

**INCREASING ACCESS TO ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS:**

**AN EVALUATION OF THE RESERVATION PROVISION IN
THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS UNDER THE RIGHT TO
EDUCATION (RTE) ACT IN INDIA.**

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ABSTRACT

Educational achievement being affected by various socio-economic factors, ensuring equal education for all at the primary level is a long term global challenge. Despite the continuous education policy focus as per the regional context still the issue of educational inequality is quite significant especially in developing countries. United Nation declared 'Right to Education' as one of the basic human rights in the year of 1948 with the aim of eliminating any form of educational discrimination. But it has come into force in India in the form 'Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act' only in April'2010 when this country has the highest share of out-of-school children in the South Asia and the issue of education inequality is reasonably complex in nature. When the emerging trend of private educational institution is long being debatable to be included in the state education policy this recent education policy shares the responsibility of increasing access to education with these institutions by reserving 25% of the seats for the disadvantaged sections of the society. This research investigates the effectiveness of this model as per the four basic features of the Right to Education (that are availability, accessibility, acceptability, adoptability) that aims at increasing access to the education without discrimination. Analysing the situation from the perspective of the private schools and the beneficiary parents it identifies the gaps in all these aspects and concludes that this provision has the potential to address the educational inaccessibility up to certain extent. In order to increase the efficiency this has either the options of increasing the accountability of the private institution or else strengthening the poor performing public institution systems.

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DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in the dissertation has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification at this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Term
DPEP	District Primary Education Programme
EFA	Education for All
EAG	Empowered Action Group
FCE	Free and Compulsory Education
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GOI	Government of India
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource and Development
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NSS	National Sample Survey
OBC	Other Backward Class
PA	Private Aided
PUA	Private Un-Aided
PPP	Public Private Partnership
RTE	Right to Education
SRI	Social and Rural Research Institute
SSA	Sarba Siksha Abhiyan
SCs	Schedule Castes
STs	Schedule Tribes
UEE	Universal Elementary Education
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNGEI	United Nation's Girls' Education Initiative
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UPE	Universalising Primary Education

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Education is being recognised as a tool for economic and social development of a country and hence every country places a significant importance on education policy making (Patrinos, 2000). More importantly, the poor education status of the developing countries demands a greater emphasis on efficient education policy than in more developed countries. Efficient education policy here addresses the issues of educational discrimination and inequality in education, focusing particularly on the disadvantaged sections with respect to gender, religious and ethnic minority groups, and groups that are economically backward (Schiefelbein, 1983).

Ensuring equal opportunities within education, without any form of discrimination continues to be a global challenge (UN, 2011) when the right to education is one of the important fundamental human rights - every child should have the opportunity to receive free and compulsory education, at least up to the completion of elementary education (UNESCO, 2006). This unequal access to education relates to various factors such as caste, class, race, gender and even region (Lee, 2002). This is in line with UNESCO's (2012) global education monitoring report, though some countries as of now could overcome the disparity, some gender-related and other discriminatory inequalities still exist in both developed and developing countries. Compare the situation of the developing countries to that in industrialised countries, and the results are alarming in terms of accessing equal education.

Human capital theory shows that, globally, both social and private returns on investment for primary education is greater compared to those of secondary and higher education. With consideration of this fact, primary education is always the priority of education policy for a country, especially in developing countries (Psacharopoulos, 1994). Along with many other international education policies towards achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) with equality and equality, Right to Education (RTE) is "at the heart of the Education for All (EFA) programme" as UNESCO's priority (UNESCO, 2008). As per the global monitoring report (2012), in spite of all various educational reforms for eliminating the disparity, certain groups of people who belong to socio-economically backward classes, religious or ethnic minority groups, as well as migrants and the disabled still remain deprived from equal access to education. This report shows still there are 61 million out-of-school

children at primary education level, from which sub-Saharan Africa has the highest share followed by South Asia. But in terms of the education parity index (the composite indicator for measuring educational disparity), South Asia has the highest figure (Huebler, 2008).

Looking at the disparities within the South Asian region, India has the highest share of out-of-school children (GMR, 2012) and the issue of education disparity is highly complex (Borooah and Lyster, 2005) due to the existence of various causes of diversity - with relation to the different ethnic, religious minority groups. Apart from religion, sex, colour, language as the bases of discrimination in different countries, India is the only country in the world where the caste system is a unique feature of discrimination. The extent of systematic discrimination and injustice is highest for the untouchable people, designated as schedule caste (SC), for they are considered, both educationally and socially, the most backward group (Vijapur, 1993).

The country has experienced various educational reforms, with the overall aim of Universalising Elementary Education (UEE) for more than six decades, right after the gaining of independence (Sadgopal, 2010). Importantly, the international educational policy, Right to Education, with the prime focus of eliminating disparity and providing free and compulsory education to every child between 6 and 14 years (otherwise known as Right of Every Child for Free and Compulsory Education Act), has come into force in India very recently, from April 2010. This act recognises the three major forms of educational institutions that are Government, Private-Aided and Private-Unaided and includes all of them in sharing the responsibility towards Universal Elementary Education (GOI, 2009).

1.1 Primary educational policy and Right to Education (RTE) Act, India, 2009

Right after the gaining of independence, India undertook the massive step of providing free and compulsory education to every child of between 6 and 14, within a period of 10 years. The constitutional vision of India for achieving universal elementary education has undergone phases of continuous policy reforms since this decision (Sadgopal, 2010), but is still unachieved. Looking at the features of the most significant education policies of the nation - the National Education Policy (NPE) of 1968 and 1986, Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) and the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) - all focus on making education available and accessible for all, without any discrimination, with special consideration to the

disadvantaged groups in India (Velaskar, 2010). But still there is the existence of socio-economic educational disparity. The recent educational policy Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education, or Right to Education (RTE), Act of 2009 declares the fundamental right for all children between the ages of six and fourteen to free and compulsory education in a neighbourhood school, until the completion of the elementary level. The Act was notified on 1st April 2010, handing the prime responsibility to state government for making elementary education accessible and affordable to all eligible students (GOI, 2009).

With the aim of providing education with equity and equality, this act pays special attention to the educationally disadvantaged within society. As the basic feature of the RTE to make the education available, accessible, acceptable, adoptable by all (UNESCO, 2006), this act recognises the three different models of educational institutions; under Section 12 of the RTE Act 2009, there is a reservation of 25%, set aside for the economically weaker and more disadvantaged students in private unaided schools (GOI, 2009). The purpose of this provision is to make the private or fee-charging schools accessible to the poor and disadvantaged. Otherwise, they tend to remain inaccessible to these members of society, because of the financial constraints.

1.2 Perceptions about the 25% reservation

However, unlike any other educational policy in India, this act has been subject to much criticism. Towards the reservation in fee-charging schools, the government will reimburse an amount equal to the per-child expenditure - or the actual amount charged to the child, whichever is less - to public schools (Section 12, RTE Bill, GOI, 2009). The primary focus of critics is the inclusion of private unaided schools in the provision, when the quality and equality of the education provided by these institutions are always questioned (Tooley & Dixon, 2007; Goyal & Pandey, 2012). Apart from this, there was an increasing realisation of the policy issues related to private schooling in India, in terms of regulating the private sector and returning them to the state's control (Meherotra, 2006; Mehrotra & Panchamukhi, 2007), a realisation of the private sector as part of the solution for achieving UEE effectively (Tooley, 2009) and an experimentation of providing school vouchers to the students from weaker social groups, enabling them to access better quality education (Thorat, 2011).

In this scenario, this provision of 25% reservation under the RTE of 2009 has led to various perceptions among researchers. Sarvapalli (2012), citing this provision as the most debatable aspect of the act, mentions that the promotion of social integration is the main purpose behind this. He notes that when these schools are believed to be for the elite and middle-class families, by admitting students from the disadvantaged sections of society, social inequality can be reduced. Giving the evidence that private schools are capable of providing better (or at least comparable) education than public schools, with less cost, Jain & Dholkia (2010) see it as a viable model of public private partnership (PPP) under RTE, in terms of involving them in the governmental systems. They add that the fundamental rights of getting quality education can be achieved in an economically viable manner. Marphatia (2011) also supports this view and welcomes the provision of RTE.

As the private schooling sector provides varied education to the different sections (as per the level of school fees), Teltumbde (2012) criticises the act and opines that a programme that provides inequitable education should not be accepted and facilitated by the constitution. He also mentions it as a neo-liberal model of education promotion and predicts the insignificance of the provision; he concludes that a very small proportion of disadvantaged people can be benefitted by it. The other important issue mentioned by Ambast (2010) considers the cost of reimbursement by the state - negligible compared to the fees charged by the elite private educational institutions. That indirectly increases the burden of tuition fees on the fee-paying students. Therefore this 25% reservation has led to a direct disagreement between private schools and the government.

1.3 Research Goal

Based on these above arguments, it seems that the implementation model for the reservation in private schools may have various drawbacks, especially in terms of ensuring educational equality. This dissertation investigates the implementation model of this reservation in the private schools using multiple case studies in the state of Madhya Pradesh. It examines the perception of different private schools towards the RTE and the 25% reservation, as well as ascertaining the response of parents who have both secured and failed to secure this facility for their children. So, overall, it aims to analyse the emerging issues related to this reservation with particular focus on how best this provision can address educational inequality.

1.4 Research questions

These are the three questions to be addressed by this research:

1. How far can this reservation in private unaided schools address the issue of socio-economic inequality in India?
2. What is the perception of the private schools towards this provision?
3. How far does this reservation increase accessibility to the disadvantaged section?

In order to address these research questions, the framework of this provision is presented, covering how it is designed to address the situation of educational inequality in India. Then it explores the perception of the reservation's major stakeholders - namely, the private schools and the beneficiaries' parents. This analysis is presented in Chapter 5.

1.5 Methodology

This research is mainly based on both primary and secondary data sources and mainly qualitative in nature. Secondary data sources are mainly the journal articles, UNESCO and World Bank reports, Government of India report and web-based searches. In terms of primary data it presents multiple case studies collected from different private schools differentiated as per the high and low fee structure. There are also responses collected from the beneficiary parents including the case of the parents who have been failure in availing these services of government. The detail methodology for the research is outlined in chapter *four*.

