise analysis shows uneven trends in incidence of LBW. In 16 districts, the number of LBW babies declined whereas increases were seen in 20 districts. The large overall drop in LBW babies can be attributed largely to sharp declines in LBW babies in 6 relatively urban districts. The greatest drop in incidence of LBW babies was observed in Faisalabad (92.8%), Rawalpindi (91.8%), and Multan (75.1%). Conversely, Mianwali (334%), Chiniot (137%) and Lodhran (134%) show the greatest increases.

Further analysis on causes of declining LBW babies in urban areas can lead to more focused primary healthcare interventions in rural districts where incidence of LBW babies is rising. Figure 4.37 shows district wise incidence of LBW babies in Punjab in 2017.

Infants born weighing less than 2.5 kg at birth are classified as LBW babies. The causes for LBW in neonates are a host of maternal health factors including non-pregnant weight, maternal height and severe anemia during pregnancy. WHO estimates that 748,100 children born in Pakistan annually suffer from LBW. Research has found that mother’s education level, rural residence, lack of ANC and family planning are significant risk factors associated with LBW.

Overall, the number of LBW babies in Punjab fell from 27,224 in 2016 to 17,093 in 2017, reflecting a 37.2% decrease. District wise analysis shows uneven trends in incidence of LBW. In 16 districts, the number of LBW babies declined whereas increases were seen in 20 districts. The large overall drop in LBW babies can be attributed largely to sharp declines in LBW babies in 6 relatively urban districts. The greatest drop in incidence of LBW babies was observed in Faisalabad (92.8%), Rawalpindi (91.8%), and Multan (75.1%). Conversely, Mianwali (334%), Chiniot (137%) and Lodhran (134%) show the greatest increases. Further analysis on causes of declining LBW babies in urban areas can lead to more focused primary healthcare interventions in rural districts where incidence of LBW babies is rising. Figure 4.37 shows district wise incidence of LBW babies in Punjab in 2017.
4.7 Conclusion

Despite increasing investments in the provision of primary healthcare, Punjab is still struggling to overcome its poor levels of public health, especially amongst women. Women in Punjab have shorter life expectancies as compared to men largely as a result of high MMRs, lack of access to health facilities, fewer female doctors and poor physical and social access to reproductive health services.

District wise analysis of access to standard public health services reveals significant rural-urban differences in the province. Health infrastructure, particularly specialized healthcare, is concentrated in heavily populated urban centers marginalizing citizens of rural Punjab. Women’s reproductive health, in rural areas in particular, is of specific concern. Current health infrastructure and capacity needs to be expanded particularly as health facilities in rural and urban areas cannot meet demand for healthcare. Punjab suffers from high rates of maternal morbidity and mortality that lead to poor health and nutritional outcomes for infants and young children.

Any definitive conclusions and causalities between gender and health indicators are difficult to ascertain due to a severe lack of gender-disaggregated data on general health indicators. However, the in-depth analysis of reproductive health in Punjab presents avenues for further research that can provide additional evidence for creating better, gender-sensitive health policies.

4.8 Recommendations

Policy/Legislative:

Create a holistic health policy

i. Current provincial health policy was devised around the MDGs. It needs to be reviewed to align it with the SDG Agenda. Particularly, strategies for water and sanitation, family planning and reproductive healthcare need to be mapped onto SDG targets.

ii. Provincial policy should put greater emphasis on disease prevention, including expansion of immunization and nutrition programs and improved maternal and child health services.

iii. A mental health policy with a focus on needs-based expansion of mental health services should be introduced. Mental health facilities should not only be concentrated in urban centers but should also be provided in DHQs.

iv. Standard data collection procedures need to be established by P&SHD and SH&MED to ensure accurate information collection.

Gender sensitize health related curriculum

i. Medical education curriculum should be reviewed and revised to be more gender-sensitive. Curriculum updates should include modules on reproductive healthcare.

ii. Teaching modules on preventive health practices, reproductive health and puberty should to be added to the school curriculum.

Procedural

Increase human resources and health infrastructure especially in rural areas

i. Women should be encouraged to work in healthcare by ensuring a healthy and safe work environment.
4.7 Conclusion

Despite increasing investments in the provision of primary healthcare, Punjab is still struggling to overcome its poor levels of public health, especially amongst women. Women in Punjab have shorter life expectancies as compared to men largely as a result of high MMRs, lack of access to health facilities, fewer female doctors and poor physical and social access to reproductive health services.

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Procedural

i. Women should be encouraged to work in healthcare by ensuring a healthy and safe work environment.

ii. The ongoing infrastructure revamping drive of health facilities in districts should be scaled to all 36 Districts. Diagnostic facilities for health conditions such as cancer and fistula should be made available at the district level.

iii. Recent district level collaborations to run call centers, ambulance service, drug supply and management of health facilities should be expanded further.

Scale up and improve reproductive healthcare delivery

i. IRMNCH and PWD should be merged with the Primary and Secondary Health Department. Quality of ANC needs to be improved to ensure women appear for follow up visits.

ii. More women at the community level should be trained as LHWs to disseminate key information on reproductive health as well as shape community attitudes towards pregnancy and delivery practices.

iii. Ensure that women, especially in remote areas, have greater access to emergency obstetric care through existing free pick and drop ambulance service.

iv. Cash transfer programs to encourage better health practices such as ANC visits and nutritional improvement for pregnant and lactating mothers and infants need to be implemented.
EDUCATION

KEY FINDINGS

In 2015-16, Literacy Rate (10 years and above) in Punjab was 63% and remained unchanged from 2014-15. Male literacy of 72% was significantly higher than female literacy of 54%.

In 2014-15, the adult Literacy Rate (15 years and above) was 69% for males and 51% for females. These rates are higher than national averages of 68% for males and 45% for females. However, they are still significantly lower than global averages of 90% for males and 82% for females.

Net Enrollment Rates at the primary level declined from 64% in 2011-12 to 59% in 2015-16. This decline was accompanied by a decrease in gender gap in enrollment, from 3% in 2014-15 to 2% in 2015-16.

In 2011-12, 65% of boys aged 5-9 were enrolled in school as compared to 62% of girls in the same age bracket. In 2015-16, 60% of boys were enrolled as compared to only 58% of girls.

In 2015-16, the average Survival Rate for girls and boys in Punjab was 66% and 67% respectively. In 14 of 36 districts, the Survival Rate for girls was higher than the Survival Rate for boys. In no district was the overall Survival Rate 100%. Rajanpur, Bhakkar, Jhelum and Chiniot had the highest gender disparity.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of formal public schools in Punjab increased from 51,416 to 51,499. Of these, 27,504 (53.4%) are boys' schools and 23,995 (46.6%) are girls' schools. 36,059 (70%) are primary schools, 8,358 (16.3%) are middle schools, 6,402 (12.4%) are high schools and 680 (1.3%) are higher secondary institutions.

With each successive level of schooling, the number of formal schools declines rapidly. There were 77% fewer middle schools as compared to primary schools with 81% fewer middle schools for boys and 71% fewer middle schools for girls.

The number of high schools available to boys and girls as compared to middle schools declined by 8.7% and 35% respectively. Overall, there were 89% fewer higher secondary institutions as compared to high schools with a drop of 90% and 88% in institutions for boys and girls respectively.

There is approximate parity in the availability of facilities in girls and boys schools. Almost 99.4% of schools have an adequate supply of drinking water and usable toilets, 96.7% of schools have access to electricity, 97.7% of schools have a main gate, and 98.5% have a boundary wall.

In 2017-18, there were 5,562,486 (47%) boys and 6,175,184 (53%) girls enrolled in public formal schools as compared to 5,864,961 boys (52%) and 5,406,337 (48%) girls in 2016-17. The number of male students decreased by 5.2% whereas the number of female students increased by 14.2% resulting in an increase in GPI from 0.922 in 2016-17 to 1.11 in 2017-18.*

In 2016-17, gender parity in enrollment was achieved by 12 of Punjab's 36 districts as compared to only 8 districts in 2015-16. In 9 of these 12 districts, female enrollment is higher than male enrollment. Across all districts, total enrollment decreased with each successive grade.

*Note: Data for public schools used in this report is from PESRP school census conducted in 2016-17 academic year. However, this key finding shows the latest enrollment figures collected for the 2017-18 academic year and were received just before the report was finalized for print.
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*Note: Data for public schools used in this report is from PERSP school census conducted in 2016-17 academic year. However, this key finding shows the latest enrollment figures collected for the 2017-18 academic year and were received just before the report was finalized for print.
In 2016-17, 403,929 trainees were enrolled in Technical and Vocational Education and Training. Of these, 260,947 (64.6%) were males and 142,982 (35.4%) were females, with a GPI of 0.547.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of teachers employed in formal schools increased from 335,344 to 341,939, reflecting an increase of 2%. Of the teachers employed in 2015-16, 154,426 (45%) are males and 187,513 (55%) are females, with a GPI of 1.21.

Punjab has a Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) of 33:1, which is much higher than the global average of 18:1. In none of the districts is the PTR lower than the global average.

From 2014-15 to 2015-16, the number of Grade 5 students who could read sentences in English decreased from 60% to 57%, and students who could read stories in Urdu declined from 70% to 65%.

From 2014-15 to 2015-16, learning levels in Arithmetic showed a slight improvement with the percentage of Grade 5 students who could do two-digit division in Arithmetic increasing from 59% to 60%.

In the school-going age cohort of 5-16 years, 49% of boys cannot read stories in Urdu and sentences in English as compared to 52% of girls. 53% of boys and 56% of girls are unable to do subtraction in Arithmetic.
5.1 Education, Gender and Development

Education plays a pivotal role in development because it has distinct intrinsic and instrumental value. As an essential ability that is fundamental to the wellbeing of individuals and by extension, enlightened societies, it has huge potential to act as a potent redistributive and empowering tool. It has intrinsic value as it is a fundamental human right and is necessary for the achievement of wellbeing. Any inequalities that persist in people’s abilities to gain an education undoubtedly have a detrimental effect on wellbeing. Education also has great instrumental value in the form of spillover effects that can reinforce or undermine development in other areas such as political participation and economic growth.

Extensive literature documents the benefits of reducing gender inequalities in education. An increase in the average education of women results in a commensurate growth. Women make up about half of any nation’s human resource and education is paramount in increasing their capacity to participate and engage in the economy. Investment in women’s education not only bolsters income and economic growth but also positively reinforces a nation’s development agenda in health, political participation and governance.

As a developmental tool, education garners a lot of attention on the international stage. It has been endorsed and ratified as a fundamental human right in several international instruments dating back to the 1960s. Figure 5.1 shows a timeline of major international treaties that call for non-discrimination in the provision of education.

International organizations recognize that women across the globe suffer great inequities in access to quality education. This acknowledgment of gender inequality manifests itself in specific provisions in the 3 most prominent international calls to action on education; Education for All (EFA), the MDGs and SDGs. Figure 5.2 summarizes the shifts in scope, geographical coverage and policy focus in the International Education Agenda.

![Timeline of Major International Instruments](Figure 5.1)

Since the new millennium, the primary focus has moved from access to basic education to lifelong learning and quality education. The shift has happened with recognition that a large number of children in the developing world have completed primary school without basic literacy or math skills.

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225 (Sen, 1999)
226 (Klasen & Lammana, 2009)
227 (Klassen, 2002)
228 (Basu, 2002)
229 (Desai & Alva, 1998)
230 (Chaudhry & Rahman, 2009)
231 (Dollar & Gatti, 1999)
232 (UNESCO, 2004)
234 (Shifer, 2016)
SDGs are the successor to both the EFA and the MDGs, which expired in 2015. SDG 4 on education has a more universal outlook in terms of geographical scope and it focuses on lifelong learning instead of basic primary education only. Specific provisions within goal 4 set out targets that encompass access to basic education as well as indicators of quality and lifelong learning. SDG 4 has 7 outcome targets and 3 implementation targets. The outcome targets are provided in Figure 5.3.\textsuperscript{235}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure5.3.png}
\caption{Sustainable Development Goal 4}
\end{figure}

It is pertinent to note that Pakistan did not meet any of the education goals set out by the EFA or the MDGs upon their expiry in 2015. It has, however, committed to actively pursue the 2030 sustainable development agenda. Education falls under the purview of the provincial administration following the 18th Amendment to the Constitution and Article 25-A in the Constitution guarantees ‘free and compulsory education to all children between 5-16 years’.\textsuperscript{236} To this end, Vision 2025 outlines a comprehensive goal oriented policy aligned with the SDGs. The Planning and Development Commission in charge of Vision 2025, has made a commitment to increase the primary enrollment rate to 100%, Literacy Rate (LR) to 90% and the coverage of higher education from 7% to 12% by 2025.\textsuperscript{237} The Punjab government has also undertaken several programs aimed at improving access to education. These include the establishment of Daanish schools in remote areas, collaboration with private sector under the Punjab Education Foundation (PEF), creation of the Punjab Education Sector Reform Program (PESRP) that streamlines donor-funded projects for more efficient resource allocation and the Parho Punjab, Barho Punjab school reform roadmap that aims to enroll all children in school by 2018.\textsuperscript{238}

\textsuperscript{235} Sustainable Development Goals, United Nations
\textsuperscript{236} (PILDAT, 2011)
\textsuperscript{237} See Ministry of Planning and Development http://pc.gov.pk/vision/goals
\textsuperscript{238} See Office of the Chief Minister of Punjab http://www.cm.punjab.gov.pk/educationsector
5.2 Organization of Analysis:

In order to assess the extent of gender parity in education in Punjab, the indicators for education have been divided into two categories: access and quality. Indicators that signify access to education include physical infrastructure and types of schools, enrollment rates in various levels of education, enrollment in vocational training, and transition rates. Quality Indicators include an examination of pupil teacher ratios, teacher qualifications, learning levels and survival rates. This chapter also provides baseline national and provincial education profiles that include a brief overview of the education system, LR, out of school children, dropout rates and an appraisal of the provincial education budget.

This chapter is structured as follows:

i. National Education Profile
   a. Public Education System
   b. Pakistan Education Profile

ii. Provincial Education Profile
   a. Literacy Rates
   b. Net Enrollment Rates
   c. Out of School Children
   d. Education Budget

iii. Access to Education
   a. Infrastructure: Types of Schools
   b. Enrollment in Formal schools
   c. Enrollment in Non Formal Schools
   d. Enrollment in Special Education

iv. Quality of Education
   a. Teacher Availability
   b. Pupil Teacher Ratio
   c. Teacher Qualification Levels
   d. Survival Rates
   e. Learning Levels
5.3 National Education Profile

5.3.1 Public Education System

The public education system of Pakistan comprises of 12 years of schooling. Children typically start school between the ages of 3-5 years. Figure 5.4 shows the hierarchy of public schooling from pre-primary to higher secondary as well as the typical ages of students in each tier. 239 In Pakistan, the private sector supports a huge number of students. In 2016, 58% of all students in Pakistan attended public schools whereas 42% students were enrolled in private institutions. 240

Figure 5.4

239 Vocational training is not considered part of the regular school system.
240 (Pakistan Education Statistics 2015-16)
5.3.2 Pakistan Education Profile

Pakistan ranks 136th out of 144 countries in the Education Attainment Index of the Global Gender Gap Report 2017. Numerous socio-cultural reasons contribute to low learning levels of girls in the country. These include but are not limited to financial constraints, conservative social attitudes, sub-par quality of teaching, difficulties accessing transportation, and lack of girls’ schools in some areas. Despite governmental efforts, access to education in Pakistan is not universal as promised in the Constitution. This is depicted by a stagnant adult LR that remained at 60% between 2013 and 2016. By contrast, the average LR of the world’s population increased from 84% to 86% in the same time period. Within this already low baseline, huge gender gaps exist with a male LR of 70% as compared to a female LR of 49% in 2016.

Only 56% of Pakistan’s children are attending school. Fewer girls (51%) are enrolled in school as compared to boys (60%). The number of out of school children across the country is alarmingly high. From grades 1-12, a staggering 22,637,492 children (44% of the entire school going age cohort) are not enrolled in any school. A closer look at this data reveals that 49% of the girls’ cohort is out of school as compared to 40% of the boys’ cohort. The number of out of school children increases rapidly from primary to middle to secondary schools. The number of out of school children in primary is 17% as compared to 51% in middle school and 68% in secondary school.

It is interesting to note, however, that the gender gap in enrollment decreases as we move towards higher levels of schooling; from 12% in primary, to 8% in middle and secondary schools. The decrease in enrollment may be a result of lower numbers of middle and secondary schools, especially in rural areas, resulting from policies that emphasize basic or primary education. Governmental emphasis on basic education results in lower availability of middle and secondary schools for girls, especially in rural areas. This lack of infrastructure contributes to the sharp decline in middle and secondary enrollment. The Survival Rates of children in education are also low in Pakistan (66% in 2015-16), with the Survival Rates for girls (65%) lower than that for boys (67%). These Rates imply that a large number of children drop out of primary school before they reach grade 5.

5.4 Punjab Education Profile

5.4.1 Literacy Rates

Figure 5.5 depicts LR’s from PSLM (2014-15) and the Household Integrated Income and Consumption Survey (HIICS) 2015-16.

![Figure 5.5](source: PSLM 2014-15, HIICS 2015-16)

241 (Global Gender Gap Report, 2017)
242 (Pakistan Education Statistics 2015-16)
243 See World Bank Data: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR.ZS
244 (Pakistan Education Statistics 2015-16)
245 Ibid
246 Ibid
Lrs (10 years and above) in Punjab saw no change between 2014-15 and 2015-16 and remained at 63%. However, the male LR increased from 71% to 72% whereas the female LR declined from 55% to 54%. In 2015-16, LRs in urban areas were significantly higher for both males (82%) and females (73%) as compared to LRs of males (66%) and females (44%) in rural areas. In 2015-16, the gender gap between men and women in rural areas was 22%, which more than twice as large as the gender gap in LRs of urban residents that stood at 9%. Urban LR remained constant at 78% between the 2 years with a male LR of 82% and a female LR of 73%. By contrast, whilst the overall LR in rural areas remained at 55%, the gender gap widened with male LR increasing from 65% to 66% and female LR declining from 45% to 44%. Rural females are the most disadvantaged in terms of education, especially when compared to their urban counterparts. In 2015-16, the gap between rural and urban female literacy stood at 29% as compared to the gap between rural and urban male literacy, which stood at 16%. Differences in the gender gap in LRs in rural and urban areas result from conservative social attitudes, lower income levels as compared to urban areas, and inequitable access to resources within households.

5.4.2 Adult Literacy Rate

The UN defines adult literacy as "the percentage of the population aged 15 years and over who can both read and write with understanding a short simple statement on their everyday life." In 2015, global averages for adult male and female literacy were 90% and 82% respectively. By contrast, adult literacy for males and females in Pakistan was 68% and 45% respectively. Whilst Punjab had adult literacy levels for males (69%) and females (51%) that were higher than the national average, these fell far below the international averages for adult literacy. Figure 5.6 provides a district-wise breakdown of adult literacy in Punjab. Significant gaps between male and female LRs can be observed in all districts.

In 16 districts (44%), female literacy levels were below 40%. Rajanpur had the lowest level of male and female literacy at 46% and 20% respectively followed by Dera Ghazi Khan with male literacy of 53% and female literacy of 24% and Muzaffargarh with male and female literacy of 55% and 26% respectively. Rawalpindi had the highest overall literacy levels (81%) with male literacy at 90% and female literacy at 72% followed by Lahore with overall literacy of 77.5%. In Lahore, male literacy levels stood at 81% and female literacy was 74%. Even in these relatively more 'literate' districts, the gap between male and female literacy was stark and stood at 18% and 7% respectively.

Source: PSLM 2014-15

Figure 5.6

247 (Pakistan Economic Survey 2016-17)
248 (Pirzado, 2006)
250 See World Bank Data https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR MA.ZS?view=chart
5.4.3 Net Enrollment Rates

The Net Enrollment Rate (NER) is defined as the number of children of official primary age, who are enrolled in primary education as a percentage of the total children of the school age population.\textsuperscript{251}

Figure 5.7 shows NERs at the primary level for children between the ages of 5-9 from 2011-12 to 2015-16. The gender gap is persistent with more boys enrolled than girls across the 4 years. The figure also depicts a declining trend in enrollment for both boys and girls. From 2011-12 to 2013-14, the overall NER remained the same (64%). However, it dropped to 61% in 2014-15 along with a widening of the gender gap from 3% to 4%. In 2015-16, overall NER declined further to 59% however, the gender gap narrowed to 2%. Declining NERs and the persistent gender gap are indicative of decreasing access to schools, especially for girls.

\textbf{From 2011-12 to 2015-16, the Net Enrollment Rate for females dropped from 64% to 58%}

\textbf{Figure 5.7}

5.4.4 Out of School Children (OOSC)

Despite huge government investment in increasing school access, Pakistan had a staggering 22.6 million children between the ages of 5-16 out of school in 2015-16. Of these, 53.5% were girls and 46.5% were boys. 9,922,822 of these children belong to Punjab.\textsuperscript{252} Of the 9,922,822 OOSC, 5,027,783 (50.7%) were female and 4,895,040 (49.3%) were male.

The number of OOSC increased from primary to middle school by 72%. From middle to high school, the number of OOSC fell by 18.6%. The number of OOSC rose by 48.7% from high to higher secondary level. Gender disparity in OOSC manifested most clearly at the primary level where 913,394 (57%) girls as opposed to 683,466 (43%) boys were out of school. In middle, high and higher secondary schools, the number of OOSC girls and boys were relatively equivalent. The increasing numbers of OOSC at the higher levels of education indicate a lack of access beyond primary school as the number of public middle, high and higher secondary schools falls drastically (refer to Figure 5.10). Figure 5.8 shows the number of OOSC at each school level in Punjab.

\textsuperscript{252} (Pakistan Education Statistics, 2015-16)
5.4.4 Education Budget

Provision of education as a public good has been part of global public policy since 1945. In large part, it is dependent on the availability and efficient use of financial resources. Internationally recommended spending on education is 4% of a nation’s GDP. Pakistan has, however, never met that benchmark.

For the Fiscal Year (FY) 2017-18, the government of Punjab earmarked 345 billion rupees for education, which amounts to 17.5% of the total provincial budget. Rs. 74.1 billion (21.4%) has been assigned to development and Rs. 270.9 billion (78.6%) to non-development expenditures. Of the 270.9 billion rupees allocated to non-development expenditures, 230 billion has been set aside for District Education Authorities (DEAs) to improve the efficiency of the education system.

Figures 5.9 and 5.10 examine trends in the allocation of financial resources for education from 2013-14 to 2017-18. As seen in Figure 5.9, the overall education budget has seen a consistent increase in absolute terms. From 2016-17 to 2017-18, the education budget increased by 10.6%. However, whilst the absolute amount set aside for education has increased, the share of the total provincial budget allocated to education has seen a steady decline over the same time period. Figure 5.10 shows that since 2013-14, education’s share in the provincial budget has declined from 26% to 17.5%.

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253 (Davier, 2016)
254 (Haider, 2014)
255 (Budget White Paper 2017-18)
256 (Punjab Education Budget 2017-18 at a glance, 2017)
257 (Sheikh, 2017)
258 (Punjab cuts education budget for 9th consecutive year, 2016)
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5.5 Access to Education

Increasing the number of schools is a common policy lever employed to promote school access, outputs and outcomes. School and infrastructure availability are correlated with enrollment as parental decisions take into account factors such as educational facilities, teacher quality, and distance from school. Lack of school availability restricts access to education, especially for girls. In the absence of government focus on widening access for girls through public provision of schools, education decisions made at the household level result in an under-investment in girls’ education. This is because whilst the benefits of educating girls are public, the costs are privatized.

This section takes a closer look at public school availability and gender disaggregated enrollment patterns in Punjab. It presents an in-depth analysis of infrastructure and enrollment in formal schools, Punjab Education Foundation (PEF) schools, non-formal schools and technical and vocational institutes.

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Note: Page numbers and references are not included in the natural text representation.
5.5.1 Infrastructure

5.5.1.1 Formal Schools

Formal education is classroom-based, with a prescribed curriculum, and leads to a credential upon completion (such as certificates or diplomas). Formal education is also guided and recognized by the government. From 2015-16 to 2016-2017, the number of formal schools increased nominally from 51,416 to 51,499. Of these, 27,504 (53.4%) were boys' schools and 23,995 (46.6%) schools were for girls. Of the total number of formal schools, 36,059 (70%) were primary schools, 8,358 (16.3%) were middle schools, 6,402 (12.4%) were high schools and 680 (1.3%) were higher secondary institutions. Figure 5.11 shows the number of schools at each level in Punjab.

The number of schools for both boys and girls falls alarmingly with each successive level. There are 77% fewer middle schools as compared to primary schools with 81% fewer middle schools for boys and 71% fewer middle schools for girls. The number of high schools available to boys and girls as compared to middle schools declines by 8.7% and 35% respectively. The most alarming decline in number of schools can be seen in the transition from high schools to higher secondary schools. Overall, there are 89% fewer higher secondary institutions as compared to high schools with a drop of 90% and 88% in institutions for boys and girls respectively.

District-wise analysis reveals a large difference in availability of schools. However, the trend of declining school access at higher levels of education persists across all districts. In all districts, the number of schools available at each successive level of education drops sharply. For example, in Rahim Yar Khan, there are 1,115 boys' primary schools and 1,108 girls' primary schools. The number of middle schools for boys and girls in Rahim Yar Khan declined by 83% to 195 and 188 respectively.

Moving from middle to high schools, there is a 37% and 55% decline in school availability with only 130 boys' high schools and 84 girls' high schools. The most drastic drop in school access occurs at the transition between high schools and higher secondary institutes with a 93% and 86% decline to 9 boys' schools and 12 girls' schools. Figure 5.12 shows a district and level wise breakdown of schools in Punjab.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of formal schools showed a negligible increase from 51,416 to 51,499.

70% of public formal schools in Punjab are

[Source: Punjab Education Sector Reform Programme (PESRP)]
Formal Schools under Punjab Education on Sector Reform Programme (2016-17) 

District Wise

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
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<th>High</th>
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<td>Boys School Girls School</td>
<td>Boys School Girls School</td>
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<td>Multan</td>
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<td>416</td>
<td>91</td>
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</table>
| Punjab Education Foundation (PEF) Schools

Private schools make up a large part of the educational landscape in Pakistan and collaboration between the public and private sphere is important to maintain quality of education. PEF is a government organization focusing on building public-private partnerships to promote access through the provision of technical and financial assistance, and innovation and technology to low income private schools and their students. PEF has the following 4 programs:

1. Pakistan School Support Program (PSSP):

PSSP aims to support schools and increase enrollment of OOSC as well as improve the performance of low performing public schools by providing improved teaching and learning facilities. PSSP has 4,282 schools and supports 0.53 million students.

2. Foundation Assisted Schools (FAS):

FAS provide technical and financial assistance to low-income schools in rural, urban and slum areas across 36 districts. FAS supports 3,508 schools and caters to approximately 1.84 million students.

3. New School Program (NSP):

NSP helps private entrepreneurs in the education sector to establish new schools in remote and under-served areas of Punjab. NSP has 2,127 schools across 36 districts and provides access to 0.24 million students.

As the rate of returns to primary education for individuals and society are the highest, having fewer institutions at higher levels of education highlights the government’s focus on providing basic education.264 Fewer schools with each progressive education level, however, results in a drastic decline in the number of children able to continue schooling. Especially telling is the decline in higher secondary institutions, the entry into tertiary education in Pakistan. Restricted access to higher education levels will result in a workforce that is overwhelmingly concentrated in the informal sector pursuing low skill jobs.265

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264 (Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2004)
265 (Watkins, 2013)
4. Education Voucher Scheme (EVS):

EVS provides access to private schools through a voucher scheme for under-privileged children who would otherwise remain out of school. EVS partners with 1,663 schools and provides vouchers to 0.51 million students.

Under its programs, PEF has 11,580 schools.\textsuperscript{26} PEF’s programs are focused on provision of increased access to under-privileged children, improvement of school infrastructure and teacher quality. Owing to poor school infrastructure and low teacher quality, south Punjab’s districts lag behind their northern counterparts.\textsuperscript{27} Moreover, the enrollment of girls in schools is lower due to prevalent gender biases and high levels of poverty.\textsuperscript{28} Therefore, PEF has identified south Punjab as a key target area for intervention. 67% of PEF partner schools are situated in south Punjab and 69% of PEF beneficiaries hail from the region. Muzaffargarh has the highest number of PEF partner schools.

Figure 5.13 shows district-wise distribution of PEF partner schools in 2016-17. The figure highlights the number of schools under Punjab Education Foundation (2016-17) in various districts of Punjab.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure513.png}
\caption{Figure 5.13}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{26} (Most beneficiaries hail from south Punjab: PEF, 2016)

\textsuperscript{27} Ibid

\textsuperscript{28} (Gender Sector Brief- Punjab 2012 )

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### Schools under Punjab Education Foundation (2016-17)

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<th>NSP</th>
<th>EVS</th>
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</table>

\footnotesize{Number}

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5.5.1.3 Informal Schools

The masjid-maktab schools were introduced in Pakistan under the Education Policy and Implementation Program (1979) with the aim of increasing access to basic education, especially in rural areas. With the increase in formal primary schools, masjid maktab schools have slowly been merged into regular primary, high and higher secondary schools. As a result, the number of government sanctioned masjid-maktab schools has dropped from 8,042 in 2004 to 732 in 2017. Figure 5.14 shows the number of masjid maktab schools in Punjab in 2015-16 and 2016-17. There is a drop in the number of boys' schools from 774 to 710. However, the number of girls' schools increased from 17 to 22. As these schools cater to areas where formal primary education is generally unavailable, they are instrumental in ensuring that all children receive primary education.

5.5.1.4 Non-Formal and Basic Education

Non-formal education constitutes all educational activities including primary education, vocational training, adult literacy programs that fall outside the formal standardized education system endorsed by the government of Pakistan or an authorized international syndicate or board. The Centers established by the Literacy and Non-Formal Basic Education (NFBE) Department are important in achieving the SDG target of adult literacy by 2030. These Centers aim to increase literacy and numeracy skills for OOSC, youths and adults. NFBE Centers are established in areas where formal primary schools are not available. Overall, there are 13,783 Centers across the 36 districts. Of these, 11,592 (84.1%) are Non-formal and Basic Education (NFBE) Centers, 722 (5.2%) are Adult Learning Centers (ALCs) and 1,469 are Feeders, Centers in Brick Kilns and Adolescent Centers (10.7%). The highest number of non-formal education Centers is present in Khanewal, Bahawalnagar and Kasur and the lowest numbers are in Faisalabad, Sialkot and Mandi Bahauddin. Whilst NFBE Centers are present in all districts, ALCs are present in 12 districts only. Figure 5.15 depicts the Centers established by the NFBE Department in all 36 districts.

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269 Ali, Bashir, & Saeed, 2016
270 (PESRP, 2010)
271 See Dawn News, 13,763 mosque schools in the country. (April, 2004)
272 (Iqbal & Malik, 2004)
273 (Literacy & Non-Formal Basic Education Department)
274 (Iqbal & Malik, 2004)
5.5.1.5 Technical and Vocational Schools

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as “those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.”275 The main objective of TVET is to equip unskilled youth and adults with skills that are in demand in the labour market.276

5.5.1.5.1 Punjab Vocational Training Council

The Punjab Vocational Training Council (PVTC) is one of the major providers of TVET in Punjab. In collaboration with national and international development agencies, PVTC provides skills training in over 100 trades.277

In 2017, PVTC operated 348 technical and vocational schools. Of these institutes, 36 (10.3%) were for males, 106 (30.5%) were for females and 206 (59.2%) enrolled both male and female trainees. The highest number of institutes was located in Lahore, Rawalpindi and Sahiwal with 23, 22 and 20 institutes respectively. In contrast, Chiniot had 3 institutes followed by Narowal with only 4 institutes. Dera Ghazi Khan, Hafizabad and Pakpattan had 5 institutes each. Five districts (Chiniot, Hafizabad, Pakpattan, Nankana Sahib, and Toba Tek Singh) had no separate institutes for women. Figure 5.16 shows district level availability of PVTC institutes in Punjab.

