



PROBABILITY OF REGULARITY AT SCHOOL AMONG CHILDREN OF BIDI WORKERS: A CASE STUDY OF PURULIA DISTRICT IN WEST BENGAL

Maniklal Adhikary* & Chandrasekhar Hajra**

* Professor, Department of Economics, Bardhaman University, Burdwan, West Bengal

** Assistant Professor, Department of Economics, Nistarini College, Purulia, West Bengal

Abstract:

Government has adopted many schemes for improving school attendance of children especially among poor and vulnerable people. Bidi workers of Purulia are poor and vulnerable. Vulnerability of these workers has many dimensions. Literacy rate in general and amongst women in particular is very low among bidi workers. Spread of education among the kids of bidi workers are thought as one of the policy measures to reduce the agonies of bidi workers. We have attempted to study how far school attendance of students from bidi worker's families are regular and what are the important factors who are determining regularity of a student at his/her school. Analysing responses of 249 school going kids by appropriate econometric method we found that students are not regular at school. Family income, student teacher ratio and access to school are significantly influencing regularity at school rather than occupation of parents.

Key Words: Attendance, Bidi Workers, Regularity, Family Income, Access to School & Student –Teacher Ratio

Introduction:

Access to knowledge in its various dimensions is critical to building of human capabilities. In modern day world, this access is made available by providing education in a structured manner. It starts from play schools or nursery schools from the age of two to three and goes on and on through a multilayered structure. Generally one completes his or her education after the university level. Students opt different paths to enhance their skills. But the basic grooming is done at school level up to 10th standard. This education (primary and secondary) is free and common to all. Every Indian kid can take this opportunity to train himself/herself and enhance his or her skill. Since independence India has developed manifold, the supply network of this education to cater needs of to its huge 0-14 aged population. Number of schools, teachers, other school infrastructures all has improved through incremental efforts. The result is that literacy rate of India has increased from 18.33% in 1951 to 74.04% in 2011. But this growth is not uniform across different parts and social groups. It is highest in Kerala (93.91%) and lowest in Bihar (63.82%). Among enrolled students all are not regular at their schools. And many are not completing even elementary education. They drop out from the system in between. Those unlucky students who fail to go to school regularly for various reasons ultimately fail in the competitive world in the quest of a better carrier option. It is very important to study among young students who and why are not regular in school going and how this feature is related with their other socio economic features. It is mostly seen students from the poor, vulnerable unorganised sector worker's family are mostly irregular at school.

More than ninety percent of India's workforce is within the unorganised sector (GOI, 2012). In this sector levels of technology are low, processes of production are decentralised and conditions of work are deplorable. Within this sector, home-based production forms a substantial part. There has been a tremendous growth of home-

based work in the last two decades. Bidi industry is predominantly a home-based industry in India which employs over 4 million people, the lion share being women and children of school going age. Bidi rolling is a popular home based work at Purulia which comes under extended part of Chhotonagpur Plateau. It provides employment for more than two lakhs bidi workers, particularly in the Purulia west region where agriculture is not prosperous and industry is not developed either. Bidi rolling is done through contractors and by distributing work in private dwelling houses where the workers take the raw material given by the contractor, roll bidi by using family labour especially of young girls and handover the finished product to him. Bidi rolling skills along with several other skills supportive to family occupations are mostly acquired within the family outside the formal education system.

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Hindi for *Total Literacy Campaign*) was launched in 2001 to ensure that all children in the 6–14 year age-group attend school and complete eight years of schooling by 2010. An important component of the scheme is the *Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education*, meant primarily for children in areas with no formal school within a one kilometre radius. The centrally sponsored *District Primary Education Programme*, launched in 1994, had opened more than 160,000 new schools by 2005, including almost 84,000 alternative schools.

The bulk of Indian illiterates live in the country's rural areas, where social and economic barriers play an important role in keeping the lowest strata of society illiterate. National Literacy Mission was set up in 1988 and had accepted the literacy campaigns as the dominant strategy for eradication of illiteracy. Out of 600 districts in the country, 597 districts have already been covered under Total Literacy Campaigns. The number of continuing education districts is 328. In our study area all these programmes are in full swing.

Average literacy rate of Purulia in 2011 were 65.38% compared to 55.57% of 2001. Male and female literacy were 78.85% and 51.29% respectively, compared to 73.72% and 36.50% in 2001. Total literate in Purulia District were 1,656,940 of which male and female were 1,021,455 and 635,485 respectively. This is remarkable achievement with any respect as far as literacy scenario of the district is concerned. Due to continuous efforts literacy rates has increased but this is interesting to see how far this is helpful in academic attainment of the people of the district. To look into that several measures are there but we have planned to look into it through the regularity of school going of the enrolled students at different schools of the age group up to 14 years in our study area.