1.6 Chapter Plan

The *chapter* followed by this gives a theoretical framework of educational inequality and role of privatisation giving importance on primary education. *Chapter three* gives the overview of the global educational inequality and the policy focus. This chapter has a special attention toward describing the issue in Indian context and the education policy reforms. *Chapter four* describes the details of the methodologies used for the research that are best suited to answer the research questions. Then *chapter five* analyses the effectiveness of India's recent inclusive model of RTE Act, 2009 that provides the opportunity for private schools in sharing the state's responsibility in eliminating the issue of educational inequality. Finally *chapter six* draws the conclusion with suggestion and policy implications.

CHAPTER 2

ACCESSIBILITY AND EQUALITY IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

This chapter presents the theoretical framework for the analysis, primarily citing the different forms of existing educational inequality (W.O. Lee, 2002) with special focus on primary education. Then, it explains the basic features of the 'Right to Education' (considered to be one of the most important human rights), and clarifies how this act aims to address the issue of equality and equality in education provision. Finally it analyses the evolution of private educational institutions, and their contribution towards increased access to education, along with the state schools, in the context of different developing countries.

2.1 Primary education as the priority

The theory of return on investment at different levels of education is considered to be an important aspect of policy-making in education, when prioritising the focus of any policy. A study by Psacharopoulos (1994) presenting the figures for all different regions worldwide proves that primary education continues to give the highest output in terms of both social and private returns on investment, in comparison to secondary and higher education (see Table 1). Adding to this, Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala (2003) also report that average levels of schooling of the labour force in several developing countries still lies below primary education - a level at which the labour force is considered to be fundamentally inadequate for sustainable economic development.

So, from a human capital perspective, completion of primary education by all children makes a huge impact on many developmental aspects of a country. Considering this fact, primary education continues to be the highest priority of educational policies, specifically in developing countries (Psacharopoulos, 1994). So, the second objective of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) also focuses on the same, and aims at achieving universal primary education by 2015 (<http://www.undp.org>). This suggests that primary education is still a high priority for stakeholders who are concerned about educational development.

Table 1: Regional average of return to investment in education by different levels

Country	Social			Private		
	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Primary	Secondary	Higher
Sub-Saharan Africa	24.3	18.2	11.2	41.3	26.6	27.8
Asia	19.9	13.3	11.7	39	18.9	19.9
Europe/Middle East/North Africa	15.5	11.2	10.6	17.4	15.9	21.7
Latin America/Caribbean	17.9	12.8	12.3	26.2	16.8	19.7
OECD	14.4	10.2	8.7	21.7	12.4	12.3
World	18.4	13.1	10.9	29.1	18.1	20.3

Source: Psacharopoulos (1994)

Various terminologies and abbreviations are springing up to represent the importance of primary education all over the globe. Whether it is Education for All (EFA), Universalising Primary Education (UPE) or Free and Compulsory Education (FCE), the underlining objective is always the same. Irrespective of any discrimination, education should be accessible, affordable and available for all students without any cost - at least up to the completion of primary level (Tomasevski, 2006).

There have been many global targets and international laws related to education: *Universal Declaration* (1948), *UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation) Convention against Discrimination in Education* (1960), *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (1966), *Protocol of San Salvador to the American Convention on Human Rights* (1988), *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (1989), *Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the African Child* (1990), *European Social Charter* (1996), *Jomtien Conference on Education for All* (1990), *Dakar World Education Forum* (2000), *United Nations Millennium Development Goals* (2000) and *World Summit Outcome* (2005). All have continuously targeted the provision of free and compulsory primary education and aim to eliminate gender, social and economic discrimination.

2.2 Education inequality

Equal access to education, specifically primary education, was declared as one of the basic human rights by the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human

Rights in 1948. But still there is unequal access to education within different groups in different countries. Historically, students from higher social class or from better economic backgrounds have been more successful than those from a lower social class or a poorer background (Ganzeboom and Nieuwbeerta, 1999). So the need to understand the context of educational inequalities has been realised by researchers for a long time. Psacharopoulos (1977) has tried calculating the Gini coefficient to measure educational inequality across different countries. Recently, as an update of his study, Thomas et al (2002) provided a new database of educational Gini coefficients for 140 different countries across the globe. However the research reports of Lee (2002) and the World Bank (2003) establish a framework of educational inequality, and have thus identified four major sources of inequality: (i) income; (ii) socio-cultural; (iii) gender; (iv) region. A thorough look into these four aspects will give a clear picture of their effect on the educational attainment among various groups.

2.2.1 Income-related educational inequality

There is a general perception about the link between educational attainment and income; a child whose parents have a higher income has better educational output, compared to the child of lower-income parents (Teachman, 1987; Taubman, 1989). As educating a child involves various different costs, if the family is economically sound and capable of meeting such costs, then it can educate the child to its maximum capability. In the case of a lower-income family, the opposite is true. Research by Blanden & Gregg (2004) proves that low family income level has both casual and non-casual impacts on educational output. The casual effect is the low educational attainment, because of the lower financial capacity of the parents. But apart from this, the family circumstances in a low-income family (such as the lower education level of the parents) also have some non-casual effects, in that they may place less emphasis on educational achievements. The study also proves that an increase in family income does have a positive influence on educational output.

Different economic models - such as the consumption and investment models - explain the relationship between parental income and educational attainment of a child. Taubman (2012) reviews and examines these two different models with the help of empirical evidence. The investment model explains that the decision of investment in education depends on the increase in marginal productivity, whereas

the consumption model neglects this benefit and depends mainly on the increase in the social status, as well as a better understanding about the functioning of the world. In conclusion, the access to education varies depending on the income level of the household. A study by Graaf (1986) presents a change in pattern of inequality in educational attainment as an effect of various other factors of inequalities such as gender and socio-cultural factors. He explains - using the effects of gender, race and region - that inequality has a diminishing trend over the years; however, there has been no change in the effect of parental income on the educational attainment.

2.2.2 Socio-cultural-related education inequality

Unlike income inequality, social inequality (including caste, race, class and culture) has a vital effect on the educational involvement in society. Though there is evidence of a decreasing effect of social inequality on education (Graaf, 1986), its extent and existence have still been shown in different studies. Lareau and Horvat (1999) explore how different races have their own significance in shaping up the family-school relationship. The study explains how the educators demand the parents to be supportive to their children's education, irrespective of race; it has always been difficult to comply with the same standard for parents from different races and cultures. Similarly, the study by Lucas (2001) examines social background and its effect on education transition. He concludes that the lesser the effect of social background on the student, the later the student will withdraw from education. Foster (1980) explains that there is a diminishing influence of social background on education, but it remains significant in less developed countries. Even among developed countries, the situation was similar at an early stage. These theories of social inequality also explain that there is a continuous legacy attached to racism or differing social groups; each places its own level of importance on education due to the varied social setup.

2.2.3 Gender-related education inequality

This inequality refers to the access to education of females - traditionally disadvantaged, when compared to the access of males (World Bank, 2003). Gender Parity Index (GPI) is used as an indicator that measures the educational disparity among genders, whereby the ratio of female net attendance rate to male attendance rate can be directly compared (Huebler, 2008). This index tends to be more significant in the case of female students from the socially backward classes.

2.2.4 Region-related education inequality

This education inequality mainly refers to the difference in educational attainment of people living in educationally disadvantaged regions, when compared to those in educationally advantage areas. An educationally disadvantaged area may suggest a more rural and remote place, or may be the poorer sections within an urban area. It may also refer to different states having different educational performances (Lee, 2002; World Bank, 2003). In the case of an international comparison, educational differences related to region can be based on the performance difference among various countries. Within a country, however, the rural and urban educational performance difference is mainly considered.

2.3 Inequality in education and Right to Education (RTE)

Given the theoretical overview of education inequality, we know that there are several factors that cause inaccessibility of education. Justifying this, Meherotra (2006) mentions that some students may be 'triple-burden born' in terms of access to education; if a girl child belongs to a socially backward class and lives in a rural area, then the chance of her getting enrolled in a school is almost negligible. In case she does get in to a school, then there is still a high chance of early dropout. It could be understood that poor financial conditions and the traditional perception about education in general - and more importantly, a girl child - limits access to education. We can interpret this as education not being accessible or affordable by certain group of people, or even if it is accessible, it is not adoptable as per specific religious perspectives. Another important factor contributing towards less primary enrolment is the physical unavailability of school facilities (Filmer and Pritchett, 1999).

In the 1999 United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) in cooperation with UNESCO featured the basic elements of Right to Education (RTE). Including those mentioned above, the four key factors for providing equal education are availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability (UNESCO, 2006). It defines these terms as follows:

Table 2: Basic features of 'Right to Education'

Basic Features	Expected outcome
Availability	There should be enough educational institutions and programmes to cover demand.
Accessibility	All should have the physical and economic accessibility to the available educational institutions and programmes without any discrimination. It also emphasises providing free and compulsory education to all, at least to the completion of elementary education.
Acceptability	The teaching methods and curricula should be culturally acceptable to all.
Adaptability	It should be flexible enough to match various needs of diverse social and cultural settings.

Source: UNESCO (2005)

RTE is considered the most important and fundamental among all the human rights. When an individual receives a certain minimum level of education, then the skills of exercising the other civil, political, economic and social rights can be achieved. Many global and national human rights documents have considered it as a priority aspect, among which are the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (Article 26), the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (Article 2 of the First Protocol), UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Articles 13 and 14) Coomans, (n.d).

So with the mission of ensuring "full and equal opportunities in education for all", the right to education is considered as an integral mandate of UNESCO's constitution (Espie, 2005; Spring, 2008). Again in the context of MDG, the relevance of the basic mandates of RTE as per the UNESCO constitution seems to have increased. Therefore the target of 'Education for All' with equal access as the basic criteria of RTE is now the top priority for UNESCO.

