



The Impact of Family Income and Education on the Prevalence of Learning Disabilities in Children

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Abstract

Children from families with low incomes have a huge opportunity to change their social situation through education. Surveys including parental education, father's age and family size to quantitatively examine intergenerational transmission of education in India in light of 2014 CSPF data on the impact of family income on children's academic performance was done and the house was completed. There are many obstacles that school staff currently face in serving different families and children with disabilities. Several obstacles, including attitudes and social barriers, must be overcome for a successful networked government deployment. The results show that family income influences children's educational attainment, and that this educational attainment improves as family income increases. They also show that while the intergenerational transferability of education is important, its specific nature is not immediately apparent. showed no measurable impact on children's academic performance, but among rural families, increased income had a significant impact on children's academic performance, a guideline for educational reform in India.

Keywords: Family Income, Education, Prevalence, Learning Disabilities, Children

1. Introduction

The change and opening up have resulted in financial prosperity, but they have also created economic inequality and consolidated pronounced class divisions. Low-income children struggle on their own to rise on the social scale. According to Li Yu (2006), a person's educational background is crucial in influencing their predetermination and advancing in society (Averett, 2023). The higher education that a person has, as indicated by their enlistment assessment, will have a significant impact on how their life unfolds. Due to the lack of educational resources, not everyone can acquire a well-rounded education. What precisely has affected the person's performance in the test at

this point, then? Li Chunling (2003), Guo Congbin (2007), and others concurred that parental family foundations including money, education, and social position, are important for the academic achievement of their offspring.

In their efforts to assist a variety of families and kids with disabilities, school employees are currently up against various challenges. A successful arrangement of connected administrations will require overcoming a number of challenges, including a lack of resources (both human and financial), as well as attitudinal and societal barriers. Grouping frameworks that don't provide the essential support for families and kids with disabilities frequently come with choices regarding who is taught vs who is habilitated or treated. It's incredible to think about the process through which parents become autonomous users of services for children with impairments. Teachers cannot serve as a vehicle for parents until they have a deeper understanding of the context and capabilities of these families.

Since about 1997, more than a fifth of children in America have been raised in households with earnings that are significantly below the poverty line. There have been numerous recent section focuses that have identified a growing link between neediness and the risk of incapacity. The rate of young life handicap has significantly increased in recent years. Numerous educational frameworks across the country keep track of how the influences of the family, school, and home. These factors affect the class size, understudy success, and instructor abilities (Black, 2014). It is becoming increasingly obvious that neediness affects academic success in general, including that of people with disabilities. In the mindset of a customized curriculum, administration delivery, and handicap approach, neediness is unquestionably not an optional factor, but it is a test for educational frameworks to produce outcomes of effectiveness, responsibility, freedom, equal opportunity for everyone, and variety.

In general, children from low-income families are less healthy and perform worse on tests assessing their mental, social, and behavioral development than children from more affluent families. In the future, they do poorly in school, are less confident as teenagers, and unavoidably end up engaging in disobedience or delinquent behavior.

The extent to which these links reflect causality remains to be clarified. From some perspectives, there is a strong argument that a child's eligibility is influenced by their economic situation. The letter has two main hypotheses. The phrase "speculation hypothesis" perfectly describes the financial resources that enable parents to purchase things necessary for their child's development. B. Quality housing and nutritious food, books and other learning materials, vacations and activities. According to the "Family Stress Model," financial stress puts pressure on parents and affects their children's ability to raise children. Economic stress also has a significant impact on the home environment. Parents under financial stress may become confused, less stubborn, and lack the deep resources needed for strong, supportive care behavior (Cesarini, 2016). The two models are not fundamentally different. not, they may interact. For example, more money can give parents the mental space to think about better meals and exciting activities, in addition to the resources to cover costs.

However, the clear relationship between financial resources and children's academic performance may be due to a variety of factors. Parents with higher salaries are more likely to hire more staff to help with day-to-day tasks and to

organize administration for the benefit of all. give more importance. Higher income and wealth can also be associated with different types of social and social capital, which can directly and May indirectly benefit children.

2. Literature Review

Raju and Raharntulla (2000) examined the challenges related to transition for students in urban and rural schools in the Visakhapatnam district. Age, gender, class, kind of school, and other elements are included for the focus separated from changes (family, social, aoadeanio, financial, and close to home). For the review, Jain's (1972) normalized survey was used. The data was dissected to examine the influence of various components on change agents. The review's key findings have revealed that younger students' ability to change is mostly dependent on institutional elements including the class they are enrolled in, the guidance system the school has in place, and the type of administration the school has. Parental guidance and control over the younger students also had a significant impact on change.