A descriptive cross-sectional study has been used to assess the impact of access to school, occupational status, family income etc. on the regularity of school going of children aged up to 14 years.

Literature Survey:

Considerable research has been undertaken to reduce the wastage in education caused by dropout and the studies conducted on dropout can be classified into four categories: (i) Longitudinal and Cross sectional examinations of dropping out using data from nationally representative data sources like Census of India and the NSSO. These studies have been particularly useful in identifying 'at-risk students' and developing estimates of the extent of the dropout problem; (ii) Studies using multi-level statistical models that differentiate between individual effects and school effects. These studies help in identification of factors related to the child and household and those related to the institutions which they attend; (iii) "Experimental" studies examining particular

aspects of dropout. These are basically micro level studies and, therefore, are not nationally representative; (iv) Qualitative studies that employ interviews and focus group discussions to probe into youth's attitudes. Most of the qualitative studies assume that the behaviour and attitude of at-risk students start showing the symptoms of dropping out much before they actually dropout. A review of these studies indicate that the final decision of the child to drop out of school comes from a variety of sources such as within students' families, schools and communities (and peers) or the child's behaviour. Meanwhile, research has consistently found that socio-economic status, most commonly measured by parental education and income, is a powerful predictor of school achievement and dropout behaviour (Bryk and Thum, 1989; Ekstrom et al., 1986; McNeal, 1999; Rumberger, 1995; Rumberger & Larson, 1998; Pong & Ju, 2000). High parental income makes it convenient to provide more resources to support children's education, including access to better quality schools, private tuitions and more support for learning within home. Poverty still remains as one of the significant causes of children dropping out of school (Birdsall et al, 2005; Boyle et al, 2002; Brown & Park, 2002; Bruneforth, 2006; Cardoso & Verner, 2007; Dachi & Garrett, 2003; Hunter & May, 2003). In addition, empirical studies have found that students, whose parents monitor and regulate their activities, provide emotional support, encourage independent decision-making and are generally more involved in their (NUEPA Occasional Papers 8) schooling, are less likely to drop out of school. (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Rumberger et al., 1990; Rumberger 1995, Liu 2004, Ainsworth et al, 2005). It is commonly known that schools exert considerable influence on the attendance, continuation and performance of the children. Some of the studies have tried to estimate the school influence after controlling the estimate of individual characteristics of students (Rauderbush & Willams, 1995). Several studies indicate that resources influence school dropout rates with pupil-teacher ratio having a positive and significant effect on high school and middle school dropout rates (McNeal 1997; Rumberger, 1995; Rumberger & Thomas, 2000). Various aspects of teaching-learning are also linked to dropping out—the case of poor teaching-learning transaction leading to low motivation, low comprehension and finally dropping out is one instance (Chaudhury et al, 2005; Davis & Dupper 2004). Thus, when the teachers do not prepare lessons, do not have designed scheme of work, do not check the notebooks properly and is not regular, the learning does not take place (Ghuman & Lloyd 2007; Smith cited in Hunt). These classroom practices have an adverse impact on the retention of children. Further, research has shown that early school leaving at the secondary level is the outcome of a long process of disengagement of children with measurable indicators that exist in the early grades (Alexander et al., 1997; Barclay & Doll, 2001; Barrington & Hendricks, 1989; Ensminger & Slusacick, 1992, Garnier, Stein & Jacobs, 1997). These studies found that early academic achievement and engagement like regular attendance, misbehaviour in elementary and middle school, predicted withdrawal from high school. Therefore, the key ingredients of student engagement include student participation, identification with school or social bonding, academic performance etc. (Finn, 1993; Maehr & Midgely, 1996; Wehlage, Rutter, Smith, Lesko, & Fernandez, 1989). Boyle et al (2002) suggest that beatings and intimidation 'affect children's motivation to attend school'. Some studies indicate that poor academic achievement leads to dropping out (Ekstrom et al., 1986; Goldschmidt & Wang, 1999; Rumberger, 1995; Rumberger & Larson, 1998; Swanson & Scheider, 1999; Colclough et al 2000; Boyle et al, 2002; Hunter and May, 2003; Liu 2004). Absenteeism from school and student discipline problems is also strong predictors of dropping out, especially at the secondary level of

education. (Bachman et al., 1971; Carbonaro, 1998; Ekstrom et al., 1986; Goldschmidt & Wang 1999, Rumberger, 1995, Rumberger & Larson, 1998; Swanson & Schneider, 1999; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986 Grant & Hallman, 2006; the PROBE Team, 1999). These studies support the idea that dropping out is influenced by both the social and academic experiences of students. The literature review suggests that child related factors such as disinterest in studies and poor comprehension are one of the significant causes for dropping out which is very closely related to school quality measured in terms of infrastructural facilities, teacher preparedness and curriculum relevance. However, not much research has been conducted in the Indian context and the studies mentioned above did not capture the specific conditions of the children living in slum areas of cities.