2.4 Education privatisation towards increasing access

Privatisation of education is increasingly becoming the focus of educational policy. It is one of the most important issues related to educational reform these days (Downes & Greenstein, 1996; Belfield & Levin, 2002). Though the size of the private sector providing primary education varies across different countries, its presence is significant (James, 1987). Justifying the evolution of private provision of education, James (1987) argues that when the public education of a country will be limited (or may be of lower quality) then there will be a higher demand for private education.

Analysing the viability of this sector based on the individual country's scenario, James (1991) explores that in case of developing countries in general (because of the poor quality education available publically) there is a greater demand on the private sector. But in the case of developed countries, the demand is less as there is the option of public education with an equivalent quality - sometimes even better. Because of the lower demand, there is a greater need for subsidies to enable the private sectors to be sustainable in a developed country scenario, whereas in developing countries the private sector can have a better position without subsidies. He continues, suggesting that a greater reliance on the private provision of education in developing countries can share the public responsibility without placing an extra financial burden on the state.

Supplementing James' view, several researchers have proven the existence of a higher proportion of private schools in developing countries. The contribution of the private sector in helping the government meet the goal of 'Education for All' is being recognised (Tooley, 2005). Regulating the private sector is one of many options to help achieve the goal of EFA, as listed by Meherotra (2006). But when there is an increasing movement for including private sector in education policy, for its contribution towards educational achievement of the country, researchers remain critical about the quality and equality of education provided by these institutions and also towards the accessibility of private education for different social groups.

Though the quality of education provided by the private educational institutions remains debatable, it is generally perceived to be better than the public provision. While the evidence from the research conducted in a number of developing countries reflects that the quality of education provided by the private schools, as measured by

test scores, is on average better than that of government schools, the study by Goyal & Pandey (2012) explores that even if private schools shows a higher raw mean scores compared to the public ones, after controlling for the school characteristics and family background, the performance in the case of private schools is not robust. On the other hand, the analysis by Mehrotra & Panchamukhi (2007) shows that there is no firm evidence about better learning achievements of the children in private schools.

Aside from the quality, the education provided by these schools is also considered to be inequitable (Tooley & Dixon, 2006). Firstly, these schools charge fees. The obvious belief is that it is accessible only to the elite and middle classes, not by the poor. Contradicting this, Tooley, Dixon & Gomathi (2007) mention that there is a new emerging trend of lower-cost private schools which do meet the needs of poorer people, and thus 'misplacing the notion that private schools serve only the wealthy people'. However, many would say that these low-fee private schools offer a comparatively poor quality of education as against high-fee charging schools. But the same study again confronts this, saying that there is not enough evidence against the poor quality education of the low-fee schools, apart from a poorer infrastructure. So it is being said that the private sector does play a role towards increasing education access for both the better-off and the poor and, in general (though it is not the single solution towards achieving UPE), it can help solve the problem.

Chapter conclusion

Reviewing framework of education accessibility of certain groups in primary education level, this chapter discussed about Right to Education and its relevance for eliminating the education inequality. It also included the controversial scenario of the private provision of primary schooling in terms of quality and equality and the emerging trend of it to be a part of the education policy. The chapter followed will establish the link between this framework and global empirical evidence especially focusing on Indian context and the educational policy reform towards eliminating the educational inequality.

CHAPTER 3

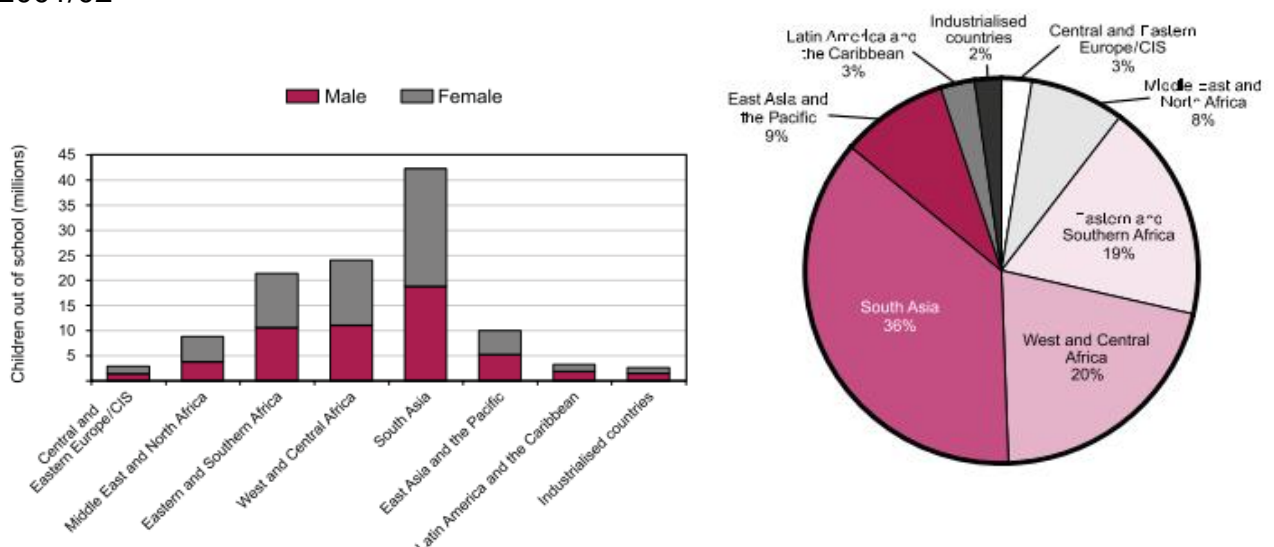
Access to Primary Education and Policy Reforms

This chapter aims to offer empirical evidence of global educational inequality in relation to the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 2, and shows South Asia as having the highest educational disparity in the world. It then focuses on India's unique features of education deprivation and signifies the extent of education inaccessibility of socio-economically backward groups. It also analyses different policy approaches and the most recent reform - Right to Education (2009) - highlighting its efforts to bridge the educational gap and include private schools in achieving the target of Universal Elementary Education (UEE).

3.1 Global educational disparity at primary level

In spite of the continuous educational policy reform towards achieving the goal of UPE, for many countries, the target is still far away. Branchflower et al (2004) estimate the challenges involved in achieving MDG by 2015, and discover that the global figure of out-of-school children in the year 2000 was 102 million, and as per the global monitoring report, this number has reduced to 61 million as of 2010. UNESCO's (2005) report measuring the population excluded from primary education estimates the total number of out-of-school children was 115 million globally in 2001/02. However, the report also gives a clear picture of inter-regional as well as gender-related disparities. Figure 1 represents these disparities in different regions and also shows the contribution of each region towards the global figure of out-of-school children.

Figure 1: Distribution of out-of-school children of primary school age by region in 2001/02



Source: UNICEF/UNESCO Institute for Statistics in UNESCO (2005)

This report shows that South Asia has the greatest share in terms of gender and regional educational inequality. This region which accounts for one-third of the primary school age population also has the highest number of out-of-school children - 36% of the global figure. Industrialised or well-off countries also did not achieve a 100% enrolment rate and contribute the lowest percentage of about 4%.

After the drive for international commitment to eliminating gender disparity by the year of 2005, this report shows that 28% of girls are out of school, while only 24% of boys are. The highest gender disparity is in the Middle East and North Africa, followed by South Asia. Comparing the inequalities related to wealth, 38% of out-of-school children are from the poorest 20%, and it is only 12% from the richest 20% of the sample households. Again 30% of the students who live in a rural area fall into this category, but in urban areas it is only 18% (Branchflower et al, 2004).

Lewin (2007) predicted that 47 out of 163 countries were less likely to achieve the goal of universalising primary education, and mentioned the status of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia for primary education. In 2005, more than 25 million in Sub-Saharan Africa and at least 15 million in South Asia were not even enrolled in school. He provides evidence that the countries which are economically poorest have the lowest enrolment rate, and this links to the income-related educational inequality. Being the poorest country, the household income will also be less and so less financial input and focus are afforded towards education. He reports a huge diversity in access to education in relation to wealth and gender between the different countries.

Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim (2005) also reported that Africa and South Asia are the two regions which have the highest contribution towards the global figure of out-of-school children. In fact, they brought a different dimension into the picture, in mentioning that the percentage of enrolment shows an increasing trend, while the percentage of children completing primary education is not at par; 51% and 74% of the enrolled children complete primary schooling in Africa and South Asia respectively. They also mention that it is true for every country that the completion rate is lowest for the children from poor households.

The study by Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala (2003) of 155 countries (which mostly include countries of low education indicators) estimates that 75% of global out-of-school children are from these states. The average primary completion rate of these sample countries is only 57%. This report also suggests that different strategies need to be adopted for dramatic progress and to achieve the goal of MDG by 2015. Differences in income level also have contributed towards the disparity.

3.2. Poor educational performance in South Asia

South Asia, as a region with low educational performance, has continuously attracted the attention of many researchers and academics; it contributes more than one-third of the world's out-of-school children in total, and one-quarter for primary school age population. As of 2001/02, 42 million out of 162 million school-age children of this region were not enrolled, and again this is the highest figure, in terms of absolute number, worldwide. This region shares the second highest out-of-school female children rate after the Middle East and North Africa regions (UNESCO, 2000 and 2005). Enrolment rates aside, the average primary completion rate is also only 70%, again holding second position behind Sub-Saharan Africa (Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala, 2003).

Although the governments of South Asia have made the commitment for provision of education services with equality, and implemented several policies and programs towards eradication of the educational disparities among the disadvantaged groups, deprivation still exists across countries and states, between rural and urban areas, between genders and also in the different class, caste and religious minority groups (Acedo, 2010). There is also the evidence of an increasing percentage of private sector education providers in this region, since 1990 (Rose, 2009).

Almost all countries within the region have low educational performance. In terms of number of out-of-school children, India and Pakistan have the highest share in the region but in absolute terms, India has the highest number (UNESCO, 2005; Huebler, 2008). This country also has the unique feature of discrimination specifically against the SCs who are considered to be untouchable, and hence exhibit the lowest enrolment and highest dropout rates (Vijapur, 1993).

