

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC
PROBLEMS OF TRAINEE POLICE PERSONNEL AT
POLICE TRAINING COLLEGES, SINDH:
A CRIMINOLOGICAL ANALYSIS**

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED

BY

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FOR

**THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN
CRIMINOLOGY/ SOCIOLOGY**

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Approval Sheet

This is to certify that I have looked at this Ph.D thesis of Mustafa Husain Kalhoro, who has worked with me as a researcher and have found it comprehensive and all right in all respects. The views articulated in it are those of the researcher. He has completed this thesis as an essential prerequisite for the award of a Ph.D in Criminology/ Sociology. The topic of his research is “**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF TRAINEE POLICE PERSONNEL AT POLICE TRAINING COLLEGES, SINDH**”

He worked hard and completed his thesis under my supervision according to my directives and proposals. The researcher showed signs of precious commitment, inexhaustible stamina and professional talent. I perceived him perspired and fanatic during research. I trust this research will be advantageous for the boost up of socio-economic conditions of the Trainee Police Personnel in Sindh. I wish the fortuity of researcher in his later on professional line of business and social life.

Professor Dr. Fateh Muhammad Burfat,
Research Supervisor/ Chairman,
Department of Sociology,
University of Karachi.

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to reach the distant coasts;
the breath of heaven must swell,
to sail or all the toil is lost”.*

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	i
Approval Sheet	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	vi
List of Simple Tables	ix
List of Contingency Tables	xvi
List of Diagrams/ Charts	xvii
Abstract	xxv
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Factors that influence Educational performance	3
1.2 Socio-economic status and Educational/Training Outcomes	11
1.3 Social Problems: Definition and Interpretation	15
1.4 Measurement of Socio-Economic problems	18
1.5 Dimensions of ‘Socio-Economic Problems’	20
1.6 Statement of the Problem	20
1.7 Justification of the Study	23
1.8 Socio-Economic Development in Pakistan	26
1.9 Focus on Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh.	32
1.10 Scope of the Study.	34
1.11 Objective of the Study.	35
1.12 Hypotheses of the Study	37

1.13	Variables of the Study	38
1.14	Key Concepts	39
Chapter 2 Theoretical Framework and Review of Literature		40
2.1	Theoretical Framework on Socio- Economic Impact on Training achievement	41
2.1.1	Functionalist Theory	42
2.1.2	Conflict Theory	44
2.1.3	Interaction Theory	46
2.1.4	Some More Theories	47
2.1.5	Impact of Family’s Socio-Economic Background on Achievement	48
2.1.6	Determinants of Social Class	51
2.1.7	Familial Influence	53
2.1.8	Parents and Family	56
2.1.9	Effects of Home Environment on Instructive Achievement	57
2.1.10	Influence of Home Environment and Socio-economic status on School Climate	64
2.1.11	Home and Family Influences on School	66
2.2	Theoretical Perspective on Social Problems	68
2.2.1	Social Pathology	68
2.2.2	Social Disorganization	69
2.2.3	Value Conflict Perspective	69
2.2.4	Deviant Behaviour Perspective	70
2.2.5	Labeling Perspective	70
2.2.6	Critical Theory Perspective	71
2.2.7	Constructionist Perspective	71

2.3	Review of Related Literature	72
Chapter 3 Research Methodology		80
3.1	Introduction	80
3.2	Research Design	82
3.3	Type of Study	84
3.4	Universe	85
3.5	Sample Size	85
3.6	The Methods of Sampling	86
3.7	Methods of Data Collection	86
3.8	Analysis of Data	88
3.9	Pre-Testing	88
3.10	Coding and Tabulation	88
3.11	Statistical Methods of Analysis	89
3.12	Interpreting Research Results	92
Chapter 4 Presentation and Analysis of Data		94
4.1	Simple Tables	95
4.2	Statistical Testing of Hypotheses	169
Chapter 5 Conclusion		254
5.1	Summary of the Study	254
5.2	Findings of the Simple Tables	257
5.3	Findings of the Statistical Analysis of Hypotheses	284
5.4	Conclusions	289

5.5	Limitations of the Study	292
5.6	Recommendations	292
	Bibliography	295
	Appendices	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Interview Schedule	310

LIST OF SIMPLE TABLES

S.NO	CONTENT	PAGE #
1.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Rank	95
2.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by nature of Appointment	96
3.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by time in present Rank	97
4.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by previous Assignment	98
5.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Present Rank	99
6.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Total Service	100
7.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Police Department	101
8.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Maximum Duty Hours	102
9.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Age	103
10.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by opinion about Maximum Age for Training	104
11.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Training	105
12.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Best Season for Training	106

13.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Educational Qualification	107
14.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Favourite Educational Atmosphere	108
15.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Mode of Training	109
16.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Methods of Instruction	110
17.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Easy Methods of Instruction	111
18.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Type of Learner	112
19.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Methods of Examination	113
20.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by opinion about System of Examination	114
21.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Police Rules	115
22.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Subjects	116
23.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Library Timings	117
24.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by First Course during Police Service	118
25.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Present Study Course	119
26.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Difficult Course	120
27.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Opinion about Duration of Present Training	121
28.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Training Time Table	122
29.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Duration of Training	123
30.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at System of Training	124
31.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Incentives of Training	125

32.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at System of Roll Calls	126
33.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PT	127
34.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Parade	128
35.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Parade Timings	129
36.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Cultural Background	130
37.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Cultural Background	131
38.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Nature of Accommodation	132
39.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accommodation	133
40.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accommodation during Training	134
41.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Police Culture	135
42.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PTCs Culture	136
43.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PTCs Location	137
44.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Standard of Food	138
45.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Weekly Menu of Mess	139
46.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Mess Timings	140
47.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Mother Tongue	141
48.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Sex	142
49.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Marital Status	143
50.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Number of Children	144
51.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Family Co-Operation	145
52.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Type of Family	146
53.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Leave for Visiting	

Family	147
54. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at No. of Leaves for Visiting Family	148
55. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Leniency for Visiting Friends	149
56. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Source of Income	150
57. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Basic Pay	151
58. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Allowances	152
59. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Educational Increments	153
60. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Present Net Salary	154
61. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Total Salary	155
62. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accounts System	156
63. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Colleagues	157
64. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Law Trainers	158
65. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Drill Trainers	159
66. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Administrative Staff	160
67. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Senior Officers	161
68. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Friends	162
69. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Relatives	163
70. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Media	164

71.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Public	165
72.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Favourite Game	166
73.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Game Timings	167
74.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Favourite Dress	168
75.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Feelings in Uniform	169
76.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Uniform	170
77.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Better Type of Leave	171
78.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Leave Satisfaction	172
79.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Liking about Authorities of Leave	173
80.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by about Yearly Leave Account	174
81.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution about Weapons easy in Operation	175
82.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Weapons easy in Assembling	176
83.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Anti-Riot Controlling Method	177
84.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at available Weapons	178
85.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Power Satisfaction	179
86.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Duty Satisfaction	180
87.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Emergency Duty Satisfaction	181
88.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution about Out Duties during Training	182
89.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Rewards	183
90.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Punishment	184

91.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Promotion	185
92.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Proceedings	186
93.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Communication System	187
94.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Transport System	188
95.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Conveyance System	189
96.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Investigation System	190
97.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Prosecution System	191
98.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation System of Law Classes	192
99.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation System of Administration Block	193
100.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Library	194
101.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Mosque	195
102.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Mess	196
103.	Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of	

Toilets	197
104. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Roads	198
105. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Barracks	199
106. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Family Quarters in PTCs	200
107. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Over all PTCs	201
108. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Seasonal Plantation	202
109. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Fertilization of Land at PTCs	203
110. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Site of Mosque	204
111. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Water Supply System	205
112. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sewerage System	206
113. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Electric Supply	207
114. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sui Gas Supply	208
115. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Dispensary Function	209
116. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at present Salary	210
117. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at provided Drinking Water	211
118. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Utility of	

Computer Lab	212
119. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Utility of Photograph Lab	213
120. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Regimental Shop	214
121. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Laundry	215
122. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Cobbler Shop	216
123. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Telephone Facility	217
124. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Barber Shop	218
125. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Nature of present Immediate Needs	219
126. Frequency and Percentage Distribution by Suggestions	220

LIST OF CONTINGENCY TABLES

S.NO	CONTENT	PAGE #
1	Contingency Table showing the Relationship between Rank and Satisfaction at Basic Pay.	221
2	Contingency Table showing the Relationship between Rank and Power Satisfaction of Respondents.	224
3	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Age	

	Of Respondents and Satisfaction in Training.	227
4	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Educational Qualification of Respondents and Satisfaction in Training.	230
5	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Educational Qualification and Rank of Respondents.	233
6	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Educational Qualification and Power Satisfaction.	236
7	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Marital Status and Satisfaction in Training.	239
8	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Educational Qualification and Number of Children.	242
9	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Total Service and Satisfaction at Basic Pay.	245
10	Contingency Table showing the Relationship Between Total Service and Satisfaction in Training.	248

LIST OF DIAGRAMS/ CHARTS

S.NO	DIAGRAMS/ CHARTS	PAGE #
1.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Rank	95
2.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by nature of Appointment	96
3.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by time in present Rank	97
4.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by previous Assignment	98
5.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Present Rank	99
6.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Total Service	100
7.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Police Department	101
8.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Maximum Duty Hours	102

9.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Age	103
10.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by opinion about Maximum Age for Training	104
11.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Training	105
12.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Best Season for Training	106
13.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Educational Qualification	107
14.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Favourite Educational Atmosphere	108
15.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Mode of Training	109
16.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Methods of Instruction	110
17.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Easy Methods of Instruction	111
18.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Type of Learner	112
19.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Methods of Examination	113
20.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by opinion about System of Examination	114
21.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Police Rules	115
22.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Subjects	116
23.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Library Timings	117
24.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by First Course during Police Service	118
25.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Present Study Course	119
26.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Difficult Course	120
27.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Opinion about Duration of Present Training	121

28.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Training Time Table	122
29.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Duration of Training	123
30.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at System of Training	124
31.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Incentives of Training	125
32.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at System of Roll Calls	126
33.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PT	127
34.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Parade	128
35.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Parade Timings	129
36.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Cultural Background	130
37.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Cultural Background	131
38.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Nature of Accommodation	132
39.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accommodation	133
40.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accommodation during Training	134
41.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Police Culture	135
42.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PTCs Culture	136
43.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at PTCs Location	137
44.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Standard of Food	138
45.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Weekly	

Menu of Mess	139
46. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Mess Timings	140
47. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Mother Tongue	141
48. Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Sex	142
49. Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Marital Status	143
50. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Number of Children	144
51. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Family Co-Operation	145
52. Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Type of Family	146
53. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Leave for Visiting Family	147
54. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at No. of Leaves for Visiting Family	148
55. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Leniency for Visiting Friends	149
56. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Source of Income	150
57. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Basic Pay	151
58. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Allowances	152
59. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Educational Increments	153
60. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Present Net Salary	154
61. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Total Salary	155
62. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Accounts System	156
63. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Colleagues	157

64.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Law Trainers	158
65.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Drill Trainers	159
66.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Administrative Staff	160
67.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Senior Officers	161
68.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Friends	162
69.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Relatives	163
70.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Media	164
71.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Behaviour of Public	165
72.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Favourite Game	166
73.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Game Timings	167
74.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Favourite Dress	168
75.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Feelings in Uniform	169
76.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction in Uniform	170
77.	Pie Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Better Type of Leave	171
78.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Leave Satisfaction	172
79.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Liking about Authorities of Leave	173
80.	Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by about Yearly Leave Account	174
81.	Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution about Weapons easy in	

Operation	175
82. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution of Weapons easy in Assembling	176
83. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Anti-Riot Controlling Method	177
84. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at available Weapons	178
85. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Power Satisfaction	179
86. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Duty Satisfaction	180
87. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Emergency Duty Satisfaction	181
88. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution about Out Duties during Training	182
89. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Rewards	183
90. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Punishment	184
91. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Promotion	185
92. Bar Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Proceedings	186
93. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Communication System	187
94. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Transport System	188
95. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Conveyance System	189
96. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Investigation System	190

97. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Departmental Prosecution System	191
98. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation System of Law Classes	192
99. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation System of Administration Block	193
100. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Library	194
101. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Mosque	195
102. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Mess	196
103. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Toilets	197
104. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Roads	198
105. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Barracks	199
106. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Family Quarters in PTCs	200
107. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sanitation of Over all PTCs	201
108. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Seasonal Plantation	202
109. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Fertilization of Land at PTCs	203
110. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Site of Mosque	204
111. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Water Supply System	205

112. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sewerage System	206
113. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Electric Supply	207
114. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Sui Gas Supply	208
115. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at Dispensary Function	209
116. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at present Salary	210
117. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at provided Drinking Water	211
118. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Utility of Computer Lab	212
119. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Utility of Photograph Lab	213
120. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Regimental Shop	214
121. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Laundry	215
122. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Cobbler Shop	216
123. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Telephone Facility	217
124. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Satisfaction at the Function of Barber Shop	218
125. Bar Diagram Showing Percentage Distribution by Nature of present Immediate Needs	219
126. Area Chart Showing Percentage Distribution by Suggestions	220

Abstract

This research was conducted because of the personal interest and motivation of the researcher with a vision to improve the socio-economic conditions of the security agencies/ departments specially the trainees of the Police department. An initiative was under taken to study the socio-economic problems of trainee police personnel, Sindh. It is an exploratory research which was conducted in all the two Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh. A sample was drawn by the method of random sampling. Data was collected from 300 respondents through interview schedule. These groups were studied equally because their socio-economic status and problems were similar.

Little attention has been paid to the socio-economic problems of police force. But so far, however no attempt appears to have been made toward analyzing the problem in a systematic and comparative context as much as no standard empirical study to date have been attempted to assess the problem. There have been written only some articles based on individual observation. As far as the researcher's humble knowledge goes, the present study is the first step in Pakistan to analyze the problem. That prevailing situation provides the rationale for the present study.

Through this study it was found that the under-researched trainee police personnel were facing several vital socio-economic tribulations such as prolonged duty hours, lack of medical facilities and insufficient income etc.

The compendium of this research is that although the trainee police personnel have to suffer several problems but it is fact that they will have to redress public problems, maintain law and order, investigate and prosecute cases etc. But a little effort has been ever made in the past to redress the genuine

problems of police. It was, therefore, imperative that something should be done for police force.

This research thesis consists on five chapters which are in a few words classified as:

Chapter 1 denotes introduction of the research under different sociological perspectives. Chapter 2 consists of the theoretical frame work and review of the related literature including books, researches and reports etc. Chapter 3 gives the details of the methodological frame work of the research. Chapter 4 contains the data in simple tables as well as in contingency tables along with analysis of variables applying different statistical tests like chi-square and coefficient of correlations. Chapter 5 includes summary, conclusions and recommendation. This chapter provides a complete compendium of this research.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A huge body of literature has grown over the past three decades on the role and function of police the worldwide. The available evidence indicates that policing in all parts of the world has been punctuated with examples of malpractice and misconduct. The range of serious activities uncovered included the concealment of serious crimes, bribery, the fabrication and planting of evidence.

The history of policing in other jurisdictions, such as the United States and Australia, is similarly punctuated with examples of police malpractice and misconduct. New York Police Department (NYPD) in particular suffered from corruption from the outset: systematic payoffs from brothels and gambling dens and shakedowns of small businesses were documented from the end of the nineteenth century through to the 1950's. During the 1970's widespread 'graft' and bribery covering drugs, vice, gambling enforcement and criminal investigation more generally were uncovered (Knapp, 1972), taking a more serious turn in the 1990's with allegations that a group of officers were involved not only in the usual shakedown and protection activities, but were themselves involved in trafficking cocaine and other illicit drugs (Mollen, 1994).

There is also considerable evidence of longstanding dishonesty within Australian policing (Finnane, 1994). Evidence of gambling-related corruption is available from the earliest days of this century (Fitzgerald, 1989). The Royal Commission into the New South Wales Police Service both found widespread and organized corruption within the police service (Wood, 1997). The investigation also pointed to wider problems: inadequate education and training of officers, particularly with regard to ‘ethical training’; insufficient or poor management; a ‘police code’ or culture which showed contempt for the criminal justice system; disdain for the law and rejection of its application to police; disregard for the truth; and abuse of authority (Fitzgerald, 1989: 200).

The experience of the police service in Pakistan is in no way unique. The police in Pakistan, as in all countries in the subcontinent, have traditionally been part of a colonial system of criminal justice that reined in a native population. Training was geared to maximize the use of force and suit the needs of colonists. As a result training was militaristic, emphasized physical fitness, drill, blind obedience, unquestioning discipline and curbed innovation or initiative in the constabulary.

In the intervening years since independence the population in Pakistan has increased drastically and police duties have multiplied, yet little has changed in the classroom or parade ground. Police training also remains undisturbed by the

intervention of a constitution that foregrounds democracy, pluralism, rule of law, concepts of citizenship, human rights and civil liberties.

1.1 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE

The factors are enlisted as under:

➤ Socio-economic status

Socio-economic status can be defined as a person's overall social position to which attainments in both the social and economic domain contribute. (Ainley et al., 1995: ix). When used in studies of children's school achievement, it refers to the socio-economic status of the parents or family. Socio-economic status is determined by an individual's achievements in: education; employment and occupational status; and income and wealth. Several comprehensive reviews of the relationship between socio-economic status and educational outcomes exist (Amato, 1987; Williams et al., 1991; Mukherjee, 1995; Ainley et al., 1995). These studies and reviews make it clear that children from low socio-economic status families are more likely to exhibit the following patterns in terms of educational outcomes compared to children from high socio-economic status families:

- have lower levels of literacy, numeric and comprehension;
- have lower retention rates (children from low SES families are more likely to leave school early);

- □have lower higher education participation rates (children from low SES families are less likely to attend university);
- □exhibit higher levels of problematic school behaviour (for instance truancy);
- □are less likely to study specialized in math and science subjects;
- □are more likely to have difficulties with their studies and display negative attitudes to school; and
- □have less successful school-to-labour market transitions.

These results remain the same irrespective of how socio-economic status is measured and whether the studies are based on individual or aggregate level data (Graetz, 1995: 32-35). Similarly, studies of children's educational achievements over time have also demonstrated that social background remains one of the major sources of educational inequality (Graetz, 1995: 28). In other words, educational success depends very strongly on the socio-economic status of one's parents (Edgar, 1976, cited in Graetz 1995: 25).

The effect of parental socio-economic status on children's educational outcomes may be neutralized, strengthened or mediated by a range of other contextual, family and individual characteristics. Parents may have a low income and a low-status occupation, for example, but nevertheless transmit high educational aspirations to their children. What family members have (material

resources, for instance) can often be mediated by what family members do (for example parental support, family cohesion). The social and the economic components of socio-economic status, in other words, may have distinct and separate influences on educational outcomes. While both components are important, social factors (for instance, parents' educational attainments) have been found to be more significant than economic factors, such as a family's capacity to purchase goods and services, in explaining different educational outcomes. It is argued that families where the parents are advantaged socially, educationally and economically, foster a higher level of achievement in their children. They also may provide higher levels of psychological support for their children through environments that encourage the development of skills necessary for success at school (Williams et al., 1980; Williams, 1987; Williams et al., 1993).

➤ **Family Structure**

Socio-economic status may therefore also be linked to family structure. As sole parent families on average have lower levels of income, are headed by parents with lower educational attainment and are less likely to be in the labour force, children from these families are likely to have lower educational performance (Rich, 2000). Other factors in sole parent families that are likely to adversely affect educational outcomes of children compared to those from two-parent families are said to include:

- reduced contact between the child and non-custodial parent;
- the custodial parent having less time to spend with children in terms of supervision of school-work and maintaining appropriate levels of discipline;
- the lack of an appropriate role model, especially for males;
- increased responsibilities on children such as childcare roles, domestic duties which impede the time available for school work; and
- the nature of parent-child relationships in sole parent families may cause emotional and behavioural problems for the child (Buckingham, 1999; Rich, 2000).

The influence of family structure has been found to be only weakly associated with educational attainment, however, once controlling for other variables (Machin, 1998). It is more detrimental when children in sole parent families also experience a range of other risk factors such as low income (Sparkes, 1999).

➤ **Type of School**

As well as socio-economic status, research has shown the importance of the type of school one attends in influencing educational outcomes. While research in the US has found that socio-economic status variables continue to influence educational attainment even after controlling for different school types, the school

context tends to affect the strength of the relationship between socio-economic status and educational outcomes (Portes and MacLeod, 1996).

Similarly, research in Britain shows that schools have an independent effect on student attainment (Sparkes, 1999). Several studies using the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth have found that students attending private non-Catholic schools were significantly more likely to stay on at school than those attending state schools (Long et al., 1999; Marks et al., 2000). Students from independent private schools are also more likely to achieve higher end of school scores (Buckingham, 2000a). While school-related factors are important, there is again an indirect link to socio-economic status, as private schools are more likely to have a greater number of students from high socio-economic status families, select students with stronger academic abilities and have greater financial resources. The school effect is also likely to operate through variation in the quality and attitudes of teachers (Sparkes, 1999). Teachers at disadvantaged schools, for instance, often hold low expectations of their students, which compound the low expectations students and their parents may also hold (Ruge, 1998).

➤ **Absences**

Also related to poor educational performance is the level of truancy or unexplained absence among students. Truancy can be modeled both as an

educational outcome and as a causal factor in explaining educational performance. Truancy tends to be higher among students from low socio-economic status backgrounds. Truancy, even occasional, is associated with poorer academic performance at school (Sparkes, 1999). Having high levels of unexplained absence at school has also been found to be associated with poorer early adult outcomes in the labour market for instance higher probability of being unemployed and poorer adult health relative to non-truants (Sparkes, 1999).

➤ **Gender**

Educational performance at school has also been found to vary according to the students sex (Horne, 2000). In particular, reviews of the evidence suggest that boys suffer an educational disadvantage relative to girls, especially in terms of performance in literacy (Buckingham, 1999; 2000b). There are several explanations for this increasing gender gap which include: biological differences; gender biases (such as reading being seen as .not masculine); teaching, curricula and assessment (for instance less structured approaches to teaching grammar may have weakened boys literacy performance); and socio-economic factors (Buckingham, 1999: 5). The last explanation is of particular interest that the gender gap continues within each socio-economic level (Teese et al., 1995). That is, girls have been found to out-perform boys within high or low socio-economic groups. Furthermore, the performance of boys deteriorates more rapidly than the performance of girls as they move down the socio-economic scale

(Teese et al., 1995). As was noted above, the relationship between the performance of boys and socio-economic status is often mediated or partially explained by family structure (Buckingham, 1999: 9-10).

➤ **Cultural Background**

The cultural background or immigrant status of parents is also an important mediating variable on the influence of socio-economic status on children's educational performance. Studies of the academic performance of second-generation school students in the US have found that while their performance is also influenced by the socio-economic status of their parents and type of school, their cultural background plays a significant independent role (Portes and MacLeod, 1996: 270). The authors found that some first-generation immigrant parents through the process of migration and subsequent incorporation in the host society, come to see education as a key means of upward mobility for their children, despite their own low levels of education and income (Portes and MacLeod, 1996). Children from those communities did well despite coming from low socio-economic status backgrounds whereas the negative effects of socio-economic status were not ameliorated in the academic performance of children from immigrant communities with low levels of social capital.

Similar findings have emerged within the Australian experience. While the children of immigrants were seen to be at a disadvantage up until the mid-1970s (Martin, 1978), the gradual introduction of multicultural policies in the classroom from that time may have improved the situation (Cahill, 1996).

➤ **Geographical Location**

Students from non-metropolitan areas are more likely to have lower educational outcomes in terms of academic performance and retention rates than students from metropolitan areas (Cheers, 1990; HREOC, 2000). Despite an adequate number of educational facilities in rural and remote schools children from these areas remain disadvantaged by other factors. Issues affecting access to education in regional areas include costs, the availability of transport and levels of family income support. In addition, inequity exists with regard to the quality of the education that rural students receive, often as a result of restricted and limited subject choice. Furthermore, students may also have limited recreational and educational facilities within their school (HREOC, 2000: 12).

➤ **Housing Type**

Lower educational attainment has also been found to be associated with children living in public housing compared to those in private housing (Sparkes,

1999). This may be due to the effects of overcrowding, poor access to resources and a lack of social networks, and in this sense, housing type may also be a measure of neighbourhood influence. A recent Australian study based on 171 Year 12 students from 10 state schools, found that neighbourhood effects were an important influence on students educational plans to continue further education, after controlling for a range of individual and family socio-economic characteristics (Jensen and Seltzer, 2000: 23). Measures of the neighbourhood included the level of neighbourhood income, the unemployment rate, an index of educational attainment and the percentage employed in professional fields. This study was unable to identify, however, the precise transmission mechanisms for such neighbourhood effects.

Whether, for instance, they were due to spillover effects such as peer group influence, the presence or lack of job networks and role models or whether the neighbourhood variables were acting as proxies for school quality or housing type.

1.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND EDUCATIONAL/TRAINING OUTCOMES

Socio-economic status can be defined as ‘a person’s overall social position ...to which attainments in both the social and economic domain contribute (Ainley et al., 1995: ix). It is determined by an individual’s achievements in: education; employment and occupational status; and income and wealth. In

general, socio-economic status is considered as an indicator of economic and social position (Stawarski, 1988).

Several comprehensive reviews of the relationship between socio-economic status and educational/training outcomes exist (Amato, 1987; Williams et al., 1991; Mukherjee, 1995; Ainley et al., 1995). That relationship has been debated for decades, with most powerful arguments appearing in *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Coleman, et al., 1968) and *Inequality* (Jencks, et al., 1973). Coleman asserted that the influence of student background was greater than anything that goes on with schools. The relationship between family socio-economic status and the educational achievements is well established in sociological research (Graetz, 1995).

How socio-economic status influences students achievement is not clear and there have been many theories to explain the relationship. In one scenario, the students from low socio-economic status homes are at a disadvantage because they lack an academic home environment, which influences their academic success. Another scenario argues that school and neighbourhood environments influences academic success, so that low socio-economic schools are generally low performing, and that only extremely resilient young people can escape the 'fate' of low academic achievement.

Research suggests that occupation is the best single indicator of socioeconomic position (Powers, 1981). However, including additional information, such as education and income, can increase explained variance in the measure of social class. In addition, different items may assess unique dimensions of socioeconomic status, which together may represent the construct more completely. The variables traditionally used to assess social standing are education, occupation, and income; additional measures include employment status, possessions, and presence of reading materials in the home (Nam, 1981).

Poverty is the main factor influencing academic achievement. It plays a significant role in providing best learning material in the class rooms. Poor classes has books and magazines, less print on the walls and other surfaces, less exposure to and experience with extended text, and less time engaged in activities in which students have a high degree of authorship. The reverse is true of classes with more financial support (Duke, 2000).

The Oxford English Dictionary defines poverty as: ‘The condition of having little or no wealth or material possessions; indigence, destitution, want’, and suggests its first use was in AD 1075. In recent years, research tapping the perspectives of poor people has recognized that poverty involves a wider set of deprivations, including vulnerability and exclusion from society, in addition to material destitution.

According to ILO (1995) poverty is a situation in which a person or household lacks the resources necessary to be able to consume a certain minimum basket of goods. The basket consists either of food, clothing, housing and other essentials (moderate poverty) or of food alone (extreme poverty).

World Bank (2000) defines poverty as a complex human phenomenon associated with unacceptably low standard of living. Poverty has multiple dimensions, manifestations and causes. The condition of being without adequate food and money and is officially considered to be very poor and in need of help.

Findings from Binkley and Williams (1996) study of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) supported a somewhat similar comparison between poverty and students academic achievements. However, Howley (1995) found a weaker level of co-relation between socio-economic status and academic achievement.

The influence of socio-economic position at the individual level is prevalent (Capraro, 2000) but less strong in much of the literature. Entwisle and Alenxander (1996), in a study concluded that two measures of parent expectations had a somewhat stronger influence than did the economic variables. In a meta-analysis of socio-economic status, White (1982) concluded that the utility and wisdom of using socio-economic status in conjunction with academic achievement depended

largely on the unit of analysis and the validity of the way in which it was defined. That study used the operational definition of socio-economic status. First, individual socio-economic status was defined by participation in the free lunch program to show only a weak co-relation with academic achievement. Secondly, enrollment in a Title 1 school designated school-level socio-economic status because these schools.

1.3 SOCIAL PROBLEMS: DEFINITION AND INTERPRETATION

Social problems are an integral part of social life. The term “Social Problem” implies to social conditions, processes, societal arrangements or attitudes that are commonly perceived to be undesirable, negative and threatening certain values or interests such as social cohesion, maintenance of law and order, moral standards, stability of social institutions, economic prosperity or individual freedom. A social problem may also be experienced as a feeling of collective guilt created through an awareness of collective neglect; to remove or alleviate certain undesirable social conditions that negatively affect some sections of society.

In the definition of what constitutes social problem, Robert Merton (1976) asserts that a social problem exists when there is a sizeable discrepancy between what is and what people think ought to be. How large this disparity must be before people acknowledge that a social problem exists depends on particular social conditions, people’s attitudes and prevailing social norms. People’s perception of

and attitudes towards social problems depend also on their state of knowledge about relevant issues, and on the source of that knowledge. The source of knowledge is the important factor, as in contemporary industrialized societies much of people's knowledge about social problem comes from the mass media.

Sociologists who studied social problems in the theoretical framework of social disorganization identified a number of issues within the concept that led them to differentiate between social disorganization as a condition and a process. This distinction led to the formulation of the hypothesis of cultural lag the essence of which was that material culture tends to change more rapidly than non-material culture (Mowrer, 1941: 840).

It was found that existing theories of social problems, which sought explanations in the concept of social disorganization, were simply not adequate to explain what could be observed in society itself. On what was commonly referred to as a pluralistic society, they found that conflict arose out of competing interests, differential access to resources and in later phase, led to intergenerational differences and conflicts. In essence, the conflicts were conflicts of value.

The deviant behaviour perspective represented a further progression towards explaining individual behaviour from societal perspectives. It examined social institutions, finding out how they worked and how they related to people. This

concept attracted much attention in sociology, as it promised to explain the causes and the nature of law breaking and other anti-social activities. It becomes more important in dealing with law and order situation.

The labeling perspective tends to turn attention towards the people who had the power to define the appropriateness or legitimacy of certain social conduct and apply the label of 'normalcy' or 'deviance' to those who engage in such conduct. Exponents of the labeling perspective pointed out that certain social conduct might be taking place, yet no one really bothered about it until someone said it as 'wrong' or 'bad' for society and that some correctional measures should be taken to eradicate, suppress or at least attenuate it. They argued that where society or its influential sections accepted that view, the conduct so labeled became 'deviant'.

The essence of the critical theory is the argument that the nature of the social problems and then etiology can be properly studied and understood only in the context of the social system in which such problem occurs. The study of social problem in this perspective is a study of society's political economy that is, the study of social institutions as power structures, the roles they perform in society and their effects (Miller, 1976: 131-141). It follows that to effect any change in society including finding any solution to social problems, undeniably means changing the power structure of the society.

1.4 MEASUREMENT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

There is no single commonly accepted way to measure socio-economic problems among social scientists and economists; there is a desire to go beyond the popularly used income poverty and social class definition. And so there exists a wide variety of additional poverty measures which substitute for or complement the preponderance of income-based measures used by quantitative sociologists and economists (e.g., Ruggles 1990; Boltvinik 2000). In principle, the term ‘socio-economic problem’ is a multidimensional concept and should reflect several aspects of personal well-being and social status. Forms of deprivation other than economic hardship can certainly be relevant to the measurement of socio-economic problems and to anti-poverty policymaking.

Social indicators present an entirely different method of measuring socio-economic problems. Researchers have a long tradition of using socio-economic indicators to measure both economic hardship and social problems. Analysts often define direct measures of deprivation, such as lack of education, meager salaries, food, heat, or access to health care (Mayer and Jencks 1993). Because each household’s need is imperfectly measured by an income or consumption threshold, many households with incomes above the thresholds may still experience hardships such as hunger or face high rent payments or heavy medical expenses that prevent its members from buying enough food or fuel. Further, individual members of a household may suffer hardship because of unequal sharing of

incomes within the household. In these cases, direct measures of material hardship might offer a useful indication of poverty, especially in a cross-national context, and many sociologists are therefore attracted to such measures (Mayer and Jencks 1993).

Whatever the concept of socio-economic problems, certain dimensions dominate the analytical and policy discourse because of their relative ease of measurement and because they lend themselves to comparison across individuals, communities, and countries. These include indicators of health, nutrition, and education, but most dominant indicators of socio-economic problems are based on monetary measures of income and consumption.

Measuring socio-economic status is important for many reasons. It permits an overview of socio-economic problems that goes beyond individual experiences. It aids the formulation and testing of hypotheses on the causes of socio-economic problems. It presents an aggregate view of socio-economic problems over time. It enables the government, or the international community, to set itself measurable targets against which actions can be judged. The recently agreed international targets for poverty reduction focus primarily on measurable indicators of income, education, or health.

1.5 DIMENSIONS OF ‘SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROBLEMS’

‘Socio-economic problems’ have many dimensions. Poverty is one of the leading economic as well as social problems. The poor have not only low incomes but also lack access to basic needs such as education, health, clean drinking water and proper sanitation. The latter undermines their capabilities, limits their opportunities to secure employment, results in their social exclusion and exposes them to exogenous shocks. It includes income poverty, child mortality, high rate of disease, illiteracy, meager assets, inaccessible markets and scarce job opportunities and vulnerability to economic shocks. Health and education are two important dimensions of socio-economic status. Illness pushes people into poverty through lost wages, high spending for disastrous illnesses and repeated treatment for other illnesses. Likewise, inadequate education is one of the most important determinants of low socio-economic position and unequal access to educational opportunity is a strong correlate of income inequality. It is therefore important to examine the progress in these dimensions of socio-economic problems.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The police in Pakistan, as in all countries in the subcontinent, have traditionally been part of a colonial system of criminal justice that reined in a native population. Police like other departments in Pakistan is in the grip of socio-economic problems. ‘Socio-economic’ term is a multidimensional phenomenon,

encompassing inability to satisfy basic needs, lack of control over resources, lack of education and skills, poor health, malnutrition, lack of shelter, poor access to water and sanitation, vulnerability to shocks, violence and crime, lack of political freedom and voice. Police personnel face extreme vulnerability to be killed in encounters with out-laws, ill health due to long duty hours, and economic crunches due to meager salaries and allowances. And they are often exposed to ill treatment by institutions of the state, society, political instability and are powerless to influence key decisions affecting their socio-economic status.

In the intervening years since independence the population has increased threefold and police duties have multiplied, yet little has changed in the classroom or parade ground. Training was geared to maximize the use of force and suit the needs of colonists. As a result training was militaristic, emphasized physical fitness, drill, blind obedience, unquestioning discipline and curbed innovation or initiative in the constabulary. Police training also remains undisturbed by the intervention of a constitution that foregrounds democracy, pluralism, rule of law, concepts of citizenship, human rights and civil liberties.

It is argued that the police could be trained to enforce rule of law in a democracy and emphasized the need for training that would enable the personnel to change their attitude toward the citizenry. In order for police to acquire 'a high degree of professional, they need to develop a clear understanding of the social

purpose of their activity and sensitivity to the trends and forces at work in the environment in which they act. They require developing attitudes in consonance with the concept of social justice contained in the constitution and develop programmes with particular reference to the weaker sections of the community.

Undoubtedly, the police in Pakistan, over the years have made great strides in different spheres of its work, work-culture and delivery system. For instance, in crime detection and investigation works, its methods have changed vastly and these are much more scientific and modern. Its equipments, communication network, transport system are highly sophisticated now. All over Pakistan, crime records, criminal intelligence, fingerprints are computerized. Crowd management work is vastly improved and systematic. Its intelligence organizations have developed advanced and reliable system. Organizations, like the Intelligence Bureau, the Central Bureau of Investigation, Border Security Force and Training Institutions like Police Training Colleges at Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh are comparable to best ones. Police officers and constables from all over Pakistan are coming here for basic and advance training, and liaison work and coordination in all parts of the country fight against criminal activities, terrorism, narcotics and drug-abuses.

But yet, notwithstanding the aforesaid, unfortunately, the policing in Pakistan even after 58 years of independence and promulgation of the constitution, with rule of law as one of its basic features, if not ailing can not be said to be in best of

its health. The forces have not yet been able to win the confidence and respect of large sections of the people; it is despised and distrusted by some sections and continues to be "whipping boy" of several others.

1.7 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Various studies indicate that socio-economic problems in Pakistan are increasing with every passing day. Inflation is continuously on the rise. Purchasing power of people has reached at the bottom level due to insufficient and improper distribution of income resources. The current state of situation has been set suitable for affluent classes. Poor are unable to meet the basic needs of life.

The work of the state agencies and financial organs is seen to lack of coordination and follow-up measures that are indispensable for sustainable development. The role failure of these agencies has contributed to increasing poverty on the one hand and prevented the proper use of wealth on the other. The state agencies attribute their ineffective role performance to the policy and resource constraints imposed on them by the higher-level state organs. They also realize that the depletion of their resources by the vested handful segments of society and policy implementation lapses on their own part have contributed to their ineffective role performance.

Police in Pakistan is known by its misdeeds. Despite their only too well-known misdeeds and the enormous power and influence that police wield over the lives of people, little serious attention is paid to police reform. Not enough is written about the police in Pakistan much less about practical means to reform them. What there is, is confined to the readings of those who are already knowledgeable on the subject. However, over the last few years a trickle of literature has emerged that aspires to seed the now long dead debate on what should be done about an essentially failed arm of governance.

Police sub-culture continues to deteriorate. The public has its own negative image of the police but it is increasingly being acknowledged that the internal sub-culture is creating a force which is barely amenable to obedience even to its superiors: the constabulary with few role models to draw on from within the force prefer to depend on direct obedience to and connections with political patrons rather than to submit themselves to the discipline of the force or answerability to immediate superiors.

The problem of police role failure in the present study is well thought-out as the result of socio-economic problems they face and lack of proper guidance and training of police personnel. So the police inefficiency in the present study is taken to be the outcome of the varying degrees of role failure of the entrepreneurs and the social entities in their environment. Effective role performance of the social

entities in the environment could have possibly prevented the role performance of the enterprises from worsening.

Little attention has been paid to the socio-economic problems of police force. But so far, however no attempt appears to have been made toward analyzing the problem in a systematic and comparative context. In as much as no standard empirical study to date have been attempted to assess the problem. There have been written only some articles based on individual observation. As far as the researcher's humble knowledge goes, the present study is the first step to analyze the problem.

The causes of socio-economic problems faced by police personnel have not been truly explored. Lower social status of police recruits in the society has never been objectively analyzed. A little effort has been ever made in the past to redress their genuine problems. It was, therefore, imperative that something should be done for police force.

In view of the need to integrate the police department in the process of the development, an intensive study is needed. A research work of this nature is taken up with a view to apply sociological insights in the analysis of complex and dynamic issues.

After analyzing the socio-economic problems of police, more insight will be gained to mobilize it to solve their problems. So the present study will prove a pragmatic effort in that direction. The policy-makers in the field such as interior ministry and other nation building departments of law enforcing agencies are likely to benefit from its findings.

That prevailing situation provides the rationale for the present study.

1.8 SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN PAKISTAN

The Mahbub-ul-Haq Centre for Human Development (MHCHD) has developed a broad index of socio-economic development in Pakistan that takes into account deprivation in education and health, in addition to income. Trends in this index (poverty of opportunity) for the period 1970 to 1995, as well as the three indices on which it is based, i.e., poverty of opportunity of health, education, and income, are presented. Poverty, according to all indices, declined throughout the period, (with the exception of income related poverty in the 1990s which has been on the increase), but the poverty of education opportunity index has always lagged behind the other indices. In 1990, at 62 percent, poverty of education opportunities was almost three times the poverty of income opportunities. The data also show that, while poverty of opportunity declined for both men and women during this period, the decline for the latter has been slower than for the former.

Trends in the key components of human development, such as literacy, education, basic health, and population welfare in the 1990s are discussed below.

➤ Literacy

Literacy rates increased in the 1990s, and according to the 1998 census, the adult (15 years and above) literacy rate was 42.7 percent (55.3 percent for men and 29 percent for women). During the period from FY1991 to FY1999 the gap in literacy rates between men and women was reduced somewhat according to the PIHS data, although it remains significant, especially in the rural areas.

An analysis of the current literacy age profile for Pakistan can provide very useful insights into the progress that has been made in improving literacy in the last 50 years. In urban areas, literacy decreases with age (higher literacy in younger age groups). The female literacy rate increases at a much faster rate than that for males, such that the gender disparity is almost eliminated for the 15 to 19-age 18 group. However, the male literacy rate seems to have leveled off at just over 80 percent, which may have important implications for future improvement in the overall literacy rate.

In the rural areas as well, the long-term trend is for literacy to increase inversely with age for men and women, but the rate of increase for women only accelerates in the last few age groups. The gender gap, which is the largest for the 20 to 24 age group (40 percentage points) remains substantial, but declines to 33 percent for 15 to 19 year olds and further to 22 percentage points for 10 to 14 year olds. It is increasingly clear that the gender gap in education exists not only because of parent's reluctance to send girls to

school but also because of the non-availability of appropriate facilities for girls. Making educational facilities more easily accessible to girls and women may therefore result in significant gains in reducing the gender gap.

➤ **Education**

Despite the Social Action Program (SAP), primary enrolment in Pakistan has tended to stagnate, if not decline, during the 1990s. In FY1999, the primary school gross enrolment rate (GER) was 71 percent, as against 73 percent FY1991, while the net enrolment rate declined from 46 to 42 percent. However, some progress was made in reducing gender disparities in education over the period. The female GER increased from 59 percent to 61 percent, while the male GER declined from 87 percent to 80 percent. Thus the decline in the gender gap (from 28 percentage points to 19 percentage points) was largely because of declining boys' enrolment. Also, no progress was made in reducing rural-urban disparities. The gap in the case of girls widened marginally over this period, and in FY1999 girls' GER was 50 percent in rural areas compared to 92 percent in urban areas. At the same time, the gap in the case of boys widened significantly, because the decline in boys' GER in the rural areas (from 83 percent in 1991 to 75 percent in FY1999) was much greater than the decline (from 97 percent to 95 percent) in the urban areas. The inescapable conclusion is that, apart from a welcome increase in girls' GER, little progress was made in expanding primary education coverage, particularly in rural areas, during the 1990s.

➤ **Health**

Health was also one of the sectors targeted in the SAP. Health indicators in Pakistan have shown some improvement over the past decade, although they remain lower than indicators in other low-income countries. The infant mortality rate (IMR) was estimated to have declined from 122 per 1000 live births in FY1991 to 89 per 1000 live births by FY1999. The IMR was 93 per 1000 live births for males and 85 for females, while for urban areas it averaged 73 per 1000 live births as opposed to 95 per 1000 live births for rural areas.

➤ **Economic Vulnerability**

Vulnerability in its traditional sense is understood as the underlying susceptibility of economically deprived people to fall into poverty as a result of exogenous random shocks. Thus vulnerability is the risk of falling below the poverty line (Mahbub-ul-Haq, 1999). In this context, vulnerable households are generally found to have low mean expenditure levels coupled with a high variance of expenditure. Essentially households are vulnerable if they do not have the means to smooth out consumption expenditure in response to fluctuations in income.

Estimating income or consumption related vulnerability is a complex task, requiring an analysis of household consumption patterns over a period of time in relation to the occurrence of exogenous shocks. In general, vulnerability is likely to be high in households clustered around the poverty line. Coping strategies for vulnerable households depend primarily on their sources of income. Thus, in areas where income sources are relatively diversified, exogenous shocks can increase reliance on non-agricultural wages. In areas where such diversification has not occurred, credit may be an important mean of sustaining consumption.

➤ Social Vulnerability

While economic vulnerability is a key characteristic of the poor in Pakistan, there is increased recognition of the fact that vulnerability, in a broader and more encompassing sense, arises also from social powerlessness, political disenfranchisement, and ill-functioning and distortionary institutions, and that it is important to understand these factors as being among the primary causes of the persistence of vulnerability faced by the poor. This is evident from the fact that the poor rarely speak of just lack of income per se as being the key factor contributing to their vulnerability, but tend to focus more in this regard on the constraints that they face in managing their assets, whether human, material, social or political. In addition, highlighted in the poor's perceptions of vulnerability is increasing insecurity arising from sectarian violence, communal clashes and deteriorating law and order. Vulnerability, in this broad sense, therefore, may be defined as the lack of capacity in the poor to access public entitlements, particularly political processes or goods and services which determine human development, where human development is defined as enlarging people's choices in a way that enables them to lead longer, healthier and fuller lives.

Vulnerability in Pakistan manifests itself in at least four ways. First, it is exacerbated by the everyday harassment, under-performance, exclusion and denial of basic rights by public officials of people who are disadvantaged by virtue of gender, ethnicity, and economic and political powerlessness. That citizens have started reacting to such treatment is evidenced by the number of complaints filed against key government departments in Pakistan (Asia Foundation, 1999). These complaints could be placed in five categories: delay, inattention, neglect, arbitrary decisions and corruption. While, alarming, these trends say nothing of those who cannot or do not file formal complaints but silently suffer nevertheless on account of the dysfunctionality and non-responsiveness of public institutions.

Second, vulnerability is much increased by local officials responsible to license and regulate economic activities who typically extract rent from informal sector workers, by imposing or manipulating regulatory controls over their livelihood activities. This is particularly marked with law and order entitlements: budgetary allocations to meet recurrent costs of police stations are so meager that it is accepted practice to solicit contributions from the public to meet these expenditures.

Third, and well known, the vulnerability of the poor is continually reaffirmed by the corruption of local cadre/officials that hampers access to public goods/services such as health, education and land management. For example, it is common in Pakistan to find the poor turning to private sources of health care because they fear that a visit to a public facility would be unproductive. In this regard, the perception of the poor is that although private care is considered expensive, public sources may be no less expensive when there is a possibility of having to pay illegal fees, being serviced with expired drugs and dangerous diagnoses, and undergoing long delays in obtaining medical consultation due to frequent absenteeism of the concerned staff. Access to public services is also hampered by the need to provide documents such as national identity cards or domicile certificates, which are difficult to obtain.

Finally, the failure of state institutions to provide law and order and security is a function of the inefficiency in existing police, legal, and judicial structures. Studies suggest that the poor more frequently remark on the impact of a brutalizing police force and a corrupt judiciary than is apparent from official accounts of indicators and causes of poverty.

The poor recognize that the state has a responsibility to provide affordable, equitable and effective public goods and services, but feel that the state has failed to deliver. Dysfunctional institutions do not just fail to deliver services – they disempower, and even silence the poor through humiliation, exclusion and corruption. The persistent inability of the Government to rectify these conditions is arguably the most important constraint on long-term growth prospects and inequality.

1.9 FOCUS ON POLICE TRAINING COLLEGES, SAEEDABAD AND SHAHDADPUR, SINDH.

The Colleges function under the command of Principals/ Commandants. The organizational structure of Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur is same as enlisted below:

Principal: Officer of the rank of Superintendent of Police (SP) or Senior Superintendent of Police (SSP). He/She is the in-charge of a Police Training College.

Vice Principal: Officer of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police (DSP) or Assistant Superintendent of Police (ASP). He/She looks after the charge of Principal in his absence.

Deputy Superintendent of Police Administration: DSP Administration supervises all administrative matters of Police Training College.

Deputy Superintendent of Police Law: DSP Law is the head of law section/ Law School. He/She supervises all matters pertaining to law school.

Deputy Superintendent of Police Drill: DSP Drill is the head of drill section. He/She supervises all matters pertaining to drill or ground.

Reserve Inspector: He is responsible for the discipline, good conduct and correctness of accounts. He is overall in-charge of all the clothing, equipment, arms and ammunition, tents and stores and motor transport at boot and shall get maintain the registers and check their correctness. He shall also be in-charge of the buildings and lands in the occupation of the Police Training College and be responsible for their good order and general condition and management of boarding and lodging for the stall and trainee police personnel. He shall frequently visit the police dispensary and ensure that all patients are receiving proper attention. He shall exercise a general supervision over the working of messes and libraries.

Line Officer: He is subordinate and assistant of the Reserve Inspector. He shall have to perform all responsibilities and duties of Reserve Inspector in his absence. He is required to be fully acquainted with all the details connected with the intenal economy and discipline. He shall constantly inspect barracks, guards, dispensary and other buildings and be responsible that they are clean, tidy and properly kept. He shall manage roll-calls regularly.

Chief Law Instructor: He shall regularize the law school functions and supervise the staff of law school and law instructors to boot.

Chief Drill Instructor: He shall regularize the ground functions i.e. parade, P.T; and musketry and command the drill staff and drill instructors to boot.

➤ **Courses and Duration at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur.**

The variety of subjects is taught at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur. Academic subjects include: law subjects, criminal investigation and practical police work etc. Drill and musketry is also imparted to the trainees to make them

capable to handle and operate all kinds of weapons. At present, the following courses are being run at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur.

Courses	Duration
Upper School Course	06 Months
Intermediate School Course	06 Months
Probationer ASIs Course	12 Months
Lower School Course	06 Months
Recruit Police Constables Course	09 Months

1.10 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study has been conducted on the comparative study of socio-economic problems faced by police personnel at Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur. The study focused on various aspects like low salary, food quality, night pass problem, sanitation problem, delay in passing out parade, lengthy duration of parade etc. In view of the worsening economic and social conditions of police force, the present study aims to gain further insight into the situation arising out of the unproductive and unsatisfactory performance of police department on the whole. The fore going description of the problems faced by policemen may open a window that could lead towards gaining an insight into the issue. In a nutshell, the present study captioned: “A Comparative Study of Socio-Economic Problems of Trainee Police Personnel at Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh” is being undertaken to unearth factors that directly or indirectly affect the training and performance of police. This study has built a concrete framework, with viable suggestions, feasible recommendations and certain admonitions. Thus the study will be a potential blue print for better policies and orientation.

Further this study will prove fruitful in the following context:

- Boost the skills in policy implementation;
- To enhance skills in crime management;
- To improve performance of law enforcement agencies and methodology with increased efficiency in production and professional standards;
- Reduce barriers and difficulties in the way of effective maintenance of worsening law and order problem especially in Karachi;
- Increase government involvement in police training process.

1.11 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In the present study an attempt has been made to look at the socio-economic problems facing by police personnel at Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh. The present study was conducted with the following general and specific objectives:

General Objectives: The general objective of the study is to analyze the socio-economic problems faced by police personnel.

Specific Objectives: The present study aims to investigate in the following context:

- (1) To identify the socio-economic problems confronted by the police and suggest ways and means for improvement.
- (2) To find out the relationship between present rank and satisfaction at basic pay of respondents.
- (3) To find out the relationship between present rank and power satisfaction of

respondents.

- (4) To find out the relationship between age of respondents and satisfaction in training.
- (5) To find out the relationship between educational qualification of respondents and satisfaction in training.
- (6) To explore the relationship between educational qualification and rank of respondents.
- (7) To explore the relationship between educational qualification and power satisfaction.
- (8) To explore the relationship between marital status and satisfaction in training.
- (9) To explore the relationship between educational qualification and number of children.
- (10) To explore the relationship between total service and satisfaction at basic pay.
- (11) To explore the relationship between total service and satisfaction in training.
- (12) To explore the relationship between total service and power satisfaction.

1.12 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The hypotheses formulated for the present study are as under:

1.12.1 Present rank is likely related with satisfaction at basic pay.

- 1.12.2 Present rank is likely related with power satisfaction.
- 1.12.3 Age of respondents is likely related with satisfaction in training.
- 1.12.4 Educational qualification of respondents is likely related with satisfaction in training.
- 1.12.5 Educational qualification is likely related with rank of respondents.
- 1.12.6 Educational qualification is likely related with power satisfaction.
- 1.12.7 Marital status is likely related with satisfaction in training.
- 1.12.8 Educational qualification is likely related with number of children.
- 1.12.9 Total service is likely related with satisfaction at basic pay.
- 1.12.10 Total service is likely related with satisfaction in training
- 1.12.11 Total service is likely related with power satisfaction

1.13 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The building blocks of hypotheses are variables. A variable is anything that varies, changes, or has differences. Something that never changes is called a constant. Variables that only have two extremes are called attributes. In empirical research there are two types of variables: independent and dependent variables. Independent variables are those, thought to be the cause or trigger change in other variables. Dependent variables are those things changed or affected by independent variables, sometimes through other variables. Independent variables always come before dependent variables in time and space. A hypothesis attempts to see the cause and effect phenomenon in the form of dependent and independent variables (Rose, 1993). The preset research includes the following variables:

1.13.1 Independent variable

Rank

Age of respondents

Educational qualification

Marital status

Total service

1.13.2 Dependent variable

Satisfaction at basic pay

Power satisfaction

Satisfaction in training

Number of children

Basic pay

1.14 KEY CONCEPTS

➤ Socio-economic Status

Any measure which attempts to classify individuals, families, or households in terms of indicators such as occupation, income, and education. Socio-economic status can be defined as a person's overall social position to which attainments in both the social and economic domain contribute

➤ **Social Problem**

The term “Social Problem” implies to social conditions, processes, societal arrangements or attitudes that are commonly perceived to be undesirable, negative and threatening certain values or interests such as social cohesion, maintenance of law and order, moral standards, stability of social institutions, economic prosperity or individual freedom.

➤ **Poverty**

Poverty is a situation in which a person or household lacks the resources necessary to be able to consume a certain minimum basket of goods.

Cultural Background

Whether trainee belongs to urban or rural area.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of the review of literature is to assess the researches completed in related areas (Leady, 1989). It provides the guidelines to plan and accomplish proposed research studies in the light of conclusions drawn from the previous works. It also checks the unnecessary repetitions. Thus, the review of literature provides a base upon which the future research is yet to be built (Borg and Gall, 1989).

There is dearth of literature on the socio-economic problems of police personnel. Some writers have approached the theme for purely theoretical viewpoint. Very few of them however, reported the findings after fieldwork. The present literature review is an attempt to review secondary data on socio-economic problems, faced by trainee police personnel. While the geographical focus is Sindh, a few relevant other publications were also included. The review of this data includes academic and research publications, reports produced by government documents and the print media. However, it may be pointed out that there is a dearth of serious academic work in the above-mentioned area.

Before undertaking review of literature, a brief presentation of theoretical background on the socio-economic problems, faced by trainee police personnel seems in order. Theoretical explanation emphasizes of coordinating phenomena to a limited number of concepts linked by both hypothetical and verified statements about their interrelationship. It serves essentially the same purpose as a road map and travel plan for a journey. It then provides a base for information to carry out the proposed research. Practical field study helps to further the research of others, and helps to ensure continuity and integration.

This chapter highlights: (i) Theoretical Framework on Socio-economic Impact on Training Achievement (ii) Theoretical Perspective on Social Problems and (iii) Review of Related Literature.

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON SOCIO- ECONOMIC IMPACT ON TRAINING ACHEIVEMENT

Scientists use theoretical perspectives to provide logical explanations for why things happen the way they do. Starting the study of a subject with a theoretical perspective provides a guide, a particular conception of how the social world works. Of course, a point of view also influences what the researcher sees and how it is interpreted.

There are various interpretations of events in our everyday lives, so too there are various perspectives on why things happen the way they do in society. These theories sometimes result in different emphases or interpretations of the same information or data. Just as each individual interprets situations differently depending on his or her background, theorists focus on different key aspects of a research problem.