The main purpose of this paper is to derive information about the specific reasons behind high absenteeism rates of students up to 14th years of age, living in bidi worker colonies at Jhalda, Purulia. It tries to analyze the role of school as well as of contextual variables in order to bring into fore the debate between supply and demand interventions aimed at reducing absenteeism and to suggest appropriate important policy implications. However, the study does not elaborate on the various determinants of school quality and of the differences in education opportunities available to the children living in these areas vs. rest of the district. This is a significant area for further research and merits the attention of educational planners and administrators.

Data Modelling & Methodology:

Data have been analyzed through descriptive cross sectional analysis. Simple regression analysis is done to study the importance of the selected explanatory variables using EViews 6 and Math Type 6 software. We have assumed that school attendance is determined by poverty, family size, student teacher ratio, caste, occupational status, sex, access to school etc. Whether a student is regular at school or not is defined by ratio of actual attendance to stipulated norms of 75 % attendance at school. Therefore we consider a log linear model taking all these variables as explanatory variable to explain attendance of a child at school.

$$\log(\text{REGULARITY}) = C + S_1 \log(\text{AVMINC}) + S_2 \log(\text{FAMSIZE}) + S_3 \log(\text{STUTEAR}) \\ + S_4 \text{CASTE} + S_5 \text{OCCUSTAS} + S_6 \text{SEX} + S_7 \text{ACCESSS} + U$$

Here, REGULARITY = Ratio of total attendance of a child at his/her school in an academic session out of stipulated norms of 75% classes. AVMINC= Average monthly income of the family of the child and it is measured in rupees. FAMSIZE = Family size of the family where the child belongs to and it is a whole number. STUTEAR = Students-teacher ratio at the school of the child, it is also a pure number. CASTE = is taken as general or non general type in this analysis. It is a dummy variable with value one (=1) when the child belongs to general category otherwise zero. OCCUSTAS = Occupational status of the parents of the child is a dummy variable. If any one of the parents is bidi worker, its value is one (=1) otherwise zero. SEX = is a dummy variable with value one if the child is a boy and it takes value zero if the child is a girl. ACCESSS = Access to school when the school is located in the nearest location or within the accessible distance. It is a dummy variable with the value one (=1) if the school is within accessible distance otherwise zero. We are to test seven hypotheses and they are as follows.

Hypothesis 1:

The average monthly income is expected to induce positively regularity of attendance of the children in the school. That, is we want to test the null hypothesis $H_0 : S_1 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_1 > 0$.

Hypothesis 2:

The family size is expected to induce positively regularity of attendance of the children in the school. That, is we want to test null hypothesis $H_0 : S_2 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_2 > 0$.

Hypothesis 3:

The student teacher ratio is expected to put negative impact on the regularity of total school attendance of the child. That is we want to test null hypothesis $H_0 : S_3 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_3 < 0$.

Hypothesis 4:

General caste students are expected to attend their school more regularly than non general caste students. That is, we want to test hypothesis $H_0 : S_4 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_4 \neq 0$

Hypothesis 5:

Occupational status is expected to have a negative impact on the regularity of school attendance of the child. A child of a bidi worker family is likely to come less at his/her school than a child of a non bidi worker family. That is we want to test hypothesis $H_0 : S_5 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_5 < 0$.

Hypothesis 6:

Sex is likely to have positive impact on regularity of school attendance of a child. As it is expected that a male child is expected to come more at his school than a female child. That is we are to test whether $H_0 : S_6 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_6 > 0$.

Hypothesis 7:

Access to school is likely to put positive impact on regularity of school attendance of a child. That is we are to test whether $H_0 : S_7 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1 : S_7 > 0$.

Data collection is done through structured questionnaire among 249 selected students. Twenty four schools were selected first at random among 234 schools near habitations of bidi roller families in the district. Selected schools belong to Arsa, Kotshila, Joypur, Jhalda I & Jhalda II blocks of Purulia district in West Bengal. In the selected 24 school, students of age between 7 years to 14 years were selected at random in proportion to the total students of the said age group to select finally 249 students. Monthly attendance report of the students were collected from respective schools and compiled with the data set generated from data points of questionnaire.

Empirical Estimates and Analysis:

We have presented summary statistics in Table 1. Average monthly income of the different households from which the children belong is Rs. 6159/-. Highest average monthly income is Rs. 24000/- and lowest average monthly income is Rs. 400/-. Income of these families varies a lot as it is envisaged by a high value of coefficient of variation measuring as high as 100.30. Average family size is 6.05 and in the sample largest family size is of 12 members and the smallest family is constituted by two members. Average student-teacher ratio is 41.33 i.e., on an average a teacher is taking care of 41 students in a school, highest value found is 72 and minimum value is 21.