5.5.1.5.2 Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority

The Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority (TEVTA) aims to improve Punjab’s global competitiveness through vocational training programs that contribute to increasing the skill level of the labour force.278 From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of TEVTA institutes remained unchanged. Of the 394 TEVTA institutes, 221 (56%) were for males and 173 (44%) were for females. Lahore had

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275 (UN Terminology of Technical and Vocational Education, 1984)
276 (Connell, Lowe, Skilbeck, & Tait, 2002)
277 (Punjab Vocational Training Council)
278 (Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority)
the highest number of institutes (29) followed by Rawalpindi and Faisalabad with 25 and 22 institutes respectively. Pakpattan had the lowest number with only 2 institutes followed by Hafizabad with 4 institutes. In all districts except Lahore, the number of institutes available for males was higher than those available for females. The largest gap in institute availability was in Gujranwala with only 4 institutes for females as opposed to 12 institutes for males. Pakpattan had only 2 institutes for males and none for females. Figure 5.17 shows district-wise distribution of TEVTA institutes in Punjab.

5.5.1.6 Special Education Institutes

Special education is defined by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) as "educational intervention and support designed to address special educational needs."\(^{279}\) In Punjab, special education is provided to children with special needs under the supervision of the Special Education Department.\(^{280}\) In 2017, there were 257 special education institutes in Punjab. Of these, 6 were for boys, 10 were for girls and 257 were co-educational. The highest number of special education institutes was in the urban cities of Faisalabad (22), Lahore (16) and Multan (14). Hafizabad had the lowest number of special education institutes with only 3 schools followed by Layyah, Lodhran, Mandi Bahauddin, Nankana Sahib, Narowal and Pakpattan with 4 institutes each. Only 7 districts had separate institutes for girls. Figure 5.18 shows the number of special education institutes in Punjab in 2017.

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\(^{279}\) (Florian, 2013)
\(^{280}\) (Special Education Department.)
5.5.1.7 Basic Facilities in Schools

A key avenue of increasing enrollment in schools is the provision of basic facilities. Research has shown that there are strong positive correlations between basic sanitation facilities such as sewerage systems and usable toilets and female enrollment in schools.\(^{281}\) Electrification of schools enables classes to begin early and allows for the introduction of digital Information and Communications (ICT) technology in classrooms. Conversely, schools without electricity perform poorly as meager infrastructure impacts both teachers and pupils.\(^{282}\) Lack of physical school infrastructure such as boundary walls and gates deter parents from sending girls to school.\(^{283}\) Figure 5.19 provides an overview of the availability of basic facilities in schools in Punjab.
The government has made considerable investment in providing basic facilities to encourage greater student enrollment. Overall, there is approximate parity in the availability of facilities in girls and boys schools. Almost 99.4% of schools have an adequate supply of drinking water and usable toilets, 96.7% of schools have access to electricity, 97.7% of schools have a main gate, and 98.5% have a boundary wall. Sewerage facilities, particularly in primary schools, need to be improved. Whilst 87.5% of all schools have adequate sewerage infrastructure, this percentage drops to 83.7% in primary schools.

### 5.5.2 Enrollment

Since the turn of the new millennium, international education policy has focused on universal primary education as a goal of increasing education access. Despite impressive gains, enrollment gaps still persist between different groups of children based on a multiplicity of factors. Firstly, enrollment gaps can be the result of geographical location and the rural urban divide. Secondly, enrollment disparity can be an outcome of income differentials and socio-economic status of households. Lastly, enrollment differences can be attributed to gender where boys are given preference over girls in terms of access to education. These factors are not independent of each other and where they occur in combination, they can reinforce or offset the size of the existing enrollment gap.

This section highlights patterns and trends in enrollment at the provincial and district level with a view towards achieving gender parity.

#### 5.5.2.1 Enrollment in Formal Schools

In 2016-17, 5,864,961 (52%) boys and 5,406,337 (48%) girls were enrolled in formal schools in Punjab as compared to 5,638,809 (53.3%) boys and 5,136,063 (47.7%) girls in 2015-16. The overall increase in student enrollment from 2015-16 was 4.6%. The number of male students increased by 4% whereas the number of female students increased by 5.3%, resulting in an increase in GPI from 0.910 in 2015-16 to 0.922 in 2016-17. While some improvement has been seen in achieving parity in enrollment, access to schooling still remains skewed towards boys.
Figure 5.20 shows district and class-wise enrollment of boys and girls in Punjab. Across all districts, total enrollment decreased with each successive grade. The highest enrollment was in Nursery and Prep for both boys and girls whereas grade 12 had the fewest student enrollments. In general, districts in north and central Punjab had higher enrollments per class than districts in south Punjab. The top 5 districts with the highest enrollment numbers were Faisalabad, Lahore, Rahim Yar Khan, Sargodha and Sialkot and they accounted for almost 25% of all enrollments. On the other hand, districts with the lowest enrollment were Hafizabad, Khushab, Lodhran, Rajanpur and Chiniot that accounted for only 5.5% of total enrollments in the province.

Figure 5.21 shows the GPI for enrollment across all 36 districts. 12 of Punjab’s 36 districts have achieved parity in enrollment. In 9 of these 12 districts, female enrollment is higher than male enrollment. The districts with the highest GPI are Lahore, Sialkot and Rawalpindi and the districts with lowest gender parity are Rajanpur, Bhakkar and Mianwali. Geographically, all districts that have achieved or exceeded parity are located in northern Punjab. Districts in south Punjab have comparatively lower GPIs that show the unequal access of girls to education in the region. Data shows that districts with high enrollments have greater gender parity than districts with low enrollments. Of the top 5 districts in terms of enrollment, only Rahim Yar Khan located in south Punjab has a GPI lower than 1.00. Conversely, all 5 districts with lowest enrollment numbers have a GPI below 1.00.
5.5.2.1.1 Enrollment by Level of Education

From Nursery/Prep through Grade 10, the number of boys enrolled is higher than the number of enrolled girls. This trend is reversed in Grade 11 and 12 with 19% higher female enrollment than male enrollment. Figure 5.22 shows enrollment trends according to grade level and depicts that with each successive grade, the number of enrollments declines. The sharpest dip in student numbers occurs when the transition from high schools to higher secondary schools takes place. Overall, student enrollment in grade 11 falls by an alarming 89%. The decline in male and female enrollments is 91% and 88% respectively.

In higher secondary schools, female enrollment is 19% higher than male enrollment.

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**Figure 5.21**

**Parity in Enrollment in Formal Schools in the Districts of Punjab (2016-17)**

**Figure 5.22**

**Grade-wise Enrollment in Formal Schools (2016-17)**

[Total: 11,307,228
Boys: 5,886,070
Girls: 5,421,158]
Declining access to education, especially at the middle and secondary level, can be attributed to a number of reasons. On the supply side, the large decrease in the number of middle and secondary schools results in fewer children being accepted in public schools. Distance from school impacts girls from poorer households in particular, as parents are unwilling to let girls travel long distances to reach school. On the demand side, household resource allocation and parental decisions contribute to declining enrollment. In poor households, the opportunity cost of additional years of education forces parents to remove children from school and push them into the informal labour market. Additionally, gender bias in household resource allocation, particularly in rural areas, results in fewer girls being enrolled in school, especially beyond primary grades.

5.5.2.1.2 Enrollment by Subject in Higher Secondary Education

Higher secondary education in Pakistan is the first stage of tertiary education where selection of subjects indicates the proposed career choice made by students. The choices made by male and female students are significantly influenced by supply side factors such as physical infrastructure, and social perceptions of appropriate career choices for men and women. Figure 5.23 shows subjects chosen by girls and boys at the higher secondary level in Punjab. Overall, Science, Math, Engineering and Technology (STEM) fields are chosen by less than 45% of the student body. In terms of preference, there is some similarity in the subjects chosen by girls and boys and these preferences remained mostly unaltered from 2015-16 to 2016-17. In 2016-17, 50% of the boys pursued Arts as compared to 60% of the girls. Pre-Medical was chosen by only 9% of male students as compared to 18% of female students. In Pre-Engineering, the number of male students was 17% as compared to only 7% female students. The lowest female enrollment was in I.Com with only 2% as compared to 8% for male students.

Poor infrastructure such as the lack of laboratories at the secondary level combined with a lack of qualified teachers contributes to subject selection decisions made by students. Additionally, Pakistan’s labour market has yet to create a demand for more STEM graduates resulting in more students pursuing careers in Arts. Medicine in Pakistan is considered a good career choice for women and this is reflected in higher secondary subject selection with more girls choosing pre-medical than boys.

Figure 5.23

Source: Punjab Education Sector Reform Programme (PESRP)
5.5.2.1.3 Enrollment in Higher Education

Table 5.1 shows program wise enrollment in Arts and Science Degree colleges and Post-graduate colleges in Punjab. Overall, there were 291,803 students enrolled in colleges across Punjab in 2014-15. Of these, 94,558 (32.4%) were male and 197,245 (67.6%) were female. The GPI for enrollment was 2.09. Almost twice as many females as compared to males were enrolled in colleges. The only program where more males than females were enrolled was B.Com, with a GPI of 0.881.

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</tbody>
</table>

The trends for enrollment at university level differ with more males than females enrolled. Figure 5.24 shows gender-disaggregated university enrollment in Punjab. In 2014-15, there were 323,164 students enrolled in universities. Of these, 183,579 (57%) were boys and 139,585 (43%) were girls, with an overall GPI of 0.760. A closer look at university type shows that more girls were enrolled than boys in general universities and in University of Health Science with GPIs of 1.070 and 1.682 respectively. The greatest gender gap in enrollment was observed in engineering universities, which has a GPI of 0.219. The low enrollment of females in engineering and agricultural sciences universities and the higher enrollment in health sciences are also indicative of labour market demand for female professionals in these fields. Sex segregation in the labour market hinders women’s career opportunities and is detrimental to their empowerment.292

In 2014-15, there were 10,251 males and 2,250 females enrolled in engineering universities with a GPI of 0.219

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292 (Tzannatos, 1999)
5.5.2.2 Enrollment in PEF Schools

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of students in PEF programs increased from 2,242,697 to 3,119,294 students, a 39% increase. Of these, 1,702,898 (54.5%) were male and 1,416,346 (45.4%) were female, with a GPI of 0.832. Overall, compared to 2016, there was a significant increase in the enrollment of students in PEF schemes. Enrollment of male students increased by 38% and enrollment of female students increased by 40%. The higher enrollment of girls can also be seen in the increase in GPI from 0.819 in 2016 to 0.832 in 2017. Program wise data shows that enrollments in PSSP partner schools, the EVS Program, NSP and FAS saw increases of 154%, 71%, 58% and 16% respectively. In all 4 programs, the number of boys enrolled was greater than the number of girls in both 2016 and 2017. The greatest difference in enrollment levels was present in the EVS program where 22% more boys than girls were enrolled.

A key reason for these huge increases was the increase in PEF partner schools that increased from 6,740 in 2016 to 11,582 in 2017, an overall rise of 72%. The persistent difference in gender parity in enrollment is indicative of the need to create more initiatives tailored to increasing female enrollment in PEF schools. Figure 5.25 depicts enrollment of boys and girls in PEF schemes in 2016 and 2017.

**Figure 5.25**

![Students Enrolled in Punjab Education Foundation Schools (2015-16 and 2016-17)](source: Punjab Education Foundation (PEF))

5.5.2.3 Enrollment in Non Formal Education

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number students in NFBE Centers declined from 586,970 to 390,810, a 33.3% decrease. Of these students, 222,109 (56.7%) were female and 168,701 (43.3%) were male. The decline in female students was 41.8% as compared to the decrease in male students, which was 17.9%. As the decline in female enrollment was significantly larger than the decline in male enrollment, the GPI decreased from 1.852 to 1.32. The positive GPI indicates that girls are more likely to be enrolled in NFBE institutes and such sharp declines in female enrollment will undercut efforts to increase school access for girls, especially in rural areas. Figure 5.26 shows male and female enrollment in NFBE Centers across Punjab. In all districts, the number of girls enrolled was higher than the number of boys. Bahawalnagar, Rahim Yar Khan and Kasur had the highest enrollment whereas Gujrat, Jhelum and Sialkot had the lowest enrollment in non-formal education.

**Figure 5.26**

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of students in Non formal Basic Education Centers decreased from 586,970 to 391,698 students, a 33.3% decrease.
5.5.2.4 Enrollment in Professional and Vocational Institutes

5.5.2.4.1 PVTC

In 2017, 203,472 trainees were enrolled in PVTC institutes of which, 106,214 (52%) were male and 97,258 (48%) were female. The overall GPI for enrollment in PVTC institutes was 0.916. District wise analysis reveals that Lahore had the highest number of enrollees (15,726) followed by Faisalabad with 10,342 and Rawalpindi with 10,141 enrollees. The lowest enrollment levels prevailed in Chiniot with 1,652 enrollees followed by Dera Ghazi Khan with 3,105 and Vehari with 3,100 trainees enrolled in PVTC institutes. Although the overall GPI was less than 1.00, in 13 districts more females than males were enrolled as trainees.

The overall skew of gender bias towards males resonates the higher number of constraints women face in enrollment. Family obligations, financial constraints and distance from training centers all contribute to women's decision to enroll in TVET programs. Figure 5.27 shows district wise enrollment in PVTC institutes.

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Figure 5.26

5.5.2.4.2 PEF

In 2016, 2,242,697 students were enrolled in PEF schemes. The increase in GPI from 0.819 in 2016 to 0.832 in 2017. The greatest difference in enrollment levels was greater than the number of girls in both 2016 and 2017.

Program wise data shows that enrollments in PSSP increased from 2,242,697 to 3,119,244 students, a 39% increase. Of these, 1,702,898 (54.5%) were female and 1,416,346 (45.4%) were male. The higher enrollment of girls can also be seen in partner schools, the EVS Program, NSP and FAS saw a 17.9% increase in GPI.

The overall skew of gender bias towards males resonates the higher number of constraints women face in enrollment. Family obligations, financial constraints and distance from training centers all contribute to women's decision to enroll in TVET programs. Figure 5.27 shows district wise enrollment in PVTC institutes.

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Figure 5.27

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203 (Cho, Kalomba, Mobarak, & Orozco, 2013)
5.5.2.4.1 TEVTA

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of students enrolled in TEVTA Institutes increased from 170,590 to 200,457. Of these, 154,773 (77.2%) were male and 45,684 (22.8%) were female. The GPI for enrollment was 0.295. The highest overall enrollment was in the urban center of Lahore with 28,603 students followed by Faisalabad with 22,812 students.

There were large gender gaps in most districts. In Pakpattan, the GPI was 0 as there were no TEVTA Centers for women. The lowest GPI in districts with Centers for both males and females were in Sialkot (0.078), Faisalabad (0.120) and Mianwali (0.166). Only Rajanpur had more females enrolled in TEVTA Centers as opposed to males and had a GPI of 1.06. Narowal, with a GPI of 0.925, and Chakwal with a GPI of 0.899, were the closest to achieving parity in enrollment. Figure 5.28 shows enrollment in TEVTA institutes.

Figure 5.28

Enrollment in TEVTA Institutes (2016-17)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
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<td>Pakpattan</td>
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<td>663</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Technical Education & Vocational Training Authority (TEVTA)
6.5.2.3 Enrollment in Special Education

In 2016-17, there were 30,080 students enrolled in special education schools. Of these, 19,685 (64%) were boys and 11,118 (36%) were girls. The GPI of enrollment was 0.565. Lahore had the highest number of students with 3,775 students followed by Faisalabad with 1,999 students and Bahawalpur with 1,464 students. Lowest numbers of enrollment were recorded in Chiniot with only 395 students, Chakwal with 425 students and Jhelum with 427 enrollments. There was significant variation in gender parity amongst the districts and none of the districts were able to achieve parity in enrollment. Districts with the highest gender parity were Lahore (0.768), Sialkot (0.716) and Nankana Sahib (0.679). The greatest disparity in enrollment was in Rajanpur (0.370), Mianwali (0.349) and Chiniot (0.401). Figure 5.29 shows district and gender disaggregated enrollment in special education institutes in Punjab.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of students in TEVTA Institutes increased from 170,590 to 200,457 students, a 17.5% increase

5.6 Quality

To improve human resource, education levels and long-term economic growth, investment in school access and infrastructure has to be supplemented by improvement in school quality.\textsuperscript{294} Research on school quality shows that children who attend primary school in high-income countries learn more than children who attend primary school in low-income countries. However, the effect of teacher and school quality on student learning levels is higher in low-income countries.\textsuperscript{295}

A policy focus on expanding access without a commensurate emphasis on improving quality creates inefficiencies in public education. These can be in the form of ‘shadow education’ whereby students end up paying tutors to teach subjects that should be covered in the classroom.\textsuperscript{296} As student decisions to drop out or stay in school are strongly influenced by their perception of school quality, a greater focus on access at the expense of quality results in low survival rates and undermines the policy of increasing access.\textsuperscript{297}

School quality on the supply side is measured by inputs such as teacher availability and qualifications, Pupil Teacher Ratios (PTRs) and Survival Rates. Learning levels are used as outcome measures of school quality. This sub-section takes an in-depth look at indicators of quality in Punjab’s education system.

\textsuperscript{294} (Hanushek, 2013)
\textsuperscript{295} (Heyneman & Loxley, 1983)
\textsuperscript{296} (Bray, 2009)
\textsuperscript{297} (Hanushek, Lavy, & Hitomi, 2008)
5.6.1 Teacher Availability

5.6.1.1 Teacher Availability in Formal Schools

As the most expensive input in public schools, availability of qualified teachers is an important measure of school quality. From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of teachers employed in formal schools increased from 335,344 to 341,939, reflecting a 2% increase. Of these, 154,426 (45%) were male and 187,513 (55%) were female. Female to male teacher ratios differed across districts and school levels. Overall, GPI for teachers in formal schools was 1.21. At the primary, middle and higher secondary level, there were more female teachers as compared to male teachers with female to male ratio of 1.45, 1.53 and 1.06 respectively. At the high school level, male teachers outnumbered female teachers and the female to male ratio was 0.916. Figure 5.30 shows overall teacher availability at each level of education.

Districts with the highest numbers of female teachers were Rawalpindi, Lahore and Faisalabad where female to male teacher ratios were 1.97, 1.91 and 1.35 respectively. Districts with the lowest numbers of female teachers were Dera Ghazi Khan, Pakpattan and Khushab with female to male teacher ratios of 0.81, 0.80 and 0.79 respectively. Figure 5.31 shows a district and gender wise breakdown of teacher availability in Punjab.
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5.6.1.2 Teacher Availability in PEF Schools

In 2016-17, PEF schools employed 112,246 teachers across its four programs. Of these, 80,329 (72%) were female and 31,917 were male (28%). Overall, the female to male teacher ratio was 2.78. Program wise, PSSP had the highest female to male teacher ratio at 5.25 followed by EVS with 2.39, FAS with 2.24 and NSP with 1.22. Figure 5.32 shows teacher availability in PEF schools in 2016-17.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of teachers employed in PEF schools increased from 94,756 to 112,246, reflecting an increase of 18.2%
5.6.1.3 Teacher Availability in Informal Schools

In 2016-17, there were 1,179 teachers in masjid-maktab schools of which, 1,022 (87%) were males and 157 (13%) were females, with a GPI of 0.153. The overall number of teachers increased by 5.6% from 2015-16 to 2016-17. Commensurate to the decrease in boys' masjid-maktab schools, the number of male teachers declined by 7.1% whereas, in line with the increase of girls' masjid-maktab schools, the number of female teachers saw an almost 10 fold increase. Figure 5.33 shows teacher availability in masjid-maktab schools in 2015-16 and 2016-17.

![Figure 5.33](image)

5.6.1.4 Teacher Availability in Non Formal and Basic Education

In 2016-17, there were 13,869 teachers employed in the non-formal education sector. Of these, 10,579 (77%) were females and 3,290 (23%) were males, with a GPI of 3.23. Figure 5.34 shows district-wise teachers employed by the NFBE Department. The number of male teachers was greater than female teachers in only two districts i.e. Bahawalnagar and Rawalpindi, with GPIs of 0.842 and 0.471 respectively.

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of teachers employed by the Non formal Basic Education Department decreased from 20,814 to 13,869, a 33.3% decrease.

![Figure 5.34](image)

5.6.1.5 Teacher Availability in Technical and Vocational Institutes

5.6.1.5.1 PVTC

PVTC employed 3,047 trainers in 2017. Of these, 1,641 (54%) were male and 1,406 (46%) were female. The overall GPI was 0.857. In 12 districts, however, the number of female trainers was higher than the number of male trainers. The highest numbers of trainers was employed in Lahore, Gujrat and Rawalpindi. Chiniot employed the lowest number of trainers at 26 followed by Hafizabad with 43 trainers and Multan with 45 trainers.

Mianwali had the highest GPI (1.42) followed by Bahawalnagar (1.38) and Multan (1.37). The highest disparities in the number of male and female trainers were in Pakpattan (0.347), Sialkot (0.455) and Narowal (0.469). Figure 5.35 shows district wise teacher availability in PVTC Institutes.

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5.6.1.5.2 TEVTA

In 2016-17, there were 3,772 teachers employed in TEVTA institutes. Of these, 2,867 (76%) were males and 905 (24%) were females, with a GPI of 0.316. The highest number of male teachers was employed in Lahore (430), Multan (240) and Faisalabad (218) and the highest number of female teachers was employed in Lahore (195 teachers), Rawalpindi (62 teachers) and Multan (57 teachers).

In all districts, except Lodhran, the number of male staff was greater than the number of female staff. In Lodhran, the GPI was 1. In Pakpattan, TEVTA employed an all male staff. The lowest GPI in districts with Centers for both males and females was in Gujrat (0.104), Sialkot (0.114) and Mandi Bahauddin (0.118).

From 2015-16 to 2016-17, the number of trainers employed in TEVTA remained unchanged at 3,772.

5.6.1.6 Teacher Availability in Special Education Institutes

In 2017, the Special Education Department employed 2,348 teachers. Of these, 786 (33.5%) were male and 1,562 (66.5%) were female. The GPI of teachers in special education was 1.99 with almost twice as many female teachers as compared to male teachers. Commensurate with the highest number of special education institutions and enrollments, Lahore had the highest number of teachers followed by Faisalabad and Rawalpindi. The lowest number of teachers was available in Bhakkar, Khushab and Mianwali. As depicted by the high overall female to male ratio, most districts had more female teachers as opposed to male teachers. In only 5 districts (Bhakkar, Khushab, Mianwali, Rajanpur and Chiniot) were there more male teachers as compared to female teachers. Figure 5.37 shows district-wise teachers in special education.
5.6.2 Pupil Teacher Ratio

UNESCO defines PTR as the "Average number of pupils per qualified teacher at a given level of education. A qualified teacher is one who has at least the minimum academic qualifications required for teaching his/her subjects at the relevant level in a given country." 298

Punjab has a PTR of 33:1, which is higher than the global average of 18:1. 299 Figure 5.38 shows district-wise PTRs in formal schools. In none of the districts is the PTR lower than the global average. Chakwal, Rawalpindi and Attock have the lowest PTRs: 22:1, 24:1 and 27:1 respectively. Chiniot has the highest PTR at 41:1 followed by Dera Ghazi Khan and Pakpattan, which have a PTR of 40:1 and 39:1 respectively.

Figure 5.37

Teachers Employed by the Special Education Department in Punjab (2017)

Figure 5.38

District-wise Pupil Teacher Ratios in Punjab (2016-17)

299 [United Nations News Centre.]
High PTRs indicate reduced access to teachers for students due to increased teacher workloads. This results in lower classroom engagement, especially for students with low attainment levels. High PTRs also have a significant impact on the dropout decisions made by students, particularly at the secondary level. Lowering PTRs to the global average through hiring of qualified teachers is, therefore, key to increasing school quality and improving retention rates.

### 5.6.3 Teacher Qualification

Substantial research on the effect of teacher level characteristics on student outcomes has confirmed a positive relationship between teacher quality and student outcomes. While a lot of teacher characteristics that influence student learning are difficult to measure, teacher qualifications present a good proxy for teacher quality. Figure 5.39 shows the qualifications of Punjab’s teaching force. Of the 341,963 teachers employed by formal schools in Punjab, 7,879 (2.1%) hold either a PhD. or an M.Phil Degree, 179,364 (52%) have a Masters Degree, 88,063 (26%) have a Bachelors degree, 26,012 (8%) have an Intermediate qualification, 39,648 (11.6%) have a Matriculation degree, and 997 (0.3%) have other qualifications.

Figure 5.40 shows a breakdown of the teaching force according to qualification and school level. At each level of education, a significant portion of the teaching staff is under-qualified and has only a Matriculation or Intermediate degree. In primary schools, 19% of male teachers have only a Matriculation degree as compared to 18% of female teachers. An additional 11% of both male and female teachers have an Intermediate qualification only. The number of under-qualified teachers employed at higher levels of education decreases through middle and high school. In higher secondary schools, 6% of female teachers and 4% of male teachers have Matriculation qualification. An additional 6% of female teachers and 3% of male teachers have Intermediate degrees. The large proportion of Matriculation qualified personnel employed in primary schools are a legacy of past policies that required only ten years of formal schooling and an 11 month pre-service program to qualify as a primary teacher.

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300 (Pakistan Education Statistics 2015-16)
301 (Batchford, Basset, & Brown, 2011)
302 (McNeil, 1997)
303 (Budin & Zamurro, 2009)
304 (Goo, 2007)
305 (Memni, 2007)
At both the primary and middle level, a greater proportion of female teachers have Masters degrees as compared to male teachers. In primary schools, 42% of female teachers as compared to 36% male teachers have a Masters degree. In middle schools, 58% of the female teaching staff has Masters degrees as compared to 52% of male teachers. This trend is reversed in high and higher secondary schools where a greater proportion of male teachers have Masters degrees as compared to female teachers. In high schools, 60% of male teachers have a Masters degree as compared to 57% of female teachers. This gap is increased in higher secondary schools where 70% of male teachers have a Masters qualification as compared to 64% of female teachers.

Having a teaching force with diverse qualifications can be problematic if under-qualified teachers also have a geographical bias. In Punjab, qualified teachers and education managers do not want to be posted in under-developed rural areas and are posted to more urbanized centers. If schools in rural areas have systematically less qualified personnel as compared to urban areas, students in rural areas will be further disadvantaged as compared to their urban counterparts. Raising the quality level of the teaching workforce is imperative to improving student learning outcomes.

### 5.6.4 Survival Rates

UNESCO defines Survival Rate as "the proportion of a cohort of pupils who reached Grade 5 expressed as a percentage of pupils enrolled in the first grade of a given cycle in a given school year." Survival Rates are important indicators that measure the level to which school systems are able to retain students in each successive year and are, therefore, proxies for measuring the quality of education systems. Primary school Survival Rates are of particular interest as 4 years of education is considered the normative standard of maintaining sustainable literacy levels.

The average Survival Rate for girls and boys in Punjab is 66% and 67% respectively. District wise analysis of Survival Rates presents a varied picture. In 14 of 36 districts, the Survival Rate for girls is higher than the Survival Rate for boys. In no district is the overall Survival Rate 100% pointing to the lack of internal efficiency within the public primary school system. Notably, districts in south Punjab have very low Survival Rates for both boys and girls. Rajanpur has the lowest Survival Rates for girls and boys at 22% and 35% respectively. Jhang has a 100% Survival Rate for girls as compared to 90% for boys. Figure 5.41 shows district wise Survival Rates for girls and boys.

![Survival Rates in Punjab (2016)](source: Pakistan Education Atlas 2016)

Figure 5.41

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307 See UNESCO: Education Indicators, Technical guidelines
308 (UNESCO)
5.5.5 Learning Levels

Enrollment in schools is not a guarantee of actual learning. A variety of factors including teacher quality, class sizes, and resources such as textbooks impact how much children understand, absorb and learn in classrooms. Student achievement on tests and exams is considered to be a good proxy for the level of learning in schools. Assessing gender inequity in learning levels is important to determine where resources can be allocated to bring girls’ knowledge levels at par with boys. For this section, data was taken from the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2016 and from the Punjab Examination Commission (PEC) Exam Analysis Report 2016.

5.5.5.1 ASER 2016

For Punjab, ASER conducted a household survey in 1,035 villages across 35 rural districts (data for Muzaffargarh was not available). To assess learning levels in basic literacy and numeracy, 59,311 children were tested to see if they met the basic competency in English, Urdu and Math. ASER assessments were developed from class 2 level curriculums in English and Urdu and Class 3 level curriculum in Arithmetic.

From 2014-15 to 2015-16, learning levels of children in grade 5 in English and Urdu showed significant declines: number of students who could read sentences in English decreased from 60% to 57%, and students who could read stories in Urdu declined from 70% to 65%. Learning Levels in Arithmetic showed a slight improvement with the percentage of students who could do two-digit division in Arithmetic increasing from 59% to 60%. Figure 5.42 shows overall learning levels for students in Class 5 in Punjab in 2015-16.

Figure 5.43 depicts gender-disaggregated learning levels in Punjab for the 5-16 years age group. Overall, girls have lower learning levels across all three competencies. 51% of boys can read stories in Urdu and sentences in English as compared to 48% of girls. 47% of boys and 44% of girls are able to do subtraction in Arithmetic. These figures show that within the already poor educational attainment levels of the school-going cohort, gender gaps are present. In all 3 competencies measured by ASER, girls had lower learning levels consistently.

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(Annual Status of Education Report, ASER 2016)
5.5.5.2 Punjab Examination Commission (PEC) Exam Analysis Report 2016

PEC administered exams to students in grade 5 of formal public and private schools. These exams are conducted in 6 subjects (Urdu, English, Math, Ethics, Science and Islamiat). Grade 5 exams mark the end of primary education and signal the transition from primary to middle school. In 2016, 1,204,339 students appeared for Grade 5 examinations. Of these, 632,453 (52.5%) were boys and 571,886 (47.5%) were girls. Figure 5.44 shows overall student performance in Grade 5 exams. Candidates who obtained more than 33% marks were considered to have cleared the exam. Of those who took the exam, 907,992 passed. The share of girls and boys amongst those who cleared the exams was relatively equivalent; 456,285 (50.2%) boys and 451,607 (49.8%) girls passed the exam. Of the total girls who sat for the exam, however, 78.9% cleared the exam whereas only 72% of the boys who appeared for the exam cleared the exams.

Subject-wise analysis of English, Urdu and Math shows that girls were at par with or out-performed boys in all 3 subjects. Figure 5.45 shows subject-wise mean achievement scores of boys and girls in English, Urdu and Math. Girls’ mean achievement score in Urdu was 61% as opposed to 56% for boys. Similarly, on average, girls scored 53% marks in English whereas the average score for boys was 49%. In Math, boys and girls both had average scores of 53%.

Source: Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2016

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111 (PEC Exam Analysis Report 2016)
112 Ibid
PEC’s Exam Analysis report presents a more varied picture of student learning in the formal assessments as compared to ASER’s learning levels. In grade 5 examinations, girls out-performed boys in all subjects except Math whereas girls underperformed as compared to boys on ASER’s competency assessments in English, Urdu and Math.

5.7 Conclusion

Punjab has made significant strides in improving public education in the province. The rate of progress has, however, remained slow. In almost all indicators of access and quality, there is significant gender disparity. In 2015-16, male LRs in the province stood at 71% as opposed to 52% for females. There was an overall decline in NER and the gender gap in enrollment widened to 4% with only 59% girls enrolled as compared to 63% boys. Girls also had lower access to formal education as only 46.6% of public formal schools were for girls. Enrollment in formal education, especially for girls decreased drastically with a rapid decline in the number of schools available at each successive level of education. Girls and women also had a distinct disadvantage in enrollment in special education, and technical and vocational institutes. District-level analysis reveals great regional differences within Punjab with districts in south Punjab exhibiting greater gender disparity in enrollments, school availability, survival rates and learning levels.

