

Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity among Children: A Sociological Study of Lucknow Slums

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Dedicated to
My Beloved Family




DECLARATION

I, Manas Upadhyay, declare that the work embodied in this thesis entitled **“Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity among Children: A Sociological Study of Lucknow Slums”** has been carried out by me, under supervision of **Prof. Birendra Narain Dubey**, Head, Department of Sociology, Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar (A Central University), Lucknow.

The work included in this thesis has not been submitted for any other degree and unless otherwise stated, is all original. I have duly acknowledged all the sources used by me in the preparation of this thesis. I also declare that the thesis is essentially free from all kinds of plagiarism.

Place: Lucknow

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis titled “**Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity among Children: A Sociological Study of Lucknow Slums**” submitted by **Mr. Manas Upadhyay** is an original research work and has not been previously submitted in part or full for the award of any other degree or diploma to this or any other university.

This thesis submitted to Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University Lucknow, satisfies all the requirements as stipulated in the *Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) regulations -1999 as amended in 2008/2010/2013* and it is fit for submission and evaluation for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University.

Date: 12/12/2018



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PREFACE

Education of the masses rather than of a small privileged group is one of the most crucial concerns of democratic, socialistic countries. It is so because of indispensable nature of education in modern society which is increasingly becoming more scientific and technological. Education through which the standard of living of the people, their prosperity and security can be considerably improved is regarded as a very potent instrument of rapid and effective development of a nation. It furnishes individual with basic knowledge and technical skills essential for work, productivity, and economical survival. It serves as a base for the exercise of all rights and privileges of a citizen as also an absolutely essential precondition for the effective discharge of his duties. As such, it is the very foundation of a democracy. Further education opens up to the individual the central experiences of a culture. Thus, personal growth, economic advancement and social effectiveness all are appreciably enhanced by education which is indispensable for success in a competitive society.

India as a democratic, socialist republic is wedded to the ideal of every kind, and particularly equal educational opportunity for all. Article 21A inserted in Indian Constitution after 86th amendment has enjoined upon the State to provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen year. Under Article 45 the State endeavours to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years. Article 46 has further directed the state to protect with special care the economic and educational interests of the weaker sections of the society.

There have been a plethora of recent studies on how children from extremely disadvantaged communities are caught in the web of exclusion. In order to have socially inclusive classrooms, the curriculum needs to bridge the family-school divide. The Right to Education Act 2009 has defined children belonging to disadvantaged groups and weaker section as “those that belonged to the SC, ST, socially and economically backward class or such groups having disadvantage owing to social, cultural, economic, geographical, linguist, gender or such other factors as may be.”

Educational opportunity can be regarded as a goal or a set of guide-posts in the sense, the framing and implementation of educational policy should introduce the means that will contribute to an increased equalization, in terms of educational outcomes, economic status, participation in decision making process and so on. Of all the three, equality as a goal is considered to be most essential by Coleman, (Coleman, 1966) has raised the question whether equality means equal schools i.e. equal treatment of equal students. “What matters ultimately to the student is not how equal his school is, but rather whether he is equipped at the end of school to compete on an equal footing with others whatever his social origins. Schools are successful in so far as they reduce the dependence of a child’s opportunities upon his social origins. Thus equality of educational opportunity implies not merely ‘equal’ schools but equality effective schools, whose influences will overcome the difference in the starting point of children from different social groups”. It, therefore, follows that from the point of view of the individuals, equality should be pursued from all the three angles i.e. as a starting point, as a treatment and as a goal to which approximations should continuously be made.

Access is a catalytic process that enables interactions, contact and exchanges among individuals. Concept of access has various dimensions. Access indicates ability, the ability to accomplish a broad range of actions, from attaining physical presence to communicating and from acquiring to using. Access increases our ability to improve our current conditions and future prospects. Access allows individuals to participate in activities important to their well-being e.g. individuals who have access to education and training can compete more effectively in different fields.

Universal access to education is the ability of all people to have equal opportunity in education, regardless of their social class, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic background or physical and mental disabilities. Universal access to education encourages a variety of pedagogical approaches to accomplish the dissemination of knowledge across the diversity of social, political, cultural, economic, national and biological backgrounds.

Equity in education is a measure of achievement, fairness and opportunities. Educational equity is dependent on two main factors. The first is fairness, which implies that factors specific to one’s personal conditions should not interfere with the

potential of academic success. The second important factor is inclusion, which refers to a comprehensive standard that applies to everyone in a certain education system. These two factors are closely related and are dependent on each other for true academic success of an education system.

From the point of view of education, the slum population sends lowest number of children to schools and their children exhibit the most severe academic retardation, the highest rate of failures, grade repetition and dropout, and the thinnest transition to upper levels of education. Schools in or near the slums are usually described as having low caste, lower classes and retarded children who lack the basic necessities of life, dilapidated or poorly maintained buildings, inadequacy of essential school facilities. The slum dwellers are deprived, socially excluded and hence, the highly vulnerable section of community in urban areas. The most common denominators of the heterogeneous mass of the slum dwellers are the sub-standard housing and poverty with their concomitant social, cultural and psychological consequences. Apart from other differences from the dominant group, they have difference in life-styles, values, child rearing practices, skills for urban living and educational attainment. The slum area children come from the most deprived and down trodden sections of the population in the urban areas.

The present study tries to examine the educational status of children living in slums. It also tries to examine the inter-linkages between different components of education and slum dwellers. The present study entitled **“Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity among Children: A Sociological Study of Lucknow Slums”** is organised in nine chapters. List of referred books, reports, journals, magazines is given at the end as per alphabetical order.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIE	: Alternative Innovative Education
AO	: Academic Optimism
AYP	: Adequate Yearly Progress
CCT	: Certificate of Completion of Training
CSS	: Common School System
BPL	: Below Poverty Line
DIET	: District Institutes of Education and Training
DPEP	: District Primary Education Programme
DUDA	: District Urban Development Agency
ECD	: Early Childhood Development Initiatives
EGS	: Education Guarantee Scheme
FAO	: Food and Agriculture Organization
FYP	: Five Year Plans
GER	: Gross Enrolment Ratio
GOI	: Government of India
HDR	: Human Development Report
ICT	: Information and Communication Technology
MDG	: Millennium Development Goal
MDM	: Mid-Day Meal
NCF	: National Curriculum Framework
NER	: Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE	: Non Formal Education
NGO	: Non Governmental Organization
NIEPA	: National institute of Educational Planning and Administration

NKC	:	National Knowledge Commission
NPC	:	National Policy on Education
NSSO	:	National Sample Survey Organization
OBC	:	Other Backward Castes
PTS	:	Post Traumatic Stress
RA	:	Reading Achievement
RTI	:	Response to Intervention
RTE	:	Right to Education Act
SC	:	Scheduled Castes
SCI	:	Slum Condition Index
SCR	:	Student Classroom Ratio
SSA	:	Sarva Siksha Abhiyan
ST	:	Scheduled Tribes
SUDA	:	State Urban Development Agency
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UN-Habitat	:	United National Human Settlements Programme
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UPE	:	Universalization of Primary Education



Chapter I
Introduction



Chapter I

Introduction

Background of the Study

Education of the masses is one of the most crucial concerns all over the world. It is because of the indispensable nature of education in modern society which is increasingly becoming more scientific and technological. Education through which the standard of living of the people, their prosperity and security can be considerably improved is regarded as a very potent instrument of rapid and effective development of a nation. It furnishes the individual with basic knowledge and technical skills essential for work, productivity and economical survival. It serves as the base for the exercise of all rights and privileges of a citizen as also an absolutely essential precondition for the effective discharge of his duties. As such, it is the very foundation of a democracy. Further, education opens up to the individual the central experiences of a culture. Thus, personal growth, economic advancement and social effectiveness all are appreciably enhanced by education, which is indispensable for success in a competitive society. It would not be an exaggeration to say that education has become a sine-qua-non of useful existence in modern societies and has become the life-line of both the individual and the society.

India as a nation is wedded to the ideal of equal opportunity of every kind, including equal educational opportunity for all. Article 45 of the Indian Constitution has enjoined upon “the state to provide Universal Primary Education to all children in the age group of (6-14) years”. Article 46 emphasises “the state to protect with special care the economic and educational interests of the weaker sections of people”. In the last few decades there has been an unprecedented expansion of education opportunities at the primary level throughout the world and particularly in the developing countries like India. In India the policy makers have made primary education an integral part of the national development plan, policies and programmes for realising the goals of growth with equity, fairness and social justice. Since its independence, India is dedicated towards the fulfilment of educational goals by providing universal access to satisfactory quality of primary education. The 86th Constitutional Amendment recognizes primary education (6-14 years age group) as a fundamental right (Agarwal and Chugh, 2003).

The moves towards achieving the Universalisation of Elementary education has to be formulated in such a way that various types of inequalities and discrimination do not increase in the meantime but rather constantly reduces social, economic, gender, and regional inequities in accessing and participating in education and achieving the goals.

There have been a plethora of recent studies on how children from extremely disadvantaged communities are caught in the web of exclusion. In order to have socially inclusive classrooms, the curriculum needs to bridge the family-school divide. The Right to Education Act (RTE) 2009 has defined children belonging to disadvantaged groups and weaker section as “those that belonged to the SC, ST, socially and economically backward class or such groups having disadvantage owing to social, cultural, economic, geographical, linguist, gender or such other factors as may be.”

The enactment of RTE requires addressing gender and social equity within framework that is holistic and systematic. Approach in this regard as per revised SSA implementation framework is “Equity will mean not only equal opportunity, but also creation of conditions in which the disadvantaged sections of the society- children of SC, ST, Muslim minority, landless agricultural workers and children with special needs, etc. can avail of the opportunity.”

Characteristics of Urbanisation and Slums in India

As per Census 2011, 31.16 per cent of the India’s population has been living in urban areas. In India, the urban areas are characterized by the existence of cities having varying population sizes. These cities vary from a huge number of small town areas that are not much different from their rural hinterlands or remote areas, to the big metropolitan cities, which are amongst the one of the largest cities of the world. During the era of nineties some of the Indian metropolitan cities have witnessed an exceptional population growth rate of 4 to 5 per cent per year. Thus, in India urbanization is a continuum process with extreme variations in the population as well as socio-economic characteristics. Jalgaon and Mumbai, both happens to be the urban areas within the same state, but it would be futile to compare them. Thus, the contextual indicators in urban areas have severe implications for the design, formulation and implementation of educational planning and its framework. There is

high possibility that what works best in one urban area might fail to give any positive result in other area due to extreme variation and differences in the socio-economic nature of various population groups.

The National Commission on urbanization has elaborated the fact that the process of urbanization in India has emerged as a result of the push and pull factors, which ultimately led to the large migration of population from the rural areas to urban areas. The poor, illiterate, unskilled, semi-skilled, manual labourers and workers have been migrating to cities for the better employment opportunities and also partly as a result of huge demand in industrial and commercial sector for skilled and semi-skilled labour. Poor productivity and profit in agricultural sector as well as frequent crop failures have also led to the large scale rural-urban migration. A large numbers of poor migrant workers every year migrate towards the cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Ahmadabad, Lucknow, etc. with the hope that they would be provided with better employment opportunities and assured income. Some people migrate in order to avail the better educational opportunities for their children. The city planners never paid much attention towards the large flow of the migratory population to the cities and their basic needs such as civic needs. They could not provide these migrants with adequate housing facilities at affordable costs, which have ultimately led to the emergence and growth of slums, where these migrant people prefer to live without any basic and civic amenities due to various compulsions.

Practically in most of the cities of India, the city development planners and policy makers have failed miserably to mobilize the available resources in order to meet the growing demands for urban infrastructure and basic amenities for the vastly increasing urban population. Ultimately, this failure in resource mobilization led to the strikingly sharp inequalities in availability and access to the basic civic amenities within the boundaries of the cities. It is also true in the context of basic education and health facilities. While a segment of population in the cities are privileged enough to avail the luxuries of air conditioned homes, and hire the most expensive teachers, the others who could not afford this lifestyle are living in small tenements without adequate facilities, proper electricity and safe drinking water. People living in these squatter settlements are bereft of basic civic amenities of health, shelter and education.

The proportion of population residing in slums varies significantly from one city to another. The estimated data published by the Census of India (2011) indicated that nearly 41 million persons are living in urban slums in 706 urban areas of various cities and they constitute about 22.8 per cent of the total population of these cities. The Census of India 2011 estimates revealed that in Lucknow alone 3.2 million people have been living in various types of slums.

The Problem of Urban Slums

The phenomenon called slum is almost universal and these slums exist practically in all the cities across the globe. The city of Lucknow alone has approximately 1,100 large and small unauthorised settlements constituting of six lakh jhuggies forming several clusters of notified and non-notified slums, with around 3.2 million population living in these squatter settlements.

There is severe lack of reliable data on the slum population and its physical structure, availability of social infrastructure and other civic amenities. Although various statistics have been compiled by departments like Lucknow Development Authority, Municipal Corporation of Lucknow, Lucknow Municipal Committee, Lucknow Vidyut Board, Lucknow Jal Board and other agencies have, but these statistics are not easily available. Without the availability of such information, it is an extremely difficult task to perform an exhaustive analysis of the demand and supply gaps, the quality and accessibility of social services such as education, health, safe drinking water, garbage disposal and sewerage.

Educational Disparities and the Urban Poor

The Government of India has launched a large number of projects, policies and programmes in order to reduce the social, gender and regional disparities and gaps but the difficulties which are being faced by the urban slum dwellers were largely ignored. In different policies and five year plans several measures were formulated and suggested for the upliftment and development of rural, remote and backward areas, however no concrete strategies and policies were formulated in order to look into the educational problems of urban deprived and marginalised. If we look at the average socio-economic indicators, such as per capita income, household food security, availability of basic civic amenities, infant mortality rate, maternal mortality

rate, literacy level, enrolment of the school going children, are far better in the urban areas in comparison to the national average, but the same is not true for the slum dwellers. The scenario in majority of the slums is even worse than many rural areas. However, it is only recently that the administrators and policy makers have realised that the attention is needed to be given towards the educational needs of this neglected segment of the population, which remained excluded and marginalised for decades. It was in the Ninth Five Year Plan which recognized the relative inequalities and inequities are more pronounced in urban areas and the decline in urban poverty is moving at a very slow rate. It was estimated that the poverty ratios in the urban areas would exceed those of the rural areas (Govt of India, 1999). As the World Bank (1994) rightly pointed out "Poverty is not only a problem of low incomes; rather, it is multi-dimensional problem that includes low access to opportunities for developing human capital and to education". The children living in slums children face educational deprivation not only in terms of availability and accessibility but also in terms of quality.

From the point of view of education, people residing in slums sends the lowest number of children to school and their children exhibit the most severe academic retardation, the highest rate of failures, grade repetition and dropout, and the thinnest transition to upper levels of education. Schools in or near the slums are usually described as having low caste, lower class and retarded children who lack the basic necessities of life, overcrowded, dilapidated or poorly maintained buildings, inadequacy of essential school facilities.

The slum dwellers are the poorest, the most miserable and hence the most highly vulnerable sections of community in urban areas. The most common denominators of the heterogeneous mass of slum dwellers are sub-standard housing and poverty with their concomitant social, cultural and psychological consequences. Apart from other differences from the dominant group, they have difference, in life-styles, values, child-rearing practices, skills for urban living and educational attainment.

Majority of the children living in slums lack availability and access to schools which have adequate infrastructural and other schooling facilities. Teachers are also not very well tuned for teaching these under-privileged and deprived children. If we

look into the barriers which the children from the remote, rural and backward areas have to face, it include natural geographical barriers such as adverse weather conditions, hilly region and mountains, however the children residing in the slum areas have to face obstructions such as busy roads, traffic, railway tracks and temporary hindrances, etc.

There is possibility that the school might be located within a reasonable distance but the children might have to cross a busy road which has heavy traffic or railway crossing which not only impediment them from attending the school but also pose a threat to their life. It is a stark reality that in the urban settings the supply side constraints cannot be removed by only considering the norms of physical distance. In fulfilling the demands of amenities and facilities, critical role is being played by the structure of the settlement, social stratification and the high density of population. One of the major administrative problems is the lack of availability of schools at the demand points. Therefore, in urban settings overcrowding of pupil in schools has emerged as one of the major issues especially in the schools which are serving the urban poor and weaker sections of the population.

The consequences of the medium of instruction have not been properly evaluated and examined particularly from the dimension of learning styles and practices of children living in slums. Since large proportion of the population residing in the slums are first or second-generation migrants, their mother tongue or language spoken at home is generally different from the medium of instruction i.e. Hindi in case of government schools, English in private schools. Hence, the educational problems which are specific to the slum children as mentioned above required to be addressed through appropriate strategies and interventions.

From the above-stated explanations and discussions, several social, economic and organisational indicators have been identified which are directly related with the education of the urban poor. There are several issues that are associated with the provision of educational and other schooling facilities for the slum population. However, the existing literature is especially inadequate to broaden the horizon and develop a better understanding of the learning outcomes of various schools serving the children living in slums.

Deficient home environment seems to be the principal reason for under-developed intelligence and low academic achievement of slum area children among whom the range of intellectual potential should be as normal as among other children. Intelligence grows out of experience with objects and people, but lower class homes fail to provide a variety of objects, play things and stimuli to the child sense of sight, hearing, touch, feeling and so on (Hunt, 1961 & 1964). This environmental deprivation in the lower class home results into a depression of cognitive development in the child (Deutsch, 1965). Bloom (1965) has shown that more than half the differences in performance on conventional intelligence tests found at the end of high school could be accounted for by differences at the age of 6 i.e. at the beginning of regular schooling. In other words, these differences are there when children first enter the school, and what is more, they go on increasing progressively with the passage of time eventually causing a “cumulative deficit”. Other scholars like (Bernstein, 1961) hold that the lower class children’s difficulties in the school stem chiefly from their poor language development due to insufficient and defective verbal communication in the home where parents are uneducated and have little time or ability to develop the necessary language skills among their children through conversation, answering of questions and explanation of various phenomena. When new concept and transactional term are to be acquired verbally i.e., by definition and context from speech and reading rather than by abstraction from direct and concrete experiences. The lower class children would suffer from the paucity of abstractions in the everyday vocabulary of his elders, from the rarity of stimulating conversation in the home, from the relative absence of books, magazines and newspapers and from each example of a reading adult in the family (Ausubel, 1964).

Wolf (1964) in his study of the effect of parent-child interaction on intellectual development has shown how a home environment rich in the press for language development, the press for achievement motivation and the provision for general learning is able to boost-up cognitive development. The lower class home, however, conspicuously lacks such an environment with obvious results (Rath, 1976). Still others influenced by David Me Clelland’s and work on achievement motivation ascribe the scholastic failure of the lower class child to the failure of the lower class culture to develop the complex of attitude which are indispensable for academic achievement attitudes emphasizing a “future orientation”, individual rather than

collective mobility personal achievement and a sense of control over one's destiny. Further, a low self-concept and low educational and occupational aspirations have been cited as one of the major characteristics of the disadvantaged children, (Rath, 1976). A poor self-image is surely the result of a life of impoverishment, neglect and insignificancies, but gets reinforced in the school by academic failure and retardation. Numerous studies have found high relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. The low-self image of the slum area child leads to inferior academic achievement, and low performance in turn reinforces a negative evaluation of the self. Moreover, much of what goes on in the classroom is not continuous with the home experiences, values and orientations of the slum area child. So it further reinforces his feeling of inferiority, depresses, his aspirations and dampens his already scanty: motivation for achievement.

It may thus be seen that the lower class children lack the necessary cognitive, linguistic and attitudinal preparation for school. Their early experiences in the home, their motivation for present learning and their goals for the future are such as to handicap them in school. Slum living and social isolation further enhances these problems (Bloom, 1965). Equality of opportunity has, indeed, provided the goal, slogan and ideology in terms of which educational reform has most commonly been espoused and evaluated over the last century.

The concept of equal opportunity implies equal access to the channels of mobility. In modern society education is one of the necessary channels for achieving bureaucratic position and membership of the professions. While, there is no assurance that with education one can always move to higher positions, it is generally unlikely that one can do so without education.

Education can play a role in equalizing opportunities in three important ways:

- i) By making it possible for all those who have the ability and the desire to be educated to benefit by that facility;
- ii) By developing a content of education which will promote the development of a scientific and objective outlook; and
- iii) By creating a social environment in class and non-class activities and in residential halls which will be conducive to development of inter-caste, inter-lingual and inter-religious fellowship. An atmosphere of mutual intolerance

whether based on religious or language preference cannot facilitate equalization of opportunity.

In so far as a modern society accepts the legitimacy of providing equality of opportunity to all its younger members, it must seek to provide equal opportunity to them to secure the best education that they would wish to and are capable of. Of course, education is not the only channel to mobility and provision of educational facility does not equalize all opportunities. Parental income, parental education, class and cultural background are important variants which influence opportunities. But since most societies including the communist ones accept the utility of the kin-group and seek to bolster it through appropriate marriage and property regulations, and since most societies, again including the communist ones, also accept the legitimacy of unequal rewards for different jobs, there is really no way in which a society can effectively and completely prevent inequality of opportunity insofar as such inequality arises from the differential economic and cultural backgrounds of individuals. Moreover, not all variations in cultural background are necessarily handicaps. In a very important sense these variations may turn out to be a source of strength for society.

The effort of a society which seeks to equalize opportunity, therefore, largely takes the form of providing services which compensate for the inequality in economic background through socialized community services and through provision of educational facilities. There are, of course, obvious difficulties in the way of providing such services and facilities adequately and universally. Not even the most developed countries would have the resources to provide free education to all those desirous of benefiting by it except at the primary and secondary stage. And developing countries are often unable to provide it even at the primary level.

Since education cannot be provided free for all at all levels and since developing countries are often not able to provide it free even at the primary or secondary level, an effort is made to provide it free at least to those who are needy. Often the resources available are inadequate even to cover all those who would come under the term 'needy' and a further restriction has to be imposed by limiting free education facilities only to those who are 'needy and meritorious'. This already gives rise to one type of inequality in opportunities. While the children of the needy can

have education only if they are meritorious, the children of the well-to-do can go to schools so long as they can pay for it.

Moreover, so long as privately financed schools are allowed to exist simultaneously with the publicly financed schools, it is difficult to achieve comparable quality in both the types of schools. The private schools which are attended by children of the well-to-do offer better remuneration to their teachers, have smaller number of students in each class, provide better equipment and facilities. The publicly financed schools have to compete for funds with other activities of the state and the priority given to education is often not as high as the priority given to irrigation, industry, roads, etc. The publicly financed schools, therefore, often compare unfavourably with the privately financed schools which cater to the upper income groups in society. This again gives rise to inequality in education.

This need not necessarily be interpreted as a plea for the abolition of privately financed schools. It is a most point whether the equality of disadvantage that will follow from such a policy will turn out to be of advantage to the society as a whole. Also, it is possible to argue that the total number of children will go to 'private' (i.e. recognized but not aided) schools in the country as a whole is so small that their existence need not be taken serious note of in the framing of educational policy. Further, Government has tried to make better opportunities of some of the exclusive schools available to the children of the lower income groups by providing for a certain number of competitive scholarships where the competition is limited to children of backward classes and low income groups. These scholarships pay for the entire cost of education of the scholar in a given institution. The problem of unequal access to the general system of education is, however, a more serious one and needs further study.

The effort to achieve equality of opportunity is a part of the broader quest for human equality. In modern societies which depend heavily upon new knowledge and techniques and wherein more and more occupations are becoming professionalized, education is one of the main ways of promoting equality in life opportunities. However, provision of equal access to educational opportunities is in itself not as easy as it seems and even where such equal access is provided it does not by itself lead to an equalization of educational opportunity. Much conscious effort is needed to make this constitutional goal of equal opportunity effective in practice.

It is possible to conceive of educational opportunity in two different contexts- individual and societal i.e. larger groups. In both these contexts, equality can be interpreted in a narrow perspective as 'equality within educational institutions' and in a broader perspective where equality is extended to post-school performance in terms of occupations or life-time incomes. The present study is concerned with equality in the first perspective only i.e. equality of educational opportunities within educational institutions and equality within educational institutions in the context of the individual and the society is discussed below:

From the individual point of view, (Husen, 1972) has conceived of equality of educational opportunities as:

- a) a starting point;
- b) a treatment; and
- c) a goal; or as a combination of all the three.

We can think of equality as a starting point when all individuals start their formal school career on an equal footing i.e. nobody is denied admission to an educational institution maintained or aided by the state. However, children at the start of their educational career are different both genetically and in their living conditions. Also they get different treatments from their parents whose genetic equipments are different.

Secondly, equality can be thought of as applied to treatment, irrespective of a person's genetic equipment and social origin. Equality before law, a minimum income or subsistence allowance, a unitary system of preschool or primary education are such instances of equal treatment.

However, such a system has not necessarily led to a complete or even increased equalisation among adults. Even in a communist country like the U.S.S.R., a majority of students at the institutions of higher learning in Moscow came from higher families of bureaucrats or professionals, as well disclosed by Premier Khrushchev while introducing the Education Act of 1958 to the Supreme Soviet (Conant, 1959). Similarly, in many countries including India, free elementary education coupled with many facilities, ancillary services and different kinds of

student support has by no means levelled out the differences in educational participation between the working class and the middle class (CER, 1971).

Finally, educational opportunity can be regarded as a goal or a set of guideposts in the sense the framing and implementation of educational policy showed introduce means that will contribute to an increased equalisation, in terms of educational outcomes, economic status, participation in decision-making processes and so on. Of all the three, equality as a goal is considered to be most essential by Coleman (1966) has raised the question whether equality means equal schools i.e. equal treatment of equal students. “What matters ultimately to the student is not how equal his school is, but rather whether he is equipped at the end of the school to compete on an equal footing with others whatever his social origins. Schools are successful in so far as they reduce the dependence of a child’s opportunities upon his social origins. Thus equality of educational opportunities implies not merely ‘equal’ schools but equally effective schools, whose influences will overcome the differences in the starting point of children from different social groups” (Coleman, et. al., 1966). It, therefore, follows that from the point of view of the individuals, equality should be pursued from all three angles i.e. as a starting point, as a treatment and as a goal to which approximations should be continuously be made.

From the social point of view, equality of educational opportunity means that a representative individual of any racial or regional group has the same probability of succeeding as a representative individual of any other racial or regional group. To arrive at this conclusion, the concept of equal educational opportunity has passed through at least four stages viz equal access, equal inputs, equal outcomes and simultaneous social action.

According to the equal access conception, everyone irrespective of his sex, colour, race, religion, caste, place of residence or social origins is to have equal access to education as education is the right of all. Further, the responsibility of educating the people is that of the state which owes it equal to all its members. Efforts are to be made to reduce group disparities in enrolment ratios or transition coefficient at different levels of education for social groups defined with respect to age, sex, religion, caste, social class, etc. In practice, equal access implies provision of universal, free and compulsory education upto a given level elementary or high school

which provides the principal entry point into the labour force. Secondary and higher education are also to be made freely available. At the secondary stage, differential curricula are to be provided for pupils of different abilities and aptitudes. In the institutes of higher learning, all those who have the ability should have access irrespective of social or economic position, or place of residence. Stipends, scholarship and hostel facilities should be provided for all such students. The basic assumption underlying this approach as (Husen, 1972) observes is that ability in large part is inherited and the greatest obstacle to equality of educational opportunity is material poverty which is to be overcome by giving support to the poor but able. Everybody, via his education, should be given the social status to which he is entitled by his inherited aptitudes (talent). Many structural school reforms in Europe during the 20th century have been partly guided by this philosophy. By extending education to more advanced levels, by making the compulsory part of it less differentiated and more single tracked and by making it available to children for all walks of life, it was believed that one could remove handicaps that are inherent in being born poor and giving somewhere for from school. Only one should have the requisite ability as testified by intelligence test scores, achievement test scores, examination grades or any other objective indicator of accomplishment to pass a course of studies or to get selected to one where the number of seats are limited. This replacement of the criteria of birth, wealth and connections by the criterion of tested ability was considered to be a big advance towards the democratisation of education. The ideology of merit is historically democratic in the sense that the rights of merit are set against privileges from birth and fortune. But its effect is to give those on the right side a good conscience while concealing the other side of the problem. This observation by the authors of 'Learning to Be' report of the International Commission on Education (UNESCO 1973)¹⁶, is only one of several criticisms of guaranteeing formal access to education, while learning out all other social conditions unequal. Others are no less severe and strike at the very root of the educational system which is branded as hierarchical, in egalitarian and self-perpetuating in nature.

The operational, meeting of equal education opportunities is that all schools whether in slums or suburbs, in rural or urban areas, should have equal per pupil expenditure. Teacher quality, library facilities, school buildings, playgrounds and other physical facilities should be the same in schools attended by different groups.

The basic assumption underlying this concept of equal educational opportunity is that the quality of education depends on the amount of money spend and that quality of guaranteed if per pupil expenditure is the same. This conception of equal educational opportunity is very relevant for most countries where it is common experience to find schools for the poor having substandard buildings, poor equipment and most inadequate facilities. In its report entitled 'Learning to Be' (UNESCO 1973), the International Commission on Education has rightly remarked. Education systems are not able to eliminate the facts of on inequality, but at least, they should not make them worse. Whatever power education has or has not to alleviate in its own domain inequalities among individuals and groups, a resolute social policy to correct unfair distribution of educational resources and effort is the obvious precondition for any progress in this respect.

However, pupil achievement is not entirely a function of school inputs as measured by certain tangible characteristics of schools. More would depend on how and in what way the school inputs are put to use. Moreover, Coleman has shown in the equal educational opportunities survey that certain intangible characteristics of fellow students and certain teacher attributes are more important and account more for school differences in achievement. Again, it is not sufficient to know the school inputs only but also what the child brings to the school in terms of his attitudes and interests. In analysing the factors that aid the achievement of equality, the combined effect of both physical and psychological condition at home and in the school should be considered, (Husen 1972), Equalising school facilities without a corresponding and equalization of family circumstances community settings would not bring about equality to an appreciable extent.

The first two conceptions of equal educational opportunities have their focus on the equalization of educational inputs i.e. the means of education. The third conception of equal educational opportunity is concerned with the end-product of education, i.e. educational development, equality in which should be the chief criterion of judging the effectiveness of schools with equal inputs. While equality at the input side can be waived by providing extra resources to the educationally deprived, we must insist on equal outcomes for different social groups at the end of a school stage. Thus equal educational opportunities implies no merely equal schools, but equally effective schools whose influences will overcome the differences in the

starting point of children from different social groups (Coleman, et. al., 1966). In fact, the ends of social justice may demand unequal treatment in favour of socially disadvantaged groups so that equality of results can be ensured. This has been the philosophy behind the British Plowdon Communities recommendation to designate those schools in England as 'Educational Priority Areas' which are attended largely by educationally deprived children and to give extra help to them in terms of better-paid and more experienced teachers, a lower pupil-teacher ratio, more specialist help, better nutrition and health services, better equipment and instructional materials, and so on. The principle already accepted that special need calls for special help should be given as a new cutting edge. We ask for 'positive discrimination' in favour of such schools and the children in them, going well beyond an attempt to 'equalise resources'. Schools in deprived areas should be given priority in many respects. The justification is that the homes and neighbourhoods from which many of their children come provide little support and stimulus for learning. The schools must supply a compensating environment (Central Advisory Council for Education in England, 1969).

The same philosophy lies behind the Head Start, Higher Horizons and scores of other compensatory programmes in the U.S.A. which were instituted to bring the educational standards of socially disadvantaged children at par with those of their more fortunate counterparts. The contention was that the school should not only capitalize on the already developed intelligence of middle class children, but should also help to raise the intellectual capacities of disadvantaged groups which have not reached their ceiling level but remained subdued due to an unfavourable and hostile home environment.

The above concept of equal educational opportunity is based on the assumption that mental ability is in large measure acquired and can be increased by the provision of a proper environment. It has radical implications for schools and the teaching process. The responsibility for scholastic success or failure is not that of the individual, it has rather to be shifted to the school, particularly the way instruction is organised. Whether one follows personalised pedagogy or principles of mastery learning as set forth by Bloom to optimise learning (Block 1971), scholastic achievements at the end of a particular stage of schooling must be equal in case of different social groups. Equal educational opportunities, therefore, do not imply

identity of treatment or of educational opportunity. It means that every child should be given optimum opportunity to develop the personal aspects as they are at that time need educational treatment in a public school. One should provide “equal opportunity for unequal treatment” so far as socially relevant differences are concerned so that towards the end, educational outcomes are the same for every social group.

Bloom (1964) has shown that more than half the differences in the intelligence test scores found at the end of high school can be accounted for by differences ascertained at the age of six i.e. at the beginning of regular schooling. Thus most of the differences were already there when children entered elementary school. Hence the need for equalising opportunity both at the pre-school and elementary school levels by providing compensatory and environment programmes. The elementary school as it is, cannot be a prime equaliser by itself. Moreover, it is not enough to equalise the school environments, the home environments of the children need drastic improvements including those in their parent’s education, income, and employment opportunities. In order to achieve the long-term objective of greater equality in occupational careers and the standard of living, action must be taken in the wider context of the society in which the school functions. Educational reform is no substitute for social reform. A substantial part of the difference in children’s intelligence takes place before the child enters the elementary school.

Both the family and the poor group exercise a strong influence on the development of a child’s intelligence. Educational systems tilt the scales in favour of children whose parents are educated and thus have a good socio-economic background. This disparity found in the school achievement of children from different classes of people is largely determined by highly complex socio-economic-psychological processes and not so much by educational policies. Universal enrolment quotas, expansion of ancillary services and measures student support are more palliatives unless backed by a determined policy of cultural promotion based on economic and social democracy (UNESCO, 1973).

Statement of the Problem

The research is aimed at studying the educational opportunities available to the children of slum in Lucknow. The main objective of the research is to study the schooling facilities available in slum areas and the achievement level of the student at

various level of primary stage. The research also tries to study the impact of socio-economic conditions on the education of the slum children. The focus of the study is to understand the issue of educational opportunities, access and equity at grass-root level. As not much work has been done earlier in the field of educational equity, the present study will provide a new dimension in understanding the concept of educational equity. It is also very pertinent to study whether the educational opportunities, access and equity of education extended to the slum children create any improvement.

Hence the research is titled as:

"Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity among Children: A Sociological Study of Lucknow Slums."

Objectives of the Study

A study of the problem in the way of full and equal opportunity, access and equity for all its children especially those of the resourceless and the socially excluded people provide an idea of the nature and magnitude of difficulties that beset the realization of equal educational opportunity.

The main objectives of this study are:

1. To understand the Government policy and programmes for Primary Education in India.
2. To analyze socio-economic and educational conditions of families in the slums.
3. To explore schooling facilities and the extent to which these facilities are being utilized by the slum dwellers.
4. To study the achievement level of the students at various levels of primary stage and its linkages with equity.
5. To assess the educational opportunities, access and equity among slum children.

Hypotheses of the Study

In order to realize the above objectives following hypotheses are formulated:

1. Awareness among parents about Government policies and programmes enhances the enrolment rate of slum children.
2. Poor socio-economic status of the family adversely affects the education of slum children.
3. Lack in schooling facilities lowers the educational opportunities and access among slum children.
4. Higher educational opportunities, access and equity leads to higher achievement level among slum children.
5. High level of equity reduces the gender gap.

Research Methodology

The present study aims at knowing the availability of educational opportunities, access and equity to the slum children in the Lucknow city.

Research Design

The study is focused at primary education (Class I-V). For the study, infrastructure facilities, socio-economic conditions and achievement level of children have been observed and assessed. In order to assess the relationship between the educational opportunities, access and equity and achievement level of children in slums exploratory research design has been used. The study is focused at grass-root level.

Sampling Techniques

The area of study is four slums in Lucknow city, broadly taking two old slums (Pre-1990s) Broadly, two old slums (Pre-1990s) i.e. Sikandarnagar slum, Chinhath bazaar slum and two new slums Rajajipuram slum and Vikasnagar slum have been selected for the study. Sampling technique for selection of area is simple random sampling. The slums having population over 1000 have been selected for the study.

The sample size consisted of 200 parents and their children who are studying between Class I-V, 60 teachers and 16 Principals. The respondents have been selected by using purposive sampling. The unit of the study is single household. Four schools

from each slum have been selected for study i.e. study has been conducted in 16 schools.

Tools and Techniques of Data Collection

In the present study, both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection have been used. For collecting data primary as well as secondary sources have been used.

Primary Data

- i) Interview schedule
- ii) Non-participant observation
- iii) Achievement test in Hindi and Mathematics
- iv) Focused group discussion

The interview schedule for the present study aimed at eliciting information related to socio-economic status, housing condition, health which has an influence on the academic achievement of the children.

The interview schedule chiefly meant to find out the extent and quality of educational inputs related to the children and their family. These inputs are very significant, because ultimately it is the children who have to utilize the available educational opportunity and it is their family and home which largely determine their capacity to profit from educational experiences. The schedule consisted of items on several aspects of the slum area: child's family, home environment and personal attributes viz. parental education, occupation, point of origin from where his family migrated to the slums, income affection, interest and help in aspirations for the child's education, occupation, and income of his brother's and sister's, material possessions, living space, reading materials and language spoken in the home, child's access to school and exposure to preschool education, his academic achievement, learning difficulties, time devoted to homework, participation in co-curricular activities, exposure to mass media and interest in studies, physical, academic and social self-concept of the children, social adjustment, their educational and occupational aspirations, present achievement and achievement motivation and perception of teacher attitudes and hindrances in learning, pupil-teacher ratio. The interview schedule will be conducted in four slums of Lucknow.

Non-participant observation method has also been used to collect data and it has been observed whether slum children are being provided equal educational opportunities, access, and equity. It has also been observed how they are being treated in schools, whether they are facing any discrimination or not and what is the attitude of teachers towards them.

Focused group discussion has also been done in order to gather opinions of the parents about the educational facilities, opportunities, access and equity which their ward is being provided in the schools.

The achievement tests have been conducted in English, Hindi and Mathematics. The achievement tests are based on the syllabus of class-V and consisted of ten questions each. The content of these questions are rudimentary and practical in order to measure their accuracy. .

Social, educational and gender equity have been measured using following determinants:

Social Equity

- Learning Achievement of children of slums belonging to different religion
- Learning Achievement of children of slums belonging to different castes
- Involvement of girls in household chores
- Attitude of parents towards girls' education

Educational Equity

- Awareness among parents about education
- Awareness among parents about Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA), Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) and Alternative and Innovative Education (AIE)
- Preference among parents in sending their wards to schools
- Expenditure of parents on tuition
- Overall expenditure of parents on education

Gender Equity

- Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) of boys and girls

- Retention Rate of boys and girls
- Drop-out Rate of boys and girls
- Succession/Transition Rate of boys and girls
- Learning Achievement of boys and girls
- Attitude of teachers towards girls' education
- Gender Parity in the classroom

All these determinants would play an important role in measuring equity.

Secondary Data

- i.) Census report
- ii.) Journals
- iii.) SSA documents
- iv.) District diary/ Gazetter
- v.) SUDA and DUDA documents
- vi.) Perspective Plan of Lucknow district
- vii.) Annual Work Plan and Budget of Lucknow district (2013-14, 2014-15, 2015-16)
- viii.) Data from NGOs working in the slums

Processing and Analysis of Data

After categorization and tabulation of all collected information they have been analyzed on the basis of statistics and reasoning. Statistical analysis of the data has been done to analyze the association between variables. Besides percentage, mean and standard deviation has also been used. All data analysis has been done using the statistical software SPSS. After analyzing data report writing has been done descriptively and useful solution has been provided.

Area of the Study

The phenomenon of squatter settlements has to be seen as a stage in the process of urbanization in a developing country like India and not so much as a consequence of the growth of cities. Cities are the end products of the socio-economic process operating at the societal level thus are a part of the fundamental changes in the society that accompany socio-economic development and modernization. The cities,

irrespective of their size, provide possibilities of varied occupations and collective services, such as health, education, cultural, technological, commercial or industrial services and thus act as focal points development opportunities. Economic, industrial and service sector development during the last three and half decades has resulted urbanizing large segments of the population. It has not only resulted in the rapid growth of urban centres, particularly the mega-politan cities, but also is drawing a large number of new social groups in the process of development. Majority of the rural migrants move to the cities not only for the new opportunities they offer but also to escape from the limitations of their traditional and conservative conditions.

The movement of large number of rural migrants to the urban areas has far reaching social implications in transforming the nature and character of urbanization in India. The migrants move into the city not only physically but also bring along their culture, style of life, values, etc. The new groups in trying to gain access to the city's socio-economic system, often by forming communities of their own, in competition with the old groups of more educated, skilled and affluent urban dwellers create dichotomies and tensions. This process of new social polarities and discontinuities indicates that the city is becoming ruralised in certain ways. The emerging urbanizing society is increasingly becoming a rural-urban environment, both as a way of life and physical form. It must be understood that the rapidly expanding urban environment is not taking shape as a simple projection of the economic and social structure of the past.

Formation of Slums

It is evident that the new groups, who come to the city to seek entry in the development process, create a new type of residential settlement in contradiction to that of the existing urban groups. Since the new groups are mostly constituted of low-income group of rural migrants, they accept whatever accommodations are available or can be quickly erected with waste materials or with those that can be procured on low costs on open spaces which are unusable or lying vacant. Generally the operation takes place in groups, initially consisting of relatives and kin or members from the same caste, village, district, region or language. This process involves illegal occupancy or squatting on public or private lands. They take place independently of the authorities charged with external or institutional control of local building and

planning. A very noticeable aspect of these settlements is their location to the work places.

Another major characteristic of these settlements is their neo-rural or village like pattern since the dwellers in these settlements follow traditional procedures with regard to building and physical development. It seems to be an attempt for reinterpretation of rural life in an urban condition. The process of formation of these autonomous squatter settlements makes it not only possible for large number of low income group families to get themselves cheap dwellings but also to supply labour force for a variety of urban activities at a lower costs. Thus the processes of producing autonomous settlements are manifestations of normal urban growth and as such the existence of these settlements is not the problem but that they are uncontrolled and their forms are often distorted. Unless there are alternatives for the millions of immigrants to live, these settlements will exist. It cannot also be assumed that unless the alternatives are found, the poor should not be really in the cities, but should wait patiently in the villages until rural and regional development policies can help them.

Urban Problems

Amongst a large stream of problems designated popularly by these slums as urban problems, poverty remains one with persistent relevance and continues to be growing concern for those desirous of understanding its genesis as also for others involved in offering a practical solution to it. In Indian case although poverty has equally haunted the society with almost an equal vigour, yet both the magnitude as well as the nature of poverty has been tremendously noticeable to one third of the total population.

Urban poverty has revealed itself most evidently through urban slums, accommodating the people who normally live below poverty line although these are not only areas inhabited by the poor. Poverty line means an income level that is inadequate to maintain a decent standard of living as judged by the standards of the society. Yet the fact remains that the poor in the cities tend to get concentrated in some residential localities thus providing an ecological dimension to the phenomenon. For this reason, a slum was initially defined basically in ecological terms, emphasizing the unhygienic, dehumanizing and in sanitary conditions characterizing it of course, with some cross national as well as inter-city variations. The slums do not only constitute merely ecological units but they are significant reflection of the larger social structure being sufficiently demonstrated. Just as a city cannot be

understood as entity isolated from the large social structure of which it is a part of slum too would have little meaning if treated merely as an ecological unit. Our cities tend to appear like an extension of the rural community in, so far as residential segregation of the poor and socially under privileged sections of the society is concerned. Physical separation between the poor and rich often leading to social distance has characterized both our cities and villages. This has often been treated as normal even by the planners, policy makers, who while rehabilitating the poor further segregated them residentially. How important can the repercussions be of residential segregation of the poor still remains an untouched realm as far as our urban planning is concerned.

Slums in cities have been found to be invariably inhabited by the poorest of the poor, those at the bottom of social hierarchy and also engaged in the dirtiest occupations irrespective of the level of development of the society. Slums in India inhabited largely by the urban poor were earlier labelled as areas of despair signifying pessimism among those dwelling in them. Urban poor are not hopeful of a better future and they lack high ambitions and motivations thus making them as frustrated and desperate as in earlier periods. Later Indian cities were treated as areas of hope accommodating people with optimistic attitude towards life, having high hopes and ambitions for future.

The problem of urban poverty and consequently slums in India has most often ascribed to the persistent rural to urban migration due to various reasons. The observation had gained such popularity that a great emphasis was laid on the need to decentralize the process of urbanization. It was strongly felt that rural areas had to be industrialized to avoid migration from these places. A strong case was built by emphasizing on the undesirable expansion of the informal sector in Indian cities as a result of the unwanted movement of those unemployed and under employed from the village to the cities. The urban centres always have attracted and will go on attracting the rural migrants.

The ever-burgeoning population of the largest cities in India and elsewhere is often a case of over urbanization signifying a higher growth rate in urban population as compared with economic development. As a consequence of this, cities have had a much higher proportion of persons than they can actually afford economically, ecologically, etc.,. Thus, the population explosion accompanied by lagging economic

growth is treated as the main reason for the persistence of overcrowding slum conditions in our cities. Thus, slum has been accepted as an inevitable part of urban landscape in our cities, which is growing at a fast pace.

Slums in Lucknow

Urbanization has been accompanied by growth of population and slums from the very inception of the urban world. Urbanization is increasing at a rapid rate and available supply of land and housing in the urban centres cannot accommodate the surging squatter population. People are, therefore, illegally occupying land and creating their own shelters, residing in the deplorable living conditions. One of the varying problems confronting many of the developing nations in the world today is the illegal occupation of land-, which is generally called squatting. The population in these areas increases at a much faster rate at two or three times the rate of the urban population as a whole, while the health services, employment opportunities and social services do not increase correspondingly. As such, life style of many of the households staying in these areas starts deteriorating, facing extremely difficult conditions leading to anti-social elements and crimes and much needs to be done to improve their predicament.

Rapid urbanization has led to an alarming deterioration in the quality of the city dwellers in India. Our cities suffer from various infrastructural deficiencies, poor sanitation and solid waste disposal, water shortage, polluted natural water resources, water logging in monsoons and other rainy seasons, frequent epidemics, inadequate health care, depletion of green areas and ground water level, poor roads and transportation, proliferation of slums and lack of support for the social and economic development of the disadvantaged mainly economically weaker sections of the society. The aggregate impact of distress is especially debilitating for the urban poor living in slums.

Women and children in slums are most affected as they continuously manage their daily lives and chores in this decaying environment. Woman in the slum to our mind is the greatest sufferer. Unlike men and children who go out to work and play, woman has to remain within those surroundings throughout the day. She slogs and sweats for the whole day. She is not aware where her children go, what type of activities they are performing, etc. She is ignorant about many things including how to guide her children to remain clean and keep away from epidemic diseases. She needs guidance and proper education, a special type of education, someone should

talk to her as a friend to whom she can confide. She has to confide many things. There is no privacy in her house. The problem gets more complicated, when due to the urban living conditions, especially due to the pull factor. The woman in slum has more problems if she a new comer from the rural village. She is creator of future itself.