3.3 India as a land of diversity

Tremendous diversity exists in India, in terms of the range of people, cultures, languages and religions. This has always been an underpinning cause of social disparities, for example in access to basic services like education and health. Different research findings have also proved how educational achievement of the country is being affected by this diversity. Borooah and Lyer (2005) have examined the relationship between different religions and castes on education in India very thoroughly. Education has always been given high importance in Indian societies, but access to it is always defined along ethnic, societal and religious lines. Traditionally Brahmin children, through *agharas* (community groups for religious learning), or Muslim children, through *madrassas* (Islamic religious schools), or the children belonging to other groups, through their own societal and skill-based guilds, were getting education (World Bank, 2003). This historical perspective of education still has an impact and has become one of the underlying factors of not achieving the goal of EFA - one of the constitutional mandates of the country, targeted to achieve within ten years of independence.

3.3.1 Primary education and the disparities

Educational disparity, being the congenital aspect of the country, is also the inevitable part of any educational research of India. As discussed in Chapter 2, the significance of social, economic and gender disparity were also robust in this country. Researchers have figured out two different aspects of the decreased participation in primary education by the socio-economically disadvantaged population - low enrolment rates, and high dropout levels (Huisan, Rani & Smits, 2011; Tialk, 2007; Lee, 2002 and Govinda & Bandopadhyay, 2010). A study by UNICEF and UNIGEI (2008) has clearly shown the difference of primary attendance rates among the poorest and the richest quintiles of the country. Table 3 shows these differences, and the percentages of both groups which complete the same level. So not only the poorest section of the society has a lower attendance (by around 26%) than the richest, the difference between the completion rates is also around 12%.

Table 3: Education disparity among the different wealth groups in India

Year 2005/06	Primary NER (%)	Survival to last grade of primary (%)
Poorest quintile	69.4	87.2
Second quintile	81.2	92.8
Middle quintile	87.5	95.5
Fourth quintile	92.2	98.0
Richest quintile	95.7	99.4

Source: UNICEF and UNGEI (2008)

Low performance in education is also attached to the different socially disadvantaged groups, such as schedule castes (SCs), schedule tribes (STs) and Muslim minorities. Among various studies related to the exclusive education of different social groups, the work of Govinda & Bandopadhyay (2010) has given a clear picture of the differences among these disadvantaged groups. Table 4 shows the higher share of the SC, ST and the Muslim minority groups towards the out-of-school children in both rural and urban areas; note that the performance in the urban area is better for all categories. Muslim minority students have shown the highest percentage. Table 5 also shows higher dropout rates in the cases of SC and ST. Even among these groups, a gender difference can still be noted.

Table 4: Out-of school children age 6-14 among different social groups in India

Year 2006	Rural	Urban	Total
All (age 6-14)	7.80	4.34	6.94
SC	8.55	6.25	8.17
ST	10.11	4.21	9.54
Muslim	12.03	7.17	9.97

Source: SRI (2005) in Govinda & Bandyopadhyay (2010).

Table 5: Dropout rate of SC, ST students in grade 1-5

Year 2006/07	Boys	Girls	Total
All (Grade 1-5)	24.57	26.75	25.6
SC	32.4	40	36
ST	31	36	33.1

Source: Gol (2007a, 2008, 2009) in Govinda & Bandyopadhyay (2010).

Presented with the facts, the government has realised that, in order to achieve the goal of UPE along with attracting students for better enrolment, the retention of students who have already enrolled also need to be given high importance (GOI, 2008; Bordoloi, 2011 and Mehrotra, 2006).

3.4 Different policy approaches towards UPE

'Article 45' and 'Article 21A' of constitutional provisions of India with the aim of "Education for all" hope to provide free and compulsory education up to the age of 14. This is also known as Universal Elementary Education (UEE) (Bordoloi, 2011), thus UPE and UEE are used interchangeably in the case of Indian education system. This universalization includes three important aspects, namely that of provision, enrolment and retention. These focus on providing school facilities to all children between the ages of 6 and 14, within the walking distance of a child. Universalization of Enrolment and Retention both aim to enrol and retain all children of the same age group, until they have completed all 8 classes of primary education (ibid). So various legislative provisions have been made, and accordingly different approaches and schemes have been implemented by the Indian Government for expansion and improvement of elementary education. Most importantly, compared to other countries in South Asia, India has experienced continuity and a degree of consistency for six decades in policy-making and the pursuit of policy for educational development (Govinda, 2010).

3.4.1 National Education Policy (1968 and 1986)

Explaining the various educational policies of India, we must start with the first National Education Policy (1968). This was planned with Nehruvian vision of "growth with equality and social justice" and was articulated in the first five-year plan. Though it focused on educating all children up to 14 years, with special care on the education of weaker sections of society, it remained neglected in terms of a planned activity. But in the mid-sixties, it attracted special attention with the constitution of the Education Commission (EC). Concern for quality education was embedded, along with worries about equality. But the outcome was only a gradual expansion of the educational institution which could cover the huge unserved population. With this progress, the institutions that clearly portray the local system of class, caste and even single sex also emerged. A parallel system of public and private educational institutions also came into picture at around this time (Velaskar, 2010). With the

increasing need for globalisation and rapid technological revolution in the mid-eighties, policy-makers realised the need for a change in education; as a result, the New Educational Policy was formulated in the year 1986. There was an ideological shift in this new policy from the commitment to equality. So there was a special attention towards eliminating disparities and providing equal educational opportunities, with a special focus on the thus far deprived population. The new policy also recommended special provision for the disadvantage groups - namely SC, ST and women (GOI, 1986 in Velaskar, 2010).

3.4.2. Shift towards Neo-liberal Educational Reform

In the 90s, when the economic crisis stimulated the liberalisation of national economy, there was also a major shift in the educational policy of the state. So with the economic liberalisation and the entry of the World Bank into the educational sector, the two major schemes of education were born - Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) and the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). Both of these programmes were more focused towards an inclusive model of elementary education. Prior to this, the state had the whole responsibility of providing quality and free elementary education, but in this period it started entrusting the responsibility to the non-state educational actors - analogous to the Western neo-liberal educational policy. The commercial (for-profit) private sector, not-for-profit non-governmental sector and some other community entities also started sharing the responsibility towards UEE. The Public-Private Partnership (PPP) model was also tried out, to provide educational assistance for the poor students to join a private school - otherwise not affordable to them (Mehrotra, 2006 and Velaskar, 2010). In terms of sharing the responsibility, the government educational institutions were mostly working in an inclusive model in order to raise the standards of the students from every section whereas private institutions had the option of providing the services only to the richer population. Mostly, the education sector provided a favourable marketing opportunity for the private stakeholders (Sreekanth, 2011).

3.4.3 86th Amendment of the Constitution and Right to Education (RTE) Bill

At the peak of neo-liberal reform in 2002, the nation witnessed the passage of the 86th amendment, and Article 21A was incorporated. This made the right to education a fundamental right. The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act or Right to Education Act (RTE), which explains the provision of free and compulsory

education for every children in India in the age group of six to fourteen, was passed by the Indian Parliament on 4th August 2009 and came into force in all over India - except in Jammu and Kashmir - from 1st April 2010 (GOI, 2011).

As mentioned by Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim (2005), in spite of India's policy priorities and programmes with special focus for the disadvantaged groups since independence, many children in the SC, ST and Muslim population groups remain out-of school (see Section 3.1.1 for figures). So the features of RTE - the most recent educational policy of the country - include free and compulsory education in a neighbourhood school, up to the completion of elementary education. This is the right of every child, and the state is the responsible body for this. The RTE also clarifies that free education means that no child will pay any fee or charges, or bear any expenses related to his/her education, again up to the completion of the elementary (GOI, 2009). This act also abides by the 4A (Availability, Accessibility, Acceptability and Adaptability) criteria of UNESCO's basic elements of RTE (Section 2.4).

3.5 RTE and reservation in private schools

With the increased importance of private education now (though in India the share of private schools in case of primary or elementary education is negligible compared to the public schools) there is a significance research attention towards it (Coulson, 2009; Kingdon, 1996; Goyal & Pandey, 2012; Sreekanth, 2011). The views about the contribution of the private sector towards achieving the goal of UEA are controversial. The quality of education provided by these - compared to that of government-promoted institutions - has also been debatable. While some of the studies in India have a positive opinion about low-fee private schools as a part of an effective model towards achieve the goal of UEA (Tooley, 2009; Tooley & Dixon, 2007; Mehrotra & Panchamukhi, 2007), others hold the opposite viewpoint, citing low-quality education provided by these low-fee schools, while the presence of fees keeps their system inaccessible to the extreme poor (Kingdone, 2007; Harma, 2011). Again research by Kingdon (1967) and Harma (2011) specifically raises questions about educational equality in the case of private schooling.

However the RTE, Section 2, recognises the existence of the three types of differently-managed educational institutions: government (owned and controlled by

government), Private Aided (PA) (privately owned and controlled but receiving aid or grants to meet all or part of its expenses) and Private Un-Aided (PUA) (privately owned and managed and not receiving any aid or grant from the government). With a special focus of providing free and compulsory elementary education to the economically weaker and disadvantaged students, it assigned the responsibility differently, according to these three different types of institutions in Section 12.

It mentions that the state-promoted schools are responsible for providing free and compulsory education to all children admitted in the school, whereas PA schools have the responsibility of the same for a minimum of a quarter of the students. The percentage may be higher considering the proportion of the grants it receives from the government. However, the PUA schools have to admit 25% of their students from economically weaker and more disadvantaged sections, for which the expenses will be reimbursed by the state (GOI, 2009).