A theoretical approach helps to determine the questions to be asked by researchers and the way to organize research in order to get answers. Sometimes elements of several theories are combined. The history and key aspects of three important theories are discussed in the following sections.

The first two approaches focus on different views of the way society works. The third deals with interactions in social situations. These three approaches also focus on different “levels of analysis”. The functional and conflict approaches tend to deal with macro-level views of social relations at the culture of the school. Whereas, the interaction approach focuses on small-scale interaction between individuals and small groups. They are briefly discussed as under:

2.1.1 Functionalist Theory

One major theoretical approach in sociology of education is functionalism, also referred to as structural-functionalism, consensus, or equilibrium theory. A

sociologist using this approach starts with the assumption that society and institutions within society, such as educational training centres, are made up of interdependent parts all working together, each contributing some necessary activity to the functioning of whole society. This approach is often linked to the biological functioning of the human body. Each part plays a role in the total system and all are dependent on each other for survival. Just as the heart and brain is necessary for survival of a human being, an educational system is necessary for the survival of society.

Reviewing past work of educational training helps to formulate a theoretical and practical base on which to build; it also helps provide a historical perspective on the field. While many philosophers, educators, and social scientists have contributed their insights on education to sociological knowledge.

Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) set the stage for the conservative functional approach to learning. His ideas centered on the relationship between society and its institutions, all of which he saw as being interdependent. Most important, Durkheim attempted to understand why education took the forms it did, rather than judging those forms, as had been done so often. In his major works he outlined both a definition of education and the concerns of sociology as he saw them. He wrote: Learning is the influence exercised by adult generations on those that are not yet ready for social life. Its object is to arouse and to develop a certain

number of physical, intellectual and moral states which are demanded of him by both in political society as a whole and the special milieu for which he is specially defined (Durkheim, 1956: 28).

Durkheim observed that learning has taken very different forms at different times and places, showing that the educational system from society can not be separated, for they reflect each other. According to this approach, a primary function of learning centres is the passing on of the knowledge and behaviours necessary to maintain order in the society. Since learners learn to be social beings and develop appropriate social values through contact with others, learning centres are an important preparation ground. Functionalist theorists conceive of institutions as parts of components of total societies or social systems. They tend to focus their research on questions concerning the structure and functioning of organizations.

2.1.2 Conflict Theory

In contrast to functional theory is conflict theory, which assumes a tension in society and its parts created by the competing interests of individuals and groups. Variations of this approach stem from the writings of Karl Marx and Max Weber. Society's competing groups, the "haves" and the "have-nots" are seen as being in a constant state of tension, leading to the possibility of struggle. The "haves" control power, wealth, material goods and influence major decisions. The "have-

nots” constantly present a challenge as they seek a large share of society’s wealth. This struggle for power helps determine the structure and functioning of organizations and the hierarchy that evolves as a result of power relations. The “haves” often use coercive power and manipulation to hold society together, but change is seen as inevitable and sometimes rapid, as the conflicts of interest lead to the overthrow of existing power structures.

Max Weber (1864-1920) presented a particular brand of conflict theory. He writes that the “main activity of learning centres is to teach particular ‘status cultures’ both in and outside the classroom (Collins, 19971). Power relationships and the conflicting interests of individuals and groups in society influence instructive systems, for it is the interests and purposes of the dominant groups in society that shape the learning centres. Weber’s unique approach combined the study of macro-school organization with an interpretive view of who or what brings about a situation and how we interpret or define these situations.

Within the learning centres there are “insiders,” whose status culture, as Weber sees it, is reinforced, and “outsiders,” who face barriers. Transport these ideas to training systems today as they deal with poor and minority students and the relevance of Weber’s brand of conflict theory becomes evident. His theory deals with conflict, domination, and groups struggling for wealth, power, and status in society. These groups differ in property ownership; cultural status, or

power derived from positions in government and other organizations. Learning is used as one means to attain desired ends. Relating this to Karl Marx's writings on conflict theory, training produces a discipline labour force for law enforcement agencies, political, or other areas of control and exploitation by elites.

2.1.3 Interaction Theory

This approach focuses on individuals in interaction with each other. Individuals sharing a culture are likely to interpret and define many social situations in similar ways because of their similar socialization, experiences, and expectations. Hence, common norms evolve to guide behaviour. However, differences also exist based on individual experiences, social class, and status.

The interaction theory approaches has been used increasingly since World War II and emphasize social-psychological questions. Sociologists of education using this approach are likely to focus on interactions between groups-peers, teachers-student, teacher-principal-on student attitudes and achievement; on student values; on students' self concept and their effect on aspirations; and on socio-economic status as it relates to student achievement.

Two interaction theories used in sociology of education are labeling theory and exchange theory. If any trainee is told that he/she is dumb and will amount little, he may incorporate this "label" as part of his /her self-concept and behave as

the label suggests. There is evident that students behave well or badly depending on teacher expectations. Exchange theory is based on the assumption that there are costs and rewards involved in our interactions; reciprocal interactions bind individuals and groups with obligations. For example, students learn and teacher is rewarded. Rewarding behaviour is likely to be continued. These interaction theories are useful to us in understanding the dynamics of the training systems.

2.1.4 Some More Theories

Nieto (1996: 299) describes three major theories in order to explain the "training failure of learners, particularly those from culturally diverse and poor backgrounds." In the deficit theory, training failure is viewed as being "the fault either of the trainees themselves, who are genetically inferior, or the social characteristics of their communities, which suffer from economic and cultural disadvantages". An economic and social reproduction theory suggests that training centres reproduce the economic and social structures of society. A cultural incompatibilities perspective proposes that training failure is caused by contrasts between the culture of home and the culture of training centre. Nieto points out that while the "characteristics trainees bring with them to training centres, including their race, ethnicity, social class, and language," often have an influence on their success or failure in training centres, there is not a causal effect between these characteristics and training failure. Nieto describes it as "the institution's

perception of students' language, culture and class as inadequate and negative, and the subsequent devalued status of these characteristics in the academic environment," that help to explain school failure. (1996: 230).

Discipline practices in the family are integral in theories of socialization. Trainers use psychological pressure with their students. Numerous theories posit a role for psychological pressure in the development of antisocial behaviour in students. According to one set of theories, discipline responses are made in the context of multiple influences ranging from more distant factors such as culture, ethnicity, and socio-economic status (SES) to more proximal factors such as available social supports, family structure, and family processes (Belsky, 1984; Luster & Okagaki, 1993; Rubin, Stewart, & Chen, 1995). More proximal influences such as stress also have been linked to punitive parenting (McLoyd, Jayaratne, Ceballo, & Borquez, 1994). Another set of theories suggests that the most proximal influence on discipline responses can be found in parents' cognitive—emotional processes regarding situationally based child misbehaviour (Dix, 1993).

2.1.5 Impact of Family's Socio-Economic Background on Achievement

Lower-class learners live in a very different world from the upper or middle class. The homes of the poor tend to have fewer books, newspapers, and magazines, and the family members have less education. People with low incomes

are less likely to read for entertainment; thus, students in low-income homes are less likely to be encouraged to learn that vital skill. Lower classes families are also larger and are more often headed by only one adult. Members of such families often receive less contact, guidance and educational encouragement. Another factor is health: The poor are more likely to be undernourished than their middle or upper class counterparts, and they are sick more days a year (Leonard and Lisa, 1987:643-649). And unhealthy learners simply do not learn as well as healthy ones.

More positively, the academic success of trainees from affluent homes stems from the value their family place on learning. A number of surveys have shown that learners from wealthy families want more education than learners from poorer backgrounds (Parelius, 1987: 280-282). Some of this difference results from the fact that middle class homes place a higher value on education and long-range planning. But some of it also reflects a realistic adjustment by poor people to the fact that they have less chance of getting a good education.

Blake (1991) noted the correlation among family's income is an omnibus measure that captures the overall impact of family and community background on outcomes in adult life. Thus for the most studied outcome in economics, earnings, the correlation can be interpreted as the proportion of the variance in earnings due to whatever factors that are shared by learners. Blake (1991) decomposes the

sibling correlation into two components: one that is related to parental income and one that is related to factors orthogonal to parental income.

Learners' correlations are an interesting approach whenever researchers want to control for differences in "unmeasured abilities". An important research area is that utilizing information regarding twins to, among other things, estimate returns to training purged of genetic and family background factors (Ashenfelter and Krueger, 1994). Learners' correlations are also valuable in case one wants to examine the effects of different family types (divorces, lone parents, many vs. few brothers and sisters, etc.). The literature on these factors in sociology and psychology is fairly extensive. The amount of cumulated research on the mechanisms, leading to the transmission of economic status from parents to their children, such as health and education, is even smaller.

There is a large and growing body of literature on decisions related to children's and young people's educational choice and the observed rather limited intergenerational mobility in educational attainment and earnings. Most of the empirical literature on educational choice focuses on the estimation of simple discrete choice models that may be interpreted as reduced form human capital models, but which may also be given other, e.g. sociological, interpretations.

It would therefore be interesting to test alternative economic and sociological theories on educational choice on the same data set. The basic economic theory of

educational choice is the human capital theory according to which education is chosen to maximize expected returns, compared to opportunity costs. In most applications of human capital theory expected returns are taken to be expected lifetime earnings and opportunity costs are earnings forgone during education (Bourdieu 1997). Mullen (2003) has derived and tested several specific implications of the human capital theory. Dumais (2002) has suggested a sociological “rational action” theory of educational choice, “the relative risk aversion theory”, suggesting that educational choices at different stages in the educational system are made to minimize the risk of ending up in a lower social class than one’s parents. This theory has testable implications, which are in general contrary to what standard human capital theory predicts.

In addition to parental background, the quality of training may be important for educational and labour market outcomes for a survey (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). There is an extensive body of literature on whether different measures of training resources affect educational attainment and labour market outcomes. The majority of the studies find no or only minor systematic effects of training resources (Roscigno and Ainsworth-Darnell, 1999; Teachman, 1987)), whereas others find significant effects (Kingston 2001).

2.1.6 Determinants of Social Class

Sociologists study stratification, defining the meaning of social class and discussing its significance and implications for individuals in society. Class has

been described by Weber (Gerth and Mills, 1958) as a multidimensional concept that is determined by three major variables: Wealth, power and prestige. Wealth refers to one's property, capital and income. Power implies the ability to make major decisions to influence others to act to one's benefit. Much power has become concentrated in the upper levels of government and business. C. Wright Mills (1959) argues that the "power elite" that dominates society and controls decision-making is composed of members of the economic, political, and military elite.

Occupation is main factor in one's prestige. Education affects occupational status, and income is closely associated with it. Various occupations have different amounts of prestige, including the ability to influence others.

Different sociologists have described the class system. In the 1920s Lynds (1929) were among the first to study the relationship between social class and educational achievement. He concluded that working class children don't have many of the verbal and behavioural skills and traits that are pre-requisite to success in the classroom. In a number of community studies conducted by Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (1944) stated that schools sorted students based on their potential for upward mobility. Lower class children are often regarded as not capable. Other studies have replicated the social class-educational achievement relationship and confirmed these findings.

Studies on social class attainment show six major ascribed and achieved variables that affect one's educational and occupational positions:

1. *Father or mother's education, father's occupation, family income.*
2. *Ability, measured by achievement or IQ test (academic aptitude)*
3. Academic performance.
4. Significant others' encouragement.
5. Educational/occupational achievement.
6. Educational attainment's direct influence on occupational attainment.

2.1.7 Familial Influence

When family is involved in their member's education, they do better in training centre. And when parents are involved in school, children go farther in school and the schools they go to are better ((Henderson & Berla, 1994).

As the above quote suggests, it is a well-established fact that family's involvement is linked to member's success at training centre. Thirty years of research demonstrates that there is a strong correlation between familial involvement and increased academic achievement. In fact, a home environment that encourages learning is more important to student achievement than the family's income, education level, or cultural background (Henderson & Berla,

1994). To wit, Herbert Walberg found that family participation in education was actually twice as predictive of academic learning as family socio-economic status. Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez, and Bloom (1993: 145), in their book 'Home Environment and School Learning', summarize the phenomenon this way: "The socio-economic level or cultural background of a home need not determine how well a child does at school. Parents from a variety of cultural backgrounds and with different levels of education, income or occupational status can and do provide stimulating home environments that support and encourage the learning of their children. It is what parents do in the home rather than their status that is important".

Research studies for over thirty years have made the connection between student achievement and socio-economic status of family (Coleman, 1966). Comprehensive studies reveal that the active ingredient of socio-economic status is the level and quality of familial involvement, beginning at birth and continuing through adolescence.

Henderson and Berla (1994) have compiled the results of sixty-six studies that provide repeated evidence that the most accurate predictor of student achievement is the extent to which the family is involved in the child's education, not the family's level of income.

Increasing parents' involvement in their members' education is the foremost way to significantly improve academic achievement. The vast majority of learners who are doing well in public education came to educational centres ready to learn and have family members who are actively involved in their education. Many of the learners who did not come to educational centres ready to learn and did not have parents who were actively involved in their training are performing poorly, despite expensive remediation programs.

Educators and those responsible for education policy have known for a good while that the largest barrier to reaching high academic achievement, for approximately two-thirds of all students, is a lack of familial involvement in education. New compelling evidence proves that familial involvement is even more crucial to a child's intellectual development and academic success than believed even a few years ago.

Another parental involvement indicator might be managed use of electronic media. Research indicates that regulating the use of television/ electronic games can have a positive impact on student achievement. Generally, the more time spend watching television, the less time they spend reading or doing intellectually stimulating activities that lead to high achievement. Consequently, gathering data from students on the amount of time they spend watching television each day

could be used to indicate the degree to which trainers regulate the amount of time their students are allowed to watch television.

2.1.8 Parents and Family

The majority of studies examining the impact of parents and family on the transition from educational institutes to the workplace consider social factors, such as socio-economic status and family background. In general, lower SES predicts higher dropout (Rumberger, 1982).

Adolescents from intact, middle class families are more likely to have jobs during studies, and, thus, have earlier and greater exposure to the world of work (Schill, McCartin, & Meyer, 1985, cited in Lewis, et al., 1998). Parents, depending upon their social class, also establish a value context in which certain occupational choices are encouraged and others discouraged (Kohn, 1977). For example, middle class parenting styles that promote autonomy, self-direction, and independence will fit best with middle class occupational choices.

Home environment exerts a significant influence on adolescent educational aspirations, which, in turn, influence the school-to-work transition. When parents have high educational training, and they are perceived by adolescents to have high expectations, adolescents have high aspirations (Wilson & Wilson, 1992). Parents and siblings also serve as models for adolescent work and occupational choices (Barber & Eccles, 1992).

Despite the popular stereo type of adolescent rebellion, evidence suggests that adolescents and parents are more similar than dissimilar in vocational choice, particularly when family relationships have been warm and strong identifications have formed (Grotevant & Cooper, 1988).

Another aspect of family that is critical to the academic performance of youth is familial involvement. Familial involvement in academic perusal is consistently found to relate to academic achievement (Coleman, 1991). Moreover, familial involvement overcomes the disadvantages associated with single-parent or step parent homes and lower socio-economic status. Given the importance of familial involvement to the academic achievement of youth, not surprisingly, school-to-work legislation calls for family to be involved.

2.1.9 Effects of Home Environment on Instructive Achievement

Learners' positions in training centres and society are determined in large part by their family background. Coleman (1966) and Jencks (1972) find that one-half to two-thirds of student achievement variance is directly related to home variables such as socio-economic level (Greenwood and Hickman, 1991:287). Family "processes" are a better predictor of positive achievement and grades than all other variables (Dornbusch and Ritter, 1992).

Some home environment factors that influence student achievement include social class of family, early home environment, parenting style, family involvement in academic decisions and activities, family and student aspirations, and number of children in the family (Rubin and Borgers, 1991). The more children in the family, the less time parents interact with each child.

An underlying question here is how training centres can meet every trainee's needs. It is a fact that training centres use social constructs, with organization and language that are more familiar to middle-and upper-class trainees. These trainees are more likely to have home experiences with the values, attitudes, and training in cognitive skills that will help them adapt to school demands.

Strength of attachment to family is also a factor in the equation (Astone and McLanahan, 1991:318-319). Trainees who are left to make their own educational plans and decisions, where family has little involvement, are more likely to be dropout (Rumberger, 1990).

Family and student aspirations for the future are another aspect of the influence of class, racial, or ethnic background. Parents who set high standards and have high aspirations for their children are more likely to have high-achieving children. James Coleman and colleagues found that students from lower classes and middle classes had comparable aspirations; the difference was in taking the necessary steps to carry out their goals. Student of lower classes felt that they had

less control over their environment and left their fate to luck and chance (Coleman et al., 1966), though many lower class mothers find multiple strategies to encourage their children's school achievement (Rosier, 1993). From Coleman's research in "equality of Educational opportunity," the most extensive study done in the field of education comes evidence that the effects of home environment far outweigh the effects of the school program on achievement.

Educational and social class background is the most important factor in determining differences between students. Next most important is the school composition-the backgrounds of other children.

Another extensive study, by Christopher Jencks and others (1972), reached the same general conclusion: Family characteristics are the main variable in a student's educational environment. In fact, Jencks's findings indicate that family background accounts for more than one-half of the variation in educational attainment. Regardless of the measure used-occupation, income, parent education-family socio-economic status is a powerful predictor of school performance.

Children succeed in large part because of their family background and what parents do to support their children in their education. Parenting styles and parental expectations play a crucial role in setting the child's educational agenda (Dornbusch and Ritter 1992; Lee, Dedrick, and Smith, 1991). One of the most

important ingredients in a child's success in education is the degree of familial involvement in the educational process of the learner. Questions concern what familial activities help or harm a child's educational achievement. Involvement of the parents is shaped by their social and financial resources, their opportunities to be involved, and their own orientation toward education.

Parents' involvement in the educational process also differs by social class. A great deal of research has focused on the "Cultural Capital" that children bring to educational institutions from their family life. Some of this facilitates training learning; some does not (Bourdieu, 1977).

In fact, social class position can become a form of "cultural capital" leading to difference training experiences. The cultural capital of middle-and upper-class children-for instance, those with educated mothers (Rosenweig, 1994)- provides useful resources for educational experiences, whereas that of the lower class provides resources not valued by dominant social institutions such as education (Lareau, 1985).

Middle-classes families tend to have more educational materials in the home-books, newspapers, and magazines. These students read a lot at home and score higher than lower-class students on reading achievement tests. Their parents read, visit the library, and participate in academic activities (Anderson et al., 1985).

They also visit more museums and attend concerts; all of these are activities that reinforce values of education.

Children from one parent households have lower grades, lower test scores, and higher dropout rates than those from two-parents households; these results are also influenced by the race and ethnicity of family, the educational level of parent(s), and low level of involvement by absence of a parent. Warning signs that children are likely to have problems in school appear as early as ages 3 to 5 in many welfare children who receive little cognitive stimulation and emotional support. Unless there is significant parental support and supervision, these factors are correlated with children being tardy or absent from school, not doing homework, not having contact with their parents, and engaging in frequent dating and early sex (Mukey, Crain, and Harrington, 1992; Pallas, 1989; Moore et al., 1989). However, single parents who do become involved in their children's education can compensate for the problems mentioned above (Lee et al., 1991; Pallas, 1989). Recent findings indicate that mothers who work part-time tend to be very involved with their children's education, and children perform at higher rate. Full-time work affects after-school supervised time for the child; it is here that differences exist (Muller, 1991).

Studies on mothers' interactions with their young children delve further into the process of different language and value transmission. Burton White and his

associates at Harvard University evaluated the influence that different “types” of mothers have on their children (White, 1973). A part of their study involves use by mothers of physical environment of the home. Women were divided into type A and type C mothers. Mothers allowed children more freedom of movement and encouraged independence, whereas C mothers were less patient with their children’s demands and used TV more often to occupy them.

Other evidence shows the involvement of mothers in school process. For instance, eight-grade-educated mothers discuss similar strategies for encouraging their children’s school achievement, but their use and implementation of the strategies differed by their socio-economic level. College-educated mothers “managed” their children’s high school schedule by selecting college preparatory courses. High socio-economic background children do better management skills (Baker and Stevenson, 1986). In fact, some middle class parents may try to “control” schools and take action if a child is having problems, whereas, lower class parents feel helpless and alienated in their interactions with schools.

A question of concern to many families is the effect of working mothers on the achievements of children. Study results are mixed, and many other variables enter into the picture, such as the number of hours worked and intensity of the work, care of children, and socio-economic level of the family (Williams, 1993). Summarizing the major findings, it can be stated that working women provide

positive role models and their children often score higher on achievement tests (Radin, 1990).

The number of children in the family is another variable that affects school experience, especially the years of schooling that a child completes. Parents with smaller families offer children great intellectual and educational advantages. It is a fact that boys who come from families with a small number of siblings have more mobility; that is, they more often complete more years of schooling than did their fathers. The more siblings in the family, the more diluted the parents' attention and material resources (Blake, 1985, 1991), and the lower the achievement (Hanushek, 1992).

Children from families with a small number of siblings “gain many advantages of personal nature, including markedly higher verbal ability, motivation to perform in the school, a preference for ‘intellectual’ extra curricular activities, a family setting that is typically conducive to study and academic pursuits, and encouragement to go to school.” Those from families with a large number of siblings, “on average, have lower verbal IQs, perform less well in school, engage less in intellectual extra curricular activities and more in sports and communities activities, are less likely to be encouraged to go to school, and, as a consequence, are more dependent on being shored by familial status if they are to pass from high school” (Blake, 1986: 416).

Schools play a role in making it possible to involve parents (Spencer, 1994: 5). Not all schools are welcoming; teachers are overworked and parents add one more layer to the workload (Dornbusch and Riter, 1992). Some parents expect too much from teachers or are downright abusive (Ostrander, 1991:37). However, there are constructive ways to involve parents both in the education of their own children and in the school program (Epstein and Dauber, 1991:289).

2.1.10 Influence of Home Environment and Socio-economic status on School Climate

Students come in many types. Some are rich; some are poor. Some come from families that stress education; some do not. Some are highly motivated toward educational attainment; some are not. The school system must accept the variety of students and make them fit in the school system, preparing them to fit into future roles in society. A school's climate results from the combination of students' family background, and socio-economic status (SES); that is the composition of the school's student body. The effect of home on school climate became widely researched topic especially following Coleman's 1966 study, "equality of Educational Opportunity" (Coleman et al., 1966). This study concluded that the effects of home environment were more significant in students' achievement than effects of the school program. The family's educational and social background was most important, followed by the backgrounds of other

children in the school. More recent research by Coleman and his associates (1981) indicates that private schools provide superior education to public schools because value climate in many private schools is more conducive to learning (National Center for education statistics, 1987:74; 1995: 47-57).

Both the idea that schools make little difference in the achievement of children and the finding that private schools provide superior education have been challenged in number of studies. The Wisconsin Social-Psychological Model of Status Attainment, a longitudinal study originally developed in 1957 and repeated since then, has provided a useful analytical model for many researchers. In a revised model, the authors found that socio-economic status has no effect on students' high school performance, education and occupational aspirations, and educational attainment and occupational achievement, considering students' ability (Sewell and Hauser, 1964). Sewell and Hauser also report that ability has direct effects on high school performance, regardless of socio-economic status. It appears that the importance of SES variables on attainment comes from the encouragement received from significant others and from educational aspirations.

Other studies find that achievement and school value climate are affected by the student body's composition, particularly socio-economic status and the neighbourhood in which students live. However, concrete experience in the school and attitudes come from life experience, and educational achievement may not be

fairly rewarded by the opportunity structure (Mickelson, 1990; Dreeben and Gamoran, 1986; Freire, 1995:377).

2.1.11 Home and Family Influences on School

When children walk into the school building they bring with them baggage from home: ambition, motivation, pressures, expectations, physical and mental strengths or weaknesses, and sometimes abuse, insecurities, stress, and other problems. Therefore, knowledge of social and family context that students bring into school is essential for teachers in dealing with students (Henry, 1996).

Many families balance work and parenting. They must find reliable childcare for pre-school children. Once a child enters formal schooling, the “curriculum of home”-the development of attitudes and habits supporting learning and high value placed on personal development, influences the child’s learning and academic achievement in school. This “curriculum” includes size of family, reading materials and reading at home, time spent watching TV, attention to home work and absences from school, parental involvement in school decisions, and family resources (Redding, 1992; Barton and Coley, 1992).

The key finding is that the higher the parents’ involvement in their children’s schooling, the higher the overall academic performance (“Parent Involvement in Education,” 1994; Keith and Lichtman, 1994; Reynolds, 1993). Parents affect children’s educational achievement and aspirations in several major ways. Boys

and girls are strongly influenced by the “defining” behaviour of parents through expectations for appropriate behaviours are established (Cohen, 1987). Also important, especially for girls, is “modeling” or emulation of parents. Family influence is strongly across social class, but mothers with higher educational status are more involved in school activities, have more contact with teachers, and choose college-preparatory courses for their children. Children of parents who are involved in schools have higher school performance levels (Stevenson and Baker, 1987; Baker and Stevenson, 1986). This includes children from minorities’ families whose parents are involved in their children’s education (Keith and Lichtman, 1994). On the other hand, children from homes and neighbourhoods considered “socially deprived” experience negative effects on their educational attainment (Garner and Raudenbush, 1991).

When the influence of parents, peers, and teachers are combined, strong effects on students’ attitudes toward school, homework, achievement, and other aspects of schooling are noticed (Natriello and McDill, 1986).

Parents’ investment in their children and support for higher education is related to their views of status attainment. Some parents see children as an investment, following the “human capital theory.” Others view payment for education as “resource-dilution,” often related to how many children are in the family compared with available resources. For instance, parents are more willing

to pay for higher education for their children if their parents paid for their education, and they see this as a responsibility; they are also more willing to pay if the number of children in the family does not drain their resources (Steelman and Powell, 1991).

2.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Rubington and Weinberg (1995) list seven theoretical perspectives on social problems that came into sociological studies from the late 1890s to the early 1990s. They are briefly explained as under:

2.2.1 Social Pathology

The notion of social pathology emerged in the later part of the 19th century and remained very much vogue throughout the early part of the 20th century. Early sociologists developed the social pathology perspective from the examining the effects of extensive social change on the people who had been uprooted from their rural surroundings and forced to live and work in new and strange conditions. The sociologists focus on the effects of change rather than on the causes of change and they sought to explain the victims' plight as a failure to adjust to changed conditions.

2.2.2. Social Disorganization

The Social disorganization perspective was developed in the 1920s at the University of Chicago (Park et al. 1925). This perspective represented a significant shift of focus from the individual to the social and economic environment, and opened a new field of sociological research.

Sociologists who studied social problems in the theoretical framework of social disorganization identified a number of issues within the concept that led them to differentiate between social disorganization as a condition and a process. This distinction led to the formulation of the hypothesis of cultural lag the essence of which was that material culture tends to change more rapidly than non-material culture (Mowrer, 1941: 840).

2.2.3. Value Conflict Perspective

The value conflict perspective was developed in the 1930s as an outcome of the Great Depression. Sociologists found that existing theories of social problems, which sought explanations in the concept of social disorganization, were simply not adequate to explain what could be observed in society itself. On what was commonly referred to as a pluralistic society, they found that conflict arose out of competing interests, differential access to resources and in later phase, led to inter-

generational differences and conflicts. In essence, the conflicts were conflicts of value.

2.2.4 Deviant Behaviour Perspective

The deviant behaviour perspective represented a further progression towards explaining individual behaviour from societal perspectives. It examined social institutions, finding out how they worked and how they related to people. This concept attracted much attention in sociology, as it promised to explain the causes and the nature of law breaking and other anti-social activities. It becomes more important in dealing with law and order situation.

2.2.5 Labeling Perspective

The labeling perspective tends to turn attention towards the people who had the power to define the appropriateness or legitimacy of certain social conduct and apply the label of 'normalcy' or 'deviance' to those who engage in such conduct. Exponents of the labeling perspective pointed out that certain social conduct might be taking place, yet no one really bothered about it until someone said it as 'wrong' or 'bad' for society and that some correctional measures should be taken to eradicate, suppress or at least attenuate it. They argued that where society or its influential sections accepted that view, the conduct so labeled became 'deviant'.

2.2.6 Critical Theory Perspective

The essence of the critical theory is the argument that the nature of the social problems and then an etiology can be properly studied and understood only in the context of the social system in which such problem occurs. The study of social problem in this perspective is a study of society's political economy that is, the study of social institutions as power structures, the roles they perform in society and their effects (Miller, 1976: 131-141). It follows that to effect any change in society including finding any solution to social problems, undeniably means changing the power structure of the society.

2.2.7 Constructionist Perspective

The constructionist perspective tends to explain the processes through which social phenomena are constructed and interpreted. The theoretical assumption of this perspective clearly distinguishes social phenomena from physical phenomena, in that social phenomena are not perceived to have an independent existence from the perception and interpretation of the observer. In the study of social problem the focus of this perspective is therefore primarily on the processes through which a social condition is perceived as social problem, not on the condition itself.

2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Deborah Elkins (1958) studied 90 children of eighth grade to determine the relationship between their status and their academic achievement. In order to determine the achievement of each child, a standard achievement test was administered to all 90 children. The results of his investigation indicated that the academic bright child tended indeed to “Be twice blessed” and academically poor child tend to be “twice cursed” of the 30 children who enjoyed the highest position in the social structure 57% were in the top level of academic achievers, only 10 of the 30 made very low scores. This is in contrast to the 30 least chosen children when 10% made high achievement scores and 53% made very low scores.

Robbert (1966) reported that “The percentage of pupils, ‘who have stayed back one year or more’ is lowest socio-economic status, (20% of pupils) whereas only 4% of highest socio-economic status, stayed back”. He further stated that each person is born into different social and economic problems. These circumstances have much to say about, where the child starts the school race. For a child, who is surrounded by books at home in which intellectual topics are frequently discussed, the school life is a natural extension and is different from the life of that child who is lacking these facilities.

James Wilson (1968) distinguishes between activities such as accepting bribes and ‘criminal’ activities such as burglary on duty by policemen. According to him although both acts are criminal, the point of Wilson’s distinction is that bribery of police officers involves the exploitation of authority in a way that burglary by police officers need not. There is a parallel here with work on so-called ‘white collar crime’. The main motive behind accepting money by foul means is growing socio-economic problems faced by police personnel.

There are many factors which influence learning. The age, family status, personal capabilities , the training centre as a physical place of learning, the material of instruction, the methods of teaching and the capabilities of teachers. What a learner achieves in the classroom depends in large measure on ones own ability and motivation (Cole, 1971: 296). Among these factors one of the most potent, yet generally overlooked is that of socio-economic problems faced by the learners.

Reforming recruit training is the most common response among police agencies attempting to deal with malpractices. Goldstein, writing in the 1970s (Goldstein, 1975) noted that most police training avoided discussion of corruption. This, he suggested, was often done in the rather naïve belief that discussing wrongdoing was inherently undesirable and might even encourage such behaviour. The reverse is true, he suggests, and ‘subsequent discovery by new officers of the

true dimensions of corruption is among the major factors that discredit the value of recruit training' (Goldstein, 1975: 43).

Idrees (1976) in a study entitled "Parent's Economic and Social Status and its Impact on the Academic Achievement" have made the following conclusions:

I. There is significant correlation between parent's social status and its impact on the achievement of their children.

II. There is strong correlation between private coaching and academic achievement of students.

III. There is significant correlation between elder brother or sister and academic guidance and standard of education.

IV. There is significant correlation between parent's academic guidance and standard of education.

Yasmeen (1978) in a research thesis found that parent of lower stratum have significant correlation for their children's job inclination. She further stated that:

I. There is no correlation between lower-middle class parents and their inclination for higher education for their children.

II. The parents of lower income group want jobs for their school age children, while there is no such tradition in the upper stratum.

III Educated parents take care of their children's academic problems and have, watch over their progress.

IV Children's educational expenses are directly in proportion to their parents' monthly income.

There is some disagreement in the literature over the significance of pride in integrity. A common hypothesis is that the more pride police officers have in their department, the more 'resistant' they will be to corruption. Sherman (1978), in his examination of managerial reform strategies in four forces, found that little of the reform executives' attention (generally police administrators) was found to have been directed at building pride. Rather, they tended to concentrate on the removal of temptation and increasing fear of detection. As a consequence, he argues that pride is the consequence of long-term reform efforts, rather than a cause of the reduction of corruption. Fear of detection, he suggests, appears to be 'causally prior to pride in integrity, at least in police departments in which corruption was once widespread'.

Sherman (1978 b) in another article argued that corrupt police departments were socially organized in relation to a number of informal rules. The rules according to him had two main purposes. First, to minimize the chances of external control being mobilized and, secondly, to keep corrupt activities at a 'reasonable' level. He further opined that the rule most often referred to in this

connection, was the rule of silence. 'Officers were socialized into not cooperating with investigations of their colleagues. Whether or not he participates financially in corruption activities, an officer's adherence to the 'blue curtain of secrecy' rule puts him squarely within the 'corruption system', the members of an organization who comply with the deviant goal'.

Cuttance (1980), Gray (1980) and Reynolds (1985) have argued that context variables, particularly, pupils ability social classes are such major determinants of educational attainments, that the difference which may result from pupils having a more rather than a less, effective teacher are very slight indeed. The developing literature on school effectiveness has further identified aspects of the school attended, which, in addition to pupil ability and social class, appears to account for some of the difference in attainment between schools.

Nasreen (1983) in a study concluded that parent's social and economic conditions have no correlation with the standard of the education. She further stated that:

- I .There is no correlation between joint family system and standard of education.
 - II. Parent's academic qualification does not affect their siblings' education.
 - III. If the parents of children are attached to teaching profession, there is no significant bearing of parents' profession on the education of their siblings.
- children have no significance effects.

Sherman's (1985) in a paper focused on the police officers' 'moral career' – the process of self-labelling that takes place as an officer moves from minor perks to more serious forms of bribery. He argues that there is a continuum from one to the other which involves a series of stages each of which require a moral decision to be made. He held the view that due to the insufficient salary policemen are compelled by the circumstances to accept the bribery.

In an article Kyriacou (1986) mentioned that it is obvious that number of factors influences educational attainments, including ability and motivation. To the extent that differences in social class are bound up with difference in the ability and motivations of pupils. It is not social class, which influences attainments but rather the underlying psychological experience associated with middle and working class houses respectively. Particular attention has been paid to the greater degree of cultural shock for morning class pupils which stems from the way teachers use language in the class room and the type and content of the curriculum experience and activities they employ, which are based upon certain assumptions about common interests and lifestyles.

A study conducted by Robert E. Harriot and Nancy Hoyt St. Jhon (1987) reported that the lower the socio-economic status, the more family instability, the weaker the parental encouragement supervision and stimulation to higher achievement of their children and the greater the proportion whose pace of

learning and behaviour does not meet standards. The training centres of highest socio-economic status have less social and emotional problems than the lowest socio-economic status. According to study, only 9% problems were reported in highest socio-economic status, and in lowest socio-economic status, schools 27% of pupils were thought to have such problems. Socio-economic status effects are also found in students' behaviour. The greatest difference is among the students, who are lacking in discipline, being 31% in highest socio-economic status were reported.

On the other hand, there are those writing in the field of corporate or business crime, for example, who take the view that deterrence via the threat of prosecution is less likely to have lasting long-term benefits than other more persuasive measures aimed at ensuring compliance (Braithwaite, 1989).

According to Carter (1990), police departments tend to have 'inadequate policies, procedures, training, supervision, support resources, and administrative control to detect and respond to officer drug use and corruption'.

In a study captioned: "Comparison and Contrast of Children between the Middle Class and Lower Class Parents" Zubeda (1991) concluded:

I. In the middle class family children receive education according to parent's planning and preference.

II. There is no correlation between low income of parents and restrictions in daily matters to their children in comparison to higher income family.

III. There is no significant correlation between father's teaching profession and academic achievement of their children.

IV. It is stated that parents receive more respect and importance from their children if husband and wife live together harmoniously.

V. Students from lower stratum of society are mostly more conservative and orthodox in comparison to the students of middle stratum.

Kleinig (1996) suggested that the police officers act corruptly when, in exercising or failing to exercise their authority, they act with the primary intention of improving their lower socio-economic status. He suggested the increase in salary and powers of police workforce.

Van Reenen (1997) cited low pay as a cause of a lack of integrity for people in all positions, particularly in societies where consumption is highly valued but salaries are low. However, even in societies where police officers are reasonably well paid, and where corrupt activities are deemed unacceptable, the fact that there is a perceived mismatch between income and responsibilities may lead to the development of corruption. Similarly, perceived inequities of income within police forces may also make the temptations toward corruption more attractive.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 2 described review of different studies on socio-economic problems of trainees at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used to provide data to investigate them. This chapter aims to provide assurance that appropriate procedures were followed. The chapter is organized around twelve major headings: introduction, research design, type of study, universe, sample size, methods of sampling, methods of data collection, analysis of data, pre-testing, coding, tabulation and statistical methods of analysis.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The methods and procedures applied for discovering answers to meaningful questions through the application of scientific method is known as methodology. The methods applied in the investigation of any phenomena are such which validate the study to be scientific, reliable and precise. Research methodology refers to the methods that determine how data is collected and analyzed (Marshall, 1998).

The scientific method involves induction of hypotheses based on observation,

deduction of implications of the hypotheses, testing of the implications, and confirmation or rejection of the hypotheses. The scientific method involves number of sequential steps.

Few are listed below:

- **Selection and definition of a problem:** A problem is a hypothesis or question of interest to the researcher. It can be tested or answered through the collection and analysis of data.
- **Execution of research procedures:** Procedures typically include selection or development of measurement methodologies. The design of study will dictate, to a great extent, the specific procedures involved in the study.
- **Analysis of data:** Data analysis usually involves applications of one or more statistical techniques. Data analysis guides the researcher to test the research hypotheses or to answer the research questions.
- **Drawing and stating conclusions:** The conclusions are based on the results of data analysis. They should be stated in terms of the original hypotheses or questions. Conclusions should indicate, whether the research hypothesis was supported or not (Schaefer, 1998).

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The term ‘research design’ refers to the procedural details of the study by which data is collected. It aims to develop the set of methods and procedures which help to test the research hypotheses with a high degree of confidence (Bieger and Gail, 1996). In this study, the collected data was used as an evidence in decision-making and test of hypotheses.

The researcher had the choice to select a suitable design. The ones in vogue are: Descriptive, correlational, causal-comparative, and experimental (Gay, and Peter, 2000). A brief description of each is presented below.

Descriptive Research Design: Involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions about the opinions of people on a particular issue. It is also called survey design.

Correlational Research Design: Involves collecting data to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more variables. The degree of relationship is expressed as a correlation coefficient.

Causal-comparative Research Design: Involves selecting two groups differing on some independent variable and comparing them on some dependent variable. These two groups are known as experimental and control groups.

Experimental Research Design: Involves an experimental study in which at least one independent variable is manipulated, other relevant variables are controlled, and effect is observed on one or more dependent variables.

The research design used in the present study belongs to the correlational research category. The variable types are the dependent and the independent. Different tests were used to measure the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables.

The research design aimed to ensure that the obtained results were due to the factors under study and not to extraneous or irrelevant factors. It helped in achieving greater accuracy in the results and increased confidence in outcome of the research.

3.3 TYPE OF STUDY

Each research has its own nature and specific objective. There are different types of research studies. They are experimental, descriptive or diagnostic, and exploratory (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). The present research is an exploratory research. No study has been conducted till today on socio-economic problems facing by trainees at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur. Exploratory research is usually employed when one wishes to begin work on a little researched area, or is developing methods for a later more formal study. The exploratory research is often the precursor to a large project, or even a multi-faced research programme that investigates several different, but related areas (Williams, 2003).

Exploratory research helps the researcher to define his research problem and formulate the hypotheses more easily and accurately. The aim of exploratory research is to gain familiarity with the problem, or situation or the community not known before. It also enables the researcher to choose the most suitable techniques for his research and to decide on the questions most in need of emphasis and detailed investigation. It is flexible enough to permit the consideration of many different aspects of a phenomenon.

3.4 UNIVERSE

The universe of this study is two Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh. Selection of universe is very important in a research study. It provides more accuracy and precision. In statistical sense the term ‘universe’ means the aggregate of persons or objects under study. Universe is theoretical and hypothetical aggregation of all elements as defined for a given research (Babbie, 2001). In the methodological language the universe is defined as the place where relevant data is collected.

3.5 SAMPLE SIZE

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole. When dealing with people, it can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey (Neuman, 1997).

Sample size is simply the number of people or units available to be studied. In order to make present study perfect, a random sample of 300 respondents were drawn adopting the procedure of random sampling.

The selection of a research sample has important consequences for the validity of research findings (Vaus, 2001). The major purpose of conducting the research is to be able to make some claim about larger population. Therefore, it is essential to choose a sample that enables to generalize findings to that larger population.

3.6 THE METHODS OF SAMPLING

Sampling essentially refers to choosing a portion of the target population for research, rather than studying, the entire target population. The primary advantages of sampling are feasibility and convenience. In cases where the target population is sufficiently small and also accessible, it may be preferable to conduct the research using the entire population.

In the present study random sampling method has been used. The universe of the present study focused on Police Training Colleges, Saeedabad and Shahdadpur. As time available for such a research was limited, it was decided to draw a random sample of (n = 300).

3.7 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

There are various methods of data collection depending on the type of the study. These methods are used as suitable taking in view the type of the universe

where research is conducted. The most commonly used methods are the executing the structured questionnaire and combination of interview schedule method. In the present research both of the methods have been used. Both the methods were found suitable because they provided the researcher the reliable data.

Interview schedule is based upon the questions to be filled in by the interviewer in a face-to-face situation with the respondents. In the present study, the structured questionnaire containing 126 questions was got filled from the respondents. The method was considered to be the most suitable method of data collection for the present study due to the following reasons:

1. In order to create and establish rapport with the respondents which is very essential for the collection of such a personal type of data.
2. Moreover, the researcher has to establish a direct and personal contact with the respondents in order to get personal information, family life, daily personal activities, relations with family members and status within the family. Most of the questions were close-ended according to the situation, but certain questions were open-ended.
3. By this method it is easier for the researcher to explain the meaning and content of the questions and remove misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

3.8 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Once data have been collected in a research study, the next step usually involves the analysis of those data. The choice of the analytical procedures depends on several factors, including the type of research question that was asked originally and the characteristics of the data that were collected (Sowell & Casey, 1982). Different analytical tools and techniques were used to draw the accurate results.

3.9 PRE-TESTING

Pre-testing of the questionnaire is the pre-requisite of data collection. Prior to finalization of questionnaire 25 questionnaires were pre tested and some modification and addition was done wherever required. The purpose of the pre-testing was to remove errors and ambiguities from the finalized questionnaire.

3.10 CODING AND TABULATION

Computer analysis typically requires that people's answers to questions or own observations be converted into numbers. This conversion process is called coding. This involves four main steps: allocating codes to the answers to each question (or variable); allocating computer columns to each question; producing a code book; and checking codes. After coding, the researcher transferred the coded

material on a tally sheet and simple tables, contingency tables with log linear models were made.

3.11 STATISTICAL METHODS OF ANALYSIS

Percentage distribution is the simplest form of representing research finding. So, in the present study first of all simple tables were made representing each question and percentages were drawn. In order to test the validity of hypotheses various statistical inferences are made by which the significance of the variables is ascertained. Many statistical methods of testing are generally used for the purpose, such as chi-square, and log-linear tests. On the basis of these tests all the null hypotheses are ultimately accepted or rejected. If the null hypothesis is rejected then the pattern of association can be determined by fitting the log-linear models. The brief description of these tests is as under:

Chi-Square

In the present study chi-square test was applied to verify the relationship between two variables. The most common forms of it are the chi-square test for contingency and the chi-square test for independence. The chi-square test for contingency is interpreted as a strength of association measure, while the chi square test for independence (which requires two samples) is a nonparametric test

of significance that essentially rules out as much sampling error and chance as possible.

Chi-square test is the simplest and most useful statistical method for the social researchers. It is also an effective test for studying the existence of relationship between the independent and dependent variables of a hypothesis.

Formula for chi-square:

$$\chi^2_{obs} = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

After the application of chi-square, the calculated results are compared with the tabulated results to find out the degree of freedom. If the calculated value is higher than the tabulated value then the null hypothesis is rejected and the working hypothesis is retained.

Degree of Freedom

In order to compute the value of chi-square from contingency table, the number of degree of freedom must also be known before the table is used.

After finding the value of the table, the value of chi-square for particular level of significance was noted and compared with the calculated value of chi-square for 0.05 level of significance.

Formula for Degree of Freedom

$$DF = (C-1) (R-1)$$

After the use of chi-square test, if the null hypothesis is rejected, the researcher uses log linear models to find out the nature of association among the variables.

Correlation Coefficient

A correlation coefficient is a number between -1 and 1, which measures the degree to which two variables are linearly related. If there is perfect linear relationship with positive slope between the two variables, correlation coefficient is 1. If there is positive correlation, whenever one variable has a high (low) value, so does the other. If there is a perfect linear relationship with negative slope between the two variables, correlation coefficient is -1. If there is negative correlation, whenever one variable has a high (low) value, the other has a low (high) value. A correlation coefficient of 0 means that there is no linear relationship between the variables.

P-Value

The probability value (p-value) of a statistical hypothesis test is the probability of getting a value of the test statistic as extreme as or more extreme than that observed by chance alone, if the null hypothesis H_0 , is true. It is the probability of wrongly rejecting the null hypothesis if it is in fact true. It is equal to the significance level of the test for which we would only just reject the null hypothesis. The p-value is compared with the significance level and, if it is smaller, the result is significant. That is, if the null hypothesis were to be rejected at $\alpha = 0.05$, this would be reported as ' $p < 0.05$ '. Small p-values suggest that the null hypothesis is unlikely to be true. The smaller it is, the more convincing is the rejection of the null hypothesis. It indicates the strength of evidence for say, rejecting the null hypothesis H_0 , rather than simply concluding 'reject H_0 ' or 'do not reject H_0 '.

3.12 INTERPRETING RESEARCH RESULTS

Following the analysis of data, the next step for the researcher is to organize and interpret the results of the data collection. Since the general purpose of conducting a research study is to answer questions in a systematic manner, the interpretation of the results must focus first on the question that was asked, or inferred, in the problem statement.

In order to interpret the results, the researcher must first report them in a clear and understandable manner. Next, the researcher should draw the conclusions regarding the various research hypotheses. Finally, the researcher should discuss the implications of the research findings and offer recommendations based on those findings.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

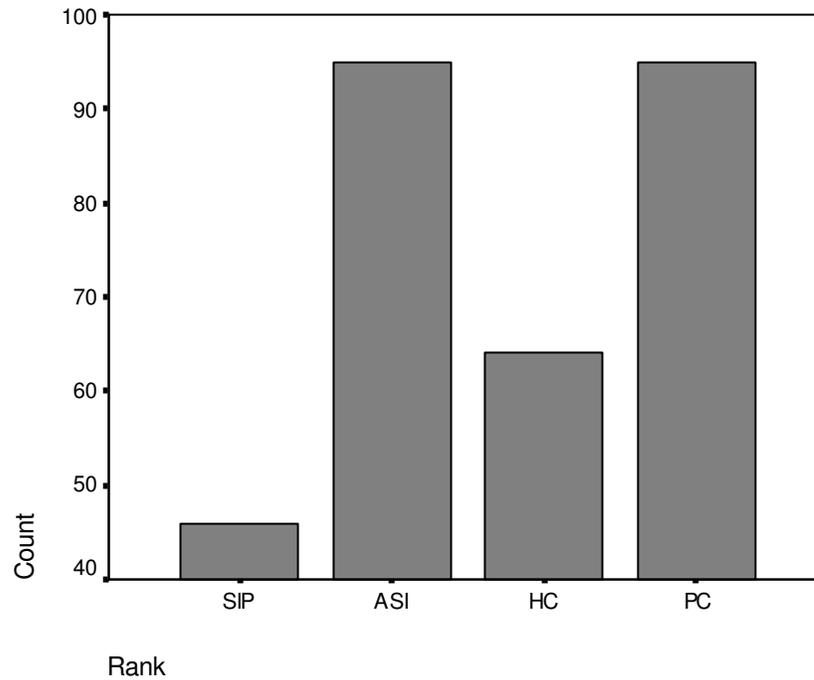
In this chapter the researcher is supposed to present a broad view of the respondents under study. The present study has been conducted to study the socio-economic problems of trainee police personnel at Police Training Colleges Saeedabad and Shahdadpur, Sindh.

In the present study the data have been tabulated in the form of simple as well as contingency tables, applying the statistical methods. Simple distribution and percentage tables have been made and contingency tables are also formulated for the testing of hypotheses, to know the relationship among two or more variables involved in the hypothesis.

TABLE 1

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY RANK

Rank	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
SIP	46	15.3	15.3
ASI	95	31.7	47.0
HC	64	21.3	68.3
PC	95	31.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to rank. They included SIP, 15.3%; ASI, 31.7%; HC, 21.3%; and PC, 31.7%. Thus the majority of respondents had the ranks of ASI and PC.

TABLE 2

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY NATURE OF APPOINTMENT**

Nature	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
SIP	1	0.3	0.3
PASI	121	40.3	40.7
HC	2	0.7	41.3
PC	176	58.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

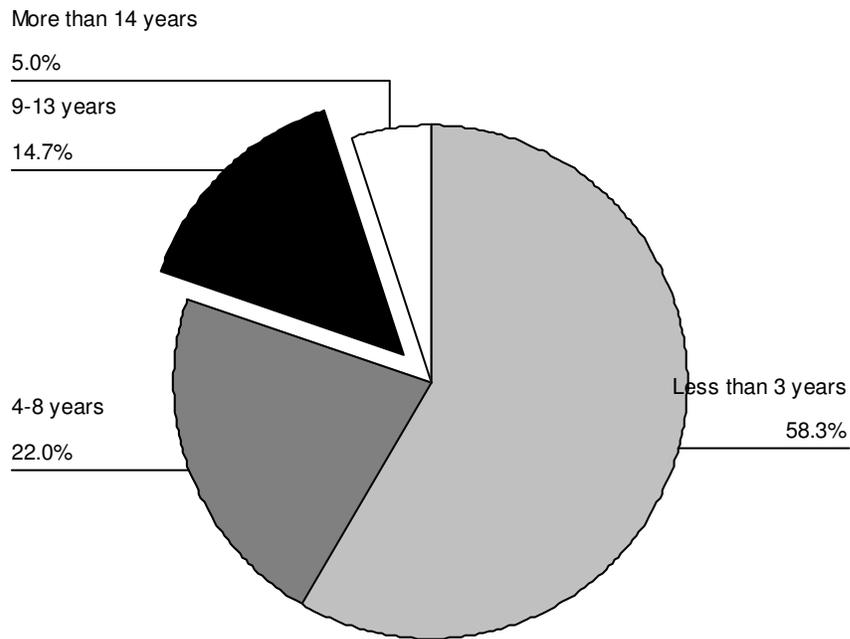


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to nature of appointment. SIP, 0.3%; PASI, 40.3%; HC, 0.7%; and PC, 58.7%. Accordingly the majority of respondents were appointed as police constables.

TABLE 3

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY TIME IN PRESENT RANK**

Time	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 3 years	175	58.3	58.3
4-8 years	66	22.0	80.3
9-13 years	44	14.7	95.0
More than 14 years	15	5.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

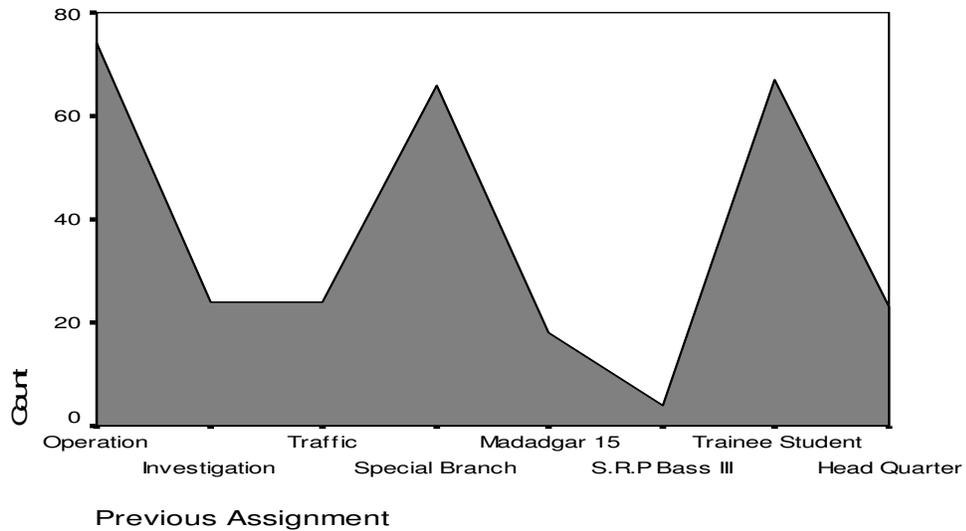


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to time in the present rank. Less than 3 years, 58.3%; 4-8 years, 22.0%; 9-13 years, 13.7%; and more than 14 years, 5%. Hence it is illustrated that the majority of respondents were juniors because they were appointed less than 3 years ago.

TABLE 4

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY PREVIOUS ASSIGNMENT**

Previous Assignment	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Operation	74	24.7	24.7
Investigation	24	8.0	32.7
Traffic	24	8.0	40.7
Special Branch	66	22.0	62.7
Madadgar 15	18	6.0	68.7
S.R.P Bass III	4	1.3	70.0
Trainee Student	67	22.3	92.3
Head Quarter	23	7.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

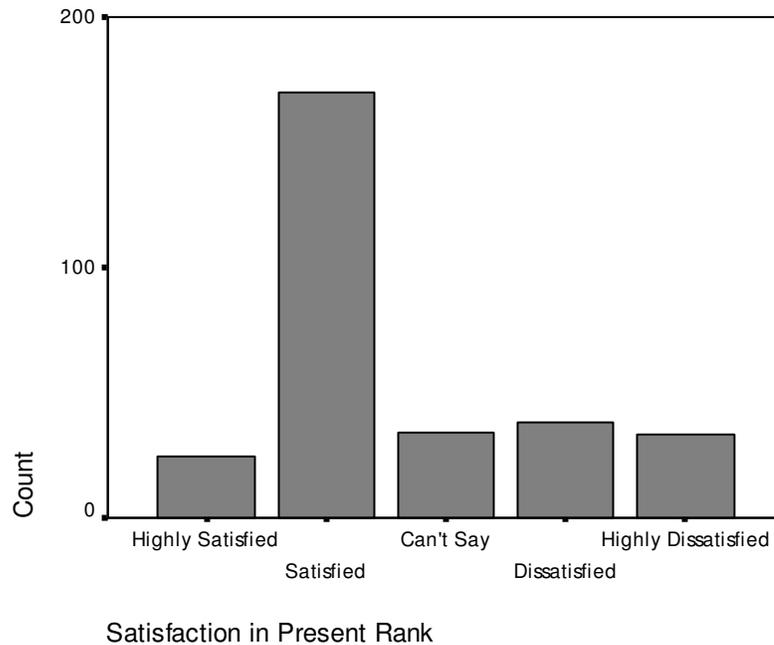


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to previous assignment. It includes operation, 24.7%; investigation, 8.0%; traffic, 8%; special branch, 22.0%; Madadgar 15, 6.0%; S.R.P. Bass, 1.3%; Trainee student, 22.3%; and Head Quarter, 7.7%. Subsequently it is stated that the respondents belonged to different police branches.