In slums the child suffers from many handicaps. Foremost among them is the neglect from the parental care. The environment of the slum itself is one the greatest handicaps from which the child suffers. We had seen these children grow and attain youth without any preparedness for work and employment. There is absence of adequate programme for them to equip them to compete with others for modern training and employment opportunities. Unaided and unguided frustration he faces often attains the state of recklessness. Their entire dream of being a good citizen, employment, marriage and other social participation becomes shattered. Even those few who are able to finish school or college education have to compete with the more privileged youth of upper class and such a competition sows seeds of hatred. The result invariably leads to miserable conditions. These may be due to inappropriate development strategies; inadequate marshalling of resources and inequitable distribution of fruits of urbanization exacerbating the decay.

There is greater awareness in the country about vicious circle of problems of urban poor especially slum people as well about the deterioration of urban environment and infrastructure. Measures taken in the past to clear the slums never proved to be a success and therefore, the local authorities have started taking it as reality and legalized the areas, in spite of the fact that many of them are much below even the substandard level of living. Today it has become difficult for any authority to evacuate these areas and drive the poor slum dwellers away from where they are living in the city. Therefore, combating with slum problem is a big challenge of this era to the researchers, policy makers, planners, etc.

Every slum is different in its origin, location, size and demographic characteristics. But all characteristics are not common for all slums in the city. It may differ due to various reasons such as its appearance, economic condition, overcrowding of buildings, tenements, population, health and sanitary conditions, morality, way of life, standard of living, isolation of other residential communities, etc.,. Thus, a slum is generally defined as a place where basic necessities of life like

housing, employment, health, sanitation, drinking water, education facilities, etc, are absent. In India majority of small, mediums as well as other metropolitan cities are facing the problem of slum. Uttar Pradesh is also facing the same problem. The information regarding the identified slums and urban population of India and Uttar Pradesh during 1981-2001 is presented in Table 1.1.

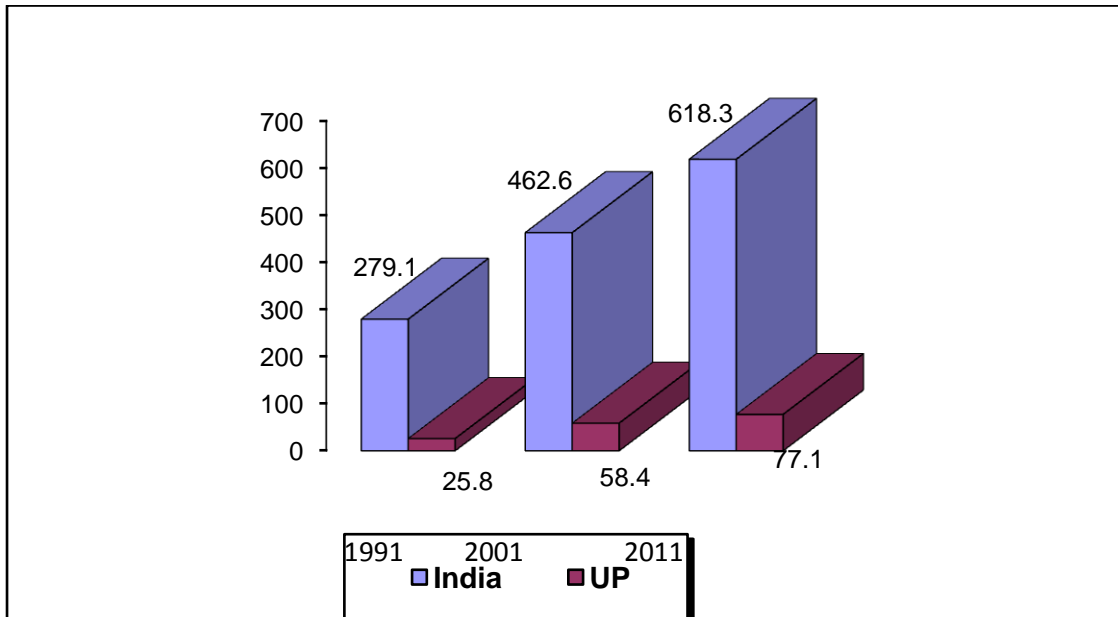
Table 1.1 Identified/Estimated Populations and Slum Populations in Urban India and Uttar Pradesh 1991-2011

S.No.	Year	Population (Lakh)		%
		Urban	Slum	
1	India			
	i. 1991	1594.6	279.1	17.5
	ii. 2001	2176.1	462.6	21.3
	iii. 2011	2909.4	618.3	21.3
2	Uttar Pradesh			
	i. 1991	199.0	25.8	13.0
	ii. 2001	276.1	58.4	21.1
	iii. 2011	365.4	77.1	21.1

Source: Compendium of Environment Statistics, 2011.

It may be observed from Table 1.1 that more than one fifth of the total urban population of India is staying in slums. In urban India the slum population has increased from 279.1 lakh in 1981 to 618.3 lakh in 2001. During the same period the percentage of slum population to the total urban population has increased from 17.5 per cent in 1981 to 21.3 per cent 2001. During the same period in urban Uttar Pradesh the percentage of slum population to the total population has increased from 25.8 lakh (13 per cent) in 1981 to 77.1 lakh (21.1 per cent) in 2001. The higher percentage growth of slum population during the last two decade may be due to the large inflow of population from rural areas to the urban areas especially searching jobs in industrial and service sector, natural growth rates, the higher wage rate in urban areas, etc,. The growth of slum population in urban India and Uttar Pradesh is depicted in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Slum Populations in Urban India and Uttar Pradesh 1991-2011(Lakh)



The growth rate of slum population in India and Uttar Pradesh during 1991-2011 is presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Growth Rate of Slum Population in India and Uttar Pradesh 1991-2011

No	Years	India	Uttar Pradesh
1	1991-2001	65.74	126.36
2	2001-2011	33.66	32.02
3	2011	121.53	198.84

Source: Compendium of Environment Statistics, 2011.

It may be inferred from Table 1.2 that the annual growth rate of slum population in Urban Uttar Pradesh was higher than that of the Urban India during last two decades and was observed at 3.8 per cent. The first decade recorded higher growth rate both in Urban India and Urban Uttar Pradesh. In urban Uttar Pradesh the annual growth during the first decade covered under the study was at 12.6 per cent, while that of the urban India was only 6.6 per cent. The highest growth rate of slum population during the decade 80's may be due to the natural growth rate of population, the importance of secondary and tertiary sectors, which provided larger share of employment opportunities, the higher level of migration of educated, skilled and semi skilled workers from the rural areas to the urban areas, various other social

reasons like movement of family members from the rural to urban areas due to marriage and other social ties, etc.,. According to Census of India Cities classified into Class I and Class II and others by the number of population. The slum population of Uttar Pradesh during 1991 by classification is presented in Table 1.3.

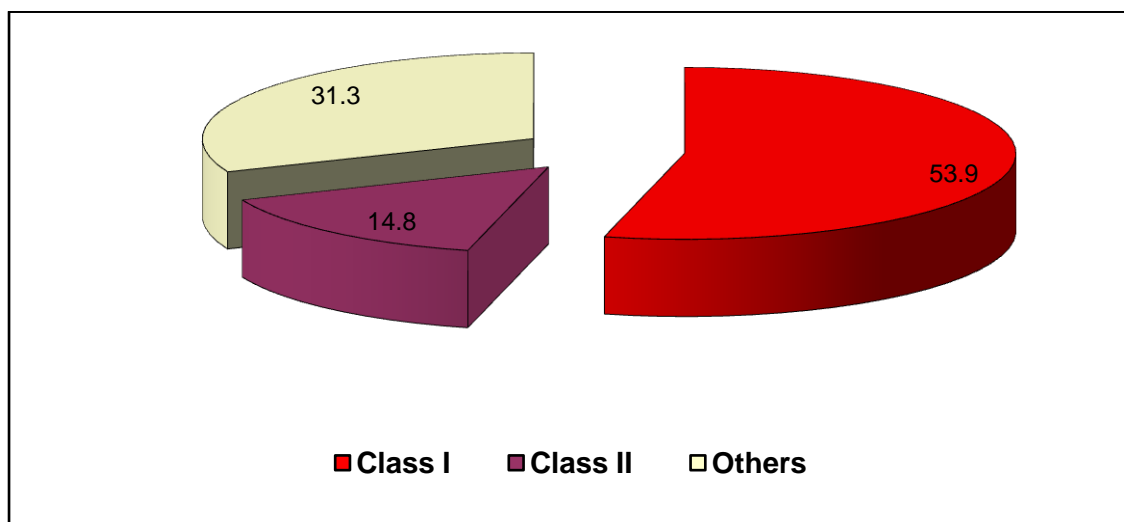
Table 1.3: Slum Population in Uttar Pradesh on the Basis of Classification of Cities (2011)

S. No	Classification of Cities	Percentage Distribution
1	Class I	53.9
2	Class II	14.8
3	Others	31.3
Total		100.0

Source: Compendium of Environment Statistics, 2011.

It may be observed from Table 1.3 that more than one half of the slum population in Urban Uttar Pradesh in 1991 was in Class I cities, 15 per cent of them in Class II and the remaining 31 per cent of them in other cities. The higher percentage of slum population in Class I cities may be due to the higher level of employment opportunities, informal sector opportunities, etc.,. The slum population in urban Uttar Pradesh by class-wise classification population in urban Uttar Pradesh by class-wise classification of cities is depicted in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 Slum Population in UP on the Basis of Classification of Cities-2011.



The 74th Amendment 1992, envisages a critical role for elected municipal governments in the provision of basic services to their residents. The Act incorporates a 12th Schedule an illustrative list of municipal functions. Slum improvement and upgradation and urban poverty alleviation are considered as legitimate functions of municipal authorities. Although these functions can be best handled at the municipal level requiring local knowledge and active participation by the local communities, the functions redistribute in nature need support from Central and state Governments. As far as slum improvement and upgradation are concerned central support has been very negligible. During the Fifth Plan the central Government introduced a centrally sponsored scheme but later it was transferred to the state sector subsequently. Experience shows that virtually none of the state governments has been able to provide sufficient funds for the scheme as a result of which there has not been much improvement and upgradation work in urban slums except, perhaps, where external funding agencies were involved. In the light of the 74th Amendment and considering the fact that the condition of urban slums in most of the states and towns are extremely unsatisfactory and that the slum population of the nation is going in an upward direction, it is considered appropriate that the government may introduce some good policies for upgradation of urban slums.

The factors contributing to the emergence of slums are many which affect the urban economy of the city. The main factors are low wage level, poverty, unplanned city growth and its planning, inadequate level of all basic facilities, inappropriate maintenance of existing available facilities, etc. These slums create number of problems such as environmental problems, pollution, social disorders, unhygienic living conditions, etc.,. Crime records of the city clearly reveal the fact that majority of the criminal activities are either directly or indirectly linked with these slum people. Majority of the males in these slums have the habit of smoking, drinking, snatching, gambling, not working, etc, leading to anti social elements and mal practices. The female members of the family manage a major portion of household expenditure mainly on food and clothing. They are mainly involved in the household activities of neighbouring and high income groups. Children are involved in rag picking activities. The information regarding population and slum population of Uttar Pradesh and Lucknow Urban Areas during the last two decade is presented in Table 1.4.

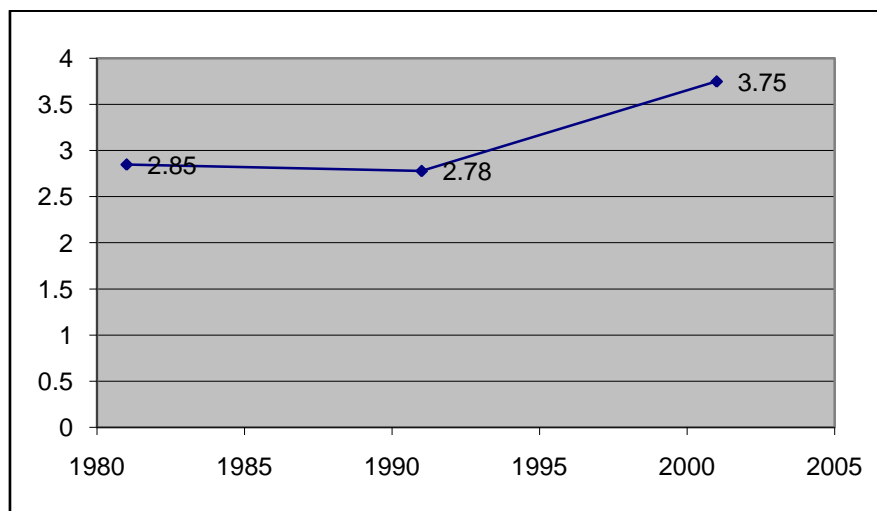
Table 1.4: Estimated Population and Slum Population in Urban Uttar Pradesh & Lucknow Urban Areas 1991-2011

S. No	Year	Population (Lakh)					
		Total			Slum		
		UP	Lucknow Urban Areas	%	UP	Lucknow Urban Areas	%
1	1991	199.0	10.07	5.06	25.8	2.85	11.05
2	2001	276.1	16.69	6.04	58.4	2.78	4.76
3	2011	365.4	22.58	6.18	77.1	3.75	4.86

Source: Compendium of Environment Statistics, 2011.

It may be inferred from Table 1.4 that only 6.2 per cent of the urban population of Uttar Pradesh was in Lucknow Urban Areas during the year 2001. During the last two decades the contribution of Lucknow Urban Areas population to the total urban population of Uttar Pradesh has increased more than one per cent, 5.06 per cent in 1981 to 6.18 per cent 2001. On the contrary the proportion of slum population in Lucknow Urban Areas had decreased from 11.05 per cent in 1981 to 4.86 per cent in 2001, clearly reveals the fact that number of measures have been undertaken by the local authorities especially Lucknow Development Authority and Lucknow Municipal Corporation. The information regarding the slum population of Lucknow Urban Areas during the last two-decades is depicted in Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: Slum Population of Lucknow Urban Areas- 1981-2001 (Lakh)



The National Sample Survey Organization of the Ministry of Programme of Implementation has published the information regarding the urban slums in India by basic services. The information relating to the same is presented in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5: Distribution of Urban Slum by Basic Services in Uttar Pradesh and India – 2011 (in per cent)

No.	Basic Services	Uttar Pradesh	India
1	Safe Drinking water	93.5	91.5
2	Electricity	5.4	26.1
3	Toilet	27.7	45.2

Source: Compendium of Environment Statistics, 2011.

It may be inferred from Table 1.5 that more than 90 per cent of the slums in India and Uttar Pradesh had facilities for safe drinking water. While only just above one fourth of the slum households in India had the facility of electricity. In Uttar Pradesh only 5.4 per cent of the slum population had the facility of electricity, which was less than the national average by 20.7 per cent. Likewise the toilet facility is only lesser percentage of the slum population of Uttar Pradesh as compared with the national level at 45.2 per cent. It clearly narrates the fact that basic facilities in slums in Uttar Pradesh had lesser level as compared with the national level. It may be due to various reasons like slow process of implementing slum improvement programmes, absence of external assistance as compared with other municipal towns in India, absence of trained personnel for handling the programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation, lesser level of required level of basic infrastructure as compared with other cities, etc.,. The information regarding households living in slums and their proportion living in kutcha houses both in urban India and Uttar Pradesh is presented in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6: Households in Slums and Their Proportion in Living in Kutcha Houses in Urban UP and India

No	Details	Per cent	
		UP	India
1	Households Living in Slums	9.53	26.34
2	Slum Dwellers Living in Kutcha Houses	29.17	88.07

Source: Handbook of Housing Statistics, NBO, 2012.

It may be observed from the Table 1.6 that more than one fourth of the households in India were staying in slums. As compared with the national level, Uttar Pradesh constitutes only a lesser level, at 9.53 per cent. In India, more than 88 per cent of the slum households living in kutchha houses where the roof and wall are made up of thatch leaves, mud, plastic paper, cut boards, clothes etc. While the available information shows the fact that only 29 per cent of the slums household in Uttar Pradesh were staying in kutchha houses which clearly narrates the fact that Uttar Pradesh was in a better position as compared with the national scenario.

Developmental Policies for Slums

One of the major problems in urban development is that those who talk about development, who are entrusted with responsibility for the planning and implementation of development, are very often far removed from those, to whom development matters the most. The cities have wealth but the poor who live in them do not share that. They service the city, clean the house of the rich and cook for them, they provide labour for factories, shops and restaurants, they are the main carriers of goods, and yet they continue to be poor. The transfer of poverty from the rural set up called migratory movements, where it is well spread out over space, to a city where it is concentrated, presenting perhaps the most horrifying indicative nature of independent India.

Little is being done for the urban poor. They do not have the access to land for housing at a cost which they can afford, nor are they provided with any type of basic civic amenities. They are not helped to acquire work sites to establish their small business. They are accepted in the city only as a necessary evil without which the city would not function. The planning system has not placed them properly because master plans aim at the creation of regulated and zonal segments of an unaffordable nature. For the poor there is really nothing. From time to time political solutions are attempted such as granting legal documents to people who have already helped themselves to get land and who even without the legal documents, would manage to survive on it. It is only in this perspective that issues like urban financing, town planning, environment and transport issues can be meaningfully addressed. We must resolve to keep this perspective so that urban development does not repeat the failures of earlier development in other areas by dealing mainly with physical and

technological matters over the head of the people concerned and without even their slightest involvement.

The developmental wisdom can be attained by adequately compartmentalizing the big galaxy of problems into relevant and actionable clusters in two ways. Basic poverty, which demonstrate itself in low income, inadequate nutrition and all basic amenities, limited or no education, low skills and no or inadequate income etc. Another one is the environmental poverty manifesting itself through inadequate services and housing, overcrowding, pollution, exposure of various diseases, low productivity, low income, inability to pay for adequate services, housing, etc. The last one is psychological dimensions which mainly stress the factors like insecurity, stress, depression, defiant social behaviour, no imagination, aspiration, lack of opportunity to demonstrate one's efficiency and again low income and consequently inability to insure the security of family.

The urban poor have become an inevitable concomitant of the development path of many countries including India, have chosen or have been forced to choose. The poor in urban areas not only prop up the economy, but they also help the city governments make services economical because the poor offer their labour at a very nominal rate. Imagine the city without the poor malnourished loader, the scavenger and the conservancy labour. Economically speaking, the urban poor make the city living affordable and less costly than it would be. But seldom do the not so poor care to help them to make their living affordable. In order to be more meaningful, objectives and goals must be translated into day-to-day practice in conjunction with the people facing problems. That requires both dedication and sacrifice on the part of city government and its staff and of the non-governmental organizations, self help groups and volunteers and whose support is so essential in any effort to reach the un-reached.

Summary

Slum Improvement Schemes have been undertaken in our country for since long. However, the emphasis of these schemes has been on provision of basic civic amenities in urban slums and they are only ameliorative in nature. Slum upgradation on the other hand, which allows a long time and permanent solution, consistent with the principle affordability, cost, recovery, are now being thought by some cities.

These programmes have apparently been successful in some selected large cities. Some other cities are now planning to undertake slum upgradation programmes along with slum improvement programmes. Despite the breakthrough in addressing the slum problems in some cities, there are many issues in planning the slum development programmes for which there are no universal solutions. These issues will have different type of solutions for different type of cities. In order to attain development in slums especially for checking the growth a strong local administration is very essential. Creation of focal centres for attraction in the form of satellite towns would serve to counteract the push from the rural to the already existing urban centres.

Significance of the Study

In educational opportunity report entitled 'Educational and National Development' the Education Commission, (1964-66) has beautifully summed up the crucial role of education in national life in the very first paragraph. "The destiny of India is now being shaped in her classrooms. This we believe is no more rhetoric. In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people. On the quality and number of persons coming out of our schools and colleges will depend our success in the great enterprise of national reconstruction, the principal objective of which is to raise the standard of living of our people."

This realisation of the central importance of education for the ultimate well being of the country is not unique to India alone. The concern for and preoccupation with educational development as a powerful instrument of rapid and effective national development is quite widespread and is shared by both developed and developing, socialist and communist, parliamentary and dictatorial countries. It is very much in keeping with the spirit of the U.N. Charter on Human Rights in which it is emphatically said: "Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory (Article 26)."

Accordingly, several newly emerging and developing countries have adopted policies and programmes for providing universal primary education of seven or eight years of duration. Consequently, there has been a phenomenal increase in the rate of enrolment, number of schools and number of school teachers in these countries

(Shibiny, 1971). In developed countries, already education has become indispensable due to the use of science and technology in each and every walk of life. Education is a major determinant of an individual's chances for economic and social success in a competitive society. It has a unique influence on a child's, development as a citizen and his participation in social and political life.

According to Priest (1971) education is perhaps the most important function of state and local Governments today. Compulsory school attendance laws and the great expenditures for education in that country reflected singular importance of education to a democratic society. Education is required in the performance of one's most basic public responsibilities, even service in the armed forces. It is the very foundation of good citizenship. It is the principal instrument for awakening the child to cultural values, for preparing him for later professional training, and for helping him to adjust normally to his environment. Any child these days cannot be reasonably expected to A succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms. Priest further, feels that society has a compelling interest in affording children an opportunity to attend school. Public interest lies in conserving and developing the resources of young minds. Schools are doorways opening into chambers of science, art and learned professions. Opportunities for securing employment are more or less dependent on one's success in school work. These are rights and privileges which cannot be denied. Education has thus become the sine qua non of useful existence in the modern technological society. Its pivotal position to success in society and its essential role in opening up to the individual the central experience of culture lend it an importance that is undeniable. Thus education is the life-time of both the individual and the society.

After its emergence as a free, democratic, socialistic republic some fifty years ago, India was faced with very serious problems and challenges arising out of the colossal poverty, pervasive ignorance and miserable living conditions of its masses. Added to these were the urgent tasks of consolidating a young and tender democracy surrounded by a Welter of sinister and threatening forces endangering its very existence. The Education Commission (1964-66), therefore, regarded education as the one and only instrument of national development which could reach all people. It was the tool for the realisation of national aspirations and for meeting national challenges.

Educational opportunity on a wide scale, the commission felt, was urgently needed to accomplish the following broad purposes:

- i) To develop knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for gainful employment in tasks of economic development.
- ii) To raise the low standard of living of the Indian people by increasing productivity.
- iii) To meet the challenges posed by the second industrial revolution of automation and cybernetics.
- iv) To strengthen the foundations of the Indian democracy by creating an education electorate and a dedicated leadership.
- v) To alter the present hierarchical, stratified and in egalitarian society.
- vi) To achieve social and national integration by fostering a feeling of oneness among all religions, cultures and regions.
- vii) To provide fullest opportunities to the individual to develop himself as an end, and not as a mere means of social development.

Keeping in full view the key importance of education for the tasks of national reconstruction and strengthening of democracy, the makers of the Indian Constitution had earlier enshrined educational provisions in the Constitution, itself. Thus, Article 45 of the Indian Constitution has enjoined upon “the state to provide Universal Primary Education to all children in the age group of (6-14) years”.

Accordingly in the post-independence era, the country has made giant strides in the provision of educational facilities at all levels, especially the primary level. Simply stated, educational opportunity means provision of adequate educational facilities in schools and colleges and supply of those goods and services which will enable students to attend educational institutions. Since the resources of the country are at best limited, educational opportunity, too, cannot be available to all especially at higher stages. In these circumstances, educational opportunity should not be constructed to mean extended provision for all, but only equal access or equal chances to avail it after satisfying some criterion of ability or social justice or both. Besides, equal access, equality should also extend to the share of resources, facilities or services offered to different groups of children and the treatment meted out to them. Again, educational opportunity should not only be adequate and equal, but also of a

good quality so that it can fulfil the basic purposes underlying its provision. Thus to be effective, educational opportunity should fulfil three minimum conditions viz adequacy, equal accessibility and treatment and quality. According to Naik (1975) the educational system in India has been geared right from the beginning to the pursuit of these three major goals of quantity, equality and quality. However, it is extremely difficult to keep a balance between the conflicting demands of all the three. Whereas, an extension of the limited educational resources to all or a much higher number may lead to a dilution of resources, the achievement of uniform educational standards may result into inappropriate standards for the talented and the retarded. Again, while the pursuit of quality has usually resulted in its being linked with privilege, the ideal of equality has been greatly hampered by the very inequalities in society which it is designed to remove. In this way, the pursuit of quality may lead to a sub-standard education both in its tangible and semi-tangible aspects, the pursuit aspects, the pursuit of quantity in the absence of adequate resources may lead to good schools only for the privileged, and the socio-economic inequalities in the larger society may frustrate all attempts at achieving equality within educational institutions.

The Indian Republic is basically committed to the principles of democracy, social justice and secularism. Equality is one of the corner - stones of its edifice. The preamble to the Indian Constitution speaks of our solemn resolution to secure social, economic and political justice and equal opportunity and states for all the citizens. Accordingly, all adults have been given the right to franchise. The Constitution has made equality before law (Article 14), "equality of opportunity in matters of public employment" (Article 16), "abolition of untouchability" (Article 17), "prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race-, caste, sex or place of birth" (Article 15), and "prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour" (Article 23), as 'Fundamental Rights'. The Directive Principles of State Policy further recognise" the rights to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of underserved social want (Article 47), promise improvement in levels of nutrition, public health and standards of living "(Article 47), and "direct the state and secure just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief" (Article 42), "to guarantee a living wage, full employment and social and cultural opportunities to all workers" (Article 43), and "to promote the welfare of the people". With regard to education, (Article 45), of the Directive Principles of state policy has enjoined upon "the state the duty of providing

universal, free and compulsory primary education of 8 years duration within a period of 10 years ending in 1960". Other constitutional provisions with regard to education are: "No individual shall be denied admission to any educational institution maintained by the state or receiving aid out of state funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or place of birth" (Article 29). "The state shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of people and in particular, of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all form of exploitation" (Article 46). Lastly, (Article 15 & 16), have been amended to lay down that "nothing in these articles shall prevent the state from making any special provisions to the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizen or for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes" (Article 15, IV; Article 16,IV).

In keeping with the above provisions of the constitution, there has been a fantastic proliferation educational institutions in the country at all levels. A study of the country's Five Year Plans and the progress reports of the Ministry of Education, Govt, of India will show that the National Government has not only recognised everybody's right of free access to education and made adequate provision accordingly, but has also attached great importance to the provision of ancillary services and student support measures like school's meals, free supply of text books and stationery, provision of school uniforms, institution of stipends and scholarships and provision of hostel facilities at secondary and college stages in order to neutralise the effects or poverty. Besides, it has given special facilities and concession on order to speed education among the educationally backward classes like the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Backward Classes and women. Education has been made free at the primary stage throughout the country and at the secondary and university stages in a few states. For Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes at higher levels, many scholarships are being given. Merit scholarships are also being given to talented but needy students and special arrangements are being made for their study in selected public schools.

Naik (1975) observes that despite this conscious and vigorous effort at equalising educational opportunities in the country, the overall picture remains unfortunately that of pervasive inequality. Either poverty or lack of educational background and a different life style have prevented the poorer and backward classes

from taking full benefit of free education facilities at all levels. The principal indices of inequality viz: the uneven enrolment rates for deprived social groups and classes, their low transition ratios at different stages of education, their high attrition or wastage and stagnation rate, their low levels of educational attainment (i.e. number of years of schooling) and academic achievement all go to depict the sorry state of affairs in this regard.

The present research work is important for various reasons. As it has been already mentioned above that India as a nation is wedded to the principle of equal opportunities, access and equity in all fields including the education. It is considered that equal educational opportunity is one of the basic instruments that could ensure opportunity of every other kind. India is committed towards the goal of “providing universal primary education to all children in the age group of 6-14 years and to protecting with special care the educational and other interests of the socially weaker sections of people”. The children living in slums come from the most deprived and neglected sections of the population in urban areas. As such, the country has a special responsibility for their education and welfare. The study is an attempt to see how far the Lucknow has progressed in making adequate and suitable provision for these children and to what extent it has ensured equal educational opportunity to all.

Secondly, although the disparities in educational provision between the urban and rural areas have been the subject of serious attention for a long time, the disparities within urban areas i.e. between slums and suburbs of poverty areas and middle class areas have not yet come to light. Without ascertaining these differences, however, disparities cannot be removed.

Thirdly, although the slum area children are not different from other disadvantaged groups in having problems, their problems assume special seriousness when viewed in the context of severe environment deprivation, deterioration and social pathologies that stem from the striking visible contrasts between affluence and poverty. It would not be too much to say that slum residence, by its very nature, accentuates disadvantage which prevents children from taking full advantage of any educational opportunity offered to them. To know the kind of hurdles - physical, social, economic and psychological that hamper educational progress in slum areas would be quite enlightening.

Fourthly, a study of the problems in the way of full and equal educational opportunities for all its children especially those of the poorest and the most miserable people living in hundreds of its slums would provide an idea of the nature and magnitude of difficulties that beset, the realisation of equal educational opportunities in all these cities. Moreover, Lucknow as the capital of Uttar Pradesh State should set an example in the provision of equal educational opportunities which would be worthy of emulation by all their Districts of Uttar Pradesh State.

Fifthly, a real understanding of the educational malaise in slum areas and a deep insight into its genesis, is virtually non-existent. By focussing on the entire spectrum of educational opportunities in the slums with comparable equal access, equal inputs and equal outcomes, the study would furnish very useful knowledge for making policy decisions and formulating special programmes for the universalisation and equalisation of educational opportunities at the primary stage.



Chapter II

Review of Literature, Conceptual and Theoretical Framework



Chapter II

Review of Literature, Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

Review of Literature

For performing any type of research the review of the related literature forms the very basis of that work. In this chapter an attempt has been made to provide a brief review of the literature related with the research topic as well as conceptual and theoretical framework have also been provided in this chapter. In order to understand what to do and not to do one can gain knowledge from his regular exercises. This gained knowledge is needed to be preserved for transmitting it to the next generation. Hence, a person can take the advantage of this preserved knowledge that has been accumulated either through the centuries or since the origin of mankind. There are three main functions of education viz. – Preservation, Transmission and Advancement. These three factors are of utmost importance in any research work. It works as an instrument of continuous approximation to the revelation of truth or fact. It is imperative that the researcher must have in-depth knowledge of the present as well as the previous research studies related to his work. It would be fruitful not only for the researcher but also for the development of the discipline. In order to assure familiarity, especially in social sciences review of the theoretical and research literature is one of the important stages.

Powell (2012) in his work “Equations and the equal sign in elementary mathematics text books” tried to evaluate eight elementary curricula for different degree of exposure to equation types. The curricula were coded for the number of standard and non-standard equation types mentioned within the student textbook in the six elementary grade levels. Only in first and the eight curricula, the students received exposure to non-standard equation types, while in rest of the curricula the students typically do not receive exposure to nonstandard equation types. This suggested that students received least instruction on the relational definitions of the equal sign. The study revealed that the majority of instructions were performed in grades 1-2 and minimal instructions were provided in the grade 3-5.

Raymona and Roxanne (2012) in their article ‘The Effects of Academic Optimism on Elementary Reading Achievement’ tried to analyse and explore the

association between Academic Optimism (AO) and elementary Reading Achievement (RA). The analysis revealed that AO was positively correlated with RA. All the components of AO, i.e. collective efficacy, faculty trust in students and parents and academic emphasis were positively correlated. In this study it was found that the percent free and reduced lunch which was a proxy for SES was negatively correlated with all the variables. Hierarchical linear regression showed that the AO had a significant effect on RA. The study accounted that nearly 18 per cent of the variation in the achievement scores was above the effects of SES.

Ippolito and Schecter (2012) in their article “Using institutional structures to promote educational equity” carried out a research project in two public schools in Ontario for tracing the diverging trajectories in a situated participation. The project was operated with an organised set of objectives. The objectives were to promote the educational equity among immigrants, students with linguistically diversity and their families. The study provided two substantially different models of educational provision in both the schools: first one was the enrichment approach that was envisioned in the project and the second was the remediation strategy. This strategy was grounded in an academic discourse of the deficit.

Khan and Azid (2011) in their paper “Malnutrition in primary school-age children: A case of urban and slum areas of Bahawalpur, Pakistan” pointed towards the determinants of malnutrition among the children in the age group of primary education in the urban slum areas. The main objectives of the study were to formulate policy for the nutritional welfare of the children. The study showed the chances of the anthropometric failure increases with the increase in age, birth-order. It was also revealed in the study that the female children were more vulnerable to anthropometric failures. The educational status of the parents’ particularly mothers’ education was directly linked with the child’s nutritional status. In this study malnutrition was found to be positively associated with the number of household members per room. However, the availability of electricity, potable drinking water and drainage system came to be negatively associated with the childrens’ malnutrition. This study concluded that the children living in slums are more susceptible to anthropometric failures.

Fisher (2011) in his study “Inside the primary classroom: examples of dissatisfaction behind a veil of compliance” explored children’s feelings, attitude and behaviour in an academic year. This study highlighted the fact that the majority of the children were dissatisfied. The concealed feelings of these children were observed in a wide range of subjects. The efforts put in this concealment were explored and it was revealed that the role of the teacher and external forces were highly encouraging. The study concluded the fact that applying the findings to the practice, particularly providing an open environment. In this open environment the teachers as well as the pupils can express their views more openly and in more constructive manner.

McDowell, Reutzel and Smith (2011) in their study “Does instructional alignment matter” investigated the effects of aligning classroom reading instruction with the supplementary reading instruction. The study was conducted on 133 struggling students in grade II. Students who were in the aligned reading instruction treatment group showed statistically significant mean residual gain scores. Comparing two treatment groups revealed that the sizes of the groups do have an effect on the results and the results were in favour of the aligned treatment conditions which were small in size. This study indicated the fact that consistently providing aligning supplementary reading instruction with the core reading instruction gave advantage to the struggling students.

Curby et. al. (2011) carried out a study to analyse the impact of variability in the quality of classroom interactions within a day in third and fifth grade. The aggregates of ratings were used to study the quality of classroom interactions. The results of the study highlighted the fact that classroom interactions in which there was emotional support dimensions were most stable, whereas classrooms with the instructional support dimensions were least stable. The study also revealed that the start of the day and transitions were closely related with the lower-quality classroom interactions. This study also showed that the academic activities, more teachers, fewer students, and group interactions were associated with the higher quality of study. The implications of the study are elaborated in terms of student’s experiences and conducting classroom observations.

Kloosterman, (2011) conducted a study on Mathematics skills of nine-year-old from 1978 to 2004. This study analyzed and explored the mathematics performance of

the 9-year-old students between the period 1978 and 2004. This study used the recently released data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress for the long-term trend assessment. This study described the overall assessment items and the changes that were over period of time on each of the items.

Speece et.al. (2011) worked on the identification of reading problems among school children studying in Grade I within Models of Response to Intervention (RTI). In the response-to-intervention framework the parameters of assessment and instruction are included. In this study the focus was on the assessment and developing a screening battery. This would help in providing the validity and efficiently identifying children who are at risk of reading problems. In this RTI model, these children who are at risk of reading problem would be identified through early intervention. In this study the model that was best fitted was two word-fluency measures and a teacher rating of reading problems. Statistically, the word-fluency growth was also an alternative for this study, but it was not the most efficient choice because the measure would require an additional data point. The receiver-operator characteristic curve analysis provided curve index of 0.96, which showed that the selected three variable model is highly suitable and accurate.

Cambell and Malkus (2011) carried out a survey to study the impact of elementary mathematics coaches on the achievement level of the children. In the selected schools the elementary mathematics coaches were placed in order to construct the leadership roles. Moreover, it would also help in providing on-site as well as collaborative professional development. These mathematics coaches would address the issues of mathematical content, pedagogy, and curriculum which would improve the student's achievement. In this three year randomized control study it was revealed that over the period of time the coaches had a positive effect on the student's achievement in grades III-V. However, in the first year of placement of mathematics coach in schools, no significant positive effect was seen on the achievement level of students. But in the later years it emerged that coaches gained experience and knowledge which had positive impact on the achievement level of the students. For this study the coaches which were engaged had high degree of professional coursework which also helped in addressing the issues of mathematics content as well as pedagogy. However, these findings should not be generalized for the coaches with less expertise.

Konstantopoulos and Chung (2011) studied the persistence effects of teacher in the elementary education. The results from showed that in the experimental and non-experimental situations the teachers differ significantly in their effectiveness. Moreover, the evidences from the non-experimental studies indicated that the effect of teachers lasts for three years of the elementary grades. Here, the teacher effects are defined as the residuals which are specific to teacher and these are adjusted to the background of the student and their treatment effects. The findings of this study indicated that the teacher effects were persistent throughout the sixth grades in the subjects of mathematics, reading as well as science. The findings of this study also revealed that the teacher effects are important and their cumulative effects are considerable for the achievement level of the student.

O'Connor, Dearing and Collins (2011) studied the relationship between the teacher and children as well as the behaviour problem trajectories in the elementary level of schooling. In this study, the relationships between the quality of teacher-child association and behavioural problems among the students of elementary schools have been examined. In this study there are two major findings. Firstly, the high-quality of teacher-child relationships resulted in low levels of externalizing behaviours. Secondly, the high-quality of teacher-student relationships also worked as protective indicators and this would help in preventing students having high levels of internalizing behaviour in the early childhood. The Teacher-student relationships can be viewed as a proximal phenomenon and this could be used as an intervention in order to prevent behavioural problems in middle childhood.

Brown and Clift (2010) examined as well as analysed the effects of unequal yearly progress. They collected evidences through school visits. The insights of this report were based on the yearly site visits from 2004 to 2006 in the primary and middle schools in three states. The increasing percentages of students in every public school make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). In this study the investigators developed a framework which was based on the concept of physics of attractor basin in order to relate to the theoretical concepts of economics and psychology as well as the experiences that principals, teachers and parents have with the laws. The investigators anticipated the findings of the study in very different manner and asserted that effects of the AYP differ significantly and bear different initial achievement levels.

Lee (2010) in his study entitled “the tripartite growth trajectories of reading and math achievement: Tracking national academic progress at primary, middle and high school levels” examined the trends of growth trajectories in reading and math achievement among the American students over the last three decades. On the basis of various sources of national assessment data, this study provided new scenario of the stability as well as change in the national academic growth curves. The emerging scenario implied that the tripartite pattern are gaining momentum at the pre-primary school level, holding ground at the middle level of schooling, however, losing the ground at the high school level.

Bogges, (2010) undertook a study on tailoring new urban teachers for character and activism. This work was a two-site as well as qualitative case study. In this study it was examined that how the Public School Districts in Chicago and Boston alternatively developed new teachers through collaboration with the private and non-profit urban teachers. The findings of this study indicating participants’ preferences for varying types of professional dispositions considered essential to teacher quality. The study considered the implications of reform partners “tailoring” teachers to possess specific sets of dispositions in order to fulfill ideal constructions of teacher quality and meet the instructional needs of each district.

Thornberg (2010) undertook the study entitled “A student in distress: Moral frames and bystander behaviour in school”. The main objective of this study was to explore and develop a theory which is grounded on why and how students behave in a particular way in school situations when they witness another student in distress in the class situation. The study resulted in a theory named as “moral frames in bystander situations in school”. In this study, there are five main moral frames of school that have been identified: “(a) the moral construction of the good student, (b) institutionalized moral disengagement, and (c) tribe caring, (d) gentle caring-girl morality, and (e) social hierarchy dependent morality”. This study revealed how moral actions are usually inhibited by the conformity that are being fostered in school settings.

Heck and Hallinger (2009) took up a study entitled “assessing the contribution of distributed leadership to school improvement and growth in math achievement”. This longitudinal study was conducted in 195 elementary schools and examined the

impact of the distributed leadership on the school growth and improvement in the students' math achievement over a period of four years. In this study an analysis method of multilevel latent change was used and the research found some significant direct impact of distributed leadership on the schools' academic capacity and indirect effects on the students' growth in mathematics. The study supports a perspective on distributed leadership that aims at building the academic capacity of schools as a means improving student learning outcomes.

Coe (2009) in his work "School improvement: Reality and Illusion" asserted that the school improvement is the most sought and probably the most claimed issue. Several programmes launched for school improvement have been proclaimed to be successful, however evaluation of these programmes present an altogether different scenario, even wherever these programmes exist, they are generally in poor condition. The account of these improvement programmes showed minor results in individual schools which are also not numerous. The attribution towards such improvement programmes is problematic and there is high possibility of situation being replicated.

Tsujita (2009) in the research work entitled "Deprivation of Education among Children: A Study of Slums in Delhi" revealed that among children living in slums there exist the issues of high overage and dropout ratio. The late admission to school is one of the most common reasons for the over-age. The cause of late admission is from both the sides i.e. demand side (migration from rural areas to slum) as well as supply side (lack of school capacity or infrastructural facilities for all the children, a short period of admission in the schools, necessary documents such as requirement of birth certificate etc). School Availability of schools at a shorter distance fail to explain why a large number of slum children are still less educated or are out of school. One of the main reasons for children not attending the schools is economic problems.

Chandrasekhar and Mukhopadhyay (2008) in their study entitled "Multiple Dimensions Urban Well-Being: evidence from India" revealed that the residents residing in urban areas other than slums are not unequivocally better off than the slum dwellers. Since, on an average the slum dwellers are poorer than the other urban areas. Therefore, it might be more pragmatic to develop policies that are targeted for the slum development. However, such developmental policies failed to reach the

poorest resident of non-slum as well as the slum areas in both the large and small cities.

Aydin and Kepenekci (2008) in their research work “Principals’ opinions of organizational justice in elementary schools in Turkey” aimed to present the opinions of principals of elementary school about the current organizational justice practices among teachers from the distributive, procedural, interactional, and rectifactory dimensions in Turkey. School principals were distributed over the matters of justice like leave of absence, rewarding, performance appraisal, student allocation to classes, and course programs, etc. Some complicating factors for principals in justice distribution were differences in teachers’ perceptions of justice, school size, and restrictions of the policies of the Ministry of National Education.

Wu and Chen (2008) in their study “Elementary school teachers’ use of instructional materials on the web” have revealed that the school teachers were familiar with the instructional materials available on the web. The teachers also integrate these web materials into the classroom teaching. There are the large number of web instructional materials such as Learning Fuelling Station being a leading web site. Using this popular site as an example, this study seeks to investigate how schoolteachers navigate online instructional materials and for what types of instructional materials they are looking. All school teachers reported that they use the internet prior to designing their instructional activities. The two main reasons they gave for using the internet were to refer to other teacher’ materials and to obtain up-to-date information on their subjects, especially in areas related to science and technology and social studies. Source materials (e.g. photographs and video clips) and ready-to-use instructional packages were two popular items that the school teachers search for online. Participants appreciated Learning Fueling Station’s commitment to quality but reported that the quantity of information available on the site was insufficient to meet their needs.

Dhanalakshmi (2008) did situational analysis of primary education in slums of Grater Visakhapatnam Municipal Corporation of Andhra Pradesh. Major findings of the study are: A majority (90.5 percent) of the men is heading the families and more than half the heads of the families are illiterate and among educated, most of them had primary and secondary education. Most of the respondents are in married category.

Except 14.1 percent all other families belong to deprived sections of the society such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribe and other Backward Castes. More than 50 percent of both the parents are illiterates, of whom: the percentage of mother illiteracy is high as compared to father. The occupation of most of the parents is of casual in nature and is working as daily wage workers. A majority of the children belong to SC, ST, BC, cast and belong to Hindu religion. Of the primary school going children 29.3 percent are studying in municipal corporation schools. The age of the children attending to the ranged from 5 to 14 and 16 percent of the children are 10 years old.

Khasnabis, and Chatterjee, (2007) embarked on the study 'Enrolling and retaining slum children in formal schools' found out that India is yet to achieve the goal of universalisation of elementary education or 100 percent enrolment and retention of children with schooling facilities in all habitations. Despite the government's attempt to achieve this goal through the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, which has a special focus on girl children, students belonging to disadvantaged families still do not attend classes regularly.

Chaudhary and Desai (2007) in their study 'Reflections about the CAL Programme in Elementary School Classrooms' found out that the success of a programme can be gauged by the impact it could make on the system. The CAL Programme has been warmly received by the schools. The schools have developed a new approach towards learning. The teachers have become conscious. They are now aware of the progress being made in the field of knowledge acquisition. They are unhappy by the degree of training provided and the related facilities. Increase in time allotted for CAL needs to be considered.

Kumar (2007) in his study 'Elementary School Education in Himachal Pradesh' related that many new schools are going to be opened under SSA and Govt. special quota. Special funds are being provided for taking care of quality. H.P. Govt. is now focusing on the remote areas and snowy areas. Activities are being undertaken to make people aware of their responsibility in respect of the education of the deprived group.

Saeed, Gondal, and Bushra, (2005) in their article 'Assessing achievement of primary grader students and factors affecting achievement in Pakistan' found that the overall, the performance of the female students was relatively better than their male

partners. Location-wise, the rural students performed better than the urban students. District-wise, the performance of students of Rajanpur and Rahim Yar Khan districts was relatively better than the students of district Kasur and Bahawalpur. Among the factors affecting students achievement were parental education, their occupation and guidance, teacher guidance, social status, transport facility, self study, book reading and home work – all have a positive or negative correlation with students' achievement.

Velaskar, (2005) embarked on the study 'Education, Caste, Gender Dalit Girls' Access to Schooling in Maharashtra' and attempted to examine the combined impact of caste, class and gender through a focus on patterns of dalit girls' access to schooling. It has been found that dalit girls were late starters but have considerably improved their educational situation. However, there is marked gender disparity within the dalits and also regional variations which results in continuous educational disadvantage of dalit girls in some pockets. The enhanced but as yet unequal educational progress of dalit girls appear to be the result of a combination of significant factors, socioeconomic and cultural, related to society and state: macro socio-economic processes, in particular class formation and urbanization: the decline yet persistence of unequal caste relations: the ideological impact of dalit and women's movements, in terms of changing values pertaining to girls' education: and an open but yet inadequate government policy and unequal state provision.

Lewis (2005) under took the study 'The Urban (Dis) Advantage: Slums, School and Children's Work' in which several important findings emerged. India has overall made remarkable progress toward universal primary education, reaching nearly 90 per cent attendance. In secondary education, however, slum children are disadvantaged compared to both other urban and rural children: slums also experience faster declines in attendance, even when taking into account family and background characteristics. Both deficit and opportunity cost models are considered as explanations. Finally, contrary to much popular belief, once family and background characteristics are taken into account, rural children are actually more likely to be attending primary and secondary school.

