Role Of Economic And Demographic Factors On The Child Schooling: A Study From Slums Areas In Islamabad, Pakistan

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Abstract:

Enrollment probability is used as a child education measure, to examine demand-side issues. Reduced form demand functions used to investigate the determining determinants of child education in Islamabad slums. The study investigates how the demographics of respondents and household heads affect their decision-making. For example, boys are more likely than girls to go to school, whereas families with female leaders are less likely to do so. The family's financial situation strongly influences the chance of a kid enrolling in school, and the father's job has a particularly significant effect. However, this sort of work dramatically boosts the likelihood of returning to school. As slum-related factors explain a wide range of differences in the decision-making process for child enrollment and school choice. For the sake of improving educational policies in urban regions, it is necessary to do research on slum areas separately because of the variations in theory-based and slum-specific characteristics.

Keywords: Child Schooling, Demographic Factors, Slum Areas, and Marginal Influence.

1.0 Introduction

The education of children is necessary to achieve economical and societal improvements. Financial or societal considerations can't diminish their significance. Children in underdeveloped nations are either not in school or are studying in inadequate facilities (Khandker et al. 1994). Education and resource allocation is critical to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. However, cities as a whole are primarily absent from the policy-making process. More than half the urban population in Pakistan is slum dwellers. Urban regions have a large concentration of government services, which are scattered and dispersed. Peripheral city dwellers complain that they don't satisfy their needs (Bryant 1993). The socio-economic realities of the neighborhood may constrain slum children's educational progress. As cities expand and the population increases, the situation will only worsen. The already-existing infrastructure became overwhelmed due to the rush of people relocating to cities, and migrants' circumstances suffered as a result.

Firstly the study reviews the research on the demographic and socio-economic factors that influence child enrollment and school choice. Later, we'll discuss how to accurately predict how much a child will learn and how to reduce the learning gap between males and girls. The data gathered from slums in the primary survey is also described in this publication. Finally, a discussion of findings based on chosen models is followed by closing observations and policy recommendations in the concluding section.

Children's education is one of the crucial choices in a person's life and a significant source of friction between parents and children regarding intrafamily agency problems. Individuals are still children when their parents make this decision, yet the child's desires do not line with the parent's choice and create a moral hazard. To better understand the family's decision-making process and the child's educational preference (Bursztyn and Coffman 2012).

According to Banerji (2000), Slum children's lack of education has less to do with economic hardships than with failings inside the educational system. Low school attendance and human capital investment are more supply-side issues, and the impact size is considerable in rural regions. (Handa et al., 2004; Motriam and Osberg, 2008). Moreover, Rashid and Hossain (2005) state that the lack of basic infrastructure is the biggest obstacle to reaping the full advantages of NGOs, donor organizations, and governmental authorities' efforts. A high student-to-school ratio and a lack of physical access to public and NGO-based schools in the slums make it hard for slum children to attend school. Therefore, slum-specific policies and political commitment are needed rather than dismantling these settlements to address the challenges.

Despite Banerji's logical reasoning, supply-side issues are not the sole ones contributing to poor enrolment and educational achievement. In addition to economics and parents' motivation, educational choices are also influenced at the household and aggregate levels. (Bhatty 1998). Burney and Irfan (1991) in-depth study found that rural regions lag substantially behind metropolitan areas in terms of education spending, even after accounting for parental preferences and the household's economic standing, as well as a child's talents, parents' human capital, and work status and other family characteristics (King et al. 1986; Sathar et al. 1988; Duraisamy 1992; Hamid 1993; Burney and Irfan 1995)

The number of children in the home, the number of parents with college degrees, the age, gender, and work position of the household's head, as well as the child's gender and age, all had a role in determining enrollment, investment, and school advancement. These physiognomies widened parental preference for sending their children to school, resulting in gender-based discrimination. In rural regions, the gender disparity grew. (Walque 2005; Mughisa 2006; Siddiqui et al. 2007; Olaniyan 2011). For the children of Ghana, parental attributes had an impact, although the effects varied depending on the kid's age. A growing body of research has shown the impact of factors including home income, assets, and the presence of a female head of household when making educational choices for children. (Iddrisu 2014; Ogundari and Abdulai 2014; Acar et al. 2016; Iddrisu et al. 2017; Mahmood et al. 2017).