TABLE 5

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION IN PRESENT RANK**

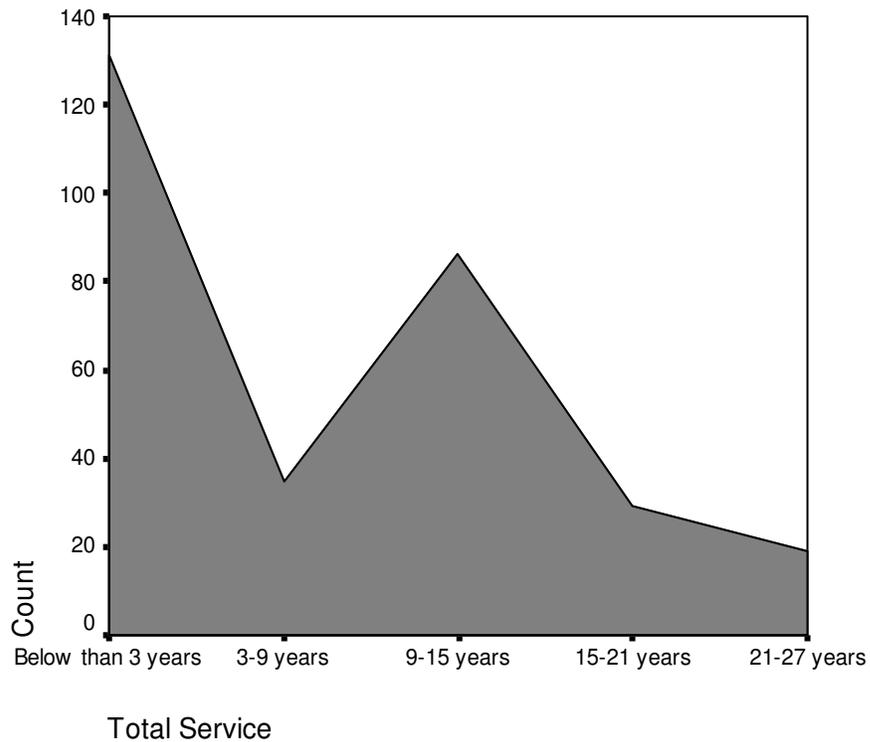
Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	25	8.3	8.3
Satisfied	170	56.7	65.0
Can't Say	34	11.3	76.3
Dissatisfied	38	12.7	89.0
Highly Dissatisfied	33	11.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the present rank. That includes highly satisfied, 8.3%; satisfied, 56.7%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 12.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. As a result it is affirmed that the bulk of respondents were found satisfied in present rank.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY TOTAL SERVICE

Total Service	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below than 3 years	131	43.7	43.7
3-9 years	35	11.7	55.3
9-15 years	86	28.7	84.0
15-21 years	29	9.7	93.7
21-27 years	19	6.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

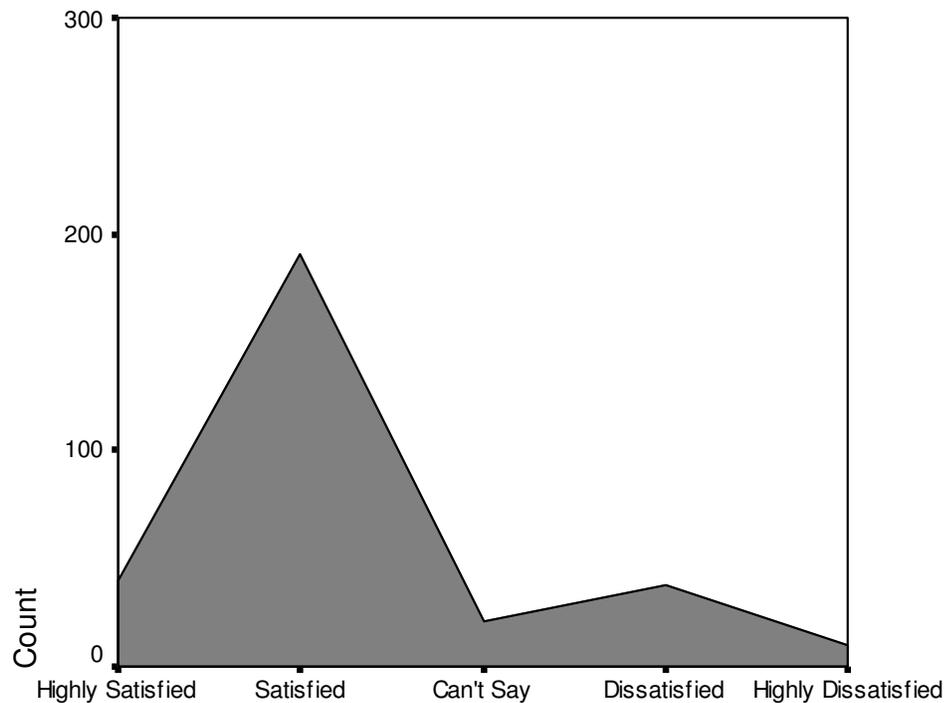


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to total service. Below than 3 years, 43.7%; 3-9 years, 11.7%; 9-15 years, 28.7%; 15-21 years, 9.7%; and 21-27 years, 6.3%. Thus it is inferred that the majority of respondents were young and newly appointed. That is why most of them were satisfied in police department.

TABLE 7

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION IN POLICE DEPARTMENT**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	40	13.3	13.3
Satisfied	191	63.7	77.0
Can't Say	21	7.0	84.0
Dissatisfied	38	12.7	96.7
Highly Dissatisfied	10	3.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



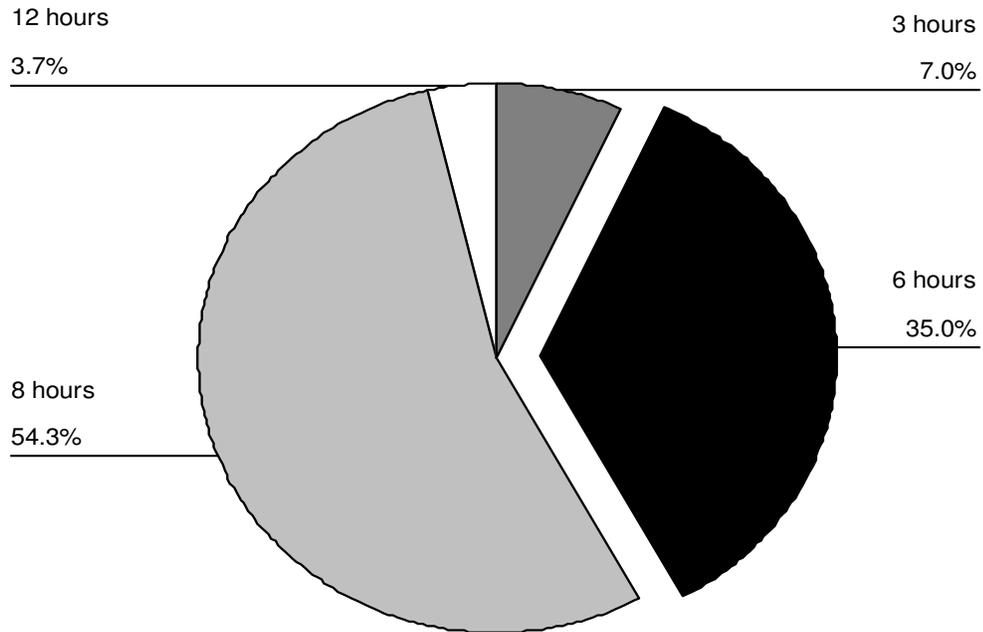
Satisfaction in Police Service

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in police service. It includes highly satisfied, 13.3%; satisfied, 63.7%; can't say, 7.0%; dissatisfied, 12.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 3.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied in police service. This is possibly due to the fact that most of them were juniors and faced minor challenges during their respective length of services.

TABLE 8

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY MAXIMUM DUTY HOURS**

Duty Hours	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
3 hours	21	7.0	7.0
6 hours	105	35.0	42.0
8 hours	163	54.3	96.3
12 hours	11	3.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

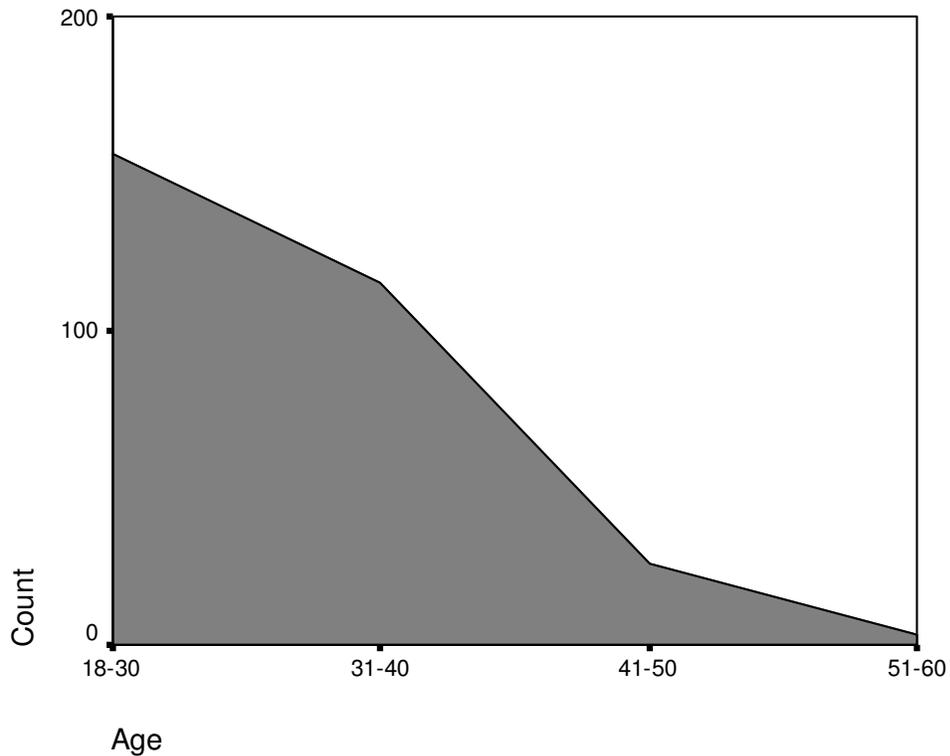


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to maximum duty hours. That includes 3 hours, 7.0%; 6 hours, 35.0%; 8 hours, 54.3%; and 12 hours, 3.7%. So it is mentioned that the majority of respondents wish to perform 8 hours duty in a day. It is further added that the mentioned time consisted on official duty hours. Apart from that police personnel are believed to perform the additional duty hours in case of emergency.

TABLE 9

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-30	156	52.0	52.0
31-40	115	38.3	90.3
41-50	26	8.7	99.0
51-60	3	1.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

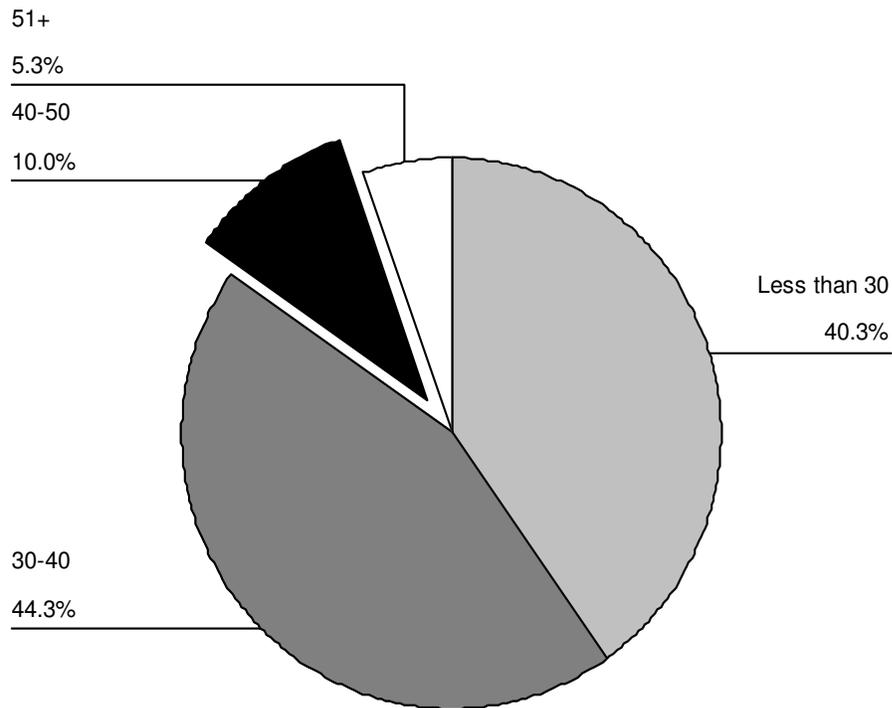


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to age of respondents. That includes age group 18-30, 52.0%; age group 31-40, 38.3%; age group 41-50, 8.7%; and age group 51-60, 1.0%. Therefore, it is mentioned that the majority of respondents had the ages ranging from 18 to 30 years. That indicates that young police recruits are more concerned in training to enjoy quick promotions and other monetary benefits.

TABLE 10

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY OPINION ABOUT MAXIMUM AGE FOR TRAINING**

Maximum Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 30	121	40.3	40.3
30-40	133	44.3	84.7
40-50	30	10.0	94.7
51+	16	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

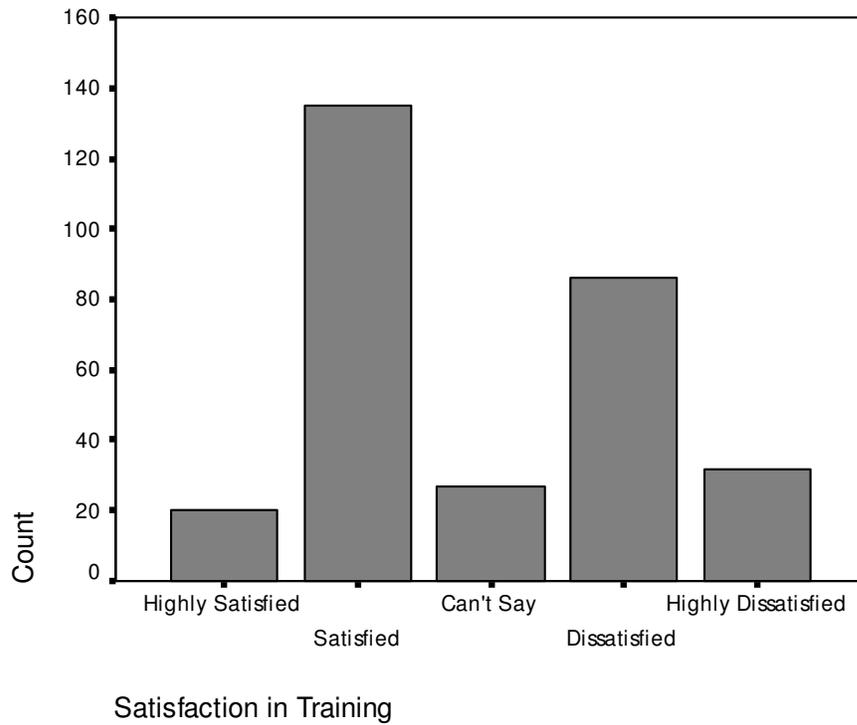


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion about maximum age for training. That includes less than 30 years, 40.3%; age group 30-40, 44.3%; age group 41-50, 10.0%; and age group 51+, 5.3%. Therefore, it is mentioned that the trainees had diverse opinion about the age limit for training.

TABLE 11

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT TRAINING**

Satisfaction at Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	20	6.7	6.7
Satisfied	135	45.0	51.7
Can't Say	27	9.0	60.7
Dissatisfied	86	28.7	89.3
Highly Dissatisfied	32	10.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

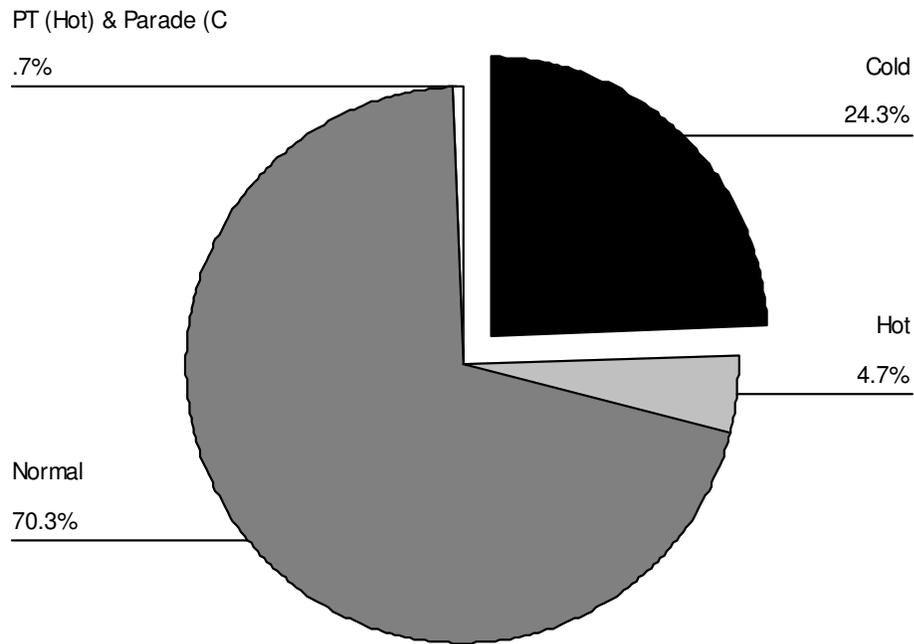


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at training. It includes highly satisfied, 6.7%; satisfied, 45.0%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 28.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.7%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about the satisfaction in the training

TABLE 12

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY BEST SEASON FOR TRAINING**

Best Season for Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Cold	73	24.3	24.3
Hot	14	4.7	29.0
Normal	211	70.3	99.3
PT (Hot) & Parade (Cold)	2	0.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

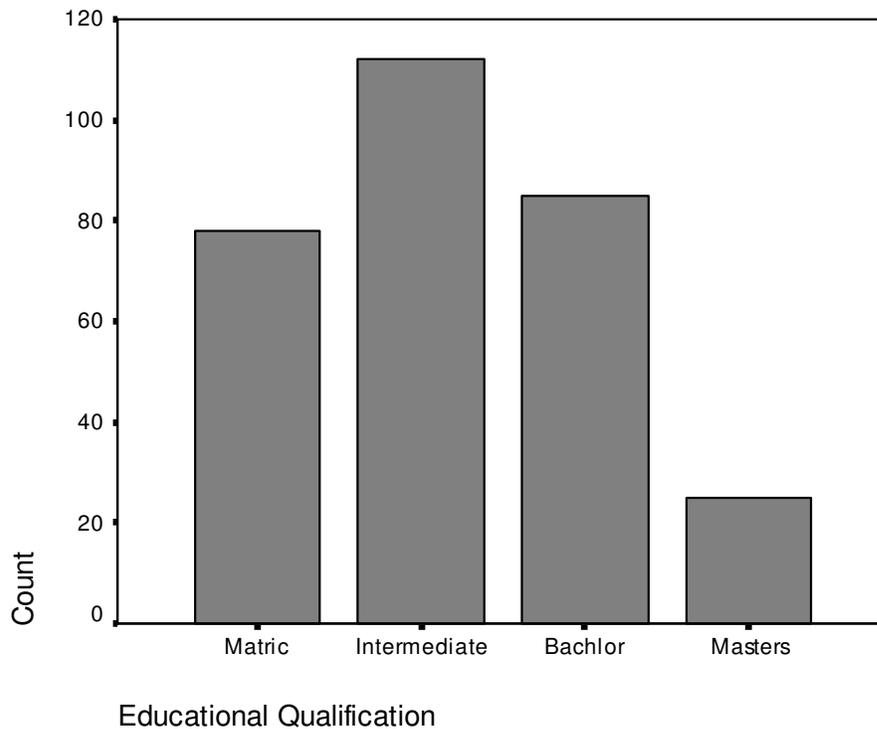


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the best season for training. It includes cold, 24.3%; hot, 4.7%; normal, 70.3%; and PT (Hot) & Parade (Cold), 0.7%. The majority of respondents favoured normal season as the best one for training. Hot and cold seasons are considered as incompatible for training because it involves physical exercises such as PT etc.

TABLE 13

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION**

Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Matric	78	26.0	26.0
Intermediate	112	37.3	63.3
Bachelor	85	28.3	91.7
Master	25	8.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

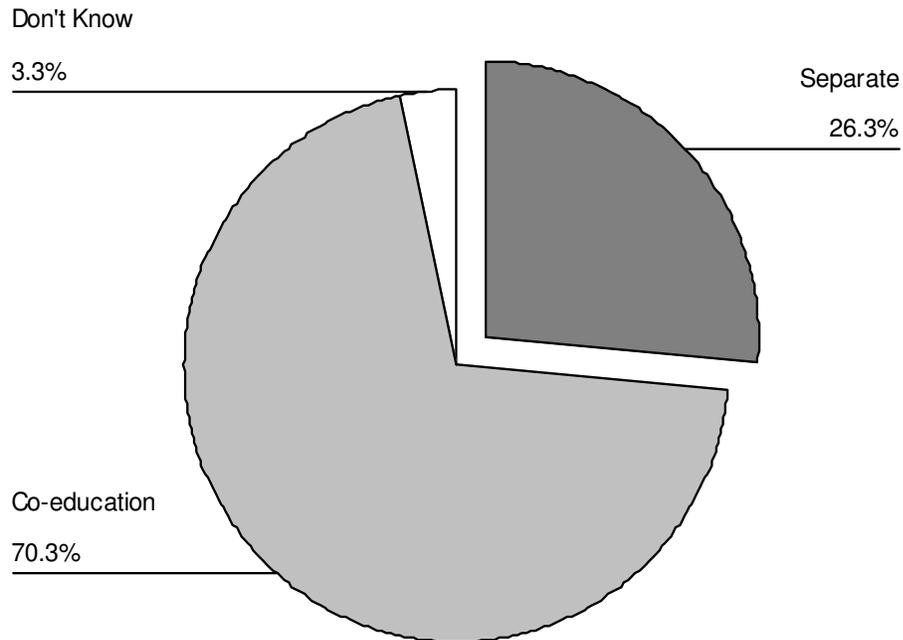


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to education of respondents. Matric, 26.0%; intermediate, 37.3%; graduate, 28.3%; and master+, 8.3%. The data show that majority of respondents were intermediate and graduate. The minimum requirement for appointment as a constable is matriculation but because of massive unemployment in the country several master holders are hastening in police department as constables.

TABLE 14

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FAVOURITE EDUCATIONAL ATMOSPHERE**

Favourite Atmosphere	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Separate	79	26.3	26.3
Co-education	211	70.3	96.7
Don't Know	10	3.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

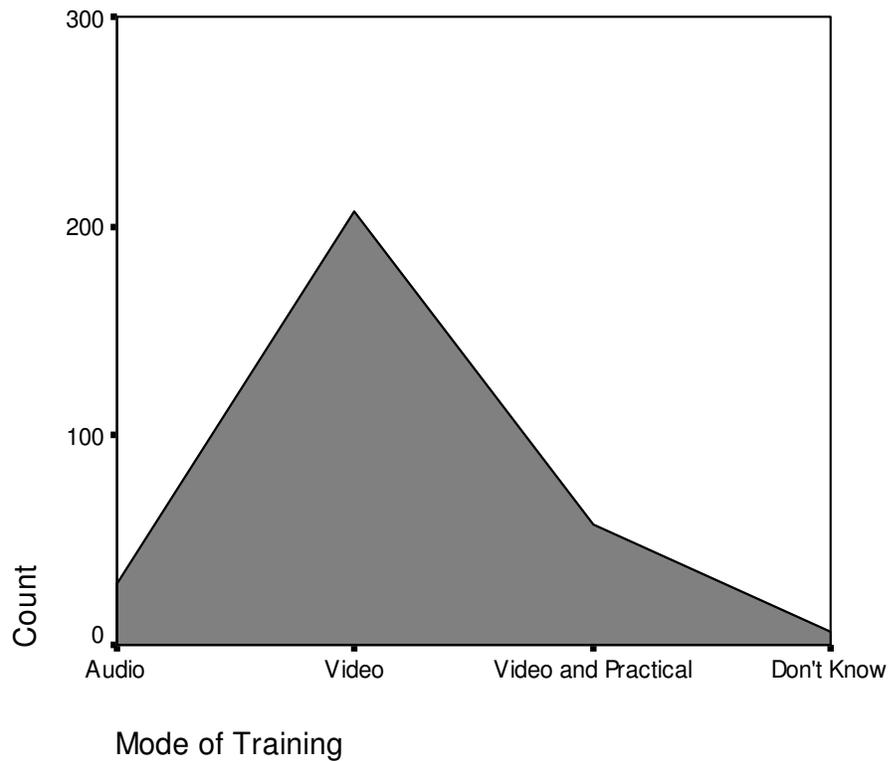


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about favourite educational atmosphere. Separate, 26.3%; co-education, 70.3%; and don't know, 3.3%. Hence it is observed that vast majority of respondents support co-education.

TABLE 15

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY MODE OF TRAINING**

Mode of Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Audio	29	9.7	9.7
Video	207	69.0	78.7
Video and Practical	58	19.3	98.0
Don't Know	6	2.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

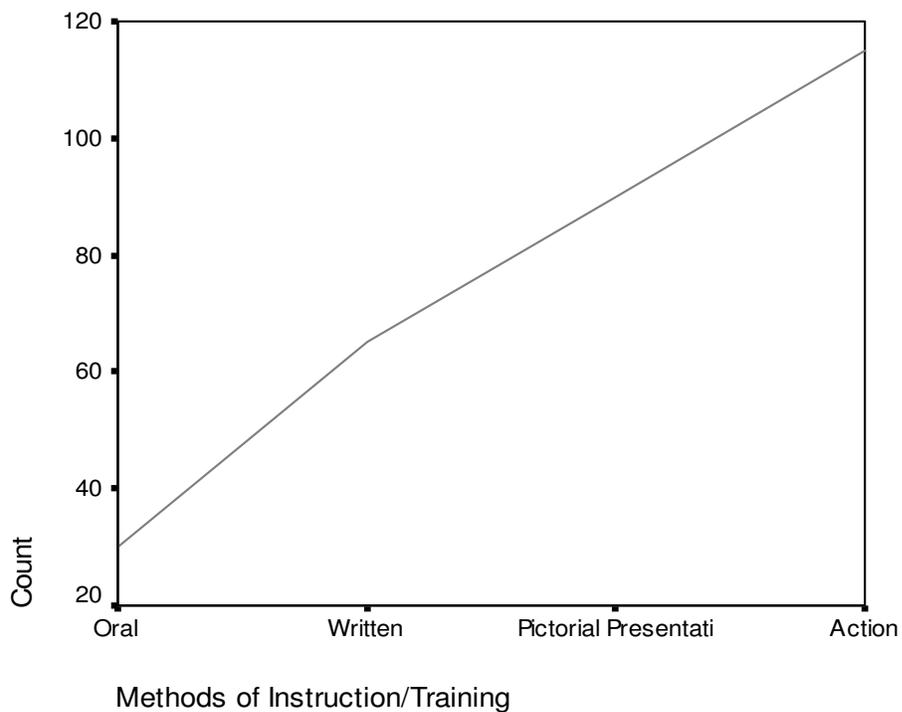


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about mode of training. Audio, 9.7%; video, 69.0%; video and practical, 19.3%; and don't know, 2.0%. Thus vast majority of respondents favour video as the easy mode of training possibly by reason of the easiness in perceptive clarity and knowledge.

TABLE 16

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY METHODS OF INSTRUCTION**

Methods of Instruction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Oral	30	10.0	10.0
Written	65	21.7	31.7
Pictorial Presentation	90	30.0	61.7
Action	115	38.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the methods of instruction. Oral, 10.0%; written, 21.7%; pictorial presentation, 30.0%; and action, 38.3%. Thus majority of respondents favour pictorial presentation and action as the easy methods of instruction possibly by reason of the easiness in perceptive clearness and knowledge.

TABLE 17

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY EASY METHODS OF INSTRUCTION**

Methods of Instruction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Modified	38	12.7	12.7
Demonstrative	105	35.0	47.7
Role Play	111	37.0	84.7
Simulation	46	15.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

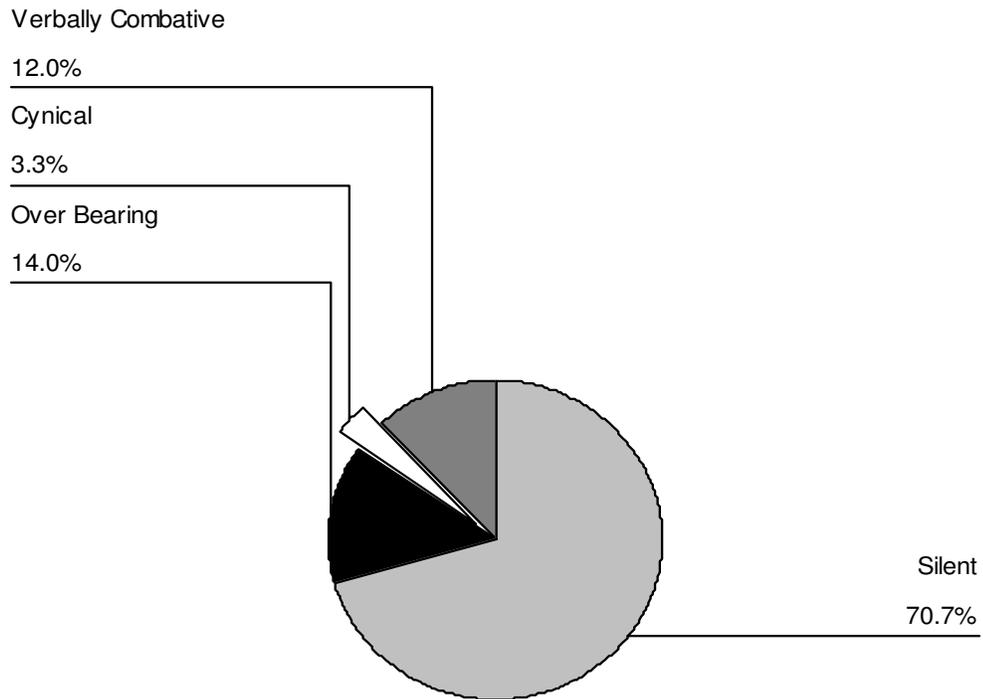


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the easy methods of instruction. Modified 12.7%; demonstrative, 35.0%; role play, 37.0%; and simulation, 15.3%. The opinion illustrates that majority of respondents considered role play and demonstrative methods of instruction as suitable. Thus majority of respondents favour role play and demonstrative as the easy methods of instruction possibly because of the easiness in clarity and understanding.

TABLE 18

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY TYPE OF LEARNER**

Type of Learner	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Silent	212	70.7	70.7
Over Bearing	42	14.0	84.7
Cynical	10	3.3	88.0
Verbally Combative	36	12.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

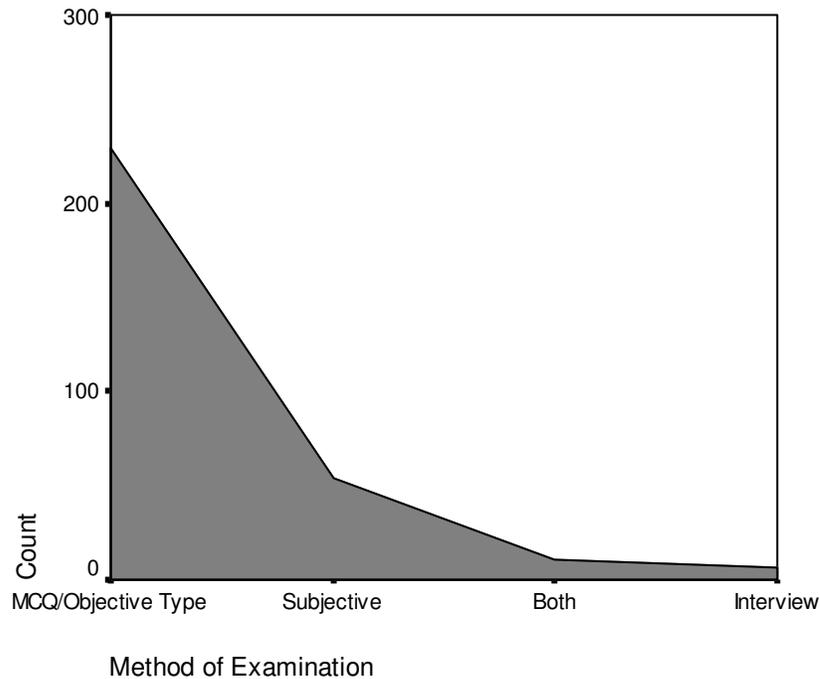


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution of respondents according to the type of learner. Silent, 70.7%; overbearing, 14.0%; cynical, 3.3%; and verbally combative, 12.0%. The majority of respondents were noted as silent learners.

TABLE 19

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY METHODS OF EXAMINATION**

Methods of Examination	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
MCQ/Objective Type	229	76.3	76.3
Subjective	54	18.0	94.3
Both	11	3.7	98.0
Interview	6	2.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

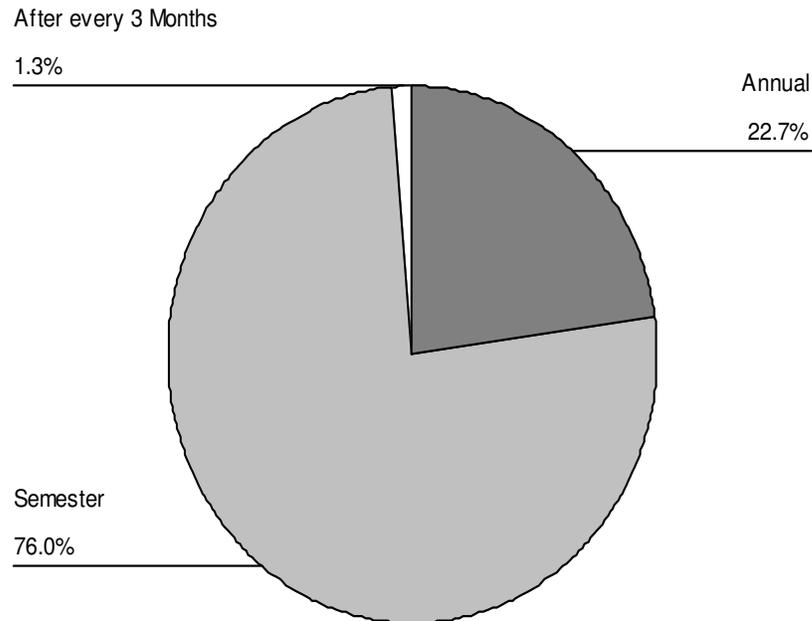


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the easy methods of examination. MCQ/objective type, 76.3%; subjective, 18.0%; both, 3.7%; and interview, 2.0%. The opinion illustrates that majority of respondents considered MCQ/objective method of examination as appropriate possibly because of the easiness in understanding and clarity. The respondents considered lengthy question/answer system of examination as boring and very difficult to accomplish.

TABLE 20

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY OPINION ABOUT SYSTEM OF EXAMINATION**

System of Examination	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Annual	68	22.7	22.7
Semester	228	76.0	98.7
After every 3 Months	4	1.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

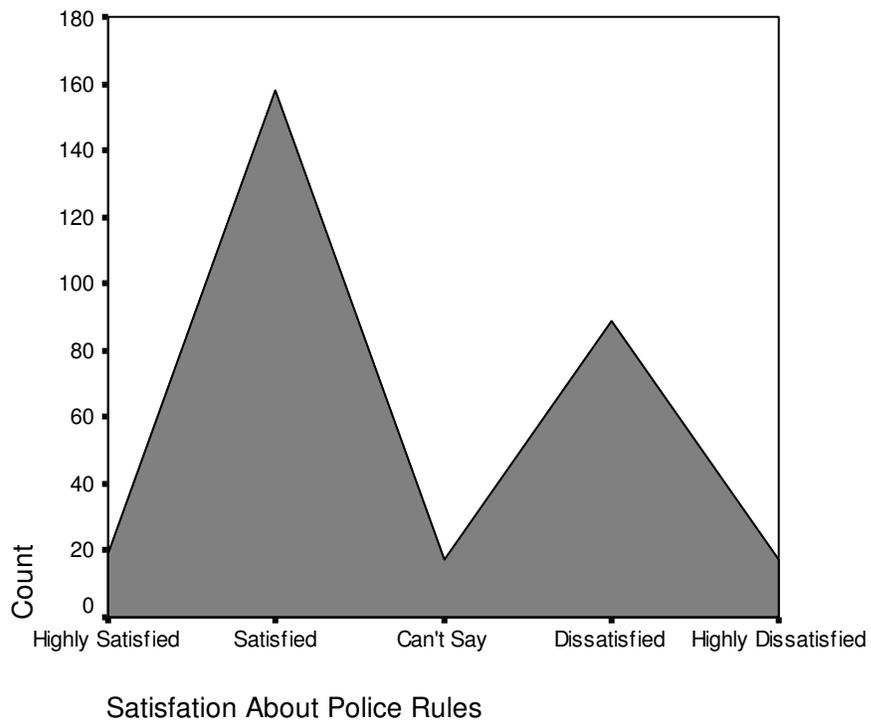


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about system of examination. Annual, 22.7%; semester, 76.0%; and after every three months, 1.3%. The majority of respondents advocated for semester system. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered semester of system examination as suitable probably due to the easiness and appropriateness. The respondents considered lengthy annual system of examination as boring and very difficult to accomplish.

TABLE 21

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFATION AT POLICE RULES**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	19	6.3	6.3
Satisfied	158	52.7	59.0
Can't Say	17	5.7	64.7
Dissatisfied	89	29.7	94.3
Highly Dissatisfied	17	5.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

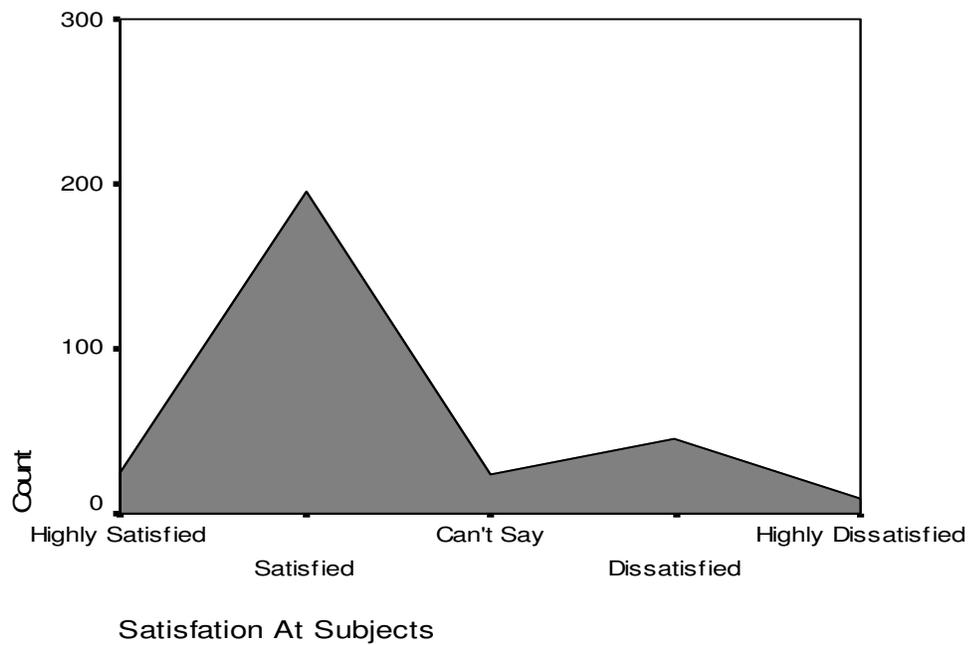


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at police rules. That includes highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 52.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at police rules.

TABLE 22

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFATION AT SUBJECTS**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	25	8.3	8.3
Satisfied	196	65.3	73.7
Can't Say	24	8.0	81.7
Dissatisfied	46	15.3	97.0
Highly Dissatisfied	9	3.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

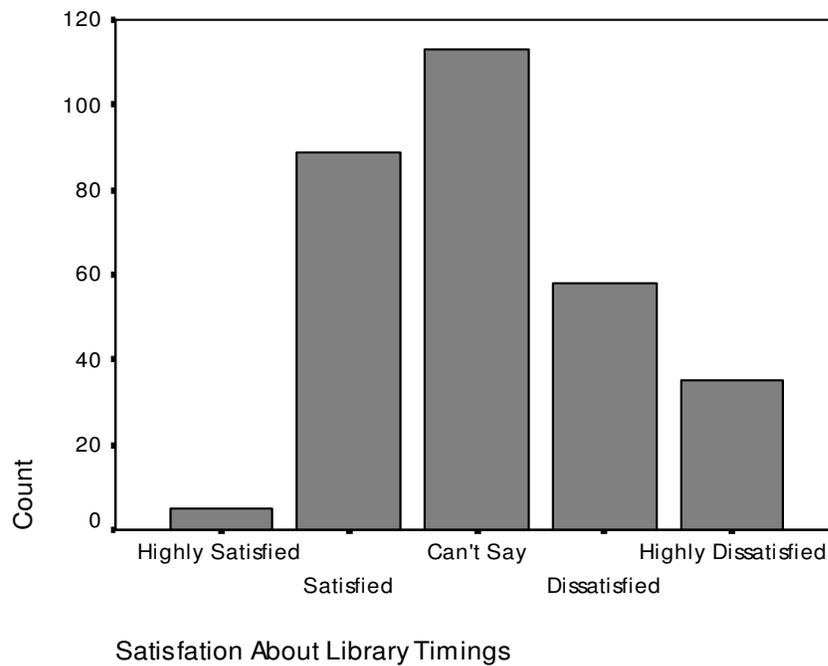


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at subjects they were taught during training at PTCs. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 8.3%; satisfied, 65.3%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 15.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 3.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at subjects they were taught during training at PTC. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered subjects as suitable most likely due to the easiness in understanding and appropriateness. The respondents considered lengthy list of subjects as tiresome and very difficult to study.

TABLE 23

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFATION AT LIBRARY TIMINGS**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	89	29.7	31.3
Can't Say	113	37.7	69.0
Dissatisfied	58	19.3	88.3
Highly Dissatisfied	35	11.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

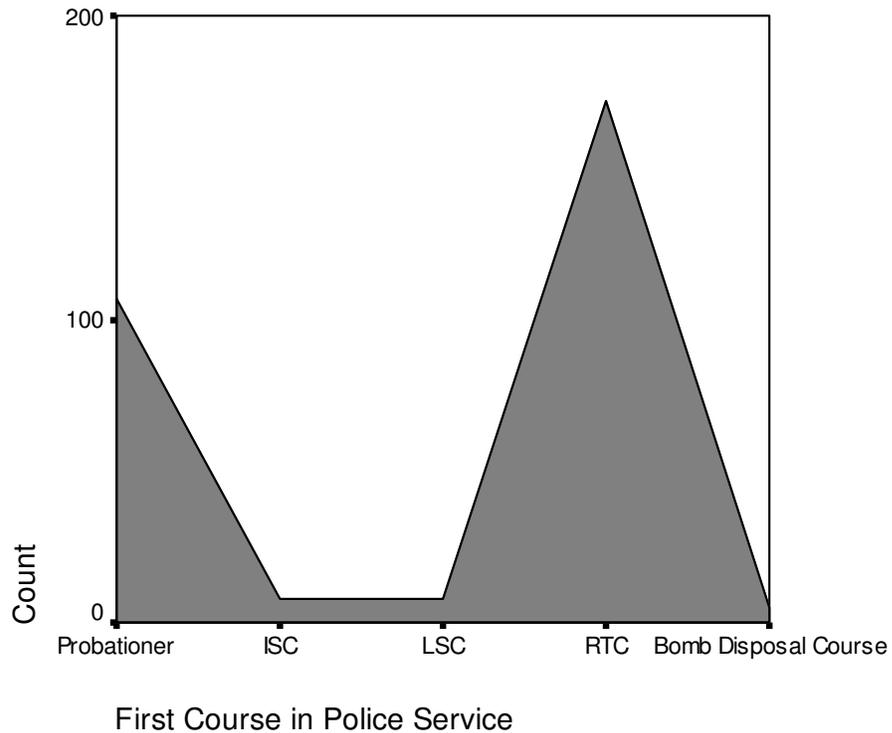


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at library timings. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 29.7%; can't say, 37.7%; dissatisfied, 19.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.7%. It is affirmed that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about library timings.

TABLE 24

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FIRST COURSE DURING POLICE SERVICE**

First Course	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Probationer	107	35.7	35.7
ISC	8	2.7	38.3
LSC	8	2.7	41.0
RTC	172	57.3	98.3
Bomb Disposal Course	5	1.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

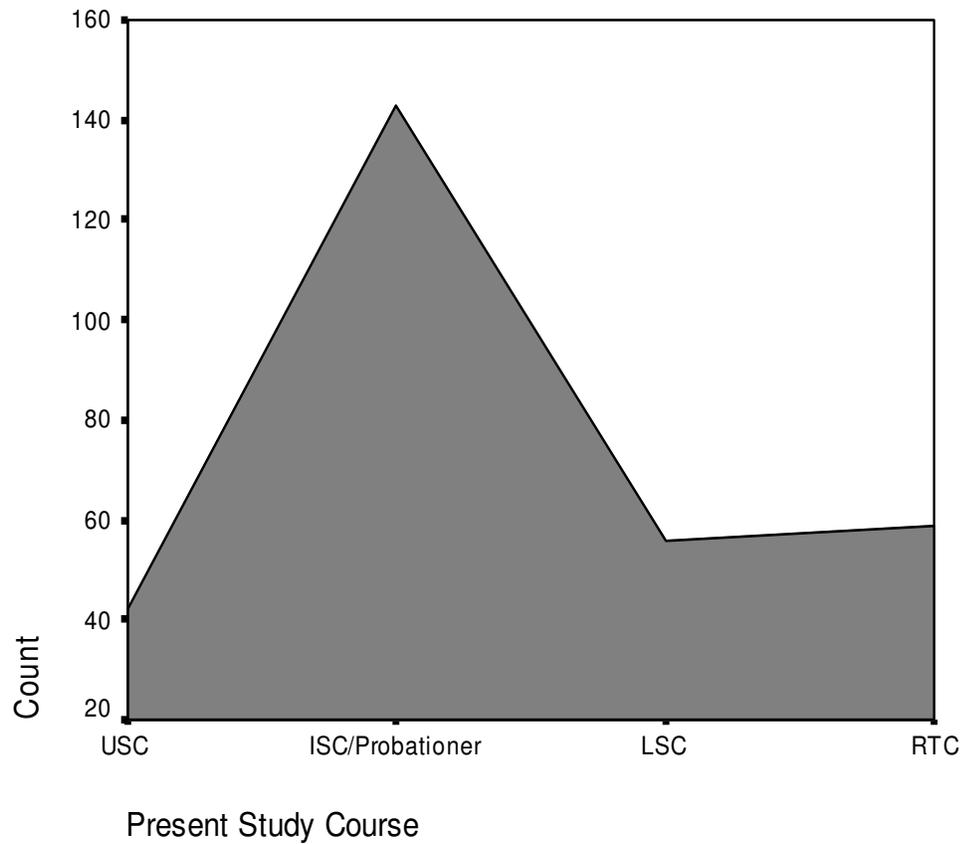


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to first course during police service. Probationer, 35.7%; ISC, 2.7%; LSA, 2.70%; RTC, 57.3%; and bomb disposal course, 1.7%. Thus the majority of respondents completed RTC as the first course during police service.

TABLE 25

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY PRESENT STUDY COURSE**

Present Study Course	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
USC	42	14.0	14.0
ISC/Probationer	143	47.7	61.7
LSC	56	18.7	80.3
RTC	59	19.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

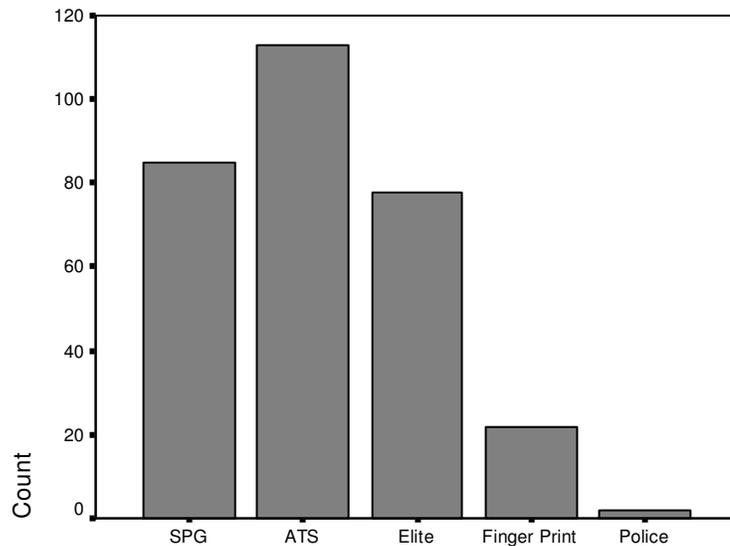


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to present study course. Course USC, 14.0%; ISC, 47.7%; LSA, 18.70%; and RTC, 19.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were in ISC course.

TABLE 26

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY DIFFICULT COURSE**

Difficult Course	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
SPG	85	28.3	28.3
ATS	113	37.7	66.0
Elite	78	26.0	92.0
Finger Print	22	7.3	99.3
Police	2	0.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



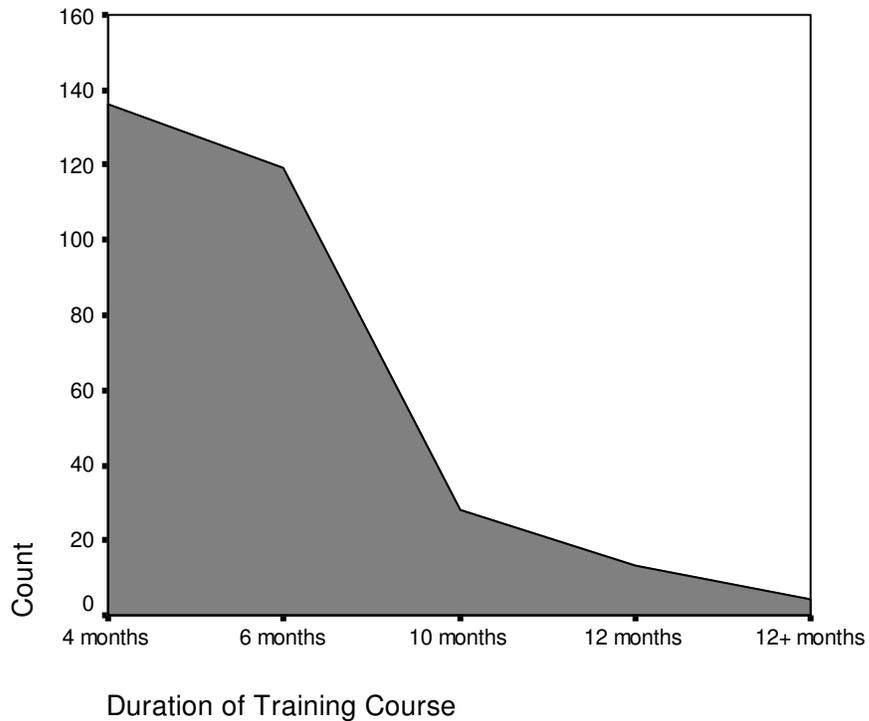
About Difficult Course

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion of respondents about the most difficult course. SPG, 28.3%; ATS, 37.7%; Elite, 26.0%; Finger Print, 7.3%; and Police, 0.7%. Thus the majority of respondents considered ATS and SPG as the difficult courses. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at ATS and SPG courses they were offered during training at PTC. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered ATS and SPG courses as suitable presumably due to the difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.

TABLE 27

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY OPINION ABOUT DURATION OF PRESENT TRAINING**

Duration of Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
4 months	136	45.3	45.3
6 months	119	39.7	85.0
10 months	28	9.3	94.3
12 months	13	4.3	98.7
12+ months	4	1.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

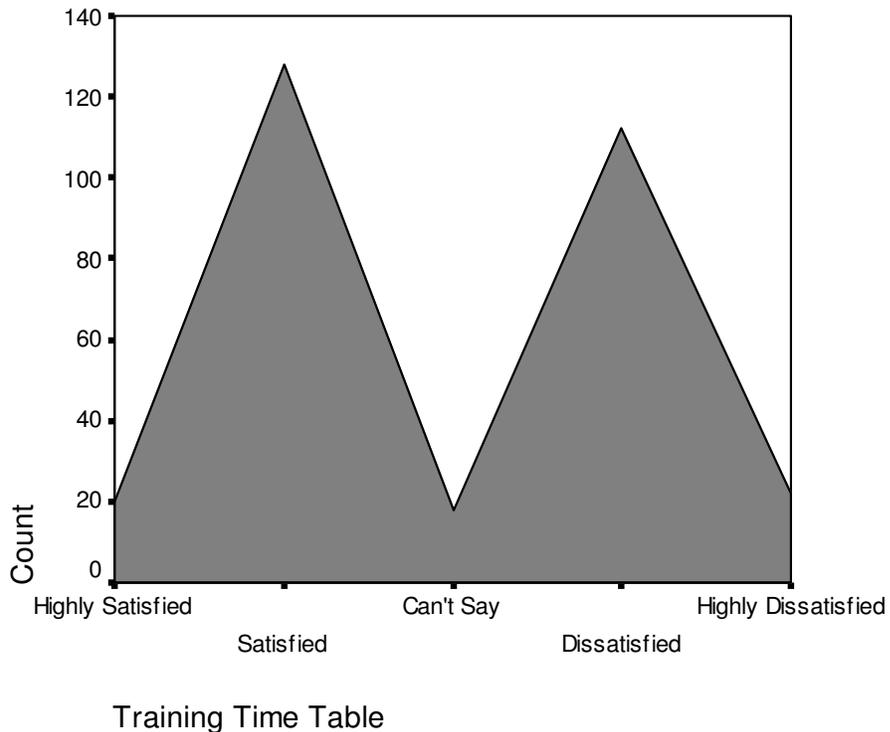


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion of respondents about the duration of training. About 4 months, 45.3%; Six months, 39.7%; ten months, 9.3%; twelve months, 4.3%; and more than twelve months, 1.3%. Thus the majority of respondents considered 4 to 6 months training as the most suitable time period.