Pulla Rao (2003) carried out the study 'Progress of Elementary Education in Visakhapatnam District' found out that the number of children per school has been

decreasing substantially at primary level because of the increasing number of schools boosted by various incentives of the government of Andhra Pradesh. The mushroom growth of the unregistered convents is another reason for this tremendous growth of the schools. However, the rate of enrollment of children in the age group of enrollment of children in the age group of 11-13 years (at upper primary level) has been decreasing which indicate heavy dropouts at the primary level. This suggests that a large section of population is still not giving as much value for upper primary education as they are giving to the primary education. This resulted in the lower per school enrollment that made the upper primary education economically unviable for the private management. The DPEP initiated by the government has had a positive effect on the growth rate of schools and enrollment.

Kumar and Kumar (2002) studied 'Value Judgments, and Academic Achievement among Primary School Children'. The investigation yielded that the backward caste pupils obtained significantly higher marks than the marks obtained by the Schedule Caste pupils in the school examination conducted in three consecutive years and high, and low-achievers of all the three caste groups differed significantly from each other. Fathers' income was not found to be a significant factor in scholastic achievement in any of the caste groups.

Debi (2001) studied 'Financing of Elementary Education: Reviewing the Experience of Orissa' found that the financial scenario of elementary education in Orissa, from different dimensions, presents: (i) there is a gap between budgetary allocation and actual expenditure on elementary education over the years indicating that the allocation is not made in the proper direction over the years: (ii) the real expenditure on elementary education is much below than the expenditure at current prices and the share of expenditure to NSDP is also very negligible: (iii) the real per capita expenditure on elementary education in most of the back ward districts of Orissa is found to be higher than the advanced districts and the average share of elementary education is much lower than higher levels education the state: (iv) there is a steady decline of expenditure on elementary education from the First plan to the Eighth plan: (v) the share of allocation of resources on elementary education vis-a-vis higher levels indicate a constant decline from the First plan to total expenditure in education also indicated a similar pattern: and (vi) the household expenditure on elementary education revealed that the financial burden of elementary education on

the individuals is very high. The important determinants of household expenditure are economic status of the household, the type and location of the school.

Duraisamy (2001) studied 'Effectiveness of Incentives on School Enrolment and Attainment'. On the whole, the investigation offers ample evidence that government policies have significant effect on child school enrolment and grade attainment. Presence of public and private schools within the village and subsidies positively affect child schoolings while distance to the nearest school and fees negatively affect child school enrolment and grade attainment at the primary level. Presence of public schools within the village is more beneficial to girls while subsidies are more beneficial to boys. Providing better primary schools within the village level would reduce the gender gap in the school enrolment and grade attainment. This provides good justification for more schools and greater government subsidies at the primary level.

Choudhry (1999) in the study 'Education under the municipal administration in Pakistan' analysed the elementary education system in Pakistan is fragmented into state controlled, municipal, and private education. The first is over-controlled under the hierarchical structure, without any system of accountability or democratic control and is subject to political intervention. In urban areas, elementary education is totally left to the municipalities. Owing to their multi-purpose nature, lack of clarity in the local government laws, and absence of central discipline and administrative control, the real interest of education could never be guaranteed among the municipalities. Practically, State and Municipal education is left only to the poor people, who have no say in society. In such circumstances the only option is the establishment of the "education authorities" at division, district or the local level. This step will ensure the involvement of the related interests in planning, administration and maintenance of the educational institutions. It will also enhance a sense of participation and accountability among the educational community and equip the system with local knowledge.

Kingdon (1998) investigated into 'How Much Do Schools Matter to Pupil Achievement in India?'. It is found from the study that the most important institutional variables affecting student achievement in our sample are school facilities and materials, length of instruction per week, school management type, and teachers'

cognitive skills. This suggests the much of the educational data, discussion and expenditure in India has been on measures of school quality that, according to our survey, are dubious indicators, such as class size (pupil-teacher ratio), teachers training, experience, and possibly, teachers post-graduate education and pay and in the conclusion that both home background and school factors are important influences on children's cognitive achievement.

Rambabu (1997) studied on "Sustenance of Slum Improvement Programme in Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh" found that there was marked differences in utilization and maintenance of educational facilities (especially balwadies, anganwadies, Adult education and-formal education centres) is seen across the slums. In the adequately and inadequately sustained slums these centres are not functioning properly inspite of trained personnel. Vocational training programme are being taken up regularly only in well maintained slums.

Patnaik (1996) studied on 'Urban poor, social policy and International Assistance Dimension of Planned Interventions in the Slums of Visakhapatnam city (India)'. Urban poor are the people who are ever increasing in numbers in recent years. This has been brought in to focus strongly by authoritative studies. The problem of poverty has to be understood. It is explored in the present study. It is obvious that urban poverty cannot be simply reduced to a monitory figure nor can it be simply state as lack of certain essentials.

Chalam (1992) studied 'Rural-Urban Contrasts in Primary Education: A Study of Selected Mandals in Visakhapatnam District of Andhra Pradesh'. He found out from the study that the failure to achieve universalisation of elementary education in Andhra Pradesh is due to lack of enthusiasm among the majority of population who live in the rural areas. On the other hand, the rapid development of education and thus literacy rates in the urban areas, if not entirely due to rapid rates of migration, but due to other factors. The contrasting development primary education between rural and urban areas can be understood in light of the structure of the whole society, its resources, environment and disposition. This brings out the fact that the existing schemes and programmes introduced by Government to promote primary education have failed deliver the goods. However, a uniform strategy of retaining children beyond the second standard through economic and other incentives appear to be worth

trying. There is also need to revise the content of the parents of the children. At least the teachers should be oriented to undertake such innovative ideas at the primary level. The study shows that there is no simple and universal solution to the problem of universalisation of primary education. As long as the structures, socio-economic and educational background of the rural and urban population continue to be dual, the strategy for the development of primary education should bound to be dual, multi-dimensional and uninterrupted.

Dave et al., (1988) embarked a study on 'Pupil Achievement at the Primary Stage'. Achievement of pupils in mathematics was found to be excellent in Class I & II, good in Class III and poor in Class IV. The data indicated that there was a sudden slump in achievement of children in all subjects as they entered Class III, which continued through Class IV. 6. The project means were greater than the non-project means except in respect of language in Class I, and the lowest project mean was not less than the minimum percentage marks of 35. It was concluded that it was possible to raise the attainment level of children with the help of the better transaction programmes like primary education curriculum renewal.

Rai (1987) carried 'A Survey of Elementary Education in the Rural Areas of Ghazipur District' to find out that all primary schools worked under the administration of the Basic Education Council and there was a village committee for primary education in every village. It was found from the data that the average strength of teachers per school was four. There was a primary school for every 20,000 population and this is an average strength of students in the schools. Biswas, N.B., (1986), carried out A Study of the Curriculum for Primary Education in Bangladesh. The major findings of the study were: A contextual gap existed between the framing of objectives by the National Education Commission and the National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee. There was some gap between the curricular content recommended by the National Education Commission and that of the national curriculum and Syllabus Committee. The schools did not implement the curriculum appropriately. The problems were related to lack of physical facilities time-table, non-availability of appropriate teaching aids and materials. The work-load was very high as perceived by the teachers.

Dhongade, (1986) carried out 'A Critical Study of Non-involvement, Wastage and Stagnation during the First Two Years of Primary Education of Scheduled Caste Boys and Girls in Soyegaon Taluka'. Some of the major findings were that the economic condition of Scheduled Caste families, lack of education of parents lack of social mobility and lack of adequate communications were the important factors coming in the way of enrolment of SC/ST. Teachers in rural areas, particularly in area where SC/ST student were in large proportion, were not effective. Many of them were untrained, lacked social awareness and enthusiasm and frequently absented themselves from schools. Schools lacked minimum facilities.

SIE (U.P.) (1986) conducted a study of 'Dropouts and Failures in Primary Classes, Allahabad' found out that the main causes for dropout were illiteracy of the parents, poverty, lack of interest, distance of school from home, unattractive environment of the schools. Indifference of teachers, irrelevant curriculum, lack of physical facilities like water and sanitation, etc. in schools.

Devi (1985) studied 'the Barriers in the Primary Education of Scheduled Caste Student'. The study revealed that there was no significant difference in the achievement levels of the pupils belonging to SC and the caste Hindu pupils in the type of schools studied. All were performing at very low level. Conditions in the schools were far from satisfactory: the teacher-pupils ratio was very poor. The teachers had just minimum qualifications, and had poor training. Methods of teaching were found to be defective and not suited to scheduled caste pupils. Teachers were not sincere in discharging their duties. Home background conditions were found to be not encouraging for achievement. The homes had poor facilities, and there were very few persons there who were literate or educated.

Dutta (1985) in the study 'Primary Education in Calcutta: An Anthropological Appraisal' found that the educational qualifications of the teachers were low: the majority was matriculates, few were graduates and some were below matriculation, especially in rural areas. Teachers were mostly married and living in small families in houses rented or owned. Self-instruction at home was a rate phenomenon, and homework and lesson preparation were done under the guidance of a family member, parent or sibling, or private tutor. Students belonged to all castes, but in Calcutta

Brahmins, Vaidyas and Kayasthas were in higher proportion. The location of a school was not planned with respect to students' residence and congeniality of surroundings.

Jain (1985) conducted a study 'Development of Primary Education under Local Bodies in Maharashtra' (1882-1984). The main findings of the study were that before 1963, all the primary schools were financed and administered by the State Education Department. In 1864-66, the receipts of local fund cess became available and a large number of primary schools were established and maintained from the cess-fund. The Primary Education Act of 1923 made a revolutionary change in the existing pattern of administration of primary education. All the major municipalities and district local boards were empowered to manage primary schools situated within the limits of minor municipalities in the district and were regarded as "local authorities".

Saxena and Mittal (1985), took a work on 'Impact of Mid-day Meals Programme on Enrolment and Retention at the Primary Stage'. It was found that the block-level study in both the states also did not provide higher retention rate of students' means for the blocks having a higher percentage of beneficiaries. Further, RRS was also not found to be related to percentage of beneficiaries under the MDM programme on RRS was not strong enough to be reflected in the analysis of data.

Acharya, (1984) in the study 'Compulsory Primary Education in Andhra Pradesh: A Policy Analysis' found that the period immediately after the close of the Second World War was one in which no serious long-term policy measures relating to education in general and elementary education in particular could be contemplated. In view of the constitutional directive to provide education to all children 6-14 years of age, the mid-day meals programme had become a boon to the poor children of the areas. It helped to a considerable extent in the increase of enrolment and retention of students of weaker section in schools. Important provisions like preparing schemes, making declarations, enumerating the school going children, and enrolling them in schools were not effectively followed. The entire state was taken as the specified area for implementation of the compulsory education scheme and all schools under different managements were treated as approved schools. Headmasters and teachers did not show personal interest in accelerating enrolment and retention of children. People preferred separate schools for girls, at least special amenities for girls in mixed

schools to attract more girls. There was agreement between teachers, executives and parents with regard to causes of poor enrolment and dropouts.

Acharya (1984) studied the 'Pre-primary and Primary Education in Tripura'. The study revealed their as a result of the introduction of different schemes and due to the provision of increasing outlay in successive plan periods, there had been rapid expansion of pre-primary and primary education in Tripura and Cachar in all the major sectors such as the number of schools, teachers and children. The scope of teacher training and administrative machinery was enlarged. During the first 20 years of independence the progress was most remarkable. In Tripura in 1947, 8 percent of the children of school-going age attended schools and 20 years later the percentage had increased to 86 percent and was expected to be 96 percent in 1978-79. This rapid quantitative expansion had given rise to a number of problems. Some of the important problems of primary education in Tripura and Cachar were inadequacy of teaching staff, problems of physical plants, problems of single teacher schools, lack of properly qualified and trained teachers, lack of incentives in the schools absence of adequate school-community relations, problems of accommodation for teachers, weak supervision and administration of primary education, working of the basic schools on non-basic lines and acute problems of wastage of primary education arising out of dropouts and stagnation. The availability of textbooks in Tripura and Cachar left much scope for improvement.

Gogate (1984) in his study 'A Study of Primary Education in Marathwad' found out that prior to 1948, almost all schools were conducted by the Nizam's regime. Schools conducted by private managements were nonexistent. However, the freedom fighters of the state had opened schools at Aurangabad, Beed Ambejogai, Parabhani and Hipparga. These did not get any support from the Nizam's government. Prior to 1948, though Marathi was the medium of instruction, Urdu used to teach from Std. III. Prior to 1948, Marathwada also had schools of non-formal education in mosques (Maktabs) and pathshalas, and also in the estates of big landlords. Girls' education was non-existent prior to 1948. Kapadia, K.P., (1984), carried out A Study of the Development of Primary Education in the State of Gujarat after Independence. The major objective was to study the development of primary education between 1947 and 1980 in the state of Gujarat. The major findings were that the position of primary education in Gujarat was admirable as the state ranked third in this respect

among the other progressive states of India. There was a considerable increase in the number of schools during the last three decades. The state had succeeded well in attracting more and more pupils to schools. During the three decades from 1950 to 1980, there was an enrolment explosion. The number of boys on the rolls during the period increased three times and the number of girls five times.

Devi (1983) studied the 'Problem of Dropouts in Primary Schools of Manipur with special reference to Imphal Town (1963-1970)'. Some of the major conclusions of the study were there was no uniformity in the rate of dropout for the whole primary course. At the lower primary course, girls dropped out more than the boys. The difference in rate between boys and girls was highly significant. In the middle-school course the difference was not significant. Both dropout and stagnation were at a higher rate in schools in congested zones. The first four important causes, according to the combined results, were poverty frequent transfer, repeated failure, and negligence of parents.

Prasad and Sharma (1982) in their study 'Wastage, Stagnation and Inequality of Opportunity in Rural Primary Education – A Case Study of Andhra Pradesh' found that there was no association between school quality and wastage in education the average number of dropouts or children who never attended schools per family was less than the number of boys therein: level of income and caste were important factors in wastage and stagnation. Other significant factors were occupational status of the father, parental educational achievement and the number of illiterates in the family.

Sachchidananda, (1982) studied the 'Disparities in Elementary Education: A Case Study of Bihar'. The findings of the study were that the expansion of literacy in Bihar had not been keeping pace with the expansion of population. Bihar had the bulk of disparity in education with regard to very high, high and middle socio-economic disparity rates in various districts. There were seven districts with low disparity in literacy, and seven with high disparity in literacy. There was high enrolment of tribal children in the districts which had missionaries and social welfare agencies.

Sharma (1982) studied 'Effect of the Stay of Teachers on the Enrolment and Retention of Boys, and Girls in Primary Schools' and found that the retention, attendance and regularity of students was better in schools where teachers stayed at their headquarters as compared to that in those where they did not do so. Teachers'

stay at their headquarters was useful only when they were in constant touch with the parents and behaved courteously. Incentives like free books, uniforms and food had a positive effect on the regularity of students. The school environments and facilities for games also contributed to retention. Lack of good houses and proper facilities for the education of their children were two main reasons for the teachers not staying at their headquarters.

Erez and Goldstein (1981) in their study ‘Organizational stress in the role of the elementary school principal in Israel’ pointed at the existence of role conflict as well as that of role ambiguity in objective and in subjective terms. Activities which fell under the administrative domain contained fewer elements of stress than those in the pedagogic domain. It was concluded that role stress forced the principal to neglect his pedagogical duties in favour of the administrative duties.

Banga (1980) studied the ‘Cognitive Processes and Personality Characteristics of Primary School Children’. It was found from the study are that the boys studying in English-medium central schools displayed good perception, good reasoning a ability to classify things, ability to arrange things in series and had good learning capacity. The girls studying in these English- medium schools also displayed similar characteristics but were lower than boys. Boys studying in English-medium voluntary schools showed good perception, reasoning capacity shown by these boys was lower than that of boys of central schools. The girls studying in these voluntary English-medium schools showed good perceptual speed, reasoning ability, ability to put articles in series, classify article in series, classify articles and to infer relation. Their learning speed was lower than that of the girls of central schools. But their perceptual speed was highest in all the groups of boys and girls. The learning ability displayed by them was also quite low and was close to that of boys studying in government schools.

Mandal (1980) investigated into ‘Universal Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Bihar (1950-74): A Study of Problems and Measures’. The study revealed that the Primary schools intended for children of 6-11, i.e. schools with classes I-V were made available to 96 percent of them. Three-fourths of the school-going population in the age group 11-14 found a middle school (classes VI–VIII) within walking distance from their habitat. Provision of schooling facilities for classes

I-VIII within a walking distance of very child was the target to be attained, within a period of 5-10 years, There was a kind of built-in resistance among the land less agricultural labourers, scheduled castes and tribes, etc., to availing of the, facilities for primary education and therefore, the need for sustained and vigorous drives was imperative. Out of every 100 children enrolled in class 1, only 25 reached class V and only 15 went up to class VIII. The facilities available were underutilized.

Das (1979) took out a study on ‘Administration of Elementary Education in relation to the Programme of Universalisation’. The main aim of the research was to study the position of administration of elementary education in relation to the programme of Universalization in Assam. The study mainly revealed that the area of administration of education at the elementary level was full of problems. The administrative machinery was not adequate even for administration at the current status of elementary education, let alone the expansion during Sixth Five Year plan for universalization. Recommendations indicated the suggested additional machinery needed for achieving universalization. From all points of view, new recruitments of administrative personnel should be made from professional institutions.

Sharma (1976), in his study Increase in Enrolment in Primary Schools: Efforts and Results, Rajasthan, found out that so far as physical conditions were concerned, the primary schools lacked even basic facilities like a black board. In upper primary schools, there was shortage of everything except carpets. The effect of the enrolment drive was positive. It was not as expected in the case of girls. Incentives proved to be useful in boosting enrolment and out of them the most effective in descending order were free meals, textbooks and stationery, fee exemption, free uniforms and scholarships. There was no considerable effect of appointment of lady teachers in co-educational rural schools on the enrolment of girls.

Das (1974) studied the Impact of School Conditions on Primary Education. The study revealed that there was significant relationship between efficiency in education and physical facilities in schools. The school conditions definitely seemed to have a favourable impact on school education. Better physical facilities increased the attractive and retentive power of the school as well as provided situations conducive for effective education and, hence, contributed to wards better education of the children of that school. The significant educational implication is the better

provision of physical facilities in schools helps in reducing wastage in education and in increasing its educational efficiency.

Aggarwal and Chugh (2000) studied Learning Achievement of Slum Children in Delhi. The present study also looked into the facilities available to the selected schools and gathered information on the available physical infrastructure. It further probed whether, given the schooling infrastructure and facilities, the children from slums could have access to good quality education or not, and whether there were any differentials in terms of quality of access, provision of resource, which contribute to the learning achievement levels. The data revealed that the performance of the slum children was much below the expected levels in both the subjects and in both the grades. Children of unrecognized schools have performed much better than the Government schools children in mathematics but not in language. Low educational qualifications of the teachers to teach the children of poor socio-economic background and low educational status of the mother could be another probable cause.

NIEPA (1986) "Financing of Education and Equality of Opportunity with reference to Uttar Pradesh and Kerala." Equality of opportunity in education and equality are areas of investigation which have received considerable amount of attention. Indeed the debates are by no means closed. But one important aspect and one very relevant for policy purposes is the system of financing education for achieving objectives like efficiency, equality or diversity and this has not received the attention due to it. The main objectives of the investigation were: i) To study the system of financing education for achieving objectives like efficiency equality or diversity; and ii) To focus on problems arising out of inequalities in education in different Districts.

The major findings of the study were :i) there were inequalities of many kinds within Uttar Pradesh and Kerala to a lesser extent in Kerala than in Uttar Pradesh. However, both the states, to some extent, inequality was reduced as indicated by the fall in coefficient of variation from 69.7 to 50.6 in Uttar Pradesh and from 27 to 14 in Kerala. ii) for the country as a whole, the per capita expenditure had gone up from Rs. 48.7 in 1979-80 to Rs. 81.00 in 1993-84. The coefficient of variation had gone down from 56.3 to 46.7. The coefficient of variation for Uttar Pradesh had gone down from 69.7 to 50.6 and for Kerala during the same period standard deviation had moved from 7.35 to 9.6. The coefficient of variation had gone down from 27 to 14. The per

capita expenditure in Kerala had gone up from Rs. 26.81 in 1970-71 to Rs. 63.38 and 1976-77, while for Uttar Pradesh it had linked from Rs. 11.77 in 1970-71 to Rs. 29.82 in 1976-77. Uttar Pradesh still had the lowest per capita expenditure on education and had a great deal of disparity in educational expenditure by Districts. iii) in Kerala there was a tendency towards greater equality at all levels of education due to various reasons like the long tradition of free primary schooling, spread of literacy extension of free schooling to the high school stage and not beyond, supply of free meals to some categories of students, the broad base of the educational system and the structure of higher education. The pattern of expenditure in terms of sectorial composition as well as by items for Kerala had been such that it has resulted in greater equality and the educational system was performing better. Consequently, the limit to achievement, at least in terms of ensuring a minimum level of education a great majority of the population, thus appeared to have been reached in Kerala. iv) a comparative study of the pattern of expenditure and revenue both for us and Kerala indicated that in 1983-84, Kerala had the highest non-plan revenue expenditure of 35.1% and highest per capita expenditure @ Rs. 110.15 while Uttar Pradesh had 25.7% @ Rs. 46.72 as per capita expenditure. Kerala expenditure in education as a percentage of its own total tax revenue and sales tax mere 57.6% and 91.4% while for up it was 52.2% and 94%. A comparison of the central assistance to the two states showed that up had not come out very favourably, thereby indicating need for greater equality consideration in central assistance to states. v) as regards inter-district variations in educational expenditure in Uttar Pradesh, in 1976-77, out of the total expenditure on all recognised educational institutions, the percentage share was the highest in Allahabad with 6.2% followed by Varanasi with 5.8% Kanpur 56% and the lowest in Utterkashi 3% per capita expenditure in Uttar Pradesh in the same year was Rs. 27.10. The range of variations in all the Districts was between Rs. 11.70 in Unnao to Rs. 79.90 in Nanital. In 22 Districts per capita expenditure was more than the state average. In the other 34 Districts, it had been less than the state average. vi) cost per student in primary schools varied from Rs. 306.70 in Utterkashi to Rs. 40.80 in Deoria. For the state in 1976-77, it was Rs. 64.50 and in 30 Districts it was more than the state average. The major policy conclusions of the study are to the effect that there is need for regionalisation of financial policies of states in the matter of releasing grants and funds to the Districts. There has to be greater concern with the

need of the individual region at all levels and appropriate planning and financial procedure changes.

A comparative study of educational financing in Flaryana and Kerala and also in Uttar Pradesh and Kerala (NIEPA, 1986) provides institutions insights on educational financing and the equity and equality. The studies conclude that free education will have a limited impact on equity and that in more effective compensatory finance measure is necessary for a break through inequity and inequality. Examining the pattern of educational financing in Kerala (with a higher level of equality in educational opportunities), and that in U.P. (with extreme inequalities), the NIEPA study points out that central assistance has also a role to play in achieving greater equality and that central assistance in the case of CIP is far from satisfactory.

Patel (1978) in his work 'Educational Opportunity for the Children of Urban Slums in Delhi' discussed the main objectives such as: i) To explore the nature and extent of educational opportunity for the slum children in Delhi; To find out whether the educational facilities were adequate for the slum children and commensurate with their needs ; iii) To study the utilisation of educational opportunity by the slum children; iv) To study the similarities and differences in schooling facilities obtaining in slum and non-slum areas ;v) To find out the factors related to differential achievement to the slum and the non-slum children, and vi) To suggest needed improvements in educational inputs in slum schools for equalising educational opportunities for the slum children. The input variables studied were facilities for schooling, school resources and curriculum, teachers and pupils. The output variables considered in the study were academic achievement and certain non- cognitive outcomes of education. The sample comprised three sub-samples of schools, teachers and pupils. The sample of schools was selected on the principles of stratified, proportionate, random sampling. In, all 50 primary schools, 110 teachers, and 445 pupils of class V were included in the sample.

The tools for data collection were the schools questionnaire, the teacher questionnaire, the pupil questionnaire, and achievement tests in Hindi and Mathematics. The study was a descriptive survey utilizing statistics for data analysis. The major findings were : i) the schools facilities provided by the Municipal

Authorities of Delhi were almost adequate for the slum children. However, their utilization by the slum-dwellers was very much below than by the non-slum dwellings. ii) the quality of educational facilities for the slum children was very much inferior to that which the non-slum children enjoyed. iii) in the matter of school resources, the slum schools were not at par with the schools in non-slum areas. I here was much discrepancy between the slum and the non-slum schools in respect of school buildings, equipment, curriculum and teachers and pupils. iv) the physical and material resources of the schools in the slum area were inferior and inadequate, the curriculum was inappropriate for the slum children s needs and level of ability, and teachers of low capacity and having less interest in teaching were found in the slum schools. The children of the slum schools had less favourable conditions and facilities for studies at home, less parental support, lower self-concept and motivation for achievement and much lower aspiration for educational and occupational carrier. v) in academic achievement, the slum children lagged behind the non-slum children and so also in personality development.

It is imperative to sum up the reviews made by the investigator. It is noted that more studies are related to primary schools and its facilities. There are some longitudinal studies which gave the historical development of primary education in different states. There are enough studies carried out to find out the relationship between facilities or provisions in primary education and child's learning achievement. The studies are heterogeneous rather than homogeneous. The studies can be divided broadly into facilities/provisions and tests/ evaluation (achievement of the school children.) Many studies were conducted in the areas of facilities or programmes in the primary schools with aim of attaining universalisation of elementary education. For instance studies carried by - John Ippolito, R. Sandra, Y.P. Agrawal & Sunita Chugh. Finally there are studies specifically on slums have been included in the literature. Though there are few in number but they portend the direction for present study: Rana EJaz, Alikhan & Tossef, Azid (2011); Yuko Tsujita (2009) Ratan Khasnabis & Tamia Chatterjee, (2007).

Conceptual Framework

Slum: A slum has been defined as a closely packed squatter settlement. It is a collection of poorly constructed tenements majority of which are of temporary nature.

It is usually over-crowded and this situation is coupled with inadequate supply of safe drinking water, lack of drainage and sanitary facilities as well as unhygienic conditions in that compact area. Such an area, for the purpose of this survey, was considered as a “slum” if at least 1000 population lived in that area.

In this study those areas have been treated as “notified slums” that have been notified by the respective municipalities, local authorities or bodies and corporations. For this survey, only slums in urban areas were considered. If a slum lay partly within a sample urban block, the part of it within the sample block provided it contained at least 1000 population was considered a slum for the purpose of the survey. This applied to both notified and non-notified slums.

Household: A group of person normally living together and taking food from a common kitchen constitutes a household. It includes temporary stay-away (those whose total period of absence from the household is expected to be less than 6 months) but excludes temporary visitors and guests (expected total period of stay less than 6 months).

Pucca structure: A pucca structure is one whose walls and roofs are made of pucca materials such as cement, concrete, oven burnt bricks, hollow cement/ ash bricks, stone, stone blocks, jack boards (cement plastered reeds), iron, zinc or other metal sheets, timber, tiles, slate, corrugated iron, asbestos cement sheet, veneer, plywood, artificial wood of synthetic material and polyvinyl chloride (PVC) material.

Katcha structure: A structure which has walls and roof made of non-pucca materials is regarded as a katcha structure. Non-pucca materials include unburnt bricks, bamboo, mud, grass, leaves, reeds, thatch, etc. Katcha structures can be of the following two types:

- (a) **Unserviceable katcha**
- (b) **Serviceable katcha**
- (c) **Semi-pucca structure**

Type of Toilets: The broad types of toilets are as follows:

- i.) Pit Toilet: This could be (a) Ventilated improved pit toilet (b) Pit Toilet with slab and (c) Pit Toilet without slab/ open pit.

ii.) Flush/pour-flush: Depending on the system/site to which human excreta and wastewater are carried off, flush/ pour-flush toilet can be of the following types: (i) piped sewer system, (ii) septic tank, (iii) flush/pour-flush to pit toilet, (iv) other (flush/pour-flush to open drain, open pit, open field, etc.).

iii.) Others: This covered toilets of all types other than those listed above

Underground Sewerage System: An underground sewerage system contains underground pipes or conduits for carrying off drainage water, waste matter, discharge from water closets, etc.

Drainage System: A system, if any exists, for carrying off waste water and liquid wastes of the area is called a drainage system. Drainage could involve natural or artificial removal of surface and sub-surface water from a given area. However, if water flows down by its own weight under gravity, in an unregulated manner, then it is considered a case of 'no drainage'.

Garbage Disposal: In the urban areas, some arrangements usually exist to carry away the refuse and waste of households to some dumping place away from the residential areas. In some places, the public bodies collect the garbage from the premises of the household or from some fixed points in the locality where the residents put their garbage. In some places, a body of residents themselves make arrangements for carrying the garbage to the dumping place away from residential areas without participation of any public body till the final disposal. Information on the arrangement prevailing for the colony/locality of the slum was obtained in the survey.

Education: The term 'education' generally refers to developing knowledge, skill or character of individuals through a process of learning such as self-study, attendance in formal or informal educational institutions, etc.

Educational level: It refers to the different stages of educational attainment. It is the highest level a person has completed successfully. The levels with codes are: not literate, literate without any schooling, *literate without formal schooling*: through NFEC, though TLC/AEC, others; *literate with formal schooling*: below primary, primary, upper primary/middle, secondary, higher secondary; diploma/certificate course (up to secondary), diploma/certificate course (higher secondary), diploma/certificate course (graduation & above), graduate, postgraduate and above. If

a person has successfully passed the final year of a given level, then and only then he/she was considered to have attained that level of education. For example, for a person studying in Class IX, the educational level will be upper primary and not secondary.

Level of current attendance: In this case, the current educational level where a student is pursuing his current education is considered. Here the levels are: never attended, ever attended but currently not attending, currently attending in primary (class I to V).

Literate: A person is considered literate if he/she can read and write a simple message in at least one language with understanding.

Literacy rate: Percentage of literates in a population is taken as its literacy rate.

Type of school: This referred to the type of management by which the institution was run. It may be run by Government (Central/State/Local) or a private body either receiving or not receiving government aid. Thus, the types were: (a) Government, (b) Private aided and (c) Private unaided. It may be noted that a Government institution may be run either by the government directly or through a governing body/managing committee, etc. set-up by the government. A private aided institution was one, which was run by an individual or a private organisation and received maintenance grant from the Government. A private unaided institution was one, which was managed by an individual or a private organisation and was not receiving any maintenance grant from Government.

Medium of instruction: It is the language used for teaching in school where student is enrolled. In case, more than one language are used while teaching different subjects then the language used for teaching maximum number of subjects is to be treated as medium of instruction.

Attendance and enrolment: The current attendance status refers to whether a person is currently attending any educational institution. It may so happen that a person, who is enrolled, is not currently attending the institution.

Educational Opportunities: Educational opportunity can be regarded as a goal or a set of guide-posts in the sense, the framing and implementation of educational policy

should introduce the means that will contribute to an increased equalization, in terms of educational outcomes, economic status, participation in decision making process and so on.

Of all the three, equality as a goal is considered to be most essential by Coleman, (Coleman,1966) has raised the question whether equality means equal schools i.e. equal treatment of equal students. “What matters ultimately to the student is not how equal his school is, but rather whether he is equipped at the end of school to compete on an equal footing with others whatever his social origins. Schools are successful in so far as they reduce the dependence of a child’s opportunities upon his social origins. Thus equality of educational opportunity implies not merely ‘equal’ schools but equality effective schools, whose influences will overcome the difference in the starting point of children from different social groups”. It, therefore, follows that from the point of view of the individuals, equality should be pursued from all the three angles i.e. as a starting point, as a treatment and as a goal to which approximations should continuously be made.

Access: Universal access to education is the ability of all people to have equal opportunity in education, regardless of their social class, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic background or physical and mental disabilities. Universal access to education encourages a variety of pedagogical approaches to accomplish the dissemination of knowledge across the diversity of social, political, cultural, economic, national and biological backgrounds.

Access to education can be of three kinds. Firstly, physical access which emphasizes that geographical distance between schools and households is to be minimized. Secondly, economic access which implies the financial capacity of households to send their wards to schools even when the facilities are easily accessible in a geographical sense. Thirdly, social access which means that social stratification based on caste, class, gender and religion has implications for access available public provisions. In India various social factors come in the way of sending children to schools. While the potential demand for education depends on physical access, the realized/effective household demand depends on economic and social access. In other words, existence of schooling facilities in any particular geographical area does not necessarily lead to an increase in household demand for schooling. The

relative economic and social status to a large extent determines the realized household demand for education.

Equity

Equity in education is a measure of achievement, fairness and opportunities. Educational equity is dependent on two main factors. The first is fairness, which implies that factors specific to one's personal conditions should not interfere with the potential of academic success. The second important factor is inclusion, which refers to a comprehensive standard that applies to everyone in a certain education system. These two factors are closely related and are dependent on each other for true academic success of an education system

Social Equity

- Learning Achievement of children of slums belonging to different religion
- Learning Achievement of children of slums belonging to different castes
- Involvement of girls in household chores
- Attitude of parents towards girls' education

Educational Equity

- Awareness among parents about education
- Awareness among parents about Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA), Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) and Alternative and Innovative Education (AIE)
- Preference among parents in sending their wards to schools
- Expenditure of parents on tuition
- Overall expenditure of parents on education

Gender Equity

- Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) of boys and girls
- Retention Rate of boys and girls
- Drop-out Rate of boys and girls
- Succession/Transition Rate of boys and girls
- Learning Achievement of boys and girls
- Attitude of teachers towards girls' education
- Gender Parity in the classroom

Development of Slum Areas

The development is usually accompanied by the under development. Development of mega cities is culminated into divide of weaker section in slum area. The biggest slum area India is located in out of the most industrial city as: Mumbai, Kolkata, Kanpur, Varanasi, Lucknow, NCR etc. In fact, while many of the larger cities do have these problems, the reality is far more complex. Most cities are vibrant and dynamic places, each with their own unique character. If not too crippled by the urban externalities congestion, pollution and crime, they have interesting street scrapes, workspaces and residential spaces in which the majority is able to make an acceptable income and obtain an education, if they wish, while enjoying a better standard of living at a considerable lower risk of death and starvation than their rural counterparts.

One important aspect that must be noted is that slums are not the socio-economic wastelands of the popular imagination at all, but provide affordable labour, social networks and residential space however intolerable the standard of living might be. Therefore, the nation of clumsy slum clearance may have adverse effects on the embedded sense of community participation, complex political fabric and networks of support. Globalization has become an active factor in the formation of cities as well as for the formation of slums. It plays a key role in the demographic changes as well as in the policy making. It is clearly putting forth several challenges to the policy makers to address the multifarious problems that may arise due to the rising inequality as well as the growing population. There are many different meaning and definition of globalization, yet the principal underlying idea basically acknowledges the progressive integration of economics and societies. It is driven by new technologies, new economic relationship and the impact of a wide range of national as well as international actors which includes governments, NGO's and international organizations, business, labour and civil society. "Globalization can be thought of as a process which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power".

Globalization is multiple and covers most areas of social life and human relations such as economy, polity, culture and ideology. Since globalization is a work

in progress, the end result is yet under mind. The globalization has brought with it several debates about its socio-economic, political and cultural implications. One of the most debated issues has been the increasing gap between poor and rich countries and within a country. As the number of slums has been increasing the world over, within the developing nations particularly India, percentage of population residing in slums is also increasing. Slum dwellers are mostly deprived of several opportunities which the city dwellers have access. Similarly, they remain confined to locally paid Jobs, and traditional culture. Globalization starting from the west has been diffusing across the globe but the effect may remain diluted from Centre to periphery and within a country from Urban to Rural and Urban Centre to urban periphery where the slums are located. There may be difference in the impact of globalization on the development of slums of different in India or elsewhere. One of the major factors responsible in the spread of globalization has been media particularly, television, internet and mobile. Development of slums to a larger extent depends upon governments initiatives of a country. Equally important is people's participation in the government's development programmes and their self development. With the process of globalization there has been a rapid change in all aspects of the life. This study is to analyze how globalization serves social development in slums. In particular, how globalization serves as diagnostic, prognostic and motivational frames through its effects and espouses elements of development. An understanding of framing of the social development used in slum has important implications for understanding the effectiveness of globalization stimulating social consciousness and mobilizing the society. Globalization has produced some calamitous consequences from human resources, humanity and slums. Globalization is presently a fundamental force that cannot be denied as it affords

1. Overarching Themes and Concerns

a. Financial Investment: For improvement in the educational quality and status of the urban neighbourhood private investment is an important tool. It is usually visible that public investments tend to prioritize the under-developed rural or remote areas whereas the poor urban populations are over-looked. There is an urgent need to look into this matter in order to improve the educational quality in the poor urban areas. Focusing this priority is a matter of serious concern and the private investments along

with public investments in the socially and economically backward urban areas will provide an incentive towards this higher rate of rural-to-urban migration.

b. Potential or Capacity Barriers: In most of the developing countries across the world including India the adequate framing, planning, intervention, implementation and monitoring of various policies and programmes at the central as well as the state level constitute the weakest part. In context to the slums, especially those slums that are newly emerged, they represent the highly disorganised and weakest lobby sections. They are the blurry analogue to both the public as well as the private infrastructural investments.

c. Sustainability: Various educational programmes and projects are being runned by some NGOs' for the upliftment of children living in poor urban areas or slums. Some of these projects have proved to be highly successful. However, the approach required for the mainstreaming of such NGOs' still continues to remain unaffordable to the governments having low revenue. This acts as a barrier in the mainstreaming of such NGOs' which could a play crucial role in programmes for accelerated education. These NGOs' can be quite beneficial in increasing the effective enrollment, transition rate, reduction in drop-out and retention of highly vulnerable and marginalised slum children in schools.

d. Input and Cost Effectiveness: Providing quality education as well as cost-effective education to the vulnerable urban slum children is the highly underrated issue. The cost–benefit ratio associated with the investment in the education of slum dwellers is generally considered to be the critical issue. It is highly misunderstood phenomenon. The relatively high input cost of education for urban slum children is not adequately understood in reference to the proportionally high benefit ratio obtained by incorporating these slum children into the schools providing quality education and keeping them away from the other destructive activities or alternatives. Education plays the most crucial role in the slums. It helps in the reduction of crime, substance abuse, child abuse, gambling, early pregnancies and transmission or spread of Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD). It also has therapeutic function for the traumatized slum children as well as it plays a significant role in improving the public health. Obtaining a proper estimate of the cost–benefit rate involved in the education of slum children could help in legitimizing the educational investments in slums.

e. Judicial and Constitutional Problems: Most of the newly developed slums are constructed without any tenure. This means that the slum dwellers are living on the occupied land that does not have any legitimacy. They are usually living under constant threat of demolition of their houses or eviction. The slum dwellers as well as NGOs tend to lower their incentive of investment in these slums due to higher rate of mobility and a constant fear of eviction. From legal point of view these untenured and new squatter settlements usually do not constitute the official area of the city. As a result these slums are not considered and remain uncovered from various basic services such as adequate water supply, electricity, sewerage, garbage disposal, education, health facilities, etc. This implies that soon after the establishment of any new slum it becomes essential to begin the process required for obtaining the tenure. Since a large proportion of slum dwellers are unaware about the process of acquiring legal tenure of the land, here comes the role of political leaders and policy makers because it requires immense political will and adequate expert assistance. Therefore, it is required that some authoritative bodies should be established in order to actively assist this poorly built urban settlements. In a report by UN-Habitat (2007) it has been revealed that a good proportion of urban households that lacks tenure. In developing countries like India between 30 and 50 percent of the urban residents lacks this security of tenure.

f. Security: The issue of security is closely associated with the tenure. Usually these untenured slum areas are often outside the jurisdiction of law and order. Even in the slums that are tenured, there are other problems that have a negative impact on their life such as poverty, crime, child abuse and substance abuse, etc. In this scenario of violence and insecurity, the importance of schooling increases, but these areas usually lack access to quality education schools. Due to the fear of loss NGOs tend to invest less in slums; usually teachers do not want to work schools situated in slums. Moreover, these teachers, and NGOs are under constant threat of blackmailing by local criminals. Under this type of environment the public bodies are also exposed to more or less similar challenges, however these bodies are sometimes themselves corrupt. This environment of insecurity and violence tend to deter both NGOs as well as the private investors because they are answerable to their donors also.

g. Implementation and Monitoring: The availability of data on education in slums is severely lacking, in fact there are serious limitations. In India slums are usually

most poorly survey areas. In most of the surveys, they are usually outside the formally accepted and defined urban settlements and therefore, they are outside the sampling frames. Sample listing of these households in slums is the difficult task due to the high rate of mobility and unconventional household structure.

2. Direct Input Costs: The matter of school fees is one of the issues of concern for the slum dwellers, as they have to tackle other expenses under their small earnings. The cost of schooling is seen as a bigger problem by the slum dwellers because they have to deal with the higher prices of daily commodities which put further pressure on their already strained life. Moreover, in rural areas tuition waivers and scholar stipends have been introduced, but the urban poor are severely lagging for these benefits.

3. Costs of Opportunity: Some of the children could not attend schools even when the schools are accessible i.e. within their and affordable because sometimes these children are often involved in child labour, therefore, their time has an alternative use as well as cost.

a. In extremely poor families the parents do not send their children to schools for education because these households in slums might lose their income which they receive from the labour that their children do by involving in various odd jobs and this may prove to be critical for the family.

b. The cost of opportunity is almost zero in the poor rural areas because of the low requirement of the cash labour. This is due to the limited season of peak agricultural harvesting in the rural areas. Whereas, in the slums scenario is somewhat different and there is constant opportunity for cash labour such as working as street vendor or porter. In the poor households, where the family members are involved in cash labour the income can fluctuate and then it becomes necessary for that household to induce their children in child labour. This strategy works for them in order to meet the acute economic constraints of the market. Consequently, this results in lower enrolment rate, higher irregularity in attendance which affects both the education achievement as well as motivation. When these results are compared with the countryside, the situation is better in rural areas as compared to urban slums.

c. The families in poor urban slums lose household labour as well as income when they send their children to schools. In developing countries like India, the women and

children of the poor families try to share the burden by involving themselves in the labour intensive jobs. This means that if the wards are sent to the schools then the women will have to manage all the domestic activities alone. This is perhaps one of the major issues in the urban slums also and it is not restricted to only rural or remote areas. Here, the point that needs to be noted is that majority of the families residing in slums are migrants and the size of the family is usually small slum families. Hence, the families in slums generally lack the flexibility as well as the advantages that are usually available in extended families. As a result this puts an extra pressure on the family members that are left at home i.e. the children. A very notable example of this is the absence of parents or any guardian for the child care in the households which makes the situation extremely risky environment for the infants or the small children in the family. If the older children in the families are allowed to go to the school then the parents would be left with no option for looking after the younger children. As a result this would be a risk for the young children and further, if the mother stays at home to look after the children then the income of the household would be affected. This shows that in the last the education of the school going children gets severely affected.

4. Issues Related to Access: The children living in slums are left with only two ways in order to have access to the schools i.e. either the schools should be located near the slums or children have to go outside the slums in order to get quality education. However, both the options have their own set of challenges for the slum dwellers:

a. In majority of the slums, especially the old slums there are number of government schools. However, the coverage and the quality of education provided in these schools is not very good. Therefore, the children living in slums depend more on the schools run by the NGOs or in the low-cost private schools. This makes slum dwellers more vulnerable to the NGOs, the donors or any other form of informal nature. But there are several problems associated with these initiatives because sometimes these initiatives are either short-lived or it gets open and close time and again. Availability of adequate infrastructural facilities along with the access to safe drinking water and proper sanitation facilities poses a greater challenge for the slum dwellers, particularly in the new slums. This is one of the important reasons for the higher rate of drop-out among girls. Moreover, the problems which are peculiar to slums such as security

issues, violence, crime, public health risks, etc. act as a barrier in attracting well qualified teachers.

b. There are two main obstacles that the children in slums face in order to gain opportunity and access to schools which are situated outside the slums. The first obstacle is associated with the acceptance. Since most of the families living in slums are generally migrants, therefore they lack the necessary documents such as birth certificate, domicile certificate, which are required during the admission. Due to lack of these documents they could not apply for several scholarships and fee-waiver programmes for which they are eligible and in this way they lose the opportunity for better education.

The second obstacle is associated with the relocation. If we look into the location of slums some of them are adjacent to better-off areas, while others are quite distant from the usual locality. The children of the distant slums have to cover long distances in order to reach the good quality schools. In new emerged or over-crowded slums the facilities of public transportation is usually lagging. The children coming from poor families could not afford to spend money on transportation, which strongly hampers and restrict their movement (UN-Habitat, 2013). Sometimes, the children have to face and deal with extreme situations and the dangers while reaching to schools or their home. Lack of police security and social security and presence of child abuse and violence make children particularly girls highly vulnerable. Seasonal problems such as severe heat, winter, rain coupled with the environmental dangers in slums further reduces the accessibility of children to schools. On good sun-shining day the roads may be walkable but during rainy season or flooding of sewage the situation worsens for the children while reaching the school. In the case of the slums located in hilly areas, during bad weather the trails or roads can become too dangerous and slippery to walk.

5. Issues Related with the Schools: There are two other problems which the children have to face once they have the access to the schools. They are as follows:

a. Children who go to schools which are situated outside the slums, then these children are usually not welcomed and they have to suffer from the stigma of discrimination. This discrimination could be on many grounds such as it might be related to the children migrating from the rural or remote areas, on ethnic or religion

basis, on the basis of lingual diversity or belong to some another social caste. Apart from this, the children coming from slums are generally bullied and targeted because they are marginalised, excluded, vulnerable and poor. The issue of discrimination is not only restricted to the other children of the school. Even sometimes teachers also consider these slum children to be troublesome and often this situation becomes traumatic for the children which might lead to the drop-out of the children.

b. Generally the schools and teachers are not properly equipped to deal with the learning and achievement challenges associated with the children residing in slums. In the teacher training programmes, discussions have been made about the child, but these issues are lagging in reality. In developing countries like India the schools are usually overcrowded and these schools lack severely in terms of infrastructural and other facilities. As a result, the schools have to stretch the existing resources. Children who fail to understand with or cope up the traditional or conservative method of teaching finally end up in being constantly disciplined. Bullying by the other children in the school and consistent scolding and severe criticism from the teachers turns out to be quite demotivating for the children coming from slums and this finally becomes one of the causes for dropouts.