To continue the debate, Jamal (2014) and Gurmu and Etana (2013) identified socio-economic and demographic characteristics that influenced the behavior of that particular youngster. Poverty was found

to have a high negative correlation with children's schooling decisions and a little optimistic correlation with children working. The empowerment of women has an impact on children's education as well. Poverty has also been a significant impediment to decreasing the gender gap in education for children. As a result, girls' rural location and supply-side variables had a more substantial impact than boys' urban location and supply aspects (Khan 2016). School enrolment is significantly impacted by child employment, especially child economic jobs or family assistance, which is a barrier to education for children of all ages. According to gender and country, the size of the effect may differ. (Putnick and Bornstein 2015). It is possible to eradicate child labor by prohibiting the employment of children under the age of 18. However, measures must be put in place to address the primary causes of adoption resulting from child labor (Murad and Kalam 2013).

Children in slums cannot attend school because of urban poverty, a considerable rise in rural-to-urban migration, pre-admission processes, and prior learning. As a result, raising parental awareness and streamlining the admissions process is imperative. (Sattar and Zhang 2017). The exact identification of out-of-school children was essential to the development of successful policies. Residence and typical features of out-of-school children may aid in identifying the most important determinants of school attendance. (Hattori 2014). Parents were reluctant to take their children to school because of conflicts and relocations (Ullah et al., 2017).

The price of education was also a significant factor in the decision-making process. Tuition, standardized tests, and set costs for elementary education were expensive for families with additional children. There are not enough incentives in India for subsidized elementary education to satisfy the needs. Some student incentives were scholarships, free lunches, stipends, and health care (Quang 2012). Cameron (2010) used the "Zones of exclusion" approach, It was found that due to their lack of wealth, power, and political significance, slum dwellers' problems went unresolved.

1.2 Theoretical Framework for Child Schooling

The Becker-Lewis, home production model has been a significant source of demand for child education as a commodity (Becker and Lewis 1973). It is possible to identify the equation for the reduced form of educational request using the method described in equation 1.5.

$$ES_i = F(P_M, P_C, I_H, I_{Yi}, A_e, G_M, G_F) \quad .... (1.1)$$

As shown by Equation 1.5, there is a decreased demand for enrollment status (P_M, P_C), prices paid for inputs and total consumption in the market, I_H, I_{Yi} The income of parents and children, the wealth of individuals, and conditions in the educational system all have a role A_e and last but not least, parental knowledge and preferences (G_M, G_F). In light of the parent's knowledge and preferences, it is clear that they are making educated decisions concerning their children's education. The final model is as follows:

$$ES_i \text{ prob } [\text{Enrol} = 1] = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 DEM_i + \alpha_2 ECO_i + \alpha_3 PR_i + \alpha_4 G_i + \varepsilon_i .... (1.2)$$

Where, DEM_i includes all the child and household-specific demographic variables, ECO_i Economic factors such as assets, poverty, status, household per capita income, employment, education, occupation, and payment of the household head, mother, and father of the respective kid are represented. Whereas, PR_i comprises the

direct and indirect cost of child schooling. Lastly, G_i It consists of other variables, including preferences, awareness, slum-specific variables, and distance to school. Whereasα's and ε_i Represent coefficients, and the error term, respectively.

1.3 Construction of Variables

The study's findings are equally dependent on the factors that were selected for investigation. In this study, the dependent variable has two possible values: 0 and 1. Many factors must be considered when deciding how many children should attend school. We begin with economic elements and then go on to demographic traits when we break down the determinants into broad categories. Finally, the slum residents' choices and awareness levels are considered. Table 1.1 lists the variables that are both dependent and independent.