TABLE 28

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT TRAINING TIME TABLE**

Time Table	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	20	6.7	6.7
Satisfied	128	42.7	49.3
Can't Say	18	6.0	55.3
Dissatisfied	112	37.3	92.7
Highly Dissatisfied	22	7.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

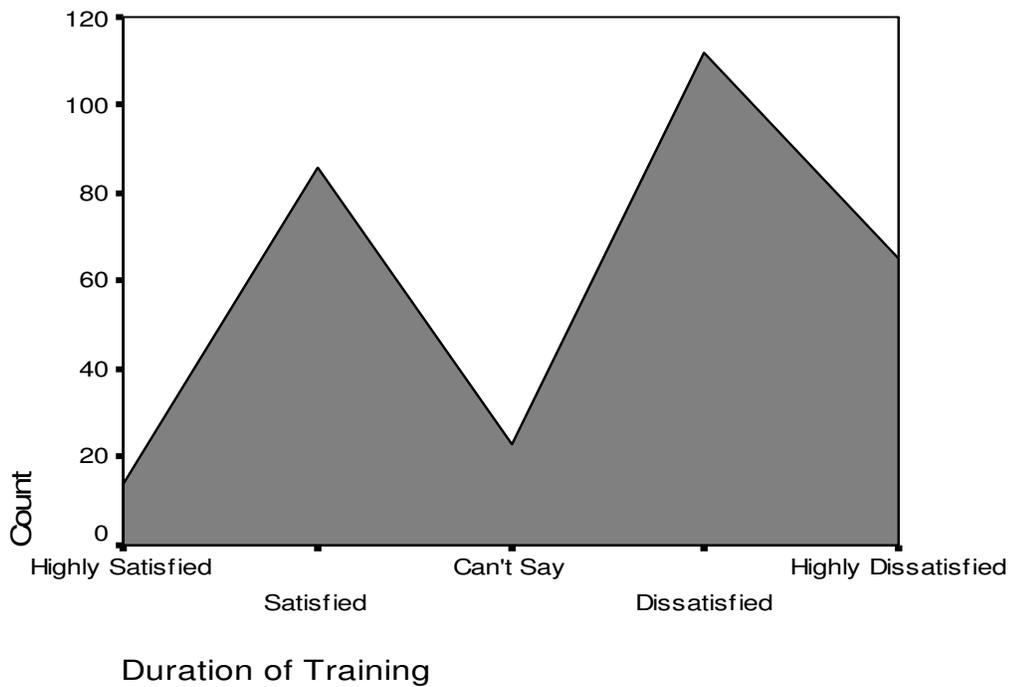


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at training time table. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 6.7%; satisfied, 42.7%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 37.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.3%. It is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about training time table.

TABLE 29

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DURATION OF TRAINING**

Duration of Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	14	4.7	4.7
Satisfied	86	28.7	33.3
Can't Say	23	7.7	41.0
Dissatisfied	112	37.3	78.3
Highly Dissatisfied	65	21.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

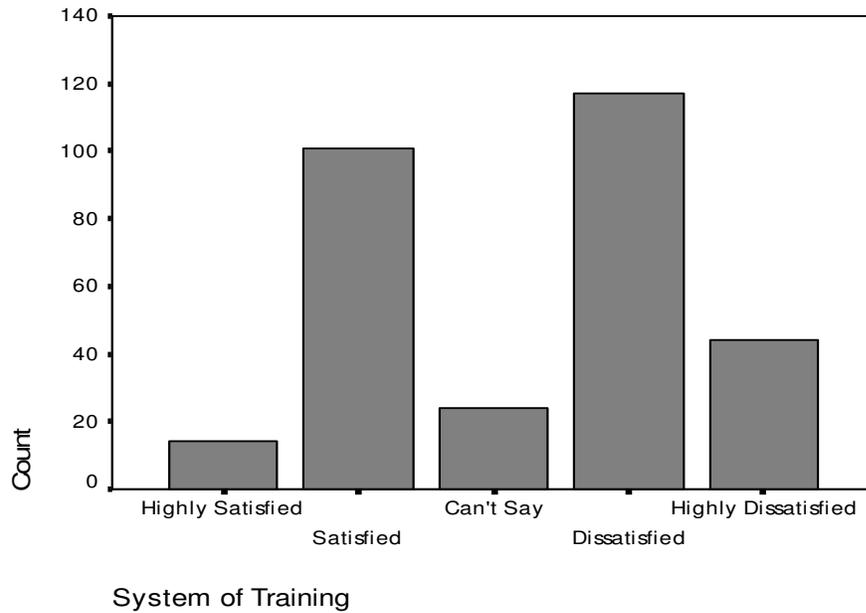


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at duration of training at PTCs. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied, 28.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 37.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.7%. So it is stated that the respondents had mixed opinion at duration of training at PTCs. It indicates that majority of respondents considered duration of training at PTCs as unsuitable presumably due to the lengthy hours creating difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.

TABLE 30

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SYSTEM OF TRAINING**

System of Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	14	4.7	4.7
Satisfied	101	33.7	38.3
Can't Say	24	8.0	46.3
Dissatisfied	117	39.0	85.3
Highly Dissatisfied	44	14.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

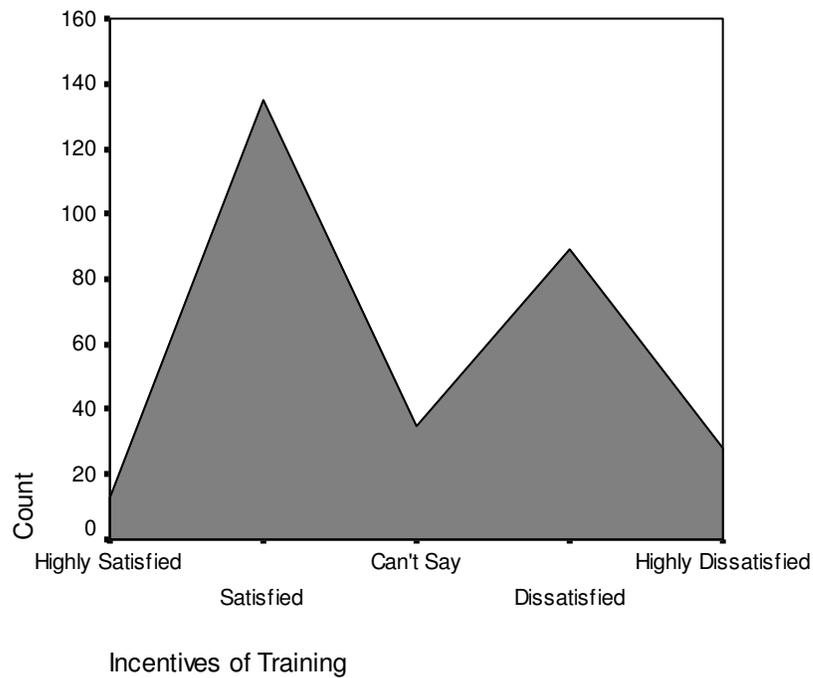


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at system of training at PTC. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied, 33.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 39.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 14.7%. It is stated that the majority of respondents had no clear idea at the system of training at PTCs. But number suggests that the respondents considered system of training at PTCs as unbefitting most probably by reason of the lengthy hours creating difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.

TABLE 31

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT INCENTIVES OF TRAINING**

Incentives of Training	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	135	45.0	49.3
Can't Say	35	11.7	61.0
Dissatisfied	89	29.7	90.7
Highly Dissatisfied	28	9.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

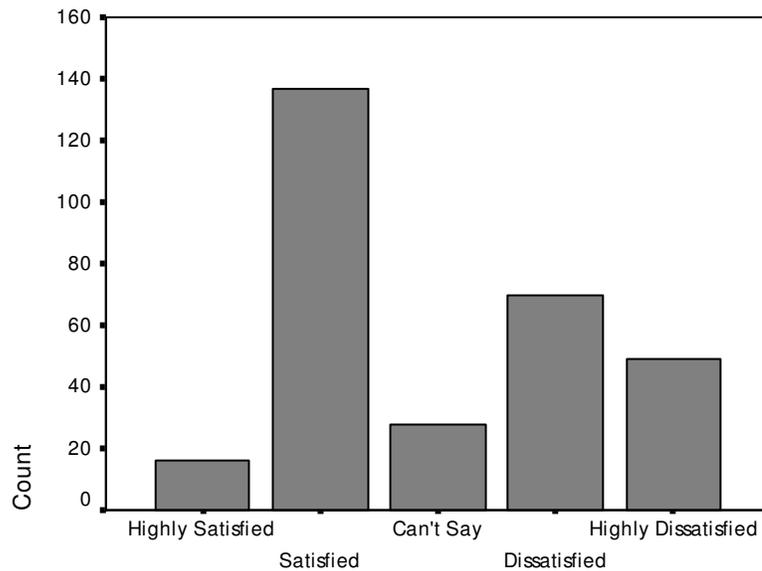


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at incentives of training. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 45.0%; can't say, 11.7%; dissatisfied, 39.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.3%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at the incentives of training.

TABLE 32

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SYSTEM OF ROLL CALLS**

System of Roll Call	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	16	5.3	5.3
Satisfied	137	45.7	51.0
Can't Say	28	9.3	60.3
Dissatisfied	70	23.3	83.7
Highly Dissatisfied	49	16.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



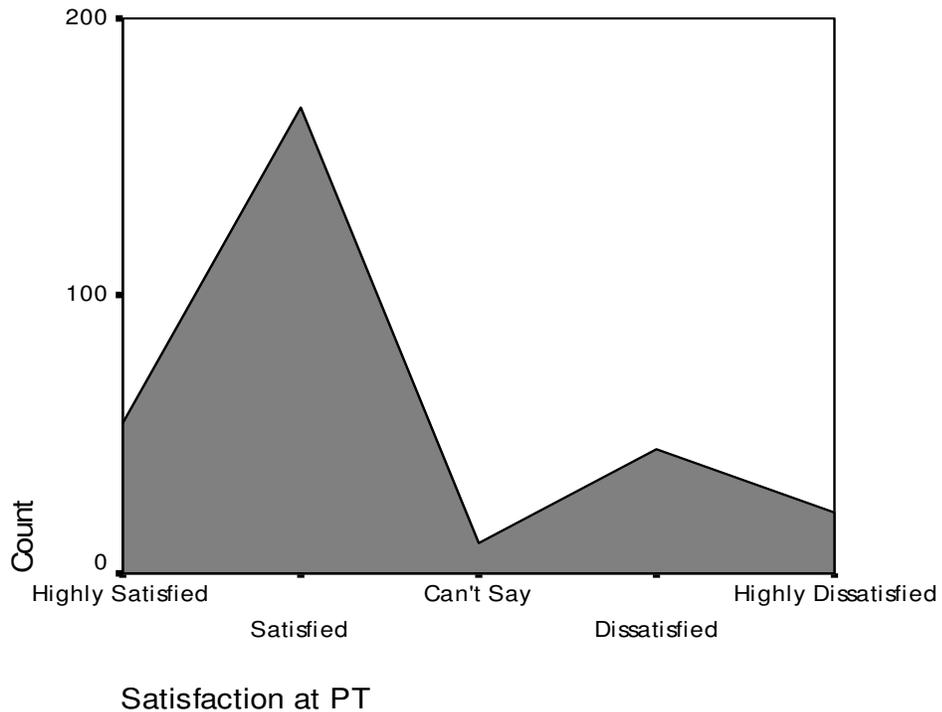
System of Roll Cards

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at system of roll calls during training. It includes highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 45.7%; can't say, 9.3%; dissatisfied, 23.3.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 16.3%. it is acknowledged that the respondents were not too confirmed at system of roll calls during training.

TABLE 33

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PT**

Satisfaction at PT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	54	18.0	18.0
Satisfied	168	56.0	74.0
Can't Say	11	3.7	77.7
Dissatisfied	45	15.0	92.7
Highly Dissatisfied	22	7.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

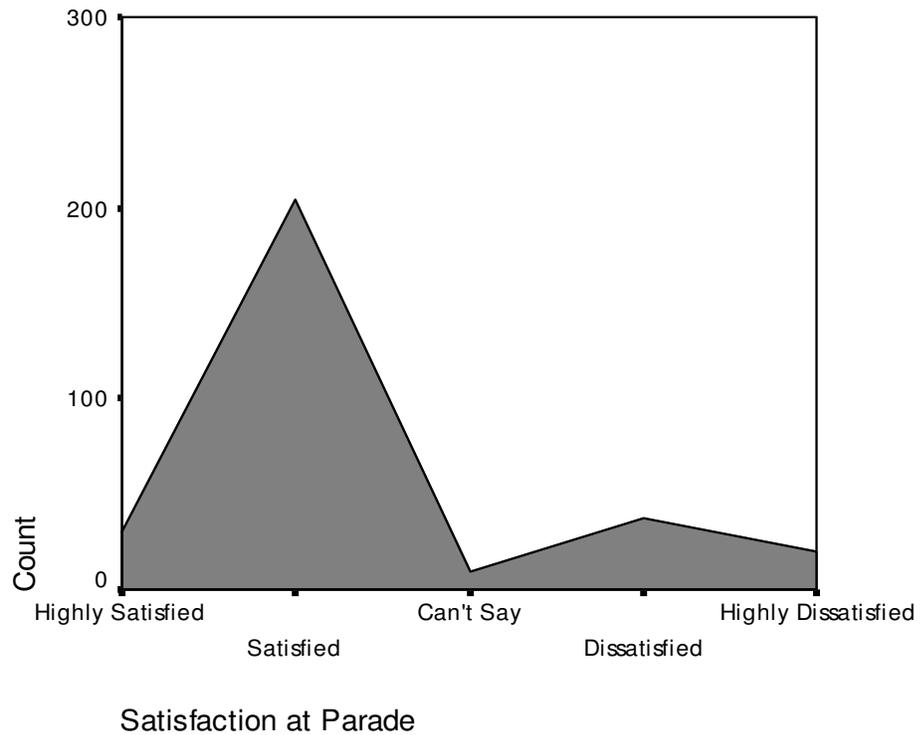


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PT. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 18.0%; satisfied, 56.0%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.3%. So it is illustrated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at PT.

TABLE 34

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PARADE**

Satisfaction at Parade	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	30	10.0	10.0
Satisfied	204	68.0	78.0
Can't Say	9	3.0	81.0
Dissatisfied	37	12.3	93.3
Highly Dissatisfied	20	6.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

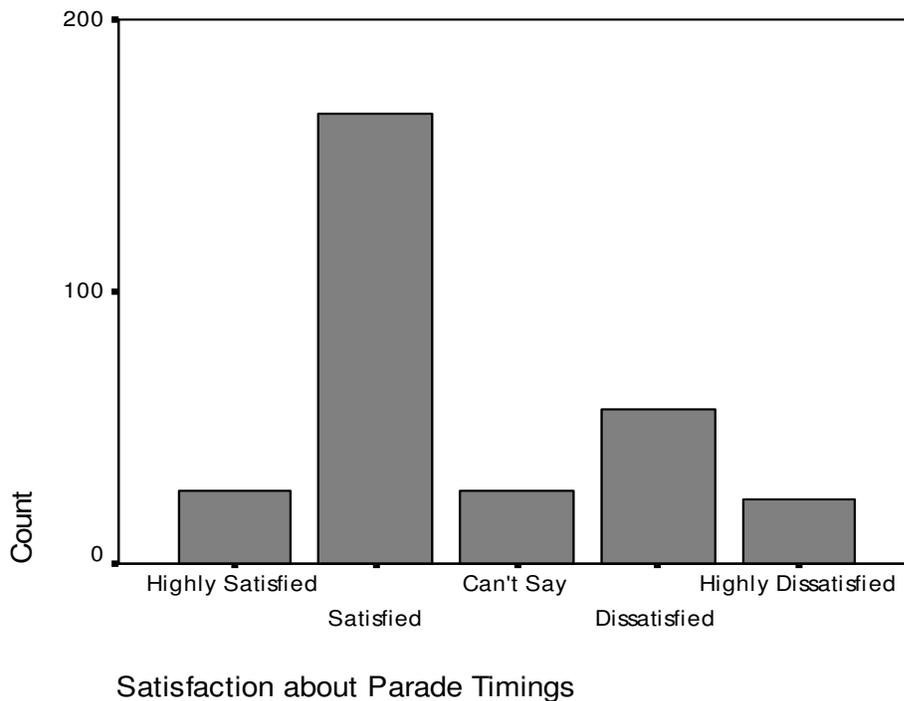


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at parade. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 10.0%; satisfied, 68.0%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.7%. So it is illustrated that the vast majority of respondents were satisfied at parade.

TABLE 35

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PARADE TIMINGS**

Parade Timings	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	27	9.0	9.0
Satisfied	165	55.0	64.0
Can't Say	27	9.0	73.0
Dissatisfied	57	19.0	92.0
Highly Dissatisfied	24	8.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

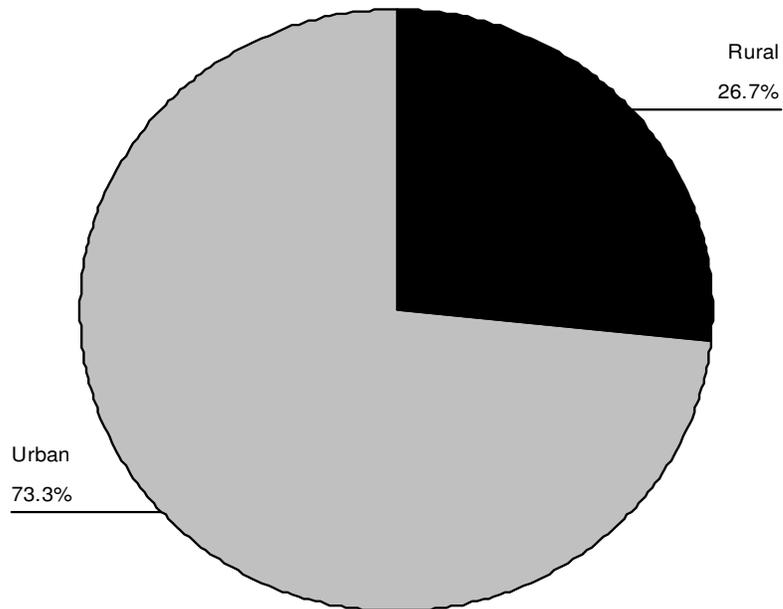


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at parade timings. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 9.0%; satisfied, 55.0%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 19.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 8.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at parade timings.

TABLE 36

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY CULTURAL BACKGROUND**

Cultural Background	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Rural	80	26.7	26.7
Urban	220	73.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

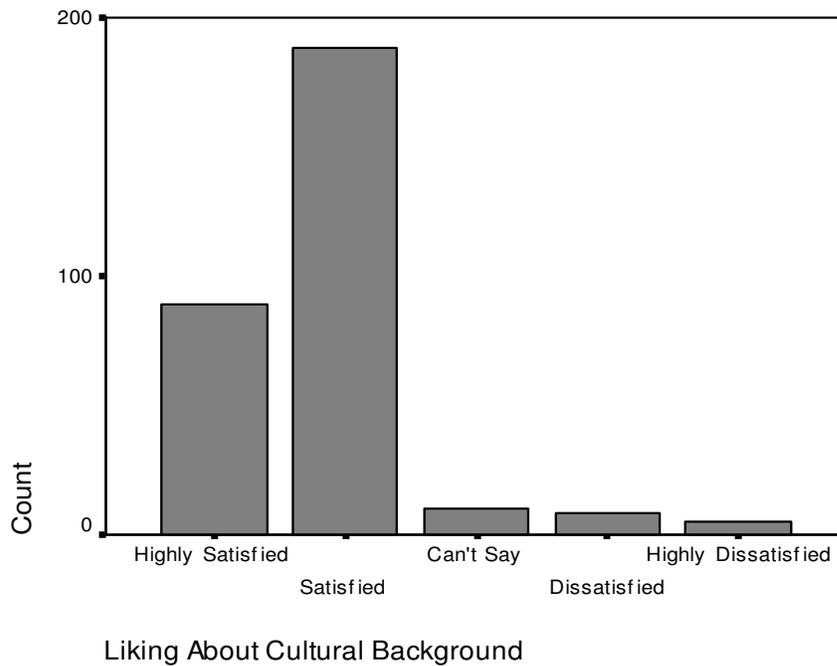


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to cultural background rural, 26.7%; and urban, 73.3%. Thus the majority of respondents belonged to urban areas. It indicates that police recruits belonging to rural areas are either unaware about training incentives or ignored by the police department. The fact confirms that police personnel in urban areas are more aware about their rights and necessities as compared to their counterparts in rural areas.

TABLE 37

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT CULTURAL BACKGROUND**

Cultural Background	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	89	29.7	29.7
Satisfied	188	62.7	92.3
Can't Say	10	3.3	95.7
Dissatisfied	8	2.7	98.3
Highly Dissatisfied	5	1.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

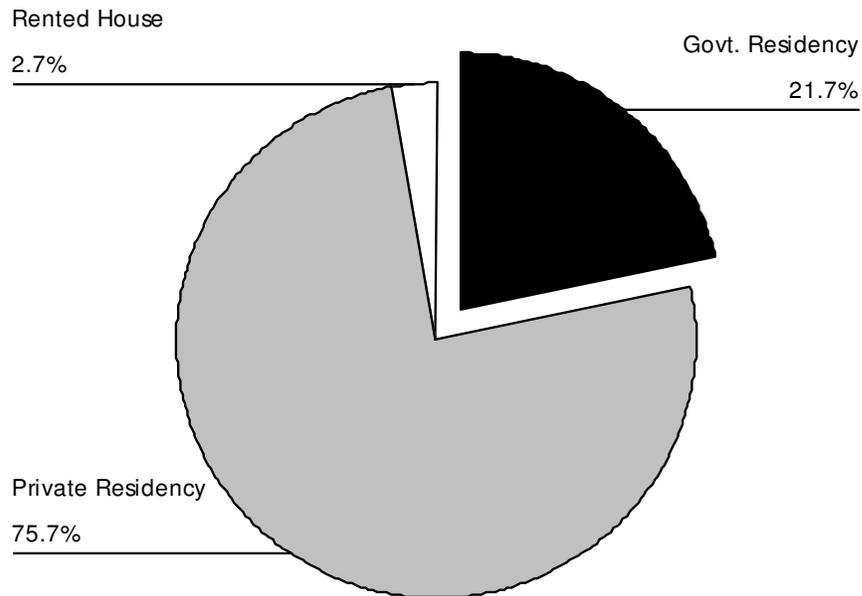


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at cultural background. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 29.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 3.3%; dissatisfied, 2.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.7%. So it is stated that the vast majority of respondents were satisfied at their respective cultural backgrounds.

TABLE 38

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY NATURE OF ACCOMMODATION**

Accommodation	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Govt. Residency	65	21.7	21.7
Private Residency	227	75.7	97.3
Rented House	8	2.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

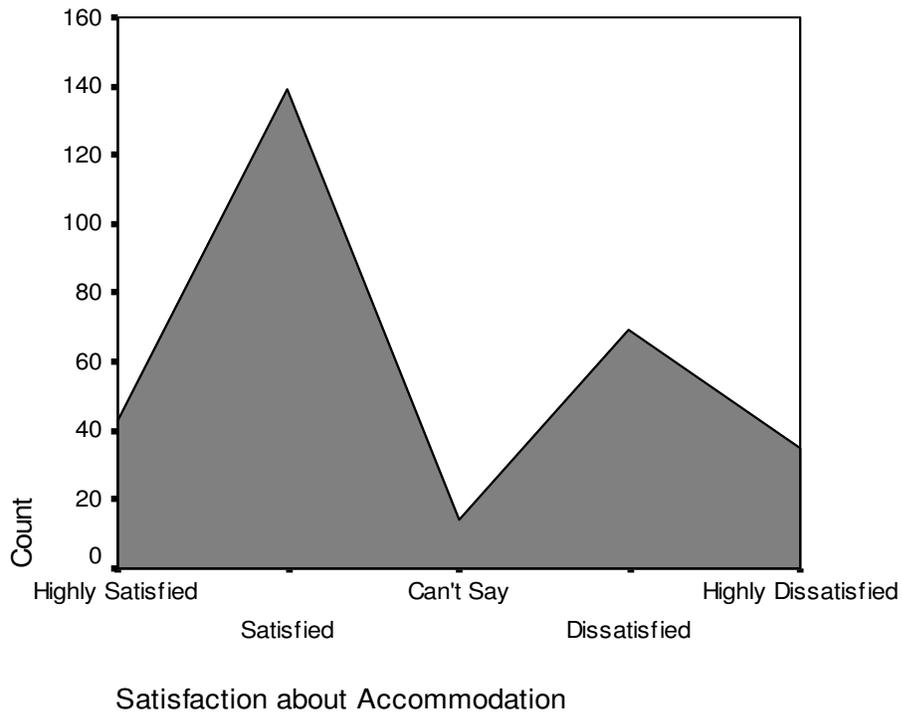


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by nature of accommodation. Govt. residency, 21.7%; private residency, 75.7%; and rented house, 2.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were settled in private houses.

TABLE 39

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT ACCOMMODATION**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	43	14.3	14.3
Satisfied	139	46.3	60.7
Can't Say	14	4.7	65.3
Dissatisfied	69	23.0	88.3
Highly Dissatisfied	35	11.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

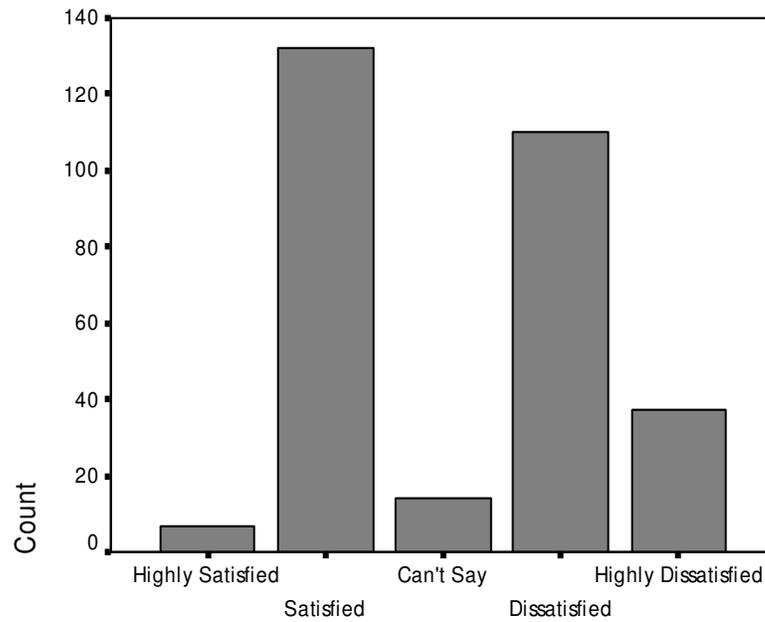


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to satisfaction about accommodation. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 14.3%; satisfied, 46.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 23.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction about accommodation.

TABLE 40

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT ACCOMMODATION DURING TRAINING

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	7	2.3	2.3
Satisfied	132	44.0	46.3
Can't Say	14	4.7	51.0
Dissatisfied	110	36.7	87.7
Highly Dissatisfied	37	12.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



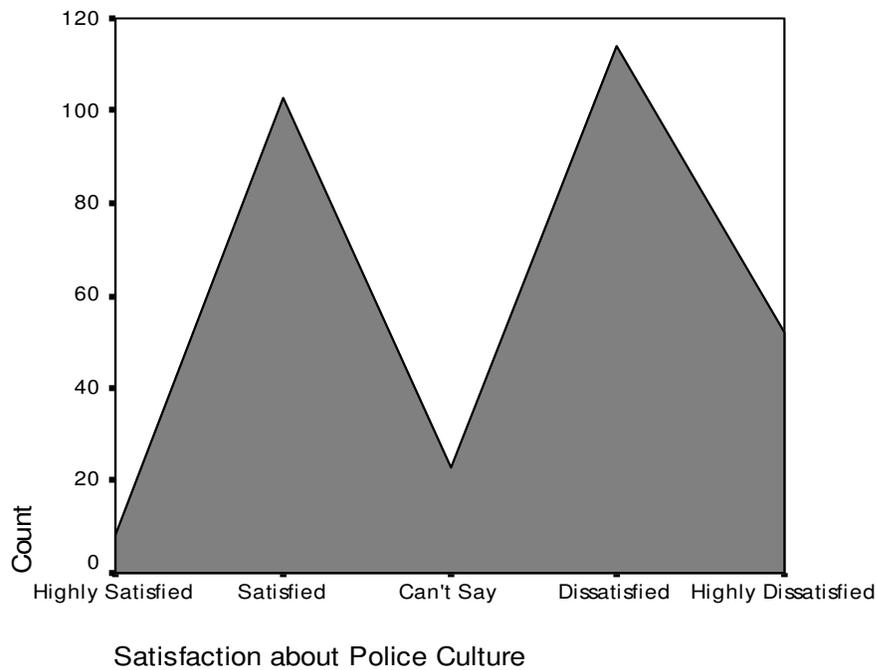
Satisfaction about Accommodation During Training

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to satisfaction about accommodation during training. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 44.0%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 36.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.3%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion at satisfaction about accommodation during training.

TABLE 41

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT POLICE CULTURE**

Police Culture	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	8	2.7	2.7
Satisfied	103	34.3	37.0
Can't Say	23	7.7	44.7
Dissatisfied	114	38.0	82.7
Highly Dissatisfied	52	17.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

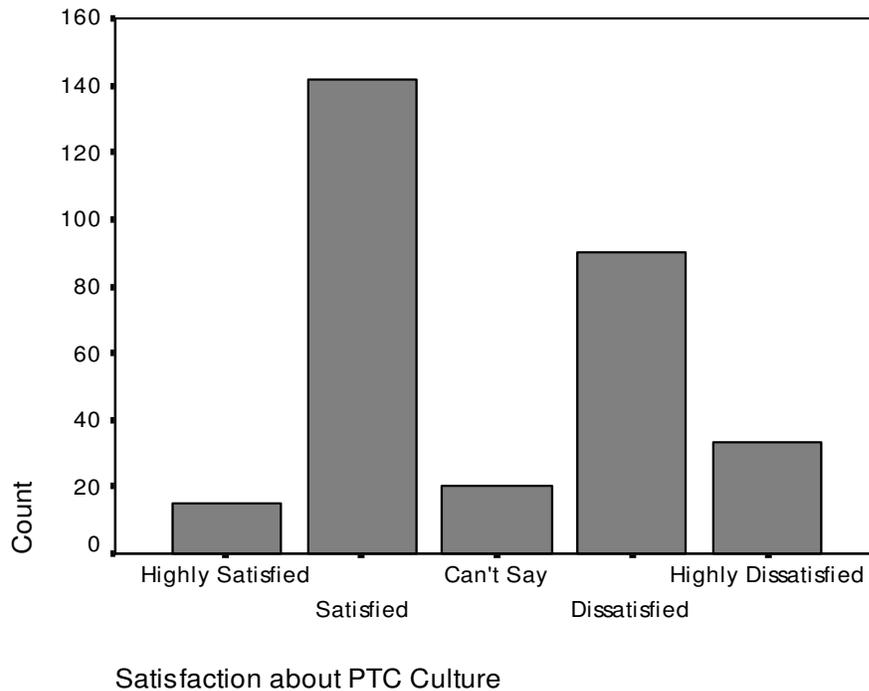


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at police culture. It includes highly satisfied, 2.7%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 38.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.3%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about satisfaction at police culture.

TABLE 42

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PTCs CULTURE**

PTC Culture	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	15	5.0	5.0
Satisfied	142	47.3	52.3
Can't Say	20	6.7	59.0
Dissatisfied	90	30.0	89.0
Highly Dissatisfied	33	11.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

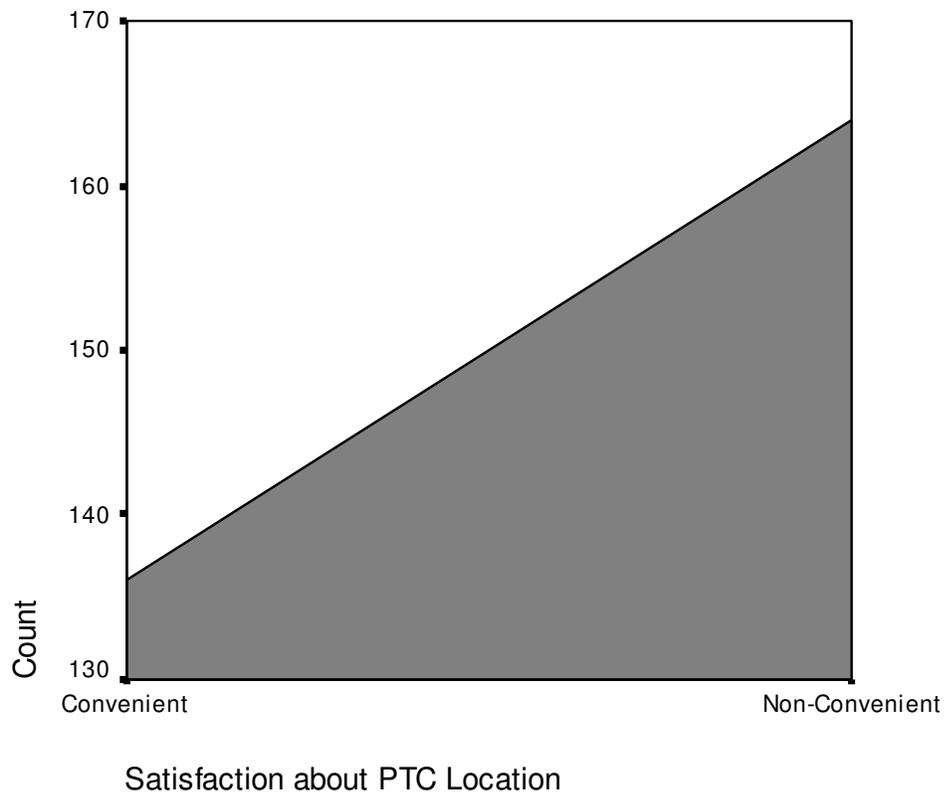


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PTCs culture. Highly satisfied, 5.0%; satisfied, 47.3%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 30.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents were not too clear about the PTCs culture.

TABLE 43

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PTCs LOCATION**

Location	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Convenient	136	45.3	45.3
Non-Convenient	164	54.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

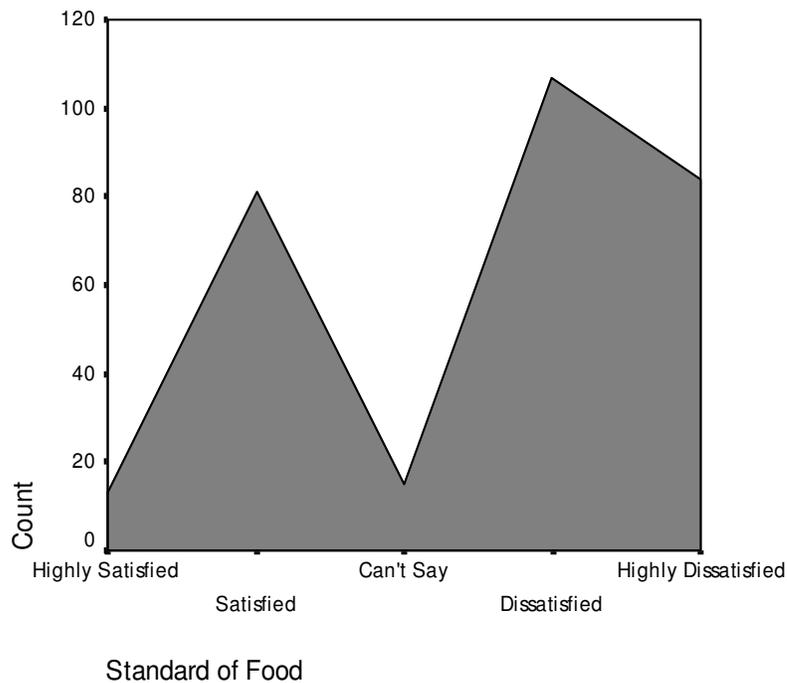


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PTCs location. Convenient, 45.3%; and non-convenient, 54.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents found PTCs location as non-convenient. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered location of PTCs as unsuitable most probably due to inappropriateness.

TABLE 44

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT STANDARD OF FOOD**

Standard of Food	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	81	27.0	31.3
Can't Say	15	5.0	36.3
Dissatisfied	107	35.7	72.0
Highly Dissatisfied	84	28.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

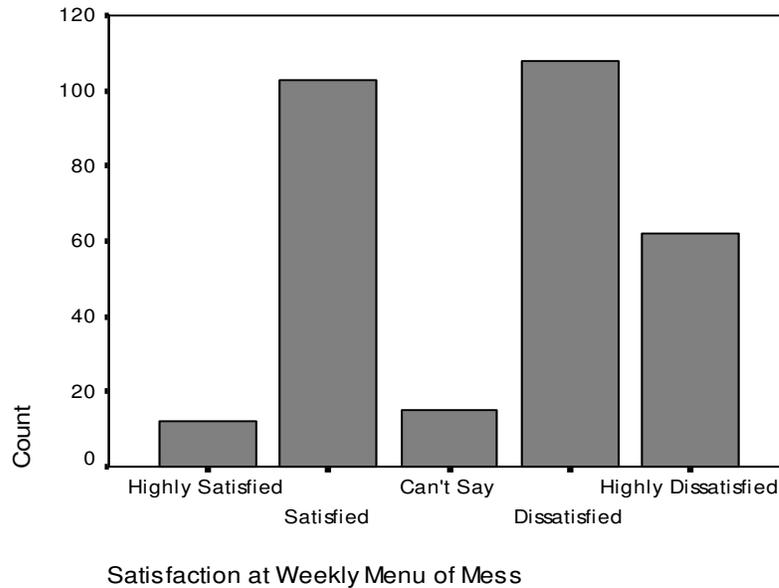


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at standard of food. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 35.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 28.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were found dissatisfied at the standard of food in PTCs. It indicates that the trainees are provided unhygienic and indigestive food.

TABLE 45

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT WEEKLY MENU OF MESS**

Weekly Menu	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	12	4.0	4.0
Satisfied	103	34.3	38.3
Can't Say	15	5.0	43.3
Dissatisfied	108	36.0	79.3
Highly Dissatisfied	62	20.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

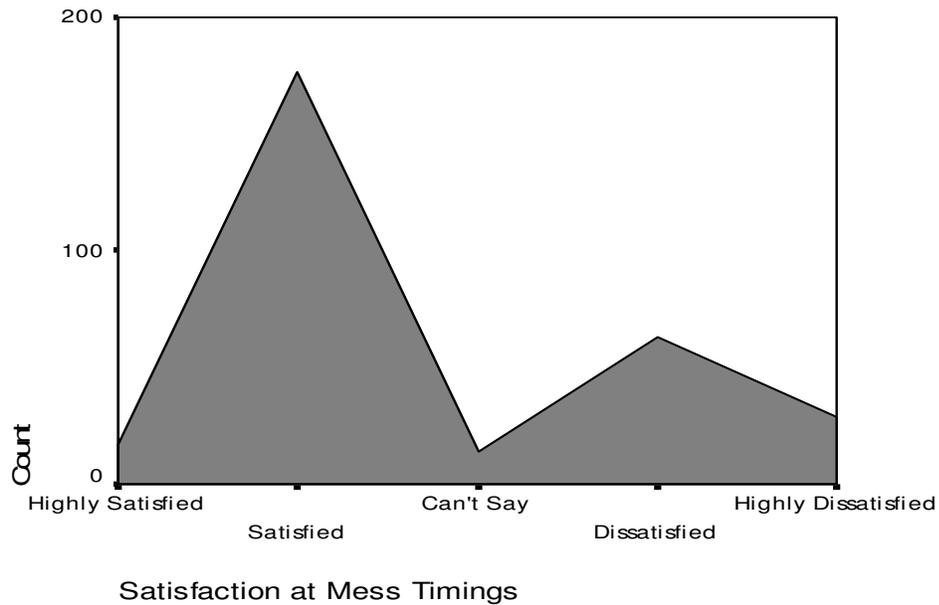


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at weekly menu of mess. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 36.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were found dissatisfied at weekly menu of mess in PTCs. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered weekly menu of mess as unsuitable most probably owing to deficiency in essential food substance.

TABLE 46

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT MESS TIMINGS**

Mess Timings	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	17	5.7	5.7
Satisfied	177	59.0	64.7
Can't Say	14	4.7	69.3
Dissatisfied	63	21.0	90.3
Highly Dissatisfied	29	9.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

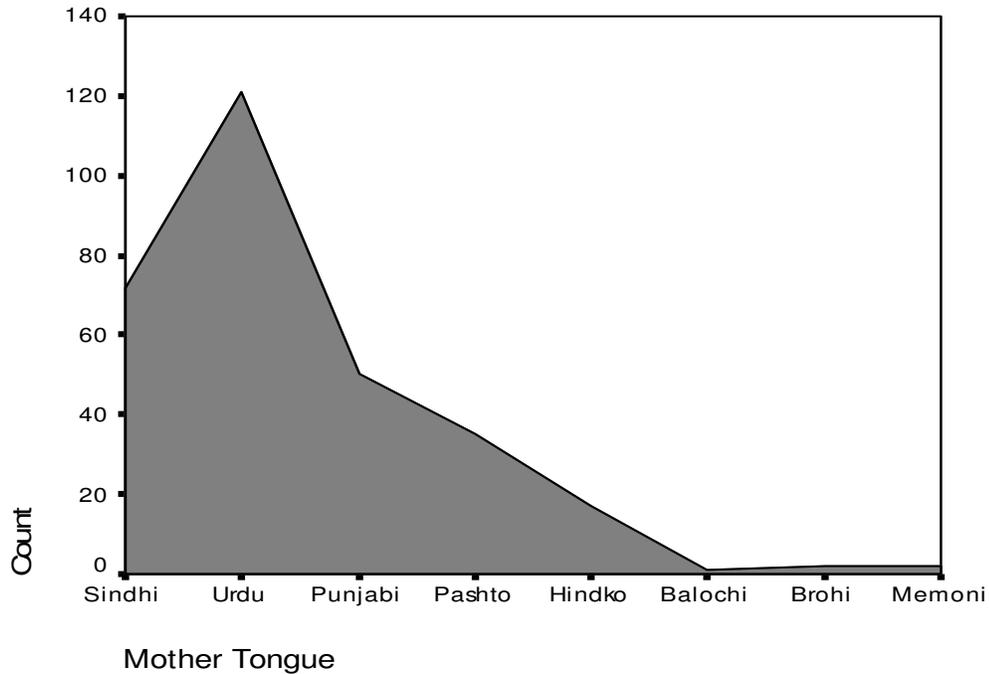


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at mess timings. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 59.0%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 21.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.7%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at mess timings of PTCs. It illustrates that second majority of respondents considered mess timings of mess as unsuitable most probably owing to deficiency in proper timing and food substance.

TABLE 47

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY MOTHER TONGUE**

Mother Tongue	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Sindhi	72	24.0	24.0
Urdu	121	40.3	64.3
Punjabi	50	16.7	81.0
Pashto	35	11.7	92.7
Hindko	17	5.7	98.3
Balochi	1	0.3	98.7
Brohi	2	0.7	99.3
Memoni	2	0.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

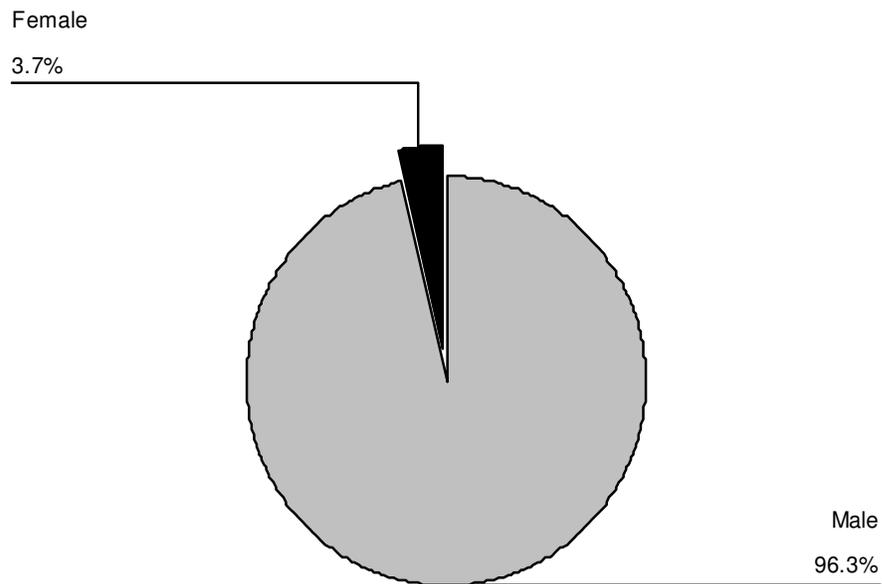


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by mother-tongue. Sindhi, 24.0%; Urdu, 40.3%; Punjabi, 16.7%; Pashto, 11.7%; Hindko, 5.7%; Balochi, 0.3%; Brohi, 0.7%; and Memoni, 0.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were Urdu speaking as such Urdu is national language of Pakistan.

TABLE 48

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SEX

Sex	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	289	96.3	96.3
Female	11	3.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

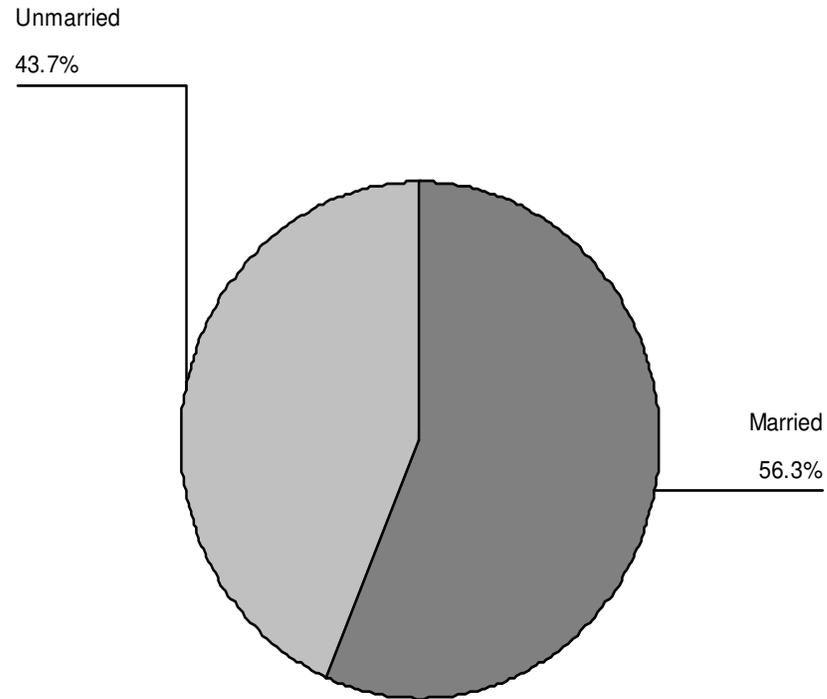


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by sex. Male, 96.3%; and female, 3.7%. Thus almost all of respondents were males.

TABLE 49

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY MARITAL STATUS**

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	169	56.3	56.3
Unmarried	131	43.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

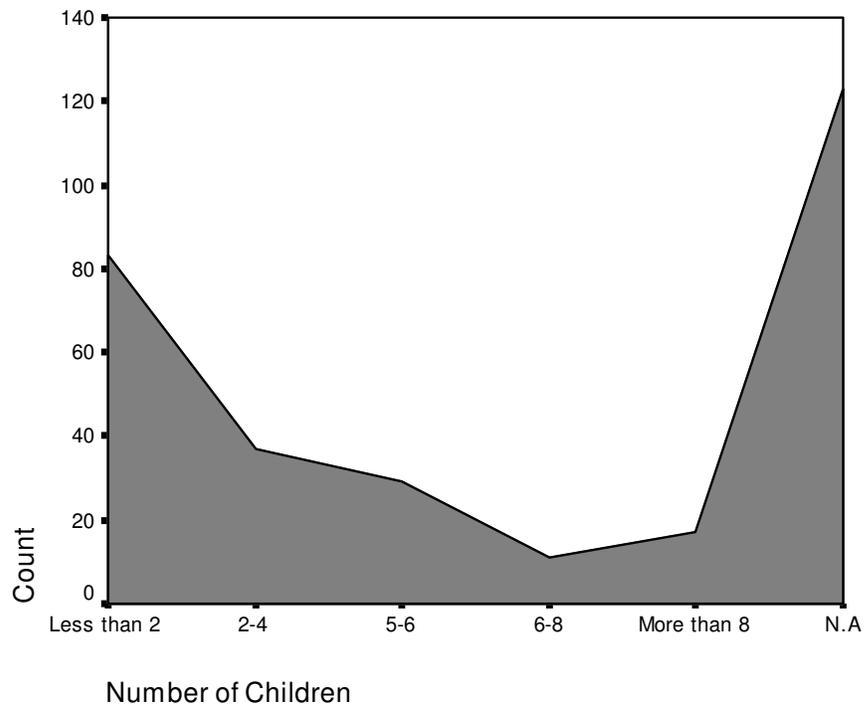


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to marital status. Married, 56.3%; and unmarried, 43.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were married.

TABLE 50

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN**

No. of Children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 2	83	27.7	27.7
2-4	37	12.3	40.0
5-6	29	9.7	49.7
6-8	11	3.7	53.3
More than 8	17	5.7	59.0
N.A	123	41.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

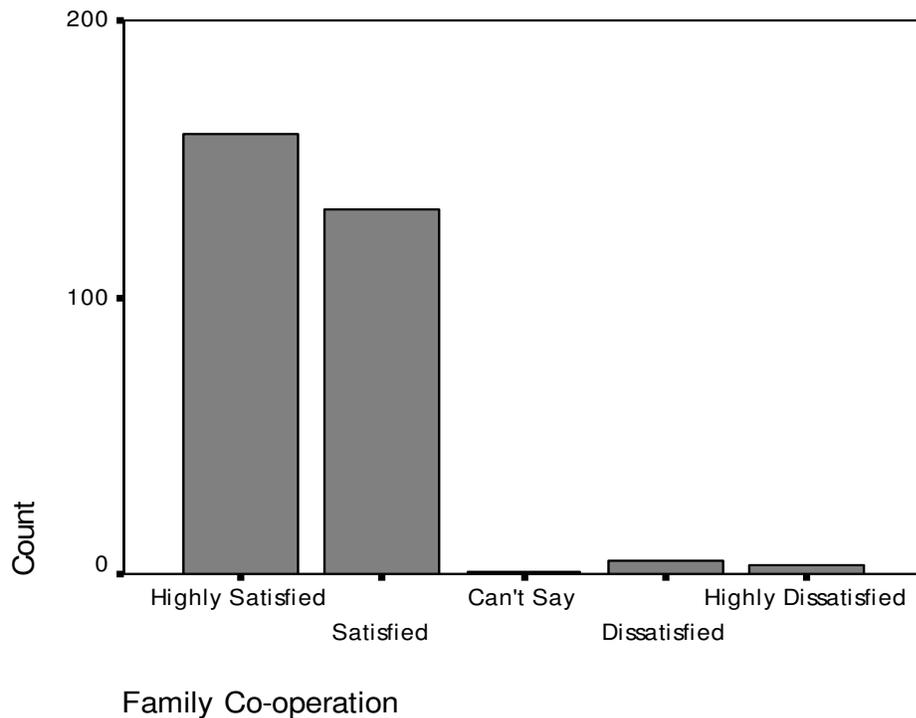


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to number of children. Less than 2, 27.7%; number 2-4, 12.3%; number 5-6, 9.70%; number 7-8, 3.7%; more than 8, 5.7%; and N.A, 41.0%.

TABLE 51

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FAMILY CO-OPERATION**

Family Co-operation	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	159	53.0	53.0
Satisfied	132	44.0	97.0
Can't Say	1	0.3	97.3
Dissatisfied	5	1.7	99.0
Highly Dissatisfied	3	1.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

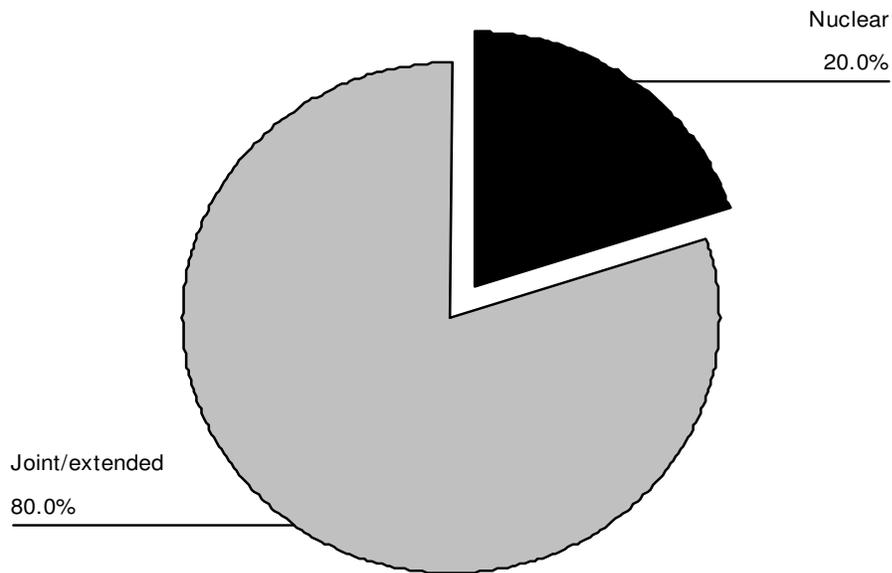


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at family co-operation. Highly satisfied, 53.0%; satisfied, 44.0%; can't say, 0.3%; dissatisfied, 1.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.0%. Hence it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were highly satisfied at family co-operation.

TABLE 52

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY TYPE OF FAMILY**

Type of Family	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Nuclear	60	20.0	20.0
Joint/extended	240	80.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to type of family. Nuclear, 20.0%; and joint/extended, 80.0%. Thus the vast majority of respondents had joint families. It shows the joint/extended family system is the most preferable system of living in all parts of the country. It is deemed as suitable most probably due to acceptance, forbearance and combating many problems collectively.

TABLE 53

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT LEAVE FOR VISITING FAMILY**

Visiting Family	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	41	13.7	13.7
Satisfied	165	55.0	68.7
Can't Say	13	4.3	73.0
Dissatisfied	45	15.0	88.0
Highly Dissatisfied	36	12.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

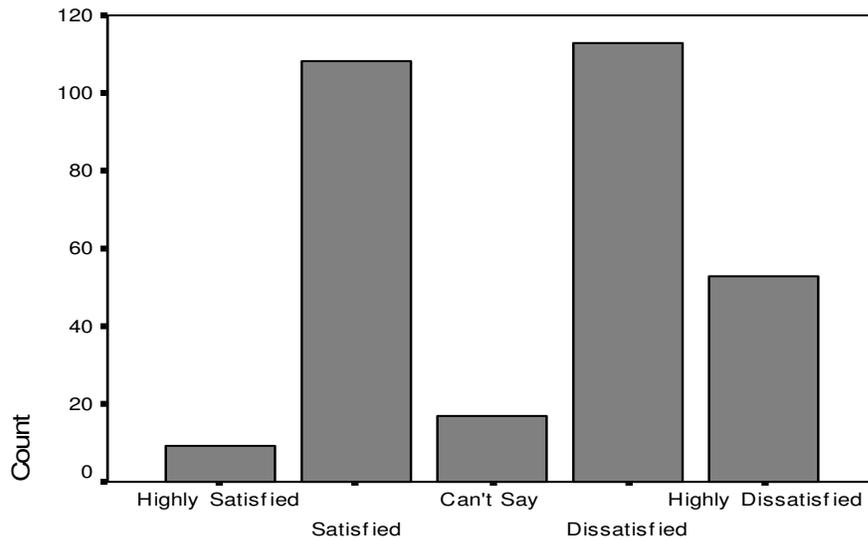


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at leave for visiting family. Highly satisfied, 13.7%; satisfied, 55.0%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.0%. So it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at leave for visiting family.