6. Causes Responsible for the Learning Challenges among Slum Children

a. Readiness: Mental as well as cognitive will-power and preparedness is required for the process of learning. One of the problems of children coming from the urban slum area is that they live in a constant state of alertness. The cognitive as well as mental development of the slum children has been hampered and severely affected due to their inadequate early childhood care and lack of psycho-social stimulation. In most of the slum households the common features are lack of adequate care, negligence. The households in slums are often run by single parent and for earning their livelihood and feeding their family members this single parent has to work outside the home. The families in slums are usually migrants and their native place is far away as a result they cannot entrust upon the care of their children to their relatives also.

b. Morbidity: One of the most common features of the slums is high burden of disease particularly among children. The causes for this high rate of prevalence of diseases are unsafe drinking water and inadequate sanitation facilities. As a result slum dwellers suffer from various diseases such as respiratory and parasitic infections

as well as gastro-intestinal infections. Slums are at high risk of both vector and water-borne diseases due to open sewerage and lack of sanitation.

c. Malnutrition: In slums the prevalence of malnutrition is usually high and this is expressed in terms of stunting, wasting, underweight and anthropometric failure. A study conducted in few selected slums of India revealed that the rate of anaemia was found to be as high as 90 per cent among adolescent girls, whereas the high incidence rate of Vitamin A deficiency was also the cause of concern.

d. Mental health: The occurrence of social problems in slums such as poverty, social insecurity, violence contribute towards creating the environment of mental trauma and additional psychological stress among slum dwellers. Most of the slums dwellers are migrants, although the cause of their migration may vary. Some have migrated towards cities for better job opportunities, or due to socio-economic problems in the remote or backward areas, while others might have migrated as a result of natural disaster. For this highly vulnerable and socially excluded community the Post-traumatic stress (PTS) and other difficulties are one of the important causes of learning challenges among children. Child abuse, sexual abuse, rape, early pregnancies coupled with relatively low level of public awareness, are responsible for various health problems such as prevalence of HIV- AIDS and several other sexually transmitted diseases.

e. Substance/Drug Abuse: One of the major obstacles in the attainment of education among children living in slums is drug abuse. Consumption of alcohol and intake of other drugs by adults and even by adolescents is one of the constant threats to the young children of school going age. Children who are trapped in substance abuse poses an ultimate challenge to the goal of education for all as their inclusion becomes very difficult.

f. Synergies: In a recent study conducted in slum areas of India it was observed that one out of every four children had disorders related with behaviour or mental health in a slum (Bele et al., 2013). For these disorders not only socio-economic factors are but there are other factors as well such as malnutrition, anthropometric failures, disintegration of family breakdown, becoming mothers at young age, single parenting, lack of discipline, alcoholism or substance abuse, depression, family conflict, etc. All these factors have a significant impact on the achievement level of the children and

this result in poor educational performance. These factors put add on stress on the children which hampers their academic growth.

7. Motivation: Majority of the children residing in slums lack motivation for quality education. Sometimes they have this feeling that they can get along well in their life without receiving any formal education. For urban children even for those who are living in slums it is quite common to use mobile phones as well as internet, therefore, it becomes hard for them to adapt to the old method of teaching and outdated curriculum. Apart from this, the availability of job opportunities is quite low especially for these slum children who fail to receive adequate education or any proper training. There are only few individuals such as gang members or drug dealers in these slum communities that appear to be powerful and hence, often such people become role models or youth icons for the slum children.

Collectively, these challenges increases the chances of poor enrolment rate, delayed admission, high rate of drop-out, irregularity in attendance, reduced gender parity among slum children. Effective educational provisions are needed to be formulated and implemented in order to cater the needs of slum dwellers, which are quite different from the other urban population. Establishment of schools near slums, remedial classes for the slum children as well as provision for other programmes in order to accelerate their interest towards the quality education and this would also play a crucial role in their mainstreaming.

Educational Policies for Slums since 2000 and their Current Status

All over the world the strategies required for the educational upliftment of slum dwellers have to mainly focus on two points. These two points are as follows:

- 1) Obtaining tenure for newly emerged slums or squatter settlements and this effort would make slums eligible for having access to basic services such as education.
- 2) Providing safe housing, social security, safe drinking water, garbage disposal, sewage facilities as well as other sanitation facilities. These facilities are not only of utmost importance to the health of slum dwellers but also for their survival. As a matter of fact when the urban poor areas are provided with adequate basic facilities such as water, sanitation and also tenure, then those

areas no longer remain slum. However, in most of the developing countries like India, the slum dwellers have to wait for a long time in order to get these basic civic facilities. Until then their children remain deprived from quality education and schooling.

Issues of Low Priority: During the initial phases, special educational provisions and programmes were made only in those areas where it was demanded and people were willing to pay for better education. In this way the urban areas were served better than the rural or remote areas. In developing countries like India due to limited revenue the public as well as private investments are restricted. As a result, in the last few decades the urban slums have become the victim of prioritizing the needs of the poor people. Not only at the national level but also at the global level, the educational strategies have been framed in such a way that more preference is being given to the rural areas. No doubt rural areas are needed to be prioritized, but now it is essential that urban slums should also be given importance while framing the educational policies. Against this backdrop it could be said that investments in the urban slums and squatter settlements would function not only as an incentive for urban slums but also for the rapidly increasing rural-to-urban migration.

The above-stated observation has been made after thoroughly assessing and analysing the educational policies and strategies of several international agencies over the period of last 15 years. After the evaluation of the strategy papers it was observed that from majority of these papers the term 'slum' has been missing. However, this term has been used only in context of the cross-cutting issues and sectors, otherwise the mention of this term is quite invisible. In an international report i.e. "World Bank Education Strategy Update 2005" the term 'urban' has been used only twice, whereas the word 'rural' has been mentioned for the 26 times. An analysis of educational strategy of UNICEF published in 2007 showed that the term 'urban' has been used only once, while the word 'rural' has been used for 20 times. In one of the recent strategies of World Bank for education, that has been published in 2011, the term 'urban' was used for 6 whereas 'rural' was mentioned for 9 times. However, in this report the term 'urban' was mostly used in context to the educated people who have been migrating to the cities and in the scaling of economies the educational sector was represented by cities (World Bank, 2011a). The term 'rural' was usually used in context to the vulnerable sections of the society such as rural and poor, rural and girl.

Comparisons between the urban children and rural children were made in collective and statistical manner. Both the organizations i.e. UNICEF and World Bank stated that the reduction in the gap between rural and the urban area can be viewed as an indicator of success in reference to the educational policy. Clearly, it could be stated that public as well as private investments in the urban areas would not do much in boosting this indicator of success.

Fee Exemption: In the period of last 15 years the infrastructural facilities in the schools have developed and the enrolment rates have also increased significantly in the urban as well as the rural areas. Still, the social problem of poverty acts as barrier for large number of children in attending quality schools. In the Dakar forum 2000, it was established that it is mandatory for all the member countries to provide free and compulsory education to all the children irrespective of any discrimination. This summit was held at that time when policies like providing fee exemptions, fee-waiver, scholarships were launched and these policies were targeted towards the needy children at the global level. These policies were framed to provide free and quality education to the poor, vulnerable and marginalised sections of the society. In the later years these policies were followed by the provision of free and compulsory universal primary education. This call was adequately implemented in many countries; some countries implemented it by waiving off fees for the girl child and later on for all the children. Yet, this attempt did not favour the children living in slums because in some of the countries this provision of fee-exemption was introduced only in the rural areas. Several other incentives at the school level such as providing meal to the students during working days have been applied at large scale in the urban areas also, but these moves are often viewed as too costly for the mainstreaming of urban poor (Alderman and Bundy, 2012).

Social Security: One of the highly acknowledged issues these days is the matter of social security, particularly for those children who are coming from vulnerable segments of the society. In the various research studies it has been suggested that launching various social security programmes can prove to be beneficial for induction and mainstreaming of the socially excluded children in the schools. There are several reasons responsible for the higher drop-out rate of the slum children such as sudden money crisis in the household, induction of children in labour for increasing the source of income, saving school fees and direct cost, involving children into

household chores and this in return increase the free time of the adult members which they can utilize in working more in order to earn money for the household. In the time of crisis, children often work as a tool of crisis management for the slum dwellers which directly have an impact on the education of the children. In the situation of acute crisis, children have to often drop-out permanently from the schools.

Private Initiatives and Incentives: In developing countries like India launching various social transfer programmes is not an easy task as it requires a large scale of private investment and initiative. However, instead of the lack of proper resource mobilisation several initiatives have been taken such as improving the infrastructural facilities in the government schools, remedial programmes in order to increase the retention rate of the children, fast tracking of the students who joined schools at higher age, etc.

Some policy makers have defined the concept of remedial schools as the programmes that focuses on the vulnerable children or children at risk, whereas some have defined it as the programmes for accelerating the learning process. The remedial schools as defined latter is applicable to those children that are over-aged, drop-out or out-of-school. Generally in these remedial schools the over-aged children or out-of-school children are coached in such a way that the module of three years is completed in one year or a primary education programme which is usually of six years is completed in three years. The increase in number of remedial schools and alternative programmes has given rise to new issues. One of the most serious challenges is to allow the easy transition of the student from the remedial primary schools to government secondary schools. This is one of the most explicit goals of these programmes, but other issues such as teaching and curriculum are also needed to be focused.

Co-ordinated and Balanced Approach: Due to lack of strategies at the global level, some local models have been developed and implemented in order to provide education the children of slum dwellers and these models have turned out to be highly successful. But the problem with these models is that they have high cost rate which makes them highly unaffordable for the governments. It is essential that not only the governments but the donors also should try to develop more sustainable and systematic approach towards the education.

In order to manage the inclusive education for the children living in slums, it is essential that the capacity of central as well as the local governments should be strengthened. It would be helpful in bringing down the cost rate and this would allow the mainstreaming of the deprived children. However, now-a-days more international fund is being allocated to the central government, it is also needed that the private initiatives should also be taken in order to compliment the efforts of the government. Increase in the amount of budget has enhanced the governmental support and this has resulted in the decrease in private initiatives which are now no more sustainable enough. Lack of adequate funding has resulted in the discontinuing of several unaffordable initiatives.

Multi-sector Programmes: At the global level, one of the most recent phenomenon is launching of programmes or initiatives that are multi-dimensional such as inclusion of education, health and social security under one single programme. For example, CCT programmes could help in allocating funds and social transfer not only to health and education but also to the demands of social security. These integrated multi-sectoral programmes are efficient not only in terms of effective administration, but they also have high potential to cater the comprehensive range of needs of slums children. For instance, a programme that has been launched to ensure good health of children and reduction in malnutrition would also prove to be helpful in promoting the learning achievement of the children. There are some programmes that also have certain terms and conditions such as the parents should remove their children from child labour or they should have birth certificate of their children. Hence, these are posed as challenges to the slum dwellers.

Poor Quality of Education: In the beginning the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 2 played a significant role in increasing the enrolment rates in the schools and it also increased the retention rate in the urban slum areas. The issue of financial priorities was the tough task and the trade-off between quality-quantity finally ended up in supporting quantity. However, the enrolment and attendance rates went high, but the quality of the education deteriorated which substantially decreased the learning achievement of the children. Enough efforts were not made to improve the infrastructural facilities in the schools as well as the process of recruitment of teachers was also slow. As a result the size of the classes increased and the teacher-student ratio also increased which had poor effect on the working conditions of students as

well as teachers. Besides, the poor achievement level, the rate of drop-out also increased.

Early Childhood Development Initiatives (ECD): In one of the report of UNESCO i.e. GMR report 2013/14, it has been asserted that education for all does not means institutionalisation. It means learning for all the children. Now if we look into the case of vulnerable and highly deprived slum children, then this debate has two major dimensions. Firstly, the process of learning is usually one of the major challenges for the children coming from slums; and secondly, children who are living their life under great stress then the going to school means more than learning to them. Here, he former mentioned point has a close association with the school readiness. Most of the children coming from slums live under stressful environment, lack basic necessities, suffer from several diseases and nutritional problems. Hence, they enter the school unprepared which on the one hand makes it highly difficult for them to adapt to the school environment while on the other hand the teachers in the schools find it difficult to educate such children. In the last decade, across the globe the governments have adopted the policies of early childhood care and development. This is one of the primary issues for the extremely poor urban households, which severely lack proper schooling system in the nearby locality of slums. The developing countries like India have also realised the importance of prioritizing ECD. Now it is perceived that school readiness is one of the most important factors in schooling process. The ECD programmes have not been launched only to cater the needs of pre-school children who have health and nutritional problems, but the children who are healthy also receive better cognitive development. Furthermore, these ECD programmes provide safe place for child care as well as slum children, which increases the freeing time for mothers and older siblings who are working hard to earn the money for the household.

Security and Recreation: For slum children schooling no longer means the place of learning, it is much more than that. Today, the schools have increased the coverage area but the achievement level of children is a matter of serious concern. Children coming from slums live under unsafe conditions, severe trauma, lack of basic services and also domestic trauma. Hence, under such circumstances school play many other roles apart from learning. In majority of the slums, children have to suffer from the violence, parental conflict, substance abuse and other vices, which further add more pressure over them. In this situation, school serves as a place where children can go

safely and their brain would be occupied in cognitive development which would no doubt work as therapeutic treatment for them. The schools should strive that their goal should be to act as a place for learning, but the situation in the schools is quite disappointing. The number of enrolled children has no doubt increased but the achievement level of such children is not very significant.

It can be summarized that the urban slums have low learning level, but they are being prioritized by governments in various educational programmes. In government primary schools the cost of education is quite low so that the urban poor could afford to send their children, but the provisions of fee exemptions and tuition waivers are mostly for the rural or remote areas and not for the urban areas. The social security programmes that have been launched in order to provide safety to marginalised urban poor has also gained momentum. The CCTs and several other programmes have contributed significantly in improving the enrolment rates, retention rates as well as attendance rates among urban slum children. The participation of public sector in most of the slum is quite poor. However, NGOs and other low-cost initiatives are being complimented in urban slums.

Theoretical Perspective

The three social theoretical perspectives concerning education are Functionalism, Conflict Theory, and the Interpretivist Approach. The theme of education and societal inequality such as race, gender, class and ethnicity offers an excellent opportunity to compare the three theoretical perspectives. Banks (2010) in one of his articles on multicultural education the three social theoretical perspectives of education can be compared by looking at five dimensions of multicultural education typology he provides. To briefly review, the five dimensions of multicultural education (according to Banks) are: content integration; knowledge construction; prejudice reduction; equity pedagogy; and, empowering school culture. The functionalist perspective, for example, can be found in the prejudice reduction dimension of Banks' multicultural education typology. As cited by Banks, the prejudice reduction dimension of multicultural education "is designed to help students develop more democratic attitudes, values, and behaviours." When students develop more democratic attitudes, values, and behaviours they become more socialized and are better able "to adapt to the economic, political and social institutions of that society"

Both the equity pedagogy and empowering school culture dimensions of Banks' multicultural education typology demonstrate the conflict theory approach. Teachers in the equity pedagogy dimension attempt to use teaching strategies that "facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse, racial, ethnic, and social-class groups...to help students who are members of low-status population groups to increase their academic achievement" (Banks). In particular, it's the cultural deprivationists approach that focuses on social class and the culture of poverty that best demonstrates the conflict theory approach. According to Banks, "social scientists developed the culture of poverty concept to describe experiences of low income populations and in education this concept became known as cultural deprivation or the disadvantaged." In many ways, the equity pedagogy dimension is quite similar to the empowering school culture dimension. The idea of the empowering school culture dimension, according to Banks, is "the process of restructuring the culture and organization of the school so that students from diverse racial, ethnic, and social-class groups will experience educational equality and cultural empowerment." Banks notes that to achieve an empowering school culture for minority students and students from low social economic status backgrounds schools must "restructure" their culture and organization.

The interpretivist perspective can be found in both the content integration and the knowledge construction dimensions of Banks' multicultural education typology. Content integration, according to Banks, "deals with the extent to which teachers use examples, data, and information from a variety of cultures and groups to illustrate key concepts, principles, generalizations, and theories in their subject area or discipline. Similarly, with the knowledge construction dimension, "teachers help students to understand how knowledge is created and how it is influenced by the racial, ethnic, and social-class positions of individuals and groups" (Banks). These two dimensions of Banks' multicultural education typology seem to fit Feinberg and Soltis' description of the interpretivist perspective as quite well. Feinberg and Soltis describe the interpretivist who "sees the social world as a world made up of purposeful actors who acquire, share, and interpret a set of meanings, rules, and norms that make social interaction possible. The social forces at work are shared meanings and interpreting individuals who interact in particular social contexts."

It's important for all educators (both teachers and administrators), researchers, and policy makers to have a “grasp” or knowledge of the three social theoretical perspectives concerning education if they are to have a good understanding of the sociology of education. Regardless of how one views education and the role schools play in society, without an understanding of the major theoretical perspectives and how different viewpoints interact with one’s own positions they are a less effective educator.

The Functions of Education

Functional theory stresses the functions that education serves in fulfilling a society’s various needs. Perhaps the most important function of education is socialization. If children are to learn the norms, values, and skills they need to function in society, then education is a primary vehicle for such learning. Schools teach the three Rs (reading, w’riting, a’rithmetic), as we all know, but they also teach many of the society’s norms and values. In the United States, these norms and values include respect for authority, patriotism (Remember the Pledge of Allegiance?), punctuality, and competition (for grades and sports victories).

A second function of education is social integration. For a society to work, functionalists say, people must subscribe to a common set of beliefs and values. As we saw, the development of such common views was a goal of the system of free, compulsory education that developed in the nineteenth century. Thousands of immigrant children in the United States today are learning English, US history, and other subjects that help prepare them for the workforce and integrate them into American life.

A third function of education is social placement. Beginning in grade school, students are identified by teachers and other school officials either as bright and motivated or as less bright and even educationally challenged. Depending on how they are identified, children are taught at the level that is thought to suit them best. In this way, they are presumably prepared for their later station in life.

Social and cultural innovation is a fourth function of education. Our scientists cannot make important scientific discoveries and our artists and thinkers cannot come

up with great works of art, poetry, and prose unless they have first been educated in the many subjects they need to know for their chosen path.

Education also involves several latent functions, functions that are by-products of going to school and receiving an education rather than a direct effect of the education itself. One of these is child care once a child starts kindergarten and then first grade, for several hours a day the child is taken care of for free. The establishment of peer relationships is another latent function of schooling. Most of us met many of our friends while we were in school at whatever grade level, and some of those friendships endure the rest of our lives. A final latent function of education is that it keeps millions of high school students out of the full-time labour force. This fact keeps the unemployment rate lower than it would be if they were in the labor force. Education serves so many manifest and latent functions for society, problems in schooling ultimately harm society. For education to serve its many functions, various kinds of reforms are needed to make our schools and the process of education as effective as possible.

Conflict Theory (Education and Inequality)

Conflict theory does not dispute the functions just described. However, it does give some of them a different slant by emphasizing how education also perpetuates social inequality (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012). One example of this process involves the function of social placement. When most schools begin tracking their students in grade school, the students thought by their teachers to be bright are placed in the faster tracks (especially in reading and arithmetic), while the slower students are placed in the slower tracks; in high school, three common tracks are the college track, vocational track, and general track.

Such tracking does have its advantages; it helps ensure that bright students learn as much as their abilities allow them, and it helps ensure that slower students are not taught over their heads. But conflict theorists say that tracking also helps perpetuate social inequality by locking students into faster and lower tracks. Worse yet, several studies show that students' social class and race and ethnicity affect the track into which they are placed, even though their intellectual abilities and potential should be the only things that matter: White, middle-class students are more likely to be tracked "up," while poorer students and students of color are more likely to be

tracked “down.” Once they are tracked, students learn more if they are tracked up and less if they are tracked down. The latter tend to lose self-esteem and begin to think they have little academic ability and thus do worse in school because they were tracked down. In this way, tracking is thought to be good for those tracked up and bad for those tracked down. Conflict theorists thus say that tracking perpetuates social inequality based on social class and race and ethnicity (Ansalone, 2010).

Conflict theorists add that standardized tests are culturally biased and thus also help perpetuate social inequality (Grotsky, Warren, & Felts, 2008). According to this criticism, these tests favor white, middle-class students whose socioeconomic status and other aspects of their backgrounds have afforded them various experiences that help them answer questions on the tests.

A third critique of conflict theory involves the quality of schools. Schools differ mightily in their resources, learning conditions, and other aspects, all of which affect how much students can learn in them. Simply put, schools are unequal, and their very inequality helps perpetuate inequality in the larger society. Children going to the worst schools in urban areas face many more obstacles to their learning than those going to well-funded schools in suburban areas. Their lack of learning helps ensure they remain trapped in poverty and its related problems.

In a fourth critique, conflict theorists say that schooling teaches a hidden curriculum, by which they mean a set of values and beliefs that support the status quo, including the existing social hierarchy (Booher-Jennings, 2008). Although no one plots this behind closed doors, our schoolchildren learn patriotic values and respect for authority from the books they read and from various classroom activities.

A final critique is historical and concerns the rise of free, compulsory education during the nineteenth century (Cole, 2008). Because compulsory schooling began in part to prevent immigrants’ values from corrupting “American” values, conflict theorists see its origins as smacking of ethnocentrism (the belief that one’s own group is superior to another group). They also criticize its intention to teach workers the skills they needed for the new industrial economy. Because most workers were very poor in this economy, these critics say, compulsory education served the interests of the upper/capitalist class much more than it served the interests of workers.

Symbolic Interactionism and School Behavior

Symbolic interactionist studies of education examine social interaction in the classroom, on the playground, and in other school venues. These studies help us understand what happens in the schools themselves, but they also help us understand how what occurs in school is relevant for the larger society. Some studies, for example, show how children's playground activities reinforce gender-role socialization. Girls tend to play more cooperative games, while boys play more competitive sports (Thorne, 1993).

Another body of research shows that teachers' views about students can affect how much the students learn. When teachers think students are smart, they tend to spend more time with these students, to call on them, and to praise them when they give the right answer. Not surprisingly, these students learn more because of their teachers' behavior. But when teachers think students are less bright, they tend to spend less time with these students and to act in a way that leads them to learn less. Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson (1968) conducted a classic study of this phenomenon. They tested a group of students at the beginning of the school year and told their teachers which students were bright and which were not. They then tested the students again at the end of the school year. Not surprisingly, the bright students had learned more during the year than the less bright ones. But it turned out that the researchers had randomly decided which students would be designated bright and less bright. Because the "bright" students learned more during the school year without actually being brighter at the beginning, their teachers' behavior must have been the reason. In fact, their teachers did spend more time with them and praised them more often than was true for the "less bright" students. This process helps us understand why tracking is bad for the students tracked down.

Other research in the symbolic interactionist tradition focuses on how teachers treat girls and boys. Many studies find that teachers call on and praise boys more often (Jones & Dindia, 2004). Teachers do not do this consciously, but their behavior nonetheless sends an implicit message to girls that math and science are not for them and that they are not suited to do well in these subjects. This body of research has stimulated efforts to educate teachers about the ways in which they may unwittingly send these messages and about strategies they could use to promote greater interest

and achievement by girls in mathematics and science (Battey, Kafai, Nixon and Kao, 2007).

Now, after elaborating the previous research studies related to this topic and eliciting the conceptual and theoretical framework of this research work I would move forward to the next chapter i.e. education commissions, policies and programmes in India. The next chapter would focus on the various commissions, policies as well programmes, which would provide us a better understanding of educational scenario in India.



Chapter III
Education Commissions,
Policies and
Programmes in India



Chapter III

Education Commissions, Policies and Programmes in India

How can educational opportunity be improved in our country? How can the poor and marginalised children get quality education? How will the opportunity for education matter to their future life prospects and to the development of societies in which they live? The substance of education policies revolves around addressing these type of challenging questions and debates. Education policies also focus on options to effect systemic change in education systems.

Education Commissions: An Overview

The educational situation on the eve of independence was quite bleak. In spite of all that had been achieved under the British Rule, we began our freedom on a fairly low level of attainment in education in almost all respects. There were 17 universities and 636 colleges (with a total enrolment of 2,38,000 students), 5,297 secondary schools with 8,70,000 pupils (which implied that not even one youth in every twenty in the age-group 14-17 was in school), 12,843 middle schools with two million pupils (which meant that only one child out of every eleven in the age-group 11-14 was enrolled) and 1,72,661 primary schools with fourteen million pupils (which implied that only one child out of every three in the age-group 6-11 was in school). Vocational and technical education was poorly developed, both at the school and university stages, and the supply of high level trained scientific man-power was very limited. Educational inequalities were very large, especially between one region and another, between urban and rural areas, between men and women, and between the advanced and intermediate castes on the one hand and the scheduled castes and tribes on the other. The standards of education were generally unsatisfactory, especially at the school stage, with too much of emphasis on English and too little stress on Mathematics, Science or the Indian languages. The percentage of literacy was only about fourteen and the total educational expenditure was just about Rs. 570 millions or less than half a per cent of the national income. It was this challenging situation which the nation was called upon to reform when it kept its first trust with destiny in 1947 (Naik, 1947).

Against the above background, in the aftermath of Independence, several Committees and Commissions were constituted to analyse the problems and suggest the way forward. It was felt that Universities could play a significant role in the development process. It was suggested that the duties and responsibilities of the Universities were significant and needed in the light of the leadership they were expected to provide in politics, administration, the professions, industry and commerce. They were expected to enable the country to free itself from want, disease and ignorance by developing scientific and technical knowledge. So the first Commission formed was the Commission on University Education.

University Education Commission (1948-49)

University Education Commission (1948-49) was the first Commission on education after Independence. Its major emphasis was on higher education but it also touched upon the issues related to school education. The Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, a great visionary of modern era.

The Radhakrishnan Commission on University Education defined the vital tasks of higher education. The aims of university should be to produce able citizens who can take up national responsibilities successfully in various fields. The university has to produce able administrators and suitable workers in various occupations and industries. It has to provide leadership in various walks of life in the best interest of the nation.

The Commission recommended that the standard of admission to University courses should correspond to that of the present intermediate examination, i.e., after 12 years of study at school and intermediate college. It remarked that “our secondary education remains the weakest link in our educational machinery and needs urgent reforms.”

The Commission stated that the function of school education is to provide good general education, it further spelt out the elements of good education “which will not only prepare pupil for university work, but at the same time prepare him for practical work to earn his living if he did not proceed to a university.

The Commission suggested that the functions of a school and a university should be different. The function of a school should be to provide suitable education

to those who join higher education and also to those who do not have the intention of proceeding further. Education of both sets could be combined together, whereas some schools could train students for work in agriculture industry and commerce.

The University Education Commission laid great stress on the introduction of general education throughout school. The Commission clearly wanted that school should diversify its outcomes in such a way that many could effectively participate in real life by taking up jobs or self-employment and only very few would continue study beyond school.

Secondary Education Commission (1952-53)

The concerns of education articulated during the freedom struggle were revisited by the National Commissions – the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53), and the Education Commission (1964-66). Both Commissions elaborated on the themes emerging out of Mahatama Gandhi's educational philosophy in the changed socio-political context with a focus on national developments (NCF, 2005, p.3). A separate education commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. Lakshamananaswami Mudaliyar in 1952 to address the issues related to school education. The Commission Report (1952) had envisaged schools to play a crucial role in developing democratic citizenship, emphasizing that “democracy is based on faith and in the dignity and worth of every single “individual”, where the innate worthfulness cannot be eclipsed either by economic or racial or social consideration (SEC, 1952, p.20).”

It stated “citizenship in a democracy involves many intellectual social and moral qualities a democratic citizen should have the understanding and the intellectual integrity to sift truth from falsehood, facts from propaganda and to reject the dangerous appeal of fanaticism and prejudice (SEC, 1952, p. 19). It also called for education opportunities that would translate into practice a passion for social justice.”

The Secondary Education Commission presented its report in 1953 which had recommendations on almost all aspects of secondary education. The major recommendations of the Commission were:

- installation of higher secondary system;

- diversified courses;
- three language formula;
- emphasis on education and vocational guidance;
- improvement in methods of teaching, text books and system of examination; and
- improvement in building and equipment.

The Commission introduced the policy of developing a three-year national system of secondary education (after eight years of elementary education). The recommendation of splitting intermediate stage into two parts, one year going to the school and other to the university turned out to be retrograde - the eleven year higher secondary course introduced specialisation too early (after class VIII) and made vocationalisation difficult (Naik, 1969). Though the major recommendations of the Commission were related to secondary education, but it clearly indicated the importance of elementary education.

The Education Commission (1964-66)

Drawing on Nehru's Mission and articulating most of his key themes, the Kothari Commission (1964-66) was set up under the Chairmanship of Dr. D. S. Kothari to formulate a coherent education policy for India. The Commission was most comprehensive in nature, it reviewed almost all aspects of the education system without limiting itself to any one particular aspect, unlike the Commissions that came before and after it. Two of the unique features of the Report are:

- i.) its comprehensive approach to educational reconstruction; and
- ii.) its attempt to project a blueprint for the education system in India at the national level.

According to this educational commission, the main objectives of the education were to increase the sense of national unity and develop social solidarity, strengthen democracy, enhance the productivity, develop sense of social security, multidimensional modernisation of the country and develop social, moral as well as spiritual values. The crucial role of education in national development appears in all its vividness throughout in the report, appropriately titled "Education and National Development".

The Commission identified the three important facets that would bring about the desired educational resolution, they are:

- internal transformation so as to relate it to the life needs and aspirations of the nation;
- qualitative improvement so that the standards achieved are adequate and become internationally comparable; and
- expansion of educational facilities broadly on the basis of manpower needs with emphasis on equalisation of education opportunities.

It suggested the restructuring of education into a uniform pattern of 10+2+3. It adopted a “manpower approach” to the enrolment issue and declared that the principal purpose of higher education was to cater to the needs of industrial and other sectors, even as it acknowledged its role in promoting social transformation.

The Commission sought to reorient educational system to the masses to help people come into their own. It sought to end the dichotomy between work and education to make the products good workers as well as educated individuals. It recommended a minimum of 10 years of common curriculum for building citizenship in a democracy and for linking the “work of knowledge” with the “world of work”. In this concept, diversified courses would be introduced only at the +2 stage.

Major recommendations of the Commission included emphasis on Science and Mathematics, introduction of work experience as an integral part of school curriculum, introduction of common school system, educational structure with 12 years of schooling, free text-books at primary stage, provision of mid-day-meals, promotion of education of handicapped and special measures for ensuring equality of educational opportunities (regional, tribal and gender imbalances to be addressed), establishment of school complexes, neighbourhood school, three language formula etc.

The Commission emphasized the need of alternative channels of education to eradicate illiteracy and provide adult education. By laying more focus on Mathematics and Science rather than Social Science or Arts, the Commission reinforced the notion that India’s development needs are better met by scientists than social scientists. For improving the quality of education, the Commission focused on institutional planning

for improving standards nationwide, promotion of new work ethic, improved teaching and learning materials and methods of teaching and evaluation, and selective development of schools.

Teacher Status

The Commission emphasized that the most urgent need was to upgrade the remuneration of teachers substantially, particularly at the school stages. It recommended that the government should lay down minimum scales of pay for teachers and assist States and Union territories to adopt equivalent or higher scales.

Teacher Education

The Commission urged that professional preparation of teachers was the key for qualitative improvement of education and recommended measures like:

- qualitative improvement in teacher education programmes;
- introduction of new courses for headmasters/teacher educators and educational administrators; and
- expansion of teacher education institutions and recommendations of the training facilities.

National Knowledge Commission (2009)

To encounter the educational challenges in 21st century, the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) was appointed. It is not exactly an education commission as its role was to propose the framework for quality, access and equity in higher education. NKC is one of the important recent initiatives for improvement on quality of education.

National Knowledge Commission (NKC) was constituted in June 2005 by the then Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh, under the Chairmanship of Mr. Sam Pitroda, to prepare a blueprint for reform of our knowledge related institutions and infrastructure which would enable India to meet the challenges of the future. NKC has submitted recommendations on areas such as Right to Education, libraries, language, translation, portals and knowledge networks. Some of its recommendations are:

1. The need for a central legislation affirming the Right to Education. The legislation should also lay down minimum standards of quality in school education and for it to be effective, the responsibility of the Government at different levels, must be recognised and made justifiable.
2. The teaching of English as a language should be introduced, along with the first language (either mother tongue or the regional language) of the child, starting from Class I. Further, NKC has also focused on the need to reform the pedagogy of English language teaching, and the use of all available media to supplement traditional teaching methods.
3. Changes in the school system which would encourage decentralisation, local autonomy in management of schools, and flexibility in disbursement of funds.
4. To improve quality and generate accountability, improving school infrastructure and revamping school inspection with a greater role for local stakeholders and greater transparency in the system.
5. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to be made more accessible to teachers, students and the administration.
6. The need for reforms in the curriculum and examination systems by moving away from rote learning to a critical understanding of concepts and finally improvement in faculty.

NKC suggested that the primary responsibility for school education is on the State Governments, and, therefore, States needed to be consulted for policy formulation. NKC also recommends both pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes be subject to the same regulatory, authority and with adequate monitoring of the training provided by private organisations.

Major Education Policies

The major four Education Commissions discussed above lay down the foundation stone of developing education policies in India. In this regard National Policy on Education 1968, 1986, and also Revised Programme of Action, 1992, was established for preparing the detail roadmap for implementation of the schemes of education. Let us discuss in details, what the policies had to say about aspects of education.

National Policy on Education (1968)

Arising out of the recommendations of the Kothari Commission, the National Policy of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of Independent India. It aimed to promote national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture, and to strengthen national Integration. It laid stress on the need for a radical reconstruction of the education system to improve its quality at all stages and gave much greater attention to Science and Technology, the cultivation of moral values and a closer relation between education and the life of the people.

The NPE-1968 very briefly indicated that strenuous efforts should be made for the early fulfillment of the Directive Principle under Article 45 of the Constitution that directed “the State to provide free and compulsory education to all the children up to 14 years of age”. It suggested that suitable programmes should be developed to reduce the prevailing ‘wastage’ and ‘stagnation’ in schools and to ensure that every child who is enrolled in school successfully completes the prescribed course.

The Policy also emphasized enrichment of curricula and improvement of text books and teaching methods. It advocated the strengthening of Science education at the school level and stepping up of scholarship schemes for backward sections of the society.

Though NPE-1968 was a good effort in suggesting ways forward, it could not be implemented successfully in the absence of a detailed implementation strategy, assignment of specified responsibility and lack of financial and organisational support. The next significant move was formulation of the NPE 1986.

National Policy on Education (1986)

The Government of India reviewed the prevailing education system in 1985 and the policy was articulated in the document “Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective”. The new education policy was intended to prepare India for the 21st century. The policy emphasized the need for change in the following words - “Education in India stands at crossroads today, neither normal linear expansion nor the existing pace and nature of improvement can meet the needs of the situation.”

The 1986 policy acknowledged the achievement of policy goals set by the 1968 policy, like setting up of a school within a kilometer and adoption of a common education structure, it, however, stated that increased financial and organisational support was necessary to address problems of access and quality.

The policy was intended to raise educational standards and increase access to education. At the same time it would safeguard the values of secularism, socialism and equality, being promoted since Independence. The government also proposed to seek financial support from the private sector to complement government funds. The Central Government also declared that it would accept a wider responsibility to enforce the national and integrative character of education to maintain quality and standards. The States, however, retained a significant role particularly in relation to the curriculum.

NPE 1986 proposed a national system of education based on the accepted structure of 10+2+3. Regarding the further break-up of the first 10 years, it suggested an elementary system comprising 5 years of primary and 3 years of upper primary education followed by 2 years of high school. It suggested that +2 stage be accepted as part of school education throughout the country. The national system implied that upto a given level, all students irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex have access to education of a comparable quality. The Policy reiterated the need to take effective measures for implementation of common school system recommended in the 1968 Policy.

Setting up of Navodaya Vidyalayas was another landmark in the history of education in general and elementary education in particular.

In its fourth section, there is an emphasis on opportunities of elementary education for girls and removing the problems in this regard. It has also been suggested that primary schools be opened in remote areas including ashram or residential schools in tribal regions. The policy emphasized on inclusion of motor handicapped children in normal schools and arrangement of special schools at district headquarters.

In Section Five, issues related to elementary education were specially addressed. It was proposed that:

- Access, Enrollment and Retention of all children upto the age of 14 years in the schools.
- Quality improvement of education by improving the school environment, child centered and activity-centered teaching methodology, continuous evaluation throughout the year, removal of all kinds of physical punishment, continuing the practice of not failing the students in any class at elementary level and arranging the essential facilities in primary schools.
- Arranging non-formal education for children, who left the schools, in between, or are residing at places not having schools.
- Regarding teachers and teacher education, the policy suggested that District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) need to be established with the capability to organise pre-service and in-service courses for elementary school teachers and for non-formal and adult education. It recommended that when DIETs get established, sub-standard institutions should be phased out, selected Secondary Teacher Education Institutes should be upgraded to compliment the work of the State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERT). The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) should be provided the necessary resources and capability to accredit institutions of teacher-education and to provide guidance regarding curricula and methods. Networking arrangements should be created between institutions of teacher education and university departments of education.
- The NPE and POA elaborately discussed about the concept of language development and emphasised the adoption of regional languages as the medium of instruction at the university stage. Mother tongue should be the medium of instruction at the school stage. Recommendations relating to language practice were as follows:
 - three language formula, improvements in the linguistic competencies of students at different stages of education;
 - provision of facilities for the study of English and other foreign languages;
 - and
 - development of Hindi language as a link language etc.

The Programme of Action (PoA) in this Policy proposed Operation Blackboard to improve the human and physical resources available in primary

schools. The key legacies of the 1986 policy were the promotion of privatisation and the continued emphasis on secularism and Science. The NPE, 1986 also advocated developing consciousness about environment. The Policy had some important features like common school curriculum, minimum levels of learning, value education, role of media and education technology, work experience, emphasis on teaching of Mathematics and Science, Sports and Physical Education and education for international understanding.

The Government constituted a review committee under the chairmanship of Acharya Rammurthy in 1989 to review the progress and effectiveness of NPE 1986. The Report of Rammurthy Committee put up in 1990 was named “Towards an Enlightened and Humane Society”. The Committee recommended that even the private schools should be converted into common schools to remove social, economic, regional and gender disparities. It suggested that there must be some concrete programmes for SCs, Tribes, Women and educationally backward minorities. It further suggested that there should be adequate funds to improve the basic structure and quality of primary education. Primary education must be in mother tongue and the aid to schools providing education in other medium should be stopped. The recommendation of the Committee provided a base to develop a new programme of action, the revised Programme of Action, 1992.

Education Programmes

Revised Programme of Action (1992)

Before considering the suggestions of the Ramamurthy Committee, the Government appointed another committee under the chairmanship of Janardan Reddy in 1992. The report of the Committee provided a base for the modified National Policy on Education and a concrete programme emerged as Programme of Action, 1992 (POA 1992).

The revised programme of action proposed education for equality. It recommended a more comprehensive Operation Blackboard to enhance its coverage area up to upper primary level, aim at a minimum of 50 percent female teachers in future appointments at elementary level, informal education programme for the educationally deprived and working boys and girls, and computer education to as

many schools as possible. It was also proposed that elementary schools should be open throughout the year.

Schools for Equality and Equity

In order to achieve the goal of education for all, some proposals for setting up school systems were proposed in the Commissions and Policies. In this section, we will discuss three of them in detail, namely, the common school system, neighbourhood schools, and alternative schooling.

Common School System (CSS)

The Education Commission (1964-66) had recommended a Common School System of public education as the basis of building up the National System of Education with a view to “bring the different social classes and groups together and thus promote the emergence of an egalitarian and integrated society”. The Commission pointed out that education was increasing social segregations and increasing disparities. It further noted that “this is bad not only for the children of the poor but also for the children of the rich and privileged groups as the parents were preventing them from sharing the life and experiences of the children of the poor and coming into contact with the realities of life and rendering the education of their own children incomplete....”

A “Common School System” (CSS) means a system which provides education of an equitable quality to all children irrespective of caste, creed, community, language, gender, economic condition, social status and physical mental ability.”

Further, the 1986 policy envisaged that the Common School System would be open to all children irrespective of social, economic and other differences. The 1986 Policy, while advocating a National System of Education, resolved that “effective measures will be taken in the direction of the Common School System recommended in the 1968 policy.” It also noted that the Constitution embodies the principles (equality and social justice) on which the National System of Education is conceived.

What is a Common School System? The most important feature of a Common School System is equitable (not uniform) quality of education for all types of schools, be they government, government-aided, local body or private schools. Six essential and non-negotiable attributes of equitable quality of education need to be specified:

- i) i) minimum physical infrastructure, including library, teaching aids, playgrounds and many other features (e.g. early childhood care centers and pre-primary schools attached to primary/elementary schools);
- ii) professional quality of teachers and teacher student ratio;
- iii) diversified and flexible curriculum to reflect the geo-cultural plurality of the country, while emphasizing certain core curricular features of nation-wide significance;
- iv) pedagogy for holistic, child-friendly education;
- v) apart from gender sensitivity, pedagogic and social empathy for the dalits, tribals, cultural and ethnic minorities and the physically or mentally challenged children; and
- vi) decentralised and community-controlled school system.

By far the most significant benefit of the Common School System is that it promotes equality and social justice and it helps in nation-building and the creation of social capital which is essential for sustaining democracy and ensuring economic progress and prosperity.

The 1968 Policy recommended the Common School System, implementation of which was overlooked by the POA, 1986. In 1990, the apex, Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) constituted Acharya Ramamurthy Committee to review its non-implementation. The Committee in its analysis outlined the following reasons for the Common School System not having made headway:

- i) economic and social disparities: the well to do communities send their children to schools with better infrastructure teachers and teaching standards ordinary to schools are not sought after and this results in low investment in them;
- ii) the Constitutional protection given to the minorities-to establish and administrator their own educational institutions is incompatible with a Common School System;
- iii) quality of education dispensed in government schools has remained poor;
- iv) lack of political will;
- v) proliferation of privately managed English medium school charging capitation fee and offering expensive coaching; and

- vi) existence of KVs, Sainik Schools, Navodaya Vidyalayas, in the government sector.

Neighbourhood Schools

The concept of neighbourhood schools is central to the Common School System. The Kothari Commission Report recommended that each school within the Common School System should be attended by all the children in the neighbourhood. This has to be specified and delineated by a prescribed authority. The Report said: "Each school should be attended by all children in the neighbourhood irrespective of caste, creed, community, religion, economic condition or social status, so there would be no segregation schools." Arguing for neighbourhood school, the Commission advanced two arguments. First, a neighbourhood school would provide 'good' education to children because sharing life with common people would be an essential ingredient of good education. Second, the establishment of such schools would compel rich, privileged and powerful classes to take an interest in the system of public education and thereby bring about its early improvement. The developments in school education post Kothari demonstrate that the 'rich privileged and powerful classes' did not take an interest in the system of public education, as Kothari had hoped. The 1986 National Policy on Education accepted the Commission's recommendation on the Common School System (CSS) aiming at the implementation of the neighbourhood school concept within twenty years. After some twenty years, however, in 1986 the New Policy maintained the rhetoric of CSS but in reality had abandoned it.

Alternative Schools

The Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) is a programme to set up Alternative Schools in habitations where there is no formal school within a radius of one k.m. and there are at least 15 children of the elementary school going age. Sometimes, EGS centres exist in remote habitations with only about 10 children. An EGS centre is expected to exist until it is upgraded to a primary school provided it is in operation for two years and the State norms for setting up a small school are satisfied. Education Volunteers (EVs), selected by the village, run the centres; they are trained initially for 30 days and receive continuous training subsequently. The CRCs/BRCs and DIETs provide academic support to the centres. The children are exposed to the same formal curriculum that exists in the primary school, and receive textbooks and the mid-day-

meal. At the end of the financial year 200506, there were 1,11,416 EGS (Primary) centres, catering to 4.04 millions children. Upper primary EGS centres cater to habitations without access to upper primary schooling in Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Uttaranchal and West Bengal. Such centres have two teachers each.

The EGS was founded on the following key, institutional features: i) The right to demand a school with the State's guarantee that it would be met: the understanding here was that this would enable empower and energise people to demand schools in educationally deprived areas. In the process, the government would also come to know where schooling facilities were critically needed. ii) Accountable 'Gurujis' – The community was given the power to appoint the 'gurujis' through PTAs and SMCs, it was also expected to monitor, motivate and discipline them, thus making them accountable to the community from the beginning. iii) EGS Schools community ownership – PTAs and SMCs are expected to play a huge role in managing the school, motivating children, reducing dropout rates thus ensuring that community owns the schools.

Criticism: The official claims of success of EGS have drawn criticism from many quarters. The French scholar, Lectercq argued that even though “access to education has improved through EGS, children are offered an education guarantee yet the guarantee is incomplete, some children are nominally enrolled, attendance is erratic, and the quality teaching and educational outcomes are insufficient”. Other studies point out similar problems stating that systems like EGS which tend to expand access through under-qualified, poorly trained and low-paid para teachers deliver poor quality education. Not only that, such systems establish two streams of education in the country-one which is better endowed in terms of facilities for the privileged sections and the other which is deficient and for the underprivileged (Govinda and Josephine, 2004, Pandey 2006, Pritchett and Pande 2006).

Universalisation of Elementary Education

To carry forward the Constitutional commitment of strengthening the social fabric of democracy by providing equal educational opportunities to all, efforts to reach out were intensified through several schemes and programmes. In this section, we will be discussing two centrally sponsored schemes implemented in partnership with State Governments on universalising elementary education.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) scheme to universalise elementary education through district based, decentralized specific planning and implementation strategy by community ownership of the school system. It is a programme for achievement of Universalisation of Elementary Education in a time-bound manner, as mandated by 86th Amendment to the Constitution of India making free and compulsory education to all the children of 6-14 age groups as a fundamental right.

SSA has focused on all major issues related to universalisation of education. It focuses on institutional reforms, sustainable financing, community ownership, institutional capacity building, improving main stream educational administration, community based monitoring with full transparency, accountability to community, priority to girls' education and focus on the inclusion and participation of children from SC/ST, minority groups, urban deprived children, children of other disadvantaged groups and children with special needs. The scheme aims to improve enrolment, retention and the quality of education to enable children to achieve grade appropriate levels of learning.

SSA is being implemented in partnership with State Governments to cover the entire country and address the needs of 192 million children in 1.1 million habitations. The programme seeks to open new schools in those habitations which do not have schooling facilities and strengthen existing school infrastructure through provision of additional classrooms, toilets, drinking water, maintenance grant and school improvement grant. These provisions need to be aligned with the legally mandated norms and standards and free entitlements mandated by the RTE Act.

The Report to the People on Education 2009-10 published by MHRD, Government of India has reflected on the impact of SSA on Universalisation of Elementary Education. The Report says that observations from the field indicates that with enormous increase in number of institutions and enrollment, the issue of universal access to primary education has, more or less, been successfully addressed. The universal enrolment to elementary education is being addressed through the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.

Committee on Implementation of RTE Act and the Revamp of SSA

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is implemented as India's flagship programme for Universalising Elementary Education. The provisions in the RTE Act are applicable

to the SSA goals on access and Universalisation of Elementary Education. In the present phase of SSA, it is mandatory to ensure that the approach and strategies for Universalising Elementary Education are in conformity with the rights perspective mandated under the RTE Act.