Table 1.1:   Descriptions of Variables

Name of the Variable	Variable Notation	Variable Description
Dependent Variable for Child Schooling		
Child School Enrolment	ES	When a kid is enrolled in school, the binary variable "child school enrollment" has a value of 1; otherwise, it has a value of 0.
List of Explanatory Variables		
Economic Variables		
Household Income	Ln_HHInc	The total household income comprises the earnings of all household members and money from other sources.
Household Expenditures	Ln_HHexp	The total of all food, education, health, and transportation costs, as well as rent and clothes, is a household's expenditure.
Mother employment status	M_emp	"1" means the mother is employed, whereas "0" means she is not.
Father employment status	F_emp	If the father is employed, the value will be "1" or "0."
Father occupation is self-employed	F_SE	If the father is self-employed, the variable has a value of one; otherwise, the variable has a value of 0.
Father is engaged in the informal sector	F_IS	There are two possible values for this variable: one if the father works in the informal sector and zero otherwise.
Father is engaged in the formal sector	F_FS	If the father works in the formal sector, the value is one, and if the father is employed in any other sector, the value is 0.
Demographic Variables		
Father education	F_enrol	If the father is literate, the value will be "1," or else it will be "0."
Mother education	M_enrol	A "1" means the mother is literate, whereas a "0" means she isn't.

Age of household head	Age_hh	The father's age is a continuous variable.
Age of the child	Age_ch	The child's age is shown as a continuous variable.
Gender of Household head	Gen_hh	This binary variable, HH gender, has a value of "1" for males and 0 for females.
Gender of child	Gen_ch	A child's gender is a binary number, with "1" denoting a male and "0" indicating a female.
Marital status of the person	Mar_S	"1" indicates that a person is married, whereas the value of "0" indicates that they are unmarried.
Household size	Hhs	The household's size measures the total number of people in the family.
Slum specific variables		
Discrimination faced by HH	Disc	There are two ways to measure discrimination: "1" if the family head is a slum resident in schools and hospitals and "0" when they are not.
Role of CDA	R_CDA	A "1" indicates that the family head is happy with CDA work, whereas a "0" shows that the household head is dissatisfied with CDA work.
Residential status	RS	A "1" indicates that the family owns the home, whereas a "0" means that they do not. Therefore, RS is a binary variable.
Electricity connection	Elec_con	If the HH has an electrical connection, the value is "1," and if it doesn't, it is "0."

1.4 Descriptive statistics related to Child Schooling

The main survey results provide a picture of the educational landscape for children living in urban slums. Research on children's education was conducted by interviewing household heads and collecting data from them. However, their choice was made by their parents or the leader of their home. As a result, gathering information from various sources was an essential part of the project. As seen in the two tables (1.2 &1.3) provided in this section, the gender segregation and kind of school chosen by male/female students are outlined. Of the total 926 youngsters, 632 were enrolled in the program. There were 331 men and 301 women among the enlistees. Of the 331 males, 168 attended public school, representing 51%, while the remaining 49% attended private school.

Table 1.2: Distribution of Enrolled and Out-of-School Children

Enrolment status of children	Currently Enrolled	Out of school	Total
Total number of children	632 (68%)	294 (32%)	926
Male children	331 (71%)	135 (29%)	468
Female children	301 (66%)	157 (34%)	458

Gender gap	5%	-5%

Source: Author's work

Table 1.3: Distribution of type of school selected for enrolled students

School type	Male	Female	Total
Children enrolled in the government school	168 (51%)	174 (58%)	342 (54%)
Children enrolled in private school	163 (49%)	127 (42%)	290 (46%)
Total	331	301	632

Source: Author's work

In the case of female students, about 58% attended public schools, while 42% attended private ones out of a total of 301 pupils. Table 1.2's data suggested that individuals were more concerned about the education of their male children than their female children, based on the results. Tables 1.2 and 1.3 demonstrate that males were 5 percent more likely to go to school, while girls were 5 percent more likely to be absent from school. In addition, data show that over a third of all children of school age were either never enrolled or had left school.