TABLE 54

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT LEAVES FOR VISITING FAMILY

Number of Leaves	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	9	3.0	3.0
Satisfied	108	36.0	39.0
Can't Say	17	5.7	44.7
Dissatisfied	113	37.7	82.3
Highly Dissatisfied	53	17.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



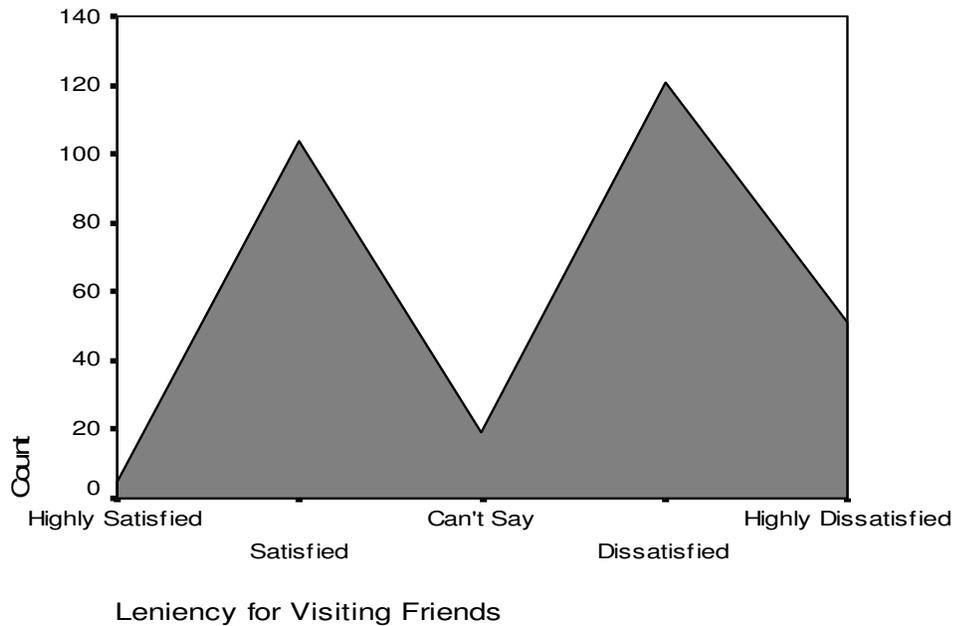
Number of Leaves for Visiting Family

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at number of leaves for visiting family. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 36.0%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 37.7.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were divided at the number of leaves for visiting family. It illustrates that great number of respondents considered number of leaves as insufficient most probably due to the difficulty in visiting family.

TABLE 55

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT LENIENCY FOR VISITING FRIENDS

Leniency	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	104	34.7	36.3
Can't Say	19	6.3	42.7
Dissatisfied	121	40.3	83.0
Highly Dissatisfied	51	17.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

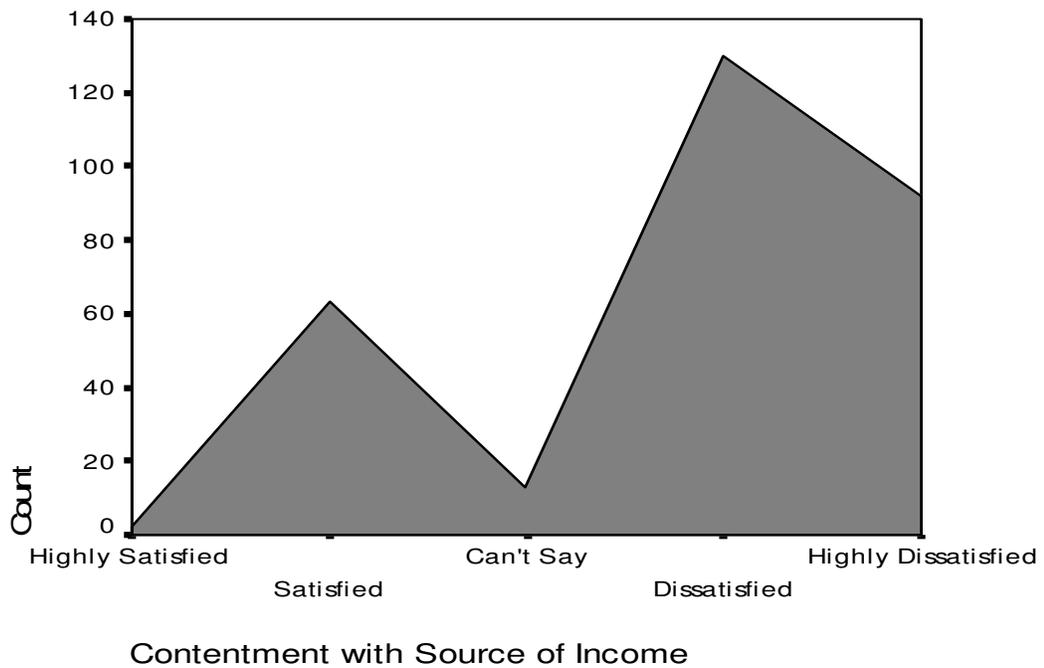


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at leniency for visiting friends. Highly satisfied, 1.70%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 40.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.0%. So, it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at leniency for visiting friends. It indicates that majority of respondents considered leniency for visiting friends as insufficient most probably due to strict rules and regulations at PTCs.

TABLE 56

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT SOURCE OF INCOME

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	2	0.7	.7
Satisfied	63	21.0	21.7
Can't Say	13	4.3	26.0
Dissatisfied	130	43.3	69.3
Highly Dissatisfied	92	30.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

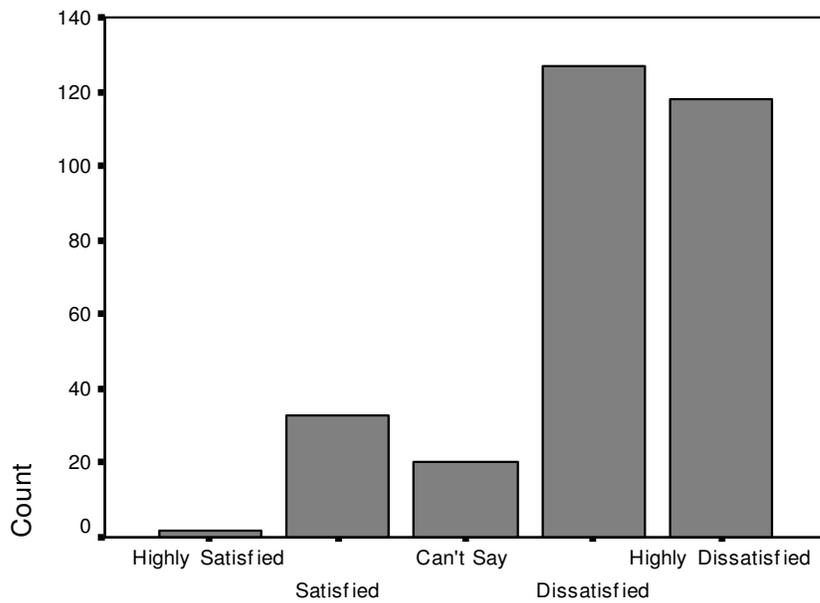


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at source of income. Highly satisfied, 7.0%; satisfied, 21.0%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 43.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 30.7%. So, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were dissatisfied at source of income. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered source of income as not enough most probably due to the meager salaries and allowances paid to police personnel.

TABLE 57

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BASIC PAY

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	2	0.7	.7
Satisfied	33	11.0	11.7
Can't Say	20	6.7	18.3
Dissatisfied	127	42.3	60.7
Highly Dissatisfied	118	39.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



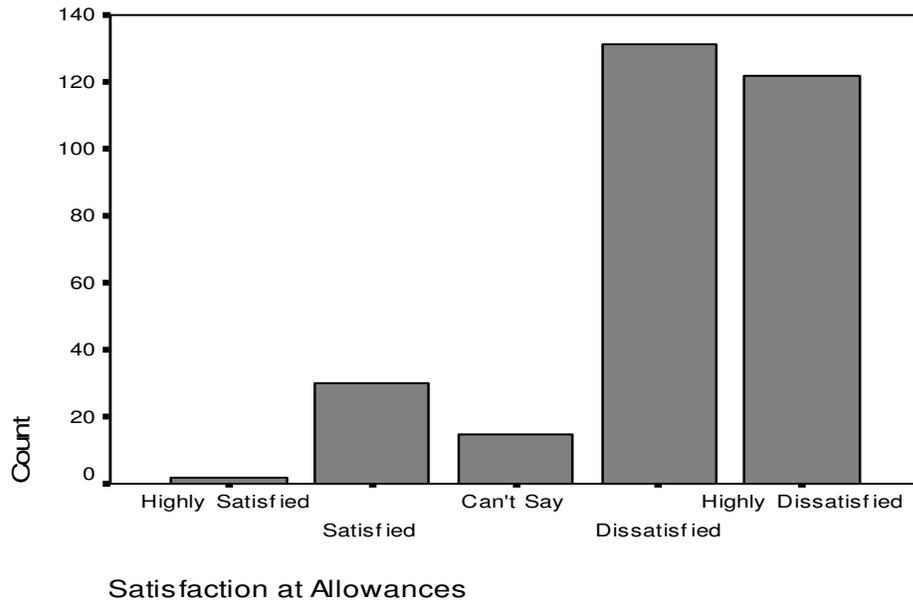
Satisfaction at Basic Pay

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at basic pay. Highly satisfied, 0.7%; satisfied, 11.0%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 42.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 39.3%. So, it is illustrated that the huge majority of respondents were dissatisfied at basic pay. It indicates that majority of respondents considered basic pay as not enough most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities, breaking the backbone of police recruits with meager financial incentives.

TABLE 58

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT ALLOWANCES

Allowances	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	2	0.7	.7
Satisfied	30	10.0	10.7
Can't Say	15	5.0	15.7
Dissatisfied	131	43.7	59.3
Highly Dissatisfied	122	40.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

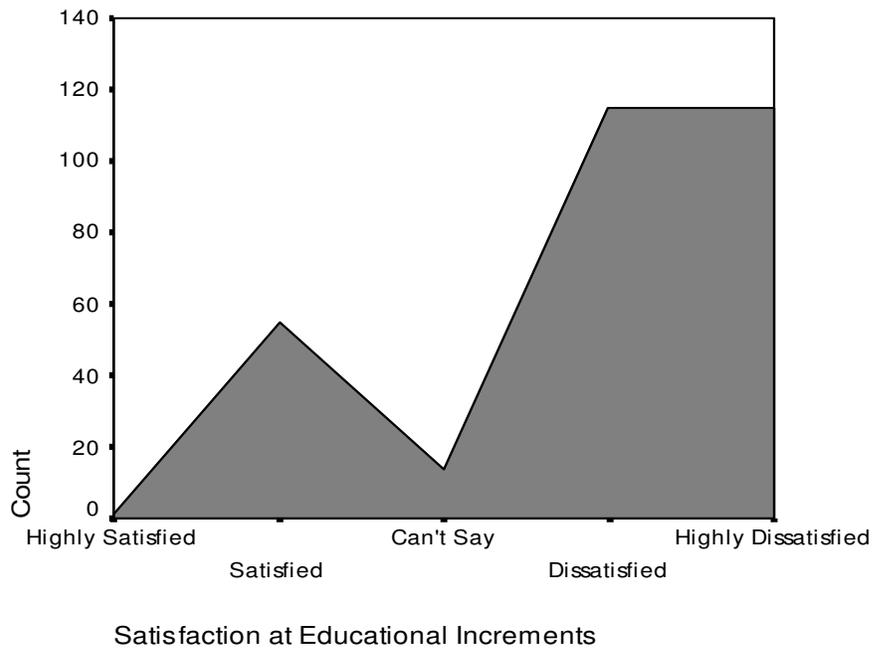


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at allowances. Highly satisfied, 0.7%; satisfied, 10.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 43.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 40.7%. Thus, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at allowances. It indicates that majority of respondents consider allowances as insufficient most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities. As a result the financial position of police force is at the bottom level compelling them to compensate the situation either fair or foul means.

TABLE 59

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT EDUCATIONAL INCREMENTS

Educational Increments	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	1	0.3	.3
Satisfied	55	18.3	18.7
Can't Say	14	4.7	23.3
Dissatisfied	115	38.3	61.7
Highly Dissatisfied	115	38.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

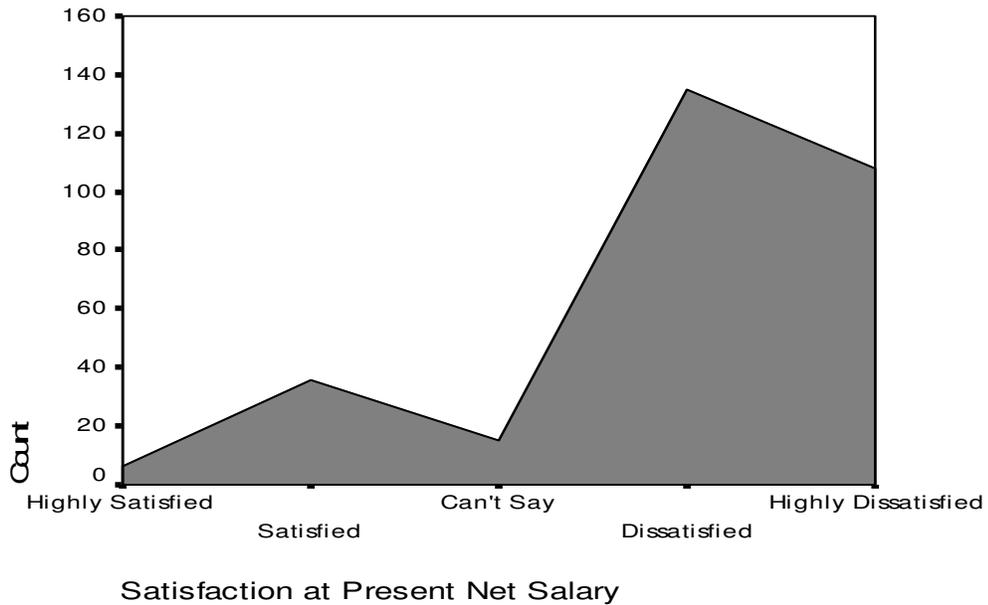


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at educational increments. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 18.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 38.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 38.3%. Thus, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at educational increments. It indicates that majority of respondents considered educational increments as not enough most probably due to the increasing prices of essential supplies.

TABLE 60

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT PRESENT NET SALARY

Present Net Salary	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	6	2.0	2.0
Satisfied	36	12.0	14.0
Can't Say	15	5.0	19.0
Dissatisfied	135	45.0	64.0
Highly Dissatisfied	108	36.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

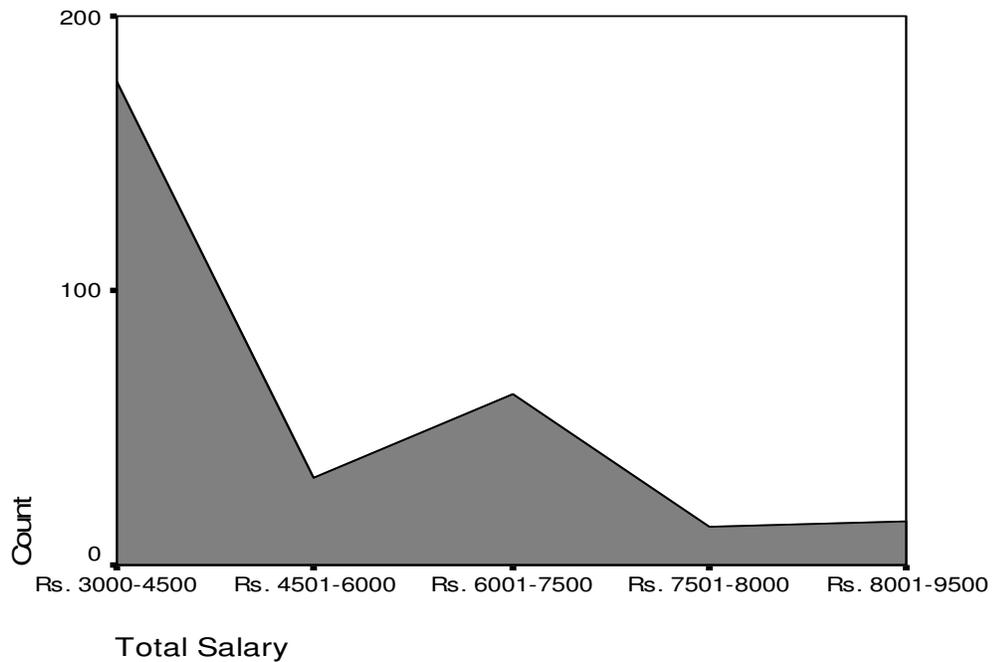


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at present net salary. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 12.0%; can't say, 5%; dissatisfied, 45.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 36.0%. Therefore, it is asserted that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at present net salary. It indicates that majority of respondents consider present net salary as insufficient most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities. As a result the purchasing power of a police recruit has reached at the bottom level compelling to compensate the situation either fair or foul means.

TABLE 61

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY TOTAL SALARY**

Total Salary	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Rs. 3000-4500	176	58.7	58.7
Rs. 4501-6000	32	10.7	69.3
Rs. 6001-7500	62	20.7	90.0
Rs. 7501-8000	14	4.7	94.7
Rs. 8001-9500	16	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

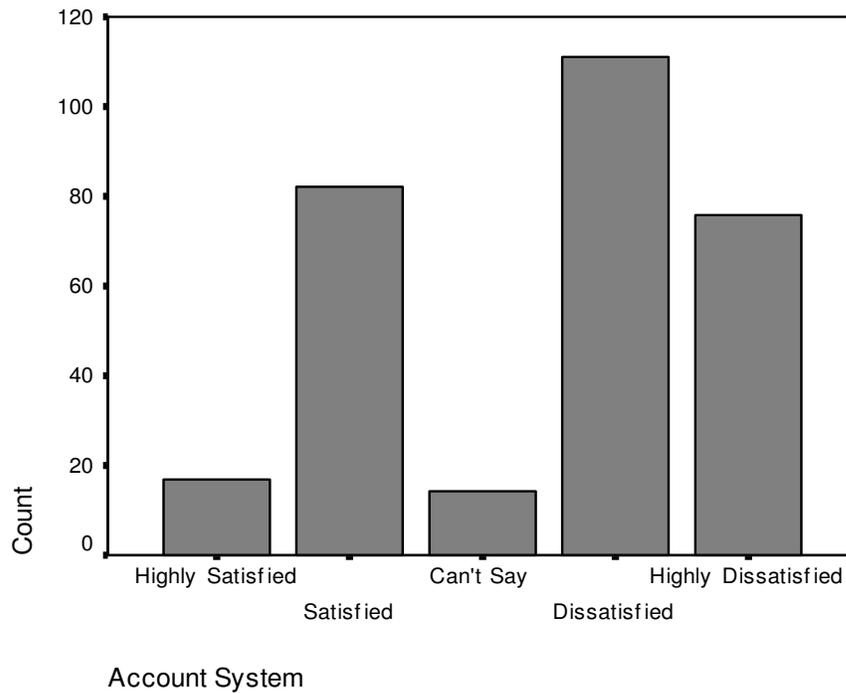


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to total salary. Rs. 3000-4500, 58.7%; Rs. 4501-6000, 10.7%; Rs. 6001-7500, 20.7%; Rs. 7501-8000, 4.7%; and Rs. 8001-9500, 5.3%. Therefore, it is stated that the vast majority of respondents had Rs. 3000-6000 total salary. It indicates that majority of respondents had salary as insufficient most probably due to the increasing price hike of essential possessions. As a result the purchasing power of a police employee has reached at the bottom level compelling to corruption.

TABLE 62

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT ACCOUNTS SYSTEM

Accounts System	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	17	5.7	5.7
Satisfied	82	27.3	33.0
Can't Say	14	4.7	37.7
Dissatisfied	111	37.0	74.7
Highly Dissatisfied	76	25.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

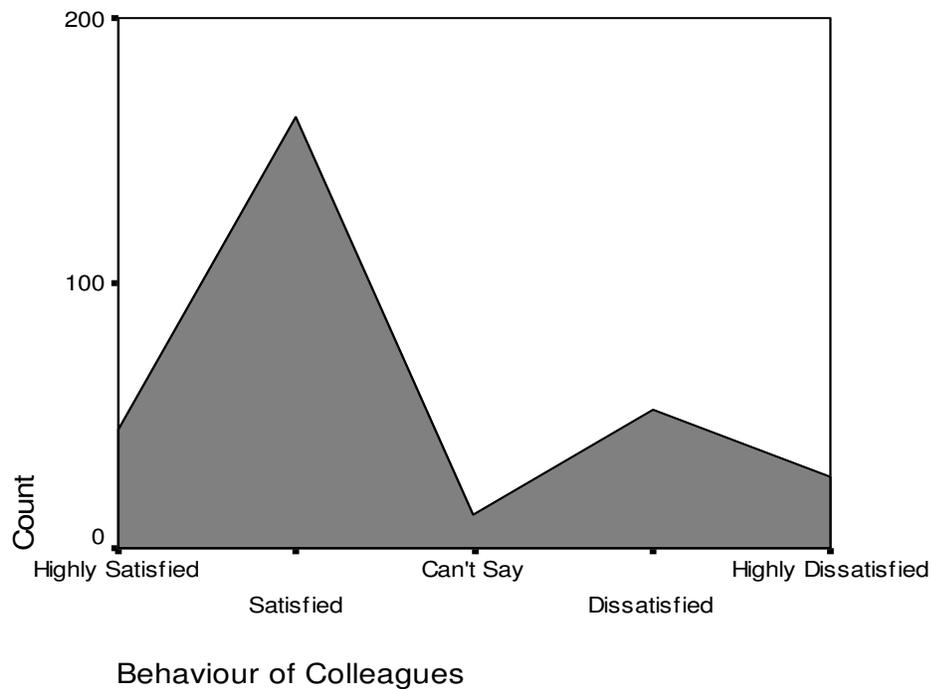


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at accounts system. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 27.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 37.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 25.3%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at accounts system.

TABLE 63

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF COLLEAGUES

Behaviour of Colleagues	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	45	15.0	15.0
Satisfied	163	54.3	69.3
Can't Say	13	4.3	73.7
Dissatisfied	52	17.3	91.0
Highly Dissatisfied	27	9.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

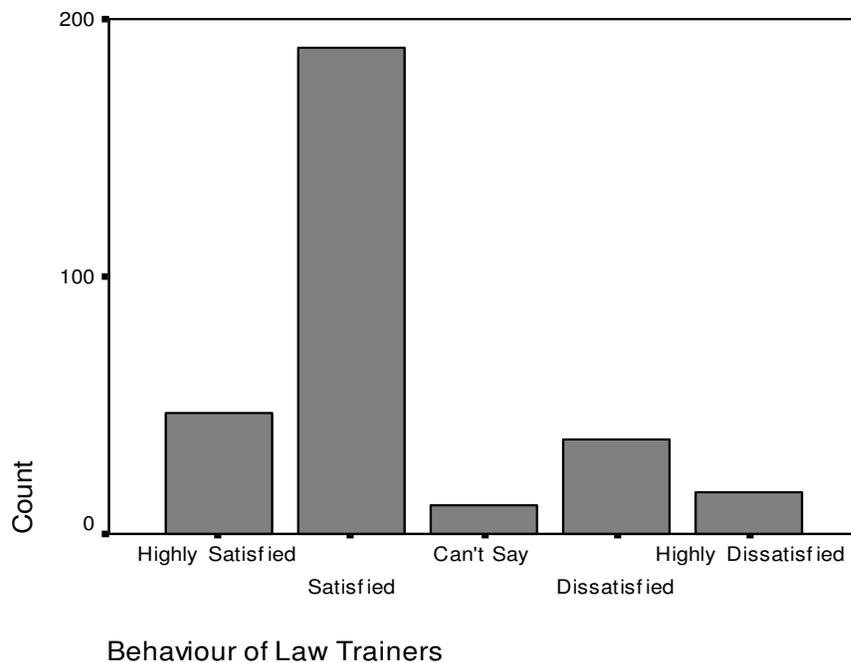


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of colleagues at PTC. Highly satisfied, 15.0%; satisfied, 54.3%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 17.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.0%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of colleagues at PTCs.

TABLE 64

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF LAW TRAINERS

Behaviour	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	47	15.7	15.7
Satisfied	189	63.0	78.7
Can't Say	11	3.7	82.3
Dissatisfied	37	12.3	94.7
Highly Dissatisfied	16	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

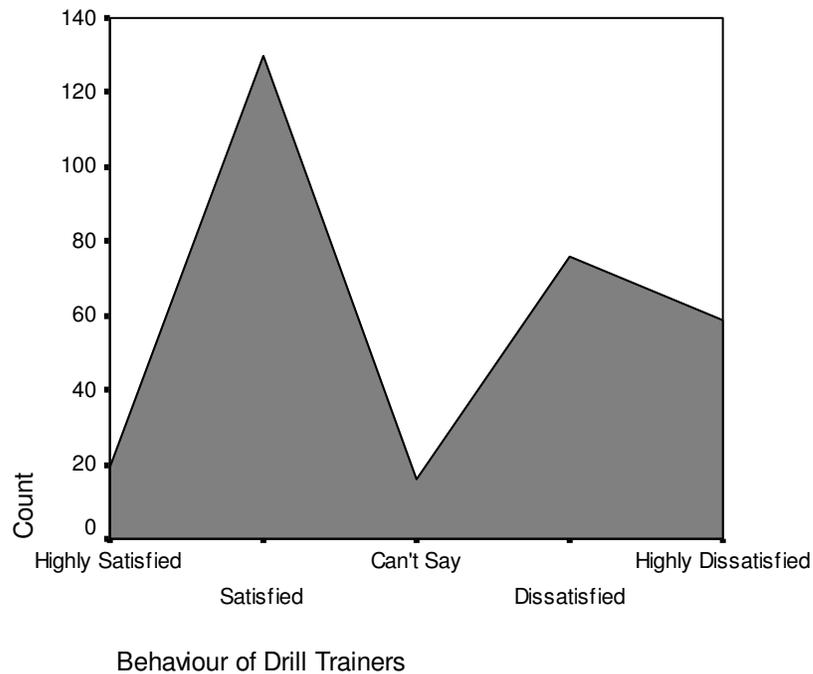


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of law trainers at PTC. Highly satisfied, 15.7%; satisfied, 63.0%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.3%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of law trainers at PTCs.

TABLE 65

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF DRILL TRAINERS

Behaviour	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	19	6.3	6.3
Satisfied	130	43.3	49.7
Can't Say	16	5.3	55.0
Dissatisfied	76	25.3	80.3
Highly Dissatisfied	59	19.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

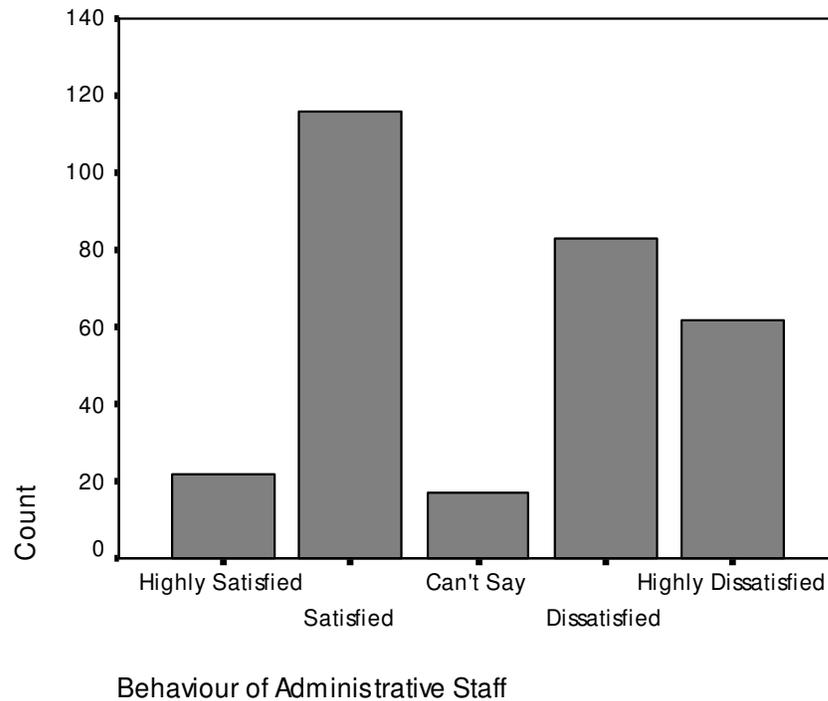


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of drill trainers at PTC. Highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 43.3%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 25.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 19.7%. Subsequently, it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion at the behaviour of drill trainers at PTCs.

TABLE 66

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

Behaviour	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	22	7.3	7.3
Satisfied	116	38.7	46.0
Can't Say	17	5.7	51.7
Dissatisfied	83	27.7	79.3
Highly Dissatisfied	62	20.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

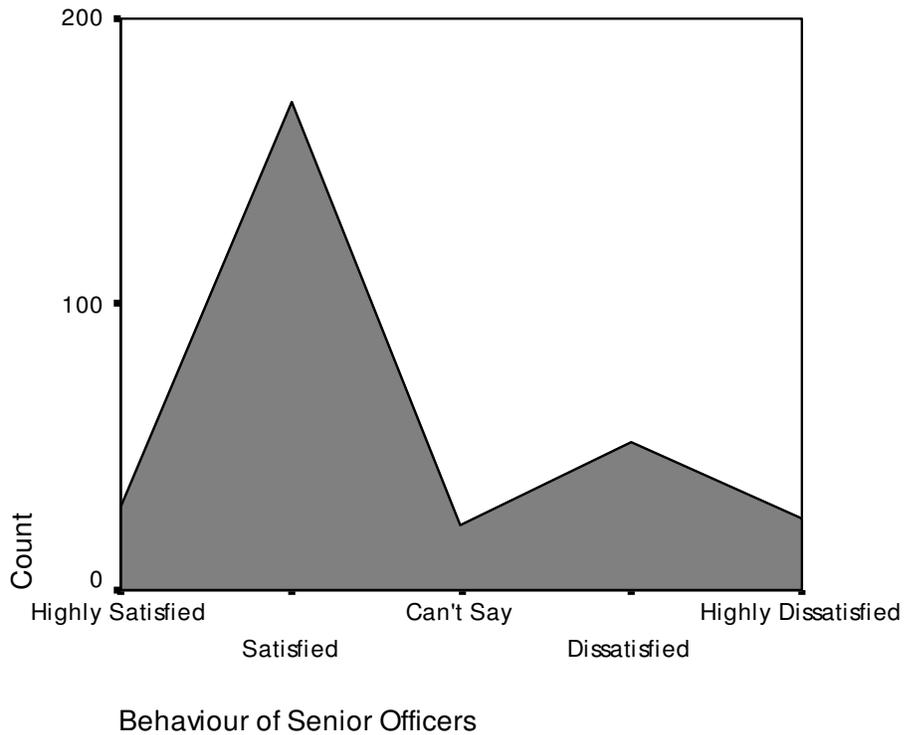


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of administrative staff at PTC. Highly satisfied, 7.3%; satisfied, 38.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 27.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.7%. Consequently, it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were not sure at behaviour of administrative staff at PTCs.

TABLE 67

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF SENIOR OFFICERS

Behaviour	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	29	9.7	9.7
Satisfied	171	57.0	66.7
Can't Say	23	7.7	74.3
Dissatisfied	52	17.3	91.7
Highly Dissatisfied	25	8.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

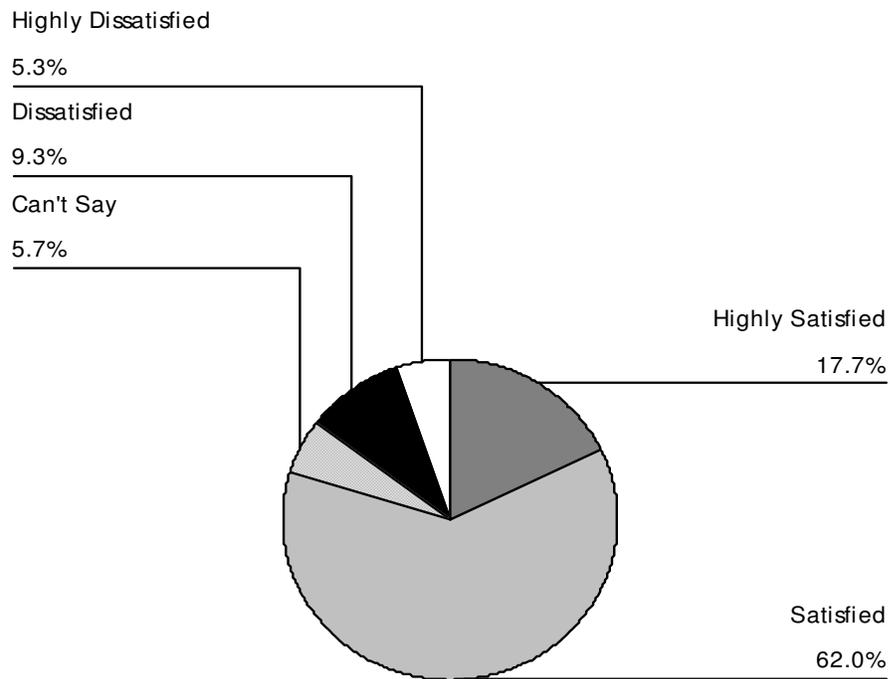


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of senior officers at PTC. Highly satisfied, 9.7%; satisfied, 57.0%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 17.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 8.3%. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of senior officers at PTCs.

TABLE 68

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF FRIENDS

Behaviour of Friends	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	53	17.7	17.7
Satisfied	186	62.0	79.7
Can't Say	17	5.7	85.3
Dissatisfied	28	9.3	94.7
Highly Dissatisfied	16	5.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

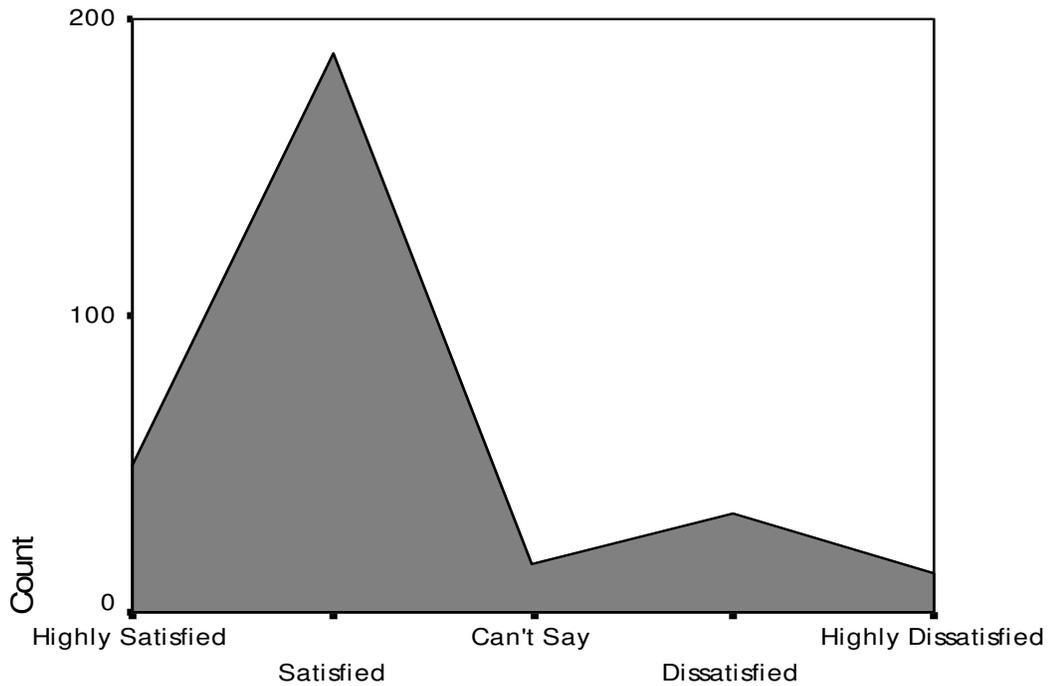


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of friends. Highly satisfied, 17.7%; satisfied, 62.0%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 9.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.3%. Therefore, it is accredited that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of friends.

TABLE 69

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF RELATIVES

Behaviour	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	50	16.7	16.7
Satisfied	188	62.7	79.3
Can't Say	16	5.3	84.3
Dissatisfied	33	11.0	95.3
Highly Dissatisfied	13	4.3	99.7
Total	300	100.0	



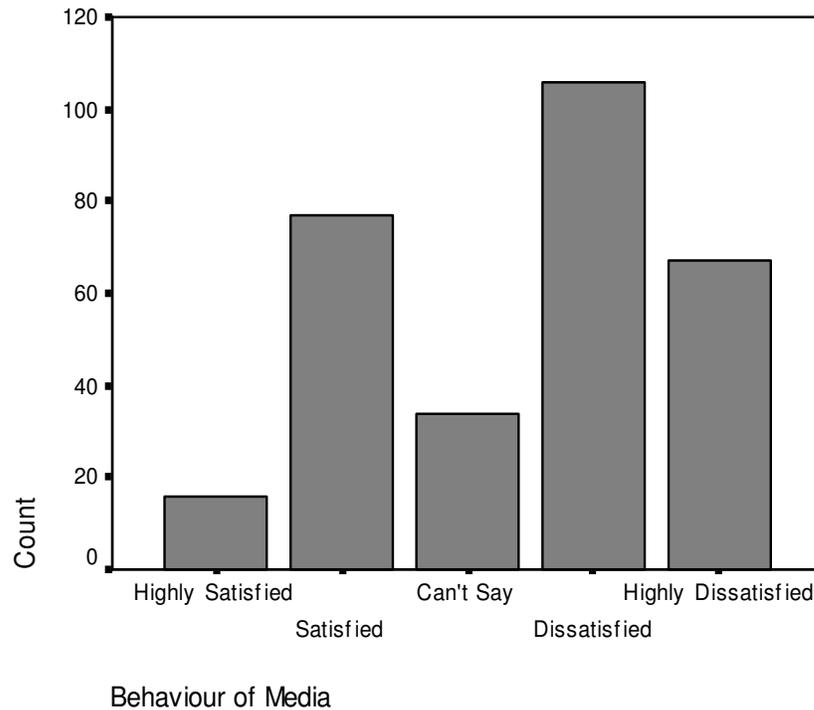
Behaviour of Relatives During Trainig

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of relatives. Highly satisfied, 16.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 11.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.3%. Hence it is ascribed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of relatives.

TABLE 70

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF MEDIA

Behaviour of Media	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	16	5.3	5.3
Satisfied	77	25.7	31.0
Can't Say	34	11.3	42.3
Dissatisfied	106	35.3	77.7
Highly Dissatisfied	67	22.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

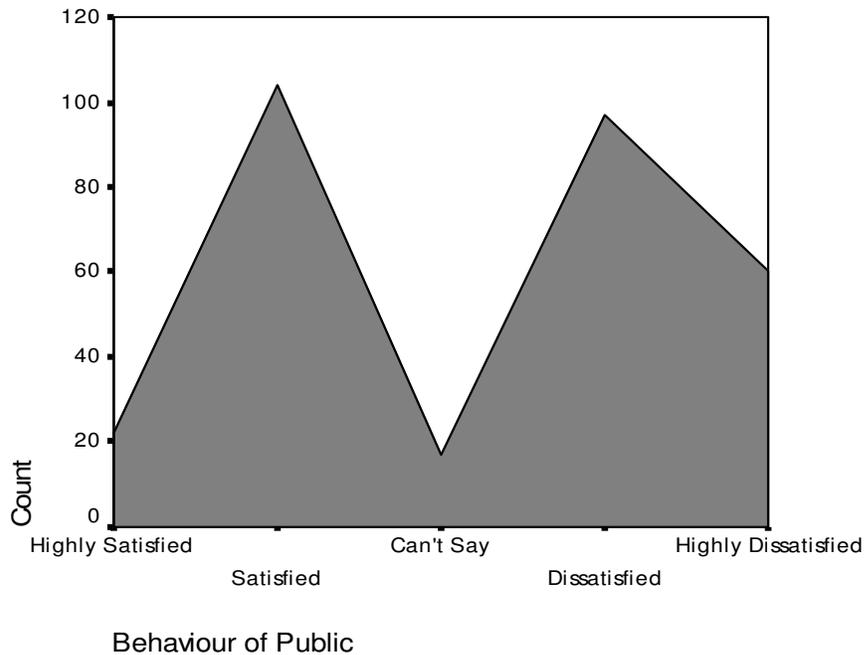


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of media. Highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 25.7%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 35.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 22.3%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at behaviour of media on the whole.

TABLE 71

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT BEHAVIOUR OF PUBLIC

Behaviour of Public	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	22	7.3	7.3
Satisfied	104	34.7	42.0
Can't Say	17	5.7	47.7
Dissatisfied	97	32.3	80.0
Highly Dissatisfied	60	20.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

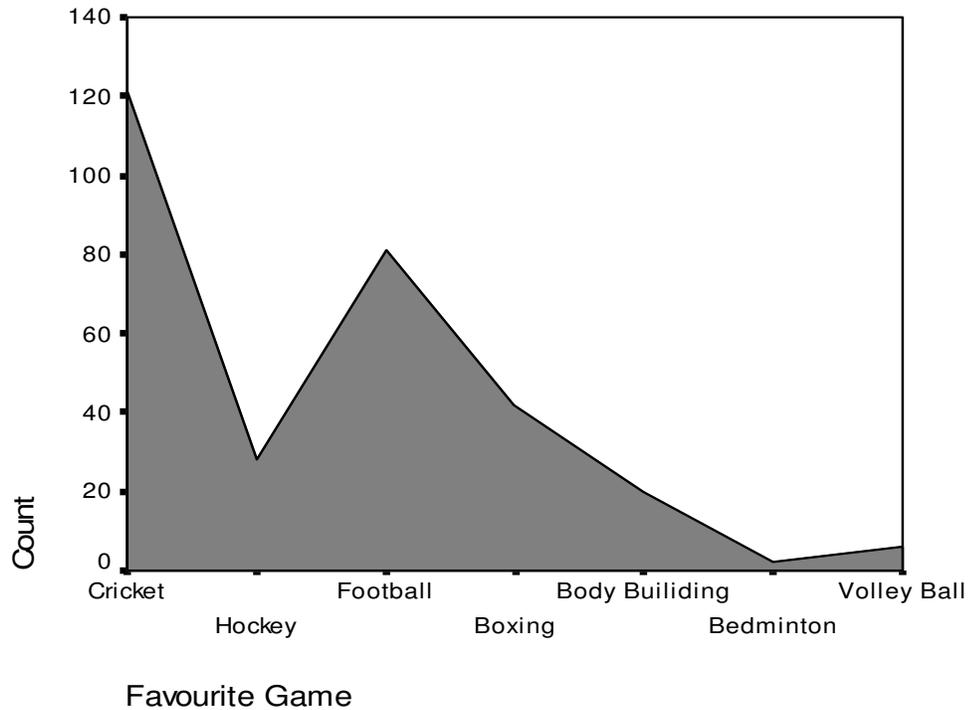


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of public. Highly satisfied, 7.3%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 32.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents were not sure at behaviour of public on the whole.

TABLE 72

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FAVOURITE GAME**

Favourite Game	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Cricket	121	40.3	40.3
Hockey	28	9.3	49.7
Football	81	27.0	76.7
Boxing	42	14.0	90.7
Body Building	20	6.7	97.3
Badminton	2	0.7	98.0
Volley Ball	6	2.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

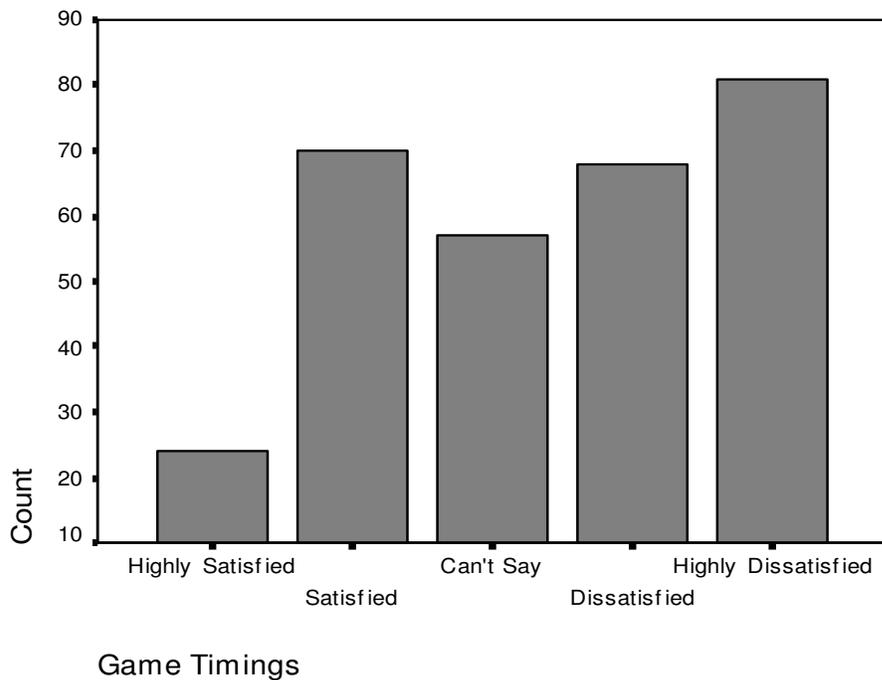


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to favourite game. Cricket, 40.3%; Hockey, 9.3%; football, 27.0%; boxing, 14.0%; body building, 6.7%; badminton, 0.7%; and volleyball, 2.0%. Thus majority of respondents had cricket and football as favourite games.

TABLE 73

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT GAME TIMINGS**

Game Timings	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	24	8.0	8.0
Satisfied	70	23.3	31.3
Can't Say	57	19.0	50.3
Dissatisfied	68	22.7	73.0
Highly Dissatisfied	81	27.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

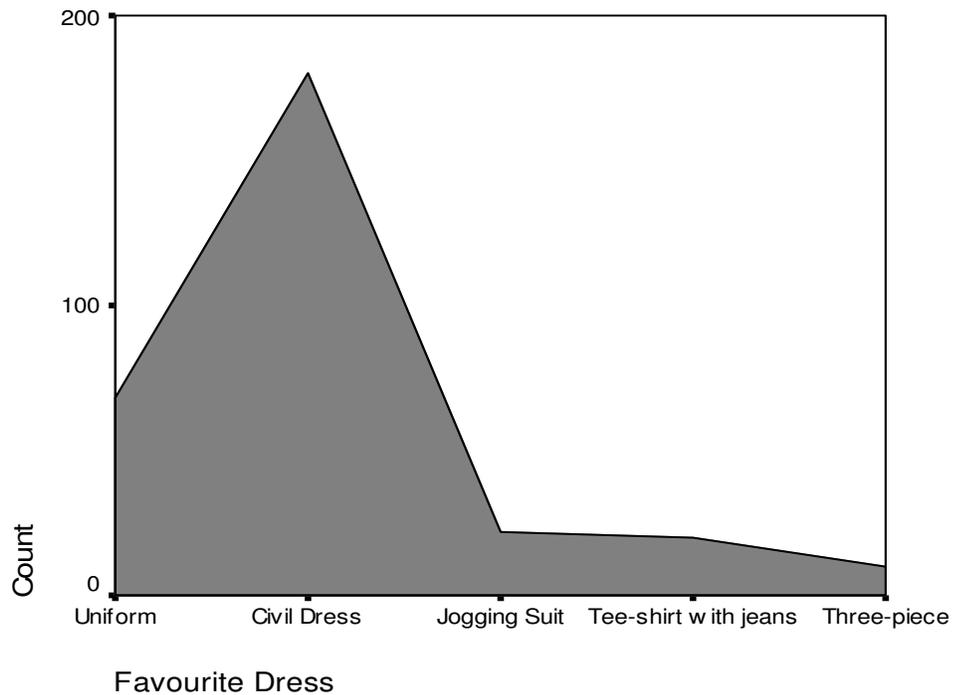


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at game timings. Highly satisfied, 8.0%; satisfied, 23.3%; can't say, 19%; dissatisfied, 22.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 27.0%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at game timings in general.

TABLE 74

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FAVOURITE DRESS**

Favourite Dress	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Uniform	68	22.7	22.7
Civil Dress	180	60.0	82.7
Jogging Suit	22	7.3	90.0
Tea Shirt with Jeans	20	6.7	96.7
Three Piece	10	3.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

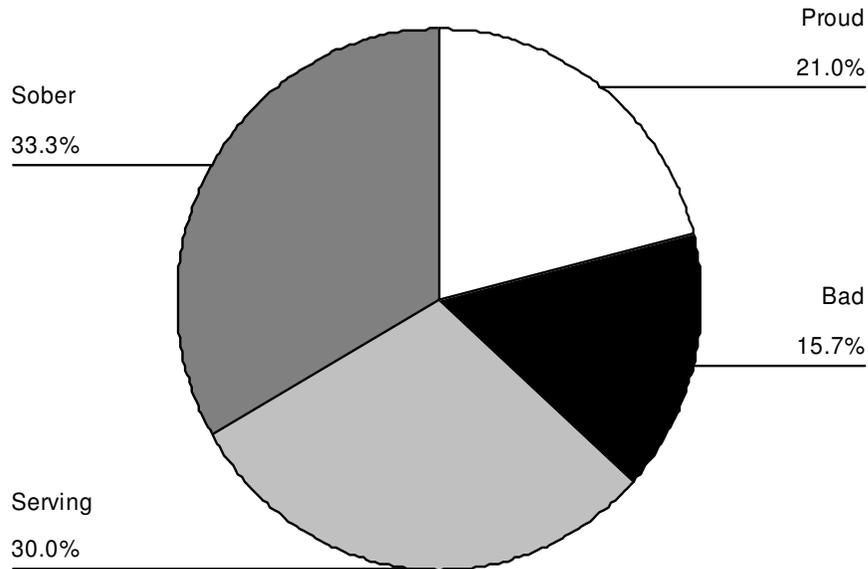


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to favourite dress. Uniform, 22.7%; civil dress, 60.0%; jogging suit, 7.3%; tee-shirt with jeans, 6.7%; and three-piece, 3.3%. Thus the majority of respondents prefer civil dress/ civvies.

TABLE 75

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY FEELINGS IN UNIFORM**

Feelings	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Proud	63	21.0	21.0
Bad	47	15.7	36.7
Serving	90	30.0	66.7
Sober	100	33.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

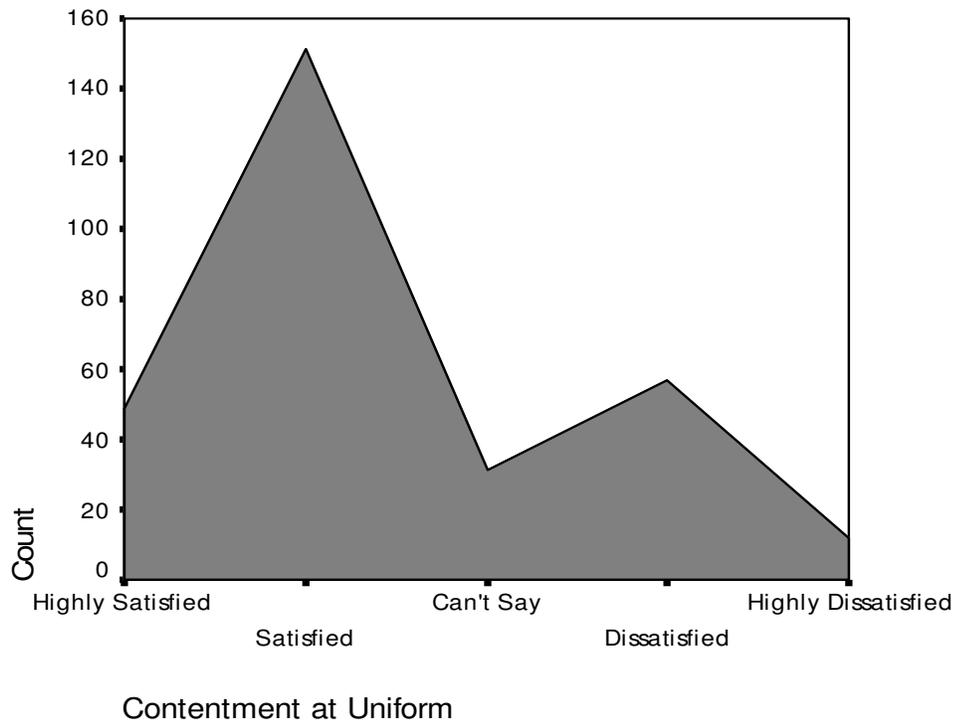


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to feelings in uniform. Proud, 21.0%; bad, 15.7%; serving, 30.0%; and sober, 33.3%. Hence it is ascribed that the majority of respondents feel sober and serving in police uniform.

TABLE 76

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION IN UNIFORM**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	49	16.3	16.3
Satisfied	151	50.3	66.7
Can't Say	31	10.3	77.0
Dissatisfied	57	19.0	96.0
Highly Dissatisfied	12	4.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

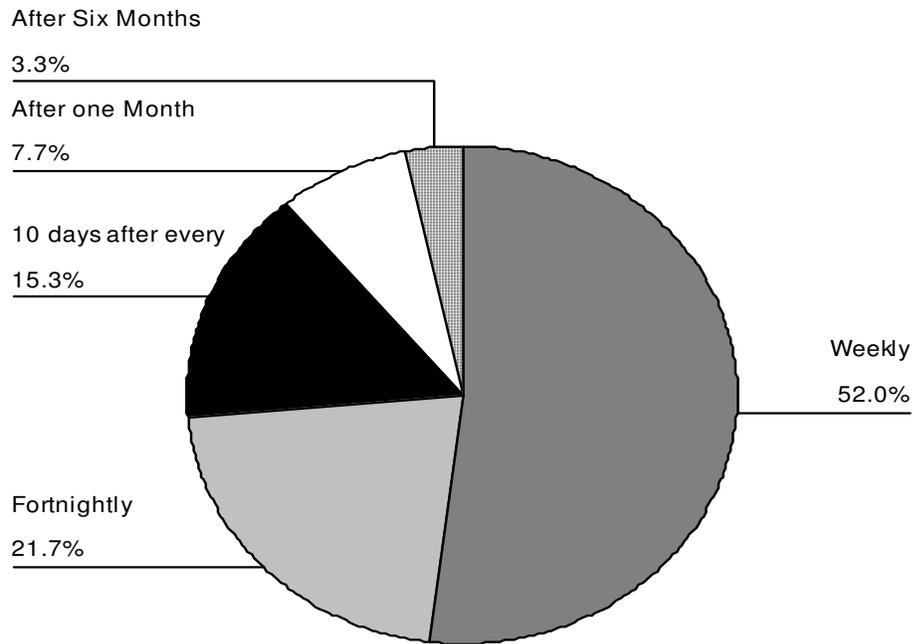


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the uniform. Highly satisfied, 16.3%; satisfied, 50.3%; can't say, 10.3%; dissatisfied, 19.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.0%. Hence it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied in the uniform.