In September 2009, the Government set up a Committee under the chairpersonship of Shri Anil Bordia, former Union Education Secretary, to suggest follow up action on SSA vis-à-vis the RTE Act. The Committee had a series of interactions with State Education Secretaries, educationists, representatives of teachers' unions, voluntary organisations and civil society organisations. The Committee's report, entitled "Implementation of RTE Act and Resultant Revamp of SSA", submitted in April 2010, was guided by the following principles:

- i) Holistic view of education, as interpreted in the National Curriculum Framework, 2005, with implications for a systemic revamp of the entire content and process of education with significant implications for curriculum, teacher education, educational planning and management.
- ii) Equity, to mean not only equal opportunity, but also creation of conditions in which the disadvantaged sections of the society – children of SC, ST, Muslim minority, landless agricultural workers and children with special needs, etc. – can avail of the opportunity.
- iii) Access, not to be confined to ensuring that a school becomes accessible to all children within specified distance but implies an understanding of the educational needs and predicament of the traditionally excluded categories – the SC, ST and others sections of the most disadvantaged groups, the Muslim minority, girls in general, and children with special needs.
- iv) Gender concern, implying not only an effort to enable girls to keep pace with boys but to view education in the perspective spelt out in the National Policy on Education 1986/92; i.e. a decisive intervention to bring about a basic change in the status of women.
- v) Centrality of teacher, to motivate them to innovate and create a culture in the classroom, and beyond the classroom, that might produce an inclusive environment for children, especially for girls from oppressed and marginalised backgrounds.

- vi) Moral compulsion is imposed through the RTE Act on parents, teachers, educational administrators and other stakeholders, rather than shifting emphasis on punitive processes.
- vii) Convergent and integrated system of educational management is prerequisite for implementation of the RTE law. All States must move in that direction as speedily as feasible.

National Curriculum Framework (NCF, 2005)

NCERT prepared National Curriculum Framework (NCF) in 2005. NCF 2005 seeks to provide a broad framework within which teachers and schools can choose and plan experiences that they think children should have.

The major recommendations of NCF-2005 in addressing elementary education may be summarised as:

- Reducing the curriculum load based on insights provided in ‘Learning Without Burden’.
- Ensuring quality education for all children.
- Creating an inclusive environment in the classroom for all students.
- Learner engagement for construction of knowledge and fostering of creativity and active learning through the experiential mode.
- Local knowledge and children’s experiences are essential components of text books and pedagogic practices.
- The school years are a period of rapid development, with changes and shifts in children’s capabilities, attitudes and interests that have implications for choosing and organising the content and process of knowledge.
- Language skills — speech and listening, reading and writing — cut across school subjects and disciplines. Their foundational role in childrens’ construction of knowledge right from elementary classes through senior secondary classes needs to be recognised. A renewed effort should be made to implement the three-language formula, emphasising the recognition of children’s home language(s) or mother tongue(s) as the best medium of instruction. These include tribal languages. English needs to find its place along with other Indian languages.

- Mathematics: The teaching of Mathematics should enhance children's ability to think and reason, to visualise and handle abstractions, to formulate and solve problems. Access to quality Mathematics education is the right of every child.
- Science: Science teaching should engage the learners in acquiring methods and processes that will nurture their curiosity and creativity, particularly in relation to the environment. Awareness of environmental concerns must permeate the entire school curriculum.
- Social Sciences: Social Science content needs to focus on conceptual understanding rather than lining up facts to be memorised for examination, and should equip children with the ability to think independently and reflect critically on social issues.
- 'Peace-oriented' values should be promoted in all subjects throughout the school years with the help of relevant activities. Health and Physical education are necessary for the overall development of learners. Environmental education may be best pursued by infusing the issues and concerns of the environment into the teaching of different disciplines at all levels while ensuring that adequate time is earmarked for pertinent activities.
- A school culture that nurtures children's identities as 'learners' enhances the potential and interests of each child. Specific activities ensuring participation of all children — abled and disabled — are essential conditions for learning by all.
- Participation of community members in sharing knowledge and experience in a subject area helps in forging a partnership between school and community.
- Reconceptualisation of learning resources in terms of textbooks, supplementary books, workbooks, teachers' handbooks, etc. based on fresh thinking and new perspectives, multimedia and ICT as sources for two-way interaction rather than one-way reception.
- It is desirable to evolve a common school system to ensure comparable quality in different regions of the country and also to ensure that when children of different backgrounds study together, it improves the overall quality of learning and enriches the school ethos.

- Reducing stress and enhancing success in examinations necessitate a shift away from content-based testing to problem solving skills and understanding.

Five Year Plans and Elementary Education

The Tenth Plan laid emphasis on Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) guided by (i) Universal Access; (ii) Universal Enrolment; (iii) Universal Retention; (iv) Universal Achievement and (v) Equity.

The Eleventh Plan places the highest priority on education as a central instrument for achieving rapid and inclusive growth – It focuses on the following areas:

XI Plan 2007-2012

- Universal enrolment of 6–14 age group children including the hard to reach segment.
- All gender, social, and regional gaps in enrolments to be eliminated by 2011–12.
- One year pre-school education (PSE) for children entering primary school.
- Dropout at primary level to be eliminated and the dropout rate at the elementary level to be reduced from over 50 percent to 20 percent by 2011–12. Universalised Mid-day-Meal Scheme (MDMS) at elementary level by 2008–09.
- Significant improvement in learning conditions with emphasis on learning basic skills, verbal and quantitative.
- All EGS centres to be converted into regular primary schools.
- Restructure SSA with a clear goal of providing a quality of education.
- Ensure basic learning conditions in all schools and acquisition of basic skills of literacy and numeracy in early primary grades to lay a strong foundation for higher classes.
- Give special focus on Mathematics, Science, and English (core) where students tend to be weak and universally introduce English in Class III onwards.
- Implement a Common Syllabi, Curriculum, and Pedagogy and carry out the consequent textbook revisions.

- Support more quality-related activities and improve interactive classroom transaction.
- Achieve 100 percent training for teachers including para-teachers. Revise PTR to 30:1 from 40:1.
- Recruit additional teachers to deal with single teacher schools and multigrade teaching with mandatory two-third new teachers to be female for primary classes.
- National Eligibility Test (NET)/State Eligibility Test (SET) for teacher recruitment by NCERT/State.
- ‘Improved Quality’ to be defined in operational terms through clearly identified outcome indicators, viz. learning levels of students, teacher competence, classroom processes, teaching learning materials, etc.
- The National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 and the syllabi prepared by NCERT to be the guiding documents for States for revising their curricula syllabi with SCERTs playing a more active role in ensuring common standard.
- Top priority in pre-primary schooling to habitations of marginalised sections.
- Special attention to districts with high SCs, STs, and minority population.
- Innovative funds for Special Focus Districts (SFDs) to be doubled.
- Focus on improving the learning levels of SC, ST, minority children through remedial coaching in schools and also in habitations through educated youth of Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan (NYKS), NSS, Self Help Groups (SHGs), and local Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs).
- Special schools for slum children in 35 cities with million plus population.
- Special intervention for migrating children, deprived children in urban slum areas, single parent’s children, physically challenged children, and working children.
- Creation of capacity within the school for dealing with students lagging in studies.

The XIth Plan also recommended that there is a need for setting up a new Education Commission for deliberating on the emerging perspectives on education in the changing global context.

Commissions and Policies on Education: A Critique

We have discussed how the Commissions and Policies on education, particularly school education, have focused on equality and quality as twin objectives in school education. Education has been the central focus for establishing an egalitarian society and also for national development. However, the results on the ground have not matched with the expectations. In this Section, we will analyse that the problems persist despite good intentions.

Elementary Education: A Neglected Sector

After independence, the Nehruvian vision of “growth with equity and social justice” guided planned development in the country, elementary education however remained a neglected aspect of planned development. As Naik (1965) puts it, there was no perspective plan to guide the development of education in terms of Constitutional philosophy. In terms of investment, elementary education received a substantial share of the educational budget in the First Plan but much less than was necessary to fulfill the Constitutional promise in subsequent plans.

The Education Commission (1964-66) provided the much needed attention to elementary education by recommending massive expansion of free lower and upper primary schools and secondly the establishment of a Common School System that sought to bring all existing (government, government aided and private) schools within the ambit of a common system. This marked a major policy shift towards equalising the system which offered substandard education to the majority. The Policy statement in 1968, which followed the recommendations of the commission for transforming the vision into reality was “innocuous, non-specific and non-committal” with no clear direction towards the attainment of egalitarianism (Naik, 1982).

Egalitarianism, as a concept suffered a blow as it was replaced by a free system of elementary schooling marked by expansionism in vast tracts of unserved rural and urban areas. Limited and declining budgetary allocations by the Central Government and inequalities in educational funding failed to make primary education truly free (Tilak, 1990 and 1996).

Continuing Challenges in School Education

1. Enrolments have increased because of the expansion of schooling. There is a greater participation of underprivileged groups, but issues of regular attendance, retention and satisfactory completion of primary schooling continue to persist.
2. The lack of public provision in schools continues to affect the school system, lack of teachers, teaching- learning conditions and learning achievements that are unsatisfactory are problems that need attention.
3. Growth of unaided private, English medium, primary schools, especially in the rural areas is emerging as an alternative option for parents who aspire for education to enter urban job market for their children. Increasingly, the functional government schools are being preferred by only those who are at lowest rung of social and economic ladder.
4. Classrooms as sites of dominance and discrimination in schools and in government or private sector operate on exclusionist, undemocratic, and dominating principles. Caste, religion, class, language and gender determine the basis of relationship between the school, teacher and the learner. The emotional, cognitive and pedagogic effects of the interplay of these factors are clearly visible on the children who are fearful and unwelcomed in school.

The Commissions and Policies related to education have from time to time sought guidance from the Constitutional vision of India as a secular, egalitarian and pluralistic society, founded on the values of social justice and equality. Education has derived its content and meaning from the Constitution and the system has tried to democratise opportunities to move in the direction of education for all. Accomplishments in school education, since Independence have been many – like 82 percent habitations have a primary school within a radius of one kilometer, nearly 55 lakh teachers spread over 10 lakh schools educates about 2,025 lakh children. There are, however, several issues that are of concern, like “drop-out” at the elementary stage, 75 percent of our schools in rural areas being multi-grade and learning being a burden for the children. Quality in education remains the most critical aspect.

Education Commissions and Policies in education have tried to address these issues, with partial success but lack of clear-cut focus on elementary education,

paucity of funds and a weak political commitment to steer the project have stood in the way of achieving desired results. As the political and economic landscape changes, private players have entered the fray and the State has further curtailed its role. The silver lining, however, is the RTE Act (2009) and the NCF (2005) which are committed to making learning a joyful experience for each and every child in school.



Chapter IV
Socio-Economic
Conditions in Slums



Chapter IV

Socio-Economic Conditions in Slums

Salient Characteristics of Sampled Household

The household profile tries to encapsulate the socio-economic background of the children. One of the essential components of this research work is the household interview schedule. The reason behind this is that, it is the socio-economic conditions of the household that play a crucial role in making educational decision. The children cannot make adequate utilisation of the available educational facilities until and unless their parents send them to schools. Sometimes, due to poor socio-economic status the parents are forced to withdraw their children from the schools which severely affect the overall development of the children. The educational decisions of the parents are controlled by their household circumstances. The poor, socially excluded, deprived and vulnerable segments of the society in India cannot take educational decisions in isolation. The educational decision has to be viewed from various dimensions, especially social and economic dimensions. Hence, it could be said that not only household factors but also school factors play an important role in the educational attainment and learning achievement level of the children. Therefore, in this chapter an attempt has been made to look into the close relationship between the household factors and school factors.

The study has been conducted in four slums selected purposively from different parts of Lucknow. The religion, caste and occupational characteristics do differentiate various slums and also clusters within the slums. All these factors have significant influence on the choice of schools and the parents approach to the education of their children. Not all children from the slums go to the government schools. Many children from the slums are also attending private schools and their parents have a more open attitude and feel that government schools do not provide the right type of education. In view of these factors and lack of basic information on slums characteristics, it was decided to select a purposive sample.

Socio-economic and occupation related information was collected from the households of the children of Vth Grade, as they are many a times not able to give

details about the occupation, educational status and monthly income of their parents and other siblings. The findings relating to socio-economic details are discussed below.

There are several pull factors which are responsible for the large scale migration of the people towards the cities such as better employment opportunities, better availability of basic services like health, education, aspirations for living a better life, etc. All these factors forced people to migrate towards the cities. However, the cities fail to cope up with this large scale rural-to-urban migration. As a result, these migrant people are forced to live in notified and non-notified slums which severely lack basic civic amenities. In the notified slums, majority of the families have been living there for more than 20 years, whereas most of the families in the non-notified slums were residing there for the period of 5-10 years. Hence, from this data it could be concluded that the non-notified slums seem to be the newly emerged slums which are still expanding and severely lack civic amenities. In the notified slums majority of the families have their own ration card, however regular availability of ration is among one of the problems. They have their in the voters list which means that they have achieved the permanent residential status. However, here if we talk about the non-notified slums, it is a squatter settlement of new migrants which usually do not enjoy the above mentioned privileges.

Social Conditions

The analysis of the collected data revealed that the social conditions were worst in the non-notified slums in comparison to the notified slums. In the social condition index, Vikas nagar slum was at the lowest rank. There are various factors which attributed towards the lower social index such as large size of the family, large proportion of children involved in household chores or in child labour, poor retention rate and higher per cent of drop-out. In the Vikas nagar slum it was found that most of the selected household did not send their wards to the schools. In the sampled household of this slum the educational status of the parents was very low and. In most of the sampled households in this slum the parents were not aware about the importance of education and those who were even aware could not send their wards to the schools due to poor socio-economic status. In the Vikas nagar slum the children were seen as the assets for the households. In this slum, the parents were of the view that

employing children in various odd jobs would increase the income of the household. Therefore, the population growth in slums was also quite high which consequently resulted in large size of the families, children under 14 years of age involved in work for increasing the income of the family, higher rate of dependency.

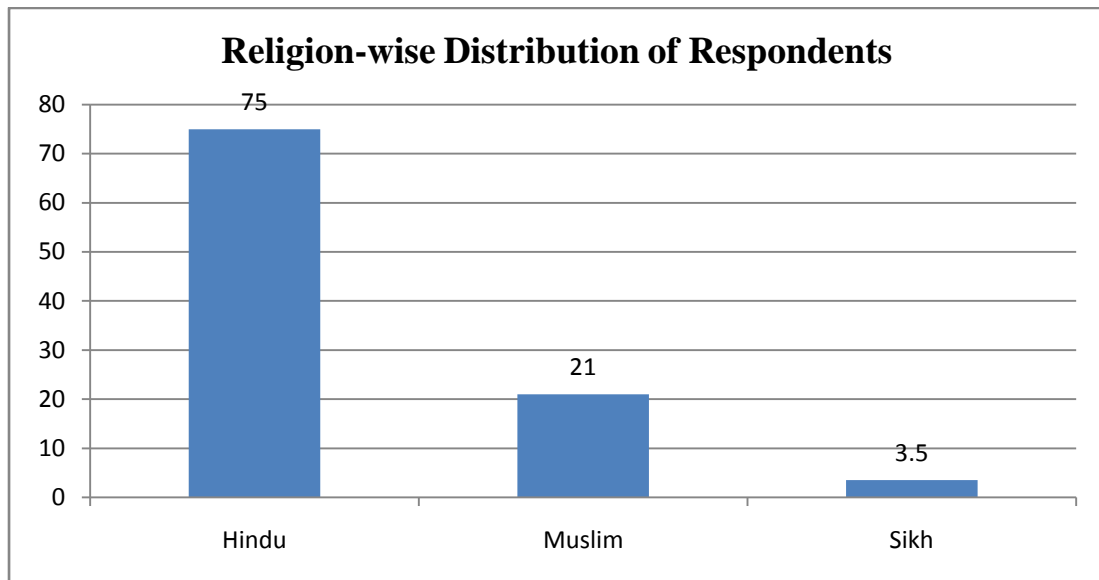
The social conditions in Rajajipuram slum was slightly better than Vikas nagar slum. However, in this slum also the percentage of literate slum dwellers was quite low. The people who are illiterate are usually not aware of their rights and they remain trapped in vicious cycle of poverty. Often they get involved into various social evils which further add to their misery and make it difficult for them to even fulfil their daily needs. As a result, they do not get equal playing field and it also limits them from various available opportunities. Hence, they constitute a large proportion of vulnerable section of the society. The slum dwellers of Vikas nagar slum as well as Rajajipuram slum have poor social conditions largely because of large family size, low income of the family, higher rate of drop-out and as result high percentage of child labour. The social condition index of notified slums is comparatively better than the non-notified slums. The index of social condition is higher in Chinhat Bazaar slum and Sikandernagar slum as compared to the previous two slums. The social condition index of Sikandernagar is medium due to large number of family members in single household, lower rate of literacy and the high incidence rate of child labour. The social condition index is higher than the other three slums, but the problem of the drop-out still persisted in this slum also.

Family Size

The analysis of the collected data showed that the average size of the families in slums was 5.8 persons. This suggested that most of the households have 6 to 8 members in their family. The large family size in the slums depicted that the ratio of dependency is higher and this makes it difficult for the parents to send their wards to schools and also they are not able to pay adequate attention to their children.

Religion-wise Distribution of Respondents

Religion is one of the important social indicators. The data revealed that 75 per cent of the respondents were Hindu, 21 per cent were Muslims, 2 per cent were Sikhs.

Figure 4.1: Religion-wise Distribution of Respondents

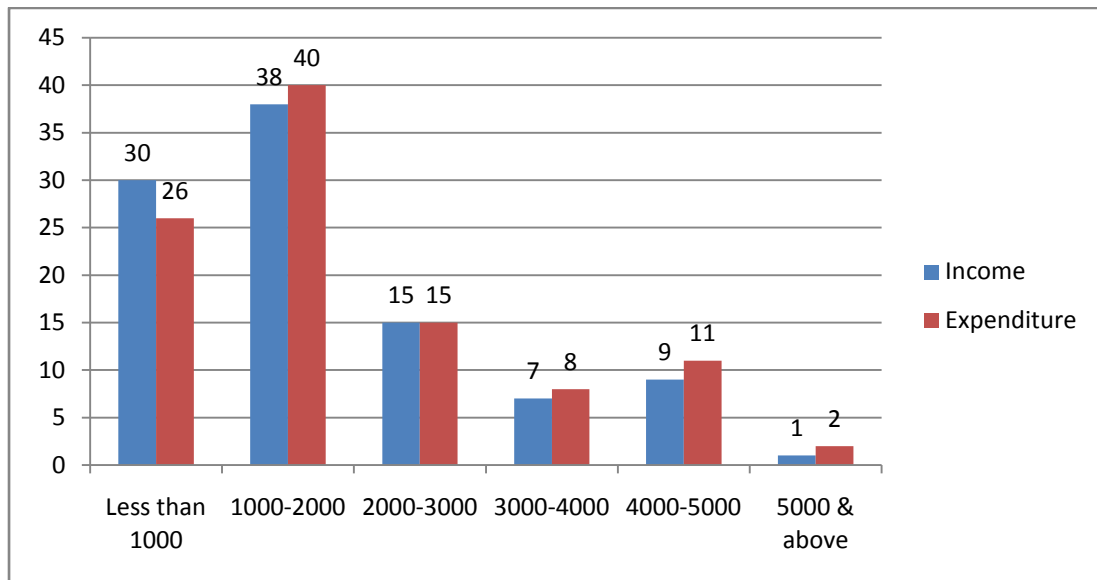
Source: Fieldwork

Economic Conditions

The collected data revealed that all the slums have poor economic status. The percentage of unemployment or irregular employment is high in all the slums. The data showed that nearly 83 per cent of people in Vikas nagar slum, almost 70 per cent people in Rajajipuram slum and 69 per cent people in Sikandernagar slum and 54 per cent people in Chinhat bazaar slum were having irregular source of income. From this, it could be depicted that the poor educational status and the location of the employment directly has an influence on the educational status. Irregular source of income not only causes financial problems and insecurity, but it also lead unemployed people towards crime and other vices.

Household Income

Analysis of the income is very important, especially for the economically backward people as large amount of their income is spent on meeting the basic requirements. The income level of the household is calculated by clubbing the total income of all members of the family. Around 69 per cent households had one family member working; around 24 per cent had 2 members working and around 5 per cent had more than 2 family members working.

Figure 4.2: Income and Expenditure of the Sampled Household

Source: Fieldwork

The analysis of the collected data on income revealed that households in slums have every month the average household income of the family is around Rs.2200. Now, if we look into the matter of the increasing prices of essential commodities and relate it with the size of the family which is usually between 6 to 8 members, then it could be asserted that the with such low level of income it become difficult for the parents to send their children for education to schools. Therefore, majority of the households in slums send their children to government schools because fee in government schools is almost negligible. They have to depend on the government schools for the education of their children. Even then, around 27 per cent households are spending more than Rs 200 per month on liquor and alcohol.

Now if we look into the occupation of the fathers, almost 55 per cent of them are working as skilled or unskilled labourers. As a result, their income is usually low. When the comparisons were made between the income of the father, the children who were going to the government school and the children going to private, it was revealed that majority of the households of the latter category had better monthly income and their fathers were involved in regular work and more organised jobs.

The low income of the household is closely associated with the other factors also. Low income means poor housing facilities, lack of availability of basic civic services, poor nutritional status, poor access to schools or no education at all, poor

health facilities or no medical care, etc. The lowest income was of the slum dwellers living in Vikas nagar slum. The households in the slums of Rajajipuram and Sikandernagar have medium income. Whereas, the households in Chinhat Bazaar slum have high income as compared to the other three slums. Households in the slums of Vikas nagar and Rajajipuram were spending more than 75 per cent of their income on the food items. Whereas the expenditure of the households in Chinhat Bazaar slum and Sikandernager slum on the food items was medium and low respectively.

From the findings it could be stated that due to the poor socio-economic conditions of the households in the slums, whatever is earned by the slum dwellers is usually spent to fulfil their daily needs. The nature of the urban labour market has put an impact on the urban poor or slum dwellers in two ways:

- i) Firstly, the slum dwellers have to face discrimination due to irregularity of their jobs as well as due to unorganized nature of labour market in the urban areas.
- ii) Secondly, the slum dwellers are harassed also because of irregular provisions of wages and low payment for their work.

Therefore, it could be asserted that labour market in the urban areas particularly the unorganized sector, has deteriorated the standard of living of the already poor slum dwellers and they are caught in the vicious cycle of poverty.

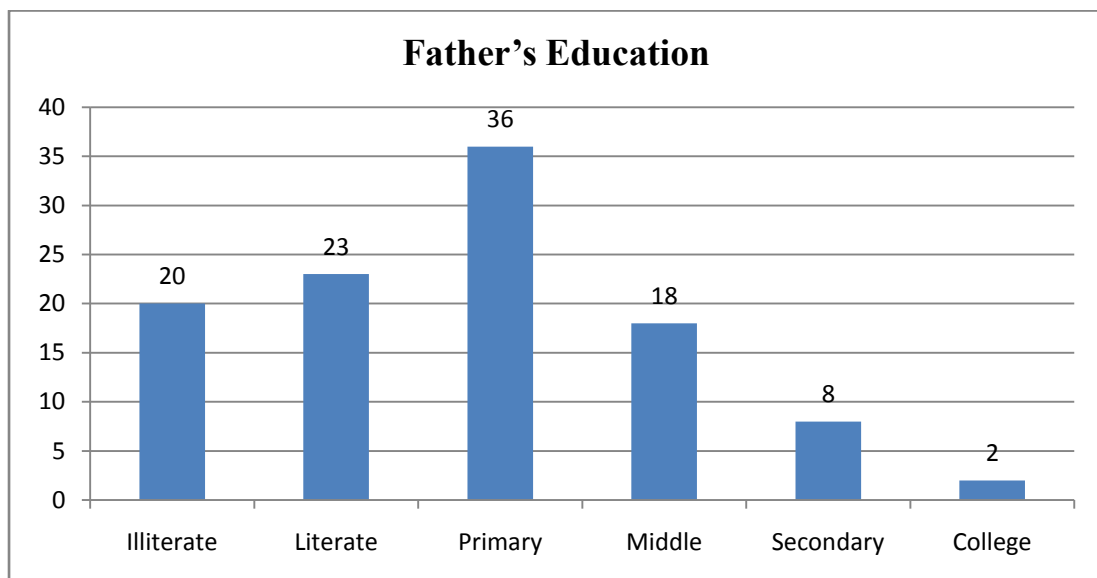
Educational Attainment of Parents

After the analysis of the collected data it was revealed that the educational status of majority of the respondents in the notified slums was not very encouraging and most of them were educated only up to V grade and in the non-notified slums the situation is even worse. In non-notified slums most of the parents were illiterate and this has a direct impact on the drop-out rate of the children. Higher rate of unemployment is also one of the most common reasons for the poor education status among slum dwellers. The people from rural areas migrate to cities usually to gain economic stability, but their aspirations usually remained unfulfilled.

For the study when the analysis of the employment pattern of the slum dwellers was done it was revealed that most of the slum dwellers both in the notified and non-notified slums were working as daily wage labourers. Slum dwellers were

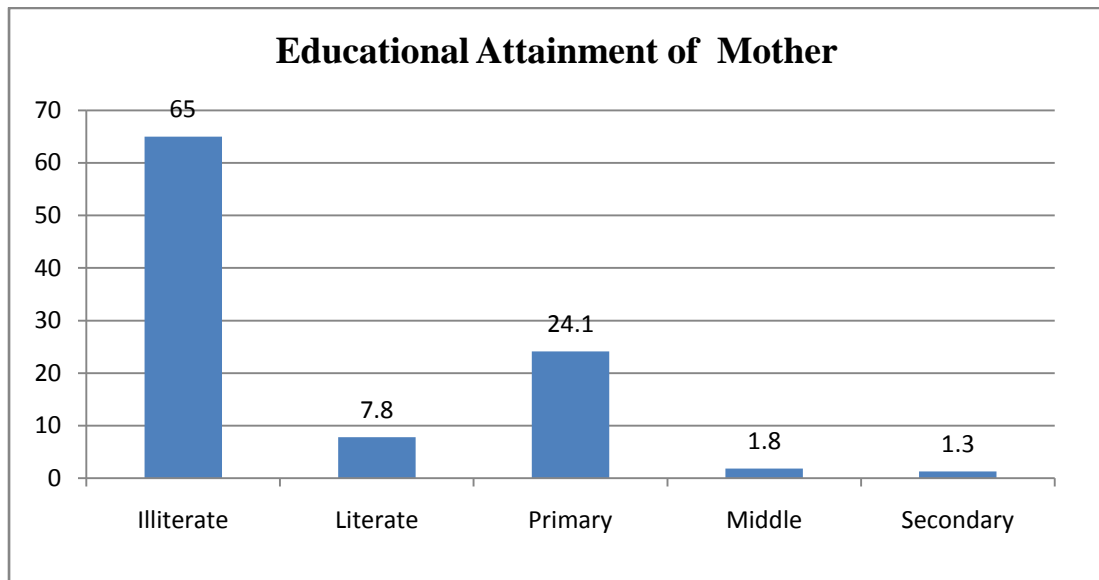
also working as rickshaw pullers, small-scale industry workers, vendors and construction workers, etc. Some of these slum dwellers were also involved in street vending, hawking, owing petty shops, etc. Few of the male slum dwellers were also engaged in services. Both in the notified and non-notified slums, a large number of women were working as domestic helpers. This could be attributed as great work opportunity for the women in the nearby localities. The lower level of education in the slums could be attributed to several factors such as lack of access to quality schools or schools located at distance from slums, social insecurity, poor socio-economic status, higher illiteracy among parents and cultural lag.

Figure 4.3: Father's Education



Source: Fieldwork

The educational level of the parents as well as the other elder siblings also has an impact on the achievement level of the children. In this study almost 59 per cent of the fathers were literate and hence, they could help their children in the studies. However, despite of this fact the achievement level of the sampled children is low. Most of the children revealed that their fathers come back home tired after long working hours and there are usually more than one school going children. Therefore, the fathers could hardly help the children.

Figure 4.4: Mother's Educational Attainment

Source: Fieldwork

From the above data it could be clearly seen that the women in slums are highly educationally backward. Almost 73 per cent of the mothers were either illiterate or literate only. Therefore, they could not provide any assistance to their children in their studies. This is also easily reflected on the achievement levels of their children. Thus, the schools near the sampled slums have to take additional responsibility in order to improve the learning achievement of the slum children. However, in reality these schools are not functioning because of low motivational teacher and no accountability.

Aspirations about the Achievement Level of the Children

The available data clearly depicts that the parents in slums are in general aware about the importance of education for their children. The parents in slums desired that their children should break this vicious cycle of poverty and they do not remain educationally backward, instead they should obtain higher degrees of education. However, the environment of home as well as the environment of schools is such the children are under lot of pressure which directly hampers their study. There are several other constraints which results in high drop-out rate before completing the primary or upper primary level of education. Only few of them could continue their study and achieve some level of competency.

Table 4 .1 Aspirations about the Achievement of Children

Level	Percentage of the Total
Primary	1.3
Middle	8.3
Secondary	25.8
Senior Secondary	30.9
Up to College	20.7
Professional Course	12.7
Not Interested in Studies	0.3

Source: Fieldwork

Reasons Responsible for the Disinterest of Children in Studies

From the afore-mentioned data it could be clearly seen that the parents in the sampled slums were interested that their children should study up to the higher levels. But the children were not keen in continuing the studies due to sacral reasons. Some of the children were interested in getting engaged in some job which could provide them some money. While a large number of them could not understand whatever was taught to them in the schools. A few of them reported that teachers have rude behaviour towards, whereas others said that no study takes place in the schools. Many children could not afford the educational expenditures, as a result they drop-out from the schools. Some of them were of the opinion that the schools are far away from their home and they could not reach to schools on time. Hence, it can be clearly seen that the various programmes and provisions such as free and compulsory education, fee exemption, free uniform, free supply of textbooks, etc. could not be properly implemented and as a result the poor children could not benefit.

Household and Environmental Conditions

Shelter for a human being is not mere protection for his limbs and life. It is in his home where he has opportunity to grow physically, mentally, intellectually and spiritually. Around 65 per cent of the sampled population have only one room and 35

per cent two rooms only. Rooms are dingy, small and without proper ventilation. Only a few have the toilet facility at home, only around 12 per cent people have individual tap water supply, rest of them are dependent on the community tap and tanker water. Around 50 per cent spend one hour daily and around 20 per cent two hours daily to collect water. When asked further, it was found that 25 per cent students were given the major responsibility of collecting water. Girls are supposed to help in the domestic work daily. Unless the developmental programmes are initiated in slums, it would be very difficult for these children to come up to the expected level of learning.

On the basis of the collected data it can be concluded that the household environmental conditions are better in then notified slums in comparison to the non-notified slums. Among non-notified slums Vikas nagar slum ranks the lowest and it was followed by the Rajajipuram slum. The housing and environmental conditions were comparatively better in the notified slums i.e. Chinhat bazaar slum and Sikandernagar slum. Majority of the houses in Vikas nagar slum and Rajajipuram slum were either katcha houses or semi-concrete houses. A semi-concrete house is that structure which either had either roof or walls made up of brick and cement, but not both of them. Majority of the houses in the Vikas nagar slum and Rajajipuram slum were over- crowded and poorly built. Majority of the houses in non-notified slums were one-roomed and there was severe lack of proper ventilation. Hence, these slums are breeding ground for several infections.

Only 20 per cent of the households in Chinhat bazaar slum, 9 per cent households in Sikandernagar slum and 5 per cent households in Rajajipuram slum had better housing conditions. Access to safe drinking water is one of the most essential pre-requisite for the good health, hygiene and sanitation. Slums are usually characterised by lack of access to regular water supply and other basic civic amenities. As a result, slum dwellers have to live in poor housing conditions. The analysis of the collected data revealed that only 15 per cent households in Chinhat bazaar slum, 9 per cent households in Sikandernagar slum and only 7 per cent households in Rajajipuram slum had regular access to the safe drinking and potable water.

In the non-notified slums majority of the households do not have individual taps in their home, as a result they have to draw water from the government taps hand-pumps. The supply of water from these government taps is also not regular and the quality of water is also a matter of concern. Often, women have to stand in long queues for collecting water, which not only results in loss of time but it also have negative impact on their health. Women and particularly female children of the household often spend a large part of time in drawing water from these governmental water connections. No doubt, this has the negative impact on the education of the girl child. Sometimes, it works as a factor for drop-out of the girl child from the schools. It also leads to the reduction of probability of women participating in some other social and economic activities. Apart from this, the slum dwellers are also not satisfied with the quality of water that they are getting from governmental water connections.

Under the government schemes the hand pumps have been installed in some of the households, but these hand pumps have not been installed properly and not been deep enough. As a result, the water which is pumped out is often not clean and sometimes there is also mud in the water. One of the problems in households of slums is that they do not have any proper facility for storing water. In most of the households the water is usually kept in open containers or buckets for several days. During the summer season, when there is scarcity of water, it becomes a matter of concern. This scarcity of clean and quality water result in frequent incidence of diseases and infections such as cholera, diarrhoea, gastro-intestinal infection, typhoid, respiratory tract infection, etc.

Majority of the households in the non-notified slums did not have any type of toilet facility and thus, they defecate in open area. Very low percentage of the households in the non-notified slums had pit toilets. While the rest of the households in the non-notified slums used public toilets on the basis of the daily payment. Hence, open defecation is one of the most serious problems in the non-notified slums. This problem of open defecation is not only a serious issue for slums dwellers but it is a threat to the public health also. Of the total sampled households in the slums, 28 per cent households in Chinhat bazaar slum, 23 per cent in Sikandernagar slum, 17 per cent in Rajajipuram and 5 per cent in Vikas nagar slums were disposing household solid wastes into bins.

Table 4.2: Household Environmental Conditions

Slum	Household Environmental Conditions			
	Less than Two Rooms	Individual Tap Water	Toilet facility at Home	Solid Waste Bins
Chinhat Bazaar	69%	15%	12%	28%
Sikandernagar	75%	9%	10 %	23%
Rajajipuram	81%	7%	8%	17%
Vikas Nagar	85%	4%	2%	5%

Source: Fieldwork

Health Conditions

In the sampled households of the selected slums, a considerable variation was evident in the health conditions. In comparison to the notified slums, the health condition in the non-notified slums was quite low. Among the low income groups, the availability and access to the quality health care facilities is a matter of concern. For improvement in the public health it is essential to enhance the utilization of health care facilities provided by the health care givers. results in improvement of public health. In the non-notified slums the status of antenatal care (ANC) was found to be low. Nearly 14 per cent of women in Chinhat Bazaar slum, 11 per cent of women in Sikandernagar slum, 3 per cent women in Rajajipuram slum and only 2 per cent women in Vikas nagar slum visited hospitals for pregnancy related health problems.

In most of the sampled households, the health seeking behaviour was seemed to be quite low. Immunization of children was found to be low in Vikas nagar slum and Rajajipuram slum where only 5 per cent and 8 per cent children receive full immunization. Chinhat Bazaar slum and Sikandernagar slum enjoy high level of immunization providing care to 22 per cent and 17 per cent children respectively. Comparative analysis showed that the prevalence of infectious diseases was found to be higher in the non-notified slums as compared to the notified slums.

In the study area, the lack of access to safe drinking water and basic civic amenities such as sanitary facility has an adverse impact on the health of the slum dwellers. On the basis of collected data it can be revealed that the housing conditions

in the sampled slums were in very poor condition such as lesser number of rooms as well as the small size of the rooms, multipurpose use of the available space i.e. people live, cook and sleep as well as keep animals at the same place. Their houses are characterized by dirt, filth with garbage pilfered everywhere. The surroundings were dirty, filthy and slushy. Conditions appeared to be worst in terms of access to certain basic amenities such as toilet facilities, sewerage facilities and garbage disposal. There is lack of drainage, toilet and drinking water facilities. Water logging of sullage around the houses was observed. Heaps of uncollected garbage were found lying open around the house. The unhygienic conditions attract vectors-mosquitoes, flies, cockroaches, rats, fleas, bugs, ticks, mites, etc. Bacteria thrive in the warm moist conditions. Rotting garbage spreads malaria, amoebiasis, dysentery, diarrhoea, etc. Contaminated water contains viruses which cause jaundice, typhoid, etc.

Stagnant sewage is a breeding ground for mosquitoes which causes malaria. A simple procedure of washing hands before eating and after toilets is not in habit. Due to these unhygienic environmental conditions, the slum dwellers are at a constant risk of health hazards and they suffer from a variety of diseases like malaria, typhoid, dysentery, skin problems, diarrhoea, pneumonia, jaundice, etc.

Composite Slum Conditions

Slum Condition Index (Slum CI) was computed to rank slums with reference to its four components of household environmental condition index (HECI), social conditions (SCI), economic conditions (ECI) and health condition index (HCI) to assess the overall performance of slums (Table 5). Results indicate that non-notified slums have poor conditions as compared to notified slums. Among non-notified slums Vikas nagar slum has the lowest slum condition index. The slum dwellers of this slum have poor social condition, economic conditions and health care utilization. In Rajajipuram slum conditions are poor mainly because of poor household environmental conditions. Chinhat Bazaar slum among notified slums ranks first in slum condition index. It enjoys the first rank in all the four components of Slum CI. Sikandernagar slum ranks second in slum condition index but it is poor in household environmental condition index.

To access the relationship between Slum condition index and its four components, i.e., household environmental condition, social conditions, economic

conditions and health conditions, Karl Pearson's two tailed correlation has been derived. The result shows that Slum condition index and its components are positively and significantly correlated (A bivariate regression was run between Slum CI and its causal factors to examine the most influencing component causing variation in Slum CI. When Slum CI was regressed upon the household environmental condition index, the social conditions, the economic conditions and health condition index came out to be positive and significant with R² being 0.825, 0.966, 0.995 and 0.992 respectively. A close perusal of Table 6 shows that in three variables viz. social conditions, economic conditions and health conditions the value of beta coefficient was significant at 99%. The value of R² was the highest in case of bivariate regression analysis between slum condition index and economic condition index. Therefore, it could be inferred that the economic conditions has a major impact on slum condition index among all the causal variables as 99.5 per cent of variation in slum conditions was explained by variation in the level of economic conditions. The influence of household environmental conditions is least on slum conditions as the value of R² is minimum and hence 82.5 per cent variations in slum conditions was explained by variation of household environmental conditions. Thus it can be safely concluded that poverty is the main cause of poor slum conditions and social conditions, health conditions and household environmental conditions are the outcome factors of poor economic conditions in the sampled slums.

The priority issues concerning living conditions and health status in notified and non-notified slums of a fast growing city has been analysed. Slum condition index as a composite index of its four components of HECEI, SCI, ECI and HCI has proved to be a powerful tool for identifying priorities required for the development of healthy and smart city. The results demonstrated that slums are the outcomes of pull of economic prosperity and better employment opportunities in the Lucknow city together with push of social ostracism. Poverty created slums and slums breded hopelessness. Socio-economic profile as revealed in the study is appallingly low. Slum condition index based analysis provided insights into relative status of slums and priorities to be given in each component. Slum condition index identified slums which require immediate attention for improvement in their respective socio-economic and health conditions. Non-notified slums were found to have poor slum conditions and thus call for timely policy interventions. Social condition, economic

conditions and health condition should be accorded higher priority over household environmental conditions in Vikas nagar slum. In Sikandernagar slum households' environmental conditions should be accorded higher priority over social, economic and health conditions. The study has also identified priorities for the slums which have better slum conditions. For instance, in Rajajipuramn slum, social, economic and health conditions and in Chinhat Bazaar slum households environmental conditions should be given higher priority. Thus slum condition index based approach can be utilized for assessing welfare programmes and their relative status in slums, and providing holistic framework for healthy city.

Therefore, without going into the detailed account of the socio-economic parameters, it can be concluded that the slum households were economically deprived compared to other areas. Significantly higher number of subjects from such households also reported that they could not afford adequate quantity or proper quality of regular hygienic and food. They were also found to consume basic needs and nutritional food less frequently than the residents of the city. Lower consumption of proteins in this population, might be a proxy indicator of very acute economic stress. The lower consumption of the other three items is due to their higher price in the local market. Hence it was found to be associated with food insecurity. Therefore, without going into the detailed account of the socio-economic parameters, it can be concluded that the slum households were economically deprived compared to other areas. Significantly higher number of subjects from such households also reported that they could not afford adequate quantity or proper quality of regular hygienic and food. They were also found to consume basic needs and nutritional food less frequently than the residents of the city. Lower consumption of proteins in this population, might be a proxy indicator of very acute economic stress. The lower consumption of the other requirements is due to their higher price in the local market. Hence it was found to be associated with food insecurity. It is worthwhile to mention that the problems which repeatedly occurring in the case of vulnerable, poor, and disadvantaged strata, especially the youths of slum is illiteracy and unemployment.



Chapter V
Educational
Opportunities, Access
and Equity



Chapter V

Educational Opportunities, Access and Equity

Student profile

Student profile tried to capture the responses up to Grade V children on the functioning of the teachers. It also helped to ascertain the academic support of the family to the children. Data were gathered from 200 households of the children studying on variables, like the time taken to reach the school, help provided by the family in the education of the child, expenditure on tuition, regularity of teachers in coming to the classrooms, checking of the homework, availability of books and other instructional materials. The distribution of the learners show that 60.7 per cent were boys and 39.3 per cent were girls, 26 per cent belonged to General category, 23 per cent to OBC, 25 per cent to Minority, 25 per cent to SC and 1 per cent to ST.

Table 5.1: Distribution of the Learners

Boys	Girls	General	OBC	Minority	SC	ST
60.7%	39.3%	26.3%	23%	25%	25%	1%

Source: Fieldwork

Distance of the School

As far as the access to school in the neighbourhood is concerned, it was found that majority (77 per cent) of the children walked to reach the school. Around 18 per cent used local bus and other means of transport such as auto rickshaws or private scooter (5 per cent) to reach the school and had to spend more than 30 minutes to reach the school.

Table 5.2: Mode of Transportation

Walk	77%
Local Bus	18%
Auto Rickshwas	5%

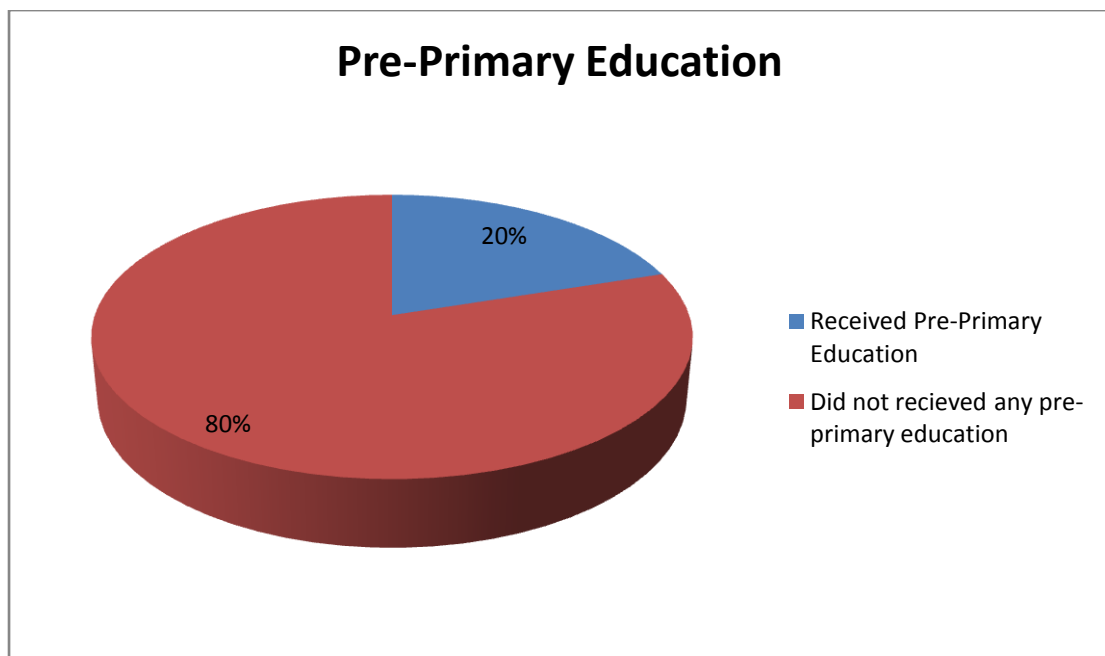
Source: Fieldwork

Pre-Primary Education

Early childhood care and pre-primary education has been greatly emphasized in National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986, for the achievement of UEE. Pre-primary

education tends to develop the sharing of fun and pleasure among the children, which facilitate in the enrolment and retention subsequently. It has become especially an urban phenomenon and private pre-primary schools are charging high fees for preparing children for admission to the formal schools. However, in the slums, due to the non-awareness and non-affordability, very few children attend such schools. Around one fifth of the total children from the selected slums had gone to the Pre-Primary centres, i.e. Anganwadis or Balwadis.

Figure 5.1: Pre-Primary Education



Source: Fieldwork

Academic Support from Parents

Considering the fact that there is high illiteracy among the slum dwellers, especially among the women, children face more difficulties in pursuing their education. Even if the children manage to attend the school, they remain deprived, as they do not receive academic help from their parents. With poor school functioning and no help from the parents impact greatly on their academic achievement. Data from the field also reveals that around only 33% children get help from their family members in their studies. Only about 5 per cent children are helped by their fathers, 23 % by their mothers and 5 percent by their elder siblings. However, many a time the parents cannot fully help them and the children have to depend upon the tutors.

Tuitions

While looking at the mushrooming growth of tuition centres in the city, there is a growing awareness among the slum dwellers that children cannot learn from the school only. They need additional support if they have to perform well in the school. They are also conscious of the fact that their children are being provided inferior quality of education. Their children attend the school where the teachers' motivation level is low and therefore the children are not taught properly. To compensate this, private tuitions are becoming very popular even among the slum dwellers.

The field level data also show that around 45 per cent children were taking private tuitions out of which around 11 per cent had the tuitions for the whole years and 31 per cent were having for a few months only. Most of them were taking tuitions in a group of more than five children. When the causes for taking tuitions were probed, it was revealed that many of them (32 per cent) intended to get more marks in the examination. Around 11 per cent attended tuition with an aim to understand the subject, while a few of them said that their teacher did not teach in the class and compelled them to take tuitions. Some of them needed help to complete the homework. Out of those children who were taking tuitions, around 47 per cent parents spent less than Rs 300 rupees per month on the tuition and around 47 per cent spent between Rs 300-400 and only 6 per cent parents reported to be spending more than Rs 500 on tuition. When we analyse the achievement results of these children, the qualification of tutors and the quality of tuition centres itself also become questionable.

Table 5.3: Money Spent on Tuition

Money Spent	Percentage
Rs 300	47%
Rs 300-400	47%
Rs 500	6%

Source: Fieldwork

Age of Learners

Child is admitted to Grade I at 6 or 6+ age and by the time he/she reaches Grade IV, he/she should be about 10 years of age. The age of learners is depicted in the table below.