Persistent gender disparity in the education sector is the combined result of inadequate school access for girls and lower demand for girls’ schooling due to archaic and traditional mindsets that hinder female empowerment. Overcoming these key challenges and setbacks in the provision of education requires not only greater investment in infrastructure but also an effort to change the way education is viewed by the society at large. To meet SDG 4 targets by 2030, Punjab needs to introduce urgent and targeted reforms aimed at removing gender based barriers to enrollment at all levels of education.

5.8 Recommendations

Policy/ Legislative:

i. The Government of the Punjab needs to review and realign its policy focus with the SDG Agenda. This requires the creation of a long-term policy focus that encompasses education beyond the primary level.

ii. The Punjab government has numerous departments within the education sector that work in isolation of each other. Mechanisms need to be created to identify shared priorities and mutual goals aimed at improving education access and quality.

Figure 5.45

Mean Achievement Scores in Grade 5 (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Urdu</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
iii. Overall increase in the education budget needs to be accompanied by gender sensitive budget allocations aimed at investing additional resources towards removing gender-based inequalities in the provision of education.

iv. Government support of low cost private schools through improvements in infrastructure and the provision of teacher training can improve and standardize classroom learning in formal schools.

**Procedural**

**Increase female enrollment rate to a 100%**

i. To meet the target of 100% primary school enrollment, the government needs to establish more schools for girls especially at the middle and secondary level so that they a better chance of continuing to higher education.

ii. More resources need to be allocated to districts with large gender gaps in enrollment.

iii. Free transportation facilities for girls need to be provided to reduce distance between schools and homes.

iv. Introduce scholarships and conditional cash transfers to encourage greater enrollment of females in districts where girls’ enrollment is low.

v. As girls make up over 57% of students enrolled in non-formal education, it should be expanded in scope as a pathway into formal schools.

vi. Curriculum followed in non-formal schools should mirror formal school education so that transitions from non-formal to formal education are easier.

**Improve adult Literacy Rate**

The Non-formal and Basic Education Department needs to establish at least one Adult Literacy Center in every district to improve adult LRs. Female teachers need to be employed at these centers to encourage participation of women.

**Gender-sensitize curriculum**

i. A thorough review of current curriculum and textbooks should be conducted to ensure that it contains gender-positive imagery and information. Additional chapters and modules on female scientists, scholars and other accomplished personalities should also be included.

**Improve classroom learning**

i. New teachers should be hired to improve PTRs. Reduction in class sizes will enhance teacher-student interactions and improve student experience and learning in classrooms.

**Increase female enrollment in TVET programs**

i. TEVTA and PVTC need to increase the enrollment of female trainees in TVET programs by ensuring availability of female trainers and women only institutes in all districts.

**Review and revise teacher training curriculum and protocols**

i. The School Education Department needs to establish proper protocols for rigorous pre-service and in-service trainings. The curriculum for these trainings needs to be created in consultation with experts. All teacher training must contain modules on gender sensitivity.
In Punjab, the female Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) in 2014-15 was 27.8% as compared to the male LFPR of 69.4%. Rural female LFPR, at 35.5%, significantly exceeds urban female LFPR of 12.8%.

Of the 24.8 million employed men, 16.4 million are located in rural areas and 8.4 million in urban areas. Of the 9.8 million employed women, 8.4 million are in rural areas and 1.4 million are in urban areas.

In Punjab, 20.7% of women and 23.9% of men are employed in agriculture. In the non-agriculture sector, there are only 7.6% women as compared to 47.7% men.

While men are relatively more evenly distributed into various industries, women are concentrated in a few industries only. For instance, 'Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing' account for a major proportion of employed women (73%) and only 33.5% of employed men.

Only 3.7% of the literate female population is employed as opposed to 20.9% of the literate male population.

53.6% of women in rural areas and 40.2% of women in urban areas earn less than Rs. 5,000 per month as compared to only 8.9% and 6.6% of men in rural and urban areas respectively.

In rural areas, 37.8% of the unemployed workforce comprises of women and 62.2% comprises of men. In urban areas, 32% and 68% of the unemployed labour force comprise of women and men respectively.

Of the 63,560,831 agricultural landowners in Punjab, 43,655,022 (68.7%) are men and 19,905,809 (31.3%) are women. Of the total average 175,464 square metres of land in Punjab, men own 123,829 square metres (70.6%) whereas women own 51,635 square metres (29.4%).

Of the 1,649,044 vehicles owned in 2017, 1% of vehicles were owned by women and 99% were owned by men. Compared to 2016, male and female ownership of vehicles, however, increased by 10.6% and 5.6% respectively.

In 2017, out of the 220,333 driving licences issued, 11,173 (5%) licences were issued to women as compared to 209,160 (95%) licenses issued to men. Compared to 2016, the number of licences issued to women increased by 1% in 2017.

At the end of Fiscal Year (FY) 2016-17, women owned 26.8% of deposit accounts, 24% of current accounts, 6% of loan accounts, and 5% of long-term loan accounts in Bank of Punjab. Compared to 2016, the number of female deposit accounts and current accounts increased by 8% and 11.5% respectively. The number of female loan and long-term loan accounts, however, decreased by 2.9% and 3.7% respectively in 2017.

In 2017, there were 264,000 borrowers at Zarai Taraqiati Bank Limited; of which there were 250,000 (94.7%) male borrowers as compared to 14,000 (5.3%) female borrowers. In the same year, Rs. 80,475 million of loans were disbursed; out of which the value of loans extended to men was 75,732 million (94.1%) as
ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION & OPPORTUNITIES

KEY FINDINGS

- In Punjab, the female Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) in 2014-15 was 27.8% as compared to the male LFPR of 69.4%. Rural female LFPR, at 35.5%, significantly exceeds urban female LFPR of 12.8%.

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- Only 3.7% of the literate female population is employed as opposed to 20.9% of the literate male population.

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compared to only 4,743 million (5.9%) disbursed to women.

- Microfinance Institutions and Banks registered with the Punjab Microfinance Network dealt with 3,488,224 borrowers in 2016-17, out of which 1,752,331 (50.2%) were women and 1,735,893 (49.8%) were men. Women, however, held 39,981 million (34.3%) of the Gross Loan Portfolio (GLP) as opposed to the GLP of men at 76,514 million rupees (65.7%).

- Of the 180,278 pensioners registered with the Employees Old Age Benefits Institution in 2016-17, 113,195 (63%) were men and only 67,083 (37%) were women. In 2015-16, 39% of the pensioners were women and 67% were men.

- Of the 4,842 beneficiaries of the Punjab Workers Welfare Board scholarship in 2015-16, 2,447 (51%) were men and 2,395 (49%) were women.

- In 2017, there were 967,066 (96%) male beneficiaries as compared to only 39,356 (4%) female beneficiaries registered with the Punjab Employees Social Security Institution. Compared to 2015 and 2016, there was no change in the percentage of male and female beneficiaries in 2017.

- In 2016-17, 41% of the value of zakat payments was allocated to men and 59% to women. The percentage value of zakat payments to women in 2016-17 represents a 3% increase as compared to the percentage value in 2015-16.

- Out of the 2,805 labour law violation cases filed in 2017, men filed 2,719 (96.9%) cases as opposed to only 86 (3.1%) cases filed by women. Compared to 2016, the total number of cases filed and the cases filed by men decreased by 2.2% and 1% respectively. The number of cases filed by women, however, increased by 1% in 2017.
Introduction

There is a wide consensus among policy makers and academics that inequality in terms of economic status is justified only if ‘equality of opportunity’ is the guaranteed norm and practice. However, unequal access to opportunities and resources, particularly due to factors that are beyond an individual’s control, e.g. gender or race, cause the resulting disparities to be considered unjust.\(^{313}\) Besides ensuring social justice and safeguarding human rights, there are other pressing reasons that rationalize the need for a greater degree of gender parity in economic participation and opportunity. Gender disparity in the economic sphere doesn’t only hinder the wellbeing of women; it entails negative consequences for all members of the household and society as well as the economy in general.\(^{314}\) Enhancing women’s economic participation and opportunities is, thus, not merely a goal in itself; it is in some ways a pre requisite for reducing disparities in other areas of women’s lives.

At the household level, a higher disparity in the economic status of women diminishes their decision making power which leads to a lower allocation of funds for children’s health and education. Research conducted in several countries confirms that women and men’s varying control of resources has a significantly different impact on a household’s consumption and expenditure patterns.\(^{315}\) Women are more inclined to spend a larger proportion of their incomes to improve the human capital for their children.\(^{316}\)

Varying spending patterns and preferences at the household level also influence macroeconomic variables like aggregate consumption, savings, investments, and thus the national output. Research confirms that closing gender gaps can lead to substantial economic gains for countries. According to approximate calculations by McKinsey’s Global Development Institute, ensuring absolute gender parity in economic participation could increase the global GDP by 26% in 2025.\(^{317}\) Since gender parity in economic status is inextricably linked to increased agency for women, it is an effective tool to enhance their political participation and representation, resulting in a more inclusive and participatory government.

Considering the benefits associated with overcoming gender disparities in the economic realm, policy and regulatory frameworks at the global and national levels have, in recent years, increasingly incorporated a gendered perspective. SDGs 5 and 8 contain several provisions that specifically reflect the need for a gender inclusive approach to economic participation and opportunities. The internalization of SDGs by the Government of Pakistan\(^{318}\) is an indication of the government’s determination and commitment to achieving women’s economic empowerment.

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\(^{313}\) (Brunori, Ferreira, & Peragine, 2013)
\(^{314}\) (Engendering Development-Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice, 2001)
\(^{316}\) Ibid
\(^{317}\) [THE POWER OF PARITY: How Advancing Women’s Equality can add $12 Trillion to Global Growth, 2015]
\(^{318}\) [Ministry of Planning, Development, and Reform, 2017]
**Sustainable Development Goals 5 and 8**

5.4. Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate

5.5. Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision making in political, economic and public life

5.A. Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws

8.5. By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

8.8. Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment

Article 38 of the Constitution of Pakistan assures citizens the right to benefit from economic opportunities regardless of sex, caste, or creed. In recent years, the federal government has taken significant steps to empower women. These include formulation of the National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women 2002 as well as the incorporation of a gendered perspective into Vision 2025. The National Policy of 2002 includes, as it’s objectives, the need to provide access to easy credit, reasonable social safety net programs, equal opportunities in paid employment, and an enabling work environment for women. Vision 2025 highlights the need to enhance the economic participation of women as an instrument for achieving sustainable development and aims to raise the female Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) by 45% in 2025.

Despite the strong case for gender parity and relevant policy frameworks, the status of women at the global and national levels remains far from satisfactory. According to the Global Gender Gap Report (2017), no country has yet achieved absolute parity on the Economic Participation and Opportunity Sub Index. The 144 countries that are covered in the report have collectively managed to close only 58% of the economic gender gap as opposed to the corresponding figure of 95% and 96% for education and health respectively. In the Economic Participation and Opportunity Sub Index, Pakistan ranks 143rd out of the 144 countries covered in the Global Gender Gap Report (2017) and occupies the lowest rank in the South Asian region. It also ranks 108th out of the 113 countries in the Women’s Economic Opportunity Index 2010 of the Economic Intelligence Unit.

The current national female LFPR (22%) in Pakistan is much lower than the target goal of 45%, and also much lower than the male LFPR (67.8%). Figure 6.2 depicts that women’s participation in the labour force in rural areas (28.8%) significantly exceeds their participation in urban areas (10%) with the gap in male and female LFPR in rural areas (40.2%) well below the gap in urban areas (55.7%).

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321 (Part II: Fundamental Rights and Principles of Policy, 1973)
320 (National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women, 2002)
321 (Pakistan 2025: One Nation-One Vision, 2014)
322 (Women’s Economic Opportunity: A New Global Index and Ranking, 2010)
323 Based on 26 indicators, this index gauges the conduciveness of the economic participation for women in the formal sector of the economy.
324 For the purposes of this report, LFPR figures are for ages 10 and above. Additionally, Refined LFPR, which is “the currently active population expressed as a percentage of the population 10 years and above” (LFS, 2014-15), is being used.
325 (Labour Force Survey, 2014-15)
Besides restrictive socio-cultural norms, lack of suitable jobs is a significant factor contributing to the considerably low number of women in the labour force.  

Suitability of a job is generally viewed in terms of adequate monetary compensation, sufficient returns to education, appropriate transport facilities, and women-friendly workspaces. While socio-cultural norms only tend to be flexible in the long run, directing policy attention towards the aforementioned barriers can prove to be an effective strategy towards achieving women’s economic participation in the short and medium term.

**Organisation of Analysis**

This chapter analyses and presents the status of gender parity in terms of Economic Participation and Opportunities in Punjab. Based on gender-disaggregated data, the analysis adopts an all-encompassing approach to determine the level of women’s empowerment in its true sense. It focuses not only on women’s access to income-generating opportunities, but also accounts for the extent of ownership and control of resources, and the allocation of social protection benefits among men and women. This allows for an assessment of women’s status and decision making powers, and the availability of security against poverty and marginalization.

The chapter is structured as follows:

**i. Labour Market: Access, Conditions, and Advancement**

a. Labour Force Participation

b. Employment

c. Unemployment and Underemployment

It is pertinent to note that the last Labour Force Survey (LFS) by Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (PBS) was conducted in 2014-15. Since the findings of the latest survey (conducted in 2017) had not been published at the time of publication of this report, data from LFS 2014-15 has been used.

**ii. Access to and Ownership of Physical Capital**

a. Ownership of Agricultural Land

b. Purchase and Sale of Agricultural Land

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326 (ADB Policy Brief: Female LFPR, 2016)
327 Ibid
iii. Access to and Ownership of Financial Capital

a. Access to Banking Services

b. Access to Microfinance

d. Labour Law Violations

e. Labour Law Violations

iv. Social Security and Safety Nets

a. Employees Old-Age Benefits Institution (EOBI)

b. Punjab Workers Welfare Board (PWWB)

c. Punjab Employees Social Security Institution (PESSI)

d. Zakat and Ushr

vi. Recommendations: The Way Forward

6.1 Labour Market: Access, Conditions, and Advancement

While the very first step towards enhancing women’s economic status is the provision of equitable access to employment opportunities, the quality of employment, as measured by remuneration levels, working conditions, and prospects of an upward career trajectory are also of utmost importance to assess whether a level playing field is being provided to both men and women. Analysis of labour market data in this sub-section, therefore, focuses on three important dimensions: Access, Conditions and Advancement. It is pertinent to note that a lag in any one dimension e.g. 'Access' (or restrictive access) is likely to translate into a lag in another dimension, such as unfavourable working 'Conditions' (or lower wages resulting from a lack of bargaining power of the female workforce).

6.1.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

LFPR refers to the proportion of the 10 years and above population that is economically active, either working (employed) or actively looking for work (unemployed). It is a determinant of the size of the labour supply, relative to the working age population and is usually the starting point for research on female employment. There are wide variations in female LFPR across developing countries depending upon differences in contextual factors such as the level of economic development, educational attainment, fertility rates, socio-cultural norms, and the availability of childcare facilities.

Although the female LFPR in Pakistan has more than doubled over the past two decades, it remains lower than the corresponding figure for countries with similar levels of GDP. Time series research indicates a long-term positive association between female LFPR and economic growth in Pakistan for the period 1990 to 2014. It is pertinent to note that there exists a twoway relationship between female LFPR and GDP. While, on the one hand, female LFPR contributes positively to the GDP, the additional opportunities created by the higher economic growth rate enable more women to participate in the workforce.

Since Punjab is the largest province in terms of population (Refer to Chapter 2- Demographics), its female LFPR is particularly important for

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129 (Women in the Workforce: An unmet potential in Asia and the Pacific, 2015) and (Dutta, 2017)
130 (Labour Force Survey, 2014-15)
131 [Guide to Understanding Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2015]
132 (Veitch, 2017) and (Minh Quang, 2014)
133 (Policy Brief on Female LFPR in Pakistan, 2016)
134 (Khan, Khan, Aftab, Humayun, & Ullah, 2017)
135 Ibid.
assessing the employment landscape for women in Pakistan. LFS 2014-15 reveals vastly different figures for men and women’s LFPR in Punjab, indicating differences in the availability and accessibility of economic opportunities for men and women. Female LFPR, at 27.8%, is considerably lower than the male LFPR at 69.4%. Overall, while male LFPR did not change from 2013-14 to 2014-15, female LFPR decreased by 0.7%.

In comparison to 2013-14, the male LFPR remained almost the same in urban areas (66.7%) as opposed to a slight decline in rural areas (71.8% to 70.9%). Female LFPR, however, decreased in both urban and rural areas by 0.4% and 1.1% respectively (Figure 6.3). Regional analysis of the data reveals that while the participation of men exceeds the levels of their female counterparts in both urban and rural areas, the disparity is lower in rural areas. Moreover, rural female LFPR is also relatively higher (35.5% in 2014-15) as compared to urban female LFPR of 12.8%. This difference can be attributed primarily to a larger proportion of women employed in the rural agriculture sector.

Figure 6.3 depicts a comparison of the male and female LFPR in rural and urban areas of Punjab.

Alarmingly low levels of female LFPR indicate not just an unfavourable situation for women (usually explained by a combination of socio-cultural and institutional factors) but also the need to recognize, value, and account for the contributions of women involved in domestic work or the care economy. This is clearly highlighted by SDG 5.4 as well. To some extent, this gap has been filled by the addition of ‘Augmented LFPR’ in the LFS, which provides a more accurate depiction of the number of individuals who are contributing to the national output. The augmented LFPR is determined by questions that seek to investigate the contribution of females to ‘marginal economic activities. Female augmented LFPR, at 32.1% exceeds their conventional LFPR (27.8%). On the other hand, there is no difference between the figure for LFPR and augmented LFPR (69.4%) for men. This indicates inequitable distribution of unpaid and domestic work among men and women, within households and the society, at large.

Table 6.1 provides a comparison of the male and female LFPR as well as the Augmented LFPR in Punjab.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punjab</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LFPR</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augmented LFPR</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

335: “This is the part of human activity, both material and social, that is concerned with the process of caring for the present and future labour force, and the human population as a whole, including the domestic provisioning of food, clothing and shelter” (European Institute for Gender Equality, n.d.)
6.1.2 Employment

The employed population comprises of all persons (10 years of age and over) who worked a minimum of one hour during the reference period (one week) and classified themselves as ‘paid-employed’ or ‘self-employed.’

According to LFS 2014-15, Punjab accounts for 34.6 million (60%) of the 57.4 million employed people in Pakistan. Of the 34.6 million people employed in Punjab, 24.8 million (71.7%) are men and 9.8 million (28.3%) are women, with a GPI of 0.395. The number of women employed in rural Punjab (8.4 million or 33.9%) is around half of that of men (16.4 million or 66.1%), with a GPI of 0.512. The situation is even grimmer in urban areas with only 1.4 million or 14.2% employed women as compared to 8.4 million or 85.7% employed men. The GPI for male and female urban employment is 0.166.

Figure 6.4 provides a comparison of the employment status of men and women in 2013-14 and 2014-15.

While the above figures provide a broad picture of gender-disaggregated employment in Punjab, the following breakdown of employment by sector, education levels, marital status, industry division, and wages, allows for a more detailed analysis pertaining to the conditions of employment.

6.1.2.1 Employment by Sector

Gender differences in sectors of employment are pervasive around the world with women disproportionately represented in all sectors. Agriculture remains the most significant sector of employment for women in low-income and lower-middle-income countries. Within the non-agriculture sector, the informal sector accounts for over 80% of employment in South Asia and is the dominant sector for women’s employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, and South Asia.

LFS provides a breakdown of male and female employment in the agriculture and non-agriculture sector. The latter is further divided into the formal and informal sector. The informal sector comprises of; a) household enterprises that are owned and maintained by own-account workers, regardless of their size and b) enterprises owned and maintained by employers with less than 10 persons involved, including the owner, contributing family-workers, and employees.

LFS findings indicate that in Punjab, 20.7% of women and 23.9% of men are employed in agriculture. In the non-agriculture sector, there are only 7.7% women as compared to 47.7% men.

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337 (Women at Work-Trends, 2016)
338 (Labour Force Survey, 2014-15)
Of the 24.3% employed women in rural areas, 20.3% are employed in agriculture. This is in contrast to 22.8% men employed in agriculture out of the 47.4% men employed in rural areas. The remaining 24.5% of men and 4.1% of women in rural areas are working in the non-agricultural sector. Within this sector, the major proportion of men (18.5%) and women (3.2%) are employed in the informal sector.

Urban employment is also characterized by a larger proportion of workers in the informal sector. In urban areas, 16.9% of men and 2.6% of women are employed in the informal sector as compared to only 6.3% of men and 1% of women in the formal sector.

Within the informal sector in Pakistan, a dominant form of employment, particularly for women, is Home Based Work. International Labour Organisation convention 177 classifies “homeworker” as a worker who works for remuneration, in his or her own premises or any other premises, besides the employer’s home. Home Based Work is particularly prevalent in the manufacturing sector, where it’s a common practice to sub-contract a proportion of work outside of the factory premises so that production costs can be reduced. Home Based Workers (HBWs) do not sign a formal contract of employment, and are usually paid according to piece-rate (i.e. on the basis of tasks performed or number of units produced). Absence of formal contractual arrangements mean that workers are not covered by labour laws or social protection programs and thus experience a greater degree of vulnerability. According to the Punjab Home Based Workers Survey (2016) conducted by the Bureau of Statistics, 91.3% of the workers in a sample of 13,469 HBWs are women as compared to only 8.7% of men. The percentage of female HBWs significantly exceeds that of men in both rural (91.8%) and urban areas (90.9%). The survey reveals that in Punjab, HBWs are concentrated in a wide range of sectors including but not limited to Stitching Garments, Embroidery, Football Stitching, Shoe Making, Mats and Basket Making, and Designing and Painting of Earthen Pots.

Since the informal sector is characterized by substandard working conditions and a low level of regulation, a higher level of employment in this sector indicates lack of ‘quality’ employment opportunities, and highlights the need to address decent work deficits for both men and women, as highlighted by SDG 8.5.

Figure 6.5 provides a breakdown of employment by sector in Punjab.
6.1.2.2 Employment by Industry Division

Gender segregation within sectors and industries, usually caused by various socio-cultural factors, labour market structure, and differential opportunities for education and vocational training of men and women, is prevalent across labour markets worldwide. An analysis of the distribution of employed persons by industry division indicates the prevalence of occupational gender segregation and concentration in Punjab. LFS figures reveal that while men are relatively more evenly distributed into various industries, women are concentrated in a few industries only. The proportion of the female labour force in 'Wholesale and Retail Trade,' 'Repair of Vehicles' and 'Construction' is almost negligible while the percentage of women in 'Agriculture' and 'Education' significantly exceeds men. For instance, there are 73% women in agriculture as compared to only 33.5% men. This may be a reflection of discriminatory hiring practices of employers and the preference of women and their families to work in industries that are considered socially appropriate for women.

Figure 6.6 depicts the employment of men and women in major industries in Punjab.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry Division</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.6: Percentage Distribution of Employed persons (10 years of age and over) by Major Industry Divisions and Occupation groups (2014-15)

6.1.2.3 Employment by Education Levels: Are Educated Women a Part of the Workforce?

Internationally, a significant narrowing of the gender gap in education levels has not lowered gender disparity in employment by the same magnitude. Intuitively, as education is considered an important determinant of employment, there is a strand of empirical literature that explores the relationship between these two variables. Evidence from 11 developing countries exhibits a positive association between education levels and labour force participation in all of the countries in the sample except Pakistan, Cameroon, and Rwanda. The study reveals that, in Pakistan, the gender gap in participation is lowest among the least educated young adults. This is a common finding for many developing economies wherein least educated women are more likely to be employed (engaged in agriculture and the informal sector).
For Punjab, LFS findings reveal that at all levels of education; a higher number of men are employed as compared to women. Only 3.7% of the literate female population is employed as opposed to 20.9% of the literate male population. The literate female population that is economically inactive (22.5%) is almost double the corresponding figure for males (12.8%).

The same pattern holds for the illiterate population. The percentage of illiterate employed women (9.2%) is slightly lower than the illiterate employed men (11.7%) whereas the proportion of illiterate women who are economically inactive (2.5%) is significantly lower than their male counterparts (13.7%).

It can be concluded that besides lack of educational attainment, there are various demand and supply side barriers that prevent women from pursuing employment opportunities. On the demand side, research suggests that many firms prefer hiring men over women owing to the additional perceived costs associated with women employees such as providing for their security etc. (especially in industries considered socially inappropriate for women). On the supply side, regressive socio-cultural norms, relatively low returns to education, discriminatory wages, and unfavourable working conditions such as the prevalence of workplace harassment impede women from joining the labour force. It is pertinent to note that labour demand and supply which is contingent upon biased hiring practices, and social norms, inevitably results in a misallocation of resources, and an exclusion of capable women from the workforce.

The data presented in Figure 6.7 provides an overview of the relationship between education levels and employment for both men and women in Punjab.

| Percentage Distribution of Population (10 years and over) by Level of Education in Punjab (2014-15) |
|---|---|---|
| **Employed** |
| Male | Female |
| Illiterate | 11.7% | 9.2% |
| Literate | 20.9% | 1.7% |
| Matric | 12.0% | 2.1% |
| Pre-Matric | 4.9% | 0.6% |
| Graduates or Post Graduates | 1.7% | 0.3% |
| **Unemployed** |
| Male | Female |
| Illiterate | 0.5% | 0.3% |
| Literate | 1.5% | 0.2% |
| Matric | 0.7% | 0.1% |
| Pre-Matric | 0.3% | 0.1% |
| Graduates or Post Graduates | 0.3% | 0.5% |
| **Not in Civilian Labour Force** |
| Male | Female |
| Illiterate | 2.5% | 0.9% |
| Literate | 12.7% | 4.6% |
| Matric | 9.7% | 2.1% |
| Pre-Matric | 1.8% | 1.6% |

Source: Labour Force Survey, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics

Figure 6.7

344 (ADB Policy Brief: Female LFPR, 2016) and ibid.
345 (ADB Policy Brief: Female LFPR, 2016)
6.1.2.4 Employment by Marital Status

Marital status is considered an important determinant of a woman’s decision to seek paid employment. Whereas on the one hand, research identifies being ‘married’ as inhibiting the participation of women in the labour force, some studies associate being ‘married’ with a greater likelihood of women making independent choices regarding paid work. In Pakistan, it is conventionally believed that married women drop out of the labour force due to additional responsibilities associated with getting married e.g. reproductive roles, upbringing of children, domestic work etc. According to research, however, there are a multitude of factors which influence married women’s decision to participate in the labour force. Factors that encourage married women to seek paid employment are age, level of education, husband’s unemployment, household poverty, and residing in rural areas. On the other hand, factors that discourage married women from pursuing employment include asset ownership, nuclear family status, infant children, and number of sons over 15 years of age. Household income and poverty levels have emerged as the most important determinants of married women’s labour force participation.

LFS data from Punjab doesn’t tend to support the conventional assertion that married women are less likely to work and reveals that of all the employed women in rural and urban areas, a greater proportion of women fall within the ‘married’ category as compared to the ‘never married’ category. In urban areas, out of the 5.3% of employed women, 3% are ‘married’ as opposed to only 1.8% of women in the ‘never married’ category. In rural areas, the difference in employment is more pronounced for women. Of the 17% of employed women, 11.5% are married and only 4.5% have never been married. For men, the figures present a similar situation in urban and rural areas. In urban areas, out of the 31.6% employed men, 22% are ‘married’ men and only 9% are ‘unmarried.’ Of the 33% of employed men in rural areas, 22.8% fall in the ‘married’ category as compared to 9.3% of men in the ‘never married’ category.

Figure 6.8 provides an overview of employment levels based on marital status.

![Percentage Distribution of Employed Population (10 years of age and over) by Sex and Marital Status (2014-15)](image)

6.1.2.5 Wage Disparity

Gender pay gap is a widely used measure for assessing the variation between men and women’s average earnings. Persistent gender gaps that can’t be attributed to education or productivity differentials between men and women manifest an undervaluation of women’s work, and indicate the prevalence of social injustice and inequality of opportunities.

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Khan & Khan, 2009
Kiyani, 2009
Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice, 2001
Khan F., 2017
Khan & Khan, 2009
(Punjab Gender Parity Report 2018)
According to ILO’s Global Wage Report (2016-17), global gender wage gap ranges from 0% to 45%. Gender gaps tend to be largest in the highest paying jobs but smallest in the least paying jobs. Wage gaps are magnified for women representing religious minorities or Persons with Disabilities (PWDs). Using data from LFS 2013-14 and 2014-15, a latest ILO report estimates Pakistan’s gender pay gap at 26%. Findings of the report suggest that women are faced with higher wage gaps in industries where they are employed in large numbers and lower gaps in industries where under-represented.

In Punjab, 53.6% of women (in paid employment) in rural areas and 40.2% of women in urban areas earn less than Rs. 5,000 per month as compared to only 8.9% and 6.6% of men in rural and urban areas respectively.

Figure 6.9 represents the distribution of men and women in different wage brackets.

The widely prevalent problem of wage discrimination based on gender is also highlighted by disparities that exist between men and women in paid employment within the same industries. Table 6.2 shows wage disparities in major industries in terms of employment in Punjab. Within the agriculture sector, 25% of the 44.7% employed women earn less than Rs. 5,000 monthly. In contrast, 1.48% of the 9.55% men employed in the same industry earn below Rs. 5,000. Even within the education sector, employees of which are predominantly female (19.9% of women and 5.4% of men), 6% of women as opposed to only 0.2% of men earn less than Rs. 5,000 per month.

### Table 6.2 Percentage Distributions of Employees by Wage Groups in Punjab (2014-15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wages</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Wholesale and Retail</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to Rs. 5,000</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rs. 5,001 to Rs. 10,000</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rs. 10,001 to 15,000</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rs. 15,001 &amp; over</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Labour Force Survey, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics

Key: 0 = 13, 26 = Percentage

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351 (Khan F., 2017)
352 Ibid.
6.1.3 Unemployment and Underemployment

International statistics reveal that women are more likely to be unemployed. In 2015, the approximate global Unemployment Rate was 5.5% and the Unemployment Rate for women was 6.2%. Unemployed refers to persons who are without jobs but are available for/or are seeking paid employment. Unemployed persons, thus, form a part of the labour force. LFS findings reveal lower percentages of unemployed women as opposed to the percentage of unemployed men; which is a reflection of a greater proportion of women not actively seeking to join the labour force. In Punjab, of all the unemployed persons, 64.4% are men and 35.6% are women. Region-wise analysis of the figures points to an interesting distinction; a greater percentage of women are unemployed in rural areas as compared to urban areas and a higher percentage of men are unemployed in urban areas. In rural areas, 37.8% of the unemployed workforce comprises of women and 62.2% comprises of men. In urban areas, 32% and 68% of the unemployed labour force comprise of women and men respectively.

Women also tend to work shorter hours and are more likely to be engaged in part-time work. While some women may willingly opt for such work arrangements, others take up such options owing to a lack of availability of full-time work. Underemployment is measured as the percentage of employed population that is working less than 35 hours a week but is available for additional work. While an equal proportion (11%) of men and women are underemployed in urban areas, in rural areas, 42.5% of women are underemployed as compared to the corresponding figure of 35.5% for men. Underemployment prevalent among women in rural Punjab reveals the inadequacy of available employment opportunities and an under-utilization of human resources.

Figures 6.10 and 6.11 provide unemployment and underemployment rates in Punjab.

6.1.4 Entrepreneurship

Female entrepreneurship can prove to be an effective tool for narrowing down the gender gap in 'Economic Participation and Opportunities.' Over the last decade, there has been increased support for female enterprises and businesses in developing countries, owing to their potential to contribute towards job creation, economic growth, and poverty alleviation. There has been a specific focus on women-led enterprises owing to the disproportionate barriers that women face in starting and sustaining businesses.