TABLE 77

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY BETTER TYPE OF LEAVE**

Type of Leave	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Weekly	156	52.0	52.0
Fortnightly	65	21.7	73.7
10 days after every passing out	46	15.3	89.0
After one Month	23	7.7	96.7
After Six Months	10	3.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

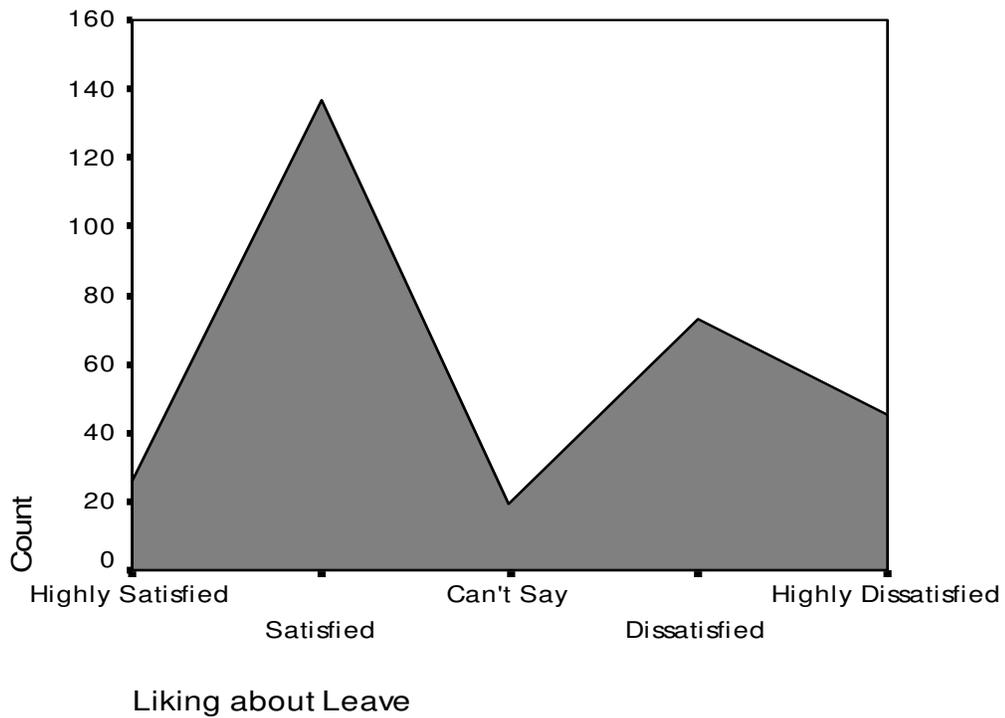


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to better type of leave. Weekly, 52.0%; fortnightly, 21.7%; 10 days after every passing out, 15.3%; after one month, 7.7%; and after 6 months, 3.3%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents take weekly leave as better one.

TABLE 78

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY LEAVE SATISFACTION**

Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	26	8.7	8.7
Satisfied	137	45.7	54.3
Can't Say	19	6.3	60.7
Dissatisfied	73	24.3	85.0
Highly Dissatisfied	45	15.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

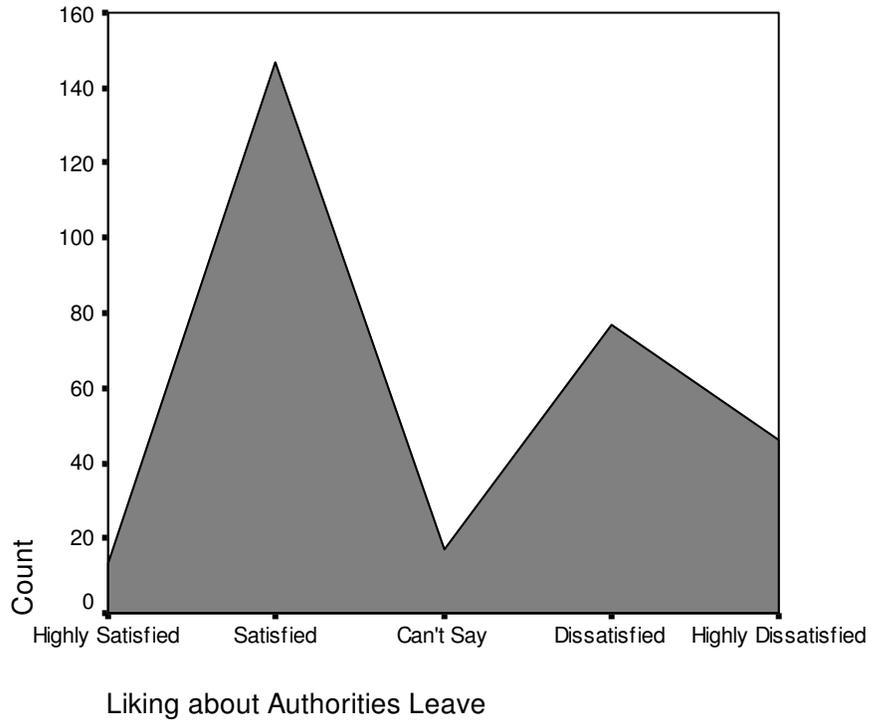


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the leave. Highly satisfied, 8.7%; satisfied, 45.7%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 24.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.0%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at leave.

TABLE 79

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY LIKING ABOUT AUTHORITIES OF LEAVE**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	147	49.0	53.3
Can't Say	17	5.7	59.0
Dissatisfied	77	25.7	84.7
Highly Dissatisfied	46	15.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

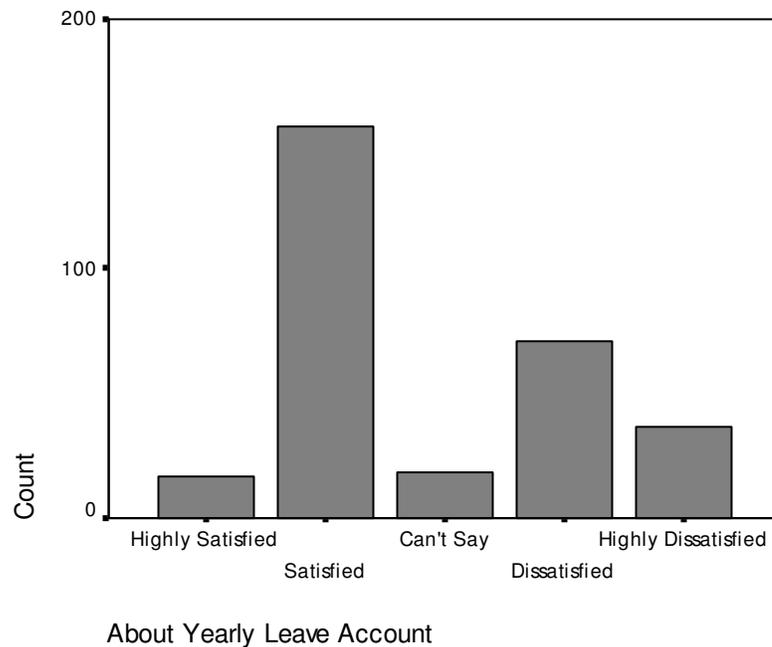


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at authorities leave. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 49.0%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at authorities leave.

TABLE 80

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY ABOUT YEARLY LEAVE ACCOUNT**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	17	5.7	5.7
Satisfied	157	52.3	58.0
Can't Say	18	6.0	64.0
Dissatisfied	71	23.7	87.7
Highly Dissatisfied	37	12.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

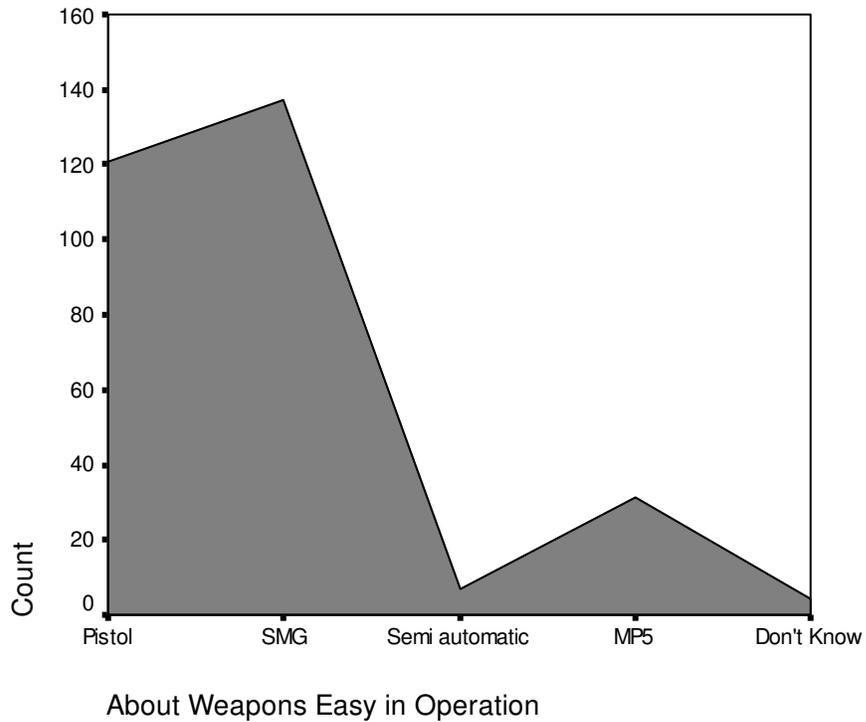


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the yearly leave account. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 52.3%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 23.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at the yearly leave account.

TABLE 81

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
ABOUT WEAPONS EASY IN OPERATION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Pistol	121	40.3	40.3
SMG	137	45.7	86.0
Semi automatic	7	2.3	88.3
MP5	31	10.3	98.7
Don't Know	4	1.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



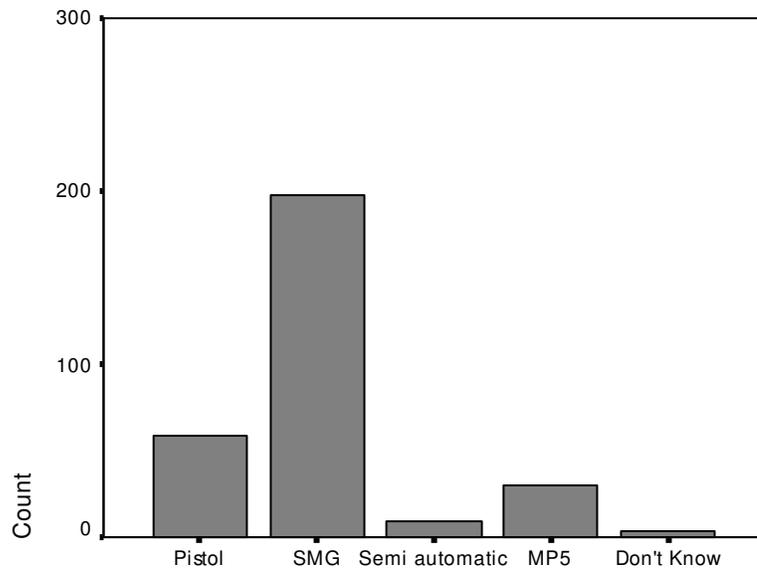
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the weapons easy in operation. Pistol, 40.3%; SMG, 45.7%; Semi automatic, 2.3%; MP5, 10.3%; and Don't Know, 1.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents found pistol and SMG as weapons easy in operation.

TABLE 82

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
WEAPON EASY IN ASSEMBLING**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Pistol	59	19.7	19.7
SMG	198	66.0	85.7
Semi automatic	9	3.0	88.7

MP5	30	10.0	98.7
Don't Know	4	1.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



About Weapon Easy in Assembling

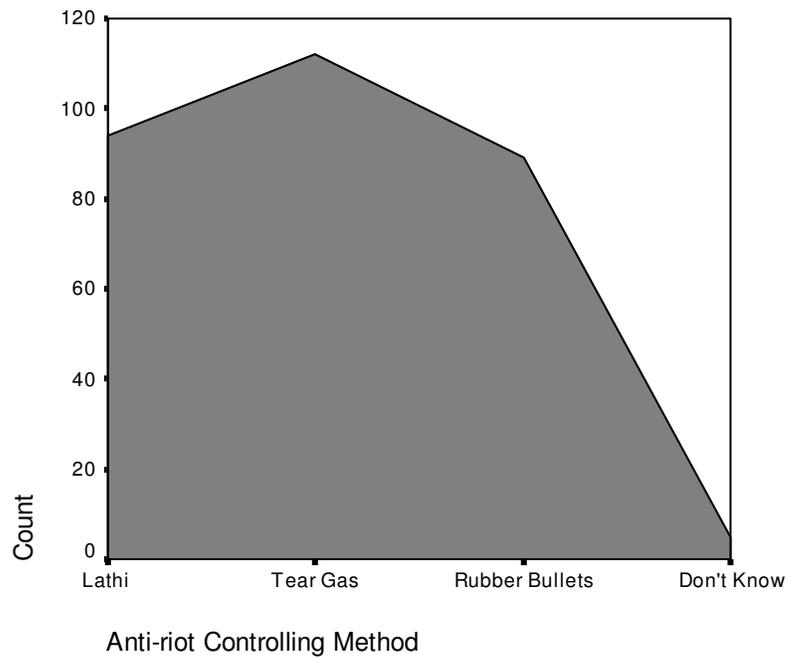
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the weapons easy in assembling. Pistol, 19.7%; SMG, 66.0%; Semi automatic, 3.0%; MP5, 10.0%; and Don't Know, 1.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents found SMG as weapon easy in assembling.

TABLE 83

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY ANTI-RIOT CONTROLLING METHOD**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Lathi	94	31.3	31.3
Tear Gas	112	37.3	68.7
Rubber Bullets	89	29.7	98.3
Don't Know	5	1.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

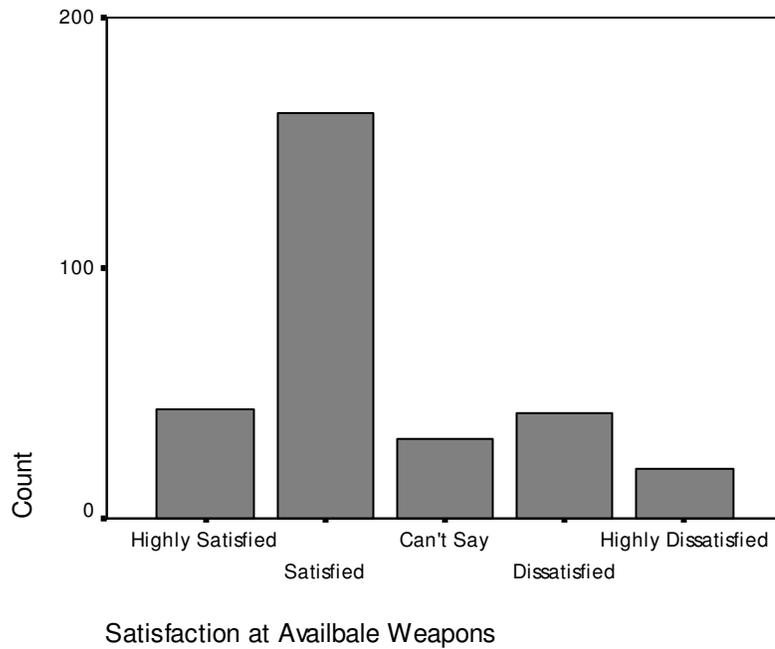


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the anti-riot controlling method. Lathi, 31.3%; tear gas, 37.3%; rubber bullets, 29.7%; and don't know, 1.7%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents considered Lathi, and tear gas as the method of controlling riots.

TABLE 84

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT AVAILABLE WEAPONS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	44	14.7	14.7
Satisfied	162	54.0	68.7
Can't Say	32	10.7	79.3
Dissatisfied	42	14.0	93.3
Highly Dissatisfied	20	6.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

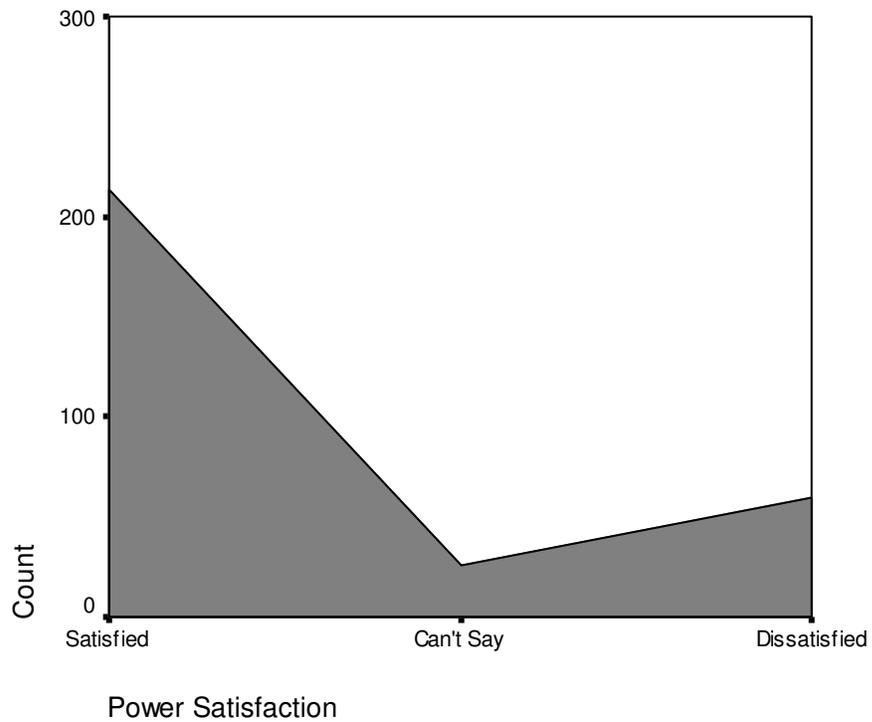


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at available weapons. Highly satisfied, 14.7%; satisfied, 54.0%; can't

say, 10.7%; dissatisfied, 14.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.7%. So it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at available weapons.

TABLE 85
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY POWER SATISFACTION

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Satisfied	214	71.3	71.3
Can't Say	26	8.7	80.0
Dissatisfied	60	20.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

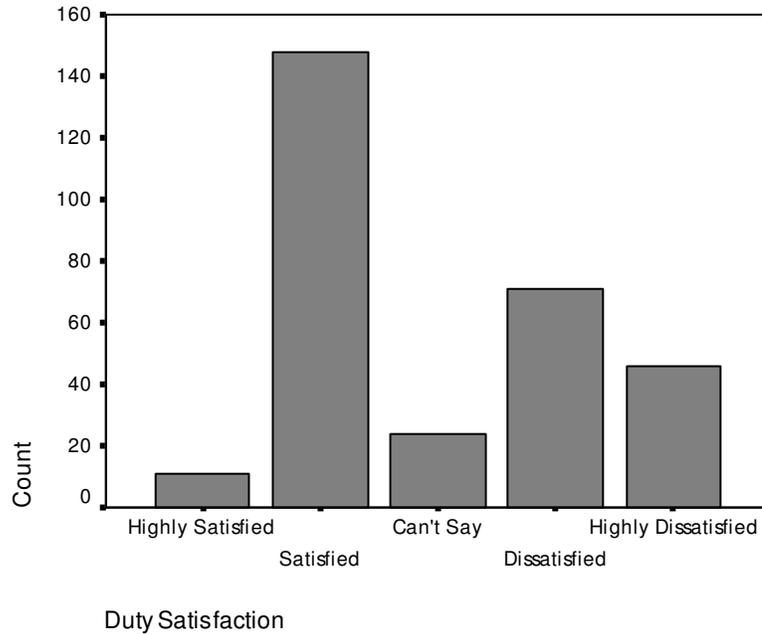


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the power satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 71.3%; can't say, 8.7%;, 6.3%; and dissatisfied, 20.0%. Therefore it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at power.

TABLE 86

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY DUTY SATISFACTION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	11	3.7	3.7
Satisfied	148	49.3	53.0
Can't Say	24	8.0	61.0
Dissatisfied	71	23.7	84.7
Highly Dissatisfied	46	15.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



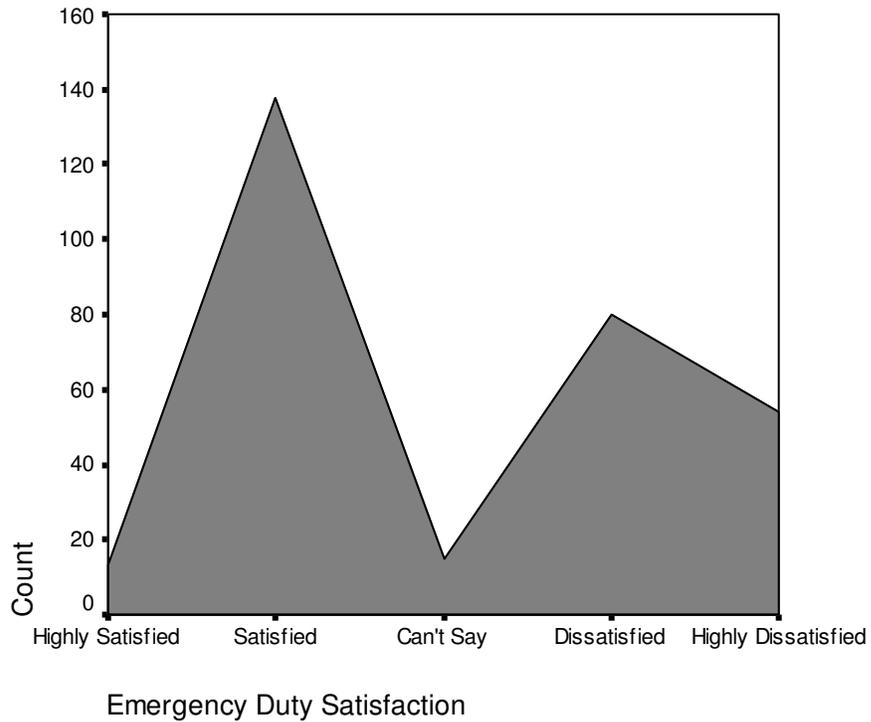
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the duty satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 3.7%; satisfied, 49.3%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 23.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at duty.

TABLE 87

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY EMERGENCY DUTY SATISFACTION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	138	46.0	50.3
Can't Say	15	5.0	55.3
Dissatisfied	80	26.7	82.0

Highly Dissatisfied	54	18.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



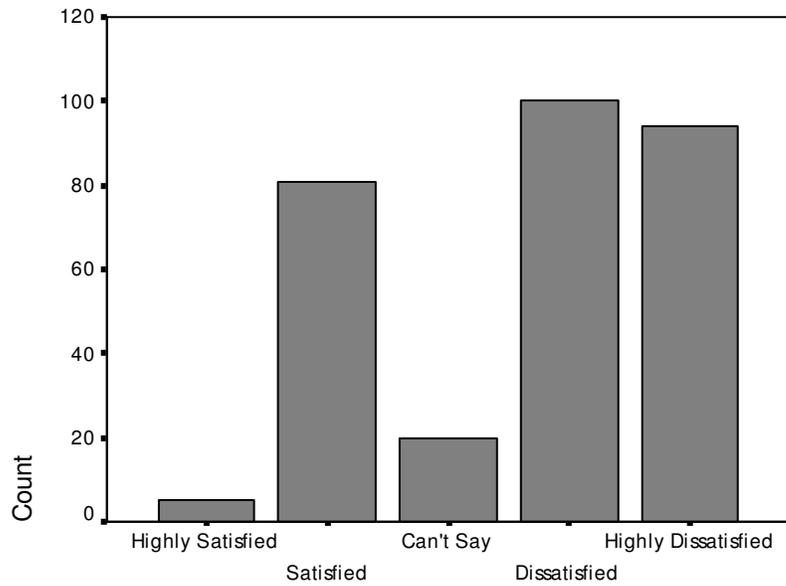
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the emergency duty satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 46.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 26.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.0%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at emergency duty.

TABLE 88

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION ABOUT OUT DUTIES DURING TRAINING

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	81	27.0	28.7
Can't Say	20	6.7	35.3
Dissatisfied	100	33.3	68.7
Highly Dissatisfied	94	31.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



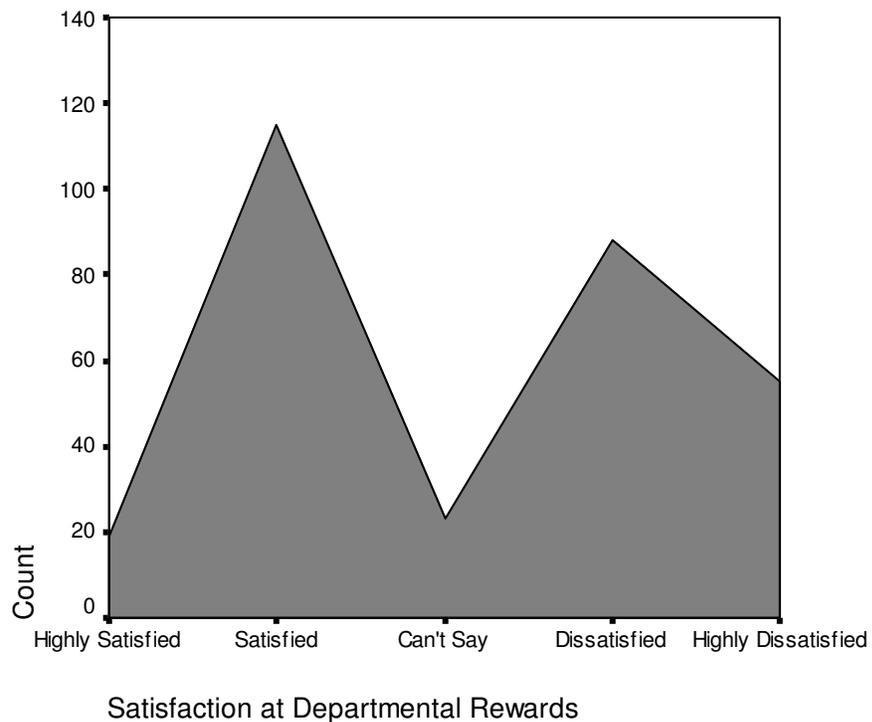
About Out Duties During Training

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the out duties during training. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 33.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 31.3%. Thus it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at out duties during training. It is to be stated that trainees sometimes are called urgently in case of emergency. As a result they mentally got disturbed.

TABLE 89

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL REWARDS

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	19	6.3	6.3
Satisfied	115	38.3	44.7
Can't Say	23	7.7	52.3
Dissatisfied	88	29.3	81.7
Highly Dissatisfied	55	18.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



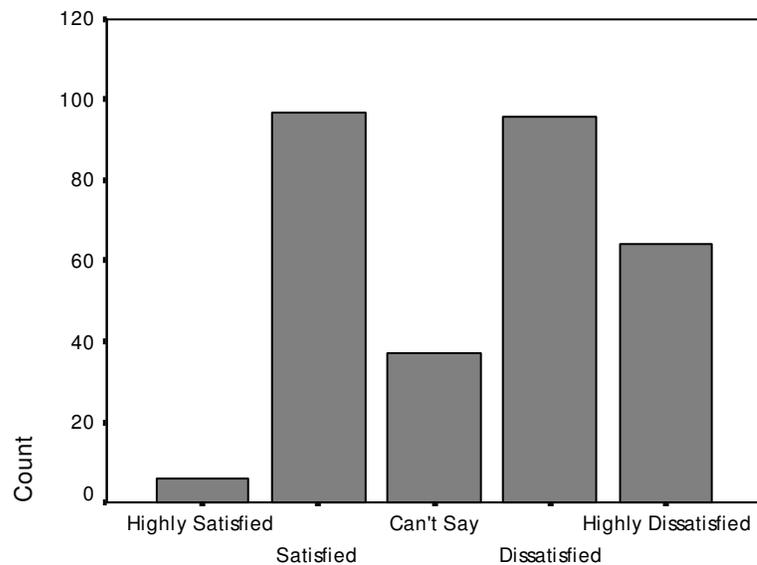
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental rewards. Highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 38.3%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 29.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.03%. Hence it is

stated that the majority of respondents were divided at departmental rewards. It is further affirmed that respondents considered those rewards unevenly distributed among the favourite recruits ignoring the real contesters.

TABLE 90

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL PUNISHMENT**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	6	2.0	2.0
Satisfied	97	32.3	34.3
Can't Say	37	12.3	46.7
Dissatisfied	96	32.0	78.7
Highly Dissatisfied	64	21.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



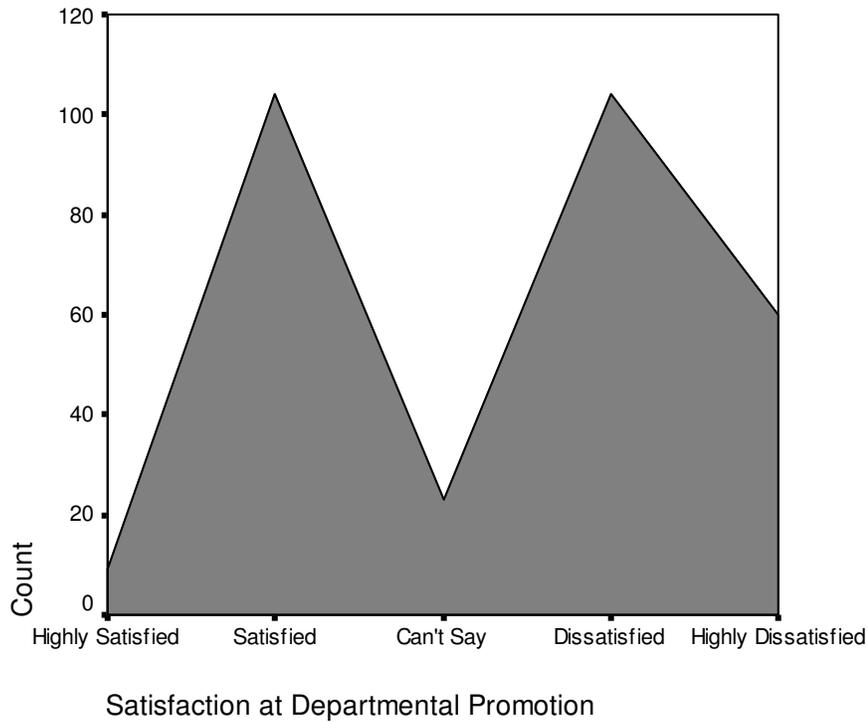
Satisfaction at Departmental Punishment

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental punishment. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 32.3%; can't say, 12.3%; dissatisfied, 32.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.03%. Therefore it is declared that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental punishments. It is further acknowledged that respondents considered those punishments unjustified for the reason that on many occasions innocent recruits are victimized.

TABLE 91

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL PROMOTION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	9	3.0	3.0
Satisfied	104	34.7	37.7
Can't Say	23	7.7	45.3
Dissatisfied	104	34.7	80.0
Highly Dissatisfied	60	20.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



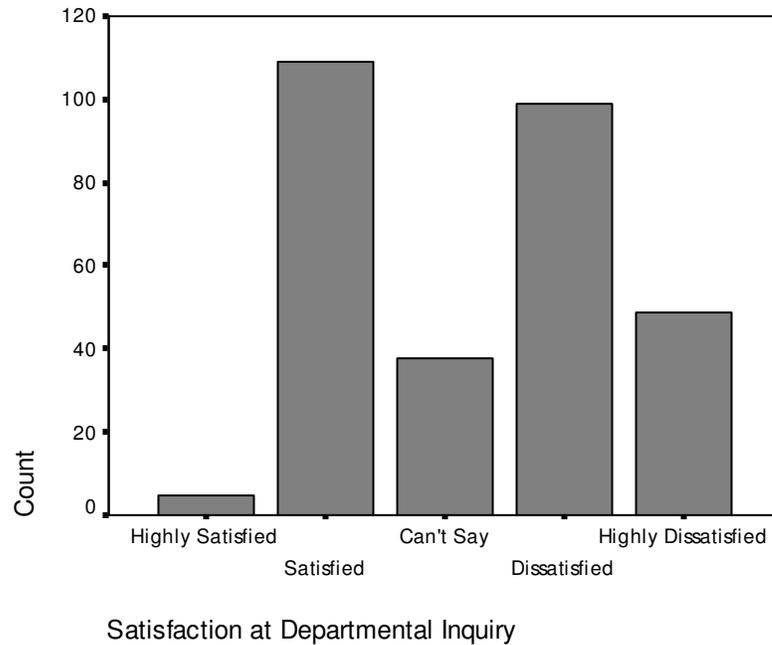
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental promotions. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 34.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental promotions. It is added that respondents considered those promotions unjustified due to favouritism.

TABLE 92

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL PROCEEDINGS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	109	36.3	38.0
Can't Say	38	12.7	50.7

Dissatisfied	99	33.0	83.7
Highly Dissatisfied	49	16.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

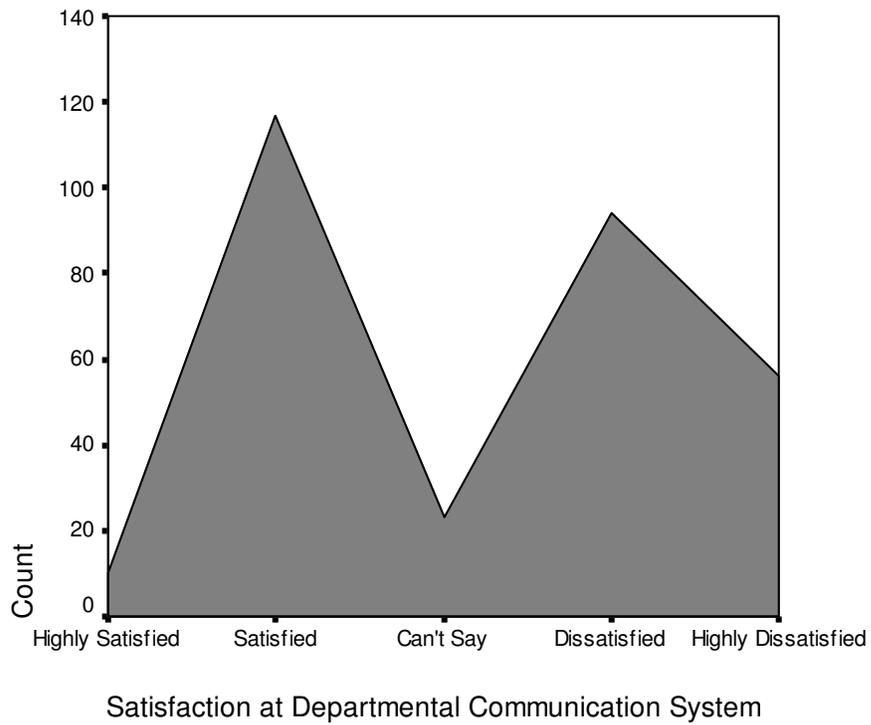


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental inquiry. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 36.3%; can't say, 12.7%; dissatisfied, 33.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 16.3%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at departmental inquiry.

TABLE 93

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL COMMUNICATION
SYSTEM**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	10	3.3	3.3
Satisfied	117	39.0	42.3
Can't Say	23	7.7	50.0
Dissatisfied	94	31.3	81.3
Highly Dissatisfied	56	18.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

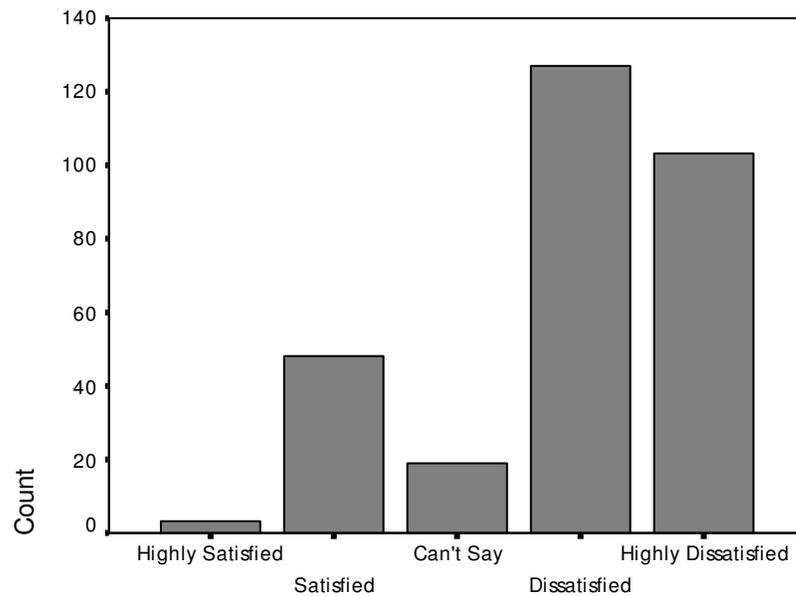


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the communication system. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 31.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.7%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at communication system.

TABLE 94

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL TRANSPORT SYSTEM**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	3	1.0	1.0
Satisfied	48	16.0	17.0
Can't Say	19	6.3	23.3
Dissatisfied	127	42.3	65.7
Highly Dissatisfied	103	34.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



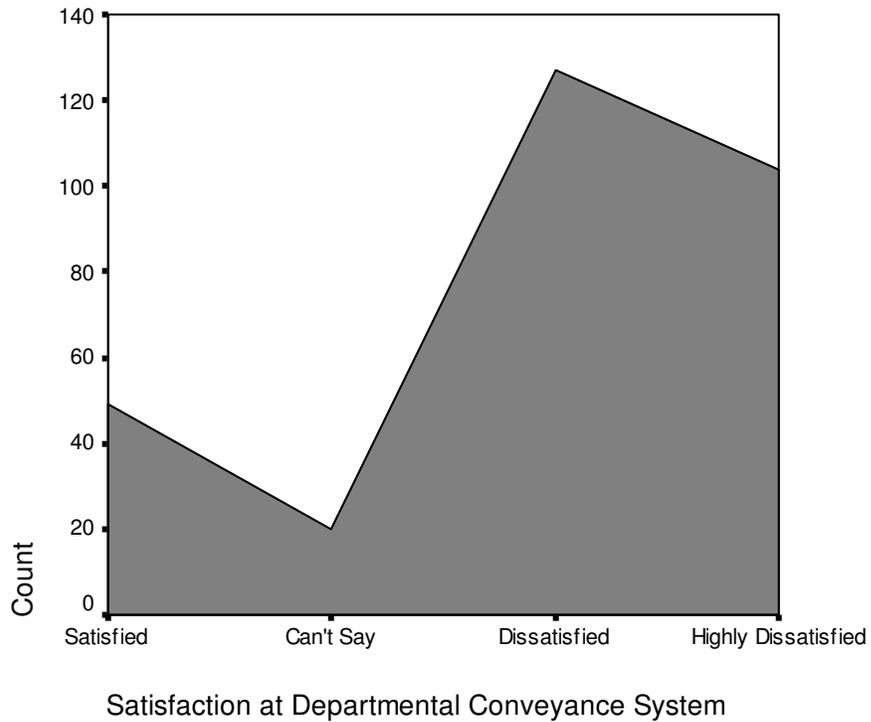
Satisfaction at Departmental Transport System

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental transport system. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied,

16.0%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 42.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 34.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were displeased at departmental transport system.

TABLE 95
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL CONVEYANCE
SYSTEM

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Satisfied	49	16.3	16.3
Can't Say	20	6.7	23.0
Dissatisfied	127	42.3	65.3
Highly Dissatisfied	104	34.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental conveyance system. Satisfied, 16.3%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 42.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 34.7%. Therefore it is stated that the majority of respondents were much displeased at departmental conveyance system.

TABLE 96
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL INVESTIGATION
SYSTEM

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	112	37.3	39.0
Can't Say	35	11.7	50.7

Dissatisfied	97	32.3	83.0
Highly Dissatisfied	51	17.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



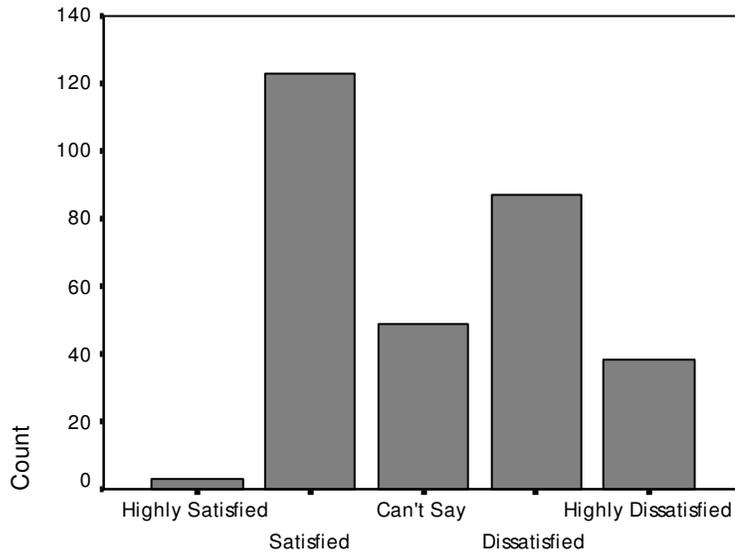
Satisfaction at Departmental Investigation System

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction departmental investigation system. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 37.3%; can't say, 11.7%; dissatisfied, 32.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion on departmental investigation system.

TABLE 97

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DEPARTMENTAL PROSECUTION
SYSTEM**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	3	1.0	1.0
Satisfied	123	41.0	42.0
Can't Say	49	16.3	58.3
Dissatisfied	87	29.0	87.3
Highly Dissatisfied	38	12.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



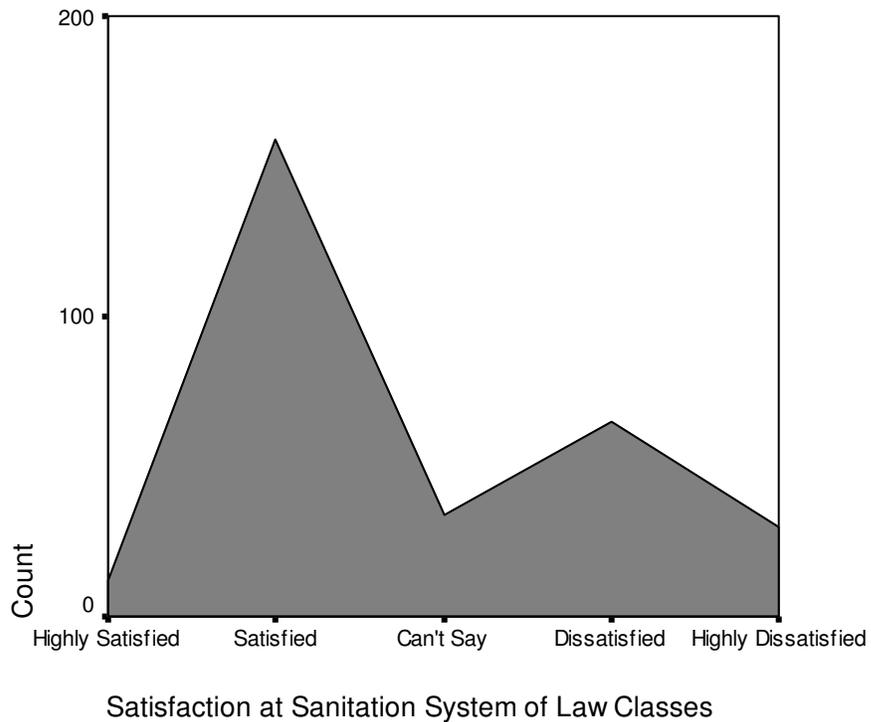
Satisfaction at Departmental Prosecution System

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction departmental prosecution system. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied, 41.0%; can't say, 16.3%; dissatisfied, 29.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.7%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion on departmental prosecution system.

TABLE 98

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION SYSTEM OF LAW CLASSES**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	12	4.0	4.0
Satisfied	159	53.0	57.0
Can't Say	34	11.3	68.3
Dissatisfied	65	21.7	90.0
Highly Dissatisfied	30	10.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



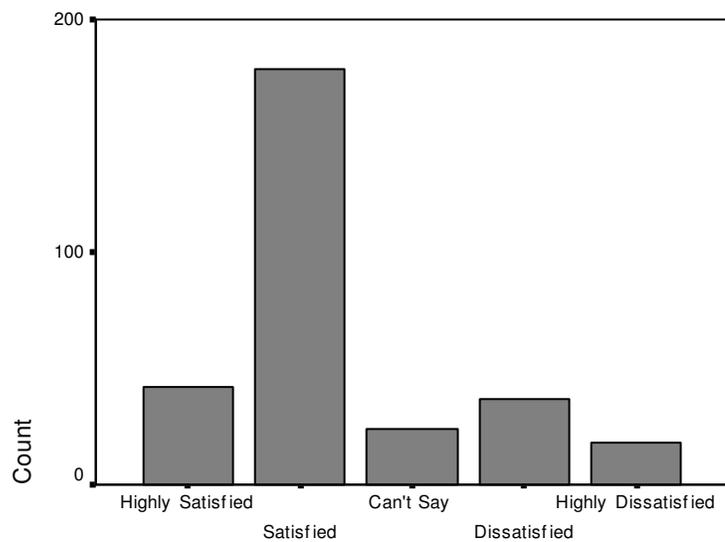
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of law classes. Highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied,

53.0%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 21.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of law classes.

TABLE 99

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION BLOCK

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	42	14.0	14.0
Satisfied	179	59.7	73.7
Can't Say	24	8.0	81.7
Dissatisfied	37	12.3	94.0
Highly Dissatisfied	18	6.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



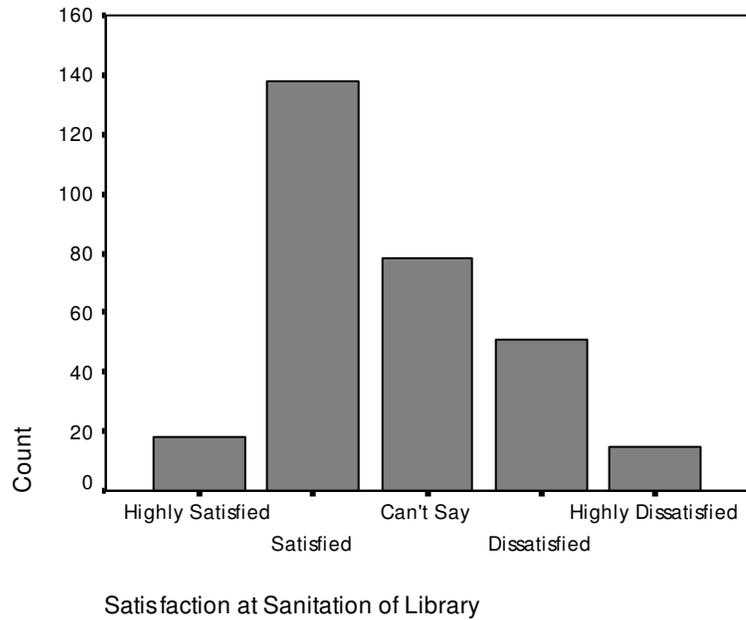
Satisfaction at Sanitation System of Administration Block

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of administrative block. Highly satisfied, 14.0%; satisfied, 59.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of administrative block.

TABLE 100

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF LIBRARY**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	18	6.0	6.0
Satisfied	138	46.0	52.0
Can't Say	78	26.0	78.0
Dissatisfied	51	17.0	95.0
Highly Dissatisfied	15	5.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



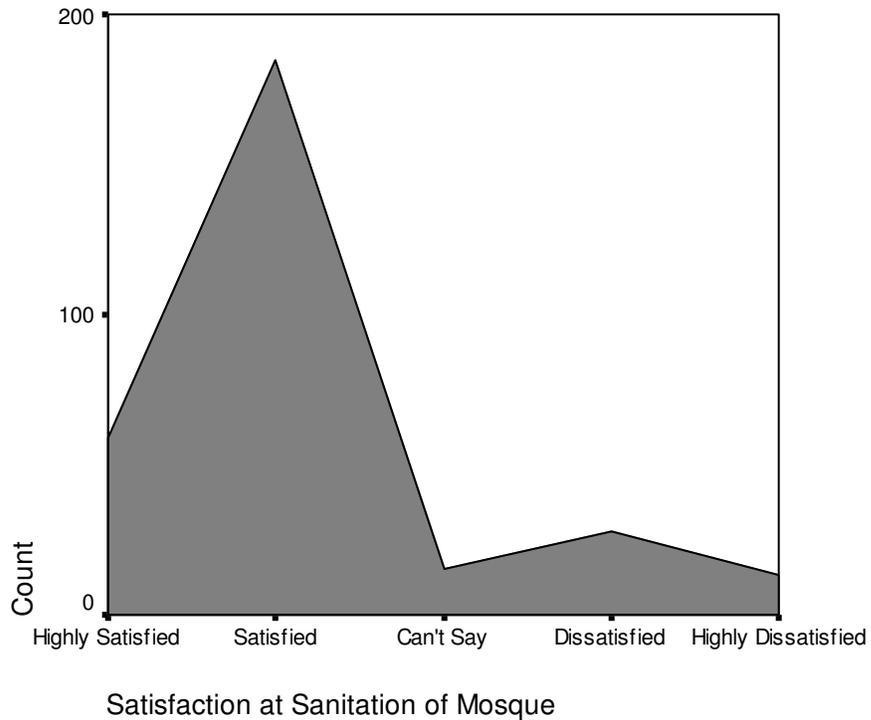
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of library. Highly satisfied, 6.0%; satisfied, 46.0%; can't say, 26.0%; dissatisfied, 17.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of library.

TABLE 101

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF MOSQUE**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	59	19.7	19.7
Satisfied	185	61.7	81.3
Can't Say	15	5.0	86.3

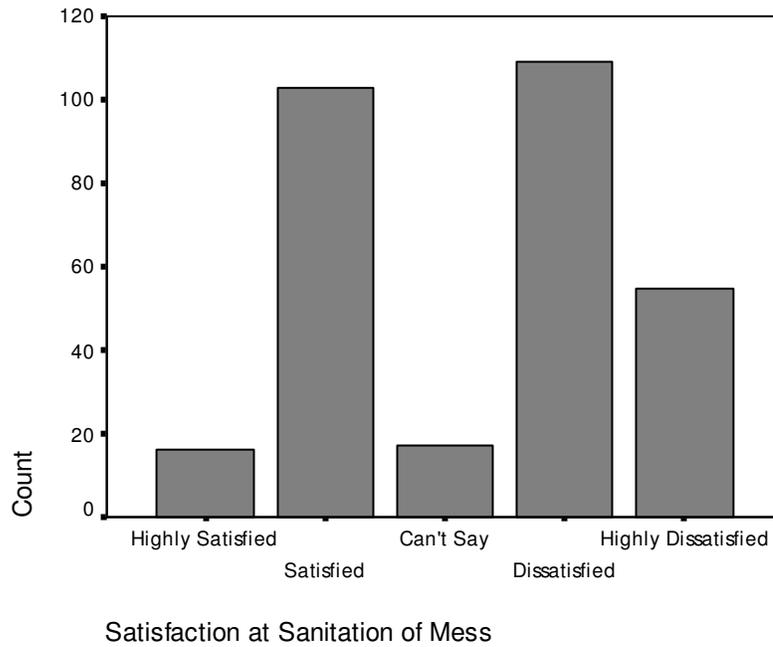
Dissatisfied	28	9.3	95.7
Highly Dissatisfied	13	4.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of mosque. Highly satisfied, 19.7%; satisfied, 61.7%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 9.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.3%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of mosque.

TABLE 102
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF MESS

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	16	5.3	5.3
Satisfied	103	34.3	39.7
Can't Say	17	5.7	45.3
Dissatisfied	109	36.3	81.7
Highly Dissatisfied	55	18.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

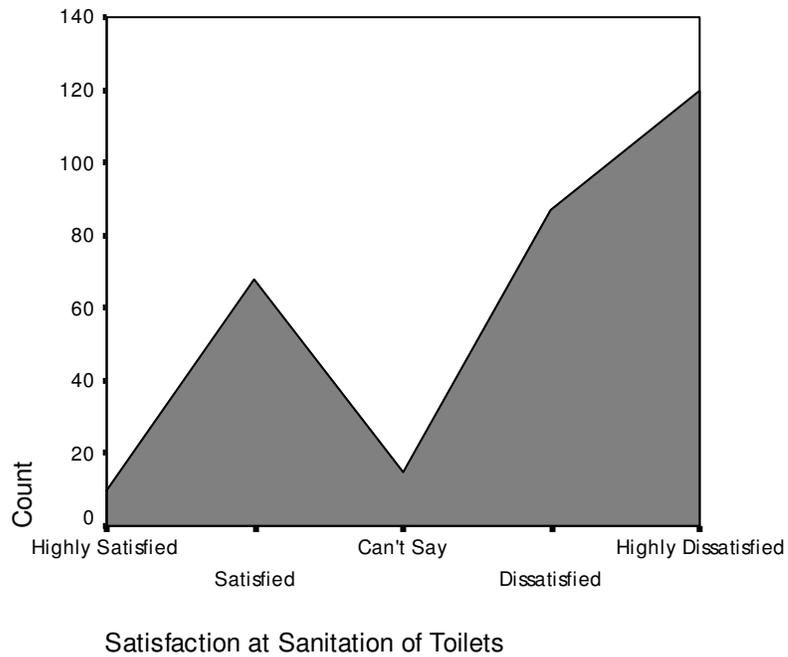


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of mess. Highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 36.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.3%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were found unhappy at sanitation system of mess.

TABLE 103

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF TOILETS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	10	3.3	3.3
Satisfied	68	22.7	26.0
Can't Say	15	5.0	31.0
Dissatisfied	87	29.0	60.0
Highly Dissatisfied	120	40.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



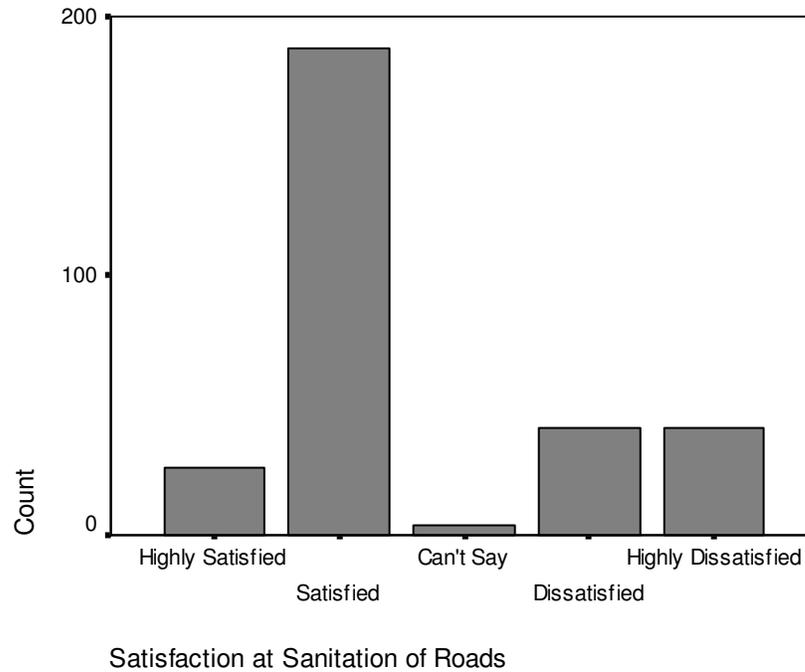
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of toilets. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 22.7%;

can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 40.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found unhappy at sanitation system of toilets.