Table 5.4: Age of Children Studying in Grade V

Age	No. of Children	% of the Total
9	34	17
10	78	39
11	54	27
12	18	9
13	8	4
14	8	4
Total	200	100

Source: Fieldwork

The above table depicts that around 56 per cent children were of relevant age group for Grade V. Almost 50 per cent were over-age. It is probably due to the fact that either children were admitted late for causes like visit to native place, sickness, adverse household circumstances or they repeat the same grade.

Availability of Instructional Materials

The teaching-learning process in the schools is still dependent upon the textbooks. Teachers always refer to the textbooks as these provide prescribed syllabus. The subjects taught at primary stage include language, mathematics, science, and social studies. Each subject has a separate book. Availability of textbooks is a prerequisite for the learners to learn. The findings on this aspect were encouraging, which is clear from the following table:

Table 5.5: Availability of Textbooks

Subject Book	Yes	No
Hindi	178	22
English	154	46
Science	161	49
Mathematics	175	25

Source: Fieldwork

Around 10 to 15 per cent children did not have one or the other subject book. As the survey was conducted in the month of April, a few children had still not

purchased the books. Around 85 per cent children of government schools reported that they obtained books from the school free of cost, around 13 per cent purchased them and 2 per cent borrowed from other children, while the children of the private school had to purchase the books from the school.

Provision of Mid-Day Meal and Other Incentives

To enhance the enrolment and retention, Government of India has been launching various schemes and programmes for the benefit of the underprivileged and poor. Supply of free textbooks, uniforms and mid-day meal are some of the incentives given to enhance the enrolment and retention, especially at the primary level. Around 45 per cent children of the government schools reported that they were getting regular supply of mid-day meals. Two schools in particular said that the supply was irregular, insufficient and of poor quality. Most of the children received free textbooks but very few children got uniforms from the school.

Regularity in Attending School

Jyotsana and Jha (2002) in their report have stated that there is a need to redefine Universalisation of Elementary Education. It should include universal enrolment, regular attendance and sustained participation. Regular attendance keeps the child disciplined, well versed with the curriculum and continuity in studies. Among the children of slum areas, a particular phenomenon is noticed that they remain absent for a long time when their family goes to their native home. Many a time they go away without informing the school. When they return, either their name is struck off or they lose track of the school syllabus. When a child attends school after a long absence, he/she would have been out of touch and also would have missed the studies at school. This loss cannot be compensated because in most of the cases no academic support from the family is available. At the primary level, they cannot share among themselves. Therefore, certain concepts and skills remain unclear, leading to poor comprehension and poor performance.

Table 5.6: Absenteeism of Students (in one month)

No. of Days	Percentage of Students
Less than 10 days	71%
10-20 days	26%
More than 20 days	3%

Source: Fieldwork

Around 71 per cent children had missed school for less than 10 days, around 26 per cent between 10 and 20 days and around 3.0 per cent had not come to school for more than 20 days. Children of the government schools were more irregular than the children of the private schools. The reason could be that the parents are paying for their wards in the private schools and the study does take place in these schools. Moreover, the track of the child is kept in these schools. Around 15 per cent reported that they had gone to the native village and overstayed. Absence due to sickness (around 21 per cent) is related to the poor environmental and sanitary conditions in which these children stay. Slums are devoid of basic physical facilities, leading to various diseases like diarrhoea, typhoid, measles etc. Around 15 per cent of the absentees were those who could not finish the homework or classwork of those days. Around 49 per cent children took the help of teachers and fellow students to fill the gaps for the days they were absent from the school. A few of them managed the work either with the support of the family or the tutor and some of them did not bother to do the work.

Classroom Processes and Learning Achievement

Learners' achievement greatly depends on the motivation, regularity and interaction of the teachers. Classroom process implies the course of action and kind of activities that take place in the classroom. School building, availability of instructional room, space to sit, teaching-learning materials and ancillary facilities like drinking water, toilet, are the essential components of the physical aspect of classroom climate. Most of the studies conducted in the field of learning achievement level of children concentrate on the school inputs and background information of learners. These studies assume that given the same inputs, the outcomes will be same. Anitha (1993) tried to investigate the classroom processes in nine different schools. After observing

each school for fifteen days, it was found that there was a wide variation in the classroom processes although the schools had comparable physical and human resources.

An attempt was made to investigate the regularity of teachers in schools, in classrooms and the method of their transactions. Around 75 per cent children reported that teachers came to the classroom regularly and daily, 2 per cent children replied that teachers were more or less regular and 2 per cent said that most of the time the teachers came late. Around 65 per cent children were of the opinion that the teachers explained the subject topic in the classroom and around 10 per cent reported that the teachers seldom explained or never explained, and around 25 per cent children, perhaps out of the fear of the teachers did not respond to this question. It is surprising that the teachers were more or less regular and explained the topics, still the achievement level was low and not up to the mark. Around 51 per cent children reported that they were able to read what the teachers wrote on the blackboard and around 9 per cent could not understand it, 33 per cent responded that they could understand partially and probably the difficulties of these children were not tackled at the right time which further multiplies and ultimately the children were not able to cope with the speed and level of the curriculum, resulting into low achievement. If a little attention is paid at this stage, the achievement level of a large proportion of the children could be improved. The curriculum needs to be made flexible and differentiated as per the background and requirement of the child.

For teaching math, it is necessary that the teacher explains the concept and demonstrates it on the blackboard. Around 29 per cent children reported that the teacher never wrote math sums on the blackboard, 33 per cent children reported that teachers did the math sums on the blackboard and 28 per cent children did not respond to this question. The field data reveals that a considerable improvement in the curriculum transaction and classroom processes is needed. It is essential for the teachers to make use of the teaching aids, like blackboard, chalk, chart etc. for enhancing the comprehension level of the children. The active participation of each and every child is a prerequisite for improving the achievement level of children. Around 69 per cent children reported that they were not able to grasp what the teacher taught in the classroom. The actual time devoted for classroom teaching has great significance for student learning rather than the scheduled learning time. The schools

have the working days and hours well prescribed. However, in practice it has been found that a considerable amount of time is not utilized due to various reasons, like the absence of teachers, teachers' involvement in census work, departmental work, etc. Therefore, the actual time for teaching remains much less than what has been prescribed.

The time is calculated in terms of the engagement of learning groups by the teachers. In a study of Kerala DPEP districts, the following estimations were made of the loss of instructional time:

- Average loss in government schools: More than one out of every three days (.385).
- Average loss in the private aided schools: Less than one out of every twenty days (.045).
- Average loss in the tribal schools: More than two out of every five days (.411).

An analysis of the reasons thereof reveals that the most common cause for large-scale loss of instructional time, i.e., in periods, sessions and days, is either the delayed start of the school or the early closure of the school or the non-availability of the teacher to the students of a particular class. Keeping the children busy in some namesake activity and unmonitored classroom where children are engaged in play than learning are the other major reasons. The data from the field reveal a considerable loss of opportunity time. Around 58 per cent children replied that in the absence of teacher, the class monitor is made the Incharge, while 22 per cent reported that two classes are often merged together. Under such circumstances instruction on planned activity is not given and there is loss of opportunity time. When further probed as to what happens in the classroom even when the teacher is present, around 64 per cent children said that the teacher asked them to write a page in Hindi regularly, 72 per cent students were of the opinion that mathematics sums were given regularly, and 84 per cent responded that they were checked regularly by the teachers themselves. However, to verify the responses, a few of the notebooks were checked. It was found that in government schools, they were duly signed in most of the cases but the mistakes were rarely pointed out.

Children of the public schools are better performer not only due to the socioeconomic condition but also because they are helped in their studies by parents, tutors and teachers. Even if the slum children manage to attend schools, they remain deprived, as they do not have conducive environment at home and most of them have illiterate mothers. Therefore, in most of the cases, they are not helped in studies at home and also their parents fail to bear additional expenditure required to purchase supplementary materials, like help books, instructional materials and good private coaching. Around 44 per cent children responded that they did not receive any assistance if they failed to understand the content matter. About 50 per cent tried to get the clarification from the teacher and rest depended upon the family members, tutors or peer group.

Nature of Homework

Due to time constraint, all the questions and problems cannot be sorted in the classroom. Thus homework is an important assignment for the children as it gives them more time to understand the topic. Around 58 per cent children mentioned that their teachers gave them homework regularly and 36 per cent preferred not to respond to this question. Around 65 per cent students mentioned that it took about half an hour to two hours to complete the homework depending upon the number of subjects and the question given on a particular day. While around 28 per cent reported that it took less than 30 minutes to complete the homework and around 7 per cent replied that they never did the homework. Around 88 per cent children mentioned that they were punished if they did not complete the homework.

Teachers Behaviour

Around 88 per cent children reported that they were afraid of the teacher for the scolding and beating. More than 60 per cent children mentioned that they were beaten up by the teacher. Scolding and beating creates an oppressive environment in the classroom and many a time the children are not able to concentrate leading to poor comprehension and disinterest in the studies.

Subjects Difficult to Comprehend

Around 72 per cent children reported that they found maths to be the most difficult subject and the achievement tests also prove it. Around 13 per cent children replied

that they found social studies to be the most difficult subject. Only 5 per cent children found Hindi /English language to be the most difficult. The curriculum planners, developers and transactors may need to develop and transact the material in a simpler and interesting way so that it could be easily understood by the children who basically depend upon the school and teachers for learning the basic concepts and competencies.

Table 5.7: Difficulties in Subject

Subject	Percentage
Mathematics	72%
Social Studies	13%
Hindi/English	5%

Source: Fieldwork

The analysis of the student profile clearly indicates that students find it difficult to understand the mathematical concepts and operations. Less than half of the students are able to afford private tuitions and more than half does not have any academic support from their families.

The household profile indicates that accessibility is still a major problem in the urban slum areas. Out of four selected slums, the government school is located within two slums only. Most of the children do not receive any academic assistance and help from their families. More than half of the children were overage, which could be due to late admission or high repetition rate. As far as the regular attendance of the children is concerned, 3 per cent remained absent for more than 20 days and 26 per cent missed the school for 10 to 20 days. It becomes an important factor for low achievement, as these children primarily rely upon school for learning. Most of the students reported that the teachers were regular, gave and checked homework regularly. These responses are hard to believe, especially when we look at the achievement level of these children. The analysis of the household characteristics of these children also reveals that their parents mostly work in unorganised sectors with irregular jobs and low income. Women of these areas are either illiterate or have low attainment of education. Having lived in the affluent city the awareness level of parents is high and therefore they mostly want their siblings to study up to secondary

and senior secondary levels. Although the aspirations are high, yet due to socio-economic constraints and the kind of schools their children are forced to patronize, children lose interest in studies. Consequently, the children either dropout without completing the primary education cycle or not able to achieve the desired competencies

SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS PROFILE

The schools in the sample were selected purposively. Only those schools which were either located within the selected slums or where the children from the selected slums studied were selected. In all 16 schools were selected. Of the 16 schools, only two government schools and one private school were located within the slums and the remaining were situated outside the slums.

Accessibility to Education Facilities

A unique feature of the government schools in Lucknow is their large size and lack of adequate dispersion. Due to constraints of space, the schools have expanded vertically rather than more schools being established viably and in a well-dispersed manner. The dispersion of schools is evident from the fact that there are hardly any schools in the slum areas, whereas the education of children living in these areas is a priority of the government. The children from these colonies have to walk down to neighbouring areas to attend schools. The survey of the slums indicated that while educational facilities provided by the government are at a distance, there are many privately managed schools running from small houses within the selected slums. The access to private schools is selective and is based on the ability of the parents to pay fee and meet other incidental expenses. The direct cost of education in private schools is definitely high as compared to the government schools. However, the same may not be true of the intangible benefits accruing from the government and private schools.

Infrastructure Constraints

The government schools were established long ago and over the years have expanded at the same site. Due to pressure on land for commercial purposes, the government is not able to establish many new schools to meet the growing demand from the unserved population groups. All the schools in the study area were established when the demand of education by the slum population was negligible. However, the present

scenario is different and all children are expected to attend schools. But where are the schools? Large schools are at locations, which are not conducive for the slum children. How do they go to school? By walking and crossing many man-made hurdles.

Some schools operate double shift to overcome the increased demand from the neighbouring areas. The double shift schools are sometimes segregated in terms of gender. Two shift schools provide education for boys in one shift and to girls in the other shift. This is not an ideal solution as far as children are concerned, since there are alternative ways available of organising double shift schools.

School Size

On an average, a school in the study sample has 24 classrooms. While two schools have 33 rooms, many others have only 8 classrooms. The private schools are small but have a separate room for each section. Many government schools have multiple sections for the same grade. Therefore, the school size is not a constraint. In fact some of the schools can be classified as overcrowded. Many of the government schools in the study area cannot accommodate more children. There have been instances of admission being refused to children, as there was hardly any sitting place.

Enrolment

The enrolment statistics do not fully reflect the real picture as the admissions were still continuing when the data collection took place. A total of 4544 students were registered in various grades of the government primary schools. The average enrolment per school was 525 children. On the contrary the enrolment in the unrecognised school was small due to the fact that very few families could bear the expenses. By the end of the year there could be 10 to 20% of dropouts due to non-payment of fees in these schools. Therefore, untrained teachers are employed by these schools as they are prepared to work on low salary.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio and Student Classroom Ratio

There are norms for the appointment of teachers and these are related to the enrolment in different sections and grades. Similarly, the class size is also fixed and is usually related to the number of sections/grades in a school. Such norms are easy to

implement in large schools as compared to smaller schools where minimum number of teachers, classrooms and other facilities is fixed. The pupil-teacher ratio and student classroom ratio were calculated for all schools. Out of 16 Government schools, eight schools had teacher-pupil ratio in the range of 30 to 40 , five schools had 40 to 50 and three schools had 70 to 80, considering the fact the admissions were still on and had to continue for another two months. As far as student-classroom ratio (SCR) is concerned, it was observed that around 50 students were sitting in a class in four schools whereas in two schools the number was as high as 70 per classroom. Such large variations have serious implications for the learning outcome as well. Teachers beyond a number would find it difficult to hold classes in an urban school. There is hardly any space to hold classes in the open in urban areas. Therefore, the constraint of space/classrooms is playing havoc with the teaching-learning outcomes. The agencies have no solution for this problem. It is very difficult for them to get space for additional schools. No one knows how to address the demand of increased population of school going children in fast expanding urban areas. In a city like Delhi, the population would continue to grow even when it is shrinking in the rural hinterlands. The expansion is largely due to immigration rather than the natural growth of the city. The unrecognised schools had low teacher-pupil ratio and that could be one of the reasons for the better performance of the children in mathematics.

School Organization and Other Characteristics

Pre-primary section was not available in all the schools. Six of the 16 schools had pre-primary section. This was in the form of nursery sections. Many schools are faced with the shortage of teachers, resulting in large class size. All the schools reported the existence of school timetable and all were reported to be following the same.

Drop-out

The drop-out rate was found to be as high as 31 per cent. The drop-out rate was particularly high among the girl child which was 41.2 per cent. Among various social categories, drop-out rate was most high among Scheduled Castes and it was followed by minorities. Some of the important reasons for high drop-out rate were poor economic conditions, low income, large family size, participation of children in household activities, participation in work for providing economic support to the family, etc.

Teachers

The sample covered 60 teachers (32 from government schools and 28 from private schools) from 16 schools under study. The selection of teachers was done according to the classes taught by them. The teachers who taught Grade I and Grade V in the previous academic year were included in the study. The highlights of the teacher characteristics are as under:

- Out of 60 teachers, 43 were females and 17 were males. Two-third of sample teachers were females in the Government schools and around 80% were females in private schools.
- Mean age of the selected teachers was 35 years (32 years for males and 37 years for females) in government schools. The mean age for private schools was much less and it was 26 years (21 for males and 27 for females). Teachers of the private schools were comparatively young in age. Although less experienced and most of them being untrained, they appeared to be more enthusiastic and innovative probably due to the insecurity of the job.
- 81 percent teachers were married in government schools and around 50 percent were married in the private school.
- Majority of the teachers 79 per cent were having qualifications as graduate and above.
- 66 percent teachers had studied mathematics up to 10th standard and another 20 percent up to senior secondary level.
- Most teachers had studied Hindi / English during their educational carrier.
- All Government school teachers had acquired professional qualifications prescribed for teaching jobs. 59 per cent teachers had acquired graduate level professional qualifications, 7 per cent post-graduate level (M.Ed.), and the remaining certificate level professional qualifications. Only 60 per cent teachers of the private schools were trained teachers. It implies that the commitment and the dedication is better indicator of the quality of teachers as compared to the training.
- 86 per cent Government teachers reported that they have availed of professional development courses/training, which was not the case for the private school teachers.

- 95 per cent teachers stated that all classes are held regularly.
- The selected teachers had taught Grades IV and I in the previous academic session and were currently teaching Grade II and Grade V classes. That means the selected teachers had taught the students whose competencies were tested. Thus the teaching styles and teacher behaviour were good approximation of what was experienced by the students under investigation.
- The selected teachers had taught Grades V and I in the previous academic session and were currently teaching Grade II and Grade V classes. That means the selected teachers had taught the students whose competencies were tested. Thus the teaching styles and teacher behaviour were good approximation of what was experienced by the students under investigation.
- Since no subject specialization is required for teaching primary grades, all the four subjects are taught by the same teacher.
- All teachers reported the availability of facilities like blackboards, chalks and dusters. All teachers stated that they use them regularly for classroom teaching- learning.
- While 80 percent Government teachers reported the availability of teacher guides, only 50 per cent reportedly were using them regularly. About 14 per cent admitted that they have never used the teacher guide for preparation and delivery of subject contents. Another 20 per cent used the teachers' guide sometimes. Teachers' guides were not available in private schools.
- 62 per cent Government school teachers and 80 per cent private school teachers stated that dictionaries were available in their schools. However, very small proportion of teachers was using dictionaries regularly (35 per cent). 54 percent teachers reported that dictionaries were seldom used and the remaining did not use the dictionaries at all in classroom teaching- learning situations.
- Only 29 per cent Government teachers reportedly were using additional teaching- learning materials during the classroom interactions and teaching- learning situations. Most of the private school teachers used them extensively.
- The use of teaching-learning equipment was less than satisfactory. The use of globe, maps, charts and flash cards was made by a small proportion of teachers. Only 15 to 30 per private school utilised them.

- The Government schools have also been supplied with mathematics and science kits. The use of these kits in the classroom is expected to facilitate teaching- learning. However, about one-third of teachers reported that despite their availability, they were not using these kits in classroom teaching-learning. The study did not seek the reasons for not using the science and mathematics kits but it was learnt that teachers were not comfortable in using the kits in the classroom. Private schools used blocks, clay etc. extensively in their classroom interaction.

Classroom Teaching-Learning Situations

- All teachers reported that they used textbooks in the classroom and read from the books and explained the contents to the students. All teachers also reported that they also asked the children to read from the textbooks in the presence of the teachers. The teachers then explained the contents. Children were also asked to study and read the contents of various topics from the books.
- All teachers reported that they regularly gave homework to children. Practically all teachers reported that the progress of the homework was monitored orally as well as by manual checking of the notebooks.
- All teachers reported that they specially focused on the weak children during the classroom teaching-learning by putting more questions to the weak students. The teachers further reinforced their efforts by teaching the students who were weak in studies.
- Practically all teachers stated that they covered environment and its importance in the lifecycle of human beings. They also stated that their efforts were to make teaching-learning interesting and interactive by adopting modern methods of teaching-learning.
- Teachers also stated that they often consulted the school head teacher or their peer group to strengthen their capabilities in teaching-learning.

Follow Up with Low Performing Students

- It is not only that almost all teachers stated that they gave high importance to teaching in the classrooms. They also said that adequate attention was given to provide feedback to the parents of the weak students.

The foregoing analysis of the data provided by the primary school teachers presents an interesting picture. If the teachers are to be believed, they do not leave any stone unturned to ensure for the children to acquire the skills and knowledge expected of them. Lack of research into the classroom teaching-learning situation for primary schools in Lucknow is a major handicap to build the model of teachers' interaction in the classroom and the outcome in the achievement tests. Only after the knowledge about teaching-learning styles is adequately generated that some meaningful insights into the teacher training requirements can be acquired.

The analysis of data revealed that the schools had poor infrastructure, overcrowded and teachers were not adequately trained to deal with the learners who reside in temporary settlement with poor physical facilities. The pupil-teacher ratio and student-classroom ratio was also one of the serious concerns. The use of teaching-learning equipment was less than satisfactory. The use of globe, maps, charts and flash cards was made by a small proportion of teachers. Nearly half of the Government school teachers and around 75 per cent teachers of private schools were teaching more than one grade during the same academic session. Thus, it could be asserted that the schools were still lagging behind in terms of educational opportunities, particularly schools located near slums.

On the basis of analysis of collected data it could be asserted that a unique feature of the government schools in Lucknow is their large size and lack of adequate dispersion. Due to constraints of space, the schools have expanded vertically rather than more schools being established viably and in a well-dispersed manner. The dispersion of schools is evident from the fact that there are hardly any schools in the slum areas, whereas the education of children living in these areas is a priority of the government. The children from these poor urban areas have to walk down to neighbouring areas to attend schools. The survey of the slums indicated that while educational facilities provided by the government are at a distance, there are many privately managed schools running from small houses or buildings within the selected slums. The access to private schools is selective and is based on the ability of the parents to pay fee and meet other incidental expenses. The direct cost of education in private schools is definitely high as compared to the government schools. However, the same may not be true of the intangible benefits accruing from the government and

private schools. Thus, it could be concluded that the children coming from slums lack access to quality schools.

The parents were more interested in sending their boys to schools because they feel education is more important for boys as compared to girls. The enrolment rate was found to be low in girls as compared to boys. The data revealed that the enrolment rate of boys was 81.2 per cent whereas for girls it was 72.4 per cent. The percentage of irregularity in attendance was also found to be high among girls. The reason behind this is their involvement in household chores. The performance of boys in achievement test conducted during the research work was also better than girls. The drop-out rate was particularly high among the girl child which was 41.2 per cent. Hence, the data revealed that the issue of educational equity is still a matter of concern in context to the children coming from the slums.



Chapter-VI
Learning Achievement
of Slum Children in
Lucknow



Chapter VI

Learning Achievement of Slum Children in Lucknow

Mean Achievement Scores: Grade I

According to the prescribed curriculum for Grade I, a child should achieve the proficiency in the counting of objects, addition and subtraction, and preceding and succeeding numbers. To achieve these basic skills, the child needs to have the conceptual clarity and regular practice. Children from the slum areas are primarily dependent upon the school and teachers to make them understand the basic concepts, as there is little or no academic support from their respective families.

Earlier studies have shown relatively higher mean scores for Grade I competencies as compared to Grade V. The same is true for the present sample of students also. Thus, the issues related to the transition from oral to written mode of communication are also valid for the present study.

The mean score for Grade I competencies was 59.64 percent for mathematics and 55.65 percent for Hindi in the Government schools. However, for the unrecognised schools the mean score for Grade I competencies were 77.5 percent for mathematics and only 35.2 percent in language. Therefore, on the whole, the mathematics competencies were better than language. This is quite in contrast with other findings (Aggarwal, 2000). One major difference, which may have caused such an outcome, is the manner in which the Hindi / English language tests were administered. While the tests were oral, the children were asked to respond by looking at the picture. They were also required to read the same word from the four options given alongside the question. Any mismatch between the two was treated as a wrong answer. This enabled to relate the competencies of visual interpretation with the corresponding word in the text. Many students were able to identify the picture correctly but were not able to respond to the words. This shows the absence of reading abilities.

Lower Levels of Achievement among Students Living in Slums

The performance levels of the schools serving the slum children were much lower than before. The corresponding mean achievement score for Lucknow schools was: mathematics 80.2 per cent and for language (Hindi or English) 78.2 per cent. The standard deviation was not much different for the two subjects. As mentioned above,

the corresponding values for the Government schools covered in the present study were 59.64 for mathematics and 55.65 percent for Hindi. For unrecognised school it was 77.5 for mathematics and 35.2 percent for language. The achievement levels of the children from the slums are therefore, lower by about 26 percent in mathematics and 30 percent lower in the medium of instruction (Hindi in the present case in Government schools). For private schools the difference was of 3 percent only in mathematics and 37 per cent in language (English for these schools). The low level of achievement in schools even in the first year of schooling is a matter of serious concern. The slum children require higher levels of achievement in order to fight for their place in the world of work.

Mean Achievement Score in Mathematics

Mathematics is always perceived a dreadful and difficult subject. Pervious studies on the learning achievement (Aggarwal, 2000; DPEP) have also revealed the gloomy picture of mean achievement scores in mathematics. For the present sample of students, the mean score achievement in mathematics was 59.64 percent for Government schools and 77.5 percent for private schools.

Low Performing Students in Mathematics

Although the mean scores are relatively low, the variability in individual and aggregated scores continues to be high both within and between schools. Children scoring less than 40 percent in any subject are considered to be under performers. The distribution of students falling in different fractions is shown in table 6.1

Table 6.1 Distribution of Students by Category of Scores in Mathematics (Grade I)

Mathematics in Govt. Schools			Mathematics in Private Schools	
Score (Range)	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0-20	7	7	1	1
20-40	23	23	11	11
40-60	27	27	26	26
60-80	31	31	32	32
80-100	12	12	30	30
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Fieldwork

One in every four students in Government schools is an under performer in mathematics. Almost 24 percent of students attained 40-60 percent scores in mathematics in Government schools. Children scoring more than 80 percent were considered as high achievers. The proportion of children scoring in Government schools more than 80 percent in mathematics test accounted for 19.3 percent. This percentage is very low as compared to the targets. However, in private schools around 60 percent children scored more than 80 percent, which is a very encouraging sign.

Analysis of Responses to Individual Questions

The low levels of achievement in mathematics in Government schools have many implications for improving quality of education through various measures. It also affects the study of science and technology in higher education. The first and foremost question that needs to be addressed at this stage of analysis is regarding the response of students of Government schools to different type of questions and to determine the hard spots in teaching-learning.

Counting of Objects

The first four questions in the achievement test pertained to simple counting of objects. 95 percent children could answer them correctly. Around one percent children did not respond and around 4 percent answered incorrectly. Therefore, as far counting of objects is concerned, the level of achievement was satisfactory.

Addition and Subtraction

Around 60 percent children of Government schools could do the simple addition and around 18 percent did not respond to these questions. It implies that the real problems in mathematics start with the addition of numbers. When the children were given two-digit subtraction, less than half (49.2%) of them could answer correctly. Therefore, even the concept of addition and subtraction is not fully mastered at Grade 1. For private schools the results were better. About 85 percent children could do simple addition and around 70 percent could do two-digit subtraction.

Succeeding and Preceding Numbers

The data reveals that most of the children had good grasps over some of the concepts, like succeeding numbers, greater or smaller, whereas about 40 per cent Government

schools children and 30 per cent unrecognised school children could not answer on the related concepts like the preceding numbers. This type of learning outcome is a reflection on the teaching styles. The children are taught forward counting but little attention is paid to recalling the backward numbers.

Response to the Concept of Ones and Tens

It appears that a few concepts, like 'one' and 'tens' were not covered fully. Barely one-quarter of children could answer those questions correctly. Even in unrecognised schools one-quarter children could not answer this question. The same is true of the two-digit addition and subtraction. It can be said that except for counting and simple addition majority of the children could not achieve the competencies in mathematics expected of Grade I learners. This is the cause of particular concern because Grade I is the first year of formal schooling and if the foundation remains weak, subsequent structure cannot be expected to be strong enough to ensure quality learning at higher levels. Therefore, poor quality of learning is one of the reasons for students not completing the primary education cycle.

Mean Achievement Score in Hindi/ English Language

Families with different linguistic, religious and caste backgrounds reside in the same slums after migration. Therefore, there exists a cultural and linguistic diversity among the slum dwellers. It was also observed during the fieldwork that after migration, most of the families in the slums had learnt the use of Hindi as a means of communication. A large number of the school going children happened to have been born in Delhi. Therefore, the gap between the spoken language and the language taught in the school was not much pronounced. However, children were not familiar with the English language therefore the children of unrecognised school performed poorly in language. In the Hindi achievement test (for Government schools) and English achievement test (for unrecognised schools), the children were supposed to recognize the picture and read the corresponding word depicting the picture. The mean percent achievement score for Hindi was 55.65 and for unrecognised schools the achievement score for English was only 34 percent.

The analysis of responses for different questions from the Government schools suggests, the language comprehension skills were not achieved even by one-third of

the total children. Children found it difficult to read a few words like (chatta, topi and guria). There is a need to look into the teaching styles in the schools. It was observed that children could recognize the figure and name but when they were told to read its alphabets, they found it difficult to do so. There were a few children who always marked on the same serial number without reading or recognising the particular word. The result of Hindi test has repercussions for other subjects as well. Unless the children are able to read the basic words, they would find it difficult to comprehend the other subjects like Environmental Science, Social Science etc.

Children of unrecognised schools too performed very poorly in language. Majority of the children from these schools could not read the words and after recognising the picture responded in Hindi only rather than in English. Looking at the high achievement score in mathematics, it appears that the methodology of teaching language needs to be looked into analytically.

The foregoing analysis of mean achievement score of Grade I competencies indicates that the performance of children from the slums studying in the government schools was low. In comparative framework, the performance level of students of schools serving slums was lower than of those of government schools. The private schools serving to the similar kind of population have much better scores in mathematics but poor scores in language. Children from these areas could not understand the English language. It is thus evident that not only it is the school that matters but also an equally important factor is the social and economic status of the parents of the children. The school management does make a difference even for the children with similar conditions.

Analysis of Achievement Test: Grade V

As mentioned earlier, language and mathematics tests were conducted for the children of Grade V. The mathematics test contained 40 items and Hindi/English reading comprehension and word knowledge tests contained 35 items each. The achievement test in mathematics evaluated competencies related to understanding of whole numbers, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of whole numbers. It also included simple problems of day-to-day life relating to units of money, length, mass, capacity, area and time. Questions related to the use of fractions, decimals and percentages, and basic understanding of geometric shapes; solving some problems

related to speed and distance were also included in the achievement tests. For Hindi /English language, two types of tests were administered to the students. While one test tried to assess the grammar knowledge and questions pertained to the synonym and antonym, the other test had the comprehension passages. Four options were given and after reading the passage the children were supposed to mark on the correct answer. The results of the tests are discussed below.

Mean Achievement Score in Mathematics

The distribution of score in mathematics was examined and the results are presented in Table 6.2

Table 6.2: Distribution of Students by Category of Mathematics Scores (Grade V)

Score in Govt. Schools			Score in Private Schools	
Score Range	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0-10	23	23	0	23
10-20	13	13	1	13
20-30	17	17	5	17
30-40	15	15	19	19
40-50	12	12	27	27
50-60	13	13	25	25
60-70	6	6	14	14
70-80	1	1	7	7
80-90	0	0	2	2
90-100	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Fieldwork

Question-Wise Analysis

The average score in mathematics of the Government schools was only 25 per cent, whereas for private schools it was 40.1 per cent, which was quite close to the Aggarwal's study of government schools in 2000 that had average score of 40.5 per cent. The score of slum children was 14 per cent lower in the Government schools.

This range of scoring is highly dissatisfactory as compared to the expected achievement level of 80 percent and above for 80 per cent of students. Around 65 percent children could not get the minimum pass marks. Not even a single child could attain more than 80 per cent marks in Government schools and only 3 children from unrecognised schools scored more than 80 per cent marks. Questions related to counting of days, problems related to the subtraction of one number from the other, multiplication, unitary method, had a poor response from Government schools; only around 20 to 22 per cent answered correctly. Around 30 percent children of unrecognised schools answered it correctly. It appears that the concept of division, LCM, factorisation, either had not been dealt well or had not been explained in the class as only around (10 to 15 percent of Government school children) could answer it correctly and majority of the students left it blank. Only 13 children out of 372 could answer correctly as to how a fraction could be written in decimals. Around 58 percent children did not attempt the problem pertaining to concepts of fraction. The situation in the unrecognised schools was little better only as around 22 per cent answered it correctly. Even the children of those schools found it difficult to answer problems related to LCM, factorisation etc. This means that most of the pupils were very weak in the basic concepts of mathematics.

The contents of the books are arranged in a sequential and graded manner and if a child fails to comprehend any fundamental concept in a particular Grade, it would not be possible for him/her to understand relatively more advanced and complex concepts in the next Grade. It could lead to cumulative deficiency in children for that particular subject. Curriculum developers and teachers who transact the curriculum, should take serious note of the situation and take some remedial measures to improve the achievement level of children in this subject. The data make it evident that a serious modification is necessary in the curriculum and teaching methodology of mathematics. Either the number of hours for the teaching of the subject should be increased or remedial teaching should be introduced for the weak children.

Performance in Language

The performance in language in Government schools was a little bit better as compared to mathematics but it was also not satisfactory and acceptable. Around 43 percent children of Government schools and 25 percent children of unrecognised

schools in comprehension attained less than the average score of 30. 'No responses' in case of language tests were much less as compared to mathematics. The results of Hindi grammar and comprehension are presented in table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Distribution of Students by Category of Scores in Comprehension

Score Range	Score in Government Schools		Score in Private Schools	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0-10	16	16	1	1
10-20	14	14	3	3
20-30	17	17	23	23
30-40	15	15	32	32
40-50	9	9	20	20
50-60	10	10	2	2
60-70	9	9	13	13
70-80	7	7	6	6
80-90	2	2	0	0
90-100	1	1	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Fieldwork

Around 13 percent children scored more than 70 per cent in the comprehension whereas only around 3 percent attained more than 70 per cent in English language in unrecognised schools. The results of Hindi language makes it clear that although the migrants are from different linguistic backgrounds yet the children do not find much problem with Hindi as a medium of instruction whereas they find English language more difficult to comprehend.

The results for Hindi/English Grammar are given in the following table 6.4

Table 6.4: Distribution of Students by Category of Scores in Word/Grammar

Score Range	Score in Govt. Schools		Score in Private Schools	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0-10	6	6	2	2
10-20	11	11	1	1
20-30	13	13	4	4
30-40	13	13	2	2
40-50	12	12	23	23
50-60	26	26	34	34
60-70	3	3	24	24
70-80	6	6	5	5
80-90	4	4	3	3
90-100	6	6	2	2
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Fieldwork


It is seen from the table that around 35 percent children scored below the range of 30 percent in Government schools but for unrecognised schools it was only 5.4 percent. The grammar results make it clear that children of the unrecognised schools find it easy to mug up the synonym and antonym but are not able to understand the comprehension passage. Majority of the children from the unrecognised schools scored in the range of 50 to 80 scores. The above figures clearly point out that the learning outcomes of slum children are much below the expectations. Poor comprehension leads to disinterest in studies and failure in a particular class ultimately leads to dropout from the system. The above scoring pattern also puts a question mark on the universalisation of primary education. It seems meaningless to have half literate graduates ultimately lapsing to illiteracy. It is the wastage of resources both in terms of humans, time and money. However, this is not to suggest that we should not strive for the goal of UEE. Appropriate interventions and strategies should be devised to tackle this problem of underachievement.

A comparison between the scoring patterns of Grade I and Grade V presents a distinct picture. The following points emerge from the comparison:


- The average achievement level was much lower in Grade V as compared to in Grade I. This was true of both for language and mathematics competencies.
- The achievement level of the slum children of Government schools was much low as compared to children of other Lucknow schools.
- The score in mathematics of unrecognised schools serving the similar kind of socio-economic disadvantaged groups was better than the Government schools.

The following factors could be responsible for the above phenomenon:

- Tests for Grade I standard were oral and for Grade V were written. Children were better in expressing themselves to the oral questions but found it difficult to answer in writing.
- The test for Grade V competencies may be more difficult as compared to Grade I competencies or vice versa. Since both the tests were standardized and validated, these differences should not be significant.
- The level of teaching deteriorates as children progress through various grades. Children do not practice and therefore are not able to cope up with syllabus, resulting into poor comprehension.
- A peculiar phenomenon of the slum children is that they remain absent for a long time due to their visit to their native places. When they come back, they have missed out studies for those days. The loss cannot be compensated, as they have no academic support from their families, leading to low achievement.



Chapter-VII
Conclusion



Chapter VII

Conclusion

A large number of educational policies and programmes have been launched to improve educational opportunities, access and equity by means of reducing the social, gender and regional disparities but the problems faced by urban slum dwellers are yet to be solved. Various measures have also been suggested in different policies and Five Year Plans for the development of urban areas but no concrete strategies were evolved to look into the educational problems of deprived and marginalised. The average socio-economic indicators, like per capita income, infant mortality rate, literacy level, enrolment of the school going children, are much better in urban areas as compared to the national average, but the same is not true of the slum areas. The situation in some slum areas is even worse than many rural areas. It is only recently that the administrators have started thinking about the educational needs of this segment of population, which remained neglected for decades.

The slum dwellers are the poorest, the most miserable and hence the most highly vulnerable sections of community in urban areas. The most common denominators of the heterogeneous mass of slum dwellers are sub-standard housing and poverty with their concomitant social, cultural and psychological consequences. Apart from other differences from the dominant group, they have difference, in lifestyles, values, child-rearing practices, skills for urban living and educational attainment. From the point of view of education, people residing in slums send the lowest number of children to school and their children exhibit the most severe academic retardation, the highest rate of failures, grade repetition and dropout, and the thinnest transition to upper levels of education. Schools in or near the slums are usually described as having low caste, lower class and retarded children who lack the basic necessities of life, overcrowded, dilapidated or poorly maintained buildings, inadequacy of essential school facilities.

A study of the problem in the way of full and equal opportunity, access and equity for all its children especially those of the resourceless and the socially excluded people provide an idea of the nature and magnitude of difficulties that beset the realization of equal educational opportunity. Equal educational opportunities are

considered to be the basic instrument to ensure opportunity of every other kind. The country is committed to providing Universal Primary Education to all children in the age group of 6-14 years and to protecting with special care the educational and other interests of the weaker sections of people. The slum area children come from the most deprived and down trodden sections of the population in urban areas. As such, the country has a special responsibility for their education and welfare. The study is an attempt to see how far the Lucknow has progressed in making adequate and suitable provision for these children and to what extent it has ensured equal educational opportunity to all. Although the disparities in educational provision between the urban and rural areas have been the subject of serious attention for a long time, the disparities within urban areas i.e. between slums and suburbs of poverty areas and middle class areas have not yet come to light. Without ascertaining these differences, however, disparities cannot be removed. Although the slum area children are not different from other disadvantaged groups in having problems, their problems assume special seriousness when viewed in the context of severe environment deprivation, deterioration and social pathologies that stem from the striking visible contrasts between affluence and poverty. It would not be too much to say that slum residence, by its very nature, accentuates disadvantage which prevents children from taking full advantage of any educational opportunity offered to them. To know the kind of hurdles - physical, social, economic and psychological that hamper educational progress in slum areas would be quite enlightening. A real understanding of the educational malaise in slum areas and a deep insight into its genesis, is virtually non-existent. By focussing on the entire spectrum of educational opportunities in the slums with comparable equal access, equal inputs and equal outcomes, the study would furnish very useful knowledge for making policy decisions and formulating special programmes for the universalisation and equalisation of educational opportunities at the primary stage.

A study of the problems in the way of full and equal educational opportunities for all its children especially those of the poorest and the most miserable people living in hundreds of the slums would provide an idea of the nature and magnitude of difficulties that beset the realisation of equal educational opportunities in the cities. Moreover, Lucknow as the capital of Uttar Pradesh State should set an example in the

provision of equal educational opportunities which would be worthy of emulation by all the districts of Uttar Pradesh State.

It is imperative to sum up the reviews made by the investigator. It is noted that more studies are related to primary schools and its facilities. There are some longitudinal studies which gave the historical development of primary education in different states. There are enough studies carried out to find out the relationship between facilities or provisions in primary education and child's learning achievement. The studies are heterogeneous rather than homogeneous. The studies can be divided broadly into facilities/provisions and tests/ evaluation (achievement of the school children.) Many studies were conducted in the areas of facilities or programmes in the primary schools with aim of attaining universalisation of elementary education. For instance studies carried by - John Ippolito, R. Sandra, Y.P. Agrawal & Sunita Chugh. Finally there are studies specifically on slums have been included in the literature. Though there are few in number but they portend the direction for present study: Rana Ejaz, Alikhan & Tossef, Azid; Yuko Tsujita, Ratan Khasnabis and Tamia Chatterjee.

The conceptual framework of the study largely constituted of educational opportunities, access and equity. Educational opportunity can be regarded as a goal or a set of guide-posts in the sense, the framing and implementation of educational policy should introduce the means that will contribute to an increased equalization, in terms of educational outcomes, economic status, participation in decision making process and so on. Universal access to education is the ability of all people to have equal opportunity in education, regardless of their social class, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic background or physical and mental disabilities. Access to education can be of three kinds. Firstly, physical access which emphasizes that geographical distance between schools and households is to be minimized. Secondly, economic access which implies the financial capacity of households to send their wards to schools even when the facilities are easily accessible in a geographical sense. Thirdly, social access which means that social stratification based on caste, class, gender and religion has implications for access available public provisions. Equity in education is a measure of achievement, fairness and opportunities. Educational equity is dependent on two main factors. The first is fairness, which implies that factors specific to one's personal conditions should not interfere with the potential of academic success. The

second important factor is inclusion, which refers to a comprehensive standard that applies to everyone in a certain education system. These two factors are closely related and are dependent on each other for true academic success of an education system

The three social theoretical perspectives concerning education are Functionalism, Conflict Theory, and the Interpretivist Approach. The theme of education and societal inequality such as race, gender, class and ethnicity offers an excellent opportunity to compare the three theoretical perspectives. Functional theory stresses the functions that education serves in fulfilling a society's various needs. Perhaps the most important function of education is socialization. A second function of education is social integration. For a society to work, functionalists say, people must subscribe to a common set of beliefs and values. A third function of education is social placement. Beginning in grade school, students are identified by teachers and other school officials either as bright and motivated or as less bright and even educationally challenged. Depending on how they are identified, children are taught at the level that is thought to suit them best. In this way, they are presumably prepared for their later station in life. Social and cultural innovation is a fourth function of education. Education also involves several latent functions, functions that are by-products of going to school and receiving an education rather than a direct effect of the education itself. One of these is child care once a child starts kindergarten and then first grade, for several hours a day the child is taken care of for free. The establishment of peer relationships is another latent function of schooling. Education serves so many manifest and latent functions for society, problems in schooling ultimately harm society. For education to serve its many functions, various kinds of reforms are needed to make our schools and the process of education as effective as possible.

Conflict theory does not dispute the functions just described. However, it does give some of them a different slant by emphasizing how education also perpetuates social inequality. One example of this process involves the function of social placement. When most schools begin tracking their students in grade school, the students thought by their teachers to be bright are placed in the faster tracks (especially in reading and arithmetic), while the slower students are placed in the

slower tracks; in high school, three common tracks are the college track, vocational track, and general track. Conflict theorists say that tracking also helps perpetuate social inequality by locking students into faster and lower tracks. Another critique of conflict theory involves the quality of schools. Schools differ mightily in their resources, learning conditions, and other aspects, all of which affect how much students can learn in them. Simply put, schools are unequal, and their very inequality helps perpetuate inequality in the larger society. Children going to the worst schools in urban areas face many more obstacles to their learning than those going to well-funded schools in suburban areas. Their lack of learning helps ensure they remain trapped in poverty and its related problems.

Symbolic interactionist studies of education examine social interaction in the classroom, on the playground, and in other school venues. These studies help us understand what happens in the schools themselves, but they also help us understand how what occurs in school is relevant for the larger society. Some studies, for example, show how children's playground activities reinforce gender-role socialization. Girls tend to play more cooperative games, while boys play more competitive sports. Other research in the symbolic interactionist tradition focuses on how teachers treat girls and boys. Many studies find that teachers call on and praise boys more often. Teachers do not do this consciously, but their behavior nonetheless sends an implicit message to girls that math and science are not for them and that they are not suited to do well in these subjects. This body of research has stimulated efforts to educate teachers about the ways in which they may unwittingly send these messages and about strategies they could use to promote greater interest and achievement by girls in mathematics and science.

The area of study is four slums in Lucknow city, broadly taking two old slums (Pre-1990s) Broadly, two old slums (Pre-1990s) i.e. Sikandarnagar slum, Chinhat bazaar slum and two new slums Rajajipuram slum and Vikasnagar slum have been selected for the study. The study is focused at primary education (Class I-V). For the study, infrastructure facilities, socio-economic conditions and achievement level of children has been observed and assessed. In order to assess the relationship between the educational opportunities, access and equity and achievement level of children in slums exploratory research design has been used. The study is focused at grass-root

level. The sample size consisted of 200 parents and their children who are studying between Class I-V, 60 teachers and 16 Principals. Four schools from each slum have been selected for study i.e. study has been conducted in 16 schools. In the present study, both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection have been used.

The research chiefly meant to find out the extent and quality of educational inputs related to the children and their family. These inputs are very significant, because ultimately it is the children who have to utilize the available educational opportunity and it is their family and home which largely determine their capacity to profit from educational experiences. The schedule consisted of items on several aspects of the slum area: child's family, home environment and personal attributes viz. parental education, occupation, point of origin from where his family migrated to the slums, income affection, interest and help in aspirations for the child's education, occupation, and income of his brother's and sister's, material possessions, living space, reading materials and language spoken in the home, child's access to school and exposure to preschool education, his academic achievement, learning difficulties, time devoted to homework, participation in co-curricular activities, exposure to mass media and interest in studies, physical, academic and social self- concept of the children, social adjustment, their educational and occupational aspirations, present achievement and achievement motivation and perception of teacher attitudes and hindrances in learning, pupil-teacher ratio.

Social, educational and gender equity have been measured using various determinants. Social equity is measured through learning achievement of children of slums belonging to different religion and castes, involvement of girls in household chores and attitude parents towards girls' education. Educational equity is measured through awareness among parents about education, awareness among parents about Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA), Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) and Alternative and Innovative Education (AIE), preference among parents in sending their wards to schools, expenditure of parents on tuition and overall expenditure of parents on education. Whereas gender equity is measured through Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) of boys and girls, retention rate of boys and girls, drop-out Rate of boys and girls, succession/Transition Rate of boys and girls, learning Achievement of boys and girls and attitude of teachers towards girls' education.

There are broadly five objectives in this study. The research is aimed at studying the educational opportunities available to the children of slum in Lucknow. The main objective of the research is to study the schooling facilities available in slum areas and the achievement level of the student at various level of primary stage. The research also tries to study the impact of socio-economic conditions on the education of the slum children. The focus of the study is to understand the issue of educational opportunities, access and equity at grass-root level. As not much work has been done earlier in the field of educational equity, the present study would provide a new dimension in understanding the concept of educational equity. It is also very pertinent to study whether the educational opportunities, access and equity of education extended to the slum children create any improvement.