Chapter conclusion

Presenting a global picture of the educational disparity this chapter discussed the severity of the issue in Indian context and the policy reforms. It gave an overview of the Right to Education Act in the country and the inclusion of private schools. The following chapter will explain the details of the research methodology used for accessing the equity and equality of the reservation provision in the private school under RTE.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

4.1 Aim of the research

After establishing the theoretical and empirical context of education inequality and policy reform to increase accessibility of private education in Chapters 2 and 3, the study aims to evaluate the recent 25% reservation in private unaided schools for socio-economically disadvantaged students in India under the RTE Act, 2009. As Chapter 1 highlights, the research aims to answer the following questions:

1. How far can this reservation in private unaided schools address the issue of socio-economic inequality in India?
2. What is the perception of the private schools towards this provision?
3. How far does this reservation increase accessibility to the disadvantaged section?

The research process mainly involved an examination of multiple case studies from the two major stakeholders of this provision - namely the private schools and the parents whose children are eligible for this facility. But prior to this, in order to establish the context for case studies, the process also involved an extensive review of academic literature and policy papers.

4.2 Design of the research

Cavaye (1996) states that when research studies aim to 'describe phenomena', 'build a theory', or 'test existing theoretical concepts and relationships', case study research is open to a lot of variation and such a design can be used. Again, for accessing the effectiveness of any government programmes and initiatives, specifically in the field of education, the case study research method is widely used (Zainal, 2007; Gulsecen & Kubat, 2006). Albright et al (1998) established 5 basic criteria for checking whether case study is the best suited methods for the particular research or not: (1) Is the projected programme is unique?, (2) Is it premature to establish impact measures?, (3) Are the projected program impacts too impractical or too difficult to measure? (4) Is there unexplained variation in the program impacts? and (5) Will understanding the program implementation in detail help anybody design future programs? He advises that if the response to most of these five criteria is 'yes', then the case study method is suited to that research.

As the proposed research is related to the evaluation of the effectiveness of government reservation policy in the private schools (from April 2010), and the expected output of the research is expected to have an impact on future programmes, the responses to 2, 3 and 5 are obviously 'yes'. However, the response to number 1 is 'no', and criterion 4 is part of the research to be explored. Therefore, with the academic importance of the case study method as a best-suited research technique, this study collected multiple case studies to test the theoretical concept of the educational accessibility. The use of more than one case study enables the researcher to analyse the data across cases and verify findings within the theoretical framework (Miles & Huberman, 1984). So, a collection of multiple case studies for both parents and private schools as the major stakeholders was the best possible option for this study.

4.3 Research strategy

The research strategies used to answer the three research questions are outlined in this section. In the process of data gathering and analysing, both primary and secondary data sources were used.

4.3.1 Secondary data sources

Designing a case study project needs a thorough understanding and exploration of the issues; this is achieved through reports of past studies (Gulsecen & Kubat, 2006). So at the initial stage of the study, an extensive review of the academic literature was done to develop the theoretical framework of educational accessibility and inequality. As the research focus is to evaluate the reservation model, various policy papers were also covered, and the link between policies and academic research explored.

4.3.2 Primary data sources

One of the weaknesses of the case research is that - based on the information collected - it is often not possible to generalize the research findings to a whole population (Cavaye, 1996). Keeping this in mind, the second stage of the research (i.e., aiming to investigate the effectiveness of the policy in practice the case studies from private schools and parents) was collected only in the state of Madhya Pradesh, the second largest state in India. Madhya Pradesh has the highest tribal ST population - one of the educationally backward groups in the country. Literacy

percentage of the state is 70%, below the national average (74%) as of 2011 (GOI, 2011).

Eisenhardt (1991) suggests that in a multiple case study-based piece of research, the decision of how many case studies should be collected has never been predetermined. Research could continue for as long as the expectation of getting new information exists. However, Eisenhardt (1989) recommends that in every case it should be at least four and at most ten. Considering this factor - as the programme is at the initial stage of implementation and there is less chance of getting all expected information - this study has collected the maximum possible cases (ten) for both the schools and the parents. The case studies collected in both cases were qualitative in nature. As the semi-structured Interview method is the best option for qualitative case studies (Albright et. al, 1998), it was utilised for both cases and the format is attached as appendix A and B. The convenience sampling method was used for selection of units for case studies collection, as random sampling or purposive sampling would have been impractical and difficult to use (ibid).

- Interviewing private schools

To analyse the perception of the private schools as per the objective of the research question 2, the study requires collecting the information from different unaided private schools. One of the important aspects of this provision is the reimbursement of a fixed amount per child per year, from the government to the schools. As the literature suggests that there is huge variation in the private school fee structure, it is expected that the fee structure of the private schools is a deciding factor for selecting the sample schools for the interview. As a result of this, the schools chosen for the interview are all private unaided schools and are divided in two categories - only separated on the basis of high and low fee structure. The person interviewed in all schools was the principal, in order to get the most knowledgeable and meaningful responses.

Table 6: Profiles of the private schools interviewed

Fee structure	Fee Range	No. of schools
High-fee-charging schools	Rs8000 to Rs24,000 per year	4
Low-fee-charging schools	Rs2400 to Rs3600 per year	6
Total		10

- Interviewing beneficiary parents

With the objective of getting information for research question 3 (which aims to analyse how far this provision is accessible by the section of the people for whom it aims to provide equal education), it is required that a response is obtained from the parents whose children are illegible for benefiting from this model. For this reason, responses were collected from 10 different subjects. The categories of the respondents are from an educational minority group, Muslim and from the backward classes of SC and OBC. They also can be broken down into successful beneficiaries and also the beneficiaries who failed in the process of availing this benefit for their children.

Profile of the beneficiaries:

Total beneficiaries: 10

1. Success (8) + Failure (2)
2. Muslim Minority (OBC) (5) +SC (5)

A cross-analysis of the both the case studies and the information for the research question 1 and 2 can address the research question 1, answering how far this reservation model can be successful overall, in providing adequate education services to socio-economically disadvantaged children.

4.4 Limitations of the study

Though primarily the study focused at purposive sampling for collecting the case studies mainly for the private schools but it could not practically possible. The research issue has become sensitive for the private schools after the starting of the academic session 2012-13. The schools were being highlighted in different medias for not implementing this provision properly so specifically the high fee structure private schools did not open up to share any information regarding this whereas in case of low fee structure private schools there were no such hesitations. So even though the purposive sampling of the schools based on the different ranges of the fee structure was a better option still convenience sampling was the option left. Based on the case studies collected from different schools they have been categorised mainly into two that are high and low fee school where the limit is not drawn for both the ranges. Government being the implementing agency is an important stakeholder of the provision. So including the view of government could strengthen the analysis of the research. But the study has neglected this component considering the practical difficulties to cover this within the limited time allocated for the research.

CHAPTER 5

EVALUATION OF 25% RESERVATION MODEL IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS

This chapter aims to assess the model of reserving 25% of places in fee-charging private unaided schools, at the entry level, for the students from economically disadvantaged classes. So given the conflicting viewpoints in chapter 3 about the quality of the education provided by the private schools and its equality concern, specifically for the pro-poor, how far this 25% reservation under RTE can contribute towards UEE with equality and equality is a matter of consideration. Therefore for analysis of this issue, we need to pay detailed attention to this provision, as well as to the scenario of private schooling in the case of the elementary education in India.

5.1 Preambles of the 25% reservation in private unaided schools

Though Section 12 of the ‘Right to Children for Free and Compulsory Education’ bill, 2009, mentions the 25% reservation in private unaided schools, it’s not a standalone provision. So, to understand the total applicability of it, we need to develop an integral understanding of this and the other sections of the act (GOI, 2009).

- Section 12 states that the UPAs have to give admission to 25% of the students from the economically weaker and disadvantaged children at the entry level, while Section 2 gives the definition of “disadvantaged child” as a child belonging to the SC, ST and other socially and educationally backward classes. This is, again, subject to a declaration of the government of the individual states. It also gives the definition of “weaker section” as a child whose parents’ monthly income is below the limit specified by the appropriate government.
- Section 12 also clarifies the entry level for the PUAAs as the starting class of the particular school - this may be class 1, or if the school also has a pre-school department, this provision will be applicable from pre-school to the completion of class 8.
- Section 3 of the bill clarifies the terms “free” and “compulsory” which all educational institutions providing elementary education are supposed to abide by. It gives the right to every child of the nation to complete elementary education in a neighbourhood school and the child should not be liable to pay any fees or charges that may become a cause for discontinuity in education. The boundary of neighbourhood again is the responsibility of the specific states.
- While the condition of providing free and compulsory education in Section 3 states that the child should not be liable to pay any fee or charges, Section 12

restricts the amount to be reimbursed towards the per-child expenditure to PUA schools. It decrees that private unaided schools are to be reimbursed their expenditure to the extent of the lesser of either per-child expenditure incurred by the government, or the actual amount charged to the child.

- Section 14 mentions that the age of the child should be determined on the basis of the birth certificate. However it also includes that no child should be denied admission, even in case of unavailability of proof of age.
- Section 7 explains that the students admitted in the school under this provision should not be segregated or discriminated from other students.

5.2 Scenario of private schooling in India

As this reservation under the act targets private schools, understanding the situation and status of the private schooling in the country is also necessary. Thus, the discussion can be organised on three important aspects of these institutions - reach of the private schooling, the nature of it and quality of education provided by them, as outlined in section 2.4.

5.2.1 Reach of private schooling

There has been a significant increase in the extent of private schooling in India from the 1990s, after the neo-liberal education reform. Some individual researchers obtained an overview of education in a particular area (a slum/a district), or in one or two cases, a couple of specific states. For example, a study by Tooley (2006) shows that 60% of the children in the slums of Hyderabad are in private unaided schools. Again, Tooley & Dixon (2007) prove that a survey in North Sahdara (a slum in East Delhi) found a total of 265 schools in the area, out of which 175 (66% of the total) were private unaided. While these urban areas show a dominating percentage of PUA schools, the figure in the rural areas is also not negligible. Tooley (2009) shows that the even in Mahbubnagar (a remote district in rural Andhra Pradesh), roughly 50% of children were in private unaided schools. However, the 64th edition of the National Sample Survey of India shows almost the same result. As shown in Table 7, at a primary level the enrolment in private unaided schools (both on a national scale and in rural India) is not negligible - namely 20.3% and 14.3 % respectively. But in urban areas particularly, the figure (43%) for PUAs is dominant over the enrolment in government schools.

