Impact and Influence of Teachers on the Lives of Migrant Children

Prachi Lahiri[*a] & Bishakha Bhattacharyya[b]

* Corresponding author:
Email: prachi_lahiri@yahoo.com
a. Department of Social Science, National Public School; HSR Layout Bangalore, India
b. Department of Science, National Public School, Indiranagar, Bangalore, India

How to cite
Lahiri, P., & Bhattacharyya, B. (2025). Impact and Influence of Teachers on the Lives of Migrant Children. *Journal of Culture and Values in Education*, 8(1), 1-31.
https://doi.org/10.46303/jcve.2025.2

ABSTRACT

Millions of Indians migrate from their homeland, either lured by better prospects or just to survive the subsistence crisis. Poverty, lack of employment, the dismal state of the economy, lack of opportunity, depletion of natural resources, the occurrence of natural disasters, lack of cultivable land, and low agricultural output are some of the 'push factors' from the place of origin. 'Pull factors', such as better employment options, higher earning facilities, and better working conditions, draw migrants to a new destination like the metropolitan cities. The education of the children of these migrant workers is severely compromised in this movement. The present education system of India is largely suitable for the settled population and does not cater to underprivileged migrant children. Language, caste, religion, and grade-appropriate age are some of the other impediments faced by these children to acquire education. Civil Society Organizations and Non-Government Organizations run schools or day-care facilities to ensure continuity in their education. The teachers working with the children in these schools play an important role at the grassroot level to bridge the gaps in their learning. They provide them with a safe space to receive education. This paper highlights the challenges faced by these teachers and the possible reasons behind these difficulties. It also focusses on the opportunities created by the NGOs and CSOs to empower these teachers to provide a better environment for teaching and learning. Multiple perspectives from both teachers and CSO management representatives have been incorporated. It enriches the data triangulation by including diverse viewpoints and experiences. Quantitative data was gathered through questionnaires, and qualitative insights were obtained through interviews. CSOs and their dedicated team of teachers play a crucial role in providing education to children from migrant families, by raising the standard of primary education and provide an inclusive environment.

KEYWORDS

Migrant children; education; teachers; challenges; continuity; Non-government organization.

INTRODUCTION

"Migration is an expression of the human aspiration for dignity, safety and a better future" (Ban Ki- Moon, 2013). As per a report from UNESCO, 2013 titled 'Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India', three out of ten Indians are internal migrants (Ansari, 2016). According to the 2011 census, it is estimated that there are 93 million child migrants (0-19 years) in India who travel with or without their parents (UNICEF, 2020). In this article, henceforth, children of internal migrant labourers will be referred to as 'migrant children'.

Extensive research has been done to highlight the condition of migrant laborers. However, few research articles have been published on the education of their children. There are Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) who work towards the upliftment of these children to ensure their inclusion into the mainstream. These organizations run schools to bridge the gap in their learning. The teachers and the field workers of these institutions are the scaffolding agents who work towards providing quality education to these migrant children. Not much is known about the role of these teachers working with migrant children as there is a lack of research and recognition for their work (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014). Teachers working with migrant children provide the students with the necessary stability. Therefore, it is important to understand the challenges these teachers face to provide the students with the much-needed support.

This article addresses the struggles faced by the teachers of migrant children and the impediments that the CSOs and NGOs must overcome to provide continuity in their education. A teacher centric approach has been adopted while conducting the research based on four CSO's in the city of Bengaluru, Karnataka, India. The views of the management running the schools on behalf of the CSOs and NGOs have been incorporated. Based on the data collected and analyzed, suggestions have been made for policy makers to empower these teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Most migration takes place from rural to urban areas in search of better employment opportunities (Singh, 2016). Migration lures people from rural areas to urban areas with a dream for a better life (Singh & Basu, 2020). However, they get exposed to poverty and slum living and seasonal employment. Therefore, movement of these migrant families occur between the source and the destination or to a new destination (Smita, 2008).

Children who move with their parents face the risk of being drawn into child labour and are prone to social isolation (Lal, 2019). Proper food and shelter become the main concern of the migrant workers. When the survival of the family is put to question, formal education for their children is heavily compromised due to interruptions (Kuset & Gür, 2021; Roy et al., 2015).

The Right to Education (RTE) Act, 2009, under Article 21-A, in the Constitution of India seeks to provide free and compulsory education to all children in the age group of six to fourteen years (Ministry of Education, 2021).

Despite the RTE, the children of migrant workers face various challenges in obtaining formal education. Some of the factors that impede these children to receive compulsory primary education are:

- Transfer in between schools during the academic session as the time of migration does not synch with the academic year (Rajan, 2021).
- Medium of instruction varies from state to state in India as every state has its own regional language.
- Maintaining regular attendance is difficult due to absence of family support system (Pal, 2014).

The schooling system is tailor-made for students who are stationed in one place and not for the migrant children. Thus, the migrant children who are not anchored in one place get side-lined (Rajan, 2022). These children are constantly struggling to fit into the space where they have been forced to migrate.

Indian schools have a strict adherence to academic calendar. They also follow age-wise gradation of students for different grades. Hence, the migrant children fail to fit in (Rajan, 2023). This age wise gradation of students which is woven into the system's infrastructure disregard the gaps in studies of the migrant children (ibid). There is an artificial onus on the school authority of the urban areas to "civilize and upgrade" these students. This leads to further exclusion of these children from the mainstream because of the prejudices of caste, gender, and religion (ibid). The curriculum followed in these schools which does not fit the needs of the children further leads to exclusion. Since paperwork is not updated on a regular basis the data that government has on these children are also skewed. Their academic level remains far below the average of the sedentary children. Fitting them in a lower grade which matches their academic level and not the age prescribed, further leads to dropouts, and increases learning gaps (Kapur, n.d).

A teacher plays seven different roles in the lives of a student. They influence the students as a role model, mentors of character, facilitators in academics and other life skills, caregiver, communicator of moral values, counsellor, and act as a bridge between parents, society, and children (Gui et al., 2020). Long-term education is supported by strong educator-learner relationship. Emotional support and the interpersonal style of the educator makes the students feel cared for (Zheng, 2022). Teachers with multiple skills in the field of teaching-learning and qualifications in leadership are needed to empower students when they face challenges like exclusion and extreme competition (Pushpanadham & Mammen, 2020).

Thus, the contribution of teachers to the lives of the migrant children become an important study area. The primary research questions that are addressed in this study are:

1. What are the challenges of the teachers working with migrant children?
2. What is the role of the CSOs and NGOs in empowering these teachers to help the migrant children?

There is a severe paucity of research done on teachers working with the migrant children, although there is sufficient research available on these children. On further investigation, it was observed that there was equal scarcity on research done on various topics on schoolteachers (Jennings, 2015; Teng, 2016; Vance et al., 2015; Davin & Heineke, 2016). Thus, relevant literature on teachers could not be cited as part of this research literature review. However, being part of the teacher fraternity, the authors considered this lack of research as an opportunity to highlight the contribution of these teachers which would otherwise go unnoticed.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study examines certain sociological theories that helps to understand the educational experiences of the migrant children. In doing so, it also highlights the tireless effort of the teachers in providing continuity to their education. These theories include Cultural Capital Theory, Social Reproduction Theory, Social Capital Theory, and Acