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Subhrajit did his LL.M. in Sports Law, from Nottingham Trent University of United Kingdoms, with international scholarship provided by university; he has also completed another LL.M. in Energy Law from University of Petroleum and Energy Studies, India. He did his B.B.A.LL.B. (Hons.) focussing on International Trade Law.

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WHITE BLACK LEGAL is an open access, peer-reviewed and refereed journal provide dedicated to express views on topical legal issues, thereby generating a cross current of ideas on emerging matters. This platform shall also ignite the initiative and desire of young law students to contribute in the field of law. The erudite response of legal luminaries shall be solicited to enable readers to explore challenges that lie before law makers, lawyers and the society at large, in the event of the ever changing social, economic and technological scenario.

With this thought, we hereby present to you

# **EVOLVING JURISPRUDENCE OF BAIL IN INDIA: BALANCING INDIVIDUAL LIBERTY AND PUBLIC INTEREST**

AUTHORED BY - SIMRAN

## **Abstract**

The law of bail in India has undergone a significant jurisprudential transformation, emerging as a focal point in the discourse on constitutional liberty under Article 21 of the Constitution of India. While bail is not explicitly codified as a fundamental right, the Supreme Court has consistently upheld that the “right to personal liberty” is the rule and detention is the exception. However, the criminal justice system faces the practical challenge of striking a balance between safeguarding individual liberty and protecting societal interests, especially in cases involving grave offences, economic crimes, and national security concerns. This research paper critically examines the evolution of bail jurisprudence through key judicial precedents — from Gudikanti Narasimhulu to Satender Kumar Antil — and explores contemporary issues such as arbitrary arrests, bail conditions, judicial discretion, and the urgent need for legislative clarity. The paper concludes by advocating for a rights-based, reformatory bail system to actualise constitutional promises.

## **Keywords**

Bail, Article 21, Liberty vs. Security, Judicial Discretion, CrPC Reform, Supreme Court Jurisprudence.

## **Literature Review**

The evolution of bail jurisprudence in India has attracted significant academic and judicial discourse. Early scholarly commentary, such as by H.M. Seervai and M.P. Jain, primarily analysed bail as a procedural safeguard rather than a constitutional entitlement a view aligned with the traditional authoritarian colonial approach of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898. However, post-Maneka Gandhi era jurisprudence redefined Article 21 to include fair, just and reasonable process, prompting scholars like Upendra Baxi to critique the Indian criminal justice system for enabling “preventive pre-trial punishment.”

The Law Commission of India has addressed bail inconsistently across multiple reports. The 154th Report (1996) emphasised the urgent need to reduce undertrial incarceration, while the 268th Report (2017) explicitly urged codification of a rights-based bail framework, criticising police misuse of arrest powers. Academic studies such as those by the Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative (CHRI) and Vidhi Centre for Legal Policy have highlighted the socio-economic bias in bail decisions, noting that 90%+ of undertrial prisoners belong to marginalised socio-economic groups.

Judicial opinions have also shaped academic thinking. Justice Krishna Iyer's pronouncements in *Gudikanti Narasimhulu* and *Moti Ram* are widely cited in legal scholarship as foundational to constitutionalising bail as a human right. Justice D.Y. Chandrachud's recent judicial remarks and public lectures have criticised "process as punishment," urging systemic reform to eliminate mechanical arrests and custody. Emerging scholarship explores comparative bail structures, drawing lessons from UK's Bail Act, 1976 and U.S. movement against cash bail. Overall, literature reflects a clear transition in India from bail as discretionary privilege to bail as constitutional necessity, yet acknowledges a persistent gap between progressive jurisprudence and regressive ground-level implementation.

### **Research Methodology**

This research relies on a doctrinal and analytical methodology, examining constitutional principles, statutory provisions, landmark Supreme Court judgments, and Law Commission reports to trace the evolution of bail jurisprudence. The study is purely qualitative and doctrinal in nature analysing primary legal sources such as the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, relevant constitutional provisions (particularly Article 21), and authoritative judicial precedents including *Arnesh Kumar*, *Moti Ram*, *Satender Kumar Antil*, etc.

Secondary sources including Law Commission Reports (154th & 268th), scholarly academic commentary, and contemporary policy think-tank studies are referred to for critical insight into systemic flaws, such as economic discrimination and judicial inconsistency. Comparative legal perspectives from UK, Canada, and the US have been used selectively to identify reform-based learning, not normative prescription.