In Pakistan, there are considerable disparities in male and female entrepreneurship. Only 1% of women are engaged in some form of entrepreneurship as compared to 21% of men. Pakistan, in fact, has the lowest rate of female entrepreneurship in the world.

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351 Women at Work-Trends, 2016
352 Ibid.
353 Ibid.
355 Ibid. (Pakistan Development Update/Managing Risks for Sustained Growth, 2017)
356 Ibid.
The country fares worse than its neighbouring countries; the percentage of firms in Pakistan that have female participation in ownership is less than 10%. The corresponding figure for South Asia is over 18%.  

A city-level survey of Karachi and Lahore conducted by the World Bank indicates differences between both cities. Some of the main barriers reported by women entrepreneurs include limited access to finance, family responsibilities, finding new markets and lack of trained staff.

**Women Engaged in Entrepreneurship***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Karachi</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>2.72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Over 75% of female entrepreneurs in Lahore are concentrated in the ‘Services’ sector. Within the service sector, the majority of women are concentrated in ‘education,’ ‘salons’ and ‘apparel.’ Women entrepreneurs in Lahore are better educated than the average national population. 56% of women in the sample had completed higher education (graduate or postgraduate or doctorate degrees).

*Based on 626 interviews in Karachi and 423 in Lahore in 2016-17. Both surveys seek to survey a representative sample of women entrepreneurs from various districts of Karachi and Lahore, using the 1998 census information.

### 6.2 Access to and Ownership of Physical Capital

Asset ownership is an important determinant of a person’s status and power relations within the household, and the society at large. Inequitable property ownership may be a cause as well as a consequence of women’s economic marginalization. Disparities in access to, and ownership of productive resources, not only prevent women from enhancing the living standards of their families, but also increase women’s vulnerability in times of unforeseen financial crises, and old age. Since physical assets are usually required as a collateral to secure loans from financial institutions, limited access to land, and other forms of physical capital is likely to constrain women’s access to financial capital as well.

The international regulatory framework as well as laws in Pakistan explicitly safeguard women’s property rights. SDG 5A highlights the need to ensure equal rights to property ownership for men and women. Article 14 and 16 of CEDAW contain similar provisions with Article 14 stressing upon fair treatment of rural women in land reform and land settlement schemes, and Article 16 calling upon countries to remove disparities in the ownership and management of property for both spouses. The Constitution of Pakistan does not differentiate between men and women with respect to ownership of property. According to Article 23 of the Constitution, every citizen is entitled to acquire, hold, and sell property in any part of the country.

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151 Ibid.
152 (Engendering Development Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice, 2001)
153 (Women’s Land Rights: Research from Pakistan, 2010)
6.2.1 Ownership of Agricultural Land

Land ownership is an important tool for the empowerment of women. It has been associated with an increased bargaining power for women, welfare gains for the household, a greater sense of security, and a reduction in gender-based violence. Some of these problems have been mitigated since the government of Punjab, in 2012, initiated the process of digitizing the manual land recordkeeping system. By making digitized land titles accessible online, the system has reduced the incidence of corruption, facilitated transactions and helped poor farmers and women whose land rights weren’t properly protected under the old system.

In Pakistan, agriculture accounts for 19.5% of GDP, 42.3% of employment, and 19.8% of female employment. The ownership and control of agricultural land in the country, however, remains skewed in favour of men. Several reasons account for the inequitable ownership of land. There is a lack of awareness among women regarding their legal rights and reluctance (stemming from socio-cultural pressures) to avail legal assistance for safeguarding these rights. Women are often prevented from exercising their legal entitlements due to the dominance of customary practices and decisions of bodies such as Jiras and Panchayats over state laws for determining matters of inheritance and property in rural areas. Moreover, a predominantly patriarchal mind-set combined with relatively lower levels of literacy leads to a perception that women are incompetent of owning and controlling their landholdings.

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Gender disparities in land ownership, however, remain significant. There is a considerable variation between the number of male and female agricultural landowners in Punjab. Of the 63,560,831 agricultural landowners, 43,655,022 (68.7%) are men and 19,905,809 (31.3%) are women, with a GPI of 0.455.

The highest number of male (4,890,693) and female (3,270,733) landowners is in Rawalpindi and the second highest is in Attok (2,621,058 men and 551,687 women). The third highest number of male (2,433,446) and female (1,123,346) landowners, however, is in Faisalabad and Chakwal respectively.

The district with the lowest number of male (414,486) and female (141,391) landowners is Hafizabad. The district that contains the second lowest number of male (429,594) and female (15,263) landowners is Nankana Sahib. The third lowest numbers of male (439,175) and female (160,658) landowners are in Chiniot and Pakpattan respectively.

Although there isn’t a huge difference between male (23.9%) and female (20.9%) employment in agriculture in Punjab, more than double the difference in ownership of agricultural land is a manifestation of women’s marginalization even within sectors where their representation has proven to be extremely significant and valuable.

Figure 6.12 provides a district wise breakdown of the number of male and female landowners in Punjab.
Research suggests that in developing countries, women usually own smaller landholdings as compared to men.\textsuperscript{367} Of the 175,464 square metres of average land in Punjab, men own 123,829 square metres (70.6%) whereas women own only 51,635 square metres (29.4%).

The three districts with the largest average landholding for women are Bahawalnagar (3,578 sq. metres or 2% of the average landholding of Punjab),\textsuperscript{368} Vehari (2,254 sq. metres or 1.3%), and Chiniot (2,205 sq. metres or 1.3%). The three districts with the largest average landholding for men are Bahawalnagar (7,060 sq. metres or 4%), Bhakkar (5,688 sq. metres or 3.2%), and Khushab (5,221 sq. metres or 3%).

The three districts with the largest average landholding for women collectively form 4.6% of the total average landholding of Punjab. The corresponding figure for male landholding is 10.2%.

Districts with the lowest landholding for women are Rawalpindi (314 sq. metres or 0.2%), followed by Gujrat (381 sq. metres or 0.2%) and Jhelum (569 sq. meters or 0.3%). Districts with the lowest landholding for men are Gujrat (1,051 sq. metres or 0.6%), followed by Rawalpindi (1,247 square meters or 0.7%) and Attock (1,669 square meters or 1%).

The three districts with the lowest average landholding for women collectively form 0.7% of the total average landholding of Punjab. The corresponding figure for male landholding is 2.3%.

Figure 6.13 provides a comparison of land ownership by area in all districts of Punjab.

\textsuperscript{367} (Gender and Rural Employment Policy Brief, 2008)

\textsuperscript{368} The percentages in this sub-section are calculated out of the total average landholding of Punjab
A comparison of the number of landholders and the average size of landholdings reveals another inherent characteristic of the land distribution system of Pakistan, particularly Punjab, i.e. a concentration of land with a few landholders. For instance, Rawalpindi occupies the first place in terms of the number of male and female landowners but the last place in terms of the average size of the landholding. On the other hand, Nankana Sahib contains the lowest number of male and female landowners yet comprises of the largest and the second largest landholding for men and women respectively. Therefore, a few landowners own large landholdings. This observation is also supported by research wherein a World Bank report (2009) revealed that around 2% of households own over 45% of land in Pakistan.309

6.2.1.1 Purchase and Sale of Land

Relatively low levels of female land ownership, constraints on mobility, and the stereotypes associated with women’s involvement in commercial dealings and transactions influence the number of women authorizing purchase and sale of land in Punjab.

In the years 2015, 2016, and 2017, the number of Intiqals or property transfers made in the name of women remained significantly lower than the number of transfers made in the name of men. In 2017, out of the 2,452,343 buyers and sellers of land in Punjab, there were only 554,183 or 22.6% women (312,414 buyers and 241,769 sellers) as opposed to 1,898,160 or 77.4% men (999,693 buyers and 898,467 sellers). The GPI for male and female buyers and sellers of land is 0.292.

The digitisation of LRMIS data was completed at the end of 2015 and all the Arazi Record Centres (ARCs), which maintain land records data at the district level, weren’t fully operational during 2015. Therefore, a considerable increase can be seen in the number of male and female transactions recorded between the year 2015 and 2016. (Figure 6.14)

Figure 6.14 provides the number of transactions of land from 2015 to 2017.

6.2.2 Transport and Mobility

6.2.2.1 Vehicle Ownership

There is huge disparity in the number of men and women who own vehicles in Punjab. In 2017, out of the 1,649,044 vehicles owned, 1,625,596 (99%) were owned by men as opposed to only 23,448 (1%) owned by women, with a very low GPI of 0.014. Compared to 2016, the percentage of men and women who owned vehicles didn’t experience any change in 2017. This clearly demonstrates that a certain percentage of vehicles that are used by women are not owned by them. This can be attributed to the stereotypical notions associated with women’s ownership of assets and the purchase and registration of vehicles largely being seen as men’s domain.

By 2017, the percentage of women who had a vehicle registered in their name was 1% as opposed to 94.8% of men. A comparison of the number of driving licences with the number of vehicles also indicates disparity in ownership and access to vehicles. While 5.2% of licences were issued to women, only 1% of women had a vehicle registered in their name. This observation is also supported by research wherein a World Bank report (2009) revealed that around 2% of households own over 45% of land in Pakistan.309

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6.2.2 Transport and Mobility

Besides being an indicator of social status and empowerment of women within the household, vehicle ownership and possession of a driving licence carry several economic benefits. It facilitates the mobility of women and enables them to travel to work easily. Research on the determinants of female labour force participation exhibits a positive relationship between vehicle ownership and LFPR.271

6.2.2.1 Vehicle Ownership

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Figure 6.15 shows vehicle ownership in Punjab in 2016 and 2017.

![Vehicle Ownership in Punjab (2016 and 2017)](image)

Figure 6.15

6.2.2.2 Driving Licenses Issued

Analysis of the number of licenses issued in the name of men and women helps gauge the differential level of access to vehicles in Punjab.

In 2016, a total of 301,343 licenses were issued; out of which 10,994 (3.6%) were issued to women and 290,349 (96.4%) to men, with a GPI of 0.038. In 2017, the number of licenses issued increased to 305,146, with 15,883 (5.2%) of licenses issued to women as compared to 289,263 (94.8%) of licenses issued to men. In 2017, the GPI for driving licenses issued was 0.055.

A comparison of the number of driving licences with the number of vehicles also indicates disparity in ownership and access of vehicles. While 5.2% of licences were issued to women, only 1% of women had a vehicle registered in their name. This clearly demonstrates that a certain percentage of vehicles that are used by women are not owned by them. This can be attributed to the stereotypical notions associated with women’s ownership of assets and the purchase and registration of vehicles largely being seen as men’s domain.

271 (Ejaz, 2011)
Figure 6.16 provides a comparison of driving licences issued in 2016 and 2017.

District wise analysis indicates that out of the 305,146 licences issued, a major proportion of licenses for men and women (187,309) were issued by the City Traffic Police (CTP) of the 5 cities of Lahore, Rawalpindi, Faisalabad, Gujranwala, and Multan. There are, however, stark differences between the number of licenses issued to men and women. In Lahore, for instance, out of the 92,501 licences issued, 84,816 (91.7%) were issued to men as compared to only 7,685 (8.3%) licenses being issued to women.

6.3 Access to and Ownership of Financial Capital

The provision of equitable and inclusive access to finance has widely been associated with a decline in poverty and inequality. Not only does financial inclusion enhance the status of women, and their potential to contribute within the household and society, it also broadens the range of opportunities (e.g. entrepreneurship) accessible to women. Research carried out in a sample of developing countries across different regions indicates that preventing women from accessing financial services is likely to cause a reduction in growth rates of economies. This is likely to work through the inefficient allocation of financial capital resulting from gender bias in access to banking services and products. For instance, men with relatively lower levels of entrepreneurial acumen may be more likely to secure loans to establish businesses as compared to potentially more capable female entrepreneurs. Such inefficient allocations engender inequalities in income and hinder the growth of economies.\(^3\) While the low income population in developing economies generally remains financially excluded; restricted access to finance has emerged as a gendered issue. The World Bank and the State Bank of Pakistan (SBP)
have recognized gender discrimination as a cause of lower access to finance for women in Pakistan.373

The financial sector can be categorized into the formal and informal sector. While formal financial services are officially regulated or monitored e.g. banking, microfinance, insurance, and stocks, informal financial services include non-regulated services such as savings and lending via committees, credit offered by unofficial moneylenders, shopkeepers and vendors etc.374 For the purposes of this report, the section focuses on formal financial institutions only.

6.3.1 Access to Banking Services

As women remain relatively disadvantaged in terms of levels of income and collateral needed to secure loans, credit history, levels of literacy (particularly financial know-how), and awareness regarding available financial services, they are less likely to benefit from banking services. Owing to a greater degree of uncertainty and risks involved in lending to women, banks usually extend smaller and higher interest rate loans to them.375

According to the Financial Inclusion Index (FINDEX) database launched by the World Bank in 2014, access to banking services, as measured by the basic indicator of Account Penetration, remains very low in Pakistan. Only 13% of adults and 5% of women maintain an account with a bank.

The situation in Punjab also exhibits similar trends. For gauging the differential access to banking services in Punjab, data has been obtained from two banks: Bank of Punjab (BOP) and the First Women Bank Limited (FWBL).

6.3.1.1 Bank of Punjab (BOP)

BOP data reveals significant disparity in the number of accounts owned by men and women. At the end of FY 2016-17, there were 1,005,545 deposit accounts, out of which women owned 269,116 (26.8%) and men owned 736,429 (73.2%) accounts. GPI for deposit accounts stands at 0.365. Of the 649,438 current accounts in BOP, women owned 156,135 (24%) as compared to men who owned 493,303 (76%), with a GPI of 0.316.

At the end of FY 2016-17, there were 11,373 loan accounts and 9,520 long-term loan accounts in BOP. Only 675 (6%) loan accounts were female owned as compared to 10,698 (94%) male owned accounts, with a very low GPI of 0.063. Of the long-term loan accounts, women owned only 481 (5%) accounts while men owned 9,039 (95%) accounts, with a GPI of 0.053.

A comparison of FY 2015-16 and FY 2016-17 indicates a reduction in the disparity between the number of accounts owned by men and women (Fig. 6.18). The number of female deposit accounts and current accounts increased by 8% and 11.5% respectively but the number of female loan and long-term loan accounts, however, decreased by 2.9% and 3.7% respectively.

It is pertinent to note that the total number of deposit and current accounts maintained in BOP has witnessed an enormous increase between FY 2015-16 and FY 2016-17. Such a significant increase has come about as a consequence of an aggressive and successful marketing campaign launched by BOP with the goal of maximising outreach, raising financial awareness, and extending banking services to the unbanked/under-banked segment of society, particularly women.376

Figure 6.18 provides the number of accounts held in BOP in FY 2015-16 and FY 2016-17.

373 (Bringing Finance to Pakistan’s Poor, 2009) and (National Inclusion Financial Strategy-Pakistan, 2015)
374 (Pakistan Access to Finance Portal, 2015) and (Bringing Finance to Pakistan’s Poor, 2009)
375 (Gender and Access to Finance, n.d)
376 This information was provided by the Compliance and Internal division at BOP
The value of loans issued by BOP in FY 2015-16 and 2016-17 also exhibits gender-differential patterns. Of the 75,913 million in loans issued in 2016-17, 66,423 million (87.5%) was issued to men as compared to 9,490 million (12.5%) that was issued to women. Of the 46,596 million in long-term loans, 41,150 million (88.3%) was disbursed to men whereas 5,446 million (11.7%) were extended to women. A comparison with disbursements in 2015-16 exhibits an increase in the proportion of loans issued to women over a period of one year (attributable to BOP’s marketing initiatives). In 2015-16, 11% of loans and long-term loans were issued to women as compared to 12.5% and 11.7% of loans and long term loans issued to women in 2016-17.

As depicted by Figure 6.19, the value of male and female loans has significantly increased between the years 2015-16 and 2016-17.

At the end of FY 2017, out of the total 119,125 debit cards issued by BOP, 33,503 (28%) were issued to women. The corresponding figure for men is significantly higher (85,622 or 72%). Figure 6.20 depicts the number of debit cardholders in BOP as well as the types of cards held.
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6.3.1.2 First Women Bank Limited (FWBL)

FWBL was set up in 1989 to cater particularly to the needs of women; to increase their access to finance and to facilitate them in setting up and managing their businesses, and carrying out commercial transactions with convenience.

In FY 2016-17, FWBL had 3,847 active current accounts, out of which men owned 1,604 (42%) and women owned 2,243 (58%) accounts. Similarly, out of the 10,778 active deposit accounts, a larger proportion of accounts i.e. 7,155 (66%) were female owned as opposed to 3,623 (34%) deposit accounts owned by men.

In case of both current and deposit accounts, a larger proportion of female accounts is managed by individuals. There are 2,006 individual female current accounts and 6,690 individual female deposit accounts as opposed to 237 and 465 female business current and deposit accounts respectively. The difference isn’t as considerable in the case of male accounts (623 individual and 981 business current accounts) and (2,260 individual and 1,363 business deposit accounts).

Figure 6.21 indicates the number of accounts in FWBL as well as the type of account for FY 2016-17.
Even though a larger number of accounts at FWBL are owned by women, women receive half the percentage of loans that are extended to men. Of the 138,438,000 loans issued by FWBL in 2017, 69,813,000 (50%) were disbursed to men as compared to 34,625,000 (25%) that were disbursed to women. The remaining 25% were issued to partnerships (22%) and joint account holders (3%).

Figure 6.22 provides the value of loans issued by FWBL in 2017.

6.3.2 Microfinance

Microfinance mainly involves the provision of financial services such as deposits, loans, and insurance products to low-income individuals, especially women, who are underserved by conventional banks and financial institutions. Several empirical studies have explored the positive relationship between the provision of microfinance and women empowerment as measured by household decision-making, economic security and mobility. The impact, however, is influenced by a range of factors including but not limited to women’s age, educational attainment, family type, interest rate, and terms and conditions of the microcredit.

Owing to the introduction of a progressive policy and regulatory framework by the government, the microfinance industry of Pakistan experienced phenomenal growth in 2016, with a 16% increase in outreach and a 47% growth in Gross Loan Portfolio (GLP). The industry comprises of Microfinance Banks (MFBs), Microfinance Institutions (MFIs), and Rural Support Programs (RSPs). While SBP is responsible for regulating MFBs, MFIs fall under the regulatory ambit of the Securities and Exchange Commission of Pakistan (SECP), as laid out in the non-banking microfinance regulatory framework introduced in 2016.

6.3.2.1 Public Sector - Zarai Taraqiat Bank Limited (ZTBL)

Farmers need access to finance for purchasing raw materials, harvesting crops, and marketing and transporting their produce. However, reasons such as natural disasters, price fluctuations, low yields, and poor storage conditions which may result in high default rates render agricultural finance, particularly to small farmers, more risky. Therefore, conventional banks are reluctant to extend credit to those engaged in the agriculture sector. SBP has recognized the importance of leveraging the services of microfinance providers for the agriculture sector, which is considered the lifeline of Pakistan’s economy.

ZTBL is a pioneer public sector financial institution, which provides specialized financial services, including microcredit to those engaged in the agriculture sector. Official ZTBL data indicates that in three successive years (2014-15, 2015-16, and 2016-17), the number of female borrowers as well as the amount of loans disbursed to women has remained significantly below the corresponding figures for men.

In 2016-17, there were 264,000 borrowers; of which 250,000 (94.7%) were men as compared to only 14,000 (5.3%) women, with a very low GPI of 0.056. In the same year, the total amount of loans disbursed was Rs. 80,475 million; out of which the value of loans extended to men was 75,732 million (94.1%) as compared to only 4,743 million (5.9%) extended to women.

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377 (CGAP-Advancing Financial Inclusion to Improve the Lives of the Poor, n.d.)
378 (Sangidhar, 2015) and (Shami, Razali, Majid, Roselan, & Rashid, 2016)
379 (Pakistan Microfinance Review, 2016)
380 Ibid.
381 (Emerging Lessons in Agricultural Microfinance, 2006)
382 (Agricultural Credit & Microfinance Department, 2016)
While the amount of loans disbursed has decreased slightly compared to last year, the number of male and female borrowers has experienced a drastic reduction. This is attributable to a recent change in the way the record of borrowers is maintained in ZTBL’s electronic system. Previously, record was kept in terms of the purposes of loan. In essence, if a person took out multiple loans for different purposes, his/her name would be counted multiple times, leading to duplication of names. To overcome this problem, the new system uses CNIC of the borrowers to identify them and keep their records. This has eliminated the problem of double counting of borrower’s name and provides an accurate number of male and female borrowers.

Figure 6.23 presents a comparison of the number of ZTBL borrowers and disbursements for men and women from 2015 to 2017.

![Figure 6.23](image)

6.3.2.2 Private Sector - Punjab Microfinance Network (PMFN)

Over time, the private sector has increasingly become engaged in the microfinance industry. PMFN is a microfinance network, which was established in 2004 with the objective of improving access to finance for the underprivileged segment of the population. Currently, PMFN comprises of 18 MFI s, MFBs, and RSPs (collectively referred to as Microfinance Providers or MFPs in this section).

Figures from 2016-17 indicate a varied distribution of the number of male and female borrowers among MFPs. The 3 organisations with the largest number of female borrowers are National Rural Support Program (NRSP), Akhuwat and Kashf. The three MFPs with the largest number of male borrowers are Akhuwat, Khushali Bank Limited (KBL), and National Rural Support Program Bank (NRSPB). It is pertinent to note that the outreach, or the number of districts targeted by each of these MFPs is different, rendering a direct comparison between them invalid. While institutions such as Akhuwat and KBL have presence in all 36 districts, Soon Valley Development Program (SVPD) concentrates its efforts in two districts only. Some organisations such as NRSP, Kashf, and ASA Pakistan are primarily focused on female borrowers.

Collectively, these MFPs cater to 3,488,224 customers, out of which 1,752,331 (50.2%) are female and 1,735,893 (49.8%) are male, with a GPI of 1.

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383 This information was provided by the Information and Systems Division at ZTBL.
Figure 6.24 provides a comparison of the number of male and female borrowers with these MFPs.

Gross Loan Portfolio (GLP) refers to the amount of all outstanding client loans. PMFN data demonstrates that in 2016-17, the GLP figure, in all of the MFPs combined, was 116,495 million rupees, out of which the GLP of women was 39,981 million rupees (34.3%) as compared to the GLP of men at 76,514 million rupees (65.7%). This indicates that even though the number of men and women availing microfinance services is similar, a greater proportion of funds are disbursed to men. The largest GLP for men (16,634 million rupees) is held at KBL whereas the largest GLP for women (7,195 million rupees) is at NRSP.

Figure 6.25 provides an overview of the GLP of men and women in all member MFPs.

Gross Loan Portfolio of PMFN Partners (2016-17)

Women: Rs. 39,981 million (34.3%)
Men: Rs. 76,514 million (65.7%)

Figure 6.25
6.4 Social Protection and Safety Nets

Social protection refers to a broad range of programs and arrangements that are particularly designed for the marginalized and vulnerable segments of society to forestall potential deprivations (prevent), provide relief against shocks and stressors such as poverty (protect), and build human capital by enhancing access to education and health facilities (promote). Safety net programs, comprising of cash and in-kind transfers, fall under the broad ambit of social protection programs. Carefully designed social protection and safety net programs not only reduce economic inequality by redistributing income to poorer individuals, but also decrease gender disparity if the intended beneficiary as well as the active recipient of the transfers is a woman. Evidence from impact evaluations of a range of World Bank social safety nets interventions demonstrate that men and women benefit from social transfers in different ways. If a transfer is made to a woman, it increases her bargaining and decision making power within the household and results in a greater proportion of the transfer being spent on the welfare of children. In Pakistan, where inequality in income distribution remains high and a considerable proportion of population lives below the poverty line (approx. 38% of the population of Pakistan in 2015-16), the existence of a comprehensive social protection program can, to some extent, help alleviate poverty.

For the purposes of gauging access to social protection programs in Punjab, data was obtained from several departments and organisations that provide social protection services. These include Employees Old Age Benefits Institution (EOBI), Punjab Employees Social Security Institution (PESSI), Punjab Social Protection Authority (PSPA), and Punjab Workers Welfare Board (PWWB).

6.4.1 Employees Old Age Benefit Institution (EOBI)

In accordance with Article 38C of the Constitution of Pakistan which stipulates the provision of compulsory social insurance, EOBI provides benefits such as old-age pensions (on the event of retirement), invalidity pensions (in case of permanent disability), and survivor pension (in case of the death of the insured person).

Data provided by EOBI indicates that of the 180,278 pensioners in Punjab in 2016-17, 113,195 (63%) were men and only 67,083 (37%) were women. The GPI of active pensioners is 0.592. A comparison with 2016-17 (Figure 6.26) reveals a decline of 2% in the number of female pensioners (78,702 or 37%) and an increase of 2% in the number of male pensioners (124,185).

It is important to note that the beneficiaries of EOBI are the employees of registered semi-government and government organisations. Countries such as Pakistan are still confronted with the challenge of extending social security benefits to workers engaged in the informal sector who face a wider range of potential economic risks and shocks and are thus in need of a higher level of protection. Even in the formal sector, the coverage of provisioning of pensions is limited and far from inclusive.

Figure 6.26 provides the percentage distribution of male and female pensioners in Punjab.

6.4.2 Punjab Workers Welfare Board (PWWB)

PWWB is a corporate entity established through a notification by the Government of Punjab under the Workers Welfare Fund Ordinance, 1971. The Board provides a range of services to industrial workers, including provision of marriage grants, death grants and talent scholarship, establishment and maintenance of Labour Colonies and operation of Workers Welfare Schools in various districts of Punjab.

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For Further Reading:
- [WFP Safety Nets Guidelines, 2014](#)
- [Social Safety Nets and Gender: Learning from Impact Evaluations and World Bank Projects, 2014](#)
- [Poverty and Vulnerability Estimates of Pakistan-2016, 2017](#)
- [Social security in Pakistan, n.d.](#)
- [Strengthening Pakistan’s Pension and Insurance Systems, n.d.](#)
6.4.3 Punjab Employees Social Security Institution (PESSI)

Established through the Provincial Employees Social Security Ordinance (1965), PESSI is an autonomous body that falls under the administrative control of the Labour & Human Resource Department of the government of Punjab. PESSI provides a range of health care facilities and cash benefits to its secured workers and their dependants.

Official PESSI data indicates that over the last three years, i.e. 2015, 2016, and 2017, the number of male beneficiaries of PESSI has considerably exceeded the number of female beneficiaries. In 2017, there were 967,066 (96%) male beneficiaries as compared to only 39,356 (4%) female beneficiaries, with a GPI of 0.041.

Figure 6.28 provides the number of beneficiaries of PESSI in 2015, 2016 and 2017.

Data provided by PWWB demonstrates a fairly equal representation of men and women in their scholarship program in 2015-16. Of the 4,842 beneficiaries, 2,447 (51%) were men and 2,395 (49%) were women, with a GPI of 0.979. Of the 183,945,647 million rupees disbursed as scholarship, 92,983,078 million rupees (51%) were extended to men and 90,962,569 million rupees (49%) were extended to women.

Figure 6.27 provides the number of PWWB beneficiaries of scholarship and the value of scholarship disbursed to men and women.

6.4.4 Zakat and Ushr

Collection and distribution of Zakat is a provincial responsibility under the Eighteenth amendment to the Constitution of Pakistan. The Zakat and Ushr Department of the government of Punjab runs various programs for the poor and the destitute, including but not limited to cash benefits, marriage grants, free medical treatment, and educational stipends.

In the last two years (2015-16 and 2016-17), the department has disbursed a greater percentage of the Zakat amount to women as opposed to men. In 2016-17, 41% of the value of Zakat payments was allocated to men and 59% to men. The percentage value of zakat payments to women in 2016-17 represents a 3% increase compared to the percentage value in 2015-16 i.e. 56%.

Figure 6.29 shows the percentage value of Zakat payments disbursed to men and women in Punjab in 2015-16 and 2016-17.

6.4.5 Punjab Social Protection Authority (PSPA)

In July 2015, PSPA established a Khidmat Card Programme with the objective of providing assistance to the most vulnerable sections of society.

i. Khidmat Cards for the Disabled

This program comprises of an unconditional transfer program for those who are experiencing the dual vulnerability of poverty and disability. The program covers a range of disabilities including but not limited to visual impairment, speech and hearing disabilities, and mental challenges.

Out of the 88,692 beneficiaries of the program in 2017, 46,140 (52%) were men and 42,552 (48%) were women, with a GPI of 0.922. Even though the total number of beneficiaries increased in 2017, the number of female beneficiaries decreased by 16%. In 2016, of the 71,872 beneficiaries, there were 45,973 (64%) women and 25,899 (36%) men.
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Figure 6.29 shows the percentage value of Zakat payments disbursed to men and women in Punjab in 2015-16 and 2016-17.

![Percentage Value of Zakat Payments in Punjab (2015-16 and 2016-17)](source)

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District-wise analysis indicates that the 3 districts with the highest number of female beneficiaries are Rahim Yar Khan (5,572), Muzaffargarh (4,950) and Rajanpur (3,472).

Figure 6.30 provides district-wise numbers of beneficiaries of Khidmat cards for the disabled.

![District Wise Beneficiaries of Khidmat Cards for the Disabled in Punjab (2017)](image)
ii. Khidmat Cards for Children in Brick-Kilns

Khidmat cards for children in brick kilns entail a cash transfer of Rs. 2,000 to parents who get their children enrolled in schools, and a monthly scholarship of Rs. 1,000 to children who continue attending school.

In 2017, of the 82,523 beneficiaries, there were 45,407 (55%) boys and 37,116 (45%) girls. Compared to 2016, there was a substantial increase in the total number of Khidmat cards issued (from 36,033 to 82,523), as well as in the proportion of cards issued to girls (from 3% to 45%).

Figure 6.31 provides a comparison of beneficiaries of Khidmat cards for children in brick kilns.

ii. Khidmat Cards for the Secondary School Girls Stipend Program

This program provides cash transfers of Rs. 1000 per month to secondary schoolgirls (Classes 6-10) in 16 less developed districts of Punjab. The objective of this initiative is to increase enrollment and retention of girls in schools, and subsequently reduce gender disparities in education outcomes.

In 2017, out of the 435,678 cards disbursed, the highest number of cards was issued in the district of Kasur, followed by Khanewal and Vehari.

Figure 6.32 provides a district-wise comparison of the beneficiaries of the School Girls Stipend Program.
6.4.6 Labour Law Violations

Labour laws of Punjab cover a range of issues including but not limited to the abolition of bonded labour, welfare of disabled persons, and payment of minimum wages. Social security benefits such as EOBI and PESSI payments have also been guaranteed under the law. To ensure implementation of these laws and address the grievances of individual workers, labour unions, as well as employers, 11 Labour Courts have been established under Punjab Industrial Relations Act (2010). The District and Sessions Judges and Additional District and Sessions Judges from the High Court act as Presiding Officers of these Courts.

Division-wise data provided by the Labour & Human Resource Department indicates considerable disparity in the number of labour law violation cases filed in all divisions of Punjab. Of the 2,805 cases filed in 2017, 2,719 (96.9%) were filed by men and only 86 (3.1%) were filed by women. The total number of cases filed and the cases filed by men decreased by 2.2% and 1% respectively compared to 2016. The number of cases filed by women, however, increased by 1% in 2017. In 2016, of the 2,869 labour law violation cases filed, 2,808 (97.9%) were filed by men as opposed to only 61 (2.1%) cases filed by women.

In 2016 and 2017, the highest number of labour law violation cases was registered in Multan, followed by Lahore and Faisalabad. In 2017, out of the 1,250 cases registered in Multan division, 1,225 (98%) were filed by men and 25 (2%) by women. Out of the 746 cases filed in Lahore, 722 (97%) were filed by men and 24 (3%) by women. Of the 425 cases in Faisalabad division, 398 (94%) were registered by men as compared to 27 (6%) registered by women.