Table 7: Percentage distribution of the students in primary level by the type of institution

Type of Institution	Rural	Urban	Rural+Urban
Government	81.4	39.6	72.6
Private aided	3.9	16.1	6.5
Private unaided	14.3	43	20.3
Total	100	100	100

Source: NSS (2007-08) in GOI (2010)

Again, the study of rural private schools in India by Muralidharan & Kremer (2006) presents the evidence of richer states having fewer private schools; wherever the performance of the public school is very poor, there is more likely to be an increased number of private educational institutions there.

5.2.2 Nature of private schooling

Private unaided schools, as they charge fees from the students for providing educational services, are assumed to be accessible to those households with the capacity to bear the expenses for it. True to the assumption, the fees charged by these schools also vary depending on the target population. Though there are schools targeting elite groups, there are also other schools aiming at the middle income group, as well as some even targeting the poor. There is a body of literature showing this, especially on the emerging trend of low-fee private schools targeting the poor (Harma, 2011; Shah & Veetil, 2006; Tooley & Dixon, 2007). Even Probe Report (1999) also gives evidence of poor and disadvantaged parents' scarifying in terms of other essential expenses (food, clothing, medicine), in order to send their children to private schools. So this suggests that, while private schools provide educational services to the economically well-off, they also have something to offer to the disadvantaged, by nature not all private schools are equal - unlike the government ones where students from all economic backgrounds have equal access.

A study by Goyal & Pandey (2012) proves that even these schools are systematically different regarding gender and social inequality. Students from SC, ST and specifically female children from poor families are less likely to be enrolled in this type of educational institution. Again Sreekanth (2011) has systematically presented (see Table 8) how PUAs are different in many aspects than the government-promoted schools. Most importantly, while public sector education is based on the

social needs approach; the private sector is based on the market demand approach. This is reflected in their goal of operation. Private institutions focus more on excellence unlike the public ones, which target equal opportunities.

Table 8: Curriculum under Public and Private Sectors

Features of Sector	Private	Public
Curriculum	Competitive	Cooperative
Focus	Individual	Group
Methodology	Learner centred	Learning centred
Goal	Excellence	Equality
Intrinsic feature	Market oriented	Community oriented
Management	Decentralized	Centralized

Source: Sreekanth, (2011)

5.2.3 Quality of education provided

As mentioned in Section 2.4, the quality of education provided by the private schools has always been debatable in India. The Annual Status of Education Report (2005) presented the data at national level for the learning achievement of students, and it concluded that the students of private schools of grade 2-5 are 37.4 per cent more likely to read a text of grade 2 standard compared to the public school students. Even when testing the mathematics skills, private school students were 50 per cent more likely to succeed (Pratham, 2006). The study by Jain and Dholakia (2009) in the schools of Hyderabad claims that private school students scored almost one sigma higher than the average test score of children in government schools.

However the students of the private schools mostly belong to a better socio-economic background (Kingdon, 2007). So maybe the better family background of the student has an influence on the improved performance of the students from private schools. But even after controlling for certain factors (such as schools characteristics and family background of the student) the study by Muralidharan and Kremer (2006) has a similar finding for nationally representative data of rural primary schools. The study showed that the achievement level of the private school students is 0.41 standard deviations higher than that of government-school students. Goyal & Pandey (2012), comparing the mean test scores of private schools and government schools in two states (Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh), have recently found a similar result, but they say that as the average scores are low for both school types

the overall quality in both schools is low. In other words, this indicates that the poor performance of the public schools is not true for all schools, and all the private schools do not necessarily perform better than the government ones.

5.3 Evaluation of 25% reservation model

With reference to Section 3.4.2, with the neo-liberal shift in educational reform in 1990, India's education system has already begun the inclusion of private schools into educational policy, in terms of sharing the responsibility of increasing access. Again, the government's collaboration with private educational institutions for providing quality education to the poor and disadvantaged is not new in India (Tilak, 2007). There is evidence of public-private partnership in terms of providing grants to the institution, and scholarships or education vouchers for specific disadvantaged groups (Shah & Veetil, 2006).

The 25% reservation under RTE is the most recent public private inclusion model in India. Presented with the scenario of private schooling in India as in Section 5.2, so far there are varied perceptions about this reservation model, mainly related to the issue of equality - the prime objective of RTE (referring to Section 1.2). So this research study hopes to evaluate the effectiveness of this model in making education assessable, affordable, available and acceptable, as the four basic features of RTE, based on a collection of multiple case studies as mentioned before, in the state of Madhya Pradesh, India.

Madhya Pradesh is the second largest state in India. This is one of the most educationally backward states of the nation having a literacy percentage (70%) below the national average (74%). The male and female literacy of the state is 80 and 60 per cent respectively, and this again shows a huge gender disparity (GOI, 2011). As of 2001, the state had the highest ST ratio, of 20.27 per cent of the state population, while across the whole of India it is only 8.20 per cent. Similarly the SC population is 15.17 per cent, which is close to the national average of 16.20 per cent. So these two educationally backward caste populations together constitute 35.44 per cent of the total population of the state (Government of Madhya Pradesh, 2011-12). This state is also one among the eight Empowered Action Group (EAG) states of India. As the EAG states have lower educational status, so the government pays greater attention towards educational development of these states (GOI, 2011). With

reference to Table 9 we can see that compared to the national average, a significant proportion of the primary school children enrol in private schools in this state.

Table 9: Children aged 6-14 years in different type of schools in Madhya Pradesh

School Type	Percentage
Government	79.7
Private	17.2
Others	0.9
Not in School	2.2
Total	100

Source: ASER (2011)

5.3.1 Perception of private schools towards implementation of the reservation model

As private schools are the main stakeholders of this reservation, their perception and the response towards the model is vastly important to its success or failure. At the initial stage of implementation of this public private inclusion model, the analysis and understandings of the different perceptions of the private schools as per research question 2 will have an impact on better implementation. As the schools selected for the collection of case studies mainly fall into the groups of two different fee ranges, so the analysis also follows in the same way.

As discussed in Section 5.2.3 the overall performance of the private schools is not significantly better than that of government schools (Kingdon, 2007; Muralidharan and Kremer, 2006; Goyal & Pandey, 2012). But this low average is because of the aggregation of the low performance of the low-fee private schools. Even though there is absolutely no research done exclusively for the high-fee- or low-fee-charging schools, still with overwhelming evidence, one can assume that high-fee-charging private schools surely provide better quality education than the public schools and cater only for the elite and middle class people. These are also comparatively more competitive in nature (Shreekanth, 2011). The varied perception of the private schools interviewed is also based on these hypotheses.

Comparing the responses from the private schools interviewed, the response of the high-fee private schools was generally negative towards the inclusive model. All four

high-fee-charging schools (Schools A, B, C, D) expressed that as these students generally belong to the parents who are less educated, they are not able to guide them in doing their homework or preparing them for the next day's classes. Therefore these students struggle in the class to keep up with other students. This explained fact is true to the assumption that poor family background does have a side-effect of poor educational performance (Blanden & Gregg, 2004). But it is not supported by the findings of the present study.

Under this situation, as explained under RTE assumptions (GOI, 2009), the private school teachers need to be equipped with the skills of maintaining a classroom of students from diverse backgrounds whereas generally their experience has previously been limited to maintaining a classroom of students coming from similar backgrounds. They are also expected to pay extra effort and attention towards the students admitted from the socio-economically disadvantaged section. But in this response, the school expressed the two practical difficulties for ensuring this. Firstly, giving extra attention to some groups of students will affect the overall performance of the schools, when it needs to maintain the quality of its teaching to all, proportionate to the fee they charge their students. Otherwise they have to be accountable to the fee-paying parents for their children's lower performance. Secondly, to do so they need extra financial resources in terms of giving a higher salary to the teachers for taking some extra periods; this is again a constraint for them.

On the other side of the coin, low-fee-charging schools have emerged, mainly targeting the poor people (Tooley & Dixon, 2007; Tooley, 2009). So the responses of the other six schools (Schools E, F, G, H, I, J in this study) based on this assumption were quite different. They said that there is not much difference in the students of their schools, and that the students got admission under this provision. Almost all of them belong to the same neighbourhood, so no significant extra effort has to be made to accommodate these students.

As the major source of funding for PUAs is the fees collected from the students, the other most important factor leading to the different responses of the schools is the amount finalised by the Madhya Pradesh Government to be reimbursed to these schools (<http://www.educationportal.mp.gov.in>) - namely Rs. 2607 per child per year

whereas the fee ranges of the schools interviewed varies from Rs. 2400 to Rs. 24000. In response to this, the high-fee-charging schools are strongly against this reservation, claiming that, as the amount reimbursed by the state is merely comparable with the amount spent by the school, maybe for one or two years it could be manageable. But in the long run, when the school is expected to have the 25% of the total students up to class 8, no school can manage with these financial constraints. They claim that the high fees are charged as the facilities provided in these schools in terms of extra-curricular activities (e.g., sports) computers, electricity and furnished buildings with toilets (which are in fact rare in case of the public or low-fee schools). In contrast the low-fee schools are almost satisfied with the amount as it is more or less equal to the amount spent by them. Three of the low-fee schools expressed a little disappointment with the amount reimbursed; they did, however, hope that, as the amount is expected to be increased every year by the increased government expenditure, in the future they will be able to manage it. However, all the schools mentioned that there is no clear communication by the state about how the amount is finalised. All they are told is that the amount is finalised considering the government's total expenditure in the previous year, divided by the total children enrolled in class 1 in government schools. But they are curious to know more of the details of the expenses under different account headers which are taken into consideration for finalising the amount.