Bryan (1974) Testing is done on children whose learning has been reduced to determine their partner prominence. 62 third, fourth, and fi* grade kids who all had at least one learning handicap were given a sociometric assessment (Dahl, 2012). A change investigation was conducted for votes cast on the degrees of social attraction and social dismissal among learning handicapped and correlation children who were matched on racial, sex, and homeroom factors. The findings showed that learning hurt children. More so than correlation children, white men and women in general were regarded as being less beautiful.

Paul (1990) studied three different dimensions—social critical thinking capacity, educator-evaluated school behavior and skill, and home foundation—among 86 children with learning disabilities (LD) and 86 matched children without learning disabilities (WLD). In each of the three categories, there were differences between the NLD group and the LD group. More precisely, according to educators, children with LD showed less resilience, dissatisfaction, and flexible self-assurance, had more orsrall alassroom conduct concerns, and lacked both private and social skills in a number of domains. Children with LD also showed more problems with the structure of the family.

Juvonen and George (1992) examined the social development of 46 students with learning difficulties (LDs) and 199 students without LDs who participated in a third-grade WRC-coordinated activity. There were no differences found between children with and without learning disabilities in any of the recognized or disfavored sodo-metric groups. Approximately 1 proportional Patch was present in 66% of children with LDs, and the majority had a friendship with a classmate without Ws (Deshmukh, 2016). Young women with LDs received the most unfavorable labels and were the least liked. The results of several correlations between socially changed and non-changed children, with and without LDs, revealed that educators believed socially changed children with LDs to be less capable than changed children with LDs in terms of social and academic abilities.

Regardless of intellectual difficulties, Shirley and Milich (1999) examined how young men and women reacted to social rejection. Children engaged in two dyadic exchanges with exploratory partners: a hostile partnership and a cordial one. Following each association, the kids were asked a series of questions and their behavior was recorded. The two collaborations were perceived as having a positive impact on the kids with learning disabilities: Following the cruel interaction, they felt fundamentally worse, and after the cordial conversation, they felt fundamentally better.

Bryan (2000) conducted a series of reviews that looked at how learning-impaired children were perceived in their homerooms and at research facilities, as well as their socio-metric status, social behavior, and social relationships (Elstad, 2015). The results showed that a significant proportion of learning-impaired kids struggled to build relationships with their classmates and receive positive feedback from others.

James (2002) discussed how children with learning difficulties (LD) behave in comparison to typically developing youngsters. In a longitudinal study conducted over a three-year period starting in grades 1 and 2, children with LD as a diverse group consistently exhibited maladaptive college behaviors, set themselves apart from their peers who were academically successful, and were far superior to their academically successful peers. been shown to lead to poor performance. Children with LD dealt with consideration problems, direct and school leadership problems, distant subordinate behavior, and normal behavior. Rice field Children with the Consideration and Direct Problems subtypes performed worse academically after 3 years compared with children with the deleted subtypes and children without significant behavioral problems, but were initially socially There was no performance difference between the subtypes.

In their 2010 study, Hornstra and Denessen looked at teachers' perceptions about dyslexia, how these perceptions affected educators' presumptions, and how dyslexic kids performed academically in comparison to students without learning disabilities. Using both a clear, self-report assessment and an understood measure, the opinions of 30 normal education educators regarding dyslexia were clarified (Elton-Chalcraft, 2016). Understanding educator perspectives on dyslexia related to instructor evaluations of student performance on a writing assignment as well as student performance on state-approved spelling tests but not math for those students with dyslexia. Self-declared attitudes of the educated concerning dyslexia had no bearing on any of the outcome measures. Neither the expressed nor the understood! teacher mentalities from the 1990s were linked to teacher presumptions.

3. Impact of Income on Educational Attainment

The recent emphasis on income in the relationship between poverty and academic success has been put to the test. It is argued that money is only one aspect of how children interact with the educational system. The impact of low poverty on children's mental development is real, though. Evidence demonstrates that low-income children enter school one year behind in language and one year behind in mental development, with long-term repercussions: "Such early gaps might influence low-income children's perspectives toward school and their goals for school

fulfillment." Additionally, there is evidence that a child's ability to take advantage of educational opportunities is impacted by neediness in terms of family resources (Fitzsimons, 2017). Destitution and low family income have a variety of negative effects on children:

- The lack of habits and experiences for learning at home;
- Limited accessibility to computers;
- A loss of self-esteem due to improper parent-child interactions;
- Housing shortages;
- A poor dietary choice;
- Possibilities of familial mental health concerns;
- Domestic assault;
- The anxiety brought on by unemployment or inadequate salary.