 Private schools were favored by 49 percent of boys and 42 percent of girls among those who were enrolled, indicating that parents in slums valued this option for their children. The difficulty of paperwork was cited as a reason for attending private schools instead than public ones. Legal slum dwellers have the option of enrolling their children in public schools. Residents in illegal slums, on the other hand, did not have legitimate homes, and their children's birth certificates allowed them to attend private schools. Because Islamabad's public schools were seen to be of good quality and comparable to those in private schools, those living in legal slums were more inclined to send their children to them.

When asked about the cost of education, almost all household heads (99 percent) said that they were responsible for paying their children's tuition on their own, and 71% said that they had failed to pay the school fee for their children the previous year. In addition, 71 percent of those polled said they had borrowed money to pay for their education costs. As a result, only 22% of respondents said they had to sell personal or household items to pay for the charges, which is lower than the national average of 36%. 73 percent of 423 respondents said they had considered stopping their children's education last year, making it difficult for slum residents to keep their children in school.

Table 1.4 Distribution of Descriptive Statistics of Household Head's Issues

| Factors	Frequency	
	Yes	No
Is it true that you had to pay for your schooling out of pocket?	354 (99%)	5 (1%)
Last year, were any of your children's school tuition unpaid?	272 (71.96%)	106 (28.04%)

Did you ever take out a loan to pay for a child's education?	260 (68.78%)	118 (31.22%)
Have you ever sold personal items to pay for school fees, uniforms, and stationery?	86 (22.87%)	290 (77.13%)
When did you doubt you would be able to continue teaching our children?	273 (72.80%)	102 (27.20%)
Is there a difference in how the school administration treats your children?	361 (94%)	16 (6%)
As a resident of a slum, did you have any difficulties enrolling your kid in school?	231 (61.44%)	145 (38.56%)
How do you think education will pay off in the long run?	373 (99%)	4 (1%)
Is a child's education necessary, in your opinion?	374 (99%)	3(1%)

Source: Author's work

Ninety-four percent said that school administrators discriminated against them when questioned about it. Of the total, 62% said their children were denied school entry because of tight regulations and paperwork requirements. When asked whether they knew the value of education and were mindful of the high future returns, 99 percent of them confirmed as much. The price of education played a factor in families' decisions because they had to pay for it out of their resources.

Without the restrictions of finances and paperwork, their judgments may differ from their accurate decisions. Even though their children were not enrolled in public schools, 59% of parents preferred them. Public schools are not often chosen over private schools with no budgetary restraints, which is why this conclusion deviates from previous research. The belief that public schools in the capital are of excellent quality and can compete with private schools at a low cost may also be a factor in this preference for government schools.

Figure 1.1: Distribution of School Choice for Children with no Financial Constraints
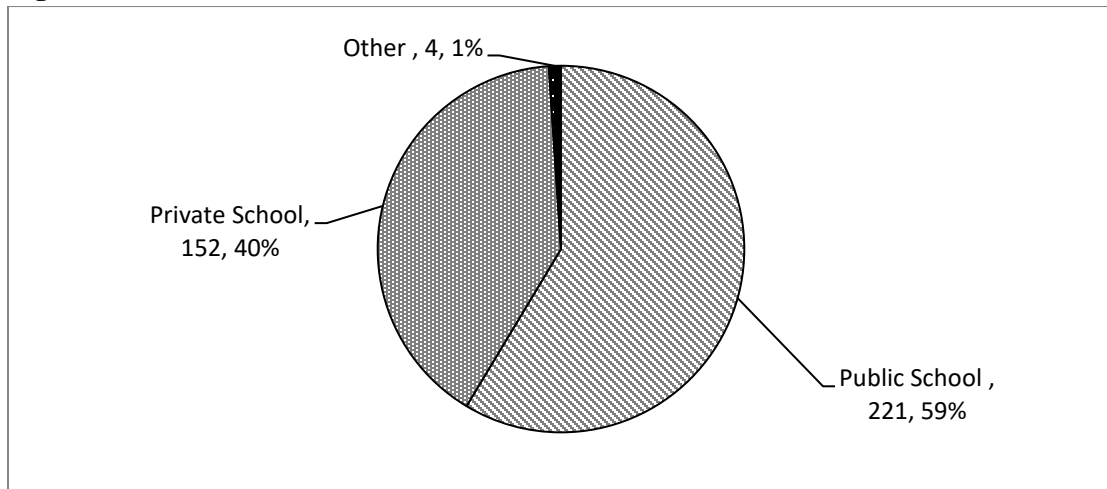
Source: Author's work