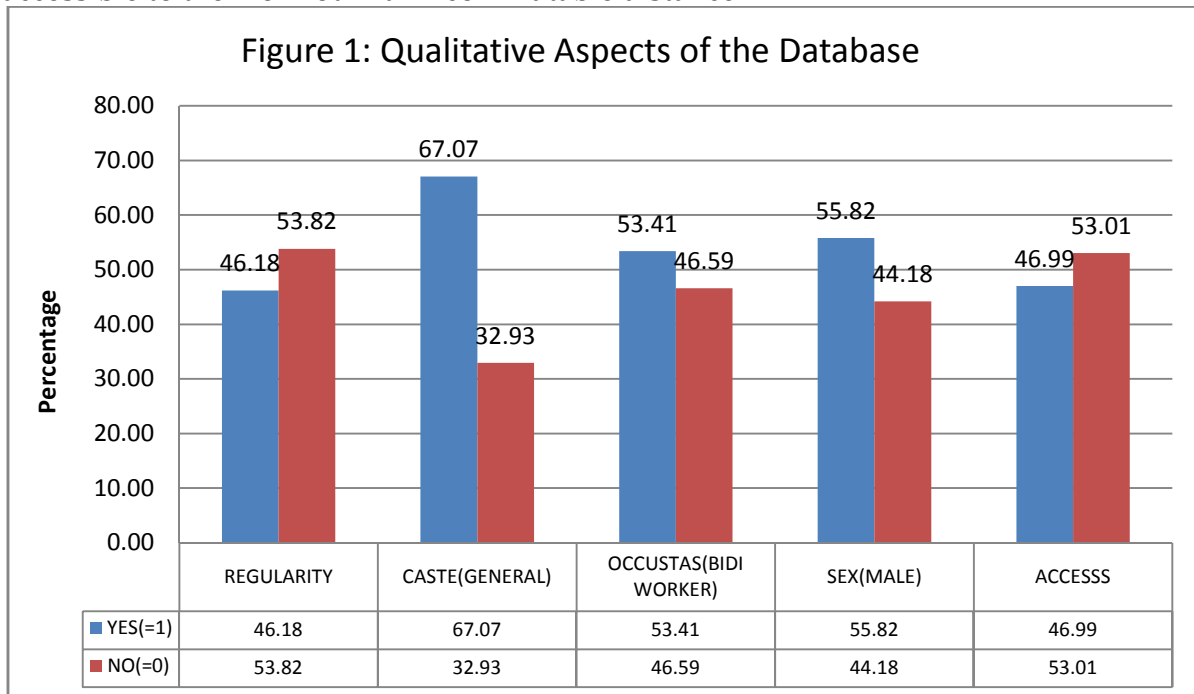
Table 1: Summary Statistics of Quantitative variables

	FAMSIZE (NUMBER)	AVMINC (NUMBER)	STUTEAR
Mean	6.05	6158.57	41.33
Median	5	4000	40

Maximum	12	24000	72
Minimum	2	400	21
Std. Dev.	2.41	6177.25	11.93
Skewness	0.55	1.33	0.61
Kurtosis	2.57	3.80	2.84
CV	39.85	100.30	28.86
Observations	249	249	249

Source: Author’s calculation based on sample observations.

Values of qualitative variables along with graphical presentation are given in Figure 1. It shows percentage of sample children who have access to school; belong to general caste, male, regular at school and from a bidi rollers family along with the respective complementary events. We find 46.99 per cent children are getting a school within their village or commutable distance without much hardship whereas 53.01 per cent of children report they find problem to come to school regularly as it is not accessible to them or not within commutable distance.



Source: Author’s calculation based on sample observations.

General caste students constitutes 67.07 per cent of our sample and 32.93 per cent students are of non general category. SCs, STs and OBCs all constitute this non general caste category. A little more than half (53.41 per cent) of our sample children is from bidi workers family and 46.59 per cent of children are from non bidi worker’s family. Male students are 55.82 per cent and female students are 44.18 per cent in our sample database. Data shows only 46.18 percent are regular at school as per criteria set by us. More than half 53.82% of the sample students are irregular at school.

Table 2 and Table 3 summarises quantitative variables when sample is divided into two categories as children from families of non bidi workers and that of from bidi workers. In Table 2 summary statistics of children from non bidi workers are shown. We are having 116 children from non bidi worker families and 133 children from bidi worker families. Average family size of the non bidi workers is 5.25 and that of bidi workers are 6.75 (Table 3). Maximum and minimum family size figures for non bidi workers are 11 and 2 respectively. For bidi worker families, maximum and minimum

family size figures are 12 and 2 respectively. It shows that average family size of non bidi workers is smaller than family size of bidi workers. Average monthly income of non bidi worker families are Rs.4331/- only with maximum value of Rs. 22605/- and minimum value of Rs. 400/- only. Income of these families varies greatly between themselves as coefficient of variation is very high. Average family income of bidi workers is Rs. 7752/- which is 43% greater than family income of non bidi workers. Maximum and minimum average monthly family incomes for bidi worker families are Rs. 24000/- and Rs.11291/-. Coefficient of Variation of income between these families is 74.42 less than the variation among non bidi workers.