All of these make it conceivably difficult for kids to think of themselves as good students. A parent's perception of their ability to provide their children with perks comparable to those enjoyed by those in more aristocratic homes would likely be influenced by their level of money. Parents who are stressed about money and business and who put in long hours at many jobs are likely to have fewer opportunities to provide their kids with an environment that is conducive to excellent academic performance.

According to these audits, it is commonly believed that in order for pupils to fully benefit from tutoring, they will need the support of their families (Hamad, 2016). The education of guardians appears to be a primary area of strength for a variable, albeit this may differ from nation to country.

4. Research Methods

4.1. Statistical model

Family foundation is a broad and nebulous notion that encompasses not just parents' occupations, social position, wealth, and educational attainment (parental education), but also family size, location of the family home, race, and ethnicity. It also involves enrollment and commencing at one time. Financial stability of grandparents and other family members or close acquaintances can be considered as a component of family foundation in India, where social and familial relationships have a deep history. This article will also look at the location of the family's home and the size of the family in addition to the previously mentioned elements.

Table 1: Details of the variables

Variable type	Variable symbol	Meaning
Explained variable	Class f	Class rank
Explanatory variable	Wage	Wage
	Age	Parental age
	Village	Registered permanent Residence (urban/rural)
Control variable	Degree	Father's degree
	Wife degree	Mother's degree
	Fnum	Family number

This study uses different fallback models to highlight the impact of differences in family wealth on children's academic performance:

$$\text{class } f = \beta_1 \text{wage} + \beta_2 \text{age} + \beta_3 \text{village} + \beta_4 \text{degree} \\ + \beta_5 \text{wife degree} + \beta_6 \text{fnum} + \varepsilon$$

The influence of factors is shown in Table 1. Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 show the effects of salary, father's age, place of residence, parental education level, and family size on children's academic performance.

The ungrouped relapse and gathering relapse in the coordinated factors model were directed gradually, with 0 representing provincial regions and 1 representing metropolitan regions (Islam, 2017). Both urban and rural numbers displayed variation in the study of the impact of family wealth on academic performance.

4.2. Data Description

The India Family Board Studies (CFPS) in 2014 provided the data for this study. In order to reflect changes in Chinese society, the economy, the population, and people's levels of education and wellbeing and to serve as a data source for scholarly study and public policy analysis, CFPS will monitor and gather information from individuals, families, and local communities. It focuses on both the financial and non-financial advantages of living in India, as well as a range of issues like making financial decisions, the security of education, family dynamics, population shifts, and physical and mental welfare (Janwadkar, 2015). Due to the fact that family information is separate from individual information, this study will use STATA13 to analyze the data of the two children and their guardians.

Every polling variable is compared to the following estimation standard:

(1) Your grade point average (%). Here is your standing in the class for the last important test (intermediate or final): 1. Top 10%. 2. 11%-25%; 3. 26%-50%; 4. 51-75%; 5. Less than 24%. 6. Don't read. This calculation separates the reviews into several segments.

(2) Total income (yuan), including wages, donations, sponsorships, benefits in kind, and other sources of income. What is the total household income minus expenses? 0 - 10,000,000 Observation test compensation scale is 10,000 yuan .

(3) What is the single education's most important educational stage, or graduation? 1. semi-illiterate or unskilled; 2. Elementary and middle schools; 3. specialized and professional schools; 4. senior secondary schools; 5 Junior High, 6 Man on His Own, 7 Expert, and 8 Doctorate Numbers are used to determine the scores. The degree will be higher the higher the number (Khanam, 2016).

(4) What is the highest degree (graduation) your life partner has earned? illiteracy/semi-ignorance, primary education, middle education, senior secondary education, specialized education, professional education, expert knowledge, and PhD degrees are listed in that order. The scores are calculated using numbers. Larger numbers denote higher degrees.

Every piece of data in the aforementioned investigation is winsorized at 1% to eliminate the impedance of irregularities, no matter how severe they may be.