Many studies prove that education provided by private schools should be 25% to 35% less costly compared to the government schools (Tooley et al, 2007; Jain, 1997). This is because the expenditure towards teacher's salary (that constitutes nearly 70% of the school's budget) is much less in the case of a private school teacher than in the case of a state school teacher. Again, as per an assessment done by Dongre (2012), estimating the per child per year expenditure by the government for most of the states in India for the year 2009-10, he mentions that for Madhya Pradesh, it was Rs 4423. So the amount finalised for the year - Rs 2607 is certainly suspicious; this huge variation of cost from both sides need to be reviewed thoroughly.

LaRocque's (2008) research, on an international level, rightly pointed out that - apart from the commercial viability - private unaided schools also have the philanthropic initiatives in terms of providing concessional educational services for the poor

students. The same also has been identified by Tooley & Dixon (2005), who conclude that 15% of all places in 14 private schools interviewed are being subsidised, or even being given free-of-charge to poor students. In the interviews, specifically high-fee schools expressed the same view in this study. Even though they did not provide the exact percentage, they mentioned that a similar facility is given mainly to children of their members of staff who are less paid; in some cases this generosity is also extended to outsiders in their neighbourhood. But their feeling about this 25% reservation suggests that it's a kind of enforcement; it is more likely to lead to more damaging financial constraints in the long run.

One interesting issue raised by one of the private schools interviewed is that as the RTE gives this reservation rights to the socially disadvantaged classes, specifically mentioning SCs and STs, without differentiating them in terms of their economic status (GOI, 2009). Some of the parents from these social groups are, in fact, capable of paying even a very high fee for their children, if they could get benefits from it. The expressed concern was again about the discrimination by the elites; these seats could equally be availed by the children of economically backward parents.

All the schools interviewed expressed cases of denial of admission for some students under this provision. The reasons for denial were mainly the unavailability of the documents proving that the students belong to the socio-economically disadvantaged group they claimed. The other cases of denial were in a situation whereby the student requesting admission did not belong to the neighbourhood, or whereby the allocated 25% seats had already been filled up. The suggestion of the schools avoiding this inconvenience was to make the parents aware about the provision and how they can avail themselves of it.

5.3.2 Accessibility and affordability of the beneficiaries

Unlike private schools, as the major stakeholders of the reservation model, the beneficiaries of the model also have equivalent importance when we evaluate the implementation model. So as the research question 3 aims at accessing the increased accessibility of the beneficiary groups, this section will illustrate the benefits and challenges faced by 10 parents of children who successfully benefited from the scheme. Those interviewed belong to the classes SC and OBC (Muslim

minority group). They also include successful and unsuccessful parents in the application for this facility.

From the interviewed 10 parents, there are 8 who were successful in getting admission for their children in fee-paying private schools, so there may be a degree of increased accessibility to be expected out of a further study with a larger target. But even with the successful cases criticalities do exist, specifically relating to the facility's affordability and continuity, and its status as a fundamental principle of RTE (UNESCO, 2006). The fact presented above (about the reason for denial of admission in the private school), when cross-checked with the response of the successful parents, is not the same. Interviewed parents who did gain admission successfully had all previously been denied one or more schools. But all the schools they approached were within their neighbourhood. Again if we consider the case of unavailability of the documents, this also does not hold true as they could still be successful in the other schools. Presenting a specific case, "a respondent belong to SC category applied in one school was denied for admission with the absence of BPL card, whereas she could succeed in another with the same condition as she has the caste certificate."

Presenting a different case of denial, the respondent belongs to the Muslim religious minority group and has previously approached four different private schools. She has all the available documents (i.e., Voter Identity, caste certificate and birth certificate) and was denied by all four schools, due to the unavailability of the Public Distribution System (PDS) card. As she has the caste certificate to show that she belongs to the Muslim minority group, and also the birth certificate for proof of age, she should not be denied admission (GOI, 2009). Similarly one more respondents were also denied on the grounds that a birth certificate was unavailable but all other documents were available to prove that she belonged to the socio-economically disadvantaged class. This shows - even in spite of evidence of increasing accessibility - some groups are still excluded. So here, the findings of Tooley & Dixon (2005) about the philanthropic initiative can be questioned. If the schools do have this motive (aside from the prime motive of profit-making) how could they deny the services to someone who is eligible for it?

Affordability, being another criterion for accessibility as a basic feature of the RTE (UNESCO, 2006), explains that the state should be responsible for providing free and compulsory education. As private schools share the same responsibility, this 25% reservation (GOI, 2009) is also expected to ensure free education for the students who got admission under its stipulations. However, all eight successful respondents have expressed that they have been exempted only the tuition fees, whereas fees for books, school uniforms have to be paid by them - totalling a substantial amount for a poor family. The respondents also expressed difficulties in affording these costs. In some cases, costs must also be paid for some other school-level activities; in one particular instance, a student who got admission in a private school is not attending the classes as her parents cannot afford to buy the uniform yet. So even though this provision could increase the accessibility up to a certain extent, it's still not affordable by them.

The observations from the respondents also reveal that the fee ranges of the schools into which the students got admission are between Rs. 2400 to Rs. 3600 per year. None of them has even approached the high-fee schools. As mentioned above, apart from the regular tuition fees of the school, the parents have to endure other expenses towards activities, books or uniforms which again vary dependent on the schools. So - even though the RTE act, Section 12, claims that it provides equal opportunities to all students to get admission to the school of their choice (GOI, 2009) and provides a 25% reservation - still the high-fee-charging schools remain unaffordable and inaccessible to the poor.

5.3.3 Feasibility of this reservation model towards addressing education inequality

The basic aim of the research is to assess how far this reservation model in private schools has the potential to address the issue of educational inequality. As the above two sections gather responses from private schools and the beneficiaries (the two most important stakeholders of the reservation model), a framework can thus be developed to fulfil the basic objective of the research. As the four basic features of the 'Right to Education' are designed with the basic aim of providing equal education to all (UNESCO, 2005), these can be taken as the parameters for assessing the feasibility of this model. So, the following analysis is structured as per those four

criteria, and broken down into: availability, accessibility, acceptability and adoptability.

i) Availability

In the RTE bill of 2009, it is mentioned that this 25% reservation in the PUAs is one of the initiatives towards the aim of providing equal education to all. But, as per the research findings, these educational institutions are proven to perform better than the public institution overall, and hence they attract an increasing number of parents to send their children to these schools (Kingdon, 2007). We must mention the fact in the Probe Report (2009), that poor parents send their children to fee-paying schools, even sacrificing their basic needs, so we cannot ignore the fact that this 25% reservation is designed to help fulfil the dreams of these parents. A policy review by Shah & Barun Munzinger, (2006) mentions that the parents who can afford the cost of private schools send their children there; meanwhile, those who send their children to government schools mostly could not afford the cost of private schools. Even the interviewed 10 parents express the same view of sending their other children to government schools.

With reference to Table 7, there is a huge gap in the availability of the private unaided schools in the urban and rural areas; it can be interpreted that, though the provision can be helpful for the students in the urban areas, it still may not make much difference elsewhere. Even if the students of rural areas are eager to opt for a private school and they are also equivalently eligible for the 25% reservation, the availability will be less for them compared to the children in the urban setup.

ii) Accessibility

As discussed in Section 5.3.2, the reservation provision in private schools is not accessible to all. Even if evidence shows an increase in accessibility up to a certain level, some parents do still struggle to make it available to their children. As the case studies collected give the evidence of parents accessing the private schools only in the low fee ranges, this suggests that high-fee-range schools still remain inaccessible to them. Unlike the other most highlighted subsidised education program (the provision of education voucher for certain disadvantaged groups, which has potentially created a different layer of education inequality (Tilak, 2007)), this 25% reservation could have the equivalent effect. It can give added boosts to the

parents who are some way better off than the ultra-poor; some of these could be able to pay the additional costs associated with private education, even without the provision. This is evident from the case studies in this study, as the provision does not differentiate the parents who are economically better off but still belong to the backward class. It remains inaccessible to the pro-poor.

iii) Acceptability

The research studies by Kingdon (2007) and Tolley (2005) both mention that, as English is the medium of instruction in most of the private schools, more parents opt for this for their children's education. But the case study response from the private schools mentions English as a medium of instruction in private school as the cause of less participation of socio-economically disadvantaged children; they do not get enough exposure in the family setting to practice the language skills learnt in class. Even the competitive and learner-centric environment of the private schools (Srikanth, 2011), do not provide a conducive environment for these students. Adding to that, as the per child per year cost reimbursed by the government is claimed to be less than the amount the private schools receive from the other students, the schools are unhappy with this reservation system and seem to be reluctant in the admission process of the disadvantaged children. So, it can be analysed that even if this provision could provide financial assistance to the needy children, still the parents would struggle to avail the facility. Thereafter the students may struggle further, once in the school.

iv) Adoptability

Apart from the general notion that private schools only cater for elite or middle class people, Tooley (2006) and Tooley & Dixon (2003) prove that low-fee private schools also focus on educational development of the poor people. Similar to these researchers' findings, the case study findings of this research also draws similar inferences. The high-fee private schools are reluctant to adopt the mechanism so that the students admitted under this reservation model could get an encouraging learning environment, whereas the low-fee private schools do not have any such disinclination. This can be interpreted as that the adoptability of the high-fee structure private schools towards providing an inspiring education environment is less compared to the low-fee private schools.

These four criteria as the indicators for analysing the gap of the 25% reservation model in private schools have been identified below, in Table 10.

Table 10: Assessment of the 25% reservation as per the basic features of RTE

Basic Features	Expected outcome	Gaps
Availability	There should be enough educational institutions and programmes as per the need.	Mainly available for the students of urban areas; even if the rural area students are equally interested, the availability is less.
Accessibility	All should have the physical and economic accessibility to the available educational institutions and programmes without any discrimination. It also emphasises on providing free and compulsory education to all, at least up to the completion of elementary education.	As this does not differentiate between the economically well-off socially backward classes, this can be the best opportunity for such a group but remain inaccessible to the ultra-poor because of the additional costs associated.
Acceptability	The teaching methods and curricula should be culturally acceptable by all.	English as the medium of instruction and the competitive learning environment in the private schools are the cause of less participation for the disadvantaged students.
Adoptability	It should be flexible enough as per various needs of the diverse social and cultural settings.	Level of adoptability of the high-fee-charging private schools towards providing an encouraging study environment for the students admitted under this reservation model is less compared to the low-fee private schools.