The analysis of the four selected slums clearly reflects that the slums are bereft of necessary physical and civic amenities, with no schooling facilities or with poor schooling facilities. The plans have been made to provide schooling in the difficult terrains and hilly areas but not much attention has been paid to the marginalized population of urban areas with regard to the availability of schools to these children in the neighbourhood or within slum areas. The schools, which are provided to them, have poor infrastructure, over-crowded and teachers are not trained to deal with the learners who reside in temporary settlement with poor physical facilities. The socio-economic backwardness is further exacerbated by the poor quality schools available to these children.

Some of the major findings of my research work are as follows:

Majority of the parents (53.2 per cent) were not aware about the educational programmes which have been launched by the government. Those parents who were aware (46.8 per cent) about the educational programmes were keen on sending their wards to schools. But these parents were more interested in sending their boys to schools because they feel education is more important for boys as compared to girls. Hence, it can be said that the hypothesis one i.e. Awareness among parents about Government policies and programmes enhances the enrolment rate of slum children stands partially true.

Majority of the households lack basic civic amenities. Almost 34 per cent of the households were not having individual taps in their households, 46 per cent were

devoid of individual toilet facilities. Almost 43.2 per cent families were living in one-roomed households. Most of the families have their monthly income less than 5000 which makes it difficult for the parents to send their wards to schools. Due to poor economic conditions the parents often took their children for work along with them which severely hampers the educational status of the children. Hence, on the basis of above finding the second hypothesis i.e. Poor socio-economic status of the family adversely affects the education of slum children stands true.

The schools had poor infrastructure, over-crowded and teachers were not adequately trained to deal with the learners who reside in temporary settlement with poor physical facilities. The pupil-teacher ratio and student-classroom ratio was also one of the serious concerns. The use of teaching-learning equipment was less than satisfactory. The use of globe, maps, charts and flash cards was made by a small proportion of teachers. Nearly half of the Government school teachers and around 75 per cent teachers of private schools were teaching more than one grade during the same academic session. Hence, it can be said that the hypothesis three i.e. Lack in schooling facilities lowers the educational opportunities and access among slum children stands true.

The data revealed significantly high irregularity (almost 53.7 per cent) in attendance among slum children. The data revealed that the performance of the slum children was much below the expected levels. The achievement in mathematics is significantly lower than the language in Grade V. This is true for most of the schools. The low achievement specially 'no response' is a matter of serious concern and needs special attention of curriculum developers and translators. The achievement scores based on competencies of Grade V were lower. Low educational qualifications of the teachers in mathematics could be one possible reason. When the achievement results of private schools were compared with that of government schools it is clear that with small and inadequate infrastructure, less financial resources and untrained teachers with low salaries, children of private schools were performing better especially in mathematics than those of the Government schools Hence, the fourth hypothesis-Higher educational opportunities, access and equity leads to higher achievement level among slum children stands partially true.

The enrolment rate was found to be low in girls as compared to boys. The data revealed that the enrolment rate of boys was 81.2 per cent whereas for girls it was 72.4 per cent. The performance of boys in achievement test conducted during the research work was also better than girls. The drop-out rate was particularly high among the girl child which was 41.2 per cent. Hence, it can be said that the fifth hypothesis high level of equity reduces the gender gap stands false.

The data revealed that the performance of the slum children was much below the expected levels in both the subjects and in both the grades. Children of private schools have performed much better than the Government schools children in mathematics but not in language. Most of the unrecognised schools have English language as medium of instruction and probably these children could not get familiar with this language. The achievement in mathematics is significantly lower than the language in Grade V. This is true for most of the schools. The low achievement specially 'no response' is a matter of serious concern and needs special attention of curriculum developers and translators. The achievement scores based on competencies of Grade V were lower than those obtained by learners in Grade I. Besides the complexities of concepts and subjects, the transition from oral to written mode of communication and evaluation may be one of the factors responsible for this pattern of scoring. Low educational qualifications of the teachers in mathematics could be one possible reason. Low motivation of the teachers to teach the children of poor socio-economic background and low educational status of the mother could be another probable cause. The poor achievement in mathematics for a large proportion of children requires further probing and investigation. If the remedial measures are not initiated, the quality of education cannot be assured. The analysis of response patterns for individual questions has identified the competencies on which the special emphasis should be given in order to bring a conceptual clarity among the school children. There is a need to move from the traditional modes of teaching to modern methods of teaching. When we compare the achievement results of unrecognised schools with that of Government schools it is clear that with small and inadequate infrastructure, less financial resources and untrained teachers with low salaries, children of unrecognised schools are performing better especially in mathematics than those of the Government schools.

Various educational policies and programmes have been launched by the government in order to improve the scenario of educational opportunities, access and equity in India. However, the problems being faced by the slum dwellers, especially in context to the education is yet to be resolved. The educational policies and programmes need to be contextualised at the micro-level, so that the issues of educational opportunities, access and equity can be addressed in a better way. Moreover, these policies and programmes are required to be properly implemented and monitored for changing the current situation of primary education in India.

Policy Options

Usually, for the provision of primary education in the urban slum areas the responsibility is of municipal corporations because these slums come under the boundaries of municipal corporations and bodies. Generally, the policies and provisions for the education in urban areas are made from the financial budget of municipal corporations and in most of the municipalities these budgets are usually under severe constraints. Further, each municipality has its own set of rules, norms and regulations for providing any assistance to the primary schools. On the basis of the results obtained from this research work some suggestions have been proposed for improvement and effective working of the primary schools in the poor urban areas. Some of these suggestions are as follows:

- Establishment of definite set of rules and norms for the establishment and upgradation of primary schools, particularly within the proximity of the urban slums.
- Maintaining certain provisions for the recruitment of teachers especially in the schools near slums and providing infrastructural and other facilities to the schools falling within the limits of particular municipality.
- Measures should be taken to motivate teachers so that they can develop a better understanding of the problems being faced by the slum children.
- Special training programmes should be organized so that teachers can be trained to tackle the problems of urban slum children. The urban slum children are exposed to various problems such as of child abuse, sexual abuse, substance abuse, social insecurity, unhygienic living conditions, several health problems, malnutrition, etc. Here the teachers can play a crucial role in making these

children aware towards the importance of personal hygiene, environmental sanitation, etc.

- A network is required to be developed for proper mobilization and sharing of resources between the government and private schools. Mutual co-operation of teachers from private schools as well as volunteers is needed for increasing the level of basic competencies for these children.
- Proper mobilization of the NGOs and Self-Help Groups (SHGs) is required for organizing remedial coaching classes within the slums. This would be helpful in developing confidence among urban slum children so that they can keep pace with other children.
- In the current scenario it is important that teachers should made the slum children realize that the classrooms are safe place for the process of experimenting and learning.
- The teachers can work as assets as they are the ones who could make these children to explore new things. They can encourage these children to take risks and develop new horizons of thinking and this would in turn enhance their capacity.
- Efforts should be made that the children are provided with friendly environment in the schools. The learning achievement of the children can be enhanced through playful and joyous activities and attractive reading materials and textbooks. Developing an atmosphere where children could have direct and free interaction with their teacher as well as their peer group, would prove to be fruitful in improving the learning competencies of the children.
- One of the peculiar problems of the slum children is that they have to visit their hometown every year along with their parents during the harvesting season. Generally, these children tend to overstay in their hometown which leads to the loss of their academic session. One of the solutions for this problem is that special remedial classes should be arranged for such children. Other solution is that the classes should be arranged accordingly.
- One of the findings from the field revealed that in the classes few of the concepts are not explained properly in the class or sometimes certain concepts are also not taught. The solution for this problem could be that some members from the

community itself should be entrusted with the task of monitoring the coverage of the course/syllabus.

- Findings have shown that the learning achievement of children in mathematics is quite low. To improve the performance of the children it is essential that large-scale changes and modifications in the curriculum is required and the methodology of teaching is also a matter of concern on which the focus is to be given. Solved sample papers should be circulated among the children in order to develop a better understanding of the concepts.
- In order to improve performance of children in languages, the methods of audio and video-cassettes can be implemented in the classrooms. Simple story books should be provided to the children, this would improve their reading skills. Along with this, it is essential that teachers should try to get feedback from the students. Moreover, modification is required in the teaching method as well as curriculum of English.



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Appendix



APPENDIX

Interview Schedule for Parents

(I) Details of the Respondent

1. Name of the Respondent:
2. Name of the Slum:
3. Name of Zone:
4. Age of Respondent:
 - a) < 25 1
 - b) 26 - 35 2
 - c) 36 - 50 3
 - d) 51 and above years 4
5. Social Category
 - a) General 1
 - b) O.B.C. 2
 - c) SC/ST 3
 - d) Minorities 4
6. Religion of the Respondent:
 - a) Hindu 1
 - b) Muslim 2
 - c) Sikh 3
 - d) Christian 4
7. Educational Status
 - a) Illiterate 1
 - b) Primary 2
 - c) High School 3
 - d) Intermediate 4
 - e) Graduation 5
 - f) Post Graduation 6
8. Marital status
 - a) Married 1
 - b) Unmarried 2
 - c) Widow 3
 - d) Divorced 4

9. Nature of family

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| a) Joint family | 1 |
| b) Nuclear family | 2 |
| c) Extended family | 3 |

10. Are you native of Lucknow?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

If No, which is your native place?

11. Cause for migration

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| a) Unemployment | 1 |
| b) Better Employment | 2 |
| c) Poverty | 3 |
| d) Natural calamities | 4 |
| e) Others | 5 |

12. Reason for settling in slums

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| a) Near to work place | 1 |
| b) High rent | 2 |
| c) Low income | 3 |
| d) Did not get rented house | 4 |

13. Duration of stay in slums

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| a) < 10 years | 1 |
| b) 11 - 15 years | 2 |
| c) 16 - 20 years | 3 |
| d) > 20 years | 4 |

14. Head of the family

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| a) Male | 1 |
| b) Female | 2 |
| c) No response | 3 |

15. Present Employment

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| a) Government job | 1 |
| b) Self - employed | 2 |
| c) Construction labor | 3 |
| d) No job | 4 |

16. Family income per annum

-
- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| a) Pucca | 1 |
| b) Semi – Pucca | 2 |
| c) Kachcha | 3 |
| d) Thatched Hut | 4 |

19. Nature of house acquisition

- | | |
|---------------|---|
| a) Ancestors | 1 |
| b) Government | 2 |
| c) Purchased | 3 |
| d) Rented | 4 |

20. How many living rooms are there in house?

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| a) 1 Room | 1 |
| b) 2 Rooms | 2 |
| c) 3 Rooms | 3 |
| d) More than 3 rooms | 4 |

21. Do you have bank account?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

If yes, what is the mode of savings?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| a) Bank | 1 |
| b) Self | 2 |
| c) With others | 3 |
| d) Nil | 4 |

22. Are you under any debt?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

23. Do you feel that you are enjoying less status due to your present economic situation?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

24. Are you satisfied with your family expenditure on basic needs?

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| a) Fully satisfied | 1 |
| b) Partially satisfied | 2 |
| c) Not satisfied | 3 |

25. Distance of working place

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| a) Below 1 km. | 1 |
| b) 1 km. - 3 km. | 2 |
| c) 4 km. - 6 km. | 3 |
| d) 7 - 10 km. | 4 |

26. Mode of transportation

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| a) Walk | 1 |
| b) Public transport | 2 |
| c) Own | 3 |

27. If you own vehicle

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| a) Bicycle | 1 |
| b) Two wheeler | 2 |
| c) Others | 3 |

28. Do you consume liquor?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

If yes,

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| a) Daily | 1 |
| b) Two days | 2 |
| c) Weekly | 3 |
| d) Monthly | 4 |

29. Are you having smoking habit?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

(iii) Living condition of the Respondents

30. Is your house electrified?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

If yes, is it due to Government assistance

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

31. Do you have sanitary latrine?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

If yes, it is arranged under Government scheme

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

If no what type of sanitation do you have?

- a) Public toilet 1
- b) Pit latrine 2
- c) Open place 3

(IV) Drinking Water

32. What is the source of drinking water?

- a) Public tap 1
- b) Own tap 2
- c) Manual tap 3

33. How often you are getting drinking water?

- a) Daily 1
- b) One in two days 2
- c) Twice in a week 3

34. Do you take bath every day?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

35. In case of not possessing “own tap” how many hours you spend in collection of water every day?

- a) 1 hour 1
- b) 2 hours 2
- c) 3 hours or more 3

36. Is the drinking water that you are getting is pure and safe?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

37. Is the scarcity of pure drinking water problem is being brought to the notice of elected representatives?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

(V) Source of cooking

38. What are the sources of energy for cooking food?

- a) Fire wood 1
b) Kerosene 2
c) L.P.G. Gas 3
d) Others specify 4

(VI) Medical Facilities

39. In case of ill-health condition whom do you consult?

- a) Government Hospital 1
b) Private Hospital 2
c) Both 3

40. Is there any chronic patient in your family?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

41. What is the approximate annual medical expenditure do you occur?

- a) Rs 1,000 1
b) Rs 5,000 2
c) Rs 10,000 3

(VII) Household ownership of Durable Goods

S.No.	Goods	Yes	No
1.	Cot		
2.	Mattress		
3.	Chair		
4.	Table		
5.	Clock/Watch		
6.	Fan		
7.	Radio		
8.	Bicycle		
9.	Telephone		
10.	Mobile Phone		
11.	Refrigerator		
12.	Television		
13.	Washing machine		
14.	Sewing machine		
15.	Scooter/Motorbike		

16.			
17.			
18.			
19.			
20.			
21.			
22.			
23.			
24.			
25.			
26.			
27.			
28.			
29.			

(VIII). Education of children

43. How many children do you have?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| a) 1 | 1 |
| b) 2 | 2 |
| c) 3 | 3 |
| d) More than 3 | 4 |

44. How many of them go to school?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| a) 1 | 1 |
| b) 2 | 2 |
| c) 3 | 3 |
| d) More than 3 | 4 |

45. In which type of school do you send your ward?

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| a) Government school | 1 |
| b) Private school | 2 |

If in private school, then do you send your girl child also in private school?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

46. Do you send your wards for private tuition also?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

If yes, what is the monthly expenditure on tuition?

- a) Rs 500 1
- b) Rs 1000 2
- c) Rs 1500 3

47. What is the overall expenditure on education per annum?

- a) Rs 2,000 - 4,000 1
- b) Rs 5,000 - 7,000 2
- c) Rs 8,000 - 10,000 3

48. Do you feel it is important to educate girl child?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

49. Do girl child help in household chores?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

50. Are you aware about the Sarva Siksha Abhiyan which is being run by government?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

51. Do you attend the Parents Teacher meeting organized by school?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

52. What is the attitude of teachers towards your ward?

- a) Loving 1
- b) Sympathetic 2
- c) Helpful 3
- d) Hostile 4
- e) Any other, please mention 5

53. Has any of your child left out or dropped out from school?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

54. Do your children help in your work?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

Questionnaire for Schools
(Head of the Institution)

❖ **Date of visit :**

❖ **Questionnaire No.**

1. Name of the school:

2. Address and phone number:

3. Year of establishment of school:

4. Name of Principal/Head of Institution:

❖ Sex

❖ Educational qualification

❖ Experiences

a) As a Teacher

b) As a Headmaster/Principal

5. Type of school:

a) Primary school (I to V) 1

b) Junior high school (I to VIII) 2

c) High school (I to X) 3

d) Intermediate School (I to XII) 4

6. Management status: whether

a) Government 1

b) Private aided 2

c) Unaided 3

d) Partly aided 4

e) Other specify 5

7. School affiliated to

a) State board i.e. U.P. Board - 1

b) C.B.S.E. 2

c) I.C.S.E. 3

d) Other 4

8. Whether giving co-education

- a) Yes 1
 b) No 2

9. Medium of instruction

- a) English 1
 b) Hindi 2
 c) Urdu 3
 d) Other 4

10. Number of students admitted from class I to class V during 2010-2015

(A) BOYS

Number of students										
Year	I		II		III		IV		V	
	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste
2010-11		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2011-12		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2012-13		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2013-14		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2014-15		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(B) GIRLS

Number of students										
Year	I		II		III		IV		V	
	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste
2010-11		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2011-12		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2012-13		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2013-14		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2014-15		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

11. Number of students left or dropped out from Class I to V during 2010-2015.

(A) BOYS

Number of students										
Year	I		II		III		IV		V	
	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste	Boy	Caste
2010-11		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2011-12		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2012-13		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2013-14		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2014-15		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(B) GIRLS

Number of students										
Year	I		II		III		IV		V	
	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste	Girl	Caste
2010-11		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2011-12		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2012-13		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2013-14		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
2014-15		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

12. Number of students succeeded from Primary to Upper-primary during 2010-2015.

Number of students										
Year	Boys	Caste				Girls	Caste			
		General	OBC	SC/ST	Minority		General	OBC	SC/ST	Minority
2010-11										
2011-12										
2012-13										
2013-14										
2014-15										

13. Performance of students during 2014-2015.

(A) BOYS (From 100%-70%)

Classes	91%-100% A1		81%-90% A2		70%-80% B1	
	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

Classes	61%-70% B2		51%-60% C1		41%-50% C2	
	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(From 70%-41%)

Classes	33%-40% D		21%-32% E1		<21% E2	
	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste	Boys	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(From <40%-21%)

Classes	91%-100% A1		81%-90% A2		70%-80% B1	
	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(B) GIRLS (From 100%-70%)

Classes	61%-70% B2		51%-60% C1		41%-50% C2	
	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(From 70%-41%)

Classes	33%-40% D		21%-32% E1		<21% E2	
	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste	Girls	Caste
I		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
II		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
III		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
IV		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=
V		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=		Gen.= OBC= SC/ST= Minority=

(From <40%-21%)

14. What is the structure of the school?

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| a) Pucca building | 1 |
| b) Semi-pucca building | 2 |
| c) Kachcha building | 3 |

15. Give particulars of the school plant in the following table:

S.No.	Type of accommodation	Is there	Is not there	Is there but not in the right condition
1	Office			
2	Staff-room			
3	Class-rooms (Give number)			
4	Library			
5	Hall/Auditorium			
6	Science room			
7	Music room			
8	Art room			
9	Store			
10	Kitchen			
11	Canteen			
12	Toilet			
13	Garden			
14	Play-ground			
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				

16. Given below area, number of statements. Check them with 'Yes' or 'No' in each case.

(i) Is the school situated in clean and healthy surroundings?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

(ii) Are there enough rooms for all the sections?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

(iii) Does the school have a good/proper boundary wall?

- | | |
|--------|---|
| a) Yes | 1 |
| b) No | 2 |

(iv) Is the school properly ventilated?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

(v) Is there good provision of light in the school?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

(vi) Is there enough availability of drinking water?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

(vii) Is there enough water for toilets?

- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

S.No.	Item of equipment	Quite Adequate	A little short	Very much short	Not in right condition	Completely lacking
1	Mats for sitting					
2	Student's desk					
3	Student's chairs					
4	Teacher's table					
5	Teacher's chair					
6	Almirahs					
7	Wall clock					
8	Newspaper stands					
9	Black board/chalk					
10	Maps					
11	Science equipments					
12	Charts					
13	Globes					
14						
15						
16						
17						
18						
19						
20						

(viii) Do you have health services in your school?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

(ix) Do you have any shortage of teachers?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

(x) Do you have Parent-teacher association (P.T.A) in your school?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

17. State the position of the instructional equipment and materials in the following table:

18. Does your school offer the following services?

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|------------|-----------|
| a) Medical check-up | Yes -1 () | No- 2 () |
| b) Immunisation against diseases | Yes -1 () | No -2 () |
| c) Dispensation of medicines | Yes -1 () | N0- 2 () |

19. Give the following particulars about your staff.

(i) Total number of teachers in the school including Head-master:

(ii) Number of teachers with teaching experiences below 5 years:

(iii) Number of teachers with

Matric, B.A., B.Ed :

M.A., B.Ed.:

M.Sc., B.Ed.:

M.Com., B.Ed.:

M.Phil/M.Ed.:

(iv) Number of teachers with

Matric, B.A.:

M.A., M.Sc., M.Com. :

M.Phil., Ph.D.:

20. What are the average working hours of the school?

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| a) Four and a half-hours | 1 |
| b) Five hours | 2 |
| c) Six hours | 3 |
| d) Six and a half-hours | 4 |
| e) Seven hours | 5 |

21. Fill in the following table giving the frequency of organization of Co-curricular activities in your school.

S.No.	Co-curricular activities	Not Organized	Sometimes organized	Often organized	Very often organized
1	Games & sports				
2	School band				
3	N.C.C.				
4	Science club				
5	Inter school competition				
6	Drama				
7	Dance				
8	Music				
9	Excursion				
10	Debate				
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					

22. Do you have following evaluation practices in your school?

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| a) Weekly examinations | 1 |
| b) Monthly tests | 2 |
| c) Oral examination | 3 |
| d) Annual examination | 4 |

23. How often do you take a round of the school?

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| a) Every day | 1 |
| b) Every second day | 2 |
| c) Every third day | 3 |
| d) Once in a week | 4 |
| e) Once in a month | 5 |

24. How often are the staff meetings held?

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| a) Once in a week | 1 |
|-------------------|---|

- b) Once in a month 2
 c) Whenever it is needed 3
 d) Very rarely 4

25. Since May 2014, how many times your school has been inspected?

S.No	Kind of inspection	Frequency of inspection
1	Annual inspection	
2	Surprise inspection	
3	Inspection of special subjects like physical education	
4		
5		
Total		

26. In your opinion, what is the reputation of this school among the educational authorities?

- a) Excellent 1
 b) Very good 2
 c) Good 3
 d) Poor 4
 e) Very poor 5

27. What are the reasons of the following problems in your school?

S.No.	Problems	Does not exist	Sometimes Exist	Is quite often	Is very Common
1	Irregular attendance				
2	Truancy				
3	Quarrelling				
4	Physical violence				
5	Disobedience				
6	Use of full language				
7	Home work not done				
8					
9					
10					

Questionnaire for Teachers

❖ **Date of visit :**

❖ **Questionnaire No.**

1. Name of the Teacher:

- ❖ Sex
- ❖ Educational Qualification
- ❖ Total teaching experience
- ❖ Place

2. Your employment status

- a) Temporary 1
- b) Permanent 2
- c) Ad hoc 3
- d) Working against a leave vacancy 4

3. Are you a member of any Teachers association?

- a) Yes, only a member 1
- b) No 2
- c) Yes, an active member 3
- d) Yes, an office bearer 4

4. Have you ever attended a seminar or training course on the problems and techniques of teaching for slums or urban poor children?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

5. How were you posted in the school?

- a) With your consent 1
- b) Against your wishes 2
- c) You were not consulted 3

6. What are the reasons for you being posted in the present school?

-
- a) Nearness to your residence 1
b) Because of your special interest in this school 2
c) Because of your special competence for teaching in this school. 3
d) As a sort of punishment 4
7. Given a choice, would you like:
- a) To be a posted a school in a better locality 1
b) To be posted to another school like the present one. 2
c) To remain in the same school 3
d) Not decided 4
8. In your judgment, what is the general reputation of this school?
- a) One of the best schools 1
b) Better than average 2
c) Above average 3
d) Do not know 4
9. How would you rate the academic ability of the children studying in your school?
- a) Excellent 1
b) Good 2
c) Poor 3
d) Very poor 4
10. How hard to the children in your school try to study?
- a) Very hard 1
b) Quite hard 2
c) Not so hard 3
d) Not hard enough 4
e) Very little 5
11. Which of the following subjects do children in your class find difficult?
- a) Mathematics 1
b) English 2
c) Social science 3
d) General science 4
12. Are you satisfied with the academic achievement of children in your school?
- a) Yes 1
b) No 2

13. Given below are some common school problems. Tick of those that are prevalent in your school?

- (i) The home environment of a majority of children is not good.
- (ii) A majority of children are not well fed and well clothed.
- (iii) All pupils do not have books and stationary.
- (iv) Pupils are neither punctual nor regular in their attendance.
- (v) The class size is too large for effective teaching.
- (vi) Children are mostly from the lower class.
- (vii) Children have interest in studies.
- (viii) Too much time is spent on discipline and behavior problems.
- (ix) The school administrator has failed to provide effective leadership.
- (x) Parents are not much concerned whether their children attend school or work at their lessons.
- (xi) Parents interfere in the affairs of the school.
- (xii) Teachers have little freedom in the choice of Text books, methods of teaching and methods of discipline.
- (xiii) The school equipment and materials are neither adequate nor up to the mark.
- (xiv) There are too many interruptions during teaching.
- (xv) Transfer of teachers is very frequent.
- (xvi) Pupils change schools far too often.
- (xvii) The curriculum is not suited to the intellectual or social needs of children.
- (xviii) There is not enough space for holding the classes or organizing co-curricular activities.
- (xix) Proper facilities for water, toilets, fans and lights or not there.

14. Given a choice, which groups of children from the following would you like to teach?

- a) Rural children 1
- b) Lower class children 2
- c) Children of white collar workers & professional classes 3

- d) Children from rich commercial classes 4
e) Mixed children 5

15. Children of which ability would you like to teach?

- a) Children of high intelligence 1
b) Children of average intelligence 2
c) Children of below intelligence 3
d) Children of all intelligence 4
e) Children of any intelligence 5

16. Given below are number of statements. Indicate your choice of agreement or disagreement with each one of them.

(i) Parents should make all sacrifices in order to give education to their children?

- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2

(ii) These days, teachers take more interest in their salaries than in their work?

- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2

(iii) Teaching slum children is more a challenge than a nuisance?

- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2

(iv) Teaching is the noblest of all the professions?

- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2

(v) Suppose you could go back in time and have access to professions other than teaching, would you still choose the teaching profession?

- a) Probably Yes 1
b) Probably No 2

(vi) A good teacher pays more attention to discipline than to teaching?

- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2

(vii) If a teacher maintains an affectionate relationship with his pupils, the pupils learn more?

- a) Agree 1

- b) Do not agree 2
- (viii) When a teacher expects good work from his pupils, the pupils fulfill his expectations
- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2
- (ix) Teachers should pay special attention to weak and backward children
- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2
- (x) Teachers in poverty area schools are usually sympathetic to their pupils
- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2
- (xi) When a student does not understand a lesson, it is usually his own fault
- a) Agree 1
b) Do not agree 2
17. In your opinion, what type of teachers would be most suitable for teaching in schools which are attended mostly by slum or poor children?
- a) All teachers from social castes 1
b) Most teacher from lower castes 2
c) Most teachers from higher and middle classes 3
d) Half the teachers from scheduled caste and lower classes 4
e) All teachers from middle and higher classes 5

Interview Schedule for Pupils

1. Name of the Pupil:

Sex:

Age:

House located and Father's occupation:

Place:

Name of School:

Standard/Class:

2. Including you, how many people live in your home?

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| a) 1-4 | 1 |
| b) 5-8 | 2 |
| c) 9-12 | 3 |
| d) More than 12 | 4 |

3. Is your mother employed outside home?

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| a) Yes, she is employed, full time | 1 |
| b) Yes, she is employed, part time | 2 |
| c) Not employed | 3 |

If employed, what work is she doing?

4. How much education have your parents received?

S. No.	Education level	Father	Mother
1	Illiterate		
2	Can read and write a little		
3	Primary (Class V)		
4	Middle (Class VIII)		
5	High school (Class X)		
6	Intermediate (Class XII)		
7	B.A./B.Sc./B.Com		
8	M.A./M.Sc./M.Com		

5. How many of your brothers and sisters are not attending school?

6. How many of them have received or are receiving following levels of education?

State only the highest level.

S. No.	Level of education	No. of Brothers & Sisters
1	Class V	
2	Class VIII	
3	Class X	
4	Class XII	
5	B.A./B.Sc./B.Com	
6	M.A./M.Sc./M.Com	

7. How many of your brothers and sisters are working?
8. Excluding kitchen, bathroom and toilet, how many rooms are there n your home?
- a) One 1
- b) Two 2
- c) More than two 3

9. Do you have following facilities in your home?

S. No.	Facility	Yes	No	Yes, but not in right condition
1	Tap water			
2	Electricity			

10. Below is given a list of items of household use. Put a tick mark against those which are there in your home.
- a) Bicycle
- b) Scooter
- c) T.V./Radio
- d) Almirah
- e) Cooking gas
- f) Electric fan
- g) Books for general reading
- h) Toilet
- i) Natural light

11. When you need help in your studies, do you get it from your parents or from brothers or sisters?
- a) Never 1
- b) Sometimes 2
- c) Often 3
- d) Always 4

12. How often your parents talk to you about your studies?
- a) Almost daily 1
- b) Once or twice a week 2
- c) Once or twice a month 3
- d) Never 4

13. What kind of a student your parents want you to be?
- a) The best student in the class 1
- b) A very good student 2
- c) A good student 3
- d) Don't know 4

14. What is the final level of education upto which your parents want you to study?
- a) Upto primary school 1
 - b) Upto middle school 2
 - c) Upto high/ intermediate school 3
 - d) Upto college 4
15. How much time does it take you to reach the school from your home?
- a) Less than 15 minutes 1
 - b) 15-30 minutes 2
 - c) About 30 minutes 3
 - d) About 1 hour 4
16. How do you go to school?
- a) On foot 1
 - b) On bicycle 2
 - c) By bus 3
 - d) By scooter 4
17. Are you able to understand much of what is taught in the school?
- a) Yes 1
 - b) No 2
18. Do you find studies interesting?
- a) Yes, very much 1
 - b) Yes, much 2
 - c) Yes, a little 3
 - d) Not at all 4
19. Do you have interesting games and activities in your school?
- a) Yes 1
 - b) No 2
20. Do you like your school?
- a) Yes, very much 1
 - b) Yes, much 2
 - c) Yes, a little 3
 - d) Not at all 4
21. Do you ever feel like not attending the school?
- a) Yes, very frequently 1
 - b) Yes, sometimes 2
 - c) Yes, frequently 3
 - d) No, never 4

22. Given a choice, would you like to change your present school?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2
- c) Probably 3

23. Do you participate in the following co-curricular activities organized by your school?

S. No.	Activities	Very much	Much	A little	Not at all
1	Games & sports				
2	Music				
3	Dancing				
4	Dramatics				
5	Debate/discussions				
6	Excursions				
7	Handicraft				

24. Do you watch T.V. programmes?

- a) No, never 1
- b) Yes, sometimes 2
- c) Yes, frequently 3
- d) Yes, daily 4

25. What kind of student do you want to become?

- a) The best student in the class 1
- b) A good student 2
- c) An average student 3
- d) Do not know 4

26. Which of the following subjects do you find difficult?

- a) English 1
- b) Mathematics 2
- c) General Science 3
- d) Social Studies 4

27. Have you ever failed in any class?

Yes-1 No-2

If yes, in which class/classes did you fail?

- a) Class I 1
- b) Class II 2
- c) Class III 3
- d) Class IV 4
- e) Class V 5

28. How do teachers appear to you?

- a) Loving 1
- b) Sympathetic 2
- c) Helpful 3
- d) Hostile 4
- e) Any other, please mention 5

29. Are you being taught by any shadow teacher?

- a) Yes 1
- b) No 2

30. If you had some money with which you could buy only one of the three things mentioned below, which one would you prefer to buy?

- a) A children's magazine or a book 1
- b) Some edible things 2
- c) Some toys 3

31. In your opinion, why do your parents send you to school?

- a) To get rid of your mischief 1
- b) To turn you into a great man 2
- c) Because others are sending their children to school. 3
- d) Because they think it is necessary to go to school. 4
- e) Do not know.

छात्र का नाम –

स्कूल का नाम –

भाषा का माध्यम –

Acheivement Test of Class V

Subject - Hindi

Time - 1 Hrs.

- प्र01 निम्नलिखित शब्दों में किन्हीं 4 के विलोम लिखिए – 4
- क. उचित
- ख. मित्रता
- ग. स्वीकार
- घ. गुण
- ड. मानव
- च. विमल
- छ. आग
- प्र02 नीचे लिखे शब्दों के 2-2 पर्यायवाची लिखिए – 4
- क. आकाश
- ख. चन्द्रमा
- प्र03 अनेक शब्दों के लिए एक शब्द लिखो – 4
- क. मन की कामना करने वाला
- ख. दूसरों पर उपकार करने वाला
- ग. कविता की रचना करने वाला

- घ. सत्य के लिए आग्रह
- प्र04 निम्नलिखित मुहावरों का अर्थ लिखकर अपने वाक्यों में प्रयोग करो –
4
- क. घी के दिये जलाना
- ख. नौ दो ग्यारह होना
- ग. सिर ऊंचा करना
- प्र05 निम्नलिखित शब्दों के अर्थ लिखिए – 4
- क. कसूर
- ख. दिव्य
- ग. भग्न
- घ. हुज्जत
- प्र06 नीचे लिखे विशेषण शब्दों को संज्ञा में बदलिए – 4
- क. दीन
- ख. सरल
- ग. सफेद
- घ. बुरा
- प्र07 नीचे लिखे शब्दों की वर्तनी शुद्ध कीजिए – 4
- क. दिवार
- ख. हूज्जत
- ग. गणेरिया

घ.	आकास	
प्र08	बहुवचन बनाइये –	4
क.	बेटी	
ख.	लड़का	
ग..	माला	
घ.	जलेबी	
प्र09	नीचे लिखे शब्दों के जोड़े बनाइये –	4
	तन	पुरुष
	मन	स्त्री
	धूम	दिन
	रात	धाम
प्र10	कोष्ठक में उपयुक्त शब्द चुनकर रिक्त स्थानों की पूर्ति कीजिए –	4
क.	नगर तो बड़ा सुंदर है परभी सुंदर मिले तो आनन्द हो। (भोग, रूपये, भिक्षा)	
ख.	इस समय ऐसी शुभ घड़ी में जो मरेगाजायेगा। (नरक, सीधा स्वर्ग)	

Name of Pupil:

Name of School:

Medium:

Achievement Test of 5th Class

English

Duration: 1 Hour

Total Marks: 40

Note: Attempt all questions:

Q 1. Match the word in "A" with "B" 5

A

B

Cannot

you're

I am

it's

You are

let's

Let us

I'm

It is

can't

Q 2. Fill in the blanks 5

De_e_be_, B__K, B__uti_ul, G_rd_n, Af_er_oon

Q 3. Very short type questions:

5x2=10

- i. Which month comes after July?
- ii. Write the name of your country?
- iii. Which is the festival of colours?
- iv. Which day Independence day is celebrated?
- v. What is the national animal of our country?

Q 4. Write the meaning of following words? 4

Festival

Crop

Country

Window

Q 5. Give one word for the following answers: 4

- i. In which state do you live?
- ii. Write the name of a river of India.
- iii. What types of clothes do you wear in winter?
- iv. Which animal has a hump on his body?

Q 6. Write opposite of the following words. 2

Up

Happy

Slow

Here

Q 7. Fill in the blanks: 4

- i. There are..... months in a year.
- ii. July comes.....after.
- iii. December comes before.....
- iv.is the first month of the year.

Q 8. Name the following animals: 3

- i. Pet animals,
- ii. Wild animals,
- iii. Domestic animals,

Q 9. Find out the describing words (adjectives): 2

- i. It was a cold morning.
- ii. Rose is a beautiful flower.

Q 10. Write past tense of the following words: 1

- i. Write
- ii. Sing

छात्र का नाम –

स्कूल का नाम –

भाषा का माध्यम –

Acheivement Test of Class V

Subject - Maths

Time - 1 Hrs.

Q1. Write Table of 12 4

12 का पहाड़ा लिखिए ।

Q2 Addition - (जोड़ कीजिये) 4

1. $43570 + 26095 =$

2. $325708 + 246805 =$

Q3. Subtract - (घटाइये)

1. $7637 - 3522 =$

2. $8643 - 4342 =$

Q4. 250 Mangoes are plucked from a tree of Raju's Mango garden. from another tree 450 mangoes are plucked. How many mangoes are plucked from garden ?

राजू एक आम के बगीचे में जाता है, वहां वह एक पेड़ से 250 आम तोड़ता है, दूसरे पेड़ से 450 आम तोड़ता है। उस बागीचे में कुल कितने आम तोड़े गये।

- Q5. Multiply - (गुणा कीजिए) 4
1. $53 \times 28 =$
2. $64 \times 33 =$
- Q6 Division - (भाग कीजिए) 4
1. $372 / 12 =$
2. $213 / 14 =$
- Q7. A goat cost is 750 rupees. What will be the cost of 50 such goats ? 4
एक बकरी की कीमत 750 रुपये है, तो 50 बकरियों की कीमत क्या होगी?
- Q8. 200 man can dig a pond in 15 days. How many more men are to be appointed to dig a pond in 10 days ? 4
200 लोग एक तालाब को 15 दिन में खोदते हैं, तो एक तालाब को 10 दिन में खोदने के लिए कितने आदमी लगेंगे ?
- Q9 Find the CHF - 4
दी गयी संख्या का म0स0प0 ज्ञात कीजिए।
6, 9, 12
- Q10 Find the LCM of - 4
दी गयी संख्या का ल0स0प0 ज्ञात कीजिए।
9, 12, 18

Some Other Relevant Studies on Primary Education

Richard and Qian (2011) studied the role of instructional program coherence in beginning elementary teachers' induction experiences. This article draws on interview data to analyze how instructional program coherence in 7 elementary schools in 2 Michigan districts seemed to affect novice teachers' induction experiences. It was considered how district policy that related to the language arts curriculum, teacher assignment, and professional development seemed to affect both instructional program coherence in language arts at the study participants' schools and the quality of their induction experiences.

Pashiardis (2000) in the study *School climate in elementary and secondary schools: views of Cypriot principals and teachers*, aims to examine the present beliefs of elementary and secondary school principals and teachers concerning their school's climate. Investigated four parameters related to school climate, namely: communication, collaboration, organizational structure, and students. It was concluded that the above areas are in most need of improvement. Based on gender, one general comment would be that men seemed to feel worse about their particular school's climate than women. Further, more experienced teachers had slightly different views when compared with less experienced teachers in two parameters organizational structure and students.

Cicmil (1997) in the study *Implications of organizational and individual learning for effective change management in education – an exploratory study of management practices in elementary schools in England and Finland*, presented a work-in-progress report on an exploratory study of change management in education. Aims to investigate management processes employed in a sample of schools in the times of change and an increased demand for effectiveness and higher quality in the sector. It was proposed the next research steps in deriving good management practices to be employed in managing change and quality in schools, addressing an emerging dimension of the phenomenon known as “personal compacts”. Incorporates a comparative, cross-cultural aspect by addressing similar problems in two different national environments; the UK and Finland.

Lyndem (1985) in the study *A Critical Study of Developmental Plans and Programmes in Primary Education in the State of Meghalaya since Independence*,

found that there was progress in respect of various aspects of primary education like establishment of new schools, strength of teachers, enrolment of students (though there were fluctuations some times in the enrolment figures). Financial assistance sanctioned by the state government to the district councils relating to various aspects of primary education increased. There was an increasing trend in the expenditure on both general and primary education. Meghalaya had implemented several developmental programmes in the field of primary education to achieve the goal of universalization. But some of the programmes were implemented only in few schools.

Johnson and Edward (2001) in their study Holdaway, Effectiveness of Primary Schools. Both the criteria which can be used to assess the effectiveness of schools and the means by which effectiveness can be increased have received considerable attention during the last two decades. These criteria have usually been shown to revolve around school climate, leadership, shared decision making effective teaching, and parental and community involvement. However, identification of universal criteria has been criticized on grounds such as poor methodology, differences in context and culture, assumptions of causality, and neglect of the influence of the external environment. Primary schools have goals and styles of emphasis was placed on climate, high expectations for students, leadership, the morale and satisfaction of staff and students, effective teaching and student attitudes.

Ahmad (1980) “Educational Opportunities and Socio- Economic Changes Among the Muslim Backward Classes, Non-Muslim Backward Classes and Scheduled Castes of Faizabad District during the Post-independence period a Comparative Study”. The objective of the study was to find out the impact of education on attitudes towards certain social institutions, occupations, income, adoption of family planning, children education, leisure-time activities and friendship patterns among Muslim Backward Classes, Non-Muslim Backward Classes and Scheduled Castes. An attitude scale constructed by the investigator was administered to a representative sample of 360 rural and 360 urban respondents. The urban and rural respondents were categorized into four groups on the basis of their educational status. Educational and occupational status was converted into numerical values with the help of Kuppaswamy’s socio-economic status scale. Pareek and Trivedi’s scale served to convert caste groups into numerical values. The findings of the study / revealed that: i) the education exerted a favourable influence in changing the attitudes of both the

rural and the urban respondents of the three communities towards social institutions like family, religion, marriage caste, education, status of women and family planning. ii) the Muslim Backward Classes were more conservative than Non- Muslim Backward Classes to Scheduled Castes.iii) the rural Muslim Backward Classes were more conservative than urban Muslim Backward Classes, but there was not significant difference between the attitude of rural and urban Non-Muslim Backward Classes and Scheduled Castes. iv) there was a positive correlation between educational status and education income of the three communities, and was highest for Scheduled Castes. v) The average of Scheduled Castes was significantly higher than that of Non-Muslim Backward Classes and Muslim Backward Classes of similar educational status. vi) the urban Muslim Backward Classes spent more on the education of children than rural Non-Muslim Backward Classes and Scheduled Castes. vii) the educational status helped in the development of, the bonds of friendship transcending the barriers of caste and colour.

Awasthi (1992) “Equality in Educational Opportunities of Muslim Girl Students in Bhopal.” The study included the utilisation of educational facilities available in the school to Muslim girl students, the role of the parents in this regard and the factors that abstract Muslim girls students from getting school education. Questionnaires, an interview schedule and observation guides were the tools used for collection of data. The samples were taken from both Hindu and Muslim girls studying in classes IX, X, & XI in 14 girls higher secondary schools. It was found that Muslim girl students use educational opportunities to a lower extend than Non-Muslim girl students. They also lag behind in academic achievement. The problems faced by them are, the long distance of schools from their residence, lack of Urdu Medium Schools, conservative social attitude and the presence of purdah.

Bernstein (1961) “Social Structure, Language & Learning.” Bernstein, Basil hold that lower class children’s difficulties in school stem chiefly from their poor language development due to insufficient and defective verbal communication in the home where parents are uneducated and have little time or ability to develop the necessary language skills among their children through conversation, answering of questions and explanation of various phenomena. When new concepts and transactional terms are to be acquired verbally i.e. by definition and context from speech and reading rather than by abstraction from direct and concrete experience, the

lower class child would suffer from the paucity of obstructions in the everyday vocabulary of his elders, from the rarity of stimulating conversation in the home, from the relative absence of books, magazines and newspapers and from the lack of example of a reading adult in the family.

Ausubel and Bhoyar (1990) “A Study of the Expectation of the Parents of the Children from the Teachers and their Wards concerning the Educational Achievements.” Bhoyar, worked on the expectations of the parents of the school children from the teachers and their wards, and the bearing of these expectations on the educational achievement of the students. The study was based upon data collected from parents of 450 students taken from class X urban, semi-urban and rural schools in Nagpur Division. The findings revealed that parents expected the teachers to regularly give home work to the students, to go through their homework and acquaint them with the progress of their wards. The teachers were also expected to understand the difficulties of parents and not insist on books, exercise books and uniforms, and to supply the same from the school. They were to work with devotion and honesty, give individual guidance and hold extra classes for students free of cost. They should not allow unfair means in the examination nor should they engage in similar practices themselves. They should also organise extra-curricular activities like discussions and competitions. They should give more attention to quantitative progress, reduce the importance given to examinations and keep continuous contact with the parents. The parents also had a number of expectations from their wards. They were to go to school regularly, pursue their studies seriously and participate in different school activities, and help their siblings in their studies and the parents in their household work. They were expected to keep good company, respect elders, get education to earn money, stay at home after school hours and earn money during holidays. They should not watch television and movies. They should not participate in politics, or use unfair means in the examinations. They were to read newspapers and good books.

Bloom (1965) “Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation.” Bloom, has shown that more than half of the differences in performance on conventional intelligence tests found at the end of high school could be accounted for by differences at the age of 6 i.e. at the beginning of regular schooling. In other words, these differences are there when children first enter school, and what is more, they go

in increasing progressively with the passage of time eventually causing a cumulative deficit.

Chinnappan (1987) "Equalisation of Educational Opportunities." The objectives of the study are: i) To assess the extent of disparity in income distribution within and between caste groups; ii) To assess the extent of disparity in the distribution of human capital (particularly education) within and between caste groups ; iii) To identify sources of inequality income distribution ; iv) To estimate the effect of various factors, such as human capital related factors, labour market related factors and family background related factors on the income distribution of scheduled as well as non-scheduled castes ; v) To find out the extent to which disparity in earnings was reflected over the life-time of an individual ; vi) To pin-point the amount of variation in earning that could be solely ascribed to differential and endowment of human capital, and that due to discrimination in the labour market; vii) To estimate the functional relationship between one's family background, educational attainment, occupational attainment and income and the deduce the cumulative contribution of the education. Variable to one's economic success, and viii) To analyse the influence of education on social mobility.

The required data were collected through a labour forces survey conducted by the investigator in Madurai District, Tamil Nadu. Madurai District shares a border with Kerala. Scheduled Castes are 15.33% of the total population of the district. The percentage of working of population in Madurai District is 43.9%. The percentage of Scheduled Castes in the labour force is 51.9% in the District. From the list of villages of Madurai District, three villages from each Taluka were selected randomly for the study. Besides, all the three Taluka headquarters and two city areas of Madurai city were included in the sample. In addition, three more villages from other Talukes of the District and one more town were added to the sample. About 20, 5 and 2 percent of households were contacted in the selected villages, towns and city areas respectively. Individual survey schedules were administered to wage earners in the households. The survey did not include the self-employed, businessmen, farmers, landlords and unemployed, whose earned income could not be easily ascertained. In all, 1180 individual survey schedules could be collected. The survey schedule contained question relating to the individuals characteristics, his occupation, the

labour market condition in which he worked, his family background, his residence and the quality and quantity of schooling.