5. Empirical Analyses

5.1. descriptive research

The CFPS data hysteresis caused a delay in the release of a test result from 2014, which was made toward the end of 2016. The total number of CFPS2014 family samples used is 1050, with an initial net value of RMB 1,800 and a maximum net value of RMB 2,000,000. The average family income was 45,930 yuan. The average undergraduate score for each class is 2.46. The average undergraduate score for each class is 2.173. Standard deviation is 1.078. A common circulation resulted from the categorization of parental education levels into the following categories: ignorant/semi-skilled, elementary school, middle school, senior secondary school, specialized school, professional school, single person, expert or above (Løken, 2012). The examples are best illustrated by the parents who attended middle school the most. The minimum and largest family sizes are 4 and 14, respectively, with 3.831 being the average.

Table 2: attribute of variables

Variable	mean	sd	min	p50	max	N
Class f	2.173	1.083	2	3	4	1050
Grade f	2.460	1.078	2	4	4	1050

Wage	3.482	2.464	0.270	5	30	1030
Age	54.60	22.63	26	51	87	1050
Village	0.535	0.368	0	2	2	1050
Degree	2.853	1.256	2	4	5	1050
Wife degree	2.862	1.252	2	4	5	1039
Fnum	3.831	1.837	4	6	14	1050

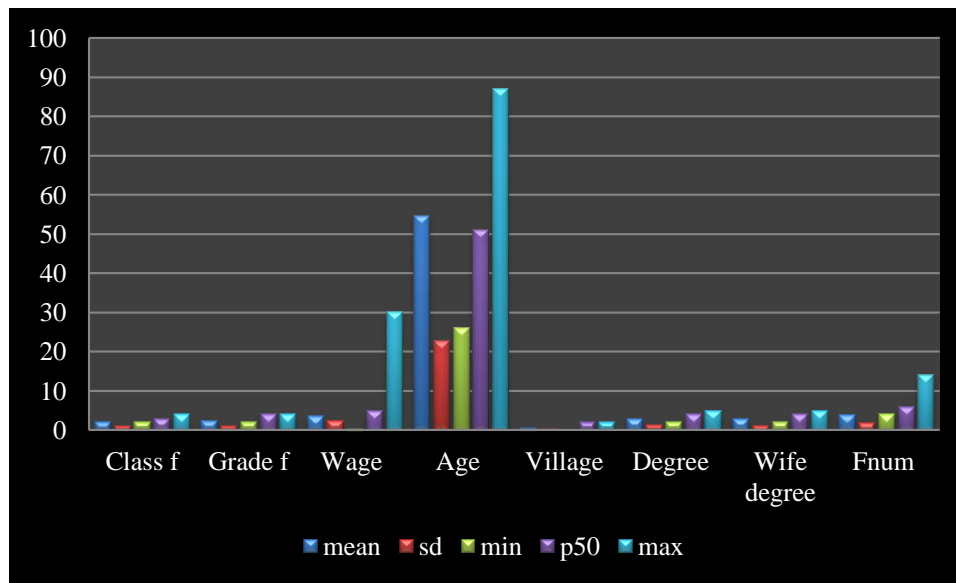


Figure 1: attribute of variables

5.2. Regression analysis

OLS and a strategic relapse examination were used to examine the assumption in order to further confirm the result. The relapse conditions M1–M3 listed in Table 3 below were first determined by independently examining the population, metropolitan, and rural examples using the OLS approach. According to M1, parental income generally had an effect on children's educational attainment in both the population tests and the urban cases (Manley, 2015). However, a larger role is played by the income of rural families in improving the academic presentation of children in M3. M4–M6 displayed a consistent result. Few people agreed that parents who have postgraduate degrees are qualified to teach their kids the necessary or important information in this case. This viewpoint, however, was unable to influence the actual result, showing that intergenerational flexibility is high and intergenerational transmission in schooling is unclear.

Table 3: Regression outcome

	M1 class f	M2 class f	M3 class f	M4 class f	M5 class f	M6 class f
Wage	0.00567	-0.0283	0.0531	0.0234	-0.0203	0.235