Table 2: Summary Statistics of Quantitative Variables of Children from Non Bidi Worker

	FAMSIZE	AVMINC	STUTEAR
Mean	5.25	4331.19	42.97414
Median	5	1000	42
Maximum	11	22605	72
Minimum	2	400	22
Std. Dev.	2.06	6146.39	11.61
Skewness	0.78	1.65	0.50
Kurtosis	3.17	4.33	2.64
CV	31.23	141.91	27.02
Observations	116	116	116

Source: Author's calculation based on sample observations.

Average student-teacher ratio in schools amongst children of non bidi worker families is 43 which is higher than the average student-teacher ratio (40) in schools amongst children of bidi workers.

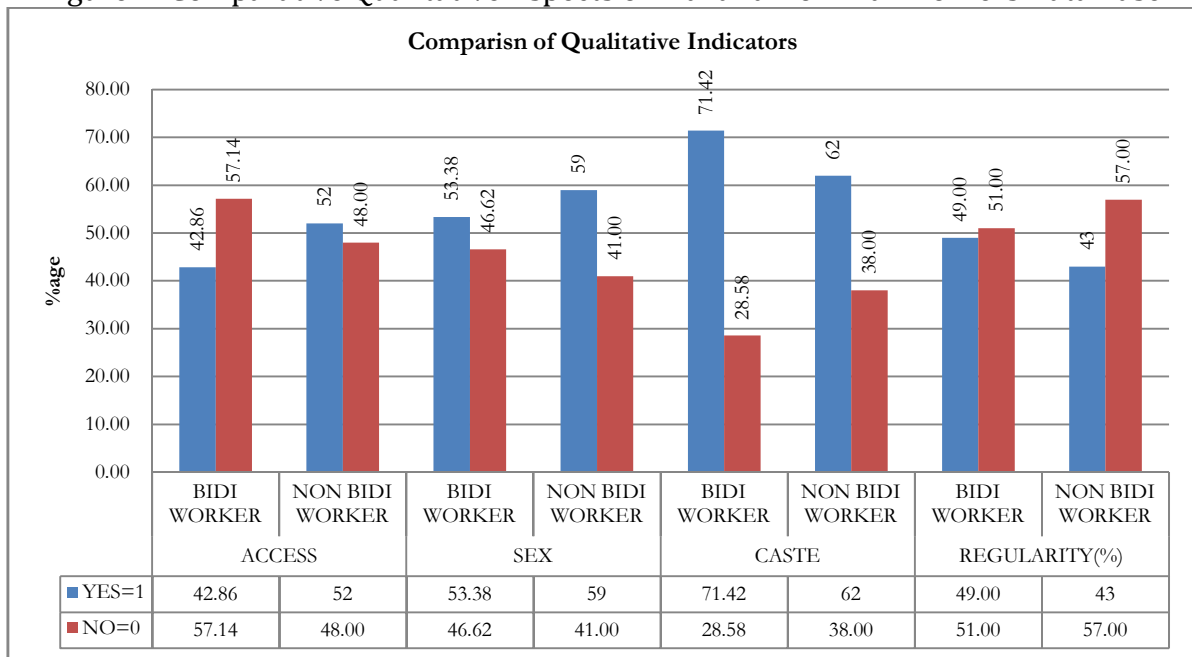
Table 3: Summary Statistics of Quantitative Variables of Children from Bidi Worker

	FAMSIZE	AVMINC	STUTEAR
Mean	6.75	7752.38	39.89
Median	7	5496	39
Maximum	12	24000	72
Minimum	2	1291	21
Std. Dev.	2.48	5769.31	12.05
Skewness	0.31	1.45	0.74
Kurtosis	2.28	4.07	3.11
CV	36.80	74.42	30.22
Observations	133	133	133

Source: Author's calculation based on sample observations.

Four qualitative characteristics of the database for children from non bidi workers and for children from bidi workers are shown side by side for comparison between them in Figure 2. It is seen from the figure that access to school is greater for children from non bidi workers than children from bidi workers. For bidi workers it is 43 per cent and for non bidi workers it is more than 57 percent. Bidi worker families are mostly of general caste. Incidence of other caste is greater among non bidi workers. School going of females among non bidi worker families are markedly less than bidi worker families. Not only that, female students from non bidi worker families are more regular in school than students from bidi worker families too.

Figure 2: Comparative Qualitative Aspects of Bidi and Non Bidi Workers Data Base



Source: Author's calculation based on sample observations.