The major findings of the study are :i) the percentages of persons earning below Rs. 400.00 per month were 54, 44, 23 & 13 among SC, DC, OBC and FC respectively. ii) the average monthly earnings of SC, DC, OBC and FC were Rs. 631.00, Rs. 910.00 and Rs. 1051.00 respectively. Thus there was a pronounced degree of disparity between the income distribution of SC's and NSC's. iii) the proportion of uneducated workers were 44, 25, 12 & 13% among SC, DC, OBC & FC respectively. The average level of schooling in these groups was 5.9 years, 7.4 years, 10.4 years and 11.4 years respectively. The average level of schooling of NSC's as a whole was much higher than the average level of schooling of SC's. iv) the average level of experience attained in the labour market of SC's did not differ very much from that of NSC's. The difference in the average level of experience between SC's and WSC's according to different levels of education was also not significant. v) the social advancement of the caste groups and the level and the shape of their, income distributions were correlated. A similar relationship was observed between the social advancement if the caste groups and the level and the shape of their educational distributions. There was inverse relationship between the social advancement of the caste groups and their inequality and direct relationship between the social advancement of the caste groups and the level of their educational distributions.vi) the structure of income distributions and the pattern of educational distributions were very closely associated. A high degree of income inequality was related to a high degree of educational inequality. vii) the variations in earnings were largely explained by individual differences arising from the nature of employment, size of the employing firms, endowment of human capital and occupational attainment. Through the family background did not have much direct influence as earnings, it did have a significant indirect role to play in the economic success of SC's as well as NSC's by determining their educational and occupational attainment. viii) the average earnings of SC's were less than those of NSC's due to main reasons. The differential endowment of productive economic characteristics and the existence of discriminators in the labour market. ix) the education was a crucial factor that explained income inequality between SC's and NSC's. In the case of NSC's is higher levels of education were followed by higher returns of education. On the contrary, higher levels

of education did not yield very high returns over lower levels of education in the case of SC's. The pattern of occupational distribution, which was primarily the result of educational distribution, was another cause for the earnings gaps between SC's and NSC's.x) the parents education level and the educational attainment of children was closely associated.

Coleman (1966) "Equality of Educational Opportunity."Section 40 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (U.S.A.) provided that the U.S. Office of Education should undertake a Survey of Educational Opportunity so as to ascertain the lack of availability of equal educational opportunities for individuals by reason or race, colour, religion or national origin in public educational institutions at all levels in the U.S.A., its territories and possessions and the District Columbia. It was entrusted to a team headed by James S. Coleman. The report was released two years later in July, 1966 (Coleman et al. 1966).A series of achievement tests and questionnaires were administered to more than 6,00,000 students of grades I, III, VI, IX, XII & XIII in 4,000 elementary and secondary schools. The achievement tests comprised standardised measures of non-verbal ability and tests of reading and mathematics for all grades. From grade IX onwards, a test of general information was also used. Since the verbal ability test scores should more variation than other test scores, they were selected as the chief measures of academic ability. In addition to these tests, questionnaires were administered to pupils on a series of variables 38related to themselves, their parents and their studies. Questionnaires were also administered to the Superintendents, Principals and Teachersof the school in the sample. The findings of the study revealed that: i) the minority groups students scored less than whites in grade I. Their scores went on decreasing as they reached higher standards. This meant that the initial deficiency of minority groups children increased progressively with the rises in the educational level. ii) the S.E.S. of children bore a strong relationship to their achievement. Within each racial group, the strong relation offamily and economic and social status to achievement did not diminish over the period of the school and actually it did increase over the elementary stage.iii) the differences between schools accounted for only a small fraction of differences in pupil achievement. Most of the variation in school achievement lay within the same school and only very little of it between schools. iv) the academic achievement, especially in case of minority students, was strongly related to the educational backgrounds and

aspirations of other students in the school. The student body composition had again the strongest effect on between school differences. A strong 'sense of control over environment' had the greatest effect on achievement than all school factors combined. v) the racial integration where minority group students were not a majority seemingly improved the level of achievement for them without lowering it for others. vi) the neighbourhood schools in slums which came closest to taking full advantage of their student inputs were those with generally greater resources, higher per pupil instructional expenditure, a more challenging curriculum, more laboratories and more activities. vii) the school facilities and curriculum were much less related to achievement than were the attributes of a child's-students in the school.

Gupla (1980) "Equality of Educational Opportunity and Muslims." The objectives of the study were to find out whether : i) The Muslim students enrolled in the schools were proportionate to the strength of the Muslims in the total population of the locality which the school served; ii) The percentage of Hindu and Muslim girls enrolled in schools was proportionate to the strength of Hindus and Muslims, respectively, of the locality which the school served; iii) The prescribed textbooks contained elements which alienated the Muslim students from the school; iv) The school culture discriminated between the students of the two communities; v) The absence of mother tongue as the medium of instruction created any unfavourable reaction in the Muslim students and parents; vi) The proportion of Muslim students decreased as they went up the ladder of education; vii) The school culture, absence of mother tongue and medium of instruction, contents of the textbooks, and absence of facilities of teaching urdu discriminated between areas with high and low proportion of Muslims, and also affected the attitudes of the parents towards schooling, and also their relationship with the achievement of Muslim students. The study was conducted on one hundred and eleven schools from four Districts of Uttar Pradesh one hundred students and parents (Muslims) were also interviewed from the selected schools in the four Districts. Data were collected by using a school information blank, and two interview schedules, one for the students and one for the parents. The students were from classes VI to X. Data were collected through personal visits by the investigator. The data analysis made use of frequency distribution, chi-square, and phi-co-efficient of correlation. The results revealed that: i) in the four Districts under study, the distribution of Hindu and Muslim population was 79 and 21, respectively, whereas the

enrolment ratio between the communities was 93:7.ii) the pass percentage of Hindu's as compared that of the Muslims in each District and in the total sample was higher and the difference was statistically significant.iii) the text books in Hindu, compulsory Sanskrit and Social Studies in all the classes between VI and X contained contents which might not be liked by the minority community because of certain religious overtones. iv) all the Muslim students and parents interviewed expressed their desire to have Urdu as the medium of instruction while all the sampled schools had Hindi as the medium of instruction. v) in all, only ten out of the sampled 111 school had facilities for teaching Urdu. vi) from the ten schools, 165 Muslim boys and three Muslim girls appeared for exam, the pass percentage was 100% for the girls and 97.5% for the boys, no Hindu student offered Urdu as a subject.vii) the drama, prayers, the use of pictures and paintings, the writings on wall in Hindi, the invitees and visitors to the schools indicted a culture bias towards the majority. viii) the contents of the textbook, the school culture, the lack of facilities for learning urdu and the absence of mother tongue as the medium created disinterest in parents to send eligible children to school. ix) there was a decrease in the enrolment of Muslims in classes VI to VIII whereas in classes IX & X the decrease was for both Hindus and Muslims.

Hunt (1961) "Intelligence and Experience." The results revealed that the deficient home environment seems to be the principal reason for underdeveloped intelligence and low academic achievement of slum children among whom the range of intellectual potential should be as normal as among other children. Intelligence grows out of experience with objects and people, but lower class homes fail to provide a variety of objects, play things and stimuli to the child's sense of sight, hearing, touch, feeling and so on.

Jencks (1973) "Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effects of Family Schooling on America." The purpose of the above study seems to be ascertaining the of educational opportunity as a means of equalising income. In the 1960's, a war on poverty was declared in the U.S.A., the basic strategy of which was to give comparable cognitive skill through schools to everyone entering the job market so that nobody would end up very high or very poor.The basic assumptions behind this strategy were that poverty can be eliminated by helping poor children, who lack basic cognitive skills like reading, writing, computation and communication, acquire them

through school reform comprising common schools for all, compensatory programmes for the disadvantaged, and involvement of the parents and the community.

Jencks and his associates studied the above assumptions by means of secondary analysis of data collected earlier for a number of previous studies like the Coleman study of Equality of Educational Opportunity, the project talent, the veterans study of 1964, Sir Cyril Burt's Study of Identical Twins, Duncan's studies of Occupational Change and Socio-economic structure, and so on. The findings of the study are: i) the access to school resources was quite unequal. Utilization of school resources was even more unequal. While access to white middle class class-mates was also quite unequal, most students were in the curriculum of their choice. ii) the both genetic and environmental inequality played a major role in producing cognitive inequality. Those who started life with genetic advantages tended also to get environmental advantages like treatment from others. No evidence was found that difference between school contributed significantly to cognitive inequality, nor could specific genetic or environmental determinants of test performance be identified. iii) the family background has much more influence than I.Q. genotype on an individual's educational attainment which depended partly on SES and partly on social and cultural characteristics. The effect of cognitive skills on educational attainment was significant. Qualitative differences between schools played a very minor role in determining how much schooling people eventually get. iv) the occupational status was to be quite closely tied to educational attainment although there was much variation between the status of persons with equal educational attainment. Both family background and cognitive skills influenced occupational status. This they did largely by influencing the amount of schooling one got. v) the variation in income was harder to explain than variation in occupational status. Educational credentials influenced the occupations men entered, but credentials did not have much effect on their incomes afterwards. Family background and cognitive skills had an overall moderate influence on a person's income. Genes, too, had very little effect on income. Therefore, it could be safely said that there was as much income variation among men who came from similar families, had similar credentials and test scores as among men in general. This suggested either that competence did not depend primarily on family background, schooling and test scores or else that income did not depend on competence.

Mosley and Spicker (1975) “Main streaming for the Educationally Deprived.” The results revealed that the causes of poor academic performance of disadvantaged children have been attributed to children themselves on their homes. However, there is ample evidence that the learning difficulties that these children suffer have their origins in the home as well as in the school. While the slum child is unable to perceive, cognize, communicate verbally and behave socially as the middle class children do, his academic performance and problems may be viewed as function of the inability of the schools programmes to relate to his particular type of cognitive functioning. The cognitive, metric and social behaviour exhibited by educationally deprived children are appropriate by educationally deprived children are appropriate and adequate for the home environment, but are inadequate for a middle-class oriented curriculum. These children will not show evidence of low cognitive functioning when their instructional programming needs are met.

Qadri, B.N. F. (1981): “Availability of Educational Opportunity to and their utilization by the Muslim Community of Pilibhit District of Utter Pradesh.” The objectives of the study were : i) To assess the educational facilities (quantitative and qualitative) available to the Muslim students from classes I to XII in comparison to the non-Muslim ;ii) To find out the reasons that hindered the utilization of educational opportunities by the Muslims; and iii) To suggest measures that should be taken to help the Muslim children utilize the available educational opportunities. Data were collected from 300 heads of institutions, random samples of 200 Muslim and 200 Non-Muslim students and 500 Muslim parents of Pilibhit District. Specially designed questionnaire and schedules were used for the survey.

The major findings were: i) the number of schools exclusively for the Muslims was insufficient. ii) the enrolment of the Muslims at the Primary stage was 28% of the total enrolment, which was satisfactory, because the Muslims constituted 28% of the total population iii) the proportion of the Muslim teachers at the higher stages of education was very low, being only 8% of the total number of teachers. iv) the quality of education as evidenced by school buildings, co curricular activities, teachers aids employed, scholarships to the deserving and the salary of teachers was below standard for both the Muslims and the Non-Muslims. v) the important elements in the society which hindered the utilization of educational opportunities were illiteracy and low socio-economic status of parents, non-availability of urdu as a

medium of instruction, urdu books and the Muslim schools, in higher classes, lack of confidence in the Muslim students, hesitation of parents to send their daughters to co educational institutions and their wards to institutions situated in predominantly Hindu areas, alienation of the Muslim children from their religion by some practices of the present system of education, e.g. holding hands at mass prayers, participation in non-Muslim religions functions.

Rath, R. (1972)¹⁷ : “Cognitive Growth and Classroom Learning of Culturally Deprived Children in Primary Schools.” The results revealed that the important source of the lower class child’s failure is the teacher. Because of the tremendous influence that teachers have over the instructional programming of children, they represent the dominant variable effecting the school performance and behaviour of children in general and of educationally deprived children in particular. However, middle-class-oriented teachers tend to when children unfavourably who do not dress neatly and are unable to show socially desirable behaviour according to middle class standards. Also they may succumb unwillingly to thinking that lower class children are unable to learn and hence they would waste effort trying to teach them.

Seetharamu, A. S. (1980)¹⁹ : “Education in Slums: a study of the Utilisation of Educational Facilities by Slum-dwellers of Bangalore City in relation to their Social and Economic change, Bangalore.” The major objective of the study was to find out the participatory behaviour in schooling in slum areas and the utilisation of educational facilities by those slum-dwellers who participated in the schooling process. The study was conducted in Bangalore city. A total number of 20 slums and a sample of 1,000 children, 500 drop-outs and 500 regular children, were selected at the rate of 25 drop-outs and 25 regular children from 50 households per slum by the stratified random sampling. Data were collected through interviews.

The following were the major findings : i) the total drop-out rates at the end of standards I, II, III & IV were 46.2, 24.20, 19.00 & 9.60%, respectively. ii) the mothers in unskilled occupations contributed the highest percentage of drop-outs, while housewives contributed the highest percentage of drop-outs, of regular children. However, it was observed that the size of the family was an intervening factor. iii) the percentage of drop-outs decreased steadily with the increase in the income of the father till an optimum level was reached, 53 beyond which the difference between the

percentages of dropouts and regular children was not much. iv) the tendency for regularity in attendance was higher when the number of adults in the family was more than two and it was lower when the number of children in the family was more than two.v) while the nearness of the school from home was no guarantee for retention of children in school, a distant school did discourage children from being regular. vi) the medium of instruction appeared to be a very significant school variable in the participatory behaviour of children. vii) as many as 38.60% the drop-outs did not work at home, while

61.40% did some work or the other at home. viii) of the drop-outs who were engaged in paid work, the majority worked for more than seven hours a day spread over the whole day. However, their work spots were either at home or close by. Of these 82.84% got less than Rs. 75% mensum. ix) the hardly 4.20% of the drop-outs had failed at school. The rest, 95.80% had just left school. x) the slums contributed significantly to the overall figures of the data on physically handicapped children in the State. xi) the majority of children in slum areas, 56.40% received mid-day meals during the recess time in school. But it was found that the mid-day meals scheme had failed to serve the poorest section of 54 society adequately, specially those children whose fathers income was less than Rs. 100/- per month. It served better those children whose mothers were unemployed and earned an income than those mothers were housewives. xii) the pre-matric scholarships scheme benefited 37.80% of the slum dwellers. The attendance scholarship scheme was available to 63.60% of eligible girl students in slums. xiii) in terms of fathers income the scheme of free supply of textbooks (by the Govt.) benefited lower income brackets.

Seshadri (1980) "Equality of Educational Opportunity a Philosophical Study." The objectives of the study were : i) To analyse the concepts of equality, equality of opportunity and equality of educational opportunity, and ii) To critically examine, in the light of such an analysis, and against the India socio-philosophical-cultural perspective, the issues relating to the policies and practices of equality of educational opportunity. The philosophical method employed for the first objective while for the second objective the descriptive and comparative method was employed. Material for the study was collected after an intensive and critical review of available literature in the form of books, research papers and articles and the reports of national and international committees, commissions and conferences. The concepts equality,

equality of opportunity and some aspects of the concept equality of educational opportunity were elucidated, the available analyses of these concepts in the western philosophical literature were brought together, examined and synthesized with the Indian interpretations of the same mainly in the form of legal decisions on the subject. The logical features of the equality of educational opportunity were identified by noting the evolutionary shifts in the meaning of the concept and by critically examining its various interpretations in terms of specific educational prescriptions and practices during the different stages of its developmental history. The aspects of the concept that emerged were arranged in a developmental sequence (viz free education, compulsory schooling, common curriculum, diversification, special education, school inputs and equality of results, the cultural dimensions of education, limits of schooling as an equaliser and de-schooling). Each of these aspects was then thoroughly examined from the point of view of its implications to the meaning of equality of educational opportunity.

While dealing with the controversies relating to the policy and practice, the point of the controversy was first identified, the different points of view and the arguments advanced in support of them were examined to test for conceptual confusion and formal and informal fallacies were appraised with reference to the criteria of equality of educational opportunity and a reconciliation or synthesis worked out. The major conclusions of the study were : i) the idea of equality lays down the rule of impartial consideration, that no distinction should be made in the distribution of the good unless there were relevant grounds for doing so which involved an understanding of the logical relationship between the ground of differentiation and the nature of the good under distribution and also exercising normative judgements relating ultimately to one's notions of the highest good for the individual and the society. ii) the concept of equality of opportunity applied to the distribution of such good as was merit earned rather than need-demanded and the good that was necessarily limited, contingently, fortuitously or in more ways than one, it was a worthy social ideal to the extent it served as a means for the realisation of the higher ends of the individual and the society. It could not, by itself, constitute the summum bonum of life. iii) the equality of educational opportunity was the notion of equality of opportunity extended to the distribution of the good of education and the process of distribution both of which influenced and were influenced by the nature of

education in general, and by the content and the type of education at the different stages in particular. iv) the some of the problems inherent in the logic of equality of educational opportunity were the growth of a meritocratic and an equalitarian social order. v) the equality of educational opportunity implied provision of free, compulsory and universal primary education as a minimum condition and also implied making special educational provisions for those with special merits and special needs.vi) the equality of educational opportunity in its weak sense implied equalising the access to education by the manipulation of the educational inputs so as to help the disadvantaged overcome their starting handicaps and compete fairly with others, in its strong it implied equality, not merely of access but also of results. vii) the school curriculum which was the epitome of societal culture should not be conceived in narrow elitistic and middle class terms but should be so interpreted as to make it fair for the students from all sections of the society. viii) the equalitarianism was not opposed to the higher principles of religion, but only to ritualism, superstition, dogmatism and fatalism passing as religion in Indian thought and culture. ix) the cause of equality of educational opportunity will be better served by an effective implementation of universal primary education and by restricted expansion of secondary and higher education such that it may not tend to be unfair to any section of the population. x) the great caution needed to be exercised in the application of the merit criterion for the distribution of opportunities for higher education in view the unsolved controversies relating to the definition, identification, measurement and development of merit and its relation to genetic inheritance and environment. xi) the equality, being a moral principle, did not depend upon any empirical proposition asserting the existence or non-existence of genetically conditioned differences between men and women.xii) the social purpose of women's education should not be different from that of men's education. xiii) the argument for differentiated curricular for men and women was warranted by the sex differences and was not just a lover for the traditional prejudices.

Sharma (1974) "Equalisation and Utilisation of Educational Opportunity with reference to the Muslim Community in India." The purpose of the study was to make an objective assessment as to whether inequality of educational opportunity as felt by the Muslim Community in India really existed. For the purposes of this study, education was defined as provision of schools for all, provision of necessary

wherewithal to all the schools and equally attractive curricular offerings in terms of cultural heritage without any bias against any religious or cultural group. The study was conducted in the city of Delhi. It covered only the Urdu-medium primary and higher secondary schools where most Muslim children study. Some Hindi-medium schools were also taken for the purpose of comparison. A sample of 1989 children in classes VI, VIII & XI was taken, of whom 1344 were Muslims and 645 non-Muslims, 1126 boys and 863 girls. Also included in the study were all the Principals, Headmaster and Teachers in these schools, 50 parents of Muslim children and 45 prominent politicians, social workers and educationists. Data were collected in respect of family background, neighbourhoods, schools environment, social interaction of children and typical problems faced by the Muslim community in India through questionnaires, interview schedules, school records, and an intelligence test.

The findings of the study revealed that: i) the Muslim community was much behind other communities in the utilisation of educational opportunities in the utilisation of educational opportunities as shown by the 'co-efficient of equality' which came to 74.0 and 23.6 respectively at the primary and higher secondary levels of education. ii) the urdu-medium schools had poorer buildings, equipment and facilities. Most of them were located in highly congested hearts of the city in dilapidated and overcrowded buildings seriously lacking in ventilation, sanitation and basic amenities. The library facilities were both inadequate and poor in quality. iii) the non-availability of instruction in the mother tongue, father's disliking for the school and objectionable nature of the school programmes on religion grounds, these were the main reasons for not sending Muslim children to the neighbouring non-urdu "Schools. iv) the interviews with parents and public leaders revealed the following barriers in the way of Muslim children's education : a) Shortage of urdu-medium schools. b) Limited places in schools of their choice.c) Unrelatedness of education to job opportunities. d) Belief that modern education spoils the girls. v) the other reasons for low utilisation of educational opportunities were : a) Migration of Muslim to Pakistan and consequent neglect of their educational centres. b) High percentage of illiteracy among the Muslim masses. c) Lack of religions instruction in school. d) Prevalence of a fear that there was a direct attempt by the Government to impose on them, the culture of majority through the school programme. e) The prevailing bias

against urdu. f) Economic compulsions that did not allow parents to send their children to school.

The Muslim community's utilisation of educational opportunity was much below that of their communities due to a variety of reasons. Prominent among these reasons was the fact that the Muslims were emphatic about the inclusion of religious teaching in the school curriculum and this to a great extent accounted for their aversion to the modern system of education. Equality of educational opportunity could not be achieved by law alone, for this to happen, it was necessary to change the structure, character, practices and attitudes of society.

Sheikh (1983) "A Study of Life Style of Slum dwellers & its relation with Education" The major objectives of the study were : i) To study the life of slum-dwellers of Kisanwadi of Baroda in terms of their social, economic, health and occupational conditions ; ii) To study the educational status of the parents and children of Kisanwadi; iii) To study their awareness and utilisation of educational opportunities provided to them; and iv) To study their educational and vocational expectations and their attitude towards education. The sample was obtained by the stratified random sampling technique. It included 25 families with father, mother and one child from each family. The research tools comprised questionnaires and interview schedules.

The major findings were: i) the percentage of school-going children in the age group 6-14 was 72.33. ii) the uneducated families out numbered the uneducated males. iii) the about 27% of males and 5.36% of females had received education upto the secondary level. iv) the only 23.94% of the total population were earning members. About 56% of males were employed, 13% were self-employed, 24% worked on daily wages, and the remaining were unemployed. About 93% of the women were unemployed, 2.31% were in service, 1.58% were self-employed and 3.26% on daily wages. v) the gambling, drinking, prostitution and juvenile delinquency were widespread among the slum-dwellers. vi) The parents of 22 out of the 25 families could not get education themselves, but they had a positive attitude towards education.vii) the children of 13 families had got education and they showed a positive attitude towards education. The children of six families had received education, but showed a negative attitude towards education. viii) the some of the

reasons for not receiving education were helping parents in their work minding younger children at home, and poverty. The parents engaged their children in their family craft and did not see any purpose in education.

Silberman (1970) “Crisis in the classroom: The Remaking of American Education.” The results revealed that schools, fail less because of maliciousness than because of mindlessness. It is believed that children should be cut, or stretched or otherwise adjusted to fit the schools rather than adjusting the schools to fit the children.

Somrit (1985) “A Study of the non-formal Education needs of Slum population in Bangkok: Metro Politian Area of Thailand.” The major objectives of the study were : i) To investigate the surrounding status of slum areas in the Bangkok metropolitan of Thailand ; ii) To study the Non-Formal Education (NFE) programmes in slum areas ; iii) To gather general information about the NFA students in the slum areas ; iv) To know the educational needs of slum people to establish an effective NFE programmes, and v) To find out the problems of NFE in the slum areas.

The non-formal education needs of slum people were identified partially on the basis of experience in various fields and in various capacities and partially through interviewed. First, a stratified sample of slums was selected for study and then from these slums only samples of residents, students and organisations were selected. The number of families in a particular slum locality was the stratifying variable. There 63were 225 slums out of which 30 were covered under a door-to-door survey. In all, 504 respondents from the residents who lived in the slum areas and who ranged between 15 and 49 years of age were chosen by systematic random sampling from the 30 slums, in all 300 NFE students who got training between 1981 and 1983 were selected from 30 slums. Twenty two Government and private organisations working for non- formal education in slums were selected for the study.

The major findings were: i) the number of females staying in slums was higher than males. The majority of the slum-dwellers were Buddhists having elementary education who had migrated from different parts of the country in search of jobs. Their income level was less than a Rs. 3,900/- per month, 90% of them needed general exam by physicians, a majority of the families had no drainage facility but all had electricity facilities. ii) there were eighteen projects for providing occupations,

three programmes for region and language teaching and few for imparting specialised knowledge. There were twelve Governmental organisations, two foundations and eight associations to assemblies working for slum improvement.iii) the majority of students had finished elementary education. The monthly income of more than 60% of the students ranged from 1000 to 1500 bas per months. The majority of students had joined volunteer training and found the experiences of NFE useful for their occupation. iv) the slum dwellers needed training in sewing, cooking and baking for increasing their income. They were also interested in getting training for prevention of disaster like fire, etc.

Kumar (1993) in his survey of literature on childhood and family in India argues that influence of home environment and child-rearing practices upon schooling of children in India should be studied within the specifics of the Indian cultural context since childhood in India is a socially and culturally different experience from those of children in other parts of the world. In support of this argument, he attempts to point out aspects of childhood experiences that are unique to the Indian culture. For instance, he suggests that the absence of peer group activity is a critical feature of the culture of childhood in India and relates it to the 'strong adult-child continuity that the culture continues to project as a norm' (Kumar 1989: 70). In the same work he points out a conflict between forces of modernity and cultural traditionalism within the socialisation of the child at school or at home. The former exercises itself through pedagogical messages in school, emphasising on the differentiation of the child, her/his special status as a social actor and her/his autonomy. The latter force is more of a 'silent command that the child should accept parental wisdom and elders' right to shape the child's personality, career and family life' (1993: 73).

A set of studies based on a pattern of focussing on the impact of parental communication with their children upon achievement aspirations of children or their educational achievement in actual terms would include the work of Drews and Trehan (1957) on parental attitudes and academic achievement of children which investigated the attitudes of mothers of over and under achievers, of both high and average intelligence, and it was found that the mothers of high achievers were more authoritarian and restrictive than the mothers of low achievers.

Also, Douvan (1958) in his study attempted to relate child-rearing methods to level of achievement values through the investigation of occupational aspirations of 1,000 high-school boys from white collar and skilled manual families. The findings pointed out that boys who had upwardly mobile aspirations perceived their relationship with their parents to be congenial with mild and essentially verbal discipline and infrequent physical punishment. Though once again, there is no exact causal relationship established between parental interaction and achievement, yet it is observed that there is a correlation between the two.

The study by Rosen (1962) of high scorers in reading among Grade I children is another one of these. In this study, the features of parental control that were discovered for the high scorers was said to be a mixture of emotionally positive parent-child interaction and controlling, preventing and prohibiting disciplinary techniques. The parent-child interaction of low scorers, on the other hand, was characterised by liberal amount of direct physical punishment.

Gender socialisation of girls and their educational achievement has been a consideration in the work of educationists like Bhattacharya (2000), Chanana (1990, 1994, 1996, 2001) Chapman (1986) Deem (1978) and Nambissan (2004). The studies primarily concern themselves in addressing the problematic of educational inequality from a gender perspective, outlining the difference in treatment of girls in the family, the attitude of girls towards education and the relationship, if any, between the family environment, parent-child interaction and educational performance of girls.

Deem (1978) looks at the difference in educational achievement between boys and girls within a capitalist society, despite the entry of women by large numbers into mass-scale education. She argues that the achievement of equal education by women is something incompatible with the culture, ideology and social relationships of production in a capitalist society (1978: 20). She looks at how family and schools within the structure of a capitalist society supports subordinating and differentiating women through sex stereotyping. She highlights the difference between the manner of interaction of girls and boys with their teachers and with each other as an example of sexism within the school. Added to this is the representation of woman in the pedagogical content, with lack of female protagonists and portrayal of women as poor role model for girls. Another instance of sex-stereotyping within the 'hidden

curriculum', is when schools channel girls into 'separate areas of curriculum from boys' (1978 : 43) with girls ending up opting for traditionally 'feminine' subjects like cookery or opt for arts discipline while boys 'gravitate towards practical, technical, mathematical and science subjects' (1978: 43).

Chapman (1986) explores the manner of gender differentiation within the school. She looks at how educational inequalities at school stem from gender socialisation within the family and are further reinforced within the schooling experiences. She traces the beginning of the process of gender socialisation within the family during the early childhood of girls and boys when they 'learn their social roles from the behaviour of members of their family and the expectations placed on them' (1986: 65). Thus at the very inception of their schooling experiences children start school with well-developed ideas of what constitutes 'correct' male and female behaviour. To add on, their ability to perform in school is also assessed on the basis of gender. The school curriculum, teachers' treatment and expectations of the students and attitudes of peer group, all reinforce inequality based on gender. For instance, the manner in which teachers address pupils in school is different. "Within a class, pupils themselves have reported that boys are referred to by their names, while girls are referred to as 'the girls'. Three strong lads are frequently asked to move heavy objects, while girls may be asked to serve tea to visitors" (1986: 70). Also, the pressure from the peer group to conform to a gender-typed behaviour also ensures that few pupils would question the assumptions made about them by the teachers in the school. All these factors add up to the gender-differentiation within the schooling experiences of girls and boys that in the long run reproduces the unequal gender relations within the society.

Chanana (1996) examines the gender-inequality evident in schools of India within the context of primary schooling. Her argument is that to provide education to Indian girls, the socio-cultural gender biases of a social structure that limits the role of women to traditional domesticators need to be examined critically. The family plays a crucial role in such gender-socialisations that would restrict women within the boundaries of the home space. Besides, she also points out that even among Indian women there are wide variations in life chances and life experiences based on factors like caste, tribe, religion, ruralurban residence, social class and socio-economic status. The instrumentality of policies mouthing equal educational opportunities to boys and

girls are thus, lost if strategies are not evolved to 'neutralise or circumvent' these 'ideological, structural and family impediments' (1996: 377).

Bhattacharya (1999) looks at how the process of socialisation in school is a continuum of the gender-socialisation process at home. Her observations within the context of schooling reveal that girls are entrusted with responsible activities in class (for instance, the class monitor is a girl) which, she argues, is an extension of the gender-socialisation within the family that prepare the girl for a more responsible role as the home-maker. Segregated seating arrangements in classrooms further reinforce the boundaries pertaining to gender, which is also an extension of the socialisation within the family, which is that girls and boys have different 'spaces' at home. Gender-based peer group formation by girls and boys that lead to differences in peer-group interaction between girls and boys is also an example provided by her which reinforces the gender roles that are transmitted to the children through socialisation within the family. She goes on to state that in this manner, gender discrimination within schools result in inequalities within the education achieved by girls and by boys.

In a similar vein, Nambissan (2004) analyses factors related to genderdiscrimination within both the school and the home environment that results in unequal educational opportunities for women. Within the school environment, different chores performed by boys and girls (boys doing 'muscle work' and girls sticking to more household-related chores like sweeping the floor, filling up water, etc.), peer group interactions in which girls and boys maintain their respective boundaries, that is sanctioned by the teacher as well, are observations similar to those of Bhattacharya. Besides, the study also points out instance of gender-bias in teacher student interaction with teachers (especially if they are male, which is more often the case) interacting more frequently with boys more than girls, expecting girls to be 'shy' and participate less in the classroom discussion. Within the home environment, she has identified 'marriage considerations' within the family as a major influencing factor in deciding the level of education for a girl child irrespective of the socio-economic position.

Within the Indian context, some studies explore and analyse educational deprivation stemming from socio-economic factors, and also discrimination based on

caste, class and gender. The PROBE Report (Public Report on Basic Education in India) is one such study that raises issues regarding school infrastructure and pedagogical content of primary education. It also explores the socio-cultural and socio-economic factors that lead to educational deprivation. Built on 'extensive field work in rural areas' (PROBE Report 1999:2) in 234 villages in five Indian states (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh), the report consists of inputs from children, teachers, parents and members of the community in the selected villages. The economic and infrastructure-related reasons for children being deprived of education, e.g. high costs of schooling (despite primary education being officially 'free'), lack of schools within close proximity, lack of proper classrooms and basic amenities like drinking water and toilets have been reported to have a negative impact on the quality of provisioning of primary schooling, Lack of teachers in schools, teacher absenteeism and apathy towards teaching, poor quality of teaching, and pedagogical content that fails to retain the interest of the children are also reasons that cause children to drop out of school. The processes of social discrimination along the lines of gender, caste and class have also been elaborated in this report. For instance, prejudices of the teacher or harassment from upper-caste pupils have been reported to be common experiences of Dalit children. Class-based discrimination has also been noted to exist, with new textbooks being distributed from affluent families, while old textbooks, recycled from previous years, being given to poorer children. Gender bias, in terms of teachers' giving more attention to boy students than girls, or a pedagogical content that lack any representation of gender equality, are some forms of discrimination against girls prevalent within the school. Besides, parental motivation for sending girls to school has also been reported to be lesser than boys. However, despite such barriers in accessing education, what the report stresses on is the high overall parental motivation among the rural poor for sending their children to school. The report states that 80 per cent of the total surveyed population wanted to avail of schooling facilities for their children, a situation that is contrary to the myth that education is often the least of the priorities for the underprivileged.

Similar barriers to access related to caste, class and gender have also been highlighted by Kaul (2001) in her field-based study of seven districts in Karnataka: The findings are that economic compulsions have a major role to play in lack of

continuity of schooling. 55.67 per cent of the children coming to school from low income groups stated that they would not be able to complete school, and "only around 20 per cent of the children nursed some career aspirations for themselves" (Kaul 2001: 157). 81.14 per cent of the total sample population of children within the study dropped out of school due to low household income and poverty. Though high motivation and keen desire was found to exist among the parents, they find it difficult to send their children to school due to economic compulsions.

Kohn (1959) attempted to relate child-rearing practices of working-class and middle-class families with respect to their values and their expectations from the children-while working-class parents valued external obedience and respect for rules in their children, middle-class parents valued development of internalised standards of conduct. Kohn related such differences in values to the occupational positions of the social classes. He suggested that since middleclass occupations have a greater degree of self-direction, such parents value self-direction and encourage qualities such as Curiosity and self-control, while working-class parents stress such qualities as honesty and obedience because in their working lives it is required of them to follow rules laid down by someone in authority.

In a later study with Carroll (1960) Kohn looked at the allocation of parental responsibilities with respect to child rearing, and traces the differences in perception of what constitutes responsibilities, to social-class differences. He found that middle-class mothers tended to emphasise father's obligation to be as supportive as the mother herself, and fathers tended to agree with the mothers, especially as it applied to sons. Working-class mothers, on the other hand, saw the fathers' responsibility only to impose constraints, while the fathers seemed to look upon child-rearing only as their wives' responsibility, rejecting the supporting or the constraining/disciplinary role that their wives expected of them.

Typologies have been developed by researchers for child-rearing behaviour of parents that would differentiate between the middle and the working classes; one example of that would be the typology provided by Kerckhoff (1972). This includes the basic permissive/restrictive differentiation noted by Brofenbrunner, a distinction between love-oriented and power assertive forms of the parent-child relationship, and a third dichotomy based on the significance of explanation in parental discipline--

where he makes a distinction between parental responses that are simply expressive and those that attempt to explain and make values explicit.

Bernstein (1971) in his work also focused on the distinction between working-class and middle-class families, stating that the former are more position-oriented, that is, the right to command is in terms of formal status like age or sex with clear separation of roles between both parents as well as parents and children. In contrast, the latter are more subject-oriented where status ascription by age and sex is much less. Bernstein extended these hypotheses into his study of middle-class and working-class mothers and their behaviour towards their children (1975). On the basis of detailed interviews with the mothers, Bernstein and his associates constructed an index of maternal communication and control, and they found that high scores were obtained on this index by middle-class mothers who do not avoid difficult questions, rely more on explanation than punishments or other coercive forms of control, and value the educational use of toys. Bernstein further observed a link between high index of communication and control and a measure of educational orientation. He reported that mothers who scored high in the above index read to their children more frequently, were favourably disposed towards the teachers, and took positive steps to prepare their children for the start of the school.

In this context, Bernstein's findings have been replicated to a great extent in the study conducted by Wootton, (1974) based on recordings made of parent-child interaction in the homes of 20 four year-old children with no researcher present. When analysed, these interactions once again demonstrated a greater extent of parent-child interactions in the middle-class families than working-class families (where the television was switched on for greater period of time and children mostly played outdoors away from their parents). Like Bernstein, Wootton also pointed out that in middle-class homes, parents lay greater importance on interacting with the child, transmitting values and in this manner, making constructive use of the child's fantasy. Control in middle-class homes was, once again, found to be based not on coercion but on explanation.

Photograph Related with the Research Work

आउट ऑफ
कोर्स



बाबा साहेब डॉ. भीमराव अंबेडकर केंद्रीय विश्वविद्यालय के शोध छात्र अपनी पढ़ाई के साथ गरीब व मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों को शिक्षा देकर उन्हें आत्मनिर्भर बनाने में जुटे हैं। बच्चों को पढ़ाने के साथ ही उन पर शोध भी कर रहे हैं ताकि आने वाले समय में मलिन बस्तियों तक सरकार की तमाम योजनाओं को पहुंचाया जा सके।

मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों को तालीम देकर बना रहे आत्मनिर्भर

बाबा साहेब डॉ. भीमराव अंबेडकर केंद्रीय विश्वविद्यालय के शोध छात्र मानस उपाध्याय मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों के लिए शिक्षा की अलख जगा रहे हैं। वे अपने शोधकार्य के साथ ही राजगीपुरम तथा आसपास के क्षेत्र में रहने वाले मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों को पढ़ाने के साथ ही उन पर शोध भी कर रहे हैं। अपनी रिपोर्टों के अनुसार को भेजने की बात कह रहे हैं ताकि सरकार को तमाम योजनाओं को उन तक पहुंचाने में मदद मिल सके।

अभियान से जुड़े मानस उपाध्याय ने बताया कि यह प्रेरणा उन्हें अपने पिता डॉ. एचएन उपाध्याय से मिली। सर्व शिक्षा अभियान, मिड-डे मील, शिक्षा का अधिकार जैसी तमाम सरकारी योजनाओं के बाद भी मलिन बस्तियों



मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों के साथ शोध छात्र मानस उपाध्याय

किया। वह सेवानिवृत्त प्रधानाचार्य हैं। मानस ने बताया कि मलिन बस्ती के बच्चों में शिक्षा के अभाव के लिए सामाजिक कारण भी कम जिम्मेदार नहीं हैं। उनकी रिपोर्ट के अनुसार लखनऊ के मलिन बस्तियों में लोगों का सामाजिक व आर्थिक परिवेश चिंतनीय है, जिसका प्रभाव उनके शैक्षिक स्तर पर पड़ता है। मलिन बस्तियों में रहने वाले बच्चों की उपस्थिति बेहद कम रहती है, इसी वजह से उनका प्रदर्शन खराब रहता है। लड़कों के मुकाबले लड़कियों को पढ़ने का मौका कम मिल पाता है। इसलिए वे उनके अभिभावकों को पढ़ाने के लिए प्रेरित करते हैं।

तमाम सरकारी योजनाओं का भी प्रचार-प्रसार

मानस इस अभियान के दौरान बच्चों के अभिभावकों के लिए भी कुछ करना चाहते हैं। इसलिए वे उन्हें सरकारी योजनाओं की जानकारी देते हैं। इसका फायदा यह होता है कि अभिभावक अपने बच्चों को शाम के समय पढ़ाने की अनुमति दे देते हैं।

में शिक्षा का स्तर सुधार नहीं रहा है। इसलिए इस क्षेत्र में काम करने के लिए पिताजी ने प्रेरित





जागरण सिटी लखनऊ

भवन न संसाधन, यहां जज्बे से होती पढ़ाई

जागरण संवाददाता, लखनऊ: संसाधनों का रोना रोकर पढ़ाई में फेल हो रहे सरकारी स्कूलों को राजधानी के ही कुछ जागरूक लोग आईना दिखा रहे हैं। युवा से वरिष्ठ नागरिक तक के लोग हैं जिनमें शिक्षा के उजियारे से दूर अभावों में पल रहे गरीब बच्चों को शिक्षित करने की चाह है। वह उन बच्चों की भी मदद करते हैं, जिनके पास टयोरान पढ़ाने के साधन नहीं। शिक्षा के इन नायकों के पास कोई बड़े स्कूल भवन नहीं, बच्चों को बैठाने के लिए पर्याप्त इतजाम भी नहीं, उन्हें कोई तनख्वाह भी नहीं मिल रही, फिर भी वह नयी पीढ़ी को शिक्षित करने में जुटे हैं। कोई टीन शेट के नीचे बलास लगाकर पढ़ा

शहर के शिक्षा दूत

रहा है तो कोई मलिन वरसी में जाकर। पूर्व डीजीपी महेश चंद्र द्विवेदी तो अपने घर में ही बलास चलाते हैं। पर्यावरण संरक्षण की अलख जगा रहे समाजसेवी चंद्रभूषण तिवारी ने पेड़ बचाने की शिक्षा वचपन से ही देने की ठानी है और वह तीन-तीन विद्यालय चलाकर बच्चों को पढ़ा रहे हैं। शिक्षा विभाग व पढ़ाई से ज्यादा अन्य कार्यों में रुचि लेने वाले शिक्षकों के लिए ये शिक्षादूत नजीर हैं। इनकी मेहनत साबित करती है कि पढ़ाने की चाह हो तो बच्चे भी पढ़ते हैं, भले ही जगह कोई भी हो। आइए जानते हैं, राजधानी में कुछ लोग कैसे अपने प्रयास से ज्ञान का उजियारा फैला रहे हैं...

पढ़ा रहे 'प' से पेड़ 'ल' से लगाओ

समाजसेवी चंद्रभूषण तिवारी अपने दम पर गरीब बच्चों के लिए छह स्कूल चला रहे हैं। लोगों की मदद से खाली जमीन पर टीन शेट लगाकर ये स्कूल रजनीखंड, बुदावन, टायरपोर्टनगर और गायदा, सालेहमगर और सिखा कॉलोनी में पल रहे हैं। इन स्कूलों में 650 से अधिक बच्चे पढ़ते हैं। इन की किल्लाओं से वह बच्चों का स्कूल भंग तैयार कराते हैं। वह अपने स्कूलों में पर्यावरण संरक्षण के साथ अपनी सांस्कृतिक धरोहरों से भी बच्चों को परिचित कराते हैं। 'प' से पेड़ 'ल' से लगाओ जीवन में सुशिक्षित लाओ... 'क' से किसान 'ज' जायान, हम सब पहले बने इंसा... जैसे शकव कह बच्चों को देते हैं। शिववार को कुट्टी के दिन आम लोगा भी इन स्कूलों में पढ़ाने के लिए आमंत्रित करते हैं। विद्यालय मंगलवार को बंद होते हैं।



शिक्षा की अलख जगाने चंद्रभूषण तिवारी • जागरण

रिटायर्ड डीजीपी जगा रहे शिक्षा की अलख

शहर के शिक्षादूतों में पूर्व डीजीपी महेश चंद्र द्विवेदी और उनकी पत्नी नीरजा द्विवेदी भी शामिल हैं। पिछले 15 साल से अपने गामती नगर विकसित शिक्षा अखासा में ये दंपती गरीब बच्चों को निरशुल्क पढ़ा कर शिक्षा की अलख जगा रहे हैं। 15 अगस्त 2003 को शुरू हुई पाठशाला से अब तक कई बच्चे



अपने स्कूल में बच्चों को पढ़ाती नीरजा द्विवेदी और महेश चंद्र द्विवेदी • जागरण बच्चे से लगने वाली पाठशाला में इस समय 182 इनरोलमेंट है. पांच समूहों में पढ़ाई होती है। सरकारी स्कूलों में पढ़ने वाले बच्चों के लिए ये कोशिश है। लॉटो स्कूल की आरती कपूर के अलावा सीमा बाजपेयी, विद्या सिंह और सपना कपूर बच्चों को बिन कोई भी वेतन हिनो योजना तीन घंटे पढ़ाती हैं। कई लोग कोपी, किताब, वाटर कूलर और अन्य सामान दान देकर दंपती की मदद भी करते हैं। यहां से पढ़े बच्चे कई अच्छी नौकरी में हैं। हाल ही में एक बच्चा पालीटेक्निक डिप्लोमा करके एक्जेल में अडमिंस कर रहा है। कुछ बच्चे विधि में पढ़ाई करने के साथ इस पाठशाला में बच्चों को पढ़ा रहे हैं।

खुद पढ़ते हुए कर रहे शिक्षा का दान

मिस उषा में छात्र अपने जीवन के सपनों को साकार करने की जदोजहद करते हैं, उस उषा में युवा मानस गलिन बरिसा में रहने वाले बच्चों के सपने साकार करने में जुटे हैं। बच्चा साहब भीम राव अंबेडकर विधिविद्यालय में समाजशास्त्र विभाग के शोध छात्र मानस उपाध्याय सी डूकड़ है कि हर बच्चा शिक्षित हो। राजनीतिज्ञ मन में रहने वाले मानस कॉलोनी में ही हेक्टर फैलाव वाले के किनारे बसी मलिन बस्ती में जाकर स्थानीय लोगों द्वारा उपलब्ध कराए गए स्थान पर बच्चों को दो घंटे नियमित रूप से पढ़ाते हैं। उनकी बलास में 19 बच्चे हैं। जब भी कोई बच्चा गैर हाजिर होता है तो मानस उसकी विता करते हैं। वह गैरहाजिर बच्चों को उसके घर बुलाने वाले जाते हैं। उसे बलास लाकर पढ़ाई की महत्ता बताते हैं।



ज्ञान का प्रकाश फैलाते मानस • जागरण

शालिनी चलाती हैं स्पेशल क्लास

समाजसेवी शालिनी सिंह गुरुघाट के पास गरीबों के बच्चों को पढ़ाने के लिए स्थल बलास चलाती हैं। उन्होंने अपने स्कूल को 'पहल' नाम दिया है। इसमें 30 बच्चे पढ़ते हैं। शालिनी कहती हैं कि एएए समाजकार्य व संस्कृत की पढ़ाई करने के बाद वह समाजसेवा में जुट गईं। पिछले वर्ष तक घर के आसपास गरीब बच्चों को निरशुल्क पढ़ाती थीं। बाद में दिसंबर 2017 में गुरुघाट के पास गरीब बच्चों को निरशुल्क पढ़ाने के लिए पहल स्कूल खोला है। यहां पढ़ रही बच्चियों में रोशनी (सात), कुंदरा (सात), परी (तीन) अमेजी में कविताएँ फरियंट से पढ़ लेती हैं। बच्चे अपने उज्ज्वल भविष्य का ताना-बाना बुनने में जुटे हुए हैं।



गुरुघाट के पास गरीब बच्चों को पढ़ाने के दौरान बच्चों का होमवर्क चेक करती शालिनी सिंह • जागरण



House located and Father's occupation:
Place:
Name of School:
Standard/Class:
Including you, how

सदस्यता शुल्क रसीद नं० 63632
वदते कदम
सक एवं कामकजी बंधो का संघ
40/22, मनोहर कुंज, गौतम नगर, नई दिल्ली - 49, फोन - 41644470/71

श्री/ कुं. राधा शर्मा निवासी विद्यायुक्त लखनऊ
से रु 5 सदस्यता शुल्क फरवरी से मार्च तक सधन्यवाद प्राप्त किये।

रु 5/ कोषाध्यक्ष

6	Intermediate (Class XII)	
7	B.A./B.Sc./B.Com	
8	M.A./M.Sc./M.Com	

NDPS NEW DIVINE PUBLIC SCHOOL
Singh Tower, Sector-3, Vikas Nagar, Lucknow

No. 1855 Date 21.3.18
Name Pratu
Class Month of March

ITEM	AMOUNT	
	Rs.	P.
1. Admission Fee		
2. Tuition Fee	5000	
3. Annual Fee	1000	
4. Late Fee		
5. Maintenance Fee		
6. Game Fee		
7. Examination Fee	100 Bk.	
8. Rickshaw/Aaya Fee		
9. Library Fee		
10. Other Dues		
Total	6000	

Signature