	(0.55)	(-2.62)	(1.44)	(0.76)	(-2.44)	(1.70)
Age	-0.00323 (-0.63)	-0.00424 (-2.42)	0.000820 (0.27)	-0.00428 (-0.42)	-0.00899 (-2.33)	0.00445 (0.45)
Degree	-0.0302 (-0.53)	-0.0328 (-0.47)	-0.0320 (-0.28)	-0.0353 (-0.54)	-0.0384 (-0.76)	0.00351 (0.03)
Wife_ degree	-0.00565 (-0.30)	0.00504 (0.20)	-0.0312 (-0.66)	-0.00640 (-0.24)	-0.0222 (-0.24)	-0.0345 (-0.35)
Fnum	-0.0262 (-2.07)	0.0242 (0.87)	-0.0436 (-2.62)	-0.0182 (-0.74)	-0.0320 (-0.65)	0.00550 (0.22)
_cons	2.428 (22.15)	3.553 (8.27)	3.264 (5.04)	-0.0263 (-0.03)	0.526 (2.24)	-2.260 (-1.53)

5.3. Does Money Affect Children's Results?

In general, 34 of the 54 studies found significant and favorable associations between income and test scores for all children studied, but not to the same extent for each score. For example, if significant results were obtained in mathematics but not in reading comprehension, the study would be coded as positive for intellectual development. Eight studies found significant effects on happiness scores for both physical and mental aspects of well-being, whereas the other eight studies found no significant causal relationship and all four studies (more on this topic below) found some evidence of adverse effects on income (Nagpal, 2015). The majority of studies show a favorable causal relationship between child income and outcomes at the time, based on simple employee numbers. This can be addressed using one of three systematic approaches.

Simply counting individual probes has several drawbacks. Some tests use the same data set or equivalent half-tests, but usually estimate outcomes for different children. Evidence from the analysis can also be found in collections of studies divided into various articles written by comparable or related organizations. This creates the risk of double counting and overestimating what is essentially just one piece of evidence. While there is great value in applying repeated analyzes and exploring new approaches to datasets, if you are interested in drawing generalizable conclusions about the relevance of impacts on income, the EITC Nine studies cannot be taken as nine unique pieces of evidence. There are only 4 cases in total (including 1 that identifies a bad outcome) and 3 cases where some bad outcome is close to some good outcome.

Are the data more reliable and comparable to a particular outcome? Evidence is presented in Tables 4 and 5 by outcome type. First for individual studies, then for cases (Pant, 2016) The strongest evidence for children's academic performance and mental growth is found when the two are combined, followed by pleasant behavior at home and actual welfare results. In each of the three classifications, a progressively greater proportion of the reviews discovered both positive and negative revenue consequences.

Table 4: Results from individual studies for each category of outcome

Nature of outcomes	No effect	Negative	Mixed	Positive	Total
Cognitive development and school achievement	6			22	28
Social, behavioral and emotional development	5			12	17
Physical health	5		3	11	19
Potential mechanisms					
- Parenting/home environment	2			7	9
- Maternal mental health				8	8
- Parental health behaviors'	2	2		3	7
- Expenditure patterns	2	2		3	7

Table 5: Results for each result category (cases)

Nature of outcomes	No effect	Negative	Mixed	Positive	Total
Cognitive development and school achievement	4			15	19
Social, behavioral and emotional development	3			11	14
Physical health	4		3	7	14
Potential mechanisms					
- Parenting/home environment	2			6	8
- Maternal mental health				7	7
- Parental health behaviors'		2		4	6
- Expenditure patterns	2	2		3	7

Less research has been done on how income affects results at the halfway point. Despite being less numerous, there is strong evidence that income has an impact on maternal emotional health, nurturing, and the atmosphere in the home. Results regarding parenting well-being and technique utilization are less consistent, particularly when collated by case. We can now see that the harmful outcomes appear to be connected to usage patterns, parenting styles, and children's welfare.

We briefly review some of the evidence for each category of results, but there is not enough space to justify the methodology or findings of each review included (Raschke, 2016). Trial and semi-exploratory evidence are our main concerns, but we also include any instances when there are no effects or negative outcomes. The two supplement tables list all included studies in detail and provide a summary of each.

5.3.1. Cognitive Growth and Academic Achievement

Our evidence base recognizes the beneficial effects of income on a range of mental outcomes and educational fulfillment, including short- and medium-term changes in academic commitment, grades, or grade point average, as well as longer-term results like secondary school graduation and school passage.

The evidence for the mental results from RCTs is provided by four studies of up to 14 government initiatives in the US and Canada, which compare the impact of projects that boost business but do not produce money to those that promote income as well. Based on the covers, we treat each of the four examinations that are being seen at these projects as a single "case". The greatest example size is provided by two studies, which use data from numerous projects and search for favorable outcomes in mother and educator assessments of youngsters' academic performance and test scores.