The approach is evaluative and reform-oriented examining the constitutional gap between

theory and practice, with the objective of proposing a rights-optimised, enforceable bail framework for India.

## **Introduction**

The concept of bail is intrinsically linked to the fundamental right to personal liberty, as enshrined under Article 21 of the Constitution of India, which guarantees that no person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law. The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (CrPC) governs the legal framework relating to bail, yet it does not define the term explicitly — thereby granting wide discretion to the judiciary. The Supreme Court has time and again observed that “bail is the rule and jail is the exception,” particularly in *State of Rajasthan v. Balchand*, where Justice Krishna Iyer strongly criticised the colonial mindset of pre-trial incarceration.

Despite strong judicial pronouncements in favour of liberty, the ground reality reflects a paradox. Nearly 76% of India’s prison population consists of undertrial prisoners, many of whom are detained for petty or bailable offences. This raises pressing concerns regarding arbitrary arrests, misuse of police power under Section 41A CrPC, excessive judicial discretion, and the indirect criminalisation of poverty wherein economic status determines access to justice.

In recent years, the Supreme Court has actively intervened to refine bail jurisprudence most notably in *Arnesh Kumar*, *Satender Kumar Antil*, and *Mohammed Zubair* cases emphasising the need to transform bail law from being discretionary and unpredictable to rights-based, transparent, and constitutionally aligned.

This paper explores the doctrinal and judicial evolution of bail jurisprudence in India, critically examines the tension between liberty and societal interest, and evaluates the feasibility of a model bail law that harmonises constitutional principles with public safety.

## **Historical and Doctrinal Evolution of Bail Jurisprudence**

The concept of bail in India traces its origins to English common law, where the principle evolved as a safeguard against arbitrary detention by the sovereign. The framers of the Indian Constitution were conscious of India’s colonial past particularly the misuse of preventive

detention and pre-trial incarceration and therefore embedded the essence of liberty within Article 21, which mandates that any deprivation of personal liberty must be fair, just, and reasonable. However, the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973 (CrPC) continues to retain a colonial structure wherein 'bail' is not explicitly defined, leaving its contours to judicial interpretation.

### **Early judicial position: Bail as a matter of discretion**

In the early years post-Independence, bail decisions were largely guided by judicial discretion and were often restrictive in nature. The judiciary initially showed reluctance to liberalise bail, especially in serious offences. However, a doctrinal shift was triggered by Justice V.R. Krishna Iyer, who emphatically stated that "personal liberty is too precious to be jeopardised on the whims of judicial discretion" in *Gudikanti Narasimhulu v. Public Prosecutor*.<sup>1</sup> This marked a turning point — recognising bail not merely as a procedural right but as an instrument of constitutional justice.

### **“Bail is the Rule, Jail is the Exception” The Constitutional Shift**

A landmark articulation of this principle was made in *State of Rajasthan v. Balchand*, where the Supreme Court observed that "basic rule of our criminal justice system is bail, not jail."<sup>2</sup> This jurisprudence was subsequently expanded in *Hussainara Khatoon v. State of Bihar*, where the Court linked bail to the right to speedy trial, holding that indefinite pre-trial detention of undertrials violated Article 21.<sup>3</sup> This decision catalysed large-scale release of undertrials and brought criminal process into the constitutional domain.

### **Expansion through Article 21 and Humanitarian Lens**

Over the years, the Supreme Court emphasised that bail cannot be denied merely as a punitive measure, as it would amount to pre-trial punishment. In *Moti Ram v. State of M.P.*, the Court strongly criticised economic discrimination, observing that the poor are jailed while the rich secure bail, and urged judicial officers to fix bail amounts based on financial capacity.<sup>4</sup>

This doctrinal evolution reflects a progressive shift from discretionary leniency to rights-based constitutionalism, wherein bail has been recognised not just as a matter of judicial mercy, but as a legal entitlement unless specific compelling reasons justify denial.

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<sup>1</sup> *Gudikanti Narasimhulu v. Public Prosecutor*, (1978) 1 SCC 240.

<sup>2</sup> *State of Rajasthan v. Balchand*, AIR 1978 SC 215.

<sup>3</sup> *Hussainara Khatoon v. State of Bihar*, AIR 1979 SC 1369.

<sup>4</sup> *Moti Ram v. State of M.P.*, AIR 1978 SC 1594.