TABLE 104

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF ROADS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	26	8.7	8.7
Satisfied	188	62.7	71.3
Can't Say	4	1.3	72.7
Dissatisfied	41	13.7	86.3
Highly Dissatisfied	41	13.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



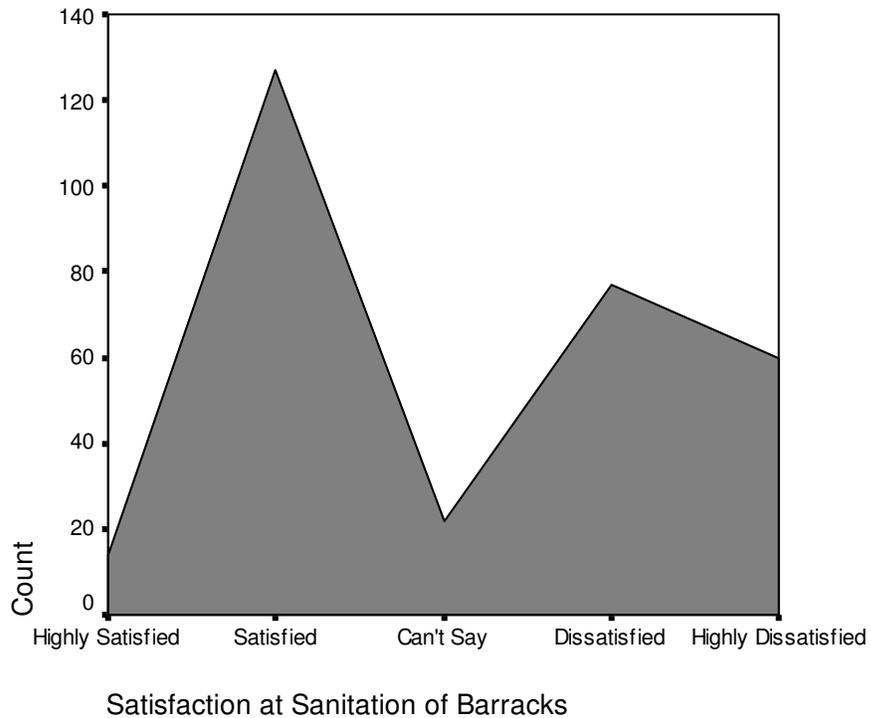
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of roads. Highly satisfied, 8.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 1.3%; dissatisfied, 13.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 13.7%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found happy at sanitation of roads.

TABLE 105

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF BARRACKS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	14	4.7	4.7
Satisfied	127	42.3	47.0
Can't Say	22	7.3	54.3

Dissatisfied	77	25.7	80.0
Highly Dissatisfied	60	20.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

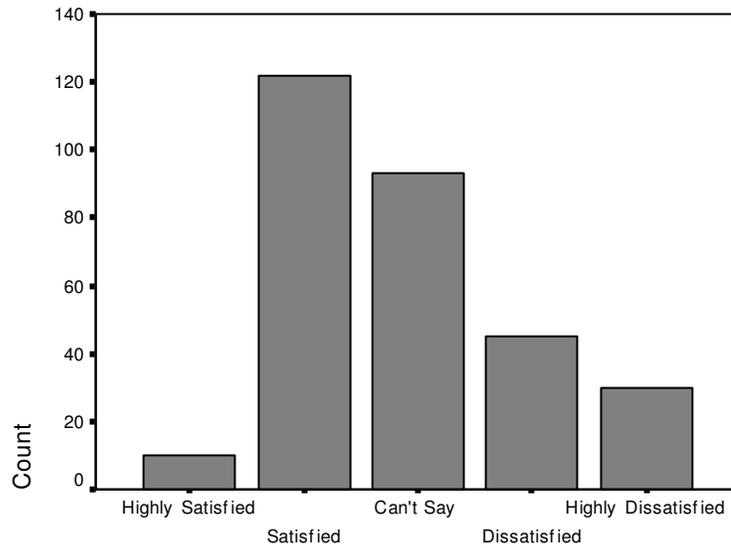


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of barracks. Highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied, 42.3%; can't say, 7.3%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at sanitation of barracks.

TABLE 106

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY
SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF FAMILY QUARTERS IN
PTCs**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	10	3.3	3.3
Satisfied	122	40.7	44.0
Can't Say	93	31.0	75.0
Dissatisfied	45	15.0	90.0
Highly Dissatisfied	30	10.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



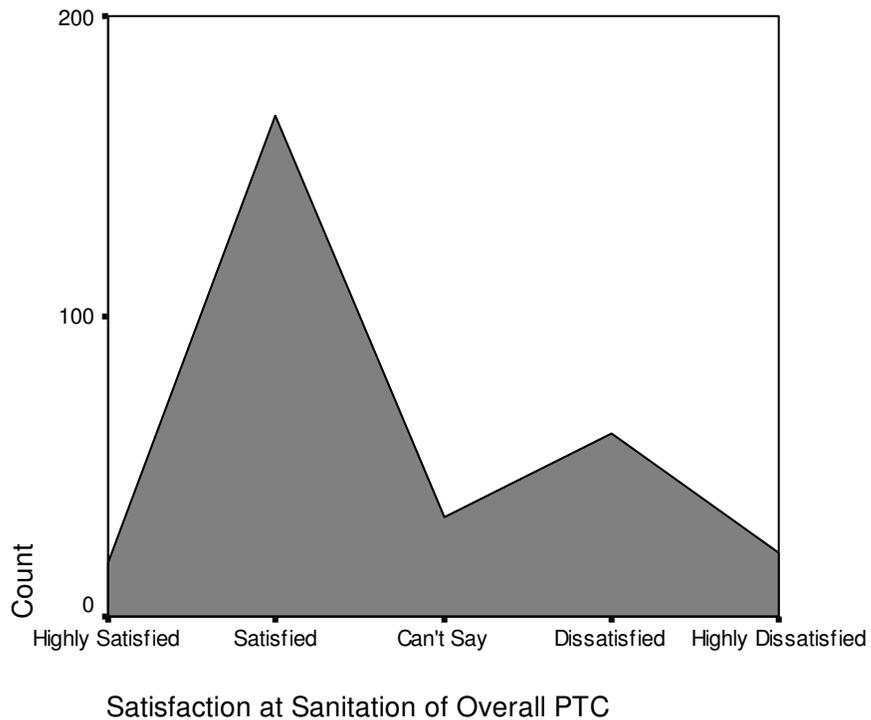
Satisfaction at Sanitation of Family Quarters in PTC

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of family quarters. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 40.7%; can't say, 31.0%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at sanitation of family quarters.

TABLE 107

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SANITATION OF OVER ALL PTCs**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	18	6.0	6.0
Satisfied	167	55.7	61.7
Can't Say	33	11.0	72.7
Dissatisfied	61	20.3	93.0
Highly Dissatisfied	21	7.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



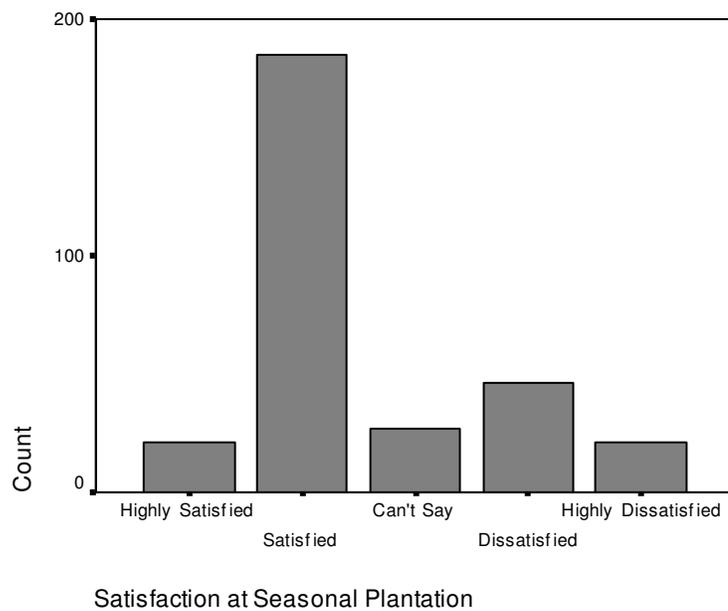
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of overall PTC. Highly satisfied, 6.0%; satisfied, 55.7%;

can't say, 11.0%; dissatisfied, 20.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were happy at sanitation of overall PTC.

TABLE 108

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SEASONAL PLANTATION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	21	7.0	7.0
Satisfied	185	61.7	68.7
Can't Say	27	9.0	77.7
Dissatisfied	46	15.3	93.0
Highly Dissatisfied	21	7.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

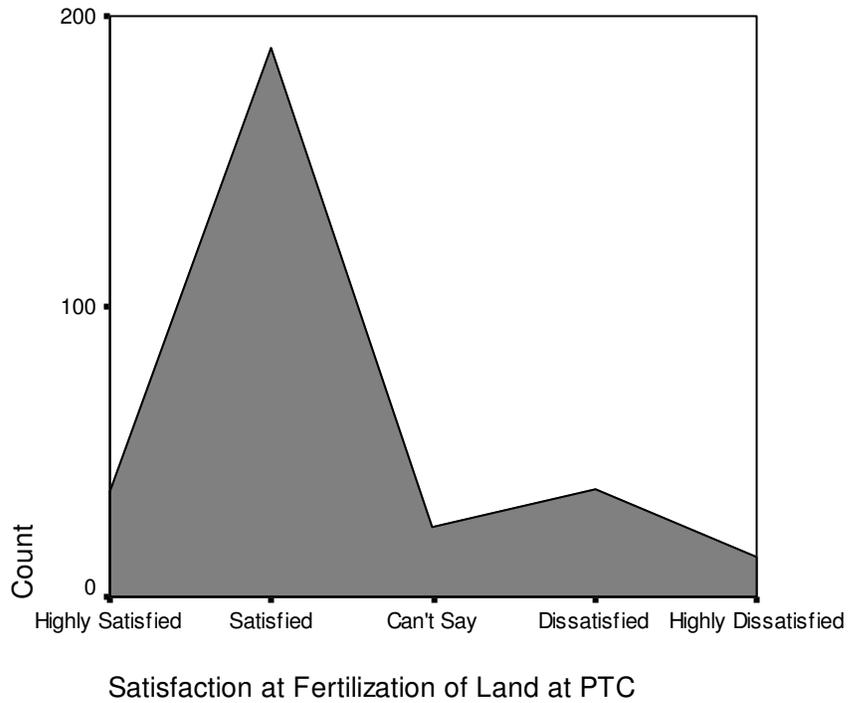


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at seasonal plantation. Highly satisfied, 7.0%; satisfied, 61.7%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 15.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were pleased at seasonal plantation.

TABLE 109

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT FERTILIZATION OF LAND AT PTCs**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	36	12.0	12.0
Satisfied	189	63.0	75.0
Can't Say	24	8.0	83.0
Dissatisfied	37	12.3	95.3
Highly Dissatisfied	14	4.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at fertilization of land at PTC. Highly satisfied, 12.0%; satisfied, 63.0%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.7%. Thus it is acknowledged that the vast majority of respondents were delighted at fertilization of land at PTC.

TABLE 110

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SITE OF MOSQUE**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	63	21.0	21.0
Satisfied	209	69.7	90.7
Can't Say	9	3.0	93.7

Dissatisfied	16	5.3	99.0
Highly Dissatisfied	3	1.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

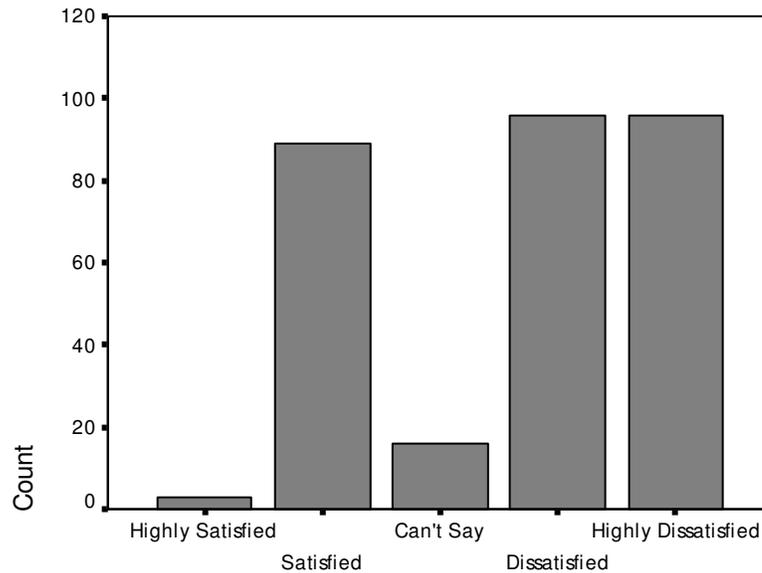


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at site of mosque. Highly satisfied, 21.0%; satisfied, 69.3%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 5.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.0%. Accordingly it is accredited that the almost all of respondents were pleased at site of mosque.

TABLE 111

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT WATER SUPPLY SYSTEM**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	3	1.0	1.0
Satisfied	89	29.7	30.7
Can't Say	16	5.3	36.0
Dissatisfied	96	32.0	68.0
Highly Dissatisfied	96	32.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



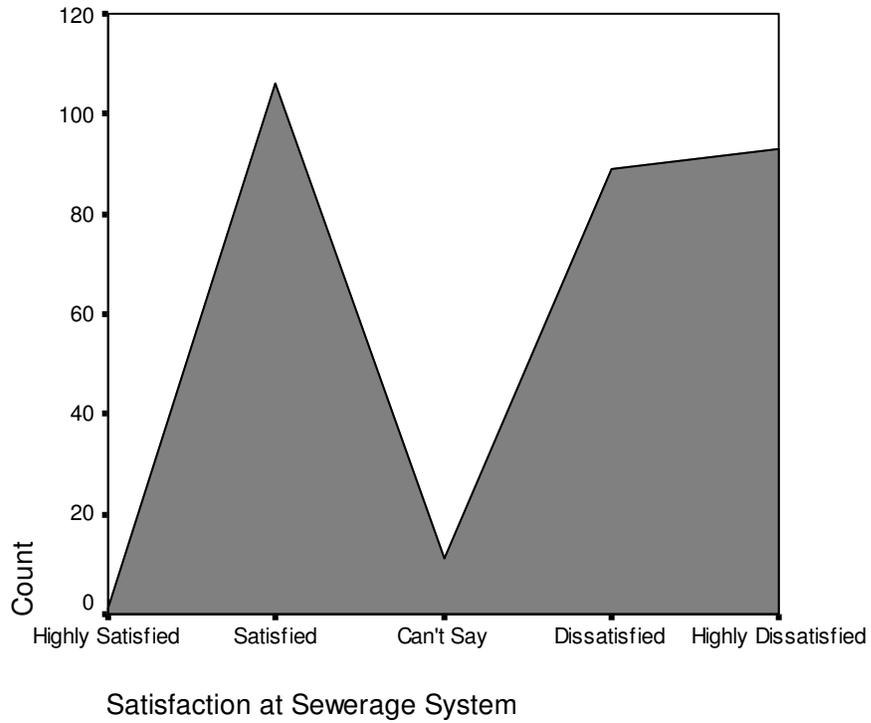
Satisfaction at Water Supply System

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at water supply system at PTC. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied, 29.7%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 32.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 32.0%. Accordingly it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were unhappy at water supply system at PTC.

TABLE 112

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SEWERAGE SYSTEM**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	1	0.3	.3
Satisfied	106	35.3	35.7
Can't Say	11	3.7	39.3
Dissatisfied	89	29.7	69.0
Highly Dissatisfied	93	31.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

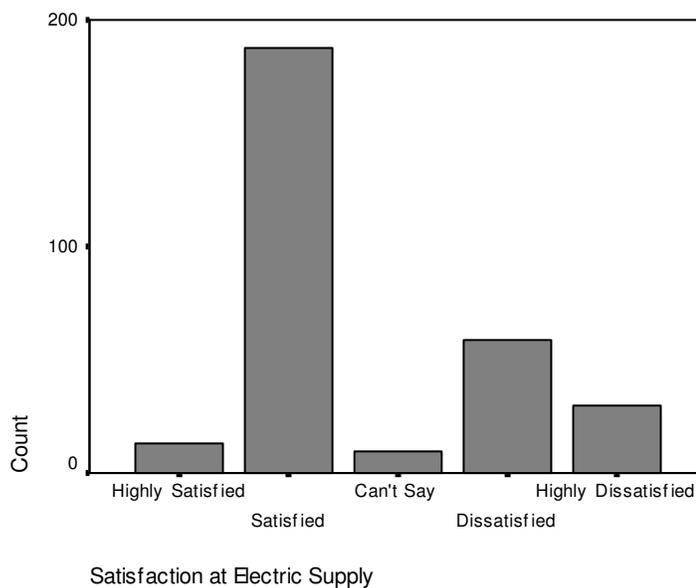


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sewerage system at PTC. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 35.3%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 31.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were unhappy at sewerage system at PTC.

TABLE 113

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT ELECTRIC SUPPLY**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	188	62.7	67.0
Can't Say	10	3.3	70.3
Dissatisfied	59	19.7	90.0
Highly Dissatisfied	30	10.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

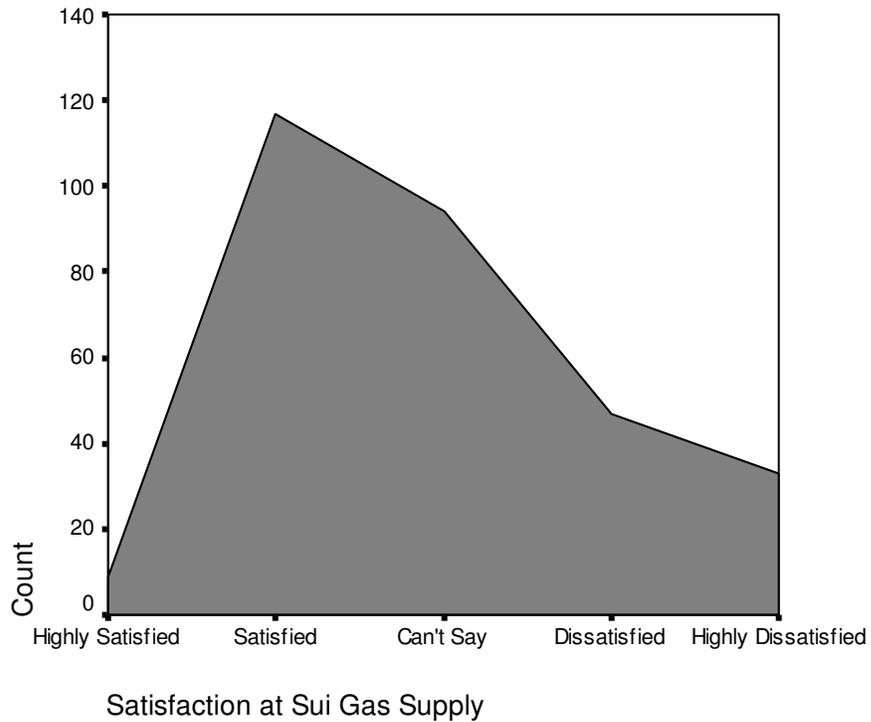


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at electric supply system at PTC. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 3.3%; dissatisfied, 19.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were happy at electric supply system at PTC.

TABLE 114

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT SUI GAS SUPPLY**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	9	3.0	3.0
Satisfied	117	39.0	42.0
Can't Say	94	31.3	73.3
Dissatisfied	47	15.7	89.0
Highly Dissatisfied	33	11.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



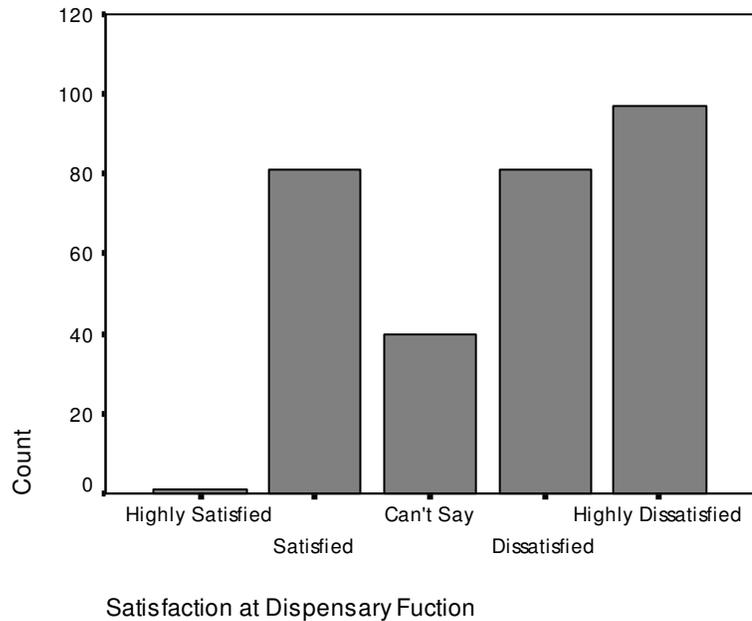
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sui gas supply system at PTC. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say, 31.3%; dissatisfied, 15.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the bulk of respondents had mixed reaction at sui gas supply system at PTC.

TABLE 115

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT DISPENSARY FUNCTION**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	1	0.3	.3
Satisfied	81	27.0	27.3
Can't Say	40	13.3	40.7

Dissatisfied	81	27.0	67.7
Highly Dissatisfied	97	32.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

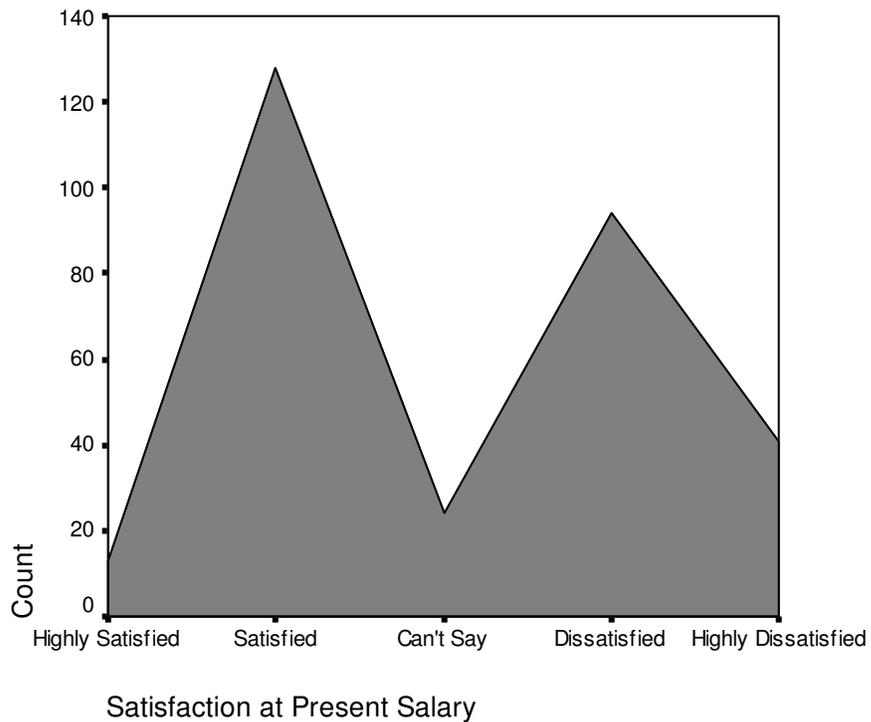


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at function of dispensary at PTC. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't say, 13.3%; dissatisfied, 27.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 32.3%. Thus it is mentioned that the bulk of respondents were dissatisfied at the function of dispensaries at PTCs.

TABLE 116

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PRESENT SALARY**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	13	4.3	4.3
Satisfied	128	42.7	47.0
Can't Say	24	8.0	55.0
Dissatisfied	94	31.3	86.3
Highly Dissatisfied	41	13.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

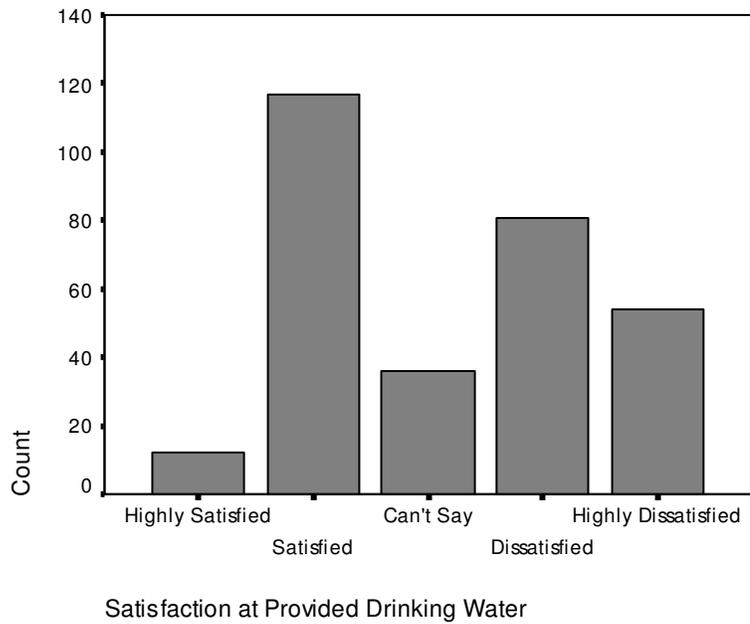


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at present salary. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 42.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 31.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 13.7%. Consequently it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the present salary.

TABLE 117

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT PROVIDED DRINKING WATER**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	12	4.0	4.0
Satisfied	117	39.0	43.0
Can't Say	36	12.0	55.0
Dissatisfied	81	27.0	82.0
Highly Dissatisfied	54	18.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



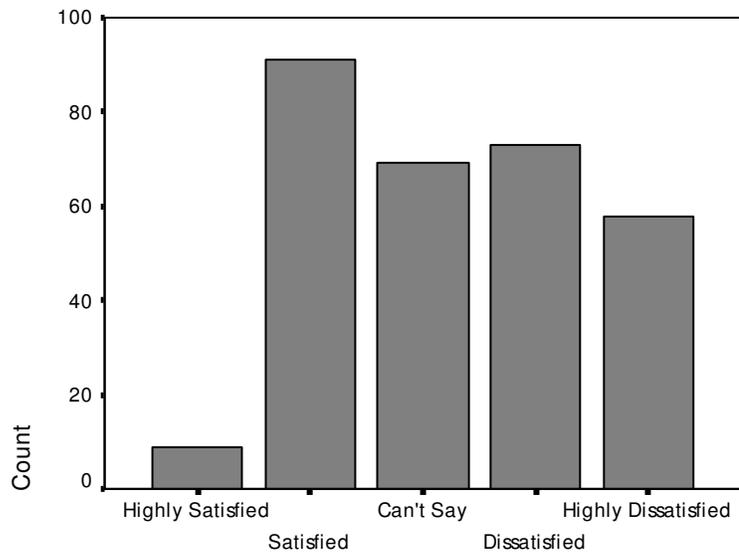
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at drinking water. Highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say,

12.0%; dissatisfied, 27.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.0%. Consequently it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the drinking water.

TABLE 118

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE UTILITY OF COMPUTER LAB**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	9	3.0	3.0
Satisfied	91	30.3	33.3
Can't Say	69	23.0	56.3
Dissatisfied	73	24.3	80.7
Highly Dissatisfied	58	19.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



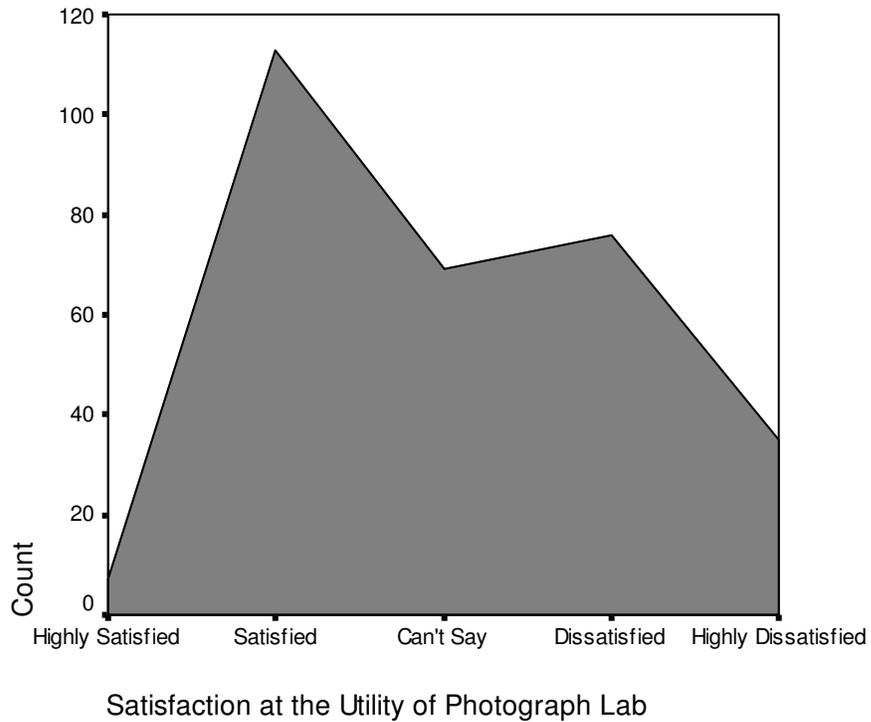
Satisfaction at the Utility of Computer Lab

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the utility of computer laboratory. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 30.0%; can't say, 23.0%; dissatisfied, 24.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 19.3%. Consequently it is acknowledged that the respondents had mixed response at the utility of computer laboratory.

TABLE 119

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE UTILITY OF PHOTOGRAPH LAB**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	7	2.3	2.3
Satisfied	113	37.7	40.0
Can't Say	69	23.0	63.0
Dissatisfied	76	25.3	88.3
Highly Dissatisfied	35	11.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



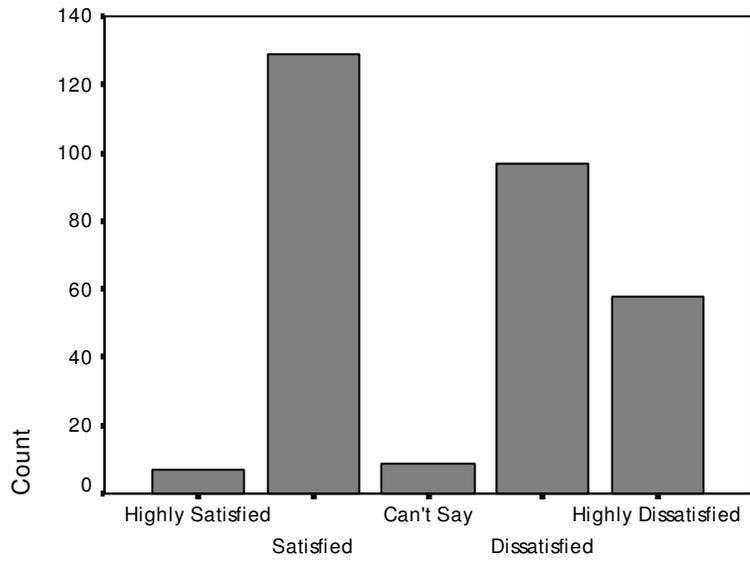
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the utility of photograph laboratory. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 37.7%; can't say, 23.0%; dissatisfied, 25.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the respondents were satisfied at the utility of photograph laboratories at PTCs.

TABLE 120

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE FUNCTION OF REGIMENTAL SHOP**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	7	2.3	2.3
Satisfied	129	43.0	45.3
Can't Say	9	3.0	48.3

Dissatisfied	97	32.3	80.7
Highly Dissatisfied	58	19.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



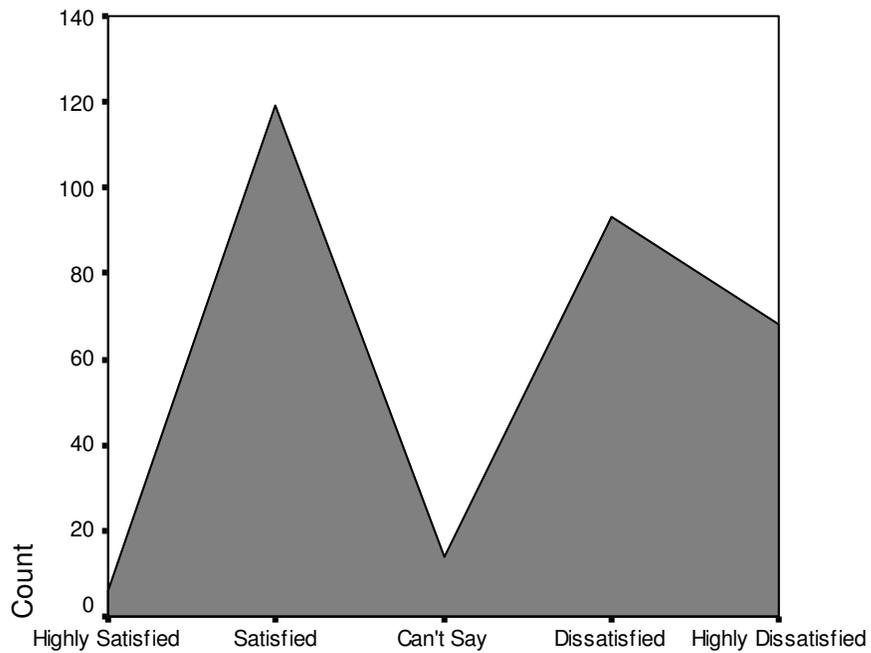
Satisfaction at the Function of Regimental Shop

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of regimental shop. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 43.0%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 32.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 19.3%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the function of regimental shop.

TABLE 121

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SATISFACTION AT THE FUNCTION OF LAUNDRY

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	6	2.0	2.0
Satisfied	119	39.7	41.7
Can't Say	14	4.7	46.3
Dissatisfied	93	31.0	77.3
Highly Dissatisfied	68	22.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



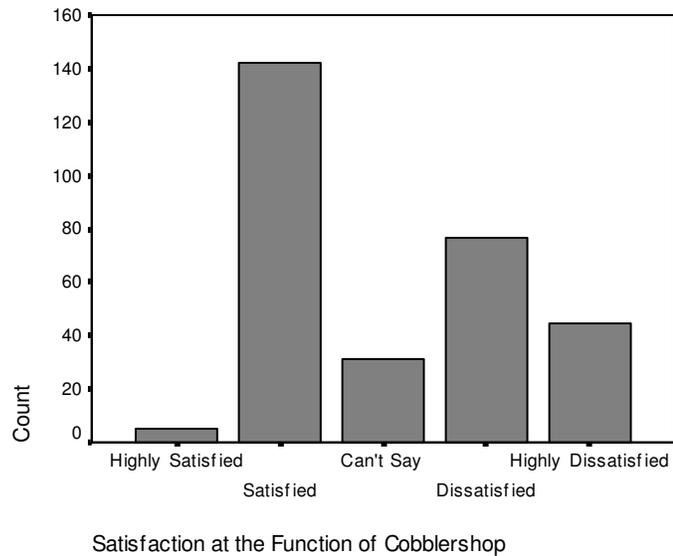
Satisfaction at the Function of Laundry

The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of laundry. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 39.7%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 31.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 22.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the respondents were dissatisfied at the function of laundry.

TABLE 122

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE FUNCTION OF COBBLER SHOP**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	5	1.7	1.7
Satisfied	142	47.3	49.0
Can't Say	31	10.3	59.3
Dissatisfied	77	25.7	85.0
Highly Dissatisfied	45	15.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



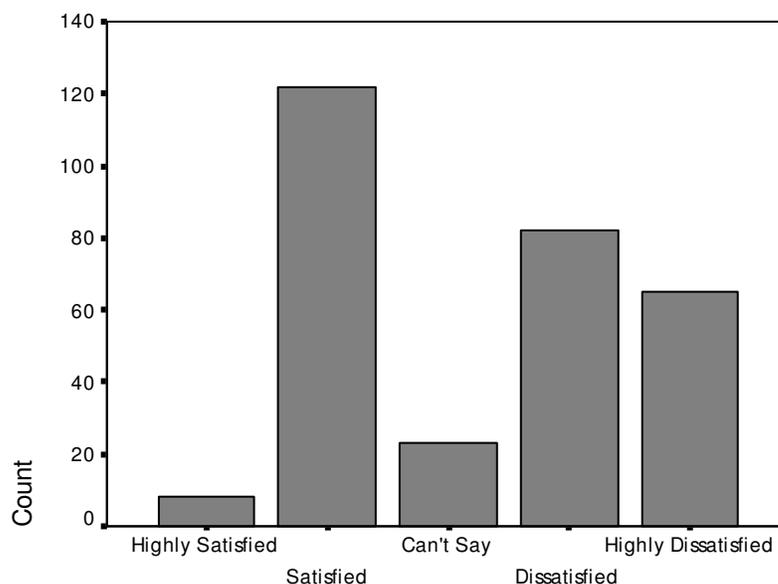
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of cobbler shop. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 47.3%; can't say, 10.3%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.0%.

Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the function of cobbler shop.

TABLE 123

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE TELEPHONE FACILITY**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	8	2.7	2.7
Satisfied	122	40.7	43.3
Can't Say	23	7.7	51.0
Dissatisfied	82	27.3	78.3
Highly Dissatisfied	65	21.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



Satisfaction at the Telephone Facility

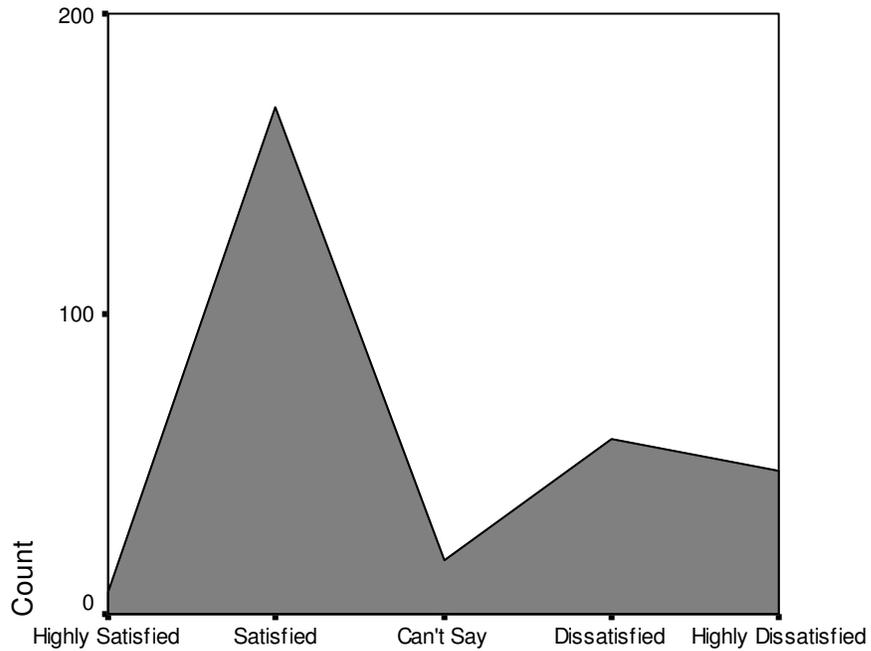
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the telephone facility. Highly satisfied, 2.7%; satisfied, 40.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 27.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.7%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the telephone facility.

TABLE 124

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SATISFACTION AT THE FUNCTION OF BARBERSHOP**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highly Satisfied	7	2.3	2.3
Satisfied	169	56.3	58.7
Can't Say	18	6.0	64.7

Dissatisfied	58	19.3	84.0
Highly Dissatisfied	48	16.0	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



Satisfaction at the Function of Barbershop

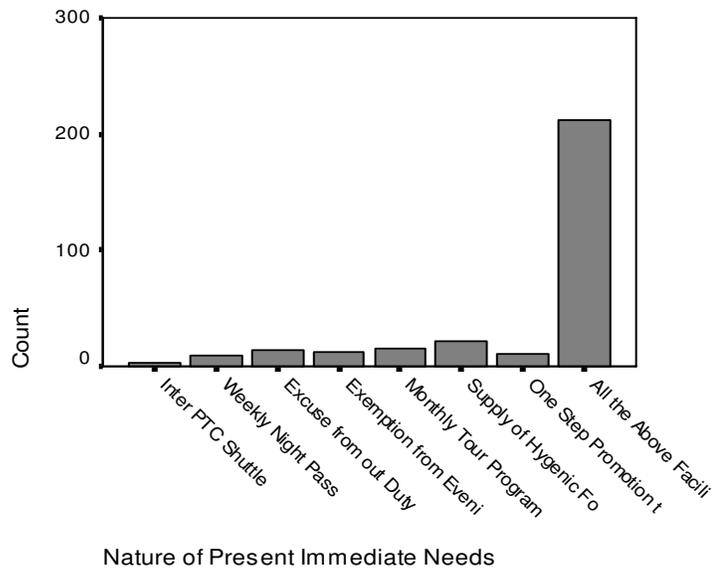
The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of barbershop. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 56.3%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 19.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 16.0%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents were happy at the function of barbershop.

TABLE 125

**FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY NATURE OF PRESENT IMMEDIATE NEEDS**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Inter PTC Shuttle	3	1.0	1.0
Weekly Night Pass	10	3.3	4.3
Excuse from out Duty	14	4.7	9.0
Exemption from Evening Parade	13	4.3	13.3
Monthly Tour Programs	16	5.3	18.7
Supply of Hygienic Food	21	7.0	25.7
One Step Promotion to all Trainers	11	3.7	29.3
All the Above Facilities	212	70.7	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

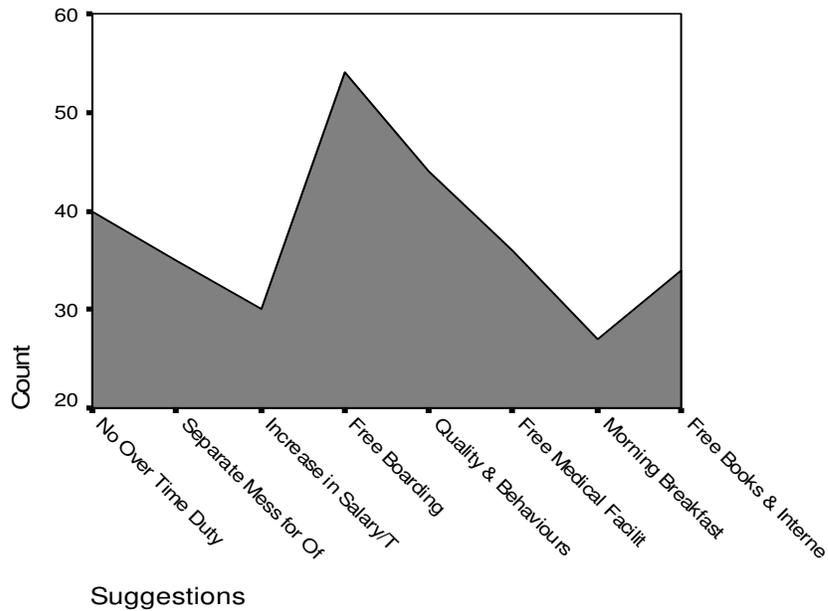


The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the nature of immediate needs. Inter PTC shuttle, 1.0%; weekly night pass, 3.3%; excuse from out duty, 4.7%; exemption from evening parade, 4.3%; monthly tour programs, 5.3%; supply of hygienic food, 7.0%; one step promotion to all trainers, 3.7%; and all the above facilities, 70.7 %.

TABLE 126

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SUGGESTIONS

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No Over Time Duty	40	13.3	13.3
Separate Mess for Officers	35	11.7	25.0
Increase in Salary/Training Allowance	30	10.0	35.0
Free Boarding	54	18.0	53.0
Quality & Behaviours of Instructors	44	14.7	67.7
Free Medical Facility	36	12.0	79.7
Morning Breakfast	27	9.0	88.7
Free Books & Internet	34	11.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	



The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the suggestions. No over time duty, 13.3%; separate mess for officers, 11.7%; increase

in salary/training allowance, 10.0%; free boarding, 18.0%; quality & behaviours of instructors, 14.7%; free medical facility, 12.0%; morning breakfast, 9.0%; and free books & internet, 11.3%.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 1

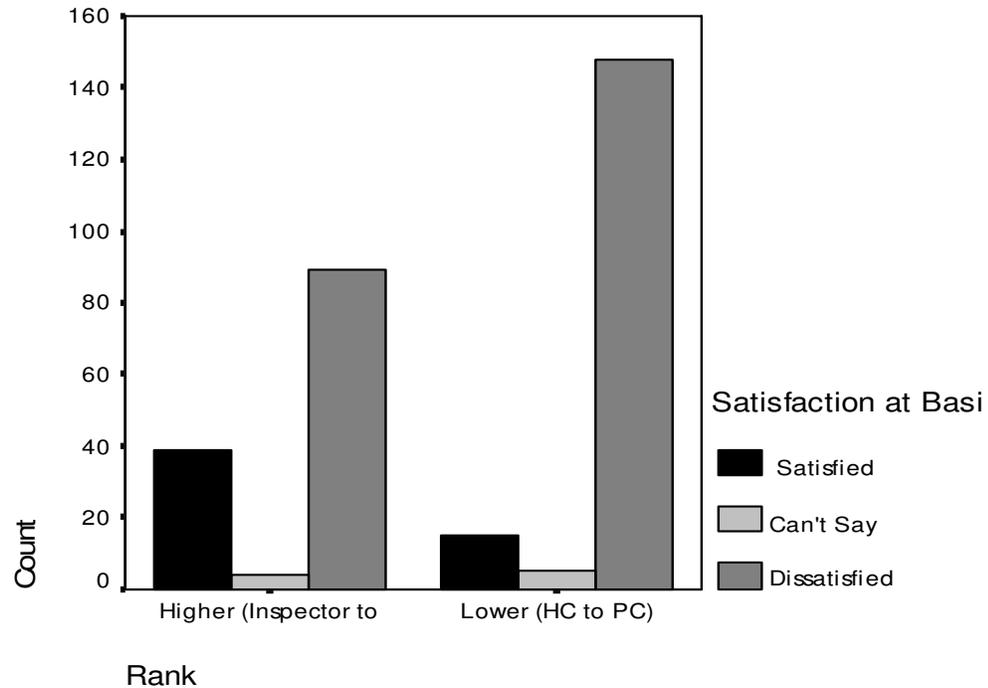
Ho : There is no relationship between rank and satisfaction at basic pay.

H1 : Rank is likely to be related with satisfaction at basic pay.

Q. No. 1 & 58

Table No. 1 & 58

Rank	Satisfaction at Basic Pay			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Higher (Inspector to ASI)	39 (23.8)	4 (4.0)	89 (104.3)	132
Lower (HC to PC)	15 (30.2)	5 (5.0)	148 (132.7)	168
Total	54	9	237	300



Graph showing relationship between rank and satisfaction at basic pay.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.454	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	21.673	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21.005	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.96.

Pearson Chi-Square 21.454

Degree of freedom 2

p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 1. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables.

The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 1 is 21.454 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the rank greater the satisfaction at basic pay.
2. Lower the rank smaller the satisfaction at basic pay.

It can be concluded that the respondents from higher and lower ranks were found displeased at the basic pay. Largely respondents from lower ranks had more reservations on their basic pay. Whereas, the respondents having the higher ranks were found somewhat satisfied as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 2

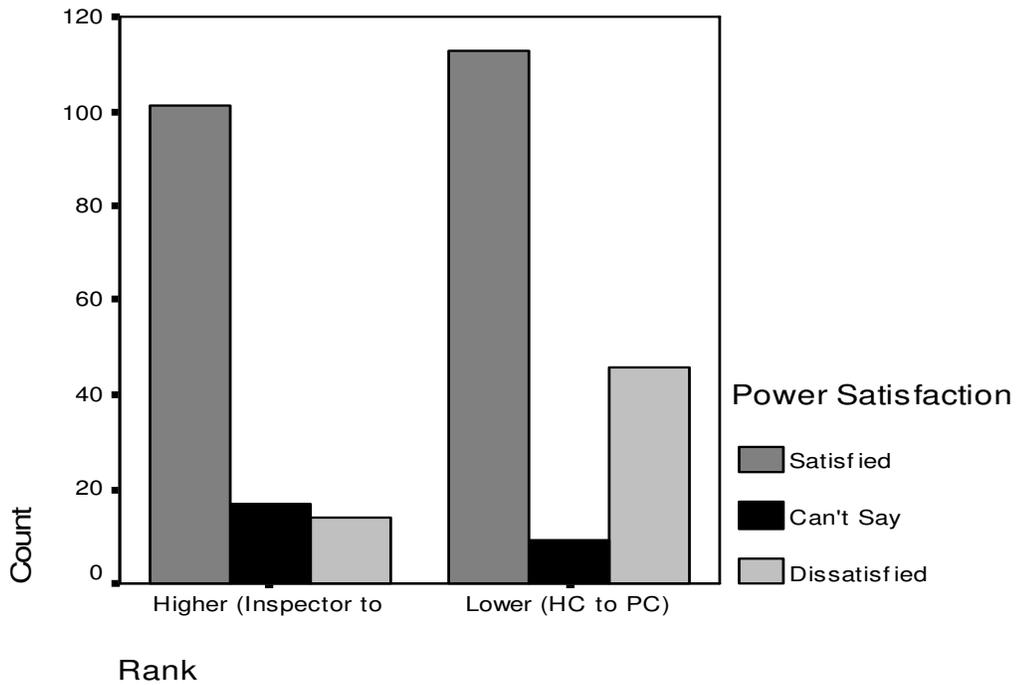
Ho : There is no relationship between rank and power satisfaction of respondents.

H1 : Rank is likely to be related with power satisfaction of respondents.

Q. No. 1 & 85

Table No. 1 & 85

Rank	Power Satisfaction			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Higher (Inspector to ASI)	101 (94.2)	17 (11.4)	14 (26.4)	132
Lower (HC to PC)	113 (119.8)	9 (14.6)	46 (33.6)	168
Total	214	26	60	300



Graph showing relationship between rank and power satisfaction of respondents.
Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.113	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	16.830	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.681	1	.006
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.44.

Pearson Chi-Square 16.113
Degree of freedom 2
p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 2. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 2 is 16.113 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the rank greater the power satisfaction.
2. Lower the rank smaller the power satisfaction.

It can be concluded that the respondents from higher and lower ranks were found unsatisfied at the power they were provided. Mainly respondents from lower ranks had more suspicions on their powers. Whereas, the respondents having the higher ranks were found somewhat satisfied as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 3

Ho : There is no relationship between age of respondents and satisfaction in training.

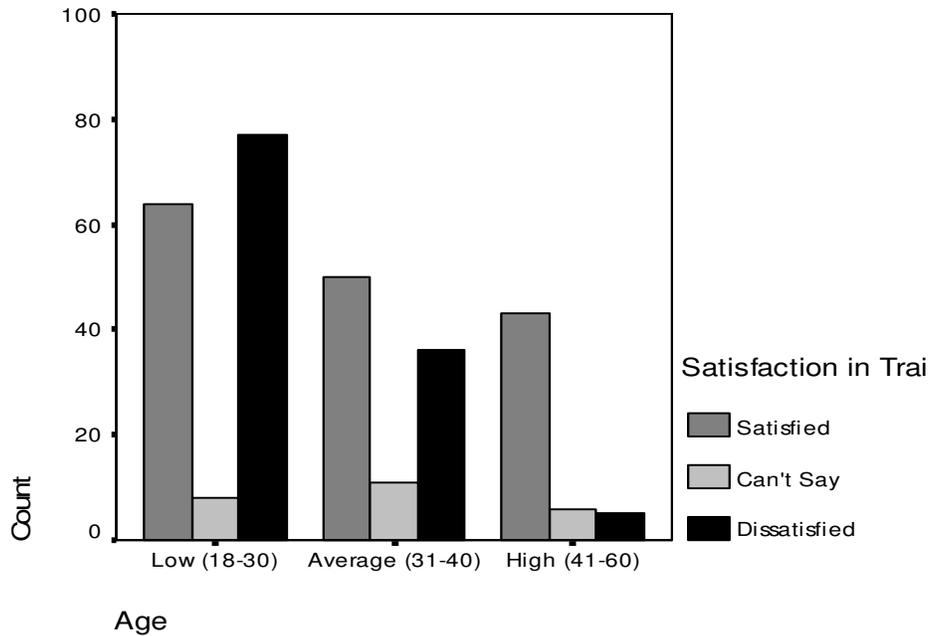
H1 : Age of respondents is likely to be related with satisfaction in training.

Q. No. 9 & 11

Table No. 9 & 11

Age	Satisfaction in Training			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Low (18-30)	64	8	77	149

	(78.0)	(12.4)	(58.6)	
Average (31-40)	50 (50.8)	11 (8.1)	36 (38.2)	97
High (41-60)	43 (28.3)	6 (4.5)	5 (21.2)	54
Total	157	25	118	300



Graph showing relationship between age and satisfaction in training.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.639	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	35.885	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	25.708	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.50.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 31.639

Degree of Freedom	4
p- value	.000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 3. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 3 is 31.639 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is very small, approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the age greater the satisfaction in training.
2. Lower the age smaller the satisfaction in training.

It is concluded that the respondents from high age group were found satisfied at the training they were provided. While, the respondents from low age group were found somewhat unsatisfied the way the training was provided. It may be due

to the fact that because of unemployment the respondents having higher qualifications are compelled to join police department in lower ranks.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 4

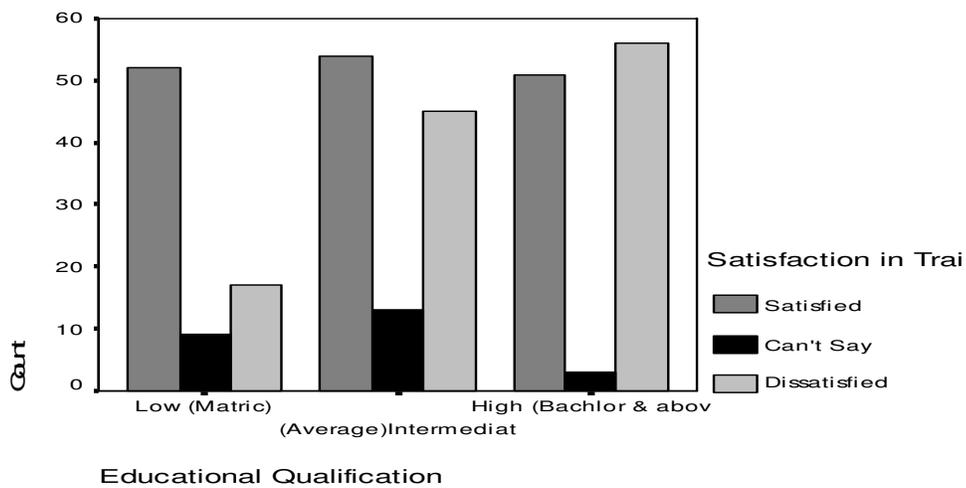
Ho : There is no relationship between educational qualification of respondents and satisfaction in training.

H1 : Educational qualification of respondents is likely to be related with satisfaction in training.

Q. No. 13 & 11

Table No. 13 & 11

Educational Qualification	Satisfaction in Training			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Low (Matric)	52 (40.8)	9 (6.5)	17 (30.7)	78
(Average)Intermediate	54 (58.6)	13 (9.3)	45 (44.1)	112
High (Bachelor & above)	51 (57.6)	3 (9.2)	56 (43.3)	110
Total	157	25	118	300



Graph showing relationship between educational qualification of respondents and satisfaction in training.

Chi- Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.592	4	.000

Likelihood Ratio	22.471	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.702	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.50.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 20.592

Degree of Freedom 4

p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 4. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 4 is 20.592 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the educational qualification smaller the training satisfaction.