In 2016 and 2017, the highest percentage of female labour law violation cases were filed in Rawalpindi followed by Faisalabad. The third highest number of cases was, however, filed in Sargodha in 2016 and Lahore in 2017.

Out of the 20 cases filed in Rawalpindi in 2017, 14 or 70% were by men whereas 6 or 30% were by women. Out of the 425 cases filed in Faisalabad, 398 or 94% were by men and 27 or 6% were by women. Compared to 2016, the percentage of female cases increased by 18% in Rawalpindi and only 1% in Faisalabad in 2017. It is, however, important to note that the total number of cases filed in Rawalpindi decreased by 5% during 2016 and 2017 whereas those filed in Faisalabad increased by 8.7% over the same time period. Of the 746 cases filed in Lahore in 2017, 722 were filed by men and only 24 (3%) were filed by women. Even though, the total number of cases filed in Lahore in 2017 decreased by 11%, the number of female cases increased by 1%.

Figure 6.33 provides the division-wise break down of labour law violation cases filed in Punjab in 2016 and 2017.

Source: Labour & Human Resource Department, Punjab

380 (Labour Laws, 2013)
6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the prevailing gender gaps in terms of “Economic Participation and Opportunities” in Punjab and provided the context for relevant planning and policy formulation. The analysis has focused on a gender-disaggregated situational analysis of the labour market, access to physical and financial resources, and the availability of social safety nets for women to cope with economic hardships and poverty.

Not only is female LFPR abysmally low, women who are a part of the labour force remain relatively disadvantaged resulting from concentration within the informal sector, employment within a few industries and persistent wage discrimination. The economic situation of women is further exacerbated by a limited access to physical and financial resources, such as ownership of land and bank accounts. It needs to be emphasized that women’s disadvantaged economic situation trickles down to the household, society, and the economy. Leveraging the capabilities and contributions of women is, thus, a prerequisite for inclusive and sustainable economic growth and development.

It is essential that a range of new measures are taken and existing policies are modified to pave the way towards women’s economic empowerment in the short, medium, and long term. The following sub-section provides a list of specific recommendations that can contribute towards enhancing women’s economic participation and opportunities.

6.6 Recommendations

Legislative/Policy

(i) Extend social security benefits to all women in the formal and the informal sector.

(ii) Implement a monitoring mechanism to keep a check on gender-based wage discrimination.

Procedural

Increase Participation of Women in the Labour Force

i. Offer incentives, such as tax rebates and concessions, to private and public sector departments that employ a certain percentage of women in their workforce.

ii. The capacity of Punjab Skills Development Fund (PSDF) and TEVTA institutes should be enhanced so that qualified trainers are hired and a greater percentage of women are enrolled. It should be ensured that training institutes are providing skills that are effectively aligned with the needs of the job market.

iii. Training curricula that respond to skills needed for women’s current work in agriculture (farm and non-farm) should be developed and rolled out in districts with large agriculture based economies. Training in improved livestock management and value added products is required.

iv. Training institutes should provide platforms (such as job fairs) that enable women to connect with potential employers.

v. Promote women-friendly workspaces. Strictly enforce the 'Punjab Protection of Women from Harassment at the Workplace Act, 2012.' Raise awareness regarding laws among current and potential working women within the private and public sector.

vi. Ensure that the maternity leave policy of 3 months under Punjab Women Empowerment Package, 2012 is implemented within all government departments.
vii. Continue establishment of Day Care Centers (DCCs) in all districts. Ensure that health and safety standards are being maintained at the Centers.

viii. Improve public transport infrastructure for women.

**Reduce Vulnerability of Women in the Formal and Informal Sector**

i. Ensure implementation of the Punjab Home Based Workers’ Policy, especially provisions relating to minimum wage, decent working conditions, and social security benefits.

ii. To encourage more organisations to enter the formal sector, streamline the process of registration with the Securities and Exchange Commission of Pakistan (SECP) and filing of taxes with relevant revenue collection authorities. Offer tax concessions and rebates to firms for a particular time period after they register as formal entities.

iii. Identify causes for the low proportion of women filing labour law violation cases. Raise awareness regarding labour courts and facilitate women to file violation cases.

**Increase Ownership of Physical Resources**

i. Scale up efforts to raise awareness among women regarding their inheritance and property rights as well the legal mechanisms available for safeguarding these rights.

ii. In the allocation of public land, whether rural or urban, set quotas for sole female ownership as well as joint ownership of men and women.

iii. Financial institutions should be restructured to offer low-cost house-building and house-financing loans if the land/property is registered in a woman’s name.

iv. Subsidized, low cost farming implements and machinery should be provided to female agriculture workers and farmers.

**Increase Access to Finance**

i. Conduct survey-based research to identify causes for the low value of loans issued to women.

ii. Make it mandatory for banks to allocate a certain percentage of loans to women. ZTBL should enhance its efforts to reach out to women farmers. All public sector financial institutions should be required to provide gender disaggregated data on their operations.

iii. Streamline the process of opening bank accounts, applying for loans, and availing other financial services. Reduce formalities such as collateral requirements for loans and high-interest rates. Eliminate interest for first time female borrowers up to a certain amount. Focus on innovative solutions such as group-based lending.

**Promote Entrepreneurship**

i. Initiate and simplify the process of registering women-led businesses with the Small and Medium Enterprise Development Authority (SMEDA). Broaden the definition of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) to include micro enterprises as well as social enterprises. Offer 5-year tax-free incentives for women to register their businesses.

ii. Develop mechanisms to encourage registration of micro-enterprises at district levels and online for small, micro

iii. Encourage private sector and donor organisations to provide support in terms of training and resources to
women-headed businesses.

**Data Maintenance**

1. All departments should maintain high quality, sex disaggregated, district level data to track and enhance women’s economic empowerment.
JUSTICE

KEY FINDINGS

In 2017, 7,678 cases of Violence against Women were reported in Punjab, a 5% increase in cases registered from 2016. Highest instances were reported in Lahore (1,000) and Muzaffargarh (756).

904 cases of domestic violence were reported in 2017: 402 cases of murder, 141 cases of attempted murder, and 361 cases of domestic violence as “beating.” Highest numbers were reported in Lahore (251) and Bahawalpur (47).

From 2016 to 2017, there was a 6.8% increase in reported cases of rape with 3,378 cases being reported in 2017. Highest numbers of rape in 2017 were reported in Lahore (287).

222 cases of honour killings were reported in 2016 and 2017. The highest numbers in 2017 were reported in Faisalabad (28) and Sargodha (16).

Fewer cases of acid burning (36) were reported in 2017 than in 2016 (43).

3,031 cases of assault to outrage a woman’s modesty were reported in 2017 as compared to 2,889 cases in 2016.

Kidnapping/Abduction was the highest reported crime against women in Punjab in 2016 and 2017. In 2017, there were 11,017 cases reported, an increase of 8.5% since 2016. The highest numbers in 2017 were reported in Lahore (2,313) and Faisalabad (623).

In 2017, courts decided 7,219 cases of VAW across Punjab. Of the cases decided, 315 resulted in convictions and 6,904 resulted in acquittals.

At the end of 2017, there were 50,825 prisoners in 39 prisons of Punjab, of which only 961 (2%) were women; and 49,864 (98%) were men.

97 (10%) of the 961 female prisoners are accompanied by their children in 24 prisons.

715 police stations operate across Punjab, which includes 1 female police station each in Lahore, Faisalabad, Rawalpindi and Multan. Of the 711 police stations, 696 have established front desks.

In 2017, Punjab Police had 145,257 police officers and officials: 640 officers and 144,617 officials. Of the total strength, only 3,898 (2.7%) are women and 141,359 (97.3%) are men; with an extremely low GPI of 0.028.

Punjab has 1,771 judges, including 50 judges of the Lahore High Court. Of the 1,771 judges, 1,503 (85%) are male and 268 (15%) are female, with a GPI of 0.178.

There are 907 prosecutors in the Public Prosecution Department. Of these, only 123 (14%) are women and 784 (86%) are men, with a GPI of 0.157.

With the registration of 6,611 new advocates in 2017, the total number of lawyers now registered with the Punjab Bar Council is 89,143. Of these, 9,603 (11%) are women and 79,540 (89%) are men, with a GPI of 0.121.
KEY FINDINGS

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Introduction

"Justice" is a reference to the application of law to every situation that warrants it, in order to secure the basic human rights of all citizens of a country.\textsuperscript{394} Justice can only be served, however, with a thorough application of the Rule of Law, or 'supremacy of the law,' which ensures that no one, including the government and elected representatives, is above the law.\textsuperscript{394} In such a system, Constitutional or other legal safeguards protect citizens' freedoms, and apply to all citizens equally. Citizens are able to claim their legal rights where necessary, and access independent, competent courts in order to do so.\textsuperscript{394} Effective and stringently implemented legislation pertaining to human rights and fundamental freedoms is thus a critical step to realizing justice for all citizens.

Systems of justice serve as mechanisms to enforce behavioural standards deemed necessary to protect individuals and the general well-being of communities. Justice systems possess a two-fold role: maintenance of law and order, and punishment of individuals who commit illegal acts.\textsuperscript{394} In both of these roles, due process and fundamental freedoms guaranteed to all citizens vis-à-vis the Constitution must be upheld; while individuals must be accountable for their actions, the state must not transgress citizens' legal rights.\textsuperscript{395} The state's violation of a person's rights constitutes a due process violation, which in turn disrupts the Rule of Law.\textsuperscript{396}

A criminal justice system represents the set of agencies and processes established by governments to control crime, enforce the law, and impose penalties on those who violate the law. It has an inalienable relationship with the Rule of Law whereby the absence of one renders the other useless.\textsuperscript{397} In Pakistan, development of the Rule of Law has suffered due to 38 years of military rule and limited democratic governance.\textsuperscript{398}

In recent years, international best practices and standards for criminal justice systems have been laid down with utmost importance being given to the Rule of Law and the right to due process. In 2015, the 13th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice acknowledged states commitment to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, reiterate the Rule of Law, or 'supremacy of the law,' which ensures that no one, including the government and elected representatives, is above the law, and apply to all citizens equally. Citizens are able to claim their legal rights where necessary, and access independent, competent courts in order to do so. Effective and stringently implemented legislation pertaining to human rights and fundamental freedoms is thus a critical step to realizing justice for all citizens.

Systems of justice serve as mechanisms to enforce behavioural standards deemed necessary to protect individuals and the general well-being of communities. Justice systems possess a two-fold role: maintenance of law and order, and punishment of individuals who commit illegal acts. In both of these roles, due process and fundamental freedoms guaranteed to all citizens vis-à-vis the Constitution must be upheld; while individuals must be accountable for their actions, the state must not transgress citizens' legal rights. The state's violation of a person's rights constitutes a due process violation, which in turn disrupts the Rule of Law.

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The Doha Declaration was subsequently included in the wider UN agenda to address social and economic challenges and promote the rule of law. In assessing the quality of a criminal justice system against the Commitments mentioned above, the role of each actor in the system must be analysed, weaknesses highlighted, and international standards reaffirmed. The World Justice Project advocates 8 features, which an ideal criminal justice system must comprise of in order to dispense justice efficaciously (Figure 7.2).

The International Sustainable Development Agenda sets “promotion of peace and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provision of access to justice for all and effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels” as a distinct goal, progress against which is monitored periodically. Promotion of the Rule of Law, reduction of all forms of violence, ensuring complete access to justice, and developing effective institutions at all levels are some targets to be achieved by UN member states by the end of 2030.

Some prerequisites for the fulfilment of SDG 16 are already in place in Pakistan. The Constitution grants every citizen the right to fair trial and due process of law. Furthermore, Article 25 dictates the principle of equality of citizens, and no discrimination on the basis of sex. The state of human rights in Pakistan, however, remains largely inconsistent with the country’s Constitution and international standards. In 2016, Pakistan was ranked as the third most dangerous place in the world for women, one where inherent social inequalities persist.

Although some progress was made through the promulgation of new legislation, a large proportion of women, children, ethnic and religious minorities, and transgender people still fell prey to violence, insecurity, persecution and abuse, with the government’s attempts to provide adequate protection and hold perpetrators accountable lagging far behind the demand for effective redress. Law enforcement and security agencies remained unaccountable for human rights violations and exercised disproportionate political influence, especially in matters of national security and counterterrorism. In 2016, courts in Pakistan struggled with a backlog of nearly three million cases. Instances of widespread abuse and gender based discrimination exposed considerable difficulties for women in accessing justice, further exacerbated by discriminatory attitudes of the police, and an inadequate rights-based knowledge of citizens.

Low levels of efficiency, prevalence of delays due to lengthy bureaucratic procedures, inadequate legal training, rampant corruption, and the perception that rich or powerful interests in society manipulate the justice system, gave rise to further questions regarding the system’s legitimacy. The inability of this weak and overburdened system to effectively address a rising level of crime and violence has invariably fuelled support for alternatives to the justice system, ranging from retrogressive and literalist interpretations of Islamic law to numerous instances of

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402 (Project, n.d.)
403 Sustainable Development Goal 16 advocates the promotion of peace and provision of access to justice for all
404 Article 10A of the Constitution
405 (Pakistan N. A.)
406 (HRCP, 2017)
407 (Office, February 2016)
408 (Watch, 2016)
409 Ibid at 406
410 Ibid
411 Ibid at 408
412 Ibid at 407
413 (USAID, 2008)
The weak justice system and lack of public confidence have contributed to a vicious cycle of rising violence and extremism. The Organisation of Analysis

This chapter provides readers with an overview of the justice system in Punjab, with a focus on the criminal justice system. It also provides an analysis of redress mechanisms set up by the government for the protection of female survivors of violence. Factors that impede women’s access to justice will be highlighted, and where possible, be supported with recent data and analysis of trends.

This chapter is divided into the following sub-sections:

7.1 Violence against Women
   a. Reported Cases of Violence Against Women
   b. Outcomes of Cases of Violence Against Women

7.2 Women in Punjab Prisons
   a. Prisons
   b. Prison Population

7.3 Access to Justice for Women
   a. Police Stations
   b. Judiciary
   c. Advocates
   d. Legal Aid Schemes for Women
   e. Government Run Social Service Institutions

7.4 Recommendations

7.1 Violence against Women

Violence against women (VAW) represents a violation of dignity, safety, and human rights. The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1993, defines violence against women as “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life.” The term VAW has been historically used to comprise a range of sexually, psychologically and physically coercive and abusive acts used against women by current or former male partners, members of the family, and society at large. It is the most pervasive, yet least recognized human rights abuse in the world. Targets set against SDG 5 particularly instruct states to take strong initiatives to eliminate all forms of VAW in public and private spheres, including trafficking, sexual and other types of exploitation, and eliminate all

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n.bid at 406
n.bid (Project, The Rule of Law in Pakistan, Sept 2016)
406 (Organization, 2017)
407 Ibid at 408
408 SDG 5 aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage.\textsuperscript{419}

In Pakistan, as in the rest of South Asia, women live with the threat of violence throughout their life cycle (Figure 7.3). Different stages, from childhood to maturity, are marked by vulnerability to different forms of violence.\textsuperscript{420} For example, young girls are vulnerable to domestic abuse, infanticide and early or forced marriage. Following marriage, these young girls and women may face domestic violence at the hands of their spouse and members of their own or their husband’s extended family, including in-laws.\textsuperscript{421} Outside their home, women are exposed to sexual harassment and abuse, kidnapping, trafficking and custodial violence.\textsuperscript{422}

While some studies have shown that younger women in Pakistan are more susceptible to experiencing violence,\textsuperscript{423} others suggest that women who have lower educational attainment levels are most likely to suffer beatings and intimidation than women whose educational attainment levels are equal to or exceed that of their spouse.\textsuperscript{424} Early age marriage is another factor that predisposes women to violence by their intimate partners.\textsuperscript{425} Patriarchal control over women is exercised through restrictive codes of behaviour, gender segregation and a mind-set that associates family honour with female virtue.\textsuperscript{426} Harmful customary practices, which aim to preserve the subjugation of women are sanctified as “cultural and social traditions” and are amongst the most pervasive forces behind VAW.\textsuperscript{427}

VAW is a recognized tool to control women’s independent decision-making and economic resources.\textsuperscript{428} Resultantly, women’s health, especially their emotional and physical well-being, is inherently compromised.\textsuperscript{429} Women survivors of violence reportedly suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression and mental instability, along with inability to perform daily tasks, and nurture children.\textsuperscript{430} Abused women also indicate negative emotions following violence; including anger, fear, insecurity and inability to trust, lowered self-esteem, depression, anxiety, shame and guilt.\textsuperscript{431} In addition to the immediate physical and psychological impact of VAW, a

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure7_3.png}
\caption{Women’s Vulnerability to Violence}
\end{figure}

"Almost one-third (30\%) of all women who have been in a relationship have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner”

[World Health Organization]

\textsuperscript{419} Targets 5.2 and 5.3 of SDG 5
\textsuperscript{420} (NCSW, 2015)
\textsuperscript{421} (AI, 2014)
\textsuperscript{422} Ibid at 416.
\textsuperscript{423} (Schuler SR, 1996)
\textsuperscript{424} (MA, 2003)
\textsuperscript{425} (AI, 2014)
\textsuperscript{426} (Hadi, 2017)
\textsuperscript{427} (Bakhsh, 2009)
\textsuperscript{428} (Pullu, 2014)
\textsuperscript{429} (Hadi, 2017)
\textsuperscript{430} (Bettencourt, 2005)
\textsuperscript{431} (Women, n.d.)
woman’s overall quality of life can be adversely affected, which in turn, can impact her participation and engagement in various aspects of life.\textsuperscript{432} Female students who are sexually assaulted may be reluctant to report the assault for fear that they will subsequently be forced to discontinue their education. Children who grow up in violent homes are more likely to develop violent, mentally unstable, and rebellious personalities themselves.\textsuperscript{433}

According to an estimate by Human Rights Watch, approximately 70 to 90\% of women in Pakistan are subjected to domestic violence alone.\textsuperscript{434} A study conducted by Aurat Foundation has shown that in 2012, on average, 6 women were kidnapped, 4 were raped, 3 committed suicide and 4 were murdered every day in Pakistan.\textsuperscript{435} The Human Rights Commission of Pakistan reported that in 2014, over 10,000 cases of gender based violence were reported in Pakistan, of which 597 cases were of gang rape, 828 of rape and 36 of being stripped naked in public. In 2016, the media alone, reported more than 2,500 cases of VAW including incidents of sexual assault, domestic violence, acid and stove burnings, and kidnapping across Pakistan.\textsuperscript{436}

### 7.1.1 Reported Cases of Violence against Women in Punjab

In recent years, women in Punjab have faced violent attacks, discrimination and persecution, while the government continues its struggle to strengthen existing mechanisms to ensure adequate protection for survivors.\textsuperscript{437} and stringent implementation of laws and policies to hold perpetrators accountable.\textsuperscript{438} Criminalized forms of VAW include assault, kidnapping, acid attacks, honour crimes, rape and other forms of sexual violence, murder, forced marriages, kidnapping, marriage to the Holy Quran, and deprivation from inheritance.\textsuperscript{439}

For the purposes of this report, official data from the Office of the Inspector General of Police, Punjab (IGP) has been analysed and presented in order to examine the state of VAW in the province. Crimes mentioned in this section are restricted to crimes already categorized by IGP.\textsuperscript{440} Categorization of crimes according to the IGP can be seen in Table 7.1.

#### Table 7.1 Reported Cases of VAW in Punjab (2015 to 2017)\textsuperscript{441}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRIMES</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RAPE</td>
<td>2,509</td>
<td>2,938</td>
<td>3,083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MURDER</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTEMPTED MURDER</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEATING</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GANG RAPE</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HONOUR KILLING</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACID BURNING</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INCEST</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STOVE BURNING</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUSTODIAL RAPE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WANI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHER BURNING</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HURT CASES</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANY OTHER</td>
<td>2,341</td>
<td>2,637</td>
<td>1,171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{441} Reported cases of Kidnapping/Abduction and Assault are not included here.
In 2016, the number of reported cases of VAW in Punjab was 7,313 as compared to 6,505 cases in 2015.\footnote{Ibid} In comparison, 7,678 cases were reported in 2017, representing a 5% increase since 2016. It is pertinent to mention here that these figures do not include reported cases of Assault and Kidnapping/Abduction.\footnote{Kidnapping/Abduction is categorized separately by the Office of the Inspector General of Police, Punjab. Data for reported cases of Assault in 2016 and 2017 was received for the first time in 2017.} In 2017, 3,031 cases of Assault\footnote{Assault is reported under Sections 354 and 354A of the Pakistan Penal Code which deal with ‘outrage to a woman’s modesty’ and ‘use of criminal force to strip a woman’} and 11,017 cases of Kidnapping/Assault were reported in Punjab.

Figure 7.4 depicts an increasing trend in the number of reported cases of VAW from 2015 to 2017.

District-wise numbers of reported cases of VAW in 2017 are provided in Figure 7.5. Districts with the highest reported cases of VAW include Lahore (1,000) and Muzaffargarh (756). Comparatively, Rahimyar Khan (636) and Vehari (615) had the highest numbers of reported cases in 2016. The fewest cases were reported in Mianwali (83) and Chakwal (48) in 2017, whereas in 2016, Narowal (27) and Chakwal (18) had the lowest numbers of reported cases.
Kidnapping and abduction of women and girls remains a serious problem with 11,017 cases of kidnapping, kidnapping to compel a woman for marriage, or kidnapping with the criminal intent to have sexual intercourse, reported in 2017.\textsuperscript{446} Comparatively, data from 2016 showed 10,156 cases of kidnapping, depicting an increase of 8.5%. Similar to 2016, when 2,938 cases of rape were reported in Punjab, rape is still the second highest reported offence in 2017, with a total of 3,378 cases reported, including those of gang rape (251) and custodial rape (44). These figures show an annual increase of 6.8% in cases reported.\textsuperscript{446}

Since VAW exists in both overt and covert forms, it is challenging to assess the actual number of victims of violence.\textsuperscript{447} Difficulties in compiling accurate figures are further exacerbated by the fact that only a fraction of cases get reported to the police or through the media. Definitively, one can only conclude that the number of cases reported is increasing annually.\textsuperscript{448} This may be due to increased awareness regarding laws that criminalize VAW, availability of efficient redress for survivors, better institutional mechanisms, and social and economic empowerment of women and girls in Punjab, as compared to previous years.\textsuperscript{449}

7.1.1.1 Complaints received by Punjab Police Helpline (15)

Punjab Police has a Helpline that operates 24/7 and can easily be accessed by calling 15 from any number. In 2017 alone, 28,923 calls were received by the police, in which complainants reported domestic violence (15,698), aerial firing (4,916), harassment (4,063), threatening phone calls (2,033), injury/hurt (1,084), sexual assault (549), fire arm injuries (348), rape (192) and child molestation (40). Figure 7.6 provides the numbers and types of complaints received through the Police Helpline in 2017.

To increase reporting of emergencies and cases of VAW, Punjab Safe Cities Authority (PSCA) has developed a Safety Application for smartphones. The Application allows citizens to track their journey, mark places “unsafe” in case of harassment, bad street lighting or other factors that contribute towards lack of safety in public places.

7.1.1.2 Domestic Violence

Domestic violence comprises violence perpetrated within one’s home, by a sibling, relative, spouse, or other person who lives within the same premises. It can be physical, economic, psychological or sexual.\textsuperscript{440} IGP has bifurcated domestic violence into “murder in domestic violence,” “domestic attempted murder” and “domestic violence under beating/hurt.”

In 2017, 904 cases of domestic violence were reported, of which 402 cases were of murder in domestic violence, 141 cases of domestic attempted murder, and 361 cases of domestic violence as “beating.”\textsuperscript{451} Comparatively, 2016 figures revealed a total number of

\textsuperscript{446} Data received includes cases reported under sections 363, 365A, and 496A of the Pakistan Penal Code
\textsuperscript{447} The figure includes rape, gang rape, custodial rape and incest
\textsuperscript{448} (USAID, 2013)
\textsuperscript{449} (Hadi, 2017)
\textsuperscript{450} (Ayesha Qaisrani, 2016)
\textsuperscript{451} Internationally, domestic violence has been broken down into economic, psychological, sexual and physical violence within the home. The Punjab Protection of Women from Violence Act 2016 recognizes the aforementioned types of domestic violence
\textsuperscript{451} Cases reported under Sections 302, 324 and 337 of the Pakistan Penal Code respectively.
539 cases of beating only. Although data per se shows a decrease in cases of beating from 2016 to 2017, it is difficult to provide an accurate analysis due to differing typologies each year. Figure 7.7 provides the number of reported cases of domestic violence in 2017. District-wise analysis shows the highest number of reported cases of domestic violence in Lahore (68 for murder in domestic violence, 53 for domestic attempted murder, and 130 for domestic beating); and Bahawalpur (31 for murder in domestic violence, 8 for domestic attempted murder, and 8 for domestic beating). No cases of domestic violence were reported in Chakwal, Lodhran and Muzaffargarh.

7.1.1.3 Rape, Gang Rape, Custodial Rape and Rape of Minors

Despite an overall consensus that rape is one of the most heinous crimes, it is often justified in the name of religion, culture and honour. In some cases, rape is used to avenge rivals; at other times, it is used to punish women for crimes committed by men of the family. In 2016, there were 3,162 reported cases of rape: 2,938 cases of rape, 222 gang rapes, and 2 custodial rapes. 9 cases of incest were also reported in 2016. Data from 2017 shows an overall increase of 6.8%, with 3,378 cases of rape reported, including 3,083 cases of rape, 251 of gang rape, and 44 of custodial rape. 11 cases of incest were reported in 2017. Figure 7.8 shows the increase in reported cases of rape from 2015 to 2017.

It is pertinent to note that all cases mentioned above were registered under section 376 of the Pakistan Penal Code (PPC), thus incorporate “rape of a minor” provided for in the Criminal Law (Amendment) (Offence of Rape) Act passed in October, 2016. District-wise analysis shows the highest number of cases of rape reported in Muzaffargarh, with 270 cases of rape, and 21 of gang rape; and Lahore, with 229 cases of rape, 19 of gang rape, and 39 of custodial rape. Lowest numbers of cases were reported in Mianwali, where 12 cases of rape, and none of gang rape or custodial rape were reported.

7.1.1.4 Honour Killings

Honour killings encompass the number of women killed in the name or under the pretext of honour. Every year, hundreds of women are murdered because of exercising the right of choice marriage, false accusations and suspicions of committing adultery or fornication (zina). At times, these killings are even committed due to retaliatory decisions taken by a jirgah of tribal/village elders. The Prosecution of honour killings is an arduous task; perpetrators are often forgiven and punishment is not mandatory for murder, a compoundable offence under the PPC. 222 cases of honour killings were reported in Punjab in 2016 and 2017. Figure 7.9 depicts trends in the number of honour killings in Punjab from 2015 to 2017.

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452 Data for ‘murder in domestic violence’ and ‘domestic attempted murder’ was not made available in 2016
453 (Ayesha Qaisrani, 2016)
454 The Act of 2016 categorizes and penalizes rape, gang rape, custodial rape and rape of minors separately under Section 376 of the Pakistan Penal Code
455 (Hadi, 2017)
456 Ibid
457 Compoundable offences can be compromised by the victim, her family and the offender, with or without the permission of the Court. In 2016, legislation for honour crimes was amended to increase the penalty to imprisonment for life. However, compromise agreements can still be affected for honour crimes, albeit at the discretion of the Judge.
District-wise analysis reveals highest numbers of reported cases of honour killings in Faisalabad (28) and Sargodha (16), whereas lowest figures were reported in Multan (1) and Pakpattan (1). No honour killings were reported in Jhelum, Bhakkar, Lodhran and Layyah.

### 7.1.1.5 Acid Burning

Throwing of acid or other corrosive substance with intent to cause hurt is a criminal offence, punishable with at least 14 years mandatory imprisonment, which can be extended to 1 year, and a fine of at least 1 million rupees. Most common reasons for subjecting women to acid violence are rejection of proposal to marry and suspicion of adultery or fornication.\(^448\) In 2017, 36 cases of acid burning were reported, of which the highest were reported in Lahore (5) and the lowest (1 each) in Sheikhupura, Sialkot, Rawalpindi, Sargodha, Toba Tek Singh, Chiniot, Khanewal, Pakpattan, Muzaffargarh and Bahawalpur. Numbers from 2017 depict a slight decrease in cases from 2016, when 43 cases were reported across the province. Yearly trends in reported cases of acid burning from 2015 to 2017 can be seen in Figure 7.10.

### 7.1.1.6 Kidnapping/Abduction

Kidnapping/Abduction constituted the highest reported crime against women in Punjab in 2016 and 2017.\(^449\) In 2016, 13,310 cases were reported, of which 10,156 victims were women and girls (76%), and 1,163 were men and boys (24%). In comparison, there were 11,017 reported cases of Kidnapping/Abduction of women and girls in 2017, indicating an annual increase of 8.5%.\(^450\) Of the 11,017 cases, 5,058 were reported for ‘kidnapping or inducing a woman to compel her for marriage,’\(^451\) 5,567 for ‘enticing or detaining a woman with criminal intent to have sexual intercourse or fraudulently marry’\(^452\) and the remaining 392 cases were reported under “other forms of kidnapping.” District-wise analysis shows that the highest numbers of reported cases of kidnapping/abduction were in Lahore (2,313), Faisalabad (623) and Muzaffargarh (549). Lowest numbers were reported in Narowal (73), Attock (77) and Jhelum (82). District-wise numbers of reported cases of kidnapping/abduction are provided in Figure 7.11.

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\(^448\) Ibid at 455
\(^449\) Figures for Kidnapping/Abduction have been given separate from total number of reported cases of VAW in accordance with the categorisation of crimes by IGP
\(^450\) Data provided for Kidnapping/Abduction for 2017 did not include figures for men and boys
\(^451\) Section 365B of the PPC
\(^452\) Section 496A of the PPC

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**Figure 7.10**

**Reported Cases of Acid Burning in Punjab (2015 to 2017)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 7.11**

**Reported Cases of Kidnapping/Abduction in Punjab (2017)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>2,213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisalabad</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawalpindi</td>
<td>465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sialkot</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheikhupura</td>
<td>419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okara</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sargodha</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehal</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahawalpur</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narowal</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujrat</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodhran</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dera Ghazi Khan</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khanewal</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakpattan</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muzaffargarh</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mianwali</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahim Yar Khan</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiniot</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sargodha</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehal</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chakwal</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahiwal</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehal</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okara</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhelum</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Office of the Inspector General of Police, Punjab

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In 2016, 10,156 women and girls were reportedly kidnapped in Punjab. In 2017, 11,017 cases were reported, indicating an annual increase of 8.5%.

7.1.1.7 Assault

Sections 354 and 354 A of the Pakistan Penal Code, 1860 include assault or criminal force with intent to outrage a woman’s modesty and assault or use of criminal force to strip a woman of her clothes. In 2016, 2,889 cases of assault against women were reported. The number of reported cases increased to 3,031 in 2017, depicting an annual increase of 5% in cases of assault against women.

Trends from 2016 and 2017 in reported cases of assault against women can be seen in Figure 7.12.

![Reported Cases of Assault in Punjab (2016 and 2017)](image)

Figure 7.12

### 7.1.2 Outcomes of VAW Cases

Convictions in cases involving VAW show the state's ability and accordingly, effectiveness of the judicial system to hold citizens accountable for their actions. Since 2013, trends in convictions have generally been very low, with 316 cases in 2013, 211 in 2014, 81 in 2015 and 213 convictions in 2016. Research shows that one of the main reasons behind low convictions is women’s unwillingness to pursue trial, due to fear of being re-traumatized by repeatedly telling their story in a public courtroom. A contributing factor is the fact that prosecutors often only take cases they can win. Furthermore, often, rape cases are unwittingly approached with myths and stereotypes about race, class, gender and the character of rape victims. Lack of protection from retaliation by accused persons, coupled with weak judicial procedures open the door to out-of-court settlements or "compromises," forcing victims to drop charges, and reinforcing impunity for perpetrators. Islamic provisions of "Diyat" in the PPC enable monetary settlements as retribution, especially in cases of murder, including honour crimes, and sexual offences.