Regression results are presented in Table 4. Four of our estimated coefficients out of seven are found to be statistically significant. Family size is having positive impact on school attendance but the estimator is found to be statistically insignificant so we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that family size is not positively inducing the probability of being regular at school for a child. Average monthly family income is found to have positive association with regularity at school of a child. It is expected that with increase in financial solvency parents tend to send their children more regularly to school. As per estimated value rate of change of regularity at school due to rate of change of monthly average family income is 0.00001. Higher average monthly income is increasing marginally the probability of being regular at school. But the estimator is highly statistically significant at 5 per cent so we reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4: Regression Results

Dependent Variable: REGULARITY				
Method: ML - Binary Logit (Quadratic hill climbing)				
Sample: 1 249				
Included observations: 249				
Convergence achieved after 5 iterations				
Covariance matrix computed using second derivatives				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
FAMSIZE	0.009	0.079	0.115	0.909
AVMINC	0.0001	0.0001	4.7892	0.0001
STUTEAR	-0.052	0.016	-3.168	0.002
CASTE	-0.967	0.376	-2.575	0.010
OCCUSTAS	-0.121	0.371	-0.325	0.745
SEX	0.510	0.334	1.529	0.126
ACCESSS	1.994	0.350	5.699	0.000
C	0.318	0.917	0.347	0.729
McFadden R-squared	0.329	Mean dependent var		0.462
S.D. dependent var	0.500	S.E. of regression		0.385

Akaike info criterion	0.990	Sum squared resid	35.722
Schwarz criterion	1.103	Log likelihood	-115.242
Hannan-Quinn criter	1.035	Deviance	230.484
Restr. deviance	343.736	Restr. log likelihood	-171.868
LR statistic	113.252	Avg. log likelihood	-0.463
Prob(LR statistic)	0.000		

Source: Author's calculation based on sample observations

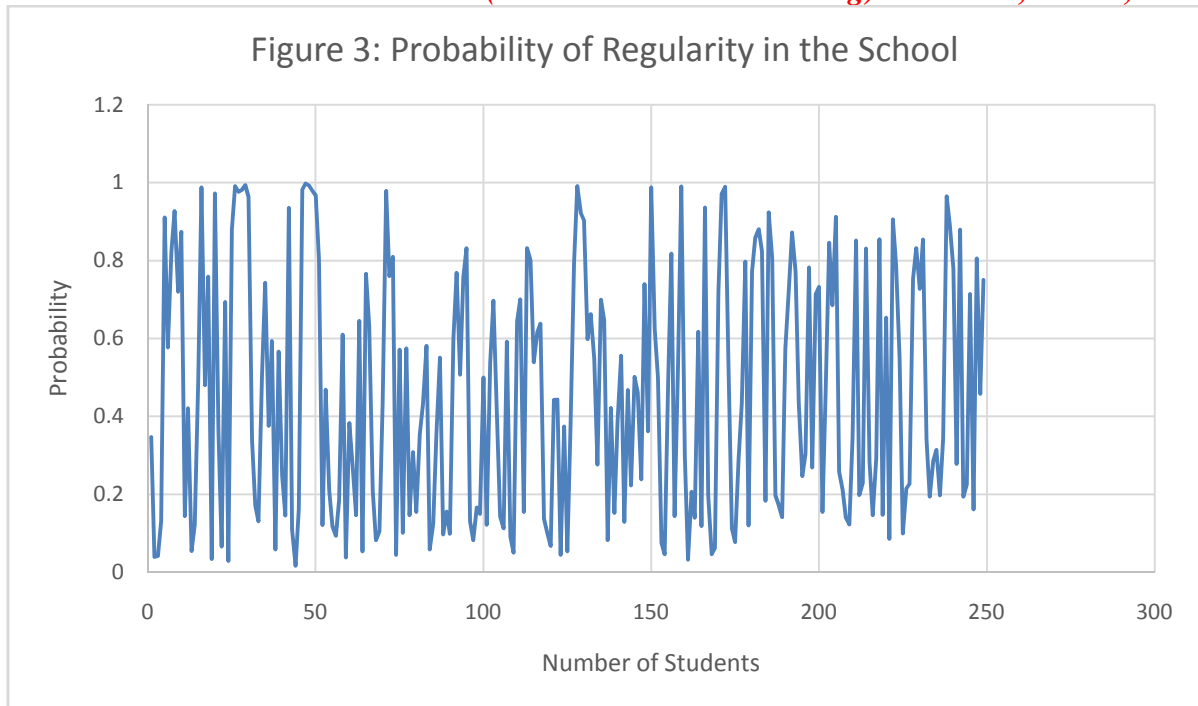
Student-teacher ratio is found to be a statistically significant estimator of school attendance of children. As expected it is found that with an increase in the rate of student-teacher ratio regularity of children to school decreases. So we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Caste is found to be statistically significant variable with a negative estimated coefficient, we accept the null hypothesis. It tells us that general caste students are less regular in classes than non general caste students. Occupational status is found with a negative estimated coefficient implying a child from a bidi workers family is with lower regularity at school than a child from a non bidi worker, family. However the estimator is not significant at 5 per cent level so we accept the null hypothesis. Sex found as an insignificant explanatory variable of regularity at school. The estimator is with a positive sign implying a boy is coming more to school than a girl child. Access is another statistically significant explanatory variable of school attendance. The positive coefficient suggest with more access regularity at school ill increases. The variable is significant at 5 per cent level so we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Corresponding goodness of fit evaluation for our binary Specification is given in the table 5 below.