2. Lower the educational qualification greater the training satisfaction.

It can be concluded that the respondents from higher and lower qualifications were found unsatisfied at the training. Essentially respondents having higher education had more reservations on PTCs training. Whereas, the respondents having the low educational background were found somewhat satisfied as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 5

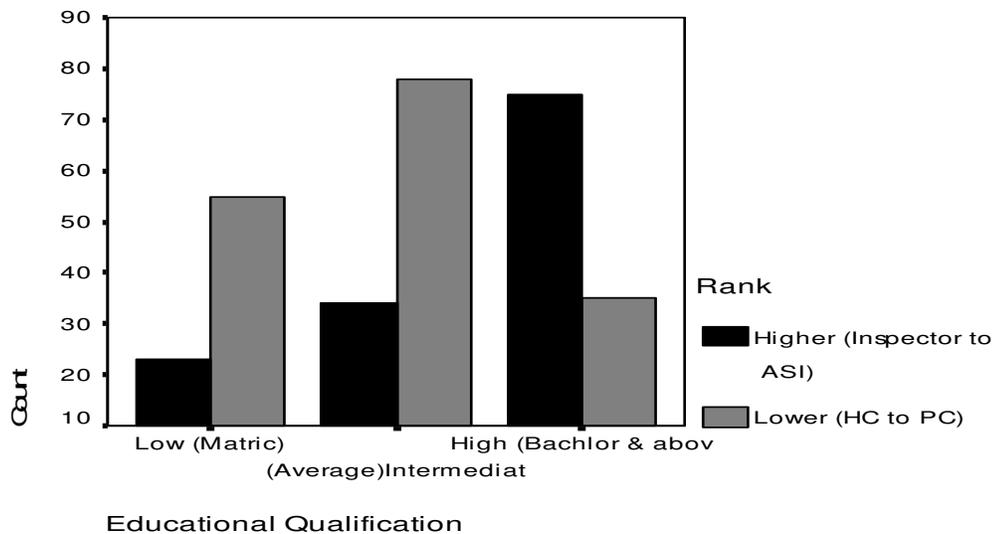
Ho : There is no relationship between educational qualification and rank of respondents.

H1 : Educational qualification is likely to be related with rank of respondents.

Q. No. 13 & 1

Table No. 13 & 1

Educational Qualification	Rank		Total
	Higher (Inspector to ASI)	Lower (HC to PC)	
Low (Matric)	23 (34.3)	55 (43.7)	78
(Average)Intermediate	34 (49.3)	78 (62.7)	112
High (Bachelor & above)	75 (48.4)	35 (61.6)	110
Total	132	168	300



Graph showing relationship between educational qualification and rank of respondents.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.233	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	41.838	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	31.510	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34.32.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 41.233

Degree of Freedom 2

p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 5. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 5 is 41.233 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly

interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the educational qualification better the rank.
2. Lower the educational qualification minor the rank.

It is summarized that the respondents having higher qualification were found in higher ranks. Whereas, the respondents having the low educational background were found in lower ranks as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 6

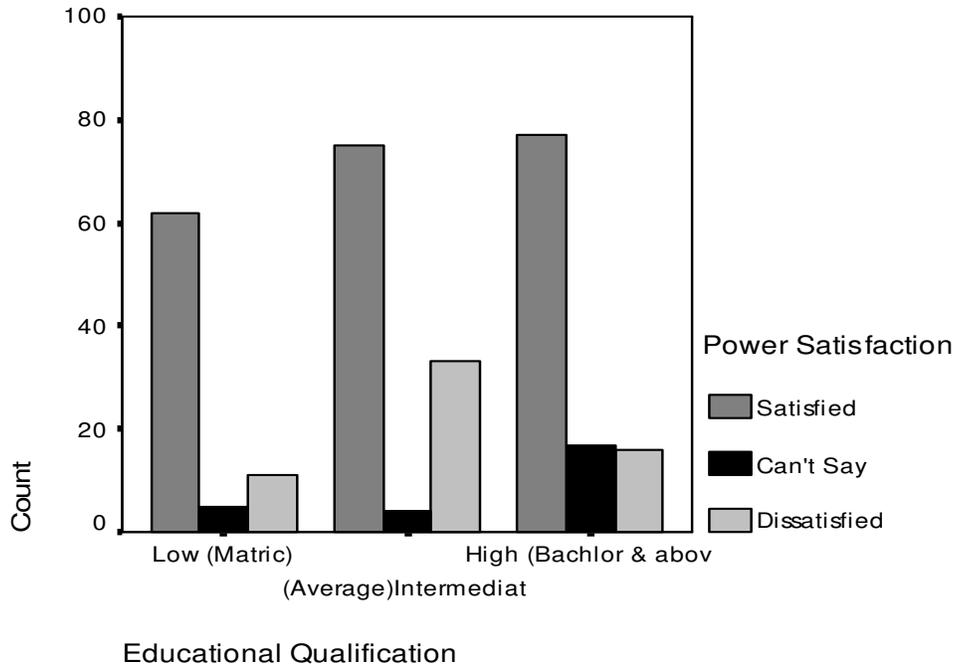
Ho : There is no relationship between educational qualification and power satisfaction.

H1 : Educational Qualification is likely to be related with power satisfaction

Q. No. 13 & 85

Table No. 13 & 85

Educational Qualification	Power Satisfaction			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Low (Matric)	62 (55.6)	5 (6.8)	11 (15.6)	78
(Average)Intermediate	75 (79.9)	4 (9.7)	33 (22.4)	112
High (Bachlor & above)	77 (78.5)	17 (9.5)	16 (22.0)	110
Total	214	26	60	300



Graph showing relationship between educational qualification and power satisfaction.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.724	4	.001
Likelihood Ratio	18.287	4	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.343	1	.558
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.76.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 18.724

Degree of Freedom 4

p- value .001

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency

Table No. 6. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 6 is 18.724 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the educational qualification better the power satisfaction.
2. Lower the educational qualification lesser the power satisfaction.

It can be concluded that the respondents from higher and lower educational backgrounds were found unsatisfied at the power they were provided. Mainly respondents having lesser education had more doubts on their powers. Whereas, the respondents having the higher education were found somewhat satisfied as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 7

Ho : There is no relationship between marital status and satisfaction in training.

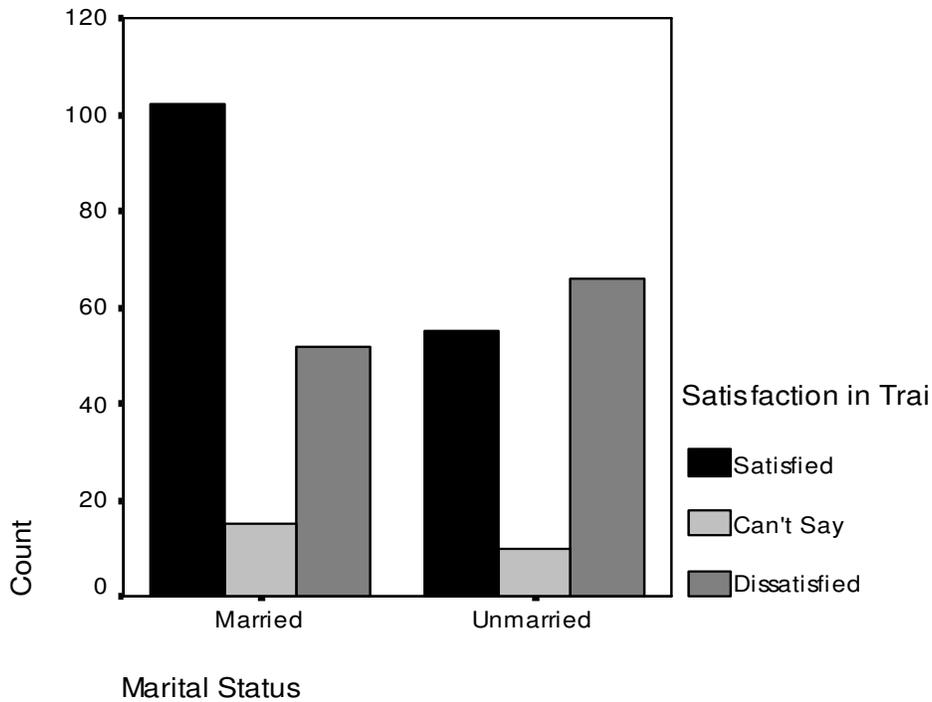
H1 : Marital status is likely to be related with satisfaction in training.

Q. No. 50 & 11

Table No. 50 & 11

Marital Status	Satisfaction in Training			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	

Married	102 (88.4)	15 (14.1)	52 (66.5)	169
Unmarried	55 (68.6)	10 (10.9)	66 (51.5)	131
Total	157	25	118	300



Graph showing relationship between marital status and satisfaction in training.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.112	2	.002
Likelihood Ratio	12.134	2	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.793	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.92.

Pearson Chi-Square Value	12.112
Degree of Freedom	2
p- value	.002

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 7. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 7 is 12.112 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Marital status has positive association with satisfaction in training.
2. Married people were prone to satisfaction in training.

It is concluded that the unmarried respondents were found unhappy at the training they were provided. Whereas, the married respondents were found somewhat satisfied at training as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 8

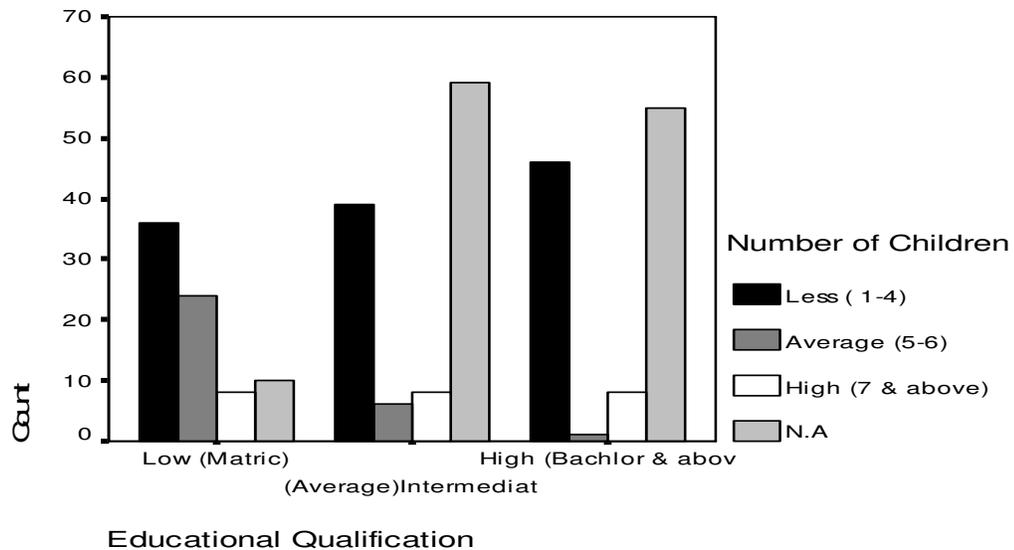
Ho : There is no relationship between educational qualification and number of children.

H1 : Educational qualification is likely to be related with number of children.

Q. No. 13 & 51

Table No. 13 & 51

Educational Qualification	Number of Children			N.A	Total
	Less (1-4)	Average (5-6)	High (7 & above)		
Low (Matric)	36 (31.5)	20 (8.1)	8 (6.2)	10 (32.2)	74
Average (Intermediate)	39 (45.2)	6 (11.6)	8 (9.0)	59 (46.3)	112
High (Bachelor & above)	46 (44.4)	5 (11.4)	8 8.8 (45.5)	55	114
Total	121	31	24	124	300



Graph showing relationship between educational qualification and number of children.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	66.722	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	67.983	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.704	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.24.

Pearson Chi-Square Value	66.722
Degree of Freedom	6
p- value	.000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 8. The chi-square method is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 8 is 66.722 with 6 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the educational qualification smaller the number of children.
2. Lower the educational qualification more the number of children.

It is concluded that the respondents from lower educational backgrounds were found having more children. Whereas, the respondents having the higher education had smaller number of children as compared to the other group.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 9

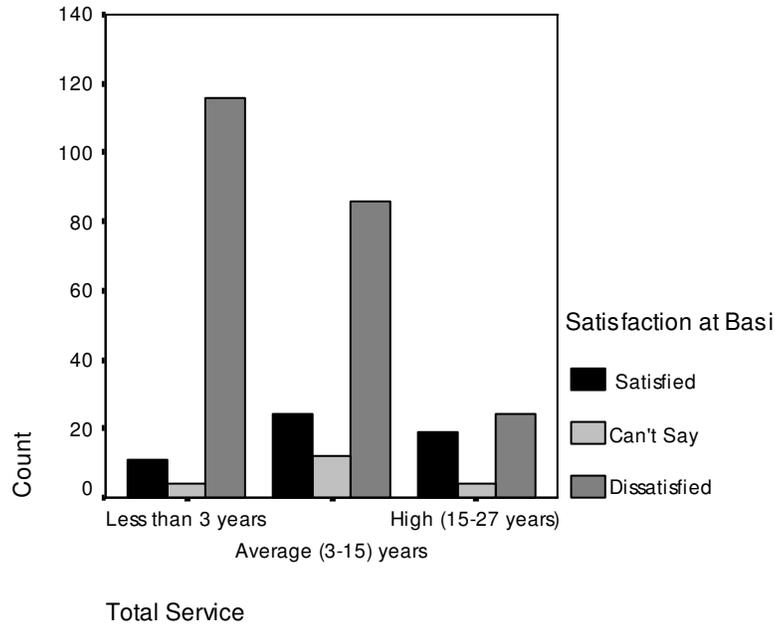
Ho : There is no relationship between total service and satisfaction at basic pay.

H1 : Total service is likely to be related with satisfaction at basic pay.

Q. No. 6 & 58

Table No. 6 & 58

Total Service	Satisfaction at Basic Pay			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Less than 3 years	11 (23.6)	4 (8.7)	116 (98.7)	131
Average (3-15) years	24 (22.0)	12 (8.1)	86 (91.9)	122
High (15-27 years)	19 (8.5)	4 (3.1)	24 (35.4)	47
Total	54	20	226	300



Graph showing relationship between total service and satisfaction at basic pay.
Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.768	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	30.686	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	28.542	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.13.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 31.768

Degree of Freedom 4

p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 9. The chi-square method is applied to test the independence of the two

variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 9 is 31.768 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the length of service greater the satisfaction on basic pay.
2. Lower the length of service minor the satisfaction on basic pay.

It is concluded that the respondents having the more service in police department were found satisfied at their basic pay. Whereas, the respondents having less number of years in police department were unsatisfied with the basic pay.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 10

Ho : There is no relationship between total service and satisfaction in training.

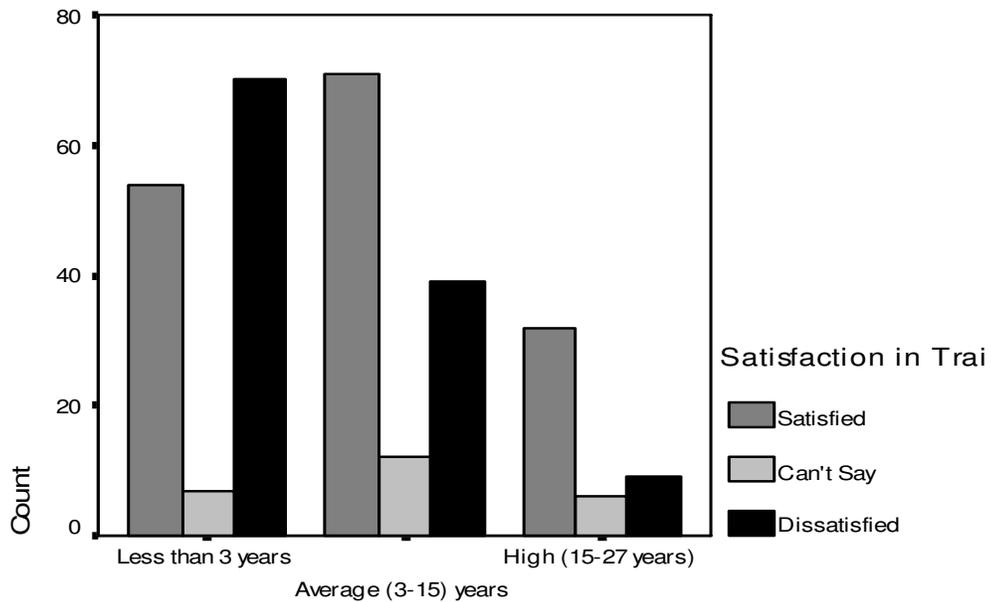
H1 : Total service is likely to be related with satisfaction in training.

Q. No. 3 & 11

Table No. 3 & 11

Total Service	Satisfaction in Training			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	
Less than 3 years	54 (68.6)	7 (10.9)	70 (51.5)	131
Average (3-15) years	71 (63.8)	12 (10.2)	39 (48.0)	122

High (15-27 years)	32 (24.6)	6 (3.9)	9 (18.5)	47
Total	157	25	118	300



Total Service

Graph showing relationship between total service and satisfaction in training
Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.139	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	22.783	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.724	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.92.

Pearson Chi-Square Value 22.139

Degree of Freedom 4

p- value .000

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 10. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 10 is 22.139 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the length of service greater the satisfaction in training.
2. Lower the length of service minor the satisfaction in training.

It is concluded that the respondents having the more service in police department were found satisfied at training at PTCs. Whereas, the respondents having less number of years in police service were unsatisfied with the provided training.

CONTINGENCY TABLE 11

Ho : There is no relationship between total service and power satisfaction.

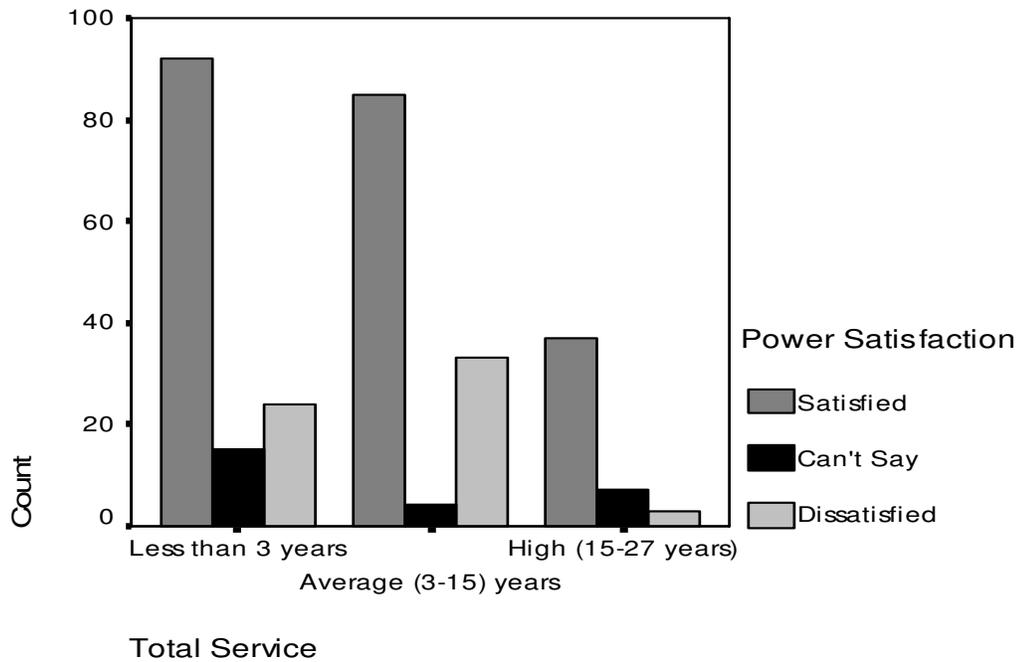
H1 : Total service is likely to be related with power satisfaction.

Q. No. 6 & 85

Table No. 6 & 85

Total Service	Power Satisfaction			Total
	Satisfied	Can't Say	Dissatisfied	

Less than 3 years	92 (93.4)	15 (11.4)	24 (26.2)	131
Average (3-15) years	85 (87.0)	4 (10.6)	33 (24.4)	122
High (15-27 years)	37 (33.5)	7 (4.1)	3 (9.4)	47
Total	214	26	60	300



The graph showing relationship between total service and power satisfaction.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.363	4	.004
Likelihood Ratio	17.443	4	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.760	1	.185
N of Valid Cases	300		

a 1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.07.

Pearson Chi-Square Value	15.363
Degree of Freedom	4
p- value	.004

The model of independence has been used to the data given in Contingency Table No. 11. The chi-square test is applied to test the independence of the two variables. The value of chi-square calculated from the data of Table 11 is 15.363 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Since the model of independence of variables is rejected by chi-square test. Therefore, the pattern of association among the pair of variables can be determined by fitting another model with two factors interaction called “Loglinear Model”. Loglinear models are used when there is a significant association among the attributes.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the two factors are significantly interacted. The estimated values of interaction parameters show that the following interactions were found significantly different from zero.

1. Higher the length of service greater the power satisfaction.
2. Lower the length of service minor the power satisfaction.

It is concluded that the respondents having the more service in police department were found satisfied at the power they were provided. Whereas, the

respondents having less number of years in police service were unsatisfied at the available power.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the preceding chapter, the results of the simple and contingency tables were extensively discussed. However, in this chapter, the overall study process and significant findings are summarized and then conclusions will be drawn. Finally, the limitations of this research as well as recommendations for future research are presented.

5.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The police in Pakistan, over the years have made great strides in different spheres of its work, work-culture and delivery system. For instance, in crime detection and investigation works, its methods have changed vastly and these are much more scientific and modern. Its equipments, communication network,

transport system are highly sophisticated now. All over Pakistan, crime records, criminal intelligence, fingerprints are computerized. Crowd management work is vastly improved and systematic. Its intelligence organizations have developed advanced and reliable system. Organizations, like the Intelligence Bureau, the Central Bureau of Investigation, Border Security Force and Training Institutions like Police Training College, Saeedabad and Police Training College, Shahdadpur are comparable to best ones. Police officers and constables from all over Pakistan are coming here for basic and advance training, and liaison work and coordination in all parts of the country fight against criminal activities, terrorism, narcotics and drug-abuses.

Despite the importance of the problem, relatively little research on Socio-economic problems facing by Police in general has appeared in literature. Moreover, relatively little has been done in terms of formulating a multi-dimensional framework addressing the role failure of the concerned agencies in improving the general Socio-economic conditions. Many researchers have attempted to discover evidence about a part of the whole process. Previous research has investigated the issue within limited framework, i.e., one issue at a time. This study adopted an integrated and holistic viewpoint that includes the most critical issues simultaneously and in a multi-dimensional framework.

The purpose of this study was to fill some of these gaps. This study attempted to determine the most important, influential factors that have significant, value-added impacts on the overall performance of police personnel. Specifically, the study attempted to systematically discover evidence about the determinants of problems facing by the police department.

The present research work has focused on socio-economic problems facing by trainee police personnel. The problem is seen in the present study to be the outcome of the varying degrees of role failure of the entrepreneurs and the social entities in their environment. Effective role performance of the social entities in the environment could have possibly prevented the role performance of the enterprises getting worse.

The present study is exploratory. A few studies are at hand on the subject. Attempt has been made to unearth the problem from the initial stages to reach at the sound conclusion. The sample of 300 respondents was collected from the universe of the present study. Survey method was adopted for this study. Data for the study was collected from primary source. The data was collected from sample of police trainees at PTCs Saeedabad and Shahdadpur through a schedule constructed for the purpose. The sample was selected on the basis of stratified random sampling method as followed in standard social research tools and techniques. The data was collected with the help of an interview schedule. The

questionnaire had filled by the researcher face to face with the respondents over the period of more than one year.

Further, the present research has presented data on important issues of socio-economic problems. That includes type of employment; nature of service; total service; net salary; type and size of family; and overall problems facing by trainee police personnel. The simple and contingency tables were made to correlate the different variables used in the hypotheses.

To test the hypotheses, statistical methods including SPSS were applied to the data mentioned in contingency tables. The chi-square test was applied to test the existence of the relationship between the two variables of hypothesis. If the null hypothesis is rejected then the loglinear models were also used to measure the degree of relationship. The hypotheses were then finally interpreted and the results were obtained.

5.2 FINDINGS OF SIMPLE TABLES

5.2.1 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to rank.

They included SIP, 15.3%; ASI, 31.7%; HC, 21.3%; and PC, 31.7%.

Thus the majority of respondents had the ranks of ASI and PC.

- 5.2.2 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to nature of appointment. SIP, 0.3%; PASI, 40.3%; HC, 0.7%; and PC, 58.7%. Accordingly the majority of respondents were appointed as police constables.
- 5.2.3 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to time in the present rank. Less than 3 years, 58.3%; 4-8 years, 22.0%; 9-13 years, 13.7%; and more than 14 years, 5%. Hence it is illustrated that the majority of respondents were juniors because they were appointed less than 3 years ago.
- 5.2.4 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to previous assignment. It includes operation, 24.7%; investigation, 8.0%; traffic, 8%; special branch, 22.0%; Madadgar 15, 6.0%; S.R.P. Bass, 1.3%; Trainee student, 22.3%; and Head Quarter, 7.7%. Subsequently it is stated that the respondents belonged to different police branches.
- 5.2.5 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the present rank. That includes highly satisfied, 8.3%; satisfied, 56.7%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 12.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. As a result it is affirmed that the bulk of respondents were found satisfied in present rank.

- 5.2.6 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to total service. Below than 3 years, 43.7%; 3-9 years, 11.7%; 9-15 years, 28.7%; 15-21 years, 9.7%; and 21-27 years, 6.3%. Thus it is inferred that the majority of respondents were young and newly appointed. That is why most of them were satisfied in police department.
- 5.2.7 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in police service. It includes highly satisfied, 13.3%; satisfied, 63.7%; can't say, 7.0%; dissatisfied, 12.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 3.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied in police service. This is possibly due to the fact that most of them were juniors and faced minor challenges during their respective length of services.
- 5.2.8 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to maximum duty hours. That includes 3 hours, 7.0%; 6 hours, 35.0%; 8 hours, 54.3%; and 12 hours, 3.7%. So it is mentioned that the majority of respondents wish to perform 8 hours duty in a day. It is further added that the mentioned time consisted on official duty hours. Apart from that police personnel are believed to perform the additional duty hours in case of emergency.
- 5.2.9 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to age of respondents. That includes age group 18-30, 52.0%; age group 31-40, 38.3%; age group 41-50, 8.7%; and age group 51-60, 1.0%. Therefore, it

is mentioned that the majority of respondents had the ages ranging from 18 to 30 years. That indicates that young police recruits are more concerned in training to enjoy quick promotions and other monetary benefits.

5.2.10 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion about maximum age for training. That includes less than 30 years, 40.3%; age group 30-40, 44.3%; age group 41-50, 10.0%; and age group 51+, 5.3%. Therefore, it is mentioned that the trainees had diverse opinion about the age limit for training.

5.2.11 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at training. It includes highly satisfied, 6.7%; satisfied, 45.0%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 28.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.7%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about the satisfaction in the training

5.2.12 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the best season for training. It includes cold, 24.3%; hot, 4.7%; normal, 70.3%; and PT (Hot) & Parade (Cold), 0.7%. The majority of respondents favoured normal season as the best one for training. Hot and cold seasons are considered as incompatible for training because it involves physical exercises such as PT etc.

5.2.13 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to education of respondents. Matric, 26.0%; intermediate, 37.3%; graduate,

28.3%; and master+, 8.3%. The data show that majority of respondents were intermediate and graduate. The minimum requirement for appointment as a constable is matriculation but because of massive unemployment in the country several master holders are hastening in police department as constables.

5.2.14 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about favourite educational atmosphere. Separate, 26.3%; co-education, 70.3%; and don't know, 3.3%. Hence it is observed that vast majority of respondents support co-education.

5.2.15 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about mode of training. Audio, 9.7%; video, 69.0%; video and practical, 19.3%; and don't know, 2.0%. Thus vast majority of respondents favour video as the easy mode of training possibly by reason of the easiness in perceptive clarity and knowledge.

5.2.16 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the methods of instruction. Oral, 10.0%; written, 21.7%; pictorial presentation, 30.0%; and action, 38.3%. Thus majority of respondents favour pictorial presentation and action as the easy methods of instruction possibly by reason of the easiness in perceptive clearness and knowledge.

5.2.17 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the easy methods of instruction. Modified

12.7%; demonstrative, 35.0%; role play, 37.0%; and simulation, 15.3%.

The opinion illustrates that majority of respondents considered role play and demonstrative methods of instruction as suitable. Thus majority of respondents favour role play and demonstrative as the easy methods of instruction possibly because of the easiness in clarity and understanding.

5.2.18 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution of respondents according to the type of learner. Silent, 70.7%; overbearing, 14.0%; cynical, 3.3%; and verbally combative, 12.0%. The majority of respondents were noted as silent learners.

5.2.19 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about the easy methods of examination. MCQ/objective type, 76.3%; subjective, 18.0%; both, 3.7%; and interview, 2.0%. The opinion illustrates that majority of respondents considered MCQ/objective method of examination as appropriate possibly because of the easiness in understanding and clarity. The respondents considered lengthy question/answer system of examination as boring and very difficult to accomplish.

5.2.20 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the opinion of respondents about system of examination. Annual, 22.7%; semester, 76.0%; and after every three months, 1.3%. The majority of respondents advocated for semester system. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered semester of system examination as suitable

probably due to the easiness and appropriateness. The respondents considered lengthy annual system of examination as boring and very difficult to accomplish.

5.2.21 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at police rules. That includes highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 52.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at police rules.

5.2.22 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at subjects they were taught during training at PTCs. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 8.3%; satisfied, 65.3%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 15.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 3.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at subjects they were taught during training at PTCs. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered subjects as suitable most likely due to the easiness in understanding and appropriateness. The respondents considered lengthy list of subjects as tiresome and very difficult to study.

5.2.23 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at library timings. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 29.7%; can't say, 37.7%; dissatisfied, 19.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.7%. It is affirmed that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about library timings.

- 5.2.24 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to first course during police service. Probationer, 35.7%; ISC, 2.7%; LSA, 2.70%; RTC, 57.3%; and bomb disposal course, 1.7%. Thus the majority of respondents completed RTC as the first course during police service.
- 5.2.25 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to present study course. Course USC, 14.0%; ISC, 47.7%; LSA, 18.70%; and RTC, 19.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were in ISC course.
- 5.2.26 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion of respondents about the most difficult course. SPG, 28.3%; ATS, 37.7%; Elite, 26.0%; Finger Print, 7.3%; and Police, 0.7%. Thus the majority of respondents considered ATS and SPG as the difficult courses. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at ATS and SPG courses they were offered during training at PTCs. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered ATS and SPG courses as suitable presumably due to the difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.
- 5.2.27 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to opinion of respondents about the duration of training. About 4 months, 45.3%; Six months, 39.7%; ten months, 9.3%; twelve months, 4.3%; and more than twelve months, 1.3%. Thus the majority of respondents considered 4 to 6 months training as the most suitable time period.

- 5.2.28 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at training time table. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 6.7%; satisfied, 42.7%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 37.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.3%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about training time table.
- 5.2.29 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at duration of training at PTCs. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied, 28.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 37.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.7%. So it is stated that the respondents had mixed opinion at duration of training at PTCs. It indicates that majority of respondents considered duration of training at PTCs as unsuitable presumably due to the lengthy hours creating difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.
- 5.2.30 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at system of training at PTCs. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied, 33.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 39.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 14.7%. It is stated that the majority of respondents had no clear idea at the system of training at PTCs. But number suggests that the respondents considered system of training at PTCs as unbecoming most probably by reason of the lengthy hours creating difficulty in perceptive ambiguity and incompatibility.

- 5.2.31 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at incentives of training. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 45.0%; can't say, 11.7%; dissatisfied, 39.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.3%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at the incentives of training.
- 5.2.32 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at system of roll cards during training. It includes highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 45.7%; can't say, 9.3%; dissatisfied, 23.3.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 16.3%. So it is acknowledged that the respondents were not too confirmed at system of roll calls during training.
- 5.2.33 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PT. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 18.0%; satisfied, 56.0%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.3%. So it is illustrated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at PT.
- 5.2.34 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at parade. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 10.0%; satisfied, 68.0%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.7%. So it is illustrated that the vast majority of respondents were satisfied at parade.
- 5.2.35 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at parade timings. The opinion includes highly satisfied,

9.0%; satisfied, 55.0%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 19.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 8.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at parade timings.

5.2.36 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to cultural background. Rural, 26.7%; and urban, 73.3%. Thus the majority of respondents belonged to urban areas. It indicates that police recruits belonging to rural areas are either unaware about training incentives or ignored by the police department. The fact confirms that police personnel in urban areas are more aware about their rights and necessities as compared to their counterparts in rural areas.

5.2.37 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at cultural background. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 29.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 3.3%; dissatisfied, 2.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.7%. So it is stated that the vast majority of respondents were satisfied at their respective cultural backgrounds.

5.2.38 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by nature of accommodation. Govt. residency, 21.7%; private residency, 75.7%; and rented house, 2.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were settled in private houses.

5.2.39 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to satisfaction about accommodation. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 14.3%; satisfied, 46.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 23.0%; and highly

dissatisfied, 11.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction about accommodation.

5.2.40 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to satisfaction about accommodation during training. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 44.0%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 36.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.3%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion at satisfaction about accommodation during training.

5.2.41 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at police culture. It includes highly satisfied, 2.7%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 38.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.3%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion about satisfaction at police culture.

5.2.42 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PTCs culture. Highly satisfied, 5.0%; satisfied, 47.3%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 30.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents were not too clear about the PTCs culture.

5.2.43 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at PTCs location. Convenient, 45.3%; and non-convenient, 54.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents found PTCs location as non-convenient. It illustrates that majority of

respondents considered location of PTCs as unsuitable most probably due to inappropriateness.

5.2.44 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at standard of food. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 35.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 28.0%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were found dissatisfied at the standard of food in PTCs. It indicates that the trainees are provided unhygienic and indigestive food.

5.2.45 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at weekly menu of mess. The opinion includes highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 36.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were found dissatisfied at weekly menu of mess in PTCs. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered weekly menu of mess as unsuitable most probably owing to deficiency in essential food substance.

5.2.46 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at mess timings. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 59.0%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 21.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.7%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at mess timings of PTCs. It illustrates that second majority of respondents considered mess timings of mess as unsuitable most probably owing to deficiency in proper timing and food substance.

- 5.2.47 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by mother-tongue. Sindhi, 24.0%; Urdu, 40.3%; Punjabi, 16.7%; Pashto, 11.7%; Hindko, 5.7%; Balochi, 0.3%; Brohi, 0.7%; and Memoni, 0.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were Urdu speaking as such Urdu is national language of Pakistan.
- 5.2.48 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution by sex. Male, 96.3%; and female, 3.7%. Thus almost all of respondents were males.
- 5.2.49 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to marital status. Married, 56.3%; and unmarried, 43.7%. Thus the majority of respondents were married.
- 5.2.50 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to number of children. Less than 2, 27.7%; number 2-4, 12.3%; number 5-6, 9.70%; number 7-8, 3.7%; more than 8, 5.7%; and N.A, 41.0%.
- 5.2.51 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at family co-operation. Highly satisfied, 53.0%; satisfied, 44.0%; can't say, 0.3%; dissatisfied, 1.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.0%. Hence it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were highly satisfied at family co-operation.
- 5.2.52 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to type of family. Nuclear, 20.0%; and joint/extended, 80.0%. Thus the vast majority of respondents had joint families. It shows the joint/extended family system is the most preferable system of living in all parts of the country.

It is deemed as suitable most probably due to acceptance, forbearance and combating many problems collectively.

- 5.2.53 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at leave for visiting family. Highly satisfied, 13.7%; satisfied, 55.0%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.0%. So it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at leave for visiting family.
- 5.2.54 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at number of leaves for visiting family. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 36.0%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 37.7.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.7%. So it is stated that the majority of respondents were divided at the number of leaves for visiting family. It illustrates that great number of respondents considered number of leaves as insufficient most probably due to the difficulty in visiting family.
- 5.2.55 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at leniency for visiting friends. Highly satisfied, 1.70%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 40.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.0%. So, it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at leniency for visiting friends. It indicates that majority of respondents considered leniency for visiting friends as insufficient most probably due to strict rules and regulations at PTCs.

- 5.2.56 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at source of income. Highly satisfied, 7.0%; satisfied, 21.0%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 43.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 30.7%. So, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were dissatisfied at source of income. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered source of income as not enough most probably due to the meager salaries and allowances paid to police personnel.
- 5.2.57 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at basic pay. Highly satisfied, 0.7%; satisfied, 11.0%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 42.30%; and highly dissatisfied, 39.3%. So, it is illustrated that the huge majority of respondents were dissatisfied at basic pay. It indicates that majority of respondents considered basic pay as not enough most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities, breaking the backbone of police recruits with meager financial incentives.
- 5.2.58 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at allowances. Highly satisfied, 0.7%; satisfied, 10.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 43.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 40.7%. Thus, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at allowances. It indicates that majority of respondents consider allowances as insufficient most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities. As a result the financial position of police force is at the

bottom level compelling them to compensate the situation either fair or foul means.

5.2.59 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at educational increments. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 18.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 38.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 38.3%. Thus, it is stated that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at educational increments. It indicates that majority of respondents considered educational increments as not enough most probably due to the increasing prices of essential supplies.

5.2.60 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at present net salary. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 12.0%; can't say, 5%; dissatisfied, 45.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 36.0%. Therefore, it is asserted that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at present net salary. It indicates that majority of respondents consider present net salary as insufficient most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities. As a result the purchasing power of a police recruit has reached at the bottom level compelling to compensate the situation either fair or foul means.

5.2.61 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to total salary. Rs. 3000-4500, 58.7%; Rs. 4501-6000, 20.7%; Rs. 6001-7500, 10.7%; Rs. 7501-8000, 4.7%; and Rs. 8001-9500, 5.3%. Therefore, it is stated that the vast majority of respondents had Rs. 3000-6000 total

salary. It indicates that majority of respondents had salary as insufficient most probably due to the increasing price hike of essential possessions. As a result the purchasing power of a police employee has reached at the bottom level compelling to corruption.

5.2.62 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at accounts system. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 27.3%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 37.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 25.3%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at accounts system.

5.2.63 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of colleagues at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 15.0%; satisfied, 54.3%; can't say, 4.3%; dissatisfied, 17.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 9.0%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of colleagues at PTCs.

5.2.64 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of law trainers at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 15.7%; satisfied, 63.0%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.3%. So, it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of law trainers at PTCs.

5.2.65 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of drill trainers at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 43.3%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 25.3%; and highly

dissatisfied, 19.7%. Subsequently, it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion at the behaviour of drill trainers at PTCs.

5.2.66 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of administrative staff at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 7.3%; satisfied, 38.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 27.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.7%. Consequently, it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were not sure at behaviour of administrative staff at PTCs.

5.2.67 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of senior officers at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 9.7%; satisfied, 57.0%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 17.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 8.3%. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of senior officers at PTCs.

5.2.68 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of friends. Highly satisfied, 17.7%; satisfied, 62.0%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 9.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.3%. Therefore, it is accredited that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of friends.

5.2.69 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of relatives. Highly satisfied, 16.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 11.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.3%. Hence it is ascribed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at behaviour of relatives.

- 5.2.70 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of media. Highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 25.7%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 35.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 22.3%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at behaviour of media on the whole.
- 5.2.71 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at behaviour of public. Highly satisfied, 7.3%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 32.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Therefore, it is stated that the majority of respondents were not sure at behaviour of public on the whole.
- 5.2.72 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to favourite game. Cricket, 40.3%; Hockey, 9.3%; football, 27.0%; boxing, 14.0%; body building, 6.7%; badminton, 0.7%; and volleyball, 2.0%. Thus majority of respondents had cricket and football as favourite games.
- 5.2.73 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at game timings. Highly satisfied, 8.0%; satisfied, 23.3%; can't say, 19%; dissatisfied, 22.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 27.0%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at game timings in general.
- 5.2.74 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to favourite dress. Uniform, 22.7%; civil dress, 60.0%; jogging suit, 7.3%;

tee-shirt with jeans, 6.7%; and three-piece, 3.3%. Thus the majority of respondents prefer civil dress/ civvies.

5.2.75 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to feelings in uniform. Proud, 21.0%; bad, 15.7%; serving, 30.0%; and sober, 33.3%. Hence it is ascribed that the majority of respondents feel sober and serving in police uniform.

5.2.76 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the uniform. Highly satisfied, 16.3%; satisfied, 50.3%; can't say, 10.3%; dissatisfied, 19.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.0%. Hence it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied in the uniform.

5.2.77 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to better type of leave. Weekly, 52.0%; fortnightly, 21.7%; 10 days after every passing out, 15.3%; after one month, 7.7%; and after 6 months, 3.3%. Thus it is stated that the majority of respondents take weekly leave as better one.

5.2.78 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction in the leave. Highly satisfied, 8.7%; satisfied, 45.7%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 24.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.0%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at leave.

5.2.79 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at authorities leave. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 49.0%;

can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at authorities leave.

5.2.80 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the yearly leave account. Highly satisfied, 5.7%; satisfied, 52.3%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 23.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were satisfied at the yearly leave account.

5.2.81 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the weapons easy in operation. Pistol, 40.3%; SMG, 45.7%; Semi automatic, 2.3%; MP5, 10.3%; and Don't Know, 1.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents found pistol and SMG as weapons easy in operation.

5.2.82 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the weapons easy in assembling. Pistol, 19.7%; SMG, 66.0%; Semi automatic, 3.0%; MP5, 10.0%; and Don't Know, 1.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents found SMG as weapon easy in assembling.

5.2.83 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the anti-riot controlling method. Lathi, 31.3%; tear gas, 37.3%; rubber bullets, 29.7%; and don't know, 1.7%. Hence it is stated that the majority

of respondents considered Lathi, and tear gas as the method of controlling riots.

5.2.84 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at available weapons. Highly satisfied, 14.7%; satisfied, 54.0%; can't say, 10.7%; dissatisfied, 14.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.7%. So it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at available weapons.

5.2.85 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the power satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 71.3%; can't say, 8.7%; 6.3%; and dissatisfied, 20.0%. Therefore it is affirmed that the majority of respondents were satisfied at power.

5.2.86 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the duty satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 3.7%; satisfied, 49.3%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 23.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 15.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at duty.

5.2.87 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the emergency duty satisfaction. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 46.0%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 26.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.0%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at emergency duty.

5.2.88 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the out duties during training. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't

say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 33.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 31.3%. Thus it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at out duties during training.

5.2.89 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental rewards. Highly satisfied, 6.3%; satisfied, 38.3%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 39.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.03%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were divided at departmental rewards.

5.2.90 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental punishment. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 32.3%; can't say, 12.3%; dissatisfied, 32.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.03%. Therefore it is declared that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental punishments.

5.2.91 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental promotions. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 34.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 34.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental promotions.

5.2.92 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental inquiry. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 36.3%; can't say, 12.7%; dissatisfied, 33.0%; and highly dissatisfied,

16.3%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at departmental inquiry.

5.2.93 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the communication system. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 31.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.7%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at communication system.

5.2.94 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental transport system. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied, 16.0%; can't say, 6.3%; dissatisfied, 42.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 34.3%. Hence it is stated that the majority of respondents were displeased at departmental transport system.

5.2.95 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at departmental conveyance system. Satisfied, 16.3%; can't say, 6.7%; dissatisfied, 42.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 34.7%. Therefore it is stated that the majority of respondents were much displeased at departmental conveyance system.

5.2.96 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction departmental investigation system. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 37.3%; can't say, 11.7%; dissatisfied, 32.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 17.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion on departmental investigation system.

- 5.2.97 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction departmental prosecution system. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied, 41.0%; can't say, 16.3%; dissatisfied, 29.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 12.7%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents had mixed opinion on departmental prosecution system.
- 5.2.98 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of law classes. Highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied, 53.0%; can't say, 11.3%; dissatisfied, 21.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of law classes.
- 5.2.99 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of administrative block. Highly satisfied, 14.0%; satisfied, 59.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 6.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of administrative block.
- 5.2.100 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of library. Highly satisfied, 6.0%; satisfied, 46.0%; can't say, 26.0%; dissatisfied, 17.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 5.0%. Consequently it is stated that the majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of library.

- 5.2.101 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of mosque. Highly satisfied, 19.7%; satisfied, 61.7%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 9.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 4.3%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found satisfied at sanitation system of mosque.
- 5.2.102 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of mess. Highly satisfied, 5.3%; satisfied, 34.3%; can't say, 5.7%; dissatisfied, 36.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.3%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were found unhappy at sanitation system of mess.
- 5.2.103 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation system of toilets. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 22.7%; can't say, 5.0%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 40.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found unhappy at sanitation system of toilets.
- 5.2.104 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of roads. Highly satisfied, 8.7%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 1.3%; dissatisfied, 13.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 13.7%. Thus it is acknowledged that the huge majority of respondents were found happy at sanitation of roads.
- 5.2.105 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of barracks. Highly satisfied, 4.7%; satisfied,

42.3%; can't say, 7.3%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 20.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at sanitation of barracks.

5.2.106 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of family quarters. Highly satisfied, 3.3%; satisfied, 40.7%; can't say, 31.0%; dissatisfied, 15.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents had mixed reaction at sanitation of family quarters.

5.2.107 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sanitation of overall PTCs. Highly satisfied, 6.0%; satisfied, 55.7%; can't say, 11.0%; dissatisfied, 20.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were happy at sanitation of overall PTCs.

5.2.108 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at seasonal plantation. Highly satisfied, 7.0%; satisfied, 61.7%; can't say, 9.0%; dissatisfied, 15.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 7.0%. Thus it is acknowledged that the majority of respondents were pleased at seasonal plantation.

5.2.109 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at fertilization of land at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 12.0%; satisfied, 63.0%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 12.3%; and highly

dissatisfied, 4.7%. Thus it is acknowledged that the vast majority of respondents were delighted at fertilization of land at PTCs.

5.2.110 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at site of mosque. Highly satisfied, 21.0%; satisfied, 69.3%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 5.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 1.0%. Accordingly it is accredited that the almost all of respondents were pleased at site of mosque.

5.2.111 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at water supply system at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 1.0%; satisfied, 29.7%; can't say, 5.3%; dissatisfied, 32.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 32.0%. Accordingly it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were unhappy at water supply system at PTCs.

5.2.112 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at sewerage system at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 35.3%; can't say, 3.7%; dissatisfied, 29.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 31.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were unhappy at sewerage system at PTCs.

5.2.113 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at electric supply system at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 62.7%; can't say, 3.3%; dissatisfied, 19.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 10.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the majority of respondents were happy at electric supply system at PTCs.

- 5.2.114 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at Sui gas supply system at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 3.0%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say, 31.3%; dissatisfied, 15.7%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.0%. Therefore it is mentioned that the bulk of respondents had mixed reaction at sui gas supply system at PTCs.
- 5.2.115 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at function of dispensary at PTCs. Highly satisfied, 0.3%; satisfied, 27.0%; can't say, 13.3%; dissatisfied, 27.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 32.3%. Thus it is mentioned that the bulk of respondents were dissatisfied at the function of dispensaries at PTCs.
- 5.2.116 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at present salary. Highly satisfied, 4.3%; satisfied, 42.7%; can't say, 8.0%; dissatisfied, 31.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 13.7%. Consequently it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the present salary.
- 5.2.117 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at drinking water. Highly satisfied, 4.0%; satisfied, 39.0%; can't say, 12.0%; dissatisfied, 27.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 18.0%. Consequently it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the drinking water.
- 5.2.118 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the utility of computer laboratory. Highly satisfied, 3.0%;

satisfied, 30.0%; can't say, 23.0%; dissatisfied, 24.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 19.3%. Consequently it is acknowledged that the respondents had mixed response at the utility of computer laboratory.

5.2.119 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the utility of photograph laboratory. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 37.7%; can't say, 23.0%; dissatisfied, 25.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 11.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the respondents were satisfied at the utility of photograph laboratories at PTCs.

5.2.120 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of regimental shop. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 43.0%; can't say, 3.0%; dissatisfied, 23.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 19.3%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the function of regimental shop.

5.2.121 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of laundry. Highly satisfied, 2.0%; satisfied, 39.7%; can't say, 4.7%; dissatisfied, 31.0%; and highly dissatisfied, 22.7%. Therefore, it is stated that the respondents were dissatisfied at the function of laundry.

5.2.122 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of cobbler shop. Highly satisfied, 1.7%; satisfied, 47.3%; can't say, 10.3%; dissatisfied, 25.7%; and highly

dissatisfied, 15.0%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the function of cobbler shop.

5.2.123 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the telephone facility. Highly satisfied, 2.7%; satisfied, 40.7%; can't say, 7.7%; dissatisfied, 27.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 21.7%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents had mixed response at the telephone facility.

5.2.124 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the satisfaction at the function of barbershop. Highly satisfied, 2.3%; satisfied, 56.3%; can't say, 6.0%; dissatisfied, 19.3%; and highly dissatisfied, 16.0%. Therefore it is stated that the respondents were happy at the function of barbershop.

5.2.125 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the nature of immediate needs. Inter PTCs shuttle, 1.0%; weekly night pass, 3.3%; excuse from out duty, 4.7%; exemption from evening parade, 4.3%; monthly tour programs, 5.3%; supply of hygienic food, 7.0%; one step promotion to all trainers, 3.7%; and all the above facilities, 70.7 %.

5.2.126 The data in the table and the diagram show distribution according to the suggestions. No over time duty, 13.3%; separate mess for officers, 11.7%; increase in salary/training allowance, 10.0%; free boarding, 18.0%; quality & behaviours of instructors, 14.7%; free medical facility, 12.0%; morning breakfast, 9.0%; and free books & internet, 11.3%.

5.3 FINDINGS OF STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF HYPOTHESES

The present researcher has formulated eleven (11) hypotheses and chi-square and loglinear model to test their validity. The results are as follows:

The first hypothesis appears that “Rank is likely to be related with satisfaction at basic pay”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 21.454 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is very small, approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the rank greater the satisfaction at basic pay. Likewise lower the rank smaller the satisfaction at basic pay.

The second hypothesis derives conclusion that “Rank is likely to be related with power satisfaction of respondents”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 16.113. The degree of freedom is 2. The corresponding p- value is very small, approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent. In other words there is a significant association among the

variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the rank greater the power satisfaction. Similarly lower the rank smaller the power satisfaction.

The third hypothesis interprets that “Age of respondents is likely to be related with satisfaction in training”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 31.639. Number 4 is the degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is very small. It is almost close to zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent. Therefore, it is be inferred that there is a significant association among the variables. So, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the age greater the satisfaction in training. In the same way lower the age smaller the satisfaction in training.

The fourth hypothesis illustrates that “Educational qualification of respondents is likely to be related with satisfaction in training”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 20.592 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent on each other or there is a close association among the variables. That is why the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted.

By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the educational qualification smaller the training satisfaction. Likewise lower the educational qualification greater the training satisfaction.

The fifth hypothesis states that “Educational qualification is likely to be related with rank of respondents”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 41.233 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. The condition states that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the educational qualification better the rank. Similarly lower the educational qualification minor the rank.

The sixth hypothesis mentions that “Educational Qualification is likely to be related with power satisfaction”. The chi-square value for this hypothesis is 18.724, having 4 as the degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is almost zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the educational qualification better the power

satisfaction. Likewise lower the educational qualification lesser the power satisfaction.

The seventh hypothesis declares that “Marital status is likely to be related with satisfaction in training”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 12.112 with 2 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is approximately zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent upon each other. It is concluded that marital status has positive association with satisfaction in training. Married people were prone to satisfaction in training

The eighth hypothesis mentions that “Educational qualification is likely to be related with number of children”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 66.722 with 6 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. The situation states that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that the high investment units had more perfect distribution system as compared to low investment units. It can be concluded that higher the educational qualification smaller the number of children. Likewise lower the educational qualification more the number of children.

The ninth hypothesis concludes that “Total service is likely to be related with satisfaction at basic pay”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 31.768 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the length of service greater the satisfaction on basic pay. Similarly lower the length of service minor the satisfaction on basic pay.

The tenth hypothesis concludes that “Total service is likely to be related with satisfaction in training”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 22.139 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the length of service greater the satisfaction in training. Likewise lower the length of service minor the satisfaction in training.

The eleventh hypothesis concludes that “Total service is likely to be related with power satisfaction”. The calculated value of chi-square for this hypothesis is 15.363 with 4 degree of freedom. The corresponding p- value is almost zero. It shows that the variables are strongly dependent or there is a significant association among the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and research hypothesis is accepted. By fitting loglinear model it is concluded that higher the length of service greater the power satisfaction. Similarly lower the length of service minor the power satisfaction.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS

Through the statistical analyses in Chapter 4 and the subsequent intensive discussions, this study identified the following as the most significant conclusions:

- It was found that majority of respondents were between the age group 18-30 years. They were satisfied at their appointment in police department and were happy in the present rank.

- It was found that majority of respondents were satisfied at training. This is due to the desirability and other monetary benefits directly or indirectly involved in the training.

- The data show that majority of respondents were intermediate and graduate. The minimum requirement for appointment as a constable is matriculation but because of massive unemployment in the country several master holders are hastening in police department as constables.

- The data indicate that the majority of respondents belonged to urban areas. It shows that police recruits belonging to rural areas are either unaware about training incentives or ignored by the police department. The fact confirms that police personnel in urban areas are more aware about their rights and necessities as compared to their counterparts in rural areas.

- The data show that the huge majority of respondents were dissatisfied at source of income. It illustrates that majority of respondents considered source of income as not enough most probably due to the meager salaries and allowances paid to police personnel.

- The data indicate that majority of respondents considered basic pay as not enough most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities, breaking the backbone of police personnel with meager financial incentives.

- The data indicate that the huge majority of respondents were quite dissatisfied at allowances. It indicates that majority of respondents consider allowances as insufficient most probably due to the increasing prices of essential commodities. As a result the financial position of police force is at the bottom level compelling them to compensate the situation either fair or foul means.

- The data signify that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental rewards. It is further affirmed that respondents considered those rewards unevenly distributed among the favourite personnel ignoring the real testers. Likewise, it is also stated that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied at departmental punishments. It is further asserted that respondents considered those punishments unjustified for the reason that on many occasions innocent personnel are victimized.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The primary limitation of this research is the size of the respondent groups was relatively small, so that it would be difficult to generalize from the study's results. It was due to the shortage of time and available resources.

The second limitation of the present investigation was the researcher had to probe into sensitive socio-economic issues of respondents. Usually respondents do not like to answer such sensitive type of questions as those of the personal income and matters related to family. In spite of these hurdles, the researcher tried his best to collect as accurate data as possible after establishing the best rapport with the respondents.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings of the present study, the researcher would like to make the following recommendations for the improvement of training skills at all levels.

- The present study recommends training actors at the different levels of the system and developing targeted programmes, where police personnel from low socio-economic status especially from rural areas can avail the training opportunity.

- The present study noted some shortcoming in training material as well as facilities available at training colleges, in Sindh. It is suggested that training books and other material be provided to the trainees at free of cost. The

quality of general eating like food and drinking water needs to be improved.

- The present study suggests that salary of police personnel needs to be revised. The present salaries are too meager to decent living standard. Allowances for police personnel also need to be revised because they are performing very tough duties.

- The present study recommends to ensure equitable distribution of training resources amongst trainees from upper, middle and lower classes and the distribution of books and stationery, must also be free of cost.

- The general government policies and promotion programmes have been developed to benefit more to urban areas. There is a need to remove unfair policy against rural areas considered the most important for recruits of lower socio-economic status.

- The present study is of great significance for the police department of a country like Pakistan. In view of this it is the earnest desire of the researcher that a comprehensive and elaborate research be conducted for

the understanding of the socio-economic problems faced by police personnel and its overall impact on economic development of the country.

- The findings of this research suggest that police performance is declining. The government policies have generally failed to produce the desired domino effect. It is badly needed certain effective steps must be taken for the betterment and improvement in overall performance of police in the country.

- The Government must be prepared to both allocate more funds for the development of police training in Pakistan now and to give a long term funding commitment for the next 20 years and beyond

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