In 2017, courts decided 7,219 cases of VAW across Punjab. Of the cases decided, 315 resulted in convictions and 6,904 cases resulted in acquittals. Apart from these, 5,949 cases were consigned to record. A comparison of convictions in VAW cases since 2015 is provided in Figure 7.13.

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463 (McSheehy, 2016)  
464 (VAW)  
465 Ibid  
466 (Rafiq Khan, 2015)  
467 Ibid
315 persons convicted for offences that constitute VAW, included convictions for murder (including honour killings), wani, acid throwing, assault to outrage modesty of a woman, kidnapping, rape, gang rape, rape of a minor, procurement of a minor for the purposes of prostitution, deprivation of inheritance, forced marriage, marriage to the Holy Quran, unnatural offences, and kidnapping to compel a woman for marriage.

Of the aforementioned typologies, the highest number of convictions were for cases of rape, including a total of 104 convictions, with 1 person awarded the death penalty, 22 handed life imprisonment sentences, 45 convicted to imprisonment for 7 years or more, 24 awarded imprisonment for less than 7 years and 12 incarcerated for 3 years or less. Lowest convictions in 2017 were for enticing or taking away or detaining a woman with intent to rape, including a total of 5 convictions, with 1 person imprisoned for 7 years or more, and 4 persons sentenced to incarceration for 7 years or less.

Data for acquittals in cases of VAW shows 2,957 offenders acquitted for rape in 2017. Of these 2,957 acquittals, it is noteworthy that 367 cases were acquitted on merit, 2,483 due to resiling witnesses, and 107 due to deficient evidence collection by the police. Lowest acquittals were seen in cases of wani (1) and acid throwing (2), wherein accused persons were acquitted due to resiling witnesses.

A comparison of convictions and acquittals in VAW cases in 2017 is provided in Figure 7.14.

It is noteworthy that a small number of cases were compromised in 2017, with the highest number being 319 for compromise in cases of hurt, and the lowest being 33 for murder in the name or under the pretext of honour.

Of the total 5,949 cases consigned to record, highest numbers were for rape (1,806) and for assault to outrage the modesty of a woman (1,165). Lowest numbers of cases consigned to record were for wani (2) and unnatural offences (4).

---

468 Punishment for rape under section 376 of the PPC is death or imprisonment of either description for a term, which shall not be less than 10 years or more than 25 years, and shall also be liable to fine.

469 Section 496-A, read with section 376 of the PPC. Section 496-A prescribes punishment of imprisonment which may extend to 7 years, and fine.
7.2 Prisons

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and ICCPR, as well as the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment (UN CAT), make it clear that while prisoners lose their right to freedom of movement when they are imprisoned, their right to live with dignity while detained cannot be undermined. Furthermore, their reformation and social rehabilitation should be the prime objective of their incarceration.\(^{470}\) In 2015, the UN General Assembly adopted the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (the "Nelson Mandela Rules"),\(^{471}\) a set of 122 Rules that cover all aspects of prison management and identify agreed minimum standards for the treatment of prisoners—whether pre-trial or convicted.\(^{472}\)

These standards provide important benchmarks for need-sensitive treatment of prisoners, while also ensuring opportunities for rehabilitation and reformation to avoid recidivism.\(^{473}\)

"The purpose and justification of a sentence of imprisonment or a similar measure deprivative of liberty is ultimately to protect society against crime. This end can only be achieved if the period of imprisonment is used to ensure, so far as possible, that upon his return to society, the offender is not only willing but able to lead a law abiding and self-supporting life." (Standard 58, UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners) [UNODC Handbook for Prison Leaders]

They provide for provision of medical attention, hygienic and sanitary conditions, regular food and water, specific regard for prisoners with disabilities, female prisoners with and without children, standards to be maintained when hiring prison staff, and important guidelines for conditions to be maintained within prisons.\(^{474}\) The UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has also developed a Handbook for prison leaders, which encompasses a curriculum for prison managers, based on international standards and best practices.\(^{475}\)

"Men and women shall so far as possible be detained in separate institutions." [Standard 8, Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners]

The Handbook accounts for treatment of prisoners sentenced to imprisonment, those awaiting trial, and those awaiting their sentence. It also makes note of special needs of prisoners who are ill, illegal immigrants, refugees, former combatants, and victims of crime. All aforementioned standards regard rehabilitation and social reintegration as overarching themes.

A research study conducted by UNODC in 9 Prisons\(^{476}\) in Pakistan exposed that unlike male prisons, over-crowding was not a significant issue in female prisons. Hygiene conditions in all 9 prisons were, however, far from ideal, with sanitation facilities and number of toilets available for prisoners ranging from 3 to 60 prisoners per toilet. No child-care facilities were available in any of the prisons evaluated.\(^{477}\) Of the female prisoners interviewed, 68% were

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\(^{470}\) Article 10 (1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)
\(^{471}\) (United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, 2015)
\(^{472}\) (International, 2016)
\(^{473}\) Ibid at 416
\(^{474}\) (UN, 2015)
\(^{475}\) UNODC, 2010
\(^{476}\) 9 Prisons covered: Central Prison, Peshawar; District Jail, Mardan; Central Jail, Haripur; District Jail, Manshera; Special Prison for Women, Karachi; Special Prison for Women, Hyderabad; Kot Lakh Pat Jail, Lahore; Ladies Jail, Larkana; and Central Jail, Multan
\(^{477}\) (Crime, 2011)
illiterate, 40% were incarcerated for serious crimes such as murder and drug-related offences, and another 15.6% for commercial sex work. 12.5% of women interviewed stated that they had faced some form of sexual harassment while in prison.

Women prisoners in Quetta Jail reported problems of discipline among prisoners and between prisoners and Prison Authorities. Prisoners in 2 jails had very small prison cells, with no fans in spite of hot weather in the summer months. Frequent electrical power outages were reported amidst deplorable physical conditions. Furthermore, no education or health facilities were available.

A situational analysis of Central Jail, Kot Lakhpat, Lahore reveals that while women are incarcerated in a separate block, a common main entrance for male and female prisoners makes female prisoners more vulnerable to harassment and assault by male prisoners. The female block has a total of 6 toilets, with an unsatisfactory system of sanitation, heating, lighting, and ventilation. An Inspection Report of women’s barracks in Central Jail, Gujranwala in 2015 revealed overcrowding. Moreover, contrary to the Nelson Mandela Rules, convicted and under-trial prisoners were housed together. Washroom facilities in the prison were found unhygienic, with no special access for women with disabilities.

Among prisoners incarcerated in Punjab, some women remain marginally educated, and from underprivileged classes, while others have severe mental and physical health issues. Research has shown that compared to male prisoners, female prisoners are more susceptible to sexual and other forms of abuse, sometimes from police, judicial officials, and prison staff. Women are also likely targets of drug trafficking rings. A majority of the women who end up in prisons lack any sort of knowledge of the criminal justice system as a whole or of specific legal rights granted to them by the Constitution of Pakistan.

7.2.1 Prisons in Punjab

The number of prisons in Punjab increased from 37 in 2016 to 39 in 2017. As in 2016, Multan is still the only district with 1 women-specific prison.

7.2.2 Prison Population

At the end of 2017, there were 50,825 prisoners in 39 prisons of Punjab, of which 49,864 (98%) were men, including 616 juveniles, and 961 (2%) were women. The number of male and female prisoners remained almost the same as compared to the end of 2016, when there were 50,424 prisoners in 37 prisons, with 49,464 (98%) male and 960 (2%) female prisoners. Figure 7.15 provides the number of under trial, convicted and condemned prisoners at the end of 2017.

478 (Bukhari, 2012)
479 Murtung and Gaddani Jails reportedly had the worst conditions among prisons in Balochistan.
480 (Butt, 2014)
481 (PCSW, 2015)
482 (PCSW, 2017)
483 (Mark S. Fleisher, 2009)
484 Khan, 2012
485 "Juvenile" means a person who at the time of commission of an offence has not attained the age of 18 years and includes a child and youthful offender (Punjab Juvenile Justice System Rules, 2002)
486 (PCSW, 2017)
Detailed analysis reveals a slight decrease in the number of prisoners under trial, from 31,598 men (98%) and 601 women (2%) in 2016, to 29,608 men (98%) and 590 women (2%) in 2017. However, the number of convicted prisoners has increased from 13,243 men (98%) and 318 women (2%) in 2016, to 16,163 men (98%) and 338 women (2%) in 2017. Condemned prisoners in 2016 included 4,623 men (99%) and 41 (1%) women, a number that fell to 4,093 men (99%) and 33 (1%) women in 2017.

In 2017, the vast majority of prisoners was incarcerated for murder (19,164), with 18,835 men (98%) and 329 women (2%); and drug-related offences (7,294), including 6,883 men (94%) and 411 women (6%). Other offenses for which a large number of women are incarcerated include kidnapping (48) and theft (39).

### 7.2.3 Women in Punjab Prisons

As of January 1st, 2018, the female prison population in Punjab comprised of 961 prisoners, compared to 960 at the end of 2016. The highest numbers of female prisoners are incarcerated in Central Jail, Rawalpindi (167), Central Jail, Lahore (136) and Women Jail, Multan (122). Lowest numbers of female prisoners are seen in District Jail, Rajanpur (5), District Jail, Bhakkar (5) and District Jail Vehari (7). Figure 7.16 shows the female prisoner population in the 28 prisons that house female prisoners.
Number of women incarcerated in Prisons across Punjab has largely remained the same in 2016 (960) and 2017 (961).


97 (10%) of the 961 female prisoners are accompanied by their children in 24 prisons. The highest numbers of women with children are imprisoned in Central Jail, Rawalpindi (18), Women Jail, Multan (13), District Jail, Faisalabad (10) and Central Jail, Lahore (9). The total number of children residing in prison is 122. The highest number of children reside in Central Jail, Rawalpindi (18), and the lowest in Hafizabad, Gujrat, Bahawalnagar and Sargodha (1 each). 15 children reside in Women Jail, Multan. Prison wise details of female prisoners accompanied by children are provided in Figure 7.17.

A comparison of the number of female prisoners accompanied by children in 2016 and 2017 is provided in Figure 7.18.

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488 411 women are incarcerated on charges under section 9 (c) of the Control of Narcotic Substances Act, 1997

489 Possession of intoxicants is a crime under section 3 and 4 of the Prohibition (Enforcement of Hadd) Order 1979
7.2.4 Facilities for Prisoners in Punjab

Research studies conducted in prisons reveal a dire need for female inmates to be provided with skills-based training, so that, upon release from prison, they are able to find employment, afford safe housing, and support themselves and their children. Acquisition of skills also results in less reliance of female prisoners on their male co-offenders, sometimes incarcerated in the same prison.

Rehabilitation efforts implemented by prisons globally include drug addiction programs, counselling, regular meetings with families, awareness exercises (including those to dispel stereotypes), and voluntary work in public institutions. While mental health and drug abuse treatment programs for female prisoners are urgently needed in Punjab’s prisons, skills development programs are already being implemented for 3,012 prisoners through Technical Training Centers in 12 prisons, including the Women Jail, Multan.

Trainings obtained by 2,270 men in 11 prisons include electrical appliances’ repair, welding, motor winding, motorcycle mechanics, tractor mechanics, industrial stitching, wood works and plumbing works. On the other hand, trainings provided to 742 women in 8 prisons include fashion designing, beautician, machine embroidery and domestic tailoring. Detailed analysis reveals that while 12 of the aforementioned trainings were launched for men in 2017, only 4 courses were launched for women. Interestingly, reformatory initiatives for men in prisons worldwide have historically been documented to “inculcate manliness,” while exercises for women emphasized “domesticity and training in femininity.”

Bifurcated data for trainings provided to female prisoners in 2017 is detailed in Table 7.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Name of Jail</th>
<th>Name of Course</th>
<th>Number of Students who completed Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>Central Jail, Lahore</td>
<td>Fashion Designing</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>Central Jail, Lahore</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahawalpур</td>
<td>Central Jail, Bahawalpур</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahawalpур</td>
<td>Central Jail, Bahawalpур</td>
<td>Hand Embroidery</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>Central Jail, Gujranwala</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujranwala</td>
<td>Central Jail, Gujranwala</td>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahiwal</td>
<td>Central Jail, Sahiwal</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>Result Awaited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahiwal</td>
<td>Central Jail, Sahiwal</td>
<td>Machine Embroidery</td>
<td>Result Awaited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawalpindi</td>
<td>Central Jail, Rawalpindi</td>
<td>Domestic Tailoring</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawalpindi</td>
<td>Central Jail, Rawalpindi</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dera Ghazi Khan</td>
<td>Central Jail, Dera Ghazi Khan</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisalabad</td>
<td>District Jail, Faisalabad</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisalabad</td>
<td>District Jail, Faisalabad</td>
<td>Fashion Designing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>Women Jail, Multan</td>
<td>Beautician</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>Women Jail, Multan</td>
<td>Fashion Designing</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multan</td>
<td>Women Jail, Multan</td>
<td>Machine Embroidery</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>638</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of the Inspector General of Prisons, Punjab
7.3 Access to Justice

Access to justice is defined as the ability of citizens to voice their concerns, seek and obtain remedies to address their grievances through formal or informal institutions of justice, in full compliance with human rights standards. It entails more than guaranteeing a citizen’s access to courts or ensuring legal aid and representation, and encompasses normative legal protection, legal awareness, legal aid and counsel, timely adjudication, stringent law enforcement, and systematic oversight by civil society.

Access to justice is limited where vulnerable and marginalized citizens fear the system, see it as foreign, and do not utilize its facilities. Financial inaccessibility, lack of legal representation, and lack of knowledge regarding the law and basic human rights are features of a weak system with limited access to justice.

To strengthen access to justice, strategic plans and programmes for judicial reform must be developed and service delivery improved. The achievement of SDG 16 requires, that by 2030, states strengthen their judicial systems and take concrete measures to improve access to justice, and take affirmative measures to reduce recidivism and increase convictions.

In Pakistan, an overarching problem faced by women in accessing the criminal justice system is discrimination. Lack of legal and school education significantly obstruct an understanding of rights and the pursuit of legal remedies. Confidence (or lack thereof) in redress mechanisms set up by the government is another barrier to access to justice.

In Punjab specifically, survivors of violence are discouraged from pursuing their cases due to the bigoted mindset of officials from the stage at which the First Information Report (FIR) is registered, to the time the final decision of the case is rendered by the Judge. Bribery and corruption within institutions is an additional barricade that discourages citizens from approaching the police, pursuing their cases and holding perpetrators accountable. Delays in adjudication are often caused by antiquated rules, vacant seats in the judiciary, poor case management, and weak legal education. In case of rape particularly, survivors are vulnerable to prejudicial attitudes of officials who are part of the criminal justice system, including inter alia medical staff at DHQs, who often blame survivors for the violence perpetrated upon them. Insensitive comments made by judges during trial are another factor that discourage women from accessing the judicial system. It is noteworthy that in Punjab, the justice sector consists predominantly of male judges and judicial officers, prosecutors, and police officials. Research has shown that reporting of crimes against women increases where officials are more sensitive to the particular needs of female survivors of violence.

While the federal government as well as the government of Punjab have taken concrete steps to reduce the incidence of violence and provide effective redress to survivors, consistent efforts must continue. Over the last 10 years, several laws have been promulgated along with gender-sensitive rules and policies to ensure effective implementation, all with the objective of furthering women’s access to justice and speedy prosecution of accused persons. The government of Punjab has also introduced other gender-friendly measures, such as a vibrant helpline for women, legal aid schemes, a Special Court for gender based violence cases, shelter homes and crisis centers. Gaps in implementation of these measures, however, continue to distress survivors of violence, many of whom shy away from the criminal justice system due to fear of reprisal and social ostracization.
7.3.1 Police Stations

Reporting and investigation of all crimes requires a police force that is efficient and trusted by the masses. A major cause for under-reporting of crimes across Punjab (as is the case for Pakistan as a whole) is a lack of trust in the police. Cultural and social discrimination as well as stigma surrounding VAW, especially sexual violence, silences many survivors. 511 The induction of female police officers and officials, and installation of front desks for women at each police station in Punjab could be credited for higher reporting of VAW cases in the province. 512

There are 715 police stations across Punjab, including 1 female police station each in Lahore, Faisalabad, Rawalpindi and Multan (Figure 7.19). The female police station in Multan is located within the premises of the Violence against Women Center (VAWC). The purpose of this police station is to exclusively register cases and file FIRs for VAW cases brought to the VAWC.

7.3.1.1 Help Desks for Women

696 of 711513 police stations in Punjab have established front desks (Figure 7.20) that are managed by female and male Police Station Assistants (PSAs) and Senior Station Assistants (SSAs). The initiative to establish helpdesks for women was introduced by CM Punjab through the Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative (PWEI) 2014 and was meant to encourage reporting of VAW by providing a more gender friendly environment at police stations. (See 8.2.1)

While the establishment of front desks is a welcome development, these desks serve only as a “reception” to the police station, where complainants are facilitated for complaint registration. In 2017, a Status Report on 225 police stations across 22 districts in Punjab was published by PCSW.514 181 of 225 police stations visited had a functional front desk for male and female complainants alike. While the long-term goal of establishing help desks was promotion of gender-friendly policing, front desk staff had not received any relevant training on dealing with victims of violence. 515

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511 (Asif)
512 (Female Help Desks in Punjab Police Stations, 2017)
513 This number excludes the 4 women Police Stations
514 (PCSW, 2017)
515 Ibid
7.3.1.2 Women in Punjab Police

Survivors, especially those who belong to ethnic, religious, cultural and sexual minorities are reluctant to approach police stations due to fear of harassment from police officials, or have financial constraints and are unable to travel to police stations to get an FIR lodged. The common perception among survivors is that the police will demand bribes and other favours, subject parties to degrading behaviour, or falsely assume that the complainant is responsible for the act of violence perpetrated upon her.

An efficient way to overcome barriers mentioned above is induction of a greater number of female police officers, since women could be more sympathetic to women’s issues than men. Some scholars have, however, found that at times, female police victimize survivors of violence, and men are more sensitive to their needs.

At the end of 2017, front desks in 711 police stations were managed by 179 SSAs and 1,531 PSAs. Of the 179 SSAs in Punjab, 156 are men (87%) and 23 are women (13%), with a GPI of 0.147. Of the 1,531 PSAs, 1,217 are male (79%) and 314 female (21%), with a GPI of 0.258. Figure 7.21 shows the large proportion of male staff, compared to female staff, at front desks in police stations across Punjab.

At the end of 2017, there were 145,257 police officers and officials in Punjab Police, with 640 officers and 144,617 officials. Of the total strength, 141,359 (97.3%) are men and 3,898 (2.7%) are women, with a very low GPI of 0.028.

Figure 7.20

Front Desks in Police Stations in Punjab (2017)

Figure 7.21

Front Desk Staff at Police Stations in Punjab (2017)

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505 PSAs and SSAs are contractual positions with the Punjab Police
507 (HRCP, 2017)
508 (Parkar)
509 (Jordan, 2002)
Of the total 3,898 women serving in the police force, 3,868 (99.2%), are low ranking officials and only 30 (0.8%) are high rank officers. In comparison, 2,926 women served in Punjab Police in 2016. Of these, 2,884 (98.5%) women served as low-rank officials and 42 (1.5%) as officers. While more women were serving in Punjab Police in 2017 than in 2016, it is noteworthy that a lower proportion of women were serving as officers in 2017 (0.8%), than in 2016 (1.4%). A comparative picture of women and men in Punjab Police in 2016 and 2017 can be seen in Figure 7.22.

Detailed analysis reveals that of the 640 officers in Punjab Police, 610 (95.3%) are men and only 30 (4.7%) are women, with a GPI of 0.049. Similarly, of the total 144,617 officials in Punjab Police, 140,749 (97.3%) are men while 3,868 (2.6%) are women, with an even lower GPI of 0.027.

A comparison of proportions of male and female police officers in Punjab Police in 2016 and 2017 is provided in Figure 7.23.

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51 Officers include higher ranks of DIG, SSP, SP, ASP and DSP. Officials include lower ranks of IP, SI, ASI, HC and Constable
District-wise analysis reveals that all police stations in Punjab do not have female staff. This is in line with the low numbers of female police officers and officials in the police force. As can be seen in Figure 7.24, very few women are posted in the 36 districts, vis-à-vis the number of police stations per district.

![Female Staff in Police Stations in Punjab (2017)](image)

**Figure 7.24**

In addition to the active police force, Punjab Police has 8 departments, including Telecommunications, Motor Transport, Police College Sihala, Center for Training and Development, Highway Patrol, Punjab Constabulary, Special Branch and the Special Protection Unit, Punjab. The total strength of Officers and Officials in these departments is 32,643, of which 32,435 (99%) are men and 208 (1%) are women, with an extremely low GPI of 0.006.

### 7.3.2 Judiciary

Sociological research evidences that male judges tend to adhere to traditional values and beliefs about the roles of men and women in society. Studies also show that gender-based stereotypes and biases are deeply embedded in the attitudes of many male judges, and that these biases play a significant factor in judicial decision-making, particularly in the areas of tort law, criminal law, and family law. Prevalence of harmful cultural and social stereotypes about women's roles is a documented barrier for women's access to justice in Pakistan. Research reveals a dire need for greater numbers of women judges in order to improve access to justice for female survivors of violence.

In Punjab, there are 1,771 judges, excluding 50 judges of the Lahore High Court. Of the 50 judges in the Lahore High Court, only 2 (4%) are women and 48 (96%) are men, with an extremely low GPI of 0.042. This is in comparison to 57 (95%) male judges and 3 (5%) female judges in 2016. Trends from 2016 and 2017 can be seen in Figure 7.25.

![Judges in the Lahore High Court (2016 and 2017)](image)

**Figure 7.25**

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522 (Wilson)
523 (Knapp)
524 (Khokhar)
525 (International A.)
Of the 1,771 judges, 1,503 (85%) are male and 268 (15%) are female, with a GPI of 0.178.\[^{526}\] In comparison with 2016, which reported 1,533 male and 260 female judges (with a GPI of 0.165), the GPI for 2017 is slightly higher. It is pertinent to mention, however, that of the 36 District and Sessions Judges, 35 (97%) are men and only 1 (3%) is a woman. Similarly, women constitute a very small proportion of Additional District and Sessions Judges (7%), Senior Civil Judges (8%) and Civil Judges (22%). Of the 205 “ex-cadre” judges in the district judiciary,\[^{527}\] 198 (97%) judges are men and 7 (3%) are women, with an extremely low GPI of 0.035.

An analysis of male and female judges in the district judiciary in 2017 is provided in Figure 7.26.

7.3.2.1 Gender sensitivity trainings of Judges

Women often find it more difficult than men to access the justice system due to a variety of reasons,\[^{528}\] the most common of which is discriminatory attitudes and remarks of male and female judges.\[^{529}\] Judicial reform experts, policy-makers and former Justices recommend institutionalized gender sensitivity trainings for the judiciary in order to counter stereotypical mind-sets and deliver justice to women.\[^{530}\]

In 2017, 300 judges were given gender sensitivity trainings through 10 programmes and added lectures on gender sensitivity in the General Training Program for judges.\[^{531}\]

7.3.2.2 Special Court for Gender-based Violence Cases

In 2017, the Lahore High Court and district judiciary Lahore inaugurated Pakistan’s first Gender Based Violence Court. Conceived as an institution to streamline cases involving female survivors of VAW, it makes provision for extraordinary measures to support survivors, ensure speedy and confidential trials, reduce harassment and provide security against reprisals to survivors.\[^{532}\]

After its inauguration in October 2017, 123 cases involving VAW in Lahore were transferred to the jurisdiction of the Special Court. These cases include inter alia rape, gang-rape, kidnapping/abduction, wrongful confinement, and sexual abuse. In December 2017, cases pending were at different stages of trial and the list of cases reveals inordinate delays and excessive lapse of time since the registration of the FIR.

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526 This number includes 205 ex-cadre judges
527 Judges who have been posted to Special Courts of Banking, Anti-Corruption, Narcotics, Anti-terrorism, Family, Insurance, Customs and Excise, Taxation, Environment, Consumer Protection and Labour
528 (UN, n.d.)
529 Salman Akram Raja versus The Government of Punjab, through Chief Secretary, Civil Secretariat, Lahore and others; 2013 SCMR 203
530 Ibid at 523
531 The General Training Program is the regular training program to be attended by all judges of the District Judiciary
532 Gender sensitive Guidelines and a Practice Note were formulated and notified in October 2017 to aid speedy decision-making by the Special Judge
7.3.2.3 Family Law and Guardianship Cases

Globally, justice systems are heavily burdened with a large number of cases on each judge’s docket.\textsuperscript{533} Inadequate resources for police, prosecution, public defenders, and judges pose an added and critical administrative challenge in Pakistan (including Punjab).\textsuperscript{534} As reported by the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan, a total of 7,093,000 cases were pending in courts across Pakistan by the end of 2014.

In 2017, the Chief Justice of the Lahore High Court introduced and notified a Case and Court Management Plan for the district judiciary of Punjab. The Plan streamlines cases according to courts and typology of offence,\textsuperscript{535} while also dedicating Special Judges to each Court, so as to reduce the caseload of Civil and District and Sessions Courts, and ensure speedy trials.

7.3.3.3 (a) Family Law Cases

At the end of 2017, 92,965 cases were pending in Family Court, a 6.7% reduction from cases pending (99,687) at the end of 2016. Districts with the highest number of pending cases are Lahore (10,481), Multan (7,177) and Faisalabad (7,020). The same districts also had the highest number of cases pending in 2016, with 10,325 in Lahore, 6,519 in Multan and 6,331 cases in Faisalabad.

The lowest numbers of pending cases in 2017 were in Mianwali (727), Rajanpur (785) and Jhelum (796). Comparatively, Mianwali (933), Nankana (804) and Rajanpur (774) had lowest numbers of pending cases in 2016.

Figure 7.27 provides district-wise numbers of pending family law cases in Punjab in 2016 and 2017.

7.3.3.3 (b) Guardianship Cases

At the end of 2017, there were 19,484 guardianship cases pending in Punjab, which is an 11% increase from 17,528 pending cases in 2016.

Districts with the highest number of pending cases in 2017 include Lahore (4,471), Multan (2,176) and Rawalpindi (2,122). The same 3 districts had the highest numbers of pending cases with 3,984 cases in Lahore, 1,745 in Multan and 1,567 cases pending in Rawalpindi in 2016.

In 2017, lowest numbers were seen in Chakwal (46), Dera Ghazi Khan (47) and Bhakkar (52). In comparison, Hafizabad (82), Dera Ghazi Khan (76) and Bhakkar (53) had the lowest numbers of case pending in 2016.

\textsuperscript{533} (Dakolias, 2014)
\textsuperscript{534} Ibid
\textsuperscript{535} Special Courts in Punjab include courts for GBV, Children, Accountability, Family, WAPDA/NADRA and Rent, Illegal Disposition, Sui Gas Utility, Electronic Transactions, Murder, Narcotics, Habeas Corpus, etc.
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Figure 7.28

District-wise numbers of pending guardianship cases in 2016 and 2017 are provided in Figure 7.28.

7.3.3 Advocates

In 2016, 82,532 advocates were registered with the Punjab Bar Council (PBC), out of which 74,101 (90%) were men and 8,431 (10%) were women, with a GPI of 0.114. With registration of 6,611 new advocates in 2017, the total number of lawyers now registered with PBC is 89,143. Of these, 79,540 (89%) are men and 9,603 (11%) are women, with a GPI of 0.121. Figure 7.29 provides the total numbers of male and female advocates registered with PBC in 2016 and 2017.
Districts with the overall highest number of female advocates include Lahore (3,350) and Rawalpindi (783). In 2017, the highest number of new female advocates were registered in Lahore (321), Rawalpindi (105) and Gujranwala (81).

While data from 2016 showed no female advocates in Lodhran, Mianwali, Khushab, Chiniot and Bhakkar, 3 female advocates in Mianwali, 2 each in Lodhran and Chiniot, and 1 each in Bhakkar and Khushab, were registered in 2017.

7.3.3.1 Prosecutors

In 2017, there were 907 prosecutors in the Public Prosecution Department, Government of Punjab. Of these, 784 (86%) are men and 123 (14%) are women, with a GPI of 0.157. In comparison with 2016, the number of female prosecutors has only increased by 1 prosecutor, whereas the number of male prosecutors has decreased by 16. The number of male and female prosecutors according to their positions are depicted in Figure 7.30.

7.3.4 Legal Aid Schemes for Women

Costly legal representation presents a significant barrier to access to justice for women. Often, women who cannot afford legal representation do not register complaints or report instances of VAW.

Inadequate and poorly funded legal aid schemes have resulted in negligible legal protection for low and middle-income groups, particularly women and children. Lack of legal aid has been identified as one of the factors that impede women's ability to leave abusive relationships.

As of 2006, PBC's Free Legal Aid Committees have been operational in all 36 districts of Punjab. In 2017, the number of members (621) of these Committees remained unchanged from 2016. Of 621 members, 588 (95%) are men and 33 (5%) are women, with a very low GPI of 0.056. The highest number of women are members of PBC's Legal Aid Committee in Lahore (15), Rawalpindi (4) and Nankana Sahib (4). No new Legal Aid Committees were notified in 2017 and 20 people received legal aid from PBC, of which 9 are men and 11 are women. Comparatively, only 8 men and 3 women received legal aid in 2016.

7.3.5 Government Run Social Services Institutions

For the purposes of providing social, residential, crisis and rehabilitation services to women in Punjab, the Social Welfare and Bait-ul-Maal Department of the Government of Punjab has set up 17 different types of institutions across the province (Figure 7.32).
Detailed analysis reveals that while 9 men are appointed to the most senior position, that of Additional Prosecutor General (APG), in the Department, no woman was appointed in the same position. It is noteworthy that the highest number of women (106) were appointed in the most junior position in the Department, that of Additional District Public Prosecutor (“ADPP”).

### 7.3.3.2 Gender Sensitivity Trainings of Prosecutors

In 2017, only 35 of 907 prosecutors from 7 districts\(^5\) obtained gender sensitivity training in Punjab. Of these, 25 (71%) were men and 10 (29%) were women. Even though the number of prosecutors who received training is very low, it is an improvement over 2015 and 2016, wherein no gender sensitivity trainings were conducted by the Public Prosecution Department.

Proportion of prosecutors who acquired gender sensitivity training in 2017 is provided in Figure 7.31.

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\(^5\) Lahore, Kasur, Sheikhupura, Okara, Faisalabad, Nankana Sahib and Gujranwala
\(^5\) (Millington, 2016)
\(^5\) (Committee, 2016)
\(^5\) (Marina Morrow, 2004)
In total, there are 138 Social Services Institutions with separate residential and/or training facilities for women with disabilities, mentally and physically challenged children, abandoned infants, destitute and needy girls, old aged women, female drug addicts, divorced women and widows, and orphans. Lahore (17) and Rawalpindi (10) have the highest number of institutions for women, while all 36 districts have a Dar-ul-Aman (DuA) and a Sanatzar Skill Development and Training Institute. Figure 7.33 provides the number and types of institutes being run by the Social Welfare and Bait-ul-Maal Department.
At the end of December 2017, 11,328 women were residing in government run Social Services Institutions. This is in comparison with 3,024 women residing in such institutions at the end of 2016. It is pertinent to mention, however, that in 2016, data provided by the Social Welfare and Bait-ul-Maal Department was limited to only 9 institutions. This was expanded to 17 institutions in 2017.