2. Estimation Result for Child Enrolment Status and Gender Gap

It decided to employ a probit model since the dependent variable could only take two values: "0" or "1." Because of this, the minor square technique was not viable. The marginal effects of the Probit regression are shown in Table 2.1. Overall and gender-distributed sample findings are also included in the same tables. The probability ratios value Chi^2 is 192.19 with a probability of 0.000. According to our research, our models are statistically significant and better explain the variance compared to the model without predators. Furthermore, the 4th iteration of our model converges, demonstrating the model's strength.

An in-depth analysis of estimates begins by examining household behavior via economic indicators. Financial status has been shown to be essential in making a choice. Therefore, as a surrogate for the family's financial situation, household expenditures were employed in this research. Additionally, a record of total expenditures was established to track changes in spending. The latest study's primary data substantially support the usual importance of economic factors.

Table 2.1: Results for Child Schooling Decision (Marginal Effects)

Child's No School enrolment	Overall sample		Male children sample		Female children sample	
	Dy/dx	Std.Err	Dy/dx	Std.Err	Dy/dx	Std.Err
Male	-.077**	.032				
Household expenditures in log form	-.295***	.080	-.321***	.108	-.277**	.123
Father labor force participation	.136**	.064	.089	.099	.149	.094
Father is self-employed	-.173***	.058	-.149*	.085	-.189**	.084
Father is employed in the informal sector	-.179***	.062	-.115	.096	-.229***	.084
Father is employed in the formal sector	-.139**	.065	-.139	.092	-.138	.094
Father education	-.037	.036	-.017	.049	-.069	.052
Mother education	-.062*	.038	-.046	.054	-.090*	.053
Residential status	-.225***	.053	-.290***	.070	-.179**	.082
Perception of CDA role	-.012	.034	-.021	.047	.003	.052
Discrimination in school	-.021	.035	-.029	.049	.00057	.052
Electricity connection	.072*	.043	.064	.058	.065	.064
Age of the child	-.238***	.024	-.253***	.035	-.22***	.034
Child age square	.0103***	.001	.011***	.001	.010***	.001
Gender of the HH	.066	.055	.142*	.081	-.028	.079
Household size	.0203*	.010	.047***	.014	-.011	.016
Children belong to age group 4-10	-.211***	.069	-.242**	.094	-.197**	.099
Household head health condition	.065*	.039	-.005	.051	.126**	.057

Author's calculations.

All three samples have a significant impact on household spending. According to the study findings, increased family spending reduces the likelihood of a kid missing school by 29.5% across the board, 32% for males, and 27.7% for both boys and girls. Since spending is a proxy for income, the negative sign may justify a rise in spending — including school expenses. An abundance of research demonstrates the importance of a household's economic well-being (either its income or its expenditures) (Chaudhury et al. 2006; Burney and Irfan 1991; Mansuri 2006; Iddrisu 2014; Abdulai and Ogundari 2014;

Acar et al. 2016; Iddrisu et al. 2017; Mahmood et al. 2017; Sattar and Zhang 2017).

Household members' earnings determine how much money they can spend. It means that a parent's job situation benefits the choice of whether or not to enroll their kid in school. A striking correlation exists between the likelihood of a child not attending school and their father's work position, which is common in slums. Because the head's job status does not include the whole scope of the economic situation, this outcome is understandable.

In most slum areas, most people work in low-paying occupations that don't enable them to spend much money on their children's education. Therefore, studying the household head's profession type should be done simultaneously as the job status to get a clearer picture. Taking the inactive household head as the primary category, the father may categorize other occupations such as self-employment and work in the informal and formal sectors. There is a monotonic drop in the likelihood that children will be taken out of school if their father moves from lower-level employment to one of the higher-level occupations. There are 17 percent reduced possibilities of children being out of school overall, 17 percent in the male sample (albeit minor), and 19 percent for females in homes where the household heads are self-employed.