Table 5: Goodness-of-Fit Evaluation for Binary Specification; Andrews and Hosmer-Lemeshow Tests; Grouping based upon predicted risk (randomize ties)

	Quantile of Risk		Dep=0		Dep=1		Total Obs	H-L Value
	Low	High	Actual	Expect	Actual	Expect		
1	0.0166	0.0825	22	22.7435	2	1.25647	24	0.46429
2	0.0828	0.1309	23	22.2137	2	2.78632	25	0.24974
3	0.1378	0.1848	22	21.1508	3	3.84924	25	0.22146
4	0.1938	0.2848	21	19.2034	4	5.7966	25	0.72492
5	0.2914	0.4339	19	16.0324	6	8.96758	25	1.53134
6	0.4344	0.556	9	12.5773	16	12.4227	25	2.04755
7	0.5662	0.6998	9	9.40955	16	15.5905	25	0.02858
8	0.7001	0.7996	2	6.16139	23	18.8386	25	3.72984
9	0.8042	0.9106	4	3.72697	21	21.273	25	0.02351
10	0.9123	0.9978	3	0.78106	22	24.2189	25	6.5072
		Total	134	134	115	115	249	15.5284
H-L Statistic			15.5284		Prob. Chi-Sq(8)		0.0496	
Andrews Statistic			15.8796		Prob. Chi-Sq(10)		0.1031	

Source: Author's calculation based on sample observations

Data points are shown in the graph below at figure 3. It shows the estimated probability of a student to be regular at school. Peaks close to one value show the probability of regular school goes however this incidence is pretty low in our sample data set. Curvature of this curve shows the marginal impact of different variables.



Marginal impacts of the explanatory variables on the probability of regularity in school are shown on table 6 below. Average monthly income has a positive impact. And the variable is significant at 5 per cent level. Increase in 100 percent of income increases the probability of being regular at school by 0.002 per cent. Large family size is increasing the regularity at school significantly. Probability of regularity increases by 0.57 percent with a doubling of family size. Student teacher ratio decreases regularity at school significantly. If the ratio doubles then probability of regularity drops by 0.69 percent. Sex is another significant explanatory variable of defining probability of regularity at school. For a male student probability increases by more than 5 percent. Occupational status is positively inducing the probability of regularity but insignificantly. For a student from bidi worker family probability of regularity at school is marginally greater than a student from non bidi worker family. Caste has significant negative impact on the probability. A non general student as 12 percent more chance of being regular than a general student. Access to school is significant explaining the probability of regularity at school. With access, probability increases by more than 37 per cent.

Table 6: Marginal Impact of the Explanatory Variables on the Probability of Regularity in the School

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
AVMINC	0.00002	0.000001	35.177	0.000
FAMSIZE	0.0057	0.0017	3.473	0.001
STUTEAR	-0.0069	0.0003	-20.740	0.000
SEX	0.0565	0.0075	7.533	0.000
OCCUSTAS	0.0002	0.0081	0.030	0.976
CASTE	-0.1288	0.0080	-16.127	0.000
ACCESSS	0.3712	0.0080	46.423	0.000
C	0.4433	0.0206	21.555	0.000

Author's own computation based on primary data

Concluding Remarks:

It is observed from our study that students are not coming regularly to their schools due to lower access to schools, high student-teacher ratio, incidence of higher caste among the school goers and low average monthly income. Regularity at school is better among the bidi rollers than non bidi rollers. Scholarship programme for students from bidi rolling families is a huge incentive to school going. Midday meal programme, Kanyashree Prakalpa, Cycle giving to school commuting students and few other are influencing positively the regularity of school going of these students in general but as processing of the names of beneficiaries require timely intimation and according reaction from the part of the respondents, they use to come regularly at school. Access to school is lower for the students from bidi roller families as they get lesser time to devote for commuting to schools as they help their families in bidi rolling activities. High caste students are less regular in school. One of the reasons for this may be lack of incentives for them and as they are land owning class, so may participate in agricultural activities to support family. Student teacher ratio is still pretty poor at different parts and it decreases the incentive to come regular to school. Sense of belongingness to the school grows with programmes in the name of school and active participation of the students in these programs. Higher student teacher ratio lowers the chances of making of such programmes and regularity at school may decrease for that too. Given this situation following suggestions are forwarded for the fulfilment of the objective of universalisation of basic education in its true sense.