District-wise representation of women residing in 17 of the above mentioned institutions in 2017 is provided in Figure 7.34. The highest numbers of women reside in Institutions in Lahore (1,150), Bahawalpur (842), Faisalabad (652), Sargodha (639), Rawalpindi (594), Bahawalnagar (508) and Multan (504).
7.3.6 Violence against Women Centers

VAWCs are envisioned as one-stop shop centers, where survivors of violence can report instances of violence and register an FIR, get a medical examination, obtain counselling, engage a prosecutor to lead their case and if required, use the VAWC’s mediation and rehabilitation facilities. The first VAWC was established in Multan in 2017. The VAWC under construction in Gujranwala is due for completion in 2018 and the establishment of VAWCs in Faisalabad, Rawalpindi and Lahore are in process.

At the end of 2017, 1,494 cases had been reported to the VAWC. Of these, 918 cases pertained to domestic violence, 165 marital disputes including dowry, custody and divorce matters, 89 property disputes, 71 criminal complaints, including murder, kidnapping and threats, 99 harassment cases, 58 cases of rape, 22 of fraud, 11 of emotional abuse, and 5 of economic abuse. 56 cases were categorized as “others.” Domestic violence was the most frequently reported offence at the VAWC in Multan. The number of cases reported at VAWC, Multan according to type is provided in Figure 7.35.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Violence</td>
<td>918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage Disputes</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property Disputes</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Offence</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Abuse</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Abuse</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 1,494

Source: Chief Minister’s Strategic Reforms Unit

Figure 7.35

7.4 Conclusion

VAW has serious implications for women’s physical, mental, social and economic wellbeing. Analysis of data received from all districts of Punjab reveals widespread prevalence of domestic violence, rape and other forms of sexual violence, harassment, physical forms of violence, and discrimination against women. Additionally, customary practices and socio-cultural factors also play a distinct role in increasing violence and discrimination against women. Institutional weaknesses in ensuring women’s access to justice, including provision of legal aid and conviction of perpetrators of VAW, have also contributed to women’s declining status in the province over the years.

Female prisoners are not provided adequate opportunities for social rehabilitation and reintegration into society.
Women’s barracks, recreational facilities, medical centers and educational facilities for prisoners’ children are in need of regular upgradation.

In sum, issues faced by women stem from deep rooted biases and regressive mindsets, which can only be altered over time, through promotion of human rights’ based counter narratives and persistent efforts to raise awareness regarding women’s status, their right to equal participation in all forms of public life, and their right to live in dignity and safety.

**Recommendations**

**Procedural**

*Improve redress mechanisms for women survivors of violence*

i. Expedite setting up of VAWCs across Punjab.

ii. Notify Women Protection Officers and District Women Protection Officers at the earliest and operationalize mechanisms specified under the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act 2016.

iii. Formulate, implement and regularly monitor SOPs for police station staff to deal with survivors of VAW.

iv. Provide methodical and consistent gender sensitivity training at least 3 times a year, to both male and female police officers, prosecutors, judges, staff at social services institutions, especially DUAs, and panel of legal aid providers.

v. Induct and promote more female Judges in the district Judiciary and Lahore High Court.

vi. Recruit and promote more female police Officers and Officials, especially to facilitate women at front desks.

vii. Capacitate front desk staff with official authority to register complaints and counsel complainants regarding appropriate legal action to be taken against perpetrators of VAW.

viii. Regularize police (15) and Women’s Helpline (1043) awareness programs. Regular legal and gender sensitivity trainings must be provided to staff.

ix. Develop SOPs for provision of legal aid, and create linkage with Punjab Commission on the Status of Women and other women’s institutions for provision of legal aid in all districts of Punjab.

x. Facilitate close liaison between investigation officers and other concerned police officials, and prosecutors, to ensure collection of relevant forensic evidence.

xi. Develop SOPs for case management, from the time of FIR registration to the conclusion of trial, in close liaison with district judiciary, Lahore, especially Special Judge for GBV Court.

**Reform the Prison Manual and related rules to reflect UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, 2015**


ii. Upgrade prison buildings, washrooms and barracks for women.

iii. Implement rehabilitation programs that cater to prisoners’ mental health and drug use.
iv. Add appropriate skills for market trainings for female prisoners.

v. Ensure provision of legal aid to prisoners who cannot afford legal representation.

vi. Create linkages for financial support to prisoners who cannot obtain release from prison due to lack of funds for bail.

vii. Provide formal education to children who accompany their mothers.

viii. Appoint more women in leadership positions in the Prisons Department in Punjab.

**Monitor implementation of laws, policies and administrative measures to reduce VAW in Punjab**

i. Develop framework to monitor working of VAWCs and other district-level services for survivors of VAW provided for in the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act 2016.

ii. Ensure that Inquiry Committees established under the Punjab Protection against Harassment at the Workplace Act 2012 are fully functional in all government offices across Punjab.

iii. Stringently implement and monitor working of GBV Court in Lahore, as well as Guidelines and Practice Note for Judges.

iv. Appoint more women in leadership positions in the Judiciary, Prosecution and Police in Punjab.
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SECTION 03
Women’s empowerment is a prerequisite for building an inclusive society and eventually paving way for sustainable economic development. Socio-economic progress on a global level cannot be realized unless the potential of women, who represent half of the world’s population, is realized. However, discrimination against women begins even before they are born; preference for a son, abandonment of the girl child, and non-registration of girls’ births are some common practices motivated by an anti-women sentiment. Girls receive less formal education than boys in most regions of the world.⁴⁴⁰ Their abilities and contributions to society often go unrecognized. Widespread gender discrimination may be attributed to the prevalence of a hierarchical power dynamic between men and women, which impede the growth of women throughout their lives.

The government of Punjab recognizes that optimal productivity and sustainable development is not possible if half of the population is denied access to equal opportunities. Since 2012, CM Punjab has introduced a series of pro-women initiatives to promote women’s empowerment. Figure 8.1 lists these initiatives and illustrates their focus on several women-in-development (WID) approaches, including economic, social, educational and legal empowerment.

This Section has been divided into 4 sub sections; with each sub section providing an implementation status of the provisions contained within 1 of the 4 initiatives introduced from 2012 to 2017. The provisions of Punjab Women Empowerment Package (PWEP) 2012 and Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative (PWEI) 2014 have been broadly categorized into legal, economic empowerment, education, health and political initiatives (Figure 8.2). The provisions in the 2016 and 2017 packages cannot be categorized separately due to their varied nature and are, therefore, presented collectively. The relevant information for each category is provided in separate tables under each sub section. The last column of each table reflects the status of the respective provision with progress being depicted by three distinct symbols (Figure 8.3). Each table is followed by a detailed update of relevant provisions, where possible.
8.1 Punjab Women Empowerment Package 2012

PWEP 2012 was introduced to address socio-economic and legal issues faced by women in Punjab. The package’s primary focus is women’s rights and women’s empowerment. Implementation status of provisions under PWEP 2012 has been provided in sub sections 8.1.1 to 8.1.6.

8.1.1 Legal Initiatives

Table 8.1 provides an implementation status of the legal initiatives contained in PWEP 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEGAL INITIATIVES</th>
<th>PROVISIONS</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Harassment at the Workplace</td>
<td>→ Appointment of Ombudsperson under the Punjab Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act (Harassment Act) (Refer to Figure 8.4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Display of Code of Conduct of the Harassment Act in all public offices (Refer to Figure 8.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Provincial Committee to oversee implementation of the Harassment Act (Refer to Figures 8.6-8.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Offence of Acid Throwing</td>
<td>→ Amendment in Poisons Act to discourage acid throwing incidents on women (Refer to Figure 8.9 and 8.10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Acid throwing shall be dealt with under anti-terrorism laws</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Establishment of a Provincial Board of Acid Burns Survivors and a Fund to recommend specialized medical and psychological care, and its monitoring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Amendment in Inheritance Laws</td>
<td>→ Punjab Land Revenue laws to ensure that inheritance rights of female heirs are properly safeguarded (Refer to Figure 8.11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Partition of property through an Inheritance Mutation must be done as soon as possible after the death of the owner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Penal Action Against Delinquent Revenue Officers</td>
<td>→ To ensure appropriate action against delinquent officers who, due to collusion or mala fide intention, deprive a legal heir of her right to inheritance (Refer to Figure 8.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Punjab Land Revenue Rules, 1968 should provide for a District Committee for Protection of Right of Inheritance (Refer to Figure 8.13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Urban Immovable Property</td>
<td>→ New laws will be legislated for curtailing delays in disposal of partition cases suggesting mechanism to alleviate problems faced by joint owners due to protracted litigation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Stamp Duty</td>
<td>→ Stamp duty shall be waived for partition made effective due to inheritance for both rural and urban properties (Refer to Figure 8.14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Proprietary Rights</td>
<td>→ 50% proprietary rights to women under the Jinnah Abadi scheme and to residents of Katchi Abadis (Refer to Figure 8.15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Right to Equal Remuneration</td>
<td>→ Amendment in Wage Laws and Rules in accordance with ILO Convention No. 100 to ensure equal remuneration to both male and female employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Policy for Home-Based Workers</td>
<td>→ Policy covering strategies, plans and programs for protection &amp; promotion of rights and benefits of Home Based Workers who mostly comprise of females</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Women Crisis Centers</td>
<td>→ Women Crises and Rehabilitation Help Desks at district level providing legal, psychological and basic health referral services shall be provided under the supervision of the DCO and legislated accordingly (Refer to Figure 8.15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ A 24/7 toll free Helpline shall be established (Refer to Figure 8.16 and Figures 8.41-8.43)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Harassment at the Workplace

To inquire about the implementation status of provisions contained in Figures 8.5 to 8.8, 347 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 702 District Offices were contacted by PCSW. Of these, 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 663 District Offices responded. Implementation status of these provisions reflects data relating to offices that responded to PCSW’s data request.

In 2017, the Office of the Ombudsperson, Punjab received 98 complaints. Of these, 79 (81%) have been decided while 19 (19%) are still in process. Of the 79 decided complaints, 34 (43%) accused have been penalized, 14 (18%) have been exonerated, 25 (32%) complaints have been withdrawn and 6 (8%) have been filed.

Outcomes of Complaints Received by the Ombudsperson’s Office in Punjab (2017)

![Graph showing outcomes of complaints]

Source: Office of Ombudsperson, Punjab

Figure 8.4

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, Code of Conduct of the Harassment Act is displayed in 127 (70%) offices. Out of 663 District Offices, it is displayed in 318 (48%) offices.

Outcomes of Complaints Received by Harassment Committees in District Offices in Punjab (2017)

![Graph showing outcomes of complaints]

Source: Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

Figure 8.8

Outcomes of Complaints Received by Harassment Committees in Provincial Departments/Institutions in Punjab (2017)

![Graph showing outcomes of complaints]

Source: Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

Figure 8.6
Out of 181 Provincial Institutions/Departments, 107 (59%) have established Inquiry Committees. Out of 663 District Offices, 248 (37%) have established Inquiry Committees.

In 2017, 7 out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions received 11 complaints. All complaints have been addressed.

In 2017, 14 out of 663 District Offices received 22 complaints. Action was taken in 8 (36%) complaints while 14 (64%) were disposed off.
Offence of Acid Throwing

Provincial Board for Acid Burns Survivors was constituted in 2012

Figure 8.9

Reported Cases of Acid Burning in Punjab (2015 to 2017)

From 2015 to 2017, a total of 101 cases of acid burning were reported in Punjab, with the highest number reported in 2016 (43). Over the years, the number of reported cases have increased by 39%.

Figure 8.10

Amendment in Inheritance Laws

Inheritance/Mutation Cases in Punjab (2010 – 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Total Cases</th>
<th>Decided Cases</th>
<th>Pending Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010 - 2015</td>
<td>29,477</td>
<td>23,583</td>
<td>5,894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>31,576*</td>
<td>23,352</td>
<td>8,224</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes 5,894 pending cases.

In 2016, there were 31,576 Inheritance/Mutation cases in Punjab. Of these, 23,352 cases were decided while 8,224 were pending at the end of 2016. No data was provided for 2017 by the Board of Revenue, Punjab.

Figure 8.11

Penal Action Against Delinquent Officers

No Revenue Officer (RO) was punished in 2017

Figure 8.12
In 2015, 115 DEIRC meetings and in 2016, 133 DEIRC meetings were convened. In 2017, 116 meetings were held in 18 districts. The highest number of meetings were held in Sheikhupura, Bhakkar and Sahiwal (12 each). No meetings were convened in the remaining 18 districts.

Figure 8.13

Stamp Duty

As of 2017, 53% districts had Katchi Abadis while 47% had Jinnah Abadis while only two districts (Chakwal and Mianwali) had neither. Lahore had the greatest number of Katchi mutated dwellings (37,140) while Sialkot had the greatest number of Jinnah mutated dwellings.

Figure 8.14
Women Crisis Centers

In 2017, 4,067 women benefitted from services provided by 12 Women Crisis Centers across Punjab. The highest numbers of beneficiaries were in Lahore (1,044) while the lowest were in Sahiwal (150).

Figure 8.15

In August 2014, PCSW established Punjab Women’s Helpline (1043)

Figure 8.16
8.1.2 Economic Empowerment

Table 8.2 highlights the implementation status of initiatives for women’s economic empowerment under PWEP 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT</th>
<th>PROVISIONS</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Public Sector Employment & Economic Empowerment | → Quota for women in public service employment including posts recruited through the PPSC shall be enhanced to 15% (Refer to Figure 8.17)  
→ Women to fill 25% of general seats as Members of PPSC (Refer to Figure 8.18)  
→ All boards of statutory organizations, public sector companies and committees as well as special purpose task forces and committees shall have 33% women representation (Refer to Figure 8.19)  
→ At least 1 woman in all Selection and Recruitment Committees for regular and contractual employment (Refer to Figure 8.20)  
→ 33% women consultants in Provincial Ombudsman Office (Refer to Figure 8.21) | ✔️ |
| 2. Age Relaxation | → Age relaxation up to 3 years shall be allowed to females for fresh induction over and above normal upper age ceiling including existing general relaxation (Refer to Figure 8.22) | ✔️ |
| 3. Women Friendly Public Amenities | → Amenities for women in all public offices: separate washroom and prayer room be designated in existing buildings (Refer to Figure 8.23) | ✔️ |
| 4. Maternity Leave | → Application of maternity leave shall be deemed to be approved as soon as maternity leave application is moved to the immediate superior (Refer to Figure 8.24)  
→ Women will not be required to provide fitness certificate on joining after availing maternity leave  
→ Maternity leave shall not be less than 90 days; condition to avail 45 days before and 45 days after to be abolished | ✔️ |
| 5. Paternity Leave | → 1-week paternity leave for male employees for two children (Refer to Figure 8.25) | ✔️ |
| 6. Day Care Centers | → Establishment of Punjab Day Care Fund to support working women to make workplaces women friendly  
→ Day Care Centers (DCCs) in all public-sector offices with 5 or more than 5 female employees (Refer to Figure 8.26) | ✔️ |
| 7. Women Entrepreneurship | → Punjab Bank to initiate “Women Entrepreneurship Financial Scheme” for loans for commercial ventures by women | ❌ |
| 8. Interest Free Loans for Women | → Government of Punjab will allocate additional Rs. 1 billion for the year 2012-13 for disbursement of loans through Akhuwat with a target to support at least 33% of its total beneficiaries  
*This initiative is continued under PWEI 2017; please refer to Table 8.12 and Figure 8.70 | ✔️ |
| 9. Skills Development | → All government skills development programs shall include a substantial number of women trainees (Refer to Figure 8.27) | ✔️ |

To inquire about the implementation status of provisions contained in Figures 8.18 to 8.26, 347 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 702 District Offices were contacted by PCSW. Of these, 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 663 District Offices responded. Implementation status of these provisions reflects data relating to offices that responded to PCSW’s data request.
Public Sector Employment & Economic Empowerment

15% Representation of Women in Public Offices of Punjab (2017)

- **Provincial Departments/Institutions**: 133 (73%) In Compliance, 48 (27%) Not in Compliance
- **District Offices**: 526 (79%) In Compliance, 137 (21%) Not in Compliance

Source: Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

(27%) of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 137 (21%) of 663 District Offices fulfill the 15% quota requirement.

Figure 8.17

Members of Punjab Public Service Commission (2017)

- **Number**
  - 0
  - 5
  - 10
  - 15
  - 13

Source: Punjab Public Service Commission

There are 13 general members of PPSC, all of whom are men. There has been no change in membership since 2016.

Figure 8.18

33% Representation of Women in Boards, Committees and Taskforces in Public Offices of Punjab (2017)

- **Boards**: 54 (78%) In Compliance, 16 (22%) Not in Compliance
- **Committees**: 108 (53%) In Compliance, 96 (47%) Not in Compliance
- **Taskforces**: 1 (43%) In Compliance, 4 (57%) Not in Compliance

Source: Provincial Departments/Institutions and District Offices

181 Provincial Departments/Institutions provided a list of 70 Boards, 204 Committees and 7 Taskforces. Of the 70 Boards, 15 (22%) are in compliance with the 33% requirement. Of the 204 Committees, 96 (47%) and 4 (57%) out of 7 Taskforces are in compliance.

Figure 8.19
Public Sector Employment & Economic Empowerment

There are 13 general members of PPSC, all of whom are men. There has been no change in membership since 2016.

Figure 8.18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Members of Punjab Public Service Commission (2017)</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boads</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committees</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taskforces</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

54% Representa\n| Board of Directors, Committees, and Taskforces in Public Offices of Punjab (2017) | Number |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Compliance</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in Compliance</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

47% of 70 Boards and 47% of 204 Committees are in compliance with the requirement.

Figure 8.19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District Offices</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Compliance</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in Compliance</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

137 (21%) of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 210 (57%) of 663 District Offices fulfill the 15% quota requirement.

Figure 8.20

There are 24 consultants in the Ombudsman’s office, all of which are men.

Figure 8.21

Age Relaxation

Females Appointed to whom Age Relaxation of up to 3 Years was Allowed in Public Offices in Punjab (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provinical Departments/Institutions</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>District Offices</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2,075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 18 provided age relaxation to 235 women. Out of 663 District Offices, 34 provided age relaxation to 2,075 women.

Figure 8.22
Women Friendly Public Amenities

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 161 have female employees. Of these 161 Departments/Institutions, 149 have separate washrooms while 109 have separate prayer areas for women. Out of 663 District Offices, 305 have separate washrooms and 204 have separate prayer areas for women.

Maternity Leave

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 109 provided maternity leave to 1,144 employees. Out of 663 District Offices, 156 provided maternity leave to 4,555 employees.

Paternity Leave

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 89 provided paternity leave to 899 employees. Out of 663 District Offices, 120 provided paternity leave to 471 employees.
Day Care Centers

As of December 31, 2017, 66 DCCs were operational in public offices in Punjab. Lahore has the highest number of Centers (29) followed by Rawalpindi (9) and Faisalabad (7). Mandi Bahauddin, Multan, Chakwal and Dera Ghazi Khan have 3 DCCs each.

Skills Development

From 2012 to 2017, skills development trainings have been provided to 254,870 individuals in Punjab. Of these, 160,224 (63%) are male while 94,646 (37%) are female.
8.1.3 Education

Table 8.3 provides the implementation status of education initiatives contained in PWEP 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Higher Education</td>
<td>→ Career Development Centers in all public-sector women universities and counseling facility in post-graduate colleges (Refer to Figure 8.28)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Hostel facility in at least 1 District Degree College for Women at the District Headquarters (Refer to Figure 8.29)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Women Degree College in uncovered tehsils (Refer to Figure 8.30)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Transport for women colleges (Refer to Figure 8.31)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ All women colleges without adequate transport shall be provided buses</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. School Education</td>
<td>→ All girls’ schools shall be provided with toilets and boundary walls (Refer to Figure 8.32)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ At least 70% jobs will be earmarked for women in primary education (Refer to Figure 8.33)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Higher Education

#### Career Counseling Facilities in Female Colleges in Punjab’s 9 Divisions (2013-14 to 2016-17)

By the end of 2017, 71 female colleges in Punjab were offering career-counseling facilities; 19 of which are based in Dera Ghazi Khan Division and 16 in Lahore Division. It is to be noted that no female college in Multan Division has career counseling facilities. This figure depicts the total numbers of career counseling facilities at the end of each year.

![Figure 8.28](image)

#### Hostel Facilities in Public Women Degree Colleges in Punjab’s 9 Divisions (2013-14 to 2016-17)

From 2013 to 2017, 73 public women degree colleges have established hostel facilities. Rawalpindi Division has the highest number of hostels (16) followed by Faisalabad Division (12) while Multan Division has 3 hostels only. This figure depicts the total numbers of hostel facilities at the end of each year.

![Figure 8.29](image)
Table 8.3 provides the implementatio
Higher Educa
8.1.3 Educa
Source: Directorate of Public Instruc
facilities. This figure depicts the total numbers of career counseling facilities at the end of each year.

By the end of 2017, 71 female colleges in Punjab were offering career-counseling facilities. This figure depicts the total numbers of career counseling facilities at the end of each year.

At the end of 2017, 176 public women degree colleges had transport facilities. The highest number of colleges (33) with transport facilities is in Lahore Division, with the lowest number of colleges with said facilities is in Bahawalpur Division (13). This figure depicts the total numbers of female colleges with transport facilities at the end of each year.

School Education

In Punjab, 98.1% primary, 99.6% middle, 99.7% high and 100% higher secondary schools have boundary walls, while 98.3% primary, 99.7% middle, 99.9% high and 99.7% higher secondary schools have toilet facilities. For detailed information on facilities, please refer to sub-section 5.5.1.7.
In 2017, there were 113,336 primary school teachers, of which 67,078 (59%) were women and 46,258 (41%) were men, with a GPI of 1.45. For detailed information on primary school teachers, please refer to section 5.6.1.1.

8.1.4 Health

Table 8.4 illustrates the health initiatives introduced under PWEP 2012.

Table 8.4 Health Initiatives under PWEP 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEALTH</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Health</td>
<td>→ Punjab Government shall scale up the Chief Minister’s Health Initiative for Attainment and Realization of MDGs (CHARM program) all across Punjab. First phase shall include basic EmONC services to additional 20 districts having poor health indicators (Refer to Figure 8.34)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Punjab Government to announce a comprehensive Nutrition Program for Mother and Child that shall ensure availability of medicines and supplements to pregnant and lactating women at BHU level and calcium tablets for older women (Refer to Figure 8.35)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By the end of 2017, 803 BHUs, 297 BHUs (Plus Model), 310 RHCs, 116 THQs and 26 DHQs had Emergency Obstetric and Neonatal Care services.

By the end of 2017, the Comprehensive Nutrition Program was available in 804 Out Patient Therapeutic sites and 42 Stabilization Centers.
8.1.5 Political
Table 8.5 provides the implementation status of political initiatives contained within PWEP 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POLITICAL</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. POLITICAL</td>
<td>A Gender Mainstreaming Standing Committee shall be established in the Punjab Assembly (Refer to Figure 8.36)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Political

Gender Mainstreaming Standing Committee was established in 2013 and has been chaired by Ms. Raheela Khadim Hussain since its establishment.

Figure 8.36

8.1.6 Implementation & Administration
Table 8.6 provides implementation and administration provisions contained in PWEP 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPLEMENTATION &amp; ADMINISTRATION</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Implementation &amp; Administration</td>
<td>Women Development Department led by a female minister/advisor will be set up with immediate effect (Refer to Figure 8.37)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Status of Gender Parity Report shall be submitted annually by Women Development Department (Refer to Figure 8.38)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Level Gender Review Board for implementation of this Women Empowerment Package shall be set up. This will be headed by the Chief Minister and will oversee implementation of this package in three months</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Mainstreaming Committees to be formed in all departments (Refer to Figure 8.39)</td>
<td>☹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Women Development Department

Women Development Department was established on April 4, 2012

Figure 8.37

Gender Parity Report shall be submitted annually by Women Development Department

Since 2016, PCSW has published 3 Punjab Gender Parity Reports.

Figure 8.38
To inquire about the implementation status of provision (d), 347 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 702 District Offices were contacted by PCSW. Of these, 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions and 663 District Offices responded. Implementation status of this provision reflects data relating to offices that responded to PCSW’s data request.

Gender Mainstreaming Committees to be formed in all departments

Out of 181 Provincial Departments/Institutions, 54 have established Gender Mainstreaming Committees. Out of 663 District Offices, 121 have Gender Mainstreaming Committees.

8.2 Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative 2014

The government introduced PWEI 2014 with a focus on economic and social empowerment of women. Implementation status of provisions under PWEI is provided in the sub sections 8.2.1 to 8.2.4. Measures overlapping with PWEP 2012 have already been mentioned above.

8.2.1 Legal Initiatives

Table 8.7 provides details of legal initiatives under PWEI 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEGAL INITIATIVES</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Establishment of the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women</td>
<td>A statutory body established by the Government of Punjab for the promotion and protection of women’s rights governed by the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women Act, 2014</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Toll Free Women’s Helpline</td>
<td>PCSW to establish a Toll-free Helpline (1043) through which women will be provided information regarding their rights and referrals to service providers/institutions (Refer to Figures 8.40-8.42)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Help Desks for Females in Police Stations</td>
<td>Female help desks to be established in every police station where only women may be posted for providing assistance to women complainants (Refer to Section 7.3.1.1)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Land Revenue Laws</td>
<td>As discussed under PWEP 2012 (Refer to Table 8.1)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Waiving of Birth Registration Fee</td>
<td>Prescribed fee for new and late birth registration of boys and girls waived (Refer to Section 2.2.3)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Family Court Complexes</td>
<td>Establishment of separate Family Court Complexes in all DHQs so that women and children are provided a congenial atmosphere for resolution of family disputes in a less adversarial and more mediatory and reconciliatory manner (Refer to Figure 8.43)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Family Law Reforms</td>
<td>The Government of Punjab emphasized the need to reform existing family laws and passed the Punjab Muslim Family Laws (Amendment) Act, 2015 and the Punjab Family Courts (Amendment) Act, 2015 (Refer to Figures 8.44 and 8.45)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From 2014 to 2017, the Punjab Women’s Helpline (1043) has received 1,385 complaints and 63,794 inquiry calls. Over the years, complaints and inquiry calls have increased by 39% and 30%. The Helpline staff has made 330,035 awareness calls.

![Figure 8.40](image)

**Figure 8.40**

From 2014 to 2017, the Punjab Women’s Helpline (1043) has received 1,385 complaints and 63,794 inquiry calls. Over the years, complaints and inquiry calls have increased by 39% and 30%. The Helpline staff has made 330,035 awareness calls.

**Figure 8.41**

1,385 complaints have been registered with the Punjab Women’s Helpline from 2014-2017. The highest number of complaints (406) related to criminal offences followed by violence/torture (292).
Since 2014, the highest number of complaints received by the Punjab Women’s Helpline has been from Lahore (397), followed by Faisalabad (76) and Rawalpindi (57), while the lowest number of calls has been from Bahawalpur (40), Sargodha (44) and Jhang (44).

**Figure 8.42**

**Family Court Complexes**

At the end of 2017, Family Court Complexes had been completed in 2 (6%) districts; Mandi Bahauddin and Layyah. They are in progress in 16 (44%) districts while there are no complexes in the remaining 18 (50%).

**Figure 8.43**

**Family Law Reforms**

The Punjab Family Courts (Amendment) Act 2015 establishes a procedural framework for conducting proceedings in cases of maintenance, dissolution of marriage and arbitration. It provides a 14-day timeline for the payment of monthly maintenance for wife/child.

**Figure 8.44**

The Punjab Muslim Family Laws (Amendment) Act 2015 stipulates provisions for the proper filling of Nikahnama as well as penal provisions in case of violations by the Nikah Registrar.

**Figure 8.45**
8.2.2 Economic Empowerment

Table 8.8 provides the implementation status of initiatives introduced for the economic empowerment of women under PWEI 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Punjab Skills Development Fund</td>
<td>→ Initiate Skills For Market training program for 4,000 rural women in 4 districts including Bahawalpur, Bahawalnagar, Lodhran and Muzaffargarh (Refer to Figure 8.46)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Trades under this program comprise of agriculture, livestock &amp; food processing, garments, textile and services.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Expand training to cater to 10,000 more rural women in 10 more districts of the province; Lahore, Faisalabad, Gujranwala, Narowal, Sheikhupura, Sargodha, Chiniot, Khanewal, Vehari and Rahim Yar Khan.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Training of Female Domestic Workers</td>
<td>→ Training of 10,000 female domestic workers in Lahore, Faisalabad, Sialkot, Sargodha and Multan by Women Development Department. (Refer to Figure 8.47)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Veterinary Training of Women in Livestock and Poultry at Tehsil Hospitals of Livestock &amp; Dairy Development Department</td>
<td>→ Livestock Department to conduct training at Tehsil Livestock Hospitals instead of District hospitals to facilitate female trainees. (Refer to Figure 8.48)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Free of Cost Vocational Training to Women Belonging to Minority Communities in Punjab</td>
<td>→ Government to take measures for improving the socio-economic conditions of women belonging to minority communities through vocational training (Refer to Figure 8.49)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Technical Training of Workers’ Wives for earning livelihood</td>
<td>→ Three Vocational Training and Display Centers in Workers Welfare Schools for girls may be established (Refer to Figures 8.50)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rozgar Bank</td>
<td>→ Establishment of a microfinance bank with an objective to provide small loans to at least 30% eligible women</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Exclusive Space in Sunday Bazaars and Ramadan Bazaars for Women</td>
<td>→ Exclusive space in existing Sunday Bazaars and Ramadan Bazaars for mini women bazaars where women can set up stalls</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Establishment of Cottage Villages</td>
<td>→ Labour Department to provide suitable space in Labour Colonies to establish cottage villages for marketing and sale of products, such as handmade clothes, jewelry and handicrafts (Refer to Figure 8.51)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Distribution of Poultry &amp; Cattle</td>
<td>→ Distribution of poultry and cattle to women in rural Punjab to encourage their participation in livestock activities (Refer to Figure 8.52)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Canteens in Female Educational and Training Institutions</td>
<td>→ All female educational and training institutions to hire female contractors to run all canteens (Refer to Figure 8.53)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Delegation of Powers</td>
<td>→ Delegation of power to sanction medical leave to officials at the divisional level</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Affordable Residential Facilities Voucher Scheme for Women</td>
<td>→ Voucher scheme to facilitate low cost accommodation to working women</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Private Sector Employment Policies</td>
<td>→ Reform of private sector employment policies and a sum of Rs. 5.35 million allocated for the purpose</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Punjab Day Care Fund</td>
<td>→ Please refer to Table 8.2, Figure 8.26</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Day Care Workers’ Training</td>
<td>→ Trainings of women as day care workers so that certified workers could subsequently be employed by DCCs established through PDCF (Refer to Figure 8.54)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Provision of Scooties for Working Women</td>
<td>→ Punjab Transport Department initiated a project to provide ‘Scooties for Working Women’ (Refer to Figure 8.55)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>→ Scooties to be provided to 1,000 working women in Lahore and paid for in easy installments</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From 2012 to 2017, 1,126 (4%) men and 26,998 (96%) women have been trained under the Skills For Market Training Program in Bahawalpur, Bahawalnagar, Lodhran, Muzaffargarh, Lahore, Faisalabad, Gujranwala, Narowal, Sheikhupura, Sargodha, Chiniot, Khanewal, Vehari and Rahim Yar Khan.

From 2014 to 2017, 1,000 female domestic workers in 2014 and an additional 1,650 in 2016 were trained under the program in Multan, Faisalabad and Lahore. 1,259 more workers were provided training in 2017. Hence, by the end of 2017, 3,909 female domestic workers had been trained while 6,091 women still need to be trained to achieve 100% implementation.

From 2014 to 2017, on the spot training and self-employment as livestock facilitator with honorarium during training period has been provided to 25,000 rural women. Under the Girl’s School Programme 1,375 schools/colleges have been provided information regarding milk quality awareness to educate them about osteoporosis.
From 2012 to 2017, 1,126 (4%) men and 26,998 (96%) women have been trained under the Skills For Market Training Program in Bahawalpur, Bahawalnagar, Lodhran, Muzaffargarh, Lahore, Faisalabad, Gujranwala, Narowal, Sheikhupura, Sargodha, Chiniot, Khanewal, Vehari and Rahim Yar Khan.