On the other hand, self-employed households should be able to more easily meet their labor needs and earn enough money to do so. Furthermore, in both the overall sample and the female subsample, the self-employed status of the household head is statistically significant. The informal sector also employs HH, which follows a similar pattern. Girls have a 23% lower likelihood of being out of school if their household head works in the informal sector, while boys have an 18% lower chance of being out of school. As a result, if the family head works in the formal sector, the likelihood of children dropping out of school reduces by 14

percent. When looking at the general sample and the sample of female children, all three HH occupational groups are noteworthy. Boys' education decisions aren't fully explained by employment, though.

The slum inhabitants' comments were considered when defining occupations, and close links may be seen in the literature. In evaluating children's education, economic factors such as employment and family occupation are the critical deciding factors (Duraisamy 1992; Hamid 1993; Burney and Irfan 1995; Walque 2005; Mughisa 2006; Siddiqui et al. 2007; Olaniyan 2011; Shahnaz and Naeem 2010). According to our findings, having a higher or lower socio-economic position has a favorable impact on a kid's ability to attend school and a negative impact on that youngster not attending school at all. However, a boy's education is mostly unaffected by the employment of the household head. Since parents often choose to send their male children to school regardless of their socio-economic status or line of work because they feel it will be in their children's best interests in the long term.

Gender appeared to be a significant factor in the research, with males 7 percent less likely to drop out than girls. Evidence of widespread gender bias in underdeveloped nations is shown by the child's gender coefficient's significance level. Empirical research confirms the conventional idea that impoverished people's economic position, cultural norms, and orthodox thinking make it less probable for females to go to school, as well as the inadequate safety conditions for girls to attend school outside the home. (Rashid 2004; Moheyuddin 2005; Baker 2010; Shahnaz and Naeem 2010; Khan et al. 2011; Qureshi et al. 2014; Muhammad and Sharif 2018). In addition, this finding sheds light on a distinct angle from that previously established by (Khan and Irfan 1985; Sathar and Qazi 1987) that the boys' education is an opportunity cost because of the money they would have earned if they had worked as children. It has been shown that slum

inhabitants are mature enough to evaluate future profits above current ones.

The idea states that children with educated parents are less likely to drop out of school than those with less educated parents. A similar pattern may be seen in the slum statistics examined here. Literature's usual tendency is reflected in a small percentage of the household head's education (Duraisamy 1992). An educated family includes both parents and children who are well-educated. In the female population, it significantly lowers the likelihood of a kid not attending school, while it does not affect the education of males. Cohesion between the sign, its signification, and the established idea of good mother-child connections is evident. The mother's training empowers her to make her own decisions and gives her the financial freedom to make her own decisions.

Some slum-specific factors are also employed in this research since the slum dweller's residential status is a crucial determinant. Slum-dwellers are illegally occupying the seized land; many are even renting and paying rent to unlawful landlords. Despite the lack of legal occupancy in slums, people who own property have different educational priorities than slum residents who rent their houses (Gueye et al. 2018). Less than two-thirds of the sample as a whole, 29 percent of male students and 18 percent of female students, miss school because of household occupancy. Schooling choices for female children are not influenced by residential status, despite their importance in aggregate and in male statistics.

People's view of municipal policy making is another factor particular to slums. When questioned about CDA's responsibilities, over 80% of those who responded said that CDA was not doing its job correctly. The CDA performance perception variable is irrelevant to the research results. Children are more likely to

be absent from school if the relationship is in the wrong way. The dread of CDA's slum eradication and relocation policies may be a contributing factor; by owning their own home, individuals may escape the inconvenience of moving often.

Slum residents are more likely to experience bias from school administrators and instructors during and after the admissions process for their children to schools. While applying their kid to school, some parents may be subject to prejudice. The regression findings suggest that children's choice to skip school has a negative but small influence. Due to a shortage of space and a lack of appropriate domiciles or birth documents, children cannot enroll in public schools.