Chapter conclusion

Analysing the context of private schooling in India this chapter illustrate the challenges involved in the implementation of inclusive model of RTE with a special focus on 25% reservation model. It tried to strengthen the analysis by including the responses from primary data sources of interviewing the beneficiary parents and the private schools as the major stakeholders. After analysing the responses of both these stakeholders finally it tried to identify the gaps of this reservation model as per the basic features of Right to education. The identified gaps figure out the inefficiency of the policy provision and the need of reforms in order to make this model effective for providing equal education by the private schools.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

Educational inequality persists all over the world, though the intensity varies across the developed and developing countries (UN, 2011). In India, as a developing country with various class and caste classifications, the issue of educational inequality is complex by nature. Though various national and international educational reforms in the country right from its independence have made their focus to address the educational disparity, it still unfortunately remains unachieved. Recently the 'Right to Education' as an international educational policy has come into force (from April 2010 in India), with the prime objective of providing equal education to all (GOI, 2009). With the trend of educational policy reform, the private sector has been recognised as an important stakeholder towards achieving this universal goal of equality in education. As a result, this research has tried to develop a conceptual understanding of educational inequality and the increasing realisation of inclusion of private educational institutes in state educational policy. Then, considering the complexity of educational inequality in an Indian context, it has reviewed the education reforms of the country, up to this point. As Right to Education (as the recent educational reform of the country) has started implementing an inclusion model involving the unaided private schools and it is in the initial stage of implementation, there was a need for research regarding the programme implementation; this can be helpful in the development of any future programmes. For evaluation of the 25% reservation model under RTE Act, 2009, in India, conducting a multiple case study research for two of the major stakeholders of the reservation model was deemed the most appropriate method. It has tried to evaluate the implementation model of this provision as per the four basic features of right to education (availability, accessibility, acceptability and adoptability). The evaluation process has included the stakeholder's analysis and then, drawing the inference from those, it has tried to identify the gaps in the implementation process towards the achievement of education for all with equality and equality in Chapter 5. So while concluding the study, it intends to make some suggestions for future policy.

6.2 Policy Implications

As the intended research had the aim of evaluating the model of increasing accessibility of the socio-economically disadvantaged group to private schools

(which will also help in increasing the overall access in primary education in India), it has analysed the response of the major stakeholders. The research implication will be suggested based on those findings.

Considering the gap identified as per the criteria of availability that this provision can be partially available for the students in rural India, it has basically two major policy implications. As the low-fee private schools were identified as the preferred option by parents for the implementation of this reservation model, the first policy implication suggests that there is a possibility of rapid growth in the number of low-fee private schools in rural areas (as mentioned by Tooley (2006)) as a result of the education voucher system. Secondly, it also challenges the public education institutions to strengthen their system and improve the quality of education so that this identified gap of unavailability of private institutions will not be felt so noticeably by rural people.

But there may be a serious consequence of it on the overall state educational system. As mentioned by Tooley (2006), the emerging trend of private educational institutions is as an output of the drawn-out and poor performance of public schools; furthermore, with the increasing policy focus on the inclusion of private schools in state education policy, this can lead to an increased role of the state among the private sector. If this provision could make private education available to all, including the poorest and most excluded, then there would be an obvious diversion of the state's focus, leaning towards privatisation instead of focusing on improvement of the public schools, given the context when even MDG goal is considered a significant contribution towards achieving the goal of UPE (Spring, 2008).

As identified by Muralidharan (2006), though there are significant proportions of the private school students from disadvantaged sections of society, still these students are from comparably better-off backgrounds than the extreme poor. Similar to this, accessibility as a factor of analysis has identified that even under this provision, private education is still inaccessible to the extreme poor because of the additional costs associated with it. Again, this raises similar consequences of either having to strengthen the state education system or make the private education available to all, otherwise the dream of EFA will be forever unachievable. Identifying the factors of acceptability of the private education by the students from disadvantaged sections,

the private schools need to be equipped with the skills to adopt these students - which the low-fee private schools are not, at this point in time. Otherwise, this private school system will continue to be multi-layered and provide unequal education as per the social-strata (Teltumbde, 2012) - against the basics of RTE. So clarity can be developed among the private schools to maintain the diversity and get the best educational output.

The other view of Muralidharan (2006) shows that a significant proportion of the better-off disadvantaged section have accessibility to the private schools; still, the high-fee private schools remain inaccessible to them, even after the 25% reservation provision. Again, the other identified reason for this (from the perspective of private schools) is that, as the cost associated with this reservation model has a greater impact on the financial sustainability of the high-fee private institutions in the long run, they are more likely to prefer the admission of the student whose parents can bear additional expenses, if not the tuition fee. So as identified in Section 5.3.1, the huge variation between the cost finalised by the government to be reimbursed and the cost incurred by the private school needs to be explored in detail, and the amount can be modified accordingly. One policy suggestion can be made here - that the reimbursement to private unaided schools should be calculated not only on the basis of the recurring expenditure in government schools, but should also include the fixed or capital expenditures including other costs related to elementary education at all levels of the state government.

Therefore, similar to the suggestion of Muralidharan (2006), the overall challenges for the state education policy are either to think about strengthening efficiency, flexibility, and accountability of private education by provision of similar scholarship schemes, or to develop the strategy to convert the poor-performing public education system to an equal, or even more efficient, alternative to the private sector, in order to provide better educational outcomes for all children.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire for the Private schools

A study of implementation of 25% reservation under Right to Education Act (RTE)
Questionnaire for the private schools

School Name:

Date:

Year of Establishment:

Name and Designation of the respondent:

Status of the school: Private Unaided/Private Aided /Govt.

Board Affiliation: CBSE/ICSE/MP Board/Others

Medium of Instructions:

1. How do the school perceive about this 25% reservation and why?

Positive/Negative: Explanation

By this provision the weaker section students good get access to better quality education. But the parents should be aware properly about the scheme so that the implementation can be smoother.

2. a. No of Classes in the School:

b. Strength of the class at the entry level (KG 1):

3. a. Has the 25% reservation for EWS (Economically Weaker Sections) students been implemented:

Yes/No

b. If yes which year did it start? :

c. If no plan for this year implementation:

4. Was there any kind of reservation for the EWS student in the school prior to this provision of 25% reservation under RTE? (Explain)

5. Could/Would you able to ensure the admission under 25% reservation (___students in at the entry level) ?

6. What is the process followed for ensuring this 25% admission of EWS student.

7. Any difficulties faced for ensuring admission under this reservation of RTE?

a. Lower Levels of parent's awareness about the reservation (Explain)

b. More/Less number of students from EWS are available in the neighbourhood(Explain).

c. Others (Explain).

8. The number of EWS students got admission in a. year 1: --- , b. Year 2:----

9. What is the fee charged per student/year by the school?

10. What are the measure expenses for the schools?

11. What is the amount per student/year is expected to reimburse by the state?
12. If there is a deficit how does it affect the finance of the school?
13. a. Are there any benefits of implementation of 25% reservation for the school?
b. Are there any demerits of implementation of 25% reservation for the school?
14. a. Has the school received any reimbursement yet?
b. What is the status as of now and what are the difficulties faced in the procedure of reimbursement?
15. In the due course of implementation of this reservation in a stage the school will be reimbursed the 25% of the cost for all classes in the school from the government. How do you think about it?
16. Suggestions for better implementation of this 25% reservation:
17. Any other:

Appendix B: Questionnaire for the Parents

A study of implementation of 25% reservation under Right to Education Act (RTE)
Questionnaire for Parents

Nam of the Respondent:

Date:

Block/District/State:

Economically Weaker Section (EWS) classification: SC/ST/OBC/Others

Religion: Hindu/Muslim/Christian

1. Occupation:

2. Monthly Income:

3. No of

Children:

(0-4)yrs.	(5-14) yrs.	Above 14 yrs.

4. Education of the children

	Child 1	Child 2	Child 3	Child 4	Child 5	Child 6
Qualification (Class)						
School (Govt./Private)						

5. Education Level of the Parents 1. Mother _____ 2. Father _____

6. Which School do you prefer to send your children?

a. Government ☐

b. Private ☐

7. What is the reason behind sending the children to Govt. /Private schools?

8. Knowledge about the 25% reservation under Right to Education Act (RTE): Yes ☐

/No ☐

9. How do you come to know about it?

a. NGOs ☐

b. Government awareness programme ☐

c. others ☐

10. Has any of your child got admission under this provision? Yes ☐ /No ☐

i. If Yes

Year	2011-12	2012-13
No of children		

- a. How do you feel about sending your children to a private school? (Explain)
 - b. How far the school is from your house?
- ii. If No
 - a. What are the reasons for it? (Explain)
 - b. Do you have any plan for next year? (Explain)
8. Did you face any difficulties related to admission of your child in the private school? Yes ☐ /No ☐
9. What are the difficulties faced related to the admission?
10. Did you get any assistance related to the admission from anyone? Yes ☐ /No ☐
11. If yes who did help you for it?
 - i. Relatives
 - ii. Private schools staffs
 - iii. NGOs
 - iv. Others
12. Does your child continue the school regularly? Yes ☐ /No ☐
13. If No what are the reasons for it.
 - I. Other fees charged by the school ☐
 - II. Discrimination in the school ☐
 - III. The child could not follow the education ☐
 - IV. Parents are not serious about the education of their child ☐
 - V. Others. ☐
14. Do you have any idea about how much fees being charged by the school? Yes ☐ /No ☐ ()
15. Do you need to give any other fees for the schools? Yes ☐ /No ☐
16. If yes what are the other fees charged by the school?
 - a. Admission fees ☐ ()
 - b. School uniform ☐ ()
 - c. Books ☐ ()
 - d. Travel ☐ ()
 - e. Activities fees ☐ ()
 - f. Others ☐ ()
17. How your child has been discriminated in the school? (Explain)
18. Any other comments.