## **Contemporary Judicial Trends and Supreme Court Interventions in Bail Reform**

With increasing concerns over arbitrary arrests, judicial backlog, and overcrowded prisons, the Supreme Court in the last decade has taken an active reform-centric approach toward bail jurisprudence. The Court has repeatedly emphasised that custodial detention must be justified through necessity and proportionality, not merely the seriousness of the allegation.

### **1. Arnesh Kumar v. State of Bihar Ending the Culture of Automatic Arrests**

The 2014 judgment in *Arnesh Kumar* marked a significant shift, where the Supreme Court criticised the “casual and mechanical arrests” made by police in offences punishable with imprisonment up to seven years (such as Section 498A IPC).<sup>5</sup> The Court issued a mandatory direction that police must issue a notice of appearance under Section 41A CrPC instead of arresting the accused directly — unless there are compelling reasons recorded in writing. This case moved the debate upstream by shifting the focus from bail to need for arrest itself.

### **2. Satender Kumar Antil v. CBI (2022) — A Systemic Reform Blueprint**

In *Satender Kumar Antil*, the Supreme Court categorically held that bail should be granted as a matter of rule for offences where arrest is not necessary and that non-compliance with Section 41 & 41A CrPC by the police shall lead to disciplinary action. The Court also classified offences into four categories and issued procedural guidelines to streamline bail hearings — effectively urging legislative reform and a model bail framework for India.

### **3. Mohammed Zubair v. State of NCT of Delhi (2022) — Protection from “Process as Punishment”**

In the case involving journalist Mohammed Zubair, the Supreme Court condemned the tactic of filing multiple FIRs across different states as a tool of harassment, and granted him interim bail, observing that “the process cannot be the punishment.” This marked a defence of free speech rights and a reaffirmation that bail jurisprudence must protect democratic dissent.

### **4. Bail in Economic Offences — A Cautious Approach**

While the Court has strengthened Article 21 protections, it has also adopted a stricter view in cases involving economic offences, terrorism, and national security. In *P. Chidambaram v. Directorate of Enforcement*, the Court described economic offences as “grave offences affecting the economy of the country”, thereby justifying a higher

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<sup>5</sup> *Arnesh Kumar v. State of Bihar*, (2014) 8 SCC 273.

threshold for bail.<sup>6</sup>

This indicates ongoing judicial tension between individual liberty and economic/national interest.

## **Critical Analysis: Challenges and Gaps in India's Bail System**

Despite strong constitutional rhetoric, India's bail landscape remains uneven, often hinging on where you are tried, who hears you, and what you can afford. Several structural and doctrinal frictions persist:

### **1) Arrest-first mindset & "production-line" remands**

Although Armesh Kumar sought to cabin unnecessary arrests through Section 41/41A CrPC compliance, police practice and magisterial oversight still vary widely. Magistrates sometimes authorise mechanical remands on sparse case diaries, converting arrest into de facto pre-trial punishment. This undermines the proportionality principle: detention should be necessary to prevent flight, tampering, or recurrence—not a default response to FIRs.

### **2) Inconsistent standards across courts**

The same statutory text yields different thresholds across districts and High Courts. Some benches demand near-proof at the bail stage for grave offences; others correctly limit inquiry to prima facie satisfaction, antecedents, and risk factors. The result is forum shopping, unpredictability, and prolonged incarceration while appeals or transfers are pursued.

### **3) Economic discrimination and unaffordable conditions**

Even where bail is granted, onerous surety amounts, multiple solvent sureties, and documentary hurdles exclude the poor. Moti Ram warned against wealth-based detention, yet practice shows that paper poverty equals jail. Digital identity gaps, address-proof requirements for migrant workers, and the need for local sureties compound exclusion.

### **4) Bail exceptionalism in special statutes**

Special laws (e.g., NDPS, PMLA, UAPA) embed reverse burdens and "twin conditions," nudging courts toward a risk-averse stance. While public interest and national security are vital, blanket exceptionalism blurs the line between adjudicating guilt and assessing pre-trial risk, diluting Article 21 safeguards. Courts often oscillate

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<sup>6</sup> *P. Chidambaram v. Directorate of Enforcement*, (2020) 13 SCC 791.

between deference to legislative severity and the constitutional promise that process must not become the punishment.

**5) Undertrial crisis and systemic externalities**

Overcrowded prisons, staff shortages, and slow investigations inflate the cost of denying bail. High undertrial proportions correlate with case backlogs and low legal aid penetration. Without time-bound investigation and early disclosure of evidence, the defence cannot rebut prosecutorial assertions at the bail stage—leading to longer, ill-informed detention.