**Figure 8.46**
Training of Female Domestic Workers

**Technical Training of Workers' Wives for Earning Livelihood**

2 Vocational Centers have been established, one in Multan and another in Lahore. To date, 73 women have been trained in these Centers.

**Figure 8.50**

**Establishment of Cottage Villages**

To date, 2 cottage villages have been established in a Labour Colony in Lahore.

**Figure 8.51**

**Distribution of Poultry & Cattle**

From 2014 to 2017, 818,760 poultry birds, 50,000 ducks, 18,392 sheep/goats, 18,056 heifers, 1,763 milch animals and 1,000 poultry sets have been distributed to rural women throughout Punjab.

**Figure 8.52**

Source: Technical Education & Vocational Training Authority

Source: Livestock and Dairy Development Department

Note: Milch animal refers to those animals that yield milk.
Canteens in Female Educational and Training Institutions

Out of 257 canteens in female educational and training institutions, 210 (82%) are run by female contractors. All canteens in Faisalabad (29), Multan (20), Bahawalpur (14), DeraGhazi Khan (11) and Sahiwal (10) are run by female contractors. Figure 8.52 shows the number of canteens being run by female contractors at the end of each year.

Day Care Workers' Training

At the end of 2016, 88 DCC staff members had been trained. However, no trainings were provided in 2017.

Provision of Scooties for Working Women

CM’s Special Reforms Unit (SRU), in collaboration with the Transport Department, Government of the Punjab, provided trainings to 3,500 women on how to ride a motorbike, in 2017.

8.2.3 Education

Table 8.9 provides details of education initiatives under PWEI 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inclusion of PWEI, Gender Equality and Women’s Issues in School Curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Punjab Educational Endowment Fund</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.9 Education Initiatives under PWEI 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inclusion of PWEI, Gender Equality and Women’s Issues in School Curricula</td>
<td>→ Inclusion of all women’s empowerment initiatives in textbooks compiled by the Punjab Curriculum and Textbook Board → Review of school curricula to ensure gender sensitivity (Refer to Figures 8.56 and 8.57)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Punjab Educational Endowment Fund</td>
<td>→ Aims to provide scholarships/monetary assistance to talented and needy students who wish to pursue quality education (Refer to Figures 8.59 and 8.60) → Preference is given to students who belong to the 16 less developed districts of South Punjab → Special quotas for orphans, children of government employees of BPS 1-4, disabled, minorities and widows</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inclusion of PWEI, Gender Equality and Women’s Issues in School Curricula

A chapter on Protection of Women against Violence was included in the Pakistan Studies text books for Grades 9 and 10 through Notification No. 796/D(M) on July 20, 2017.

Figure 8.56

A chapter on Protection of Women against Violence (Urdu version) was included in the Pakistan Studies textbook for Grade 12 through Notification No. 785/D(M) on July 20, 2017.

Figure 8.57

Punjab Educational Endowment Fund

Scholarships Awarded by Punjab Educational Endowment Fund in Punjab (2014-15 to 2016)

From 2014-15 to 2016-17, PEEF awarded scholarships to 176,939 students, of which 73,957 (42%) were male and 102,982 (58%) were female.

Figure 8.58

Scholarships Awarded by Punjab Educational Endowment Fund in Punjab (2016-17)

In 2016-17, 83,622 scholarships were awarded by PEEF. Out of these, 39,015 (47%) were given to male students while 44,607 (53%) were given to female students. In 2017, the top two recipient districts were Rahim Yar Khan and Vehari whereas in 2016 these were Bahawalpur and Layyah.

Figure 8.59
8.2.4 Health

Table 8.10 enlists the health initiatives under PWEI 2014 and provides the implementation status.

Table 8.10 Health Initiatives under PWEI 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEALTH</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Health Insurance Policy | → Health insurance cards will be issued to deserving families (Refer to Figure 8.60)  
                              → Punjab Health Initiative Management Company is being established to improve access to health services for the underprivileged population of Punjab                                                                 | ![Image](image1.png)   |
| 2. Antenatal Clinic Services | → A pilot project to provide antenatal checkups at Ganga Ram hospital and Lady Willingdon Hospital, Lahore                                                                                           | ![Image](image2.png)   |
| 3. Ambulances          | → 300 ambulances to be provided to reduce travel time to hospitals for women in under-privileged communities (Refer to Figure 8.61)                                                                  | ![Image](image3.png)   |
| 4. Birth Waiting Rooms | → Health authorities to provide birth waiting rooms to pregnant women in THQs and DHQs located in remote and tribal areas of Dera Ghazi Khan and Rajanpur (Refer to Figure 8.62) | ![Image](image4.png)   |

Health Insurance Policy

By the end of 2017, the scheme had been initiated in 5 districts: Rahim Yar Khan, Sargodha, Layyah, Khanewal and Narowal. Of the 5,270,793 beneficiaries, 3,145,272 (60%) were male while 2,125,521 (40%) were female.

Figure 8.60

Ambulances

In 2017, 326 ambulances were provided to hospitals for women in under-privileged communities. The highest number of ambulances (19) was provided to hospitals in Muzaffargarh while the lowest (3) was provided to hospitals in Chiniot.

Figure 8.61
8.3 Punjab Women Empowerment Package 2016

Government of Punjab introduced a 3rd package, Punjab Women Empowerment Package 2016 (PWEP 2016), to further its goal of promoting women’s empowerment. The package focused largely on legal, economic, educational and social initiatives. Implementation status of these provisions is provide in section 8.3.1.

8.3.1 Initiatives

Table 8.11 provides details of the implementation status of all provisions contained within PWEP 2016.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INIATIVES</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Legal Aid at the District Level</td>
<td>→ Free legal advice to indigent women at district level through 2 focal persons (preferably females, subject to availability) (Refer to Figure 8.63) → Establishment of legal aid cells for women in collaboration with bar councils</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Women Expo and Business Facilitation Centers</td>
<td>→ 1 Women Expo to be organized annually by the Industries, Commerce and Investment Department, Government of Punjab (Refer to Figure 8.64)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Establishment of Working Women Hostels</td>
<td>→ Working women hostels to be built in all districts (Refer to Figure 8.65)</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Fatima Jinnah Awards</td>
<td>→ To appreciate the valuable contribution of women in the fields of education, arts, health and legal rights, the government announced provision of these awards for accomplished women</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Legal Aid at the District Level

Female Public Prosecutors Providing Legal Aid in Punjab (2017)

Available 17 (47%)
Unavailable in 19 (53%) Districts
One Female
Two Female

To provide free legal aid to women, 2 female Public Prosecutors have been nominated by the Public Prosecution Department in 17 districts while 4 (24%) districts have at least one female public prosecutor. The remaining 19 districts do not meet the requirement.

Source: Punjab Bar Council

Figure 8.63

Women Expo and Business Facilitation Centers

Punjab Board of Investment & Trade organized the 1st Women Expo in Lahore from 13th to 15th October 2017. Business Facilitation Center has not yet been established.

Figure 8.64

Establishment of Working Women Hostels


Working Women Hostels: 12

In December 2017, 512 women were residing in 12 hostels across Punjab. The highest number of women (139) was residing in Lahore followed by Faisalabad (54) while Muzaffargarh and Vehari had the lowest number of residents (14 each).

Source: Directorate of Women Development

Figure 8.65
8.4 Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative 2017

Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative 2017 (PWEI 2017) is the latest policy framework introduced in the series of pro women policies announced by the government since 2012. It focuses on legal, economic and social empowerment of women. Implementation status of provisions contained within PWEI 2017 is provided in 8.4.1.

8.4.1 Initiatives

Table 8.12 provides details of all provisions contained within PWEI 2017. Implementation status of all provisions has also been provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INITIATIVES</th>
<th>PROVISION</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Punjab Gender Policy</td>
<td>→ Formulation of Punjab Gender Policy (Refer to Figure 8.66)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mobile Units to be Provided with Facilities</td>
<td>→ Existing mobile units to be provided with all basic facilities for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for Screening Breast Cancer</td>
<td>screening breast cancer in rural areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Legal Reforms in Christian Family and</td>
<td>→ Legal reforms in Christian Family and Inheritance Laws (Refer to Figure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inheritance Laws</td>
<td>8.68)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. SME Business Trainings</td>
<td>→ SME business trainings to 18,600 women entrepreneurs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5A. IT Trainings by WDD</td>
<td>→ IT trainings by WDD through PITB (Refer to Figure 8.68)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through Punjab Information Technology Board</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PITB)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5B. Skills Development of Female Students</td>
<td>→ Skills development of 40,000 female students with stipend of Rs. 1,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>per month (Refer to Figure 8.69)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Interest Free Loans</td>
<td>→ Interest free microfinance to 300,000 females to start own business</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through Chief Minister's Self Employment Scheme</td>
<td>through CM’s Self Employment Scheme in 2017-18 (Refer to Figure 8.70)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(CMSES)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Designated Spaces for Women at Bus Stops</td>
<td>→ Provision of bus stops with designated waiting spaces for women in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>urban and rural areas (Refer to Figure 8.71)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Establishment of Women Business Incubation</td>
<td>→ Establishment of WBICs in Chambers of Commerce and Industries in 8 cities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centers (WBICs)</td>
<td>and ‘One Stop’ platform for women led businesses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Punjab Gender Policy

The draft of the Punjab Women Development Policy has been submitted to the CM and is awaiting approval of the Cabinet.

Legal Reforms in Christian Family & Inheritance Laws

- Following the Lahore High Court’s ruling in Ameen Masih vs. Federation of Pakistan (W.P No. 623/2016), Section 7 of the Divorce Act, 1869 has been restored. However, it is pertinent to note that as of time of writing, the case is pending on appeal before the Lahore High Court.
- A draft Christian Marriage and Divorce Bill has been prepared after consultations with Christian minority groups and is currently being vetted by the concerned ministry.
In collaboration with PITB, IT trainings for female students have been conducted in 13 districts. Of the 13 districts, the highest number of trainings has been conducted in colleges in Lahore (6). 1 training each was conducted in Sahiwal, Khanewal, Okara, Narowal, Jhelum, Muzaffargarh and Mandi Bahauddin.

**Figure 8.68**

### Skills Development of Female Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills Development of Female Students in Punjab (2017)</th>
<th>Total Capacity</th>
<th>Number of Trainees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Demand Driven (Short Course)</td>
<td>27,510</td>
<td>14,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Microsoft Office (Short Course)</td>
<td>6,665</td>
<td>2,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Stitching Machine (Operator Course)</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEVTA provided skills development training to females for 3 distinct courses: Industrial Demand Driven, Certificate in Microsoft Office and Operation of Industrial Stitching Machine. As of September 2017, 14,400 females had been trained in Industrial Demand Driven course, 2,245 certified as Microsoft Office professionals and 100 females had completed the Industrial Stitching Machine course.

**Figure 8.69**

### Designated Waiting Spaces for Women at Bus Stops in Punjab (2017)

As of October 2017, 36 bus stops had been provided with separate waiting spaces for women throughout the province while designated spaces already exist in two bus stops, one in Lodhran and the other in Khushab. Information for 165 bus terminals has not been shared. Two bus stops (Rawalpindi and Phalia, M.B. Din) do not have designated waiting spaces for women due to financial constraints.

**Figure 8.71**
IT Trainings by WDD through PITB

Lahore
Multan
Muzaffargarh
Khanewal
Sahiwal
Okara
Gujranwala
Mandi
Bahauddin
Narowal
Jhelum
Rawalpindi
Faisalabad
Sheikhupura

Colleges Provided with IT Trainings in Punjab (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Trainings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahiwal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khanewal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okara</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narowal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhelum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muzaffargarh</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 25

In collaboration with PITB, IT trainings for female students have been conducted in 13 districts. Of the 13 districts, the highest number of trainings has been conducted in colleges in Lahore (6). 1 training each was conducted in Sahiwal, Khanewal, Okara, Narowal, Jhelum, Muzaffargarh and Mandi Bahauddin.

Skills Development of Female Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Industrial Demand Driven</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Microso Office</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>Industrial Stitching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator Course</td>
<td>2,245</td>
<td>6,665</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Capacity</td>
<td>14,400</td>
<td>27,510</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEVTA provided skills development training to females for 3 different courses: Industrial Demand Driven, Certificate in Microso Office and Operation of Industrial Stitching Machine. As of September 2017, 14,400 females had been trained in Industrial Demand Driven course, 2,245 certified as Microso Office professionals and 100 females had completed the Industrial Stitching Machine course.

Figure 8.69

Source: Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority

Source: Directorate of Women Development

From 2011-2012 to 2016-17, 1,536,292 loans were disbursed under the CMSES. Of these, 844,962 (55%) were given to men while 691,330 (45%) were given to women. Over the 6-year period, beneficiaries of CMSES have increased by 90%.

Figure 8.70

Source: Punjab Small Industries Corporation

As of October 2017, 36 bus stops had been provided with separate waiting spaces for women throughout the province while designated spaces already exist in two bus stops, one in Lodhran and the other in Khushab. Information for 165 bus terminals has not been shared. Two bus stops (Rawalpindi and Phalia, M.B. Din) do not have designated waiting spaces for women due to financial constraints.

Figure 8.71

Source: Local Government & Community Development Department
Developing new laws and policies, and affecting changes in existing ones, is one of the core functions of the legislative branch of the government. In Punjab, laws are introduced by members of the Punjab Assembly as ‘Government’ or ‘Private Member’ bills; they are reviewed, scrutinized and vetted by the relevant Parliamentary Standing Committee, and formally adopted by a majority in the house before receiving the assent of the Governor of Punjab. Once the Governor has provided assent, the proposed bill becomes a fully enforceable law. In this way, the procedures and stages of law-making derive their justification and legitimacy from the majority-favoring and consensus-oriented ideals and principles that lie at the heart of modern democracy, and have come to define the law and policy-making process around the world.

Safeguarding public interest, enforcing public order, and ensuring public health, security and well-being are some of the core functional attributes associated with laws and policies. It is important to recognize that laws and policies do not operate in a social, cultural or moral vacuum. Legal scholars and policy analysts alike have characterized the relationship between law, state and society as diabolical and dynamic one. On the one hand, legislative development is seen as an evolutionary response stimulated by the practical need to address specific challenges as they arise in real-time, such as increased incidence of gender-based violence (say, Acid or Honour Crimes). These issue-areas trigger public debate and can ultimately tract parliamentary interest on the issue. These issues are often highlighted by media houses, rights-based citizens’ associations, and independent policy think-tanks that collectively act as a buffer between the government and its people; communicating the views and sentiments of the latter to the former.

On the other hand, development of laws and policies can also be said to have a trickle-down effect on society by pro-actively directing social transformation in new and progressive ways such as by abolishing harmful traditional customs and anti-women practices (say, the abolishment of wani) or facilitating new policy paradigms; for instance, the recent shift towards a rehabilitative and victim-friendly approach to the criminal justice system, as manifested in recent laws such as the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act 2016.

In the present section, recent pro-women laws (federal and provincial) and policies (provincial) have been reviewed and analyzed with a view to assess the impact of legal and policy initiatives from the perspective of gender equality. As official guidelines in place to direct the actions of individual citizens, government entities and private organizations, it is extremely important to trace and track the development, and ensuing implementation, of formal laws and policies that seek to protect the civil, political, social, economic and cultural rights of women and girls in Punjab.

9.1 Laws

9.1.1 International

As a member of the international community, Pakistan has signed, ratified and acceded to a number of international treaties and conventions since 1948. These include instruments to promote human rights, regulate maritime activity, and govern the conduct of states during wartime. Under the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP Plus), Pakistan is obliged to ensure implementation of provisions contained within 27 specific treaties/conventions, 9 of which are directly concerned with human rights of individual citizens, including CEDAW.

It is extremely important for the government of Pakistan to oversee the implementation of substantive provisions enshrined under various international agreements. For one, compliance with instruments of international law is determinative of a country’s reputation as a member of the international community. Consequences of non-compliance include loss of moral standing, isolation from the international community/market, severance of diplomatic relations, and in extreme cases, trade embargoes. Moreover, there are substantial trade incentives for Pakistani export commodities vis-à-vis gaining preferential access into European markets through reduced tariffs under the GSP Plus status – a status that is conditional to Pakistan’s compliance with international treaties. In the long run, maintaining this status has the potential
to boost economic growth and human development by generating additional jobs for Pakistanis, especially within the textile and clothing industries.

There are 9 core international human rights Conventions, of which Pakistan has ratified 7. These Conventions, along with their ratification status, are enlisted in Table 1.

### Table 9.1 International Human Rights Conventions/Treaties signed by Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Convention/Treaty</th>
<th>Year of Adoption</th>
<th>Ratification Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Ratified by Pakistan on July 5, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Not Ratified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enforced Disappearances (ICPPED)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Not Ratified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMRW)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel,</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Ratified by Pakistan on June 23, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (UNCAT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Accepted by Pakistan on March 12, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against Women (CEDAW)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>Ratified by Pakistan on June 23, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>Ratified by Pakistan on April 17, 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ICESCR)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>Ratified by Pakistan on September 21, 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination (ICERD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 9.1.2 National and Provincial Laws

Statutes, executive orders, institutional guidelines, Standard Operating Procedures, by-laws, and other rules and regulations serve an important regulatory function by providing a framework within which individual citizens (resident or alien), statutory bodies (autonomous or semi-autonomous) and private organizations (commercial or not-for-profit) engage and interact with each other.647

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**Legislation: A Tool to Promote Gender Equality**

- Addressing lacunae in civil or criminal law and procedure that operate to the exclusive detriment of women and girls.
- Adopting institutional safeguards for the representation and inclusion of women in public and private sector employment.
- Establishing and supporting women-centric institutions for monitoring implementation of pro-women laws, policies and programs, and recommending new laws/amendments.

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"S"r (Eidur, 2014)
From the perspective of gendered, ethnic or religious minorities, responsive and responsible law-making is the first step towards laying down the foundation of a society where the special needs, legitimate interests and fundamental rights of all citizens are well-protected regardless of sex, race, caste, creed or religious affiliation. This protective function of law may be seen as a manifestation of the practical need to take affirmative action for the protection of traditionally marginalized and vulnerable communities.

Between 2006 and 2017, a significant number of pro-women laws and amendments have been enacted at the federal and provincial levels to empower women and eliminate all forms of gender-based discrimination and violence. As illustrated in Figure 9.1, the highest number of pro-women laws (8) was enacted in 2016. By and large, these laws and amendments seek to improve the status of women through substantive and procedural changes in the legal framework pertaining to, among other things, inheritance, marriage, divorce, custody, maintenance, gender-based violence, and harassment at workplace.

Table 9.2 provides a year wise list of all pro-women laws passed from 2006 to 2017. It is pertinent to note that an expansive definition of pro-women laws has been used and a number of laws that address the needs of all citizens, regardless of sex, have also been included. These include, for instance, the Prevention of Electronic Crimes Act 2016 and the Hindu Marriage Act 2017 since individual provisions in these laws specifically address issue-areas that disadvantage women and girls (say, double discrimination against women from religious minority communities or VAWG in online spaces).

Table 9.2 Pro Women Laws (2006 to 2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Provincial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2017 | The Hindu Marriage Act, 2017  
Elections Act, 2017  
National Commission on the Status of Women (Amendment) Act, 2017  
| 2016 | Criminal Law (Amendment) (Offences in the name or pretext of honour) Act, 2016  
Punjab Prohibition of Child Labour at Brick Kilns Act, 2016 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Legislation 1</th>
<th>Legislation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Punjab Local Government Act, 2013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Right to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Commission on Human Rights Act, 2012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Criminal Law (Second Amendment) Act, 2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Criminal Law (Third Amendment) Act, 2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women in Distress and Detention Fund (Amendment) Act, 2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act, 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Protection of Women (Criminal Laws Amendment) Act, 2006</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9.1.2.1 Federal (2017)

Hindu Marriage Act, 2017

Rationale
To enact a law that provides for solemnization and registration of Hindu marriages and for matters ancillary and incidental thereto.

Salient Features
a. Every Hindu marriage shall be registered within 15 days of the solemnization of marriage.
b. The Act lays down conditions for the solemnization and termination of a Hindu marriage.
c. Includes special provisions to ensure the financial security of wife and children.

Analysis
Women and girls belonging to religious minorities face double discrimination, and are often physically persecuted and socially marginalized on account of their religious beliefs. Due to loopholes in the legal framework for marriage/divorce, forced conversions, fake conversions and forced marriages of Hindu women are a rampant practice in many parts of Punjab and Sindh. In the past, lack of legal recognition of the Hindu institution of marriage has resulted in significant costs to the well-being of individual Hindu women, and has deprived them of their fundamental human right to life, family and dignity, as enshrined under the Constitution of Pakistan, 1973 as well as various international treaties.

The recently promulgated Hindu Marriage Act, 2017 is a comprehensive family law for Hindus and lays down procedures relating to solemnization and registration, judicial separation, void and voidable marriages, termination of Hindu marriage, financial security of the wife and children, alternate relief in termination of marriage and termination of marriage by mutual consent. In doing so, the new law is likely to result in reduced numbers of incidents of forced or fake conversions and marriages of Hindu women and girls in Punjab.

The Elections Act, 2017

Rationale
To amend, consolidate and unify laws relating to the conduct of elections.

Salient Features
a. The Act stipulates a 10% minimum threshold for female voter turnout failing which election results within a concerned polling station may be held null/void in accordance with the requisite ECP procedure.
b. The Act directs ECP to conduct ‘public awareness programs and media campaigns, regarding the importance of maximum voter enrollment and participation in elections, especially by women…’
c. ECP is obliged to publish gender-disaggregated data of registered voters in each National Assembly and Provincial Assembly constituency. Moreover, where variation in data for a given constituency amounts to more than 10%, ECP shall take special measures to facilitate women, including but not limited to, expedited procedures for issuance of CNIC and registration of vote.

Analysis
The new law includes a number of women-friendly provisions aimed at facilitating women’s participation in the electoral process as voters. Firstly, by prescribing a minimum threshold for female voter turnout, the Act prevents any possibility of a politically instigated agreement that may seek to limit women’s inclusion in the democratic system as voters. Secondly, in light of the persisting gap between the number of male and female registered voters (as recorded for years 2013, 2015 and 2017 – See Chapter 3), specific provisions stipulating awareness programs for women (say, within girls’ colleges and universities) are both a necessary and desirable development in the law. Lastly, the premium the Act places on collecting, maintaining and disseminating gender disaggregated data has the potential to trigger evidence-based policy changes in Punjab in the future.

9.1.2.2 Provincial (2017)

The Punjab Women Protection Authority Act, 2017

Rationale
To ensure implementation of the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act, 2016 and control, monitor and oversee a comprehensive, efficient, effective and equitable system for protection, relief and rehabilitation of women against all forms of violence in
Punjab.

**Salient Features**

a. To oversee the system of protection stipulated under the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act 2016, including, establishment of District Women Protection Committees and Protection Centers as well as the induction of Women Protection Officers and District Women Protection Officers.

b. To ensure smooth implementation of all facilities provided within Protection Centers vis-a-vis planning, administration, finances, human resource, procurement, engineering, architecture, and monitoring and evaluation.

c. A new post (AIG Women Protection) has been created to oversee and monitor prosecution on gender-based crimes and performance of police officials at the Protection Centers.

d. To institute a mechanism for the periodic sensitization of public servants and employees of the Authority on issues involving women and protection and relief of the aggrieved persons.

e. Carry out execution of monetary, protection and residence orders under the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act, 2016

**Analysis**

With the number of reported cases of VAW in Punjab increasing every year (Refer to 7.1.1), the new system of protection provides for the establishment of Protection Centers where aggrieved women are provided investigative, legal, medical and rehabilitative services under one roof. The Women Protection Authority established under The Punjab Women Protection Authority Act, 2017 is responsible for coordination, planning and execution of the plan to establish these Violence against Women Centers (VAWCs) in all districts of Punjab, and also to ensure that all cases of VAW registered with the police are referred to Protection Center(s).

The recently established VAWC in Multan has been appreciated as a commendable effort to facilitate female victims and survivors of violence. Its establishment has set a good precedent and practical example for the remaining 35 districts of Punjab.

Although the Act provides a comprehensive implementation mechanism for the Punjab Protection of Women against Violence Act, 2016, the institutional framework envisaged under the Act requires vast resources, considerable time, and strong political will before it can be implemented at the district level, and in that sense, might overestimate the infrastructural, human and financial capacity of the state to effectively deliver. It also requires intensive collaboration between various government departments, including the police and the judiciary. Lastly, the Act does not include specific provisions to establish an internal disciplinary mechanism to entertain complaints against an official acting on behalf of the Authority.

**9.1.3 Pro women Policies in Punjab**

Empowerment of women is instrumental to the achievement of gender equality. Empowerment, in turn, requires specific measures to ensure that development projects, budgetary allocations and administrative processes in the public sector conform to international and domestic standards of gender equality. Since the 1990s, new concepts of gender mainstreaming, gender sensitization and Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) have been increasingly endorsed and adopted by government departments/institutions to cater to the specific, unique and legitimate interests of women. To this end, policy vision, action strategies and core institutional values provide the toolkit for policy-makers to advance the cause of women. Firstly, policy vision embodies the futuristic approach through which institutions plan and execute their short-term, medium-term and long-term activities, therefore providing a goal oriented framework of action. Secondly, action strategies determine the nature and modalities of the work undertaken by a particular institution for the advancement of its goals, including but not limited to, activities such as research, advocacy, community outreach, monitoring of laws, and service delivery. Lastly, organizations operate on the basis of a core set of institutional values which determine the extent to which any given organization is able to promote and foster a culture of transparency, inclusiveness, responsiveness, accountability and professionalism.

For the purposes of this section, policies may be defined as the strategic frameworks developed and formalized by individual government departments/institutions for the purpose of directing, regulating and monitoring their internal and external activities. Figure 9.2 depicts the 7-step process involved in policy development,
implementation and impact. It bears to note that policies may be multi-sectoral, in which case, they are concerned with addressing multiple aspects of a particular issue-area (say, discrimination of women at the workplace), and require the coordinated, combined and concerted efforts of more than one institution.

As illustrated in Table 9.3, the government of Punjab has introduced 4 women related policy frameworks between 2012 and 2017 (See Special Initiatives). Altogether, these packages/initiatives contain 78 actionable provisions aimed at the protection and empowerment of women and girls. These include *inter alia* specific provisions calling for 33% representation of women in government Boards, Committees and Special Purpose Taskforces, establishment of the Punjab Commission on the Status of Women, and the establishment of Women Degree Colleges, the Punjab Day Care Fund, and Working Women Hostels.

**Table 9.3 Women Empowerment Packages and Initiatives in Punjab (2006 to 2017)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Policy</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Initiatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punjab Women Empowerment Package</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab Women Empowerment Package</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab Women Empowerment Initiative</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Before providing an overview of department-specific policies, it is important to review the framework of administrative rules applicable across all provincial departments/institutions such as the Contract Appointment Policy 2004\textsuperscript{551} issued by the Finance Division, Government of the Punjab,\textsuperscript{552} which lays down the terms and conditions of employment for contract-based employees, and includes special provisions for the maintenance of an employment quota for women. At the time of issuance, this quota was set at 5% however, more recently, under the Punjab Women Empowerment Package 2012, this quota was increased to 15%. Furthermore, under the Guidelines for Fixing Terms & Conditions of Contract Employment, female employees are allowed a 90-day maternity leave in a tenure of at least five years.

To ensure that women become agents and beneficiaries of development,\textsuperscript{553} the Annual Development Program (ADP) Guidelines 2017-18 issued by the Planning and Development Department emphasize that all development schemes proposed by individual departments/institutions pay special attention to ‘pro-poor growth, poverty alleviation, creation of productive assets, and gender mainstreaming.’

Enlisted below are some key policies adopted during 2017 with a brief overview of their salient features as well as women-specific provisions included thereunder.

(i) Punjab Growth Strategy 2014-2018

The Punjab Growth Strategy (PGS) was formally adopted by the Planning & Development Department of the government of Punjab to boost economic development through policy interventions, including, measures to revive public-private partnership, generate quality jobs, and encourage export-oriented economic growth.

PGS identifies challenges faced by women in terms of their participation in the skilled labour force, access to quality reproductive health services, and social mobility. By way of solutions, it proposes specific policy measures to combine stipends with skills-based training, provide safe and secure means of transport, and institute women-friendly market and labour policies to integrate women in the growth process.

(ii) Home-based Workers Policy 2017

The Home-based Workers Policy was officially notified by the Punjab Labour & Human Resource Department on April 21st, 2017. The Policy seeks to ensure protection and promotion of the rights/benefits of HBWs in Punjab through a range of legal and administrative measures. Rights of HBWs under the Policy include, among others, registration, minimum wage, health and safety standards, access to Skill Development Trainings, and improved access to markets for their products.

(iii) Punjab Judicial Service: Gender Equality Policy 2017

With a view to promote and enhance gender diversity in the District Judiciary of Punjab, the Lahore High Court promulgated a Gender Equality Policy (GEP) in 2017 \textit{vide} Notification No. 22324/HC/DDR/DRIT dated October 17th, 2017. The rationale behind introducing GEP is to achieve substantive equality among male and female judges, focusing on equitable access to opportunities for professional growth and promotion.

According to GEP, female Judges shall be given sufficient opportunities for elevation as a Justice of the Lahore High Court as well as an opportunity to participate in international conferences. Moreover, female Judges shall be given special and adequate representation in all kinds of administrative work. The Policy also stipulates separate infrastructural facilities (chambers, washrooms and rest houses) for male and female Judges.

(iv) Punjab Population Policy 2017

The Punjab Population Policy was adopted by the Punjab Population Welfare Department in 2017. The Policy represents the first holistic action strategy following devolution of family planning to the provinces, and was developed after a series of consultative meetings with stakeholders, including parliamentarians, bureaucrats, religious leaders, media representative, Civil Society Organizations, and policy experts.

\textsuperscript{551} As amended in subsequent years.

\textsuperscript{552} Contract Appointment Policy 2004 was notified \textit{vide} Notification No. DS/06/15/5-3/2004/Contract(AF) dated 29th December, 2004.

\textsuperscript{553} (CIDA)
Through a number of short and long-term goals, the Policy aims to specifically improve the physical well-being of women by achieving the following objectives:

i. Ensure universal coverage and improve access to safe and quality family planning and reproductive health services to the most remote areas of Punjab by 2025.

ii. Raise CPR to 60% by 2030.

iii. Actively promote messages related to Healthy Timing and Spacing of Pregnancy (HTSP) to reach out to all women by 2020.

(v) Educators Recruitment Policy 2017

An Educators Recruitment Policy was issued by the School Education Department in 2017 for promoting quality education at the primary, secondary and higher secondary levels of education. The Policy includes special provisions for women whereby female candidates are allowed special 3-year age relaxation in addition to the 5-year age relaxation available for both men and women.

9.1.4 Conclusion

Despite the large number of pro-women laws at the federal and provincial levels enacted over the past 12 years as well as a persistent policy commitment to empower women, as reflected in the series of Women’s Empowerment Packages/Initiatives launched by the government of Punjab between 2012 and 2017, much still remains to be done to ensure the social, economic and political well-being of women in Punjab.

While there have been landmark achievements on the part of legislators and policy-formulators to level the playing field for men and women, gender disparity pervades across all six thematic areas covered in this report. In most cases, despite the existence of clear official guidelines of action, it was found that lack of practical implementation was a formidable challenge for law-enforcement agencies and government departments. Starting with women’s lack of awareness about their substantive legal rights to limited infrastructural capacity and finite financial resources, a host of factors account for the persisting gap between the de facto gender imbalance that remains intact in spite of de jure equality guaranteed to men and women under various laws and policies.
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