As a result, low-income families are less likely to enroll their children in private schools. An essential consideration in a child's choice of where to go to school is the quality of the child's living arrangements. Regarding living conditions, slum residents have greater access to power than those who don't. In addition, residents in slums have to work longer hours to pay for fuel, increasing child labor risk. There is a 7% increase in the likelihood of missing school in all three groups; however, the variable is only significant across the whole sample.

In addition to the kid's age, there is a strong correlation between being out of school and the age of the child. Higher-aged children are less likely to drop out of school than younger ones. Other dummy data on child characteristics confirms the finding that the likelihood of a kid dropping out of school is higher if he or she falls within the age range of 4 to 10. Because of their parents' decision for a later start time, kids may enroll in school or not at all in the future (Sathar et al. 1994; Shahnaz and Naeem 2010; Iddrisu et al. 2017). Using this study's age variable, we can see the opposite of the finding (Mughisa, 2006) that older children had a lower likelihood of being accepted. According to research, for every one-percent rise in age, there is a 23-percent decrease

in the likelihood of a student being absent from school. The likelihood decrease rate for male children is 25 percent and 22 percent for female children, and the variable is highly significant in all three regressions.. Dummies are used in regressions for two age ranges, 4 to 10 and 11 to 18, with very modest changes in effect size.

Slum children's education decisions are influenced by the gender of the family head, which is only relevant in our study of slum children. Compared to traditional male-headed households, a male kid of female-headed families is 14 percent more likely to drop out of school. The outcome confirms what we already knew. (Acar et al. 2016; Iddrissu et al. 2017) to generate an income, male offspring of female heads of households are forced into child labor. As a result, in normal Pakistani homes, the role of household head is reserved for women in the event of an emergency. Male children are more likely to stay out of school if they are the offspring of a woman than a man, even when the sign of female headship is negligible. This suggests that female children of households led by women are more likely to attend school (Mahmood et al. 2017; Ogundari and Abdulai 2014).

In an overall male sample, household size has a strong positive correlation with the risk of a kid being absent from school; it is very effective with a large magnitude for male children and negligible for female representation. An increase in a family's size means an increase in educational costs, which means that the likelihood of a male kid dropping out of school rises. The added responsibility of child work placed on masculine youngsters just adds insult to injury (Caldwell 1980; United Nations 1987; Rodriguez and Aravena 1991). In terms of likelihood, males are 47% more likely to drop out when the size of their families grows. Female children who are out of school are negatively correlated with the size of the home, which is unexpected. Literature also lends credence to the idea that women's children

are the finest unpaid assistance around the house. The average job load falls as the number of children grows, and as a result, fewer children are dropping out of school.

2.1 Conclusion

There are a number of important discoveries in this research on child education and school choice. Child and household head demographics, family income, expenditures, household head's employment, and mother's education all reflect a similar pattern for slum residents. The father's education and the mother and father's work level had little impact on the choice to send their children to school. Furthermore, the findings show the importance of slum-specific characteristics, which are not relevant to those who do not live in slums. For the sake of improving educational policies in urban regions, it is necessary to do research on slum areas separately because of the variations in theory-based and slum-specific characteristics.

Slum-related characteristics outnumbered economic ones when it came to deciding where to enroll a kid in school. Children's enrollment decision-making has a similar link to that demonstrated in reading. Students' decision-making is influenced by administrative and legal considerations whether they attend private or public schools. Child enrollment choices are also influenced by demographic factors. Children's and household leaders' gender and ages are restricted in school choice analysis while attempting to explain the wide range of decisions that may be made by these two demographic groups.

As slum-related factors explain a wide range of differences in the decision-making process for child enrollment and school choice, our findings support our contribution. As a result, they are able to make more informed decisions about their children's education and schooling since they own their own homes, even if this is unlawful. The discriminatory practices of CDA (the capital

development authority) also have a substantial impact on parents' decisions about which school their children should attend. Even if they have little money, many slum residents have little choice but to enroll their children in a private school because of this. The CDA's influence in the lives of slum-dwellers is shown by the fact that they are required to provide correct documentation to enroll their children in school.

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