**6) Data opacity and accountability gaps**

There is no universal dashboard of bail metrics (time-to-bail by offence/district, rate of Section 41A compliance, reasons recorded for arrest, variance in surety amounts). Absent feedback loops, policy cannot course-correct, and best practices do not diffuse.

**Toward a Rights-Optimised Bail Framework: Legislative  
and Policy Reforms**

To align practice with constitutional principle, India needs targeted legislative amendments and administrative protocols that make liberty the operational default while safeguarding society:

**1) Codify a uniform “necessity and proportionality” test**

Amend CrPC to define bail and require courts to apply a codified necessity test: (a) flight risk, (b) risk of evidence/witness tampering, (c) risk of re-offending or public disorder, (d) specific, articulable reasons why non-custodial measures won't suffice. This anchors discretion to transparent criteria.

**2) Non-custodial alternatives as first resort**

Statutorily prioritise summons/appearance bonds, police bond + electronic intimation, periodic check-ins, travel/document surrender, and no-contact orders before custodial detention. Embed a rebuttable presumption for non-violent, first-time, low-sentence offences.

**3) Section 41/41A with teeth**

Transform the Arnesh Kumar guidelines into hard law: arrests in  $\leq 7$ -year offences must pass a written necessity matrix; non-compliance triggers inadmissibility of custodial statements, departmental action, and compulsory personal cost orders against errant officers, coupled with magisterial audits.

**4) Bail conditions calibrated to means**

Require courts to assess ability to pay and permit cashless/recognition bonds, single surety, or community guarantors vetted by legal services authorities. For indigent accused, enable state-backed surety bonds or risk-pooling mechanisms overseen by DLSA/SLSA.

**5) Reasoned, time-bound bail orders**

Mandate speaking orders that address statutory factors and set outer timelines for deciding regular/anticipatory bail (e.g., 7–14 days). Where bail is denied due to pending investigation, automatic reconsideration after a short interval (e.g., 30–45 days) prevents indefinite pre-trial custody.

**6) Special statutes, special safeguards**

For NDPS/PMLA/UAPA: (a) insist on case-specific reasoning beyond statutory incantations; (b) clarify that stringent bail clauses do not oust Article 21 proportionality; (c) require early disclosure of relied-upon materials so the defence can meaningfully contest risk; (d) incorporate sunset reviews of continued detention at fixed intervals.

**7) Data, dashboards, and appellate harmonisation**

Create a national bail dashboard (offence-wise grant/denial rates, median amounts, time-to-order). Encourage High Court practice directions and model formats for arrest memos, Section 41A notices, and bail orders to reduce inter-district variance.

**8) Legal aid + digital rails**

Scale duty-counsel systems in remand courts; integrate e-filing for bail, WhatsApp/SMS service of Section 41A notices, and video-conference hearings to cut delay. Publish plain-language bail guides in regional languages for accused and families.

**Comparative Glimpses**

- UK: The Bail Act 1976 codifies presumptive release with specified exceptions and clear risk factors, aiding uniformity.
- US (federal trend): Movement away from cash bail toward risk assessments and supervised release, though concerns about algorithmic bias persist.
- Canada: Charter-driven jurisprudence emphasises least onerous conditions and proportionality, with courts scrutinising overbroad conditions and “ladder” violations.

Lesson for India: Codification of risk-based criteria, means-tested conditions, and least-

restrictive alternatives improves consistency without compromising safety.

### **Conclusion**

Indian bail jurisprudence has traversed a long arc—from unguided discretion to a constitutionalised liberty framework. Landmark rulings have articulated that pre-trial detention cannot become a substitute for punishment, and that arrest is not a reflex but a reasoned necessity. Yet practice still lags principle: inconsistent thresholds, wealth-sensitive conditions, and special-statute exceptionalism keep liberty contingent.

A rights-optimised bail code, grounded in necessity, proportionality, and least-restrictive means, can reconcile Article 21 with public safety. Embedding enforceable checks on arrest, calibrating conditions to means, guaranteeing reasoned and time-bound decisions, and demanding case-specific justification under special laws will convert “bail is the rule” from slogan to system. The payoff is not merely doctrinal elegance; it is reduced undertrial incarceration, leaner prisons, stronger public trust, and a criminal process worthy of a constitutional democracy.