- ✓ Increase number of teacher student ratio at different schools providing basic education.
- ✓ In a hilly terrain like Jhalda and in the bidi roller's villages, number of schools to be increased keeping in mind physical structure of the place along with nature of jobs people are engaged in.
- ✓ Parents are to be made conscious about the future of their child rather than engaging them in income earning activities of the family for immediate gain.
- ✓ Government to provide incentive to the general caste children for going to school regularly and that too in an easy way. It may be on income ground.
- ✓ Non general students are mostly from bidi rollers families whose average income is higher than other general caste students. An incentive scheme for this section are high but for the low income a general non bidi worker section incentive are meagre and programmes to be designed for them to make the students regular at school.

References:

1. Ainsworth, M, Beegle, K and Koda, G. (2005): The Impact of Adult Mortality and Parental Deaths on Primary Schooling in North-Western Tanzania, *The Journal of Developmental Studies*, 41 (3); 412-439
2. Aggarwal Y.P. & Chugh Sunita (2003): Learning Achievement of Slum Children in Delhi, NIEPA Occasional Paper 34, NIEPA.
3. Al Samarrai, S. and Peasgood, T. (1998): Educational Attainments and Household Characteristics in Tanzania. *Economics of Education Review*, 17(4): 395-417.
4. Alexander et al., (1997) From First Grade forward: Early Foundations of High School Dropout. *Sociology of Education* 70, 87-107
5. Banerji Rukmani. (2000): Poverty and Primary Schooling, *Field Studies from Mumbai and Delhi*, *Economic and Political Weekly*, March 4, 2000, pp 795-802.
6. Banerji Rukmani & Surianarain Sharmi, (2005): *City Children, City Schools* Pratham/UNESCO, New Delhi.

7. Cardoso, A.R. and Verner, D. (2007): School drop-out and push-out factors in Brazil: The role of early parenthood, child labor, and poverty. IZA Discussion Paper No 2515. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour (IZA).
8. Chaudhury, N., Hammer, J., Kremer, M., Muralidharan, K. and Halsey Rogers, F. (2005): Missing in Action: Teacher and Health Worker Absence in Developing Countries Available from <http://www.economics.harvard.edu/faculty/kremer/files/MissinginAction.pdf>
9. Chugh Sunita (2004): Why Children dropout? Case study of a Metropolitan Slum in Delhi, Book well Publication, New Delhi.
10. ____ (2005): Schooling for the Urban Poor, Social Change, Vol. 35 Number 1, March 2005
11. ____ (2008): Achieving Universalisation of Elementary Education in Slum areas: Problems and Issues, Journal of Indian Education, Number 4, February 2008.
12. ____ (2009): Social Justice and Urban Educational Planning: An Examination of Free Seats in Private Schools, Perspectives in Education, Vol 25, No 1, 2009.
13. Chatterjee, B. (1975): School Dropout among Harijan Children: Causes and Cure Central
14. Institute of Research and Training in Public Cooperation, New Delhi, 1975.
15. Chatterjee, Madhusudan (1998): The Primary Education among the Poor in the City of Calcutta Paper presented at NUEPA at the workshop on "Indian Mega Cities and Primary Education of the Poor", September 1998.
16. Chitnis Suma (1982): Dropouts and low pupil achievement among the urban poor in Bombay, Tata Institute of Social Science, Bombay, Mimeo.
17. Government of India (1986): National Policy on Education, Ministry of Education, New Delhi.
18. ____ 1992: Programme of Action on the National Education Policy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.
19. Maithly, B, Vartika Saxena: Adolescent's Educational Status and Reasons for Dropout from the School, Vol 33, Issue c 2, PG 127-128.
20. Mukudi, E. (2004): Effects of User-Fee Policy on Attendance rates among Kenyan Elementary School Children. International Review of Education, 50 (5-6) 447-461, NUEPA Occasional Papers 40
21. National Council of Educational Research and Training, All India Educational Surveys (for various years)
22. P. Geetha Rani (2008): Economic Reforms and Privatisation of Education in India. Man & Development, Vol. XXX, No.2, June 2008
23. Public Report on Basic Education in India (1999): The PROBE Team, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
24. Reddy, Anugula N. (2005): Privatization of Secondary Education in India: Emerging Trends and Challenges, NORD-SUD Aktuell, Vol. XIX, No. 2, pp. 193-203
25. Report of the CABE Committee (2005): Universalisation of Secondary Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development.
26. Report of the Working Group on Secondary and Vocational Education for 11th Five Year Plan (2007-12), Planning Commission, Government of India.
27. Sujatha, K. (2006): Private tuitions among secondary students in four states. National University of Educational Planning & Administration, New Delhi.