Children from low- and moderate-income households who benefited from considerable income increases through the EITC in the latter half of the 1980s and the middle of the 1990s showed improvements in their arithmetic and reading test scores, according to Dahl and Lochner (2012). Three studies show that restrictive money movements in the Oportunidades of Mexico affect young men, significantly impairing mathematics performance (Saikia, 2016). When studying the effects of CCT, it is difficult to separate financial impacts from environmental impacts. Using the instrumental variable method, Manley et al. (2015) tackles this issue head-on by simulating rather than simulating the amount a family should receive based on their size and the ages of their children. In general, the higher the total amount, the higher the oral evaluation scores. It also has a high mental rating score, but does not meet the severity criteria.

5.3.2. Development in Social, Emotional, and Behavioral Areas

A paucity of exploratory, semi-judicial studies and a paucity of evidence support the effectiveness of friendly, community-based activism. Gennetian and Mill operator (2002) review the results of children born to her three groups of mothers in a key his RCT case, the Minnesota Family Venture Program (MFIP).

A person receiving a financial incentive to enter the workforce those who receive in addition to the required business incentives; and a comparison group In addition, they find evidence of the disastrous consequences of procedural rules such as: B. Decline in children's social skills and independence at home, which means working as an additional source of income. A relationship between increased income and specific courses of action was found in her second study by the same author, but is not relevant here.

Based on the behavioral side effects of profit sharing in the Cherokee club described above, only those children whose families moved out of necessity as a result of the exchange had favorable results. Parental supervision was considered the most important decision-making factor. The extra money also reduced youth involvement in

cheating, such as whether young people had committed cheating or controlled drugs by the age of 21. This had the greatest impact on the poorest families.

Two scenarios that examine social and research outcomes but find no discernible influence are divided. It's likely that the impacts of income are being mitigated in this study since it accounts for factors that might have an impact on middle-class individuals, such as the nurturing and emotional well-being of the guardians. The authors unquestionably think that parental pressure significantly reduces the effect of wealth on non-mental turns of events.

5.3.3. Health

Compared to the outcomes for other children, the wellbeing scores are a little bit more erratic. There is a plausible and uplifting narrative that is akin to the findings around birth, but the findings on following wellbeing measures are more equivocal, and the few studies that have looked at asthma or respiratory disorders have only produced false positive outcomes. Keeping this in mind, it is likely that the magnitude of income changes found in these studies is insufficient to cover improvements in lodging options (Washbrook, 2014). There have also been other studies that take into account other potential intermediary people, like parental smoking.

Several semi-experimental US studies look at the advantages of early delivery. Chung et al. (2016) look at the Gold country Extremely Durable Asset in the 1980s, which started distributing (unexpected) significant profits to the population of the Frozen North in the middle of the 1980s, causing a significant decline in low birth weight in beneficiary families with little positive effects on other birth outcomes, such as Apgar scores. Komro et al. (2016), which take advantage of variance in least earnings among US states and over time, find that higher salaries are connected with a reduction in low birth weight and post-neonatal death. Mocan et al. (2015) explicitly highlight the favorable effects on birth weight and gestational age for low-talented mothers by examining how expertise-biased innovation shocks affected profit in various industries. Two studies that examine the EITC also show increases in birth weight and Apgar score as well as decreases in the frequency of premature birth.

Finally, when two studies exhibit some signs of both negative and positive outcomes, we classify them together as "blended" investigations. The first is the lottery trial by Cesarini et al., which shows a rise in hospitalizations just after the lottery but no impact on birth weight or the usage of allergy or asthma drugs. Additionally, a review of observational data using the US Board Investigation of Income Elements shows that higher income has a positive impact on families with low incomes' overall wellbeing, but startling and unexplained negative effects are seen for those with the very lowest incomes.

6. Conclusion

Children's educational attainment is largely influenced by family income, which is thought to rise with increasing income. A family with ample resources can donate more, especially in the case of educational assets. For lower-income families, parents constantly clamor and have low expectations for their kids. They may also prioritize their

own financial needs over their kids' education. This also implies that those who wish to improve their lives through concentration are gullible because the standard is rising and the wealth gap is widening (Zachrisson, 2015). To lessen the discrepancy in intergenerational transmission, legislators should offer more egalitarian educational options and funding. They essentially examine how our system of public assistance harms disabled children and their families. Reevaluating financial plan cutting tactics in the areas of employment, education, healthcare, and lodging is necessary. It goes without saying that family income-raising strategies can help broaden children's cognitive development and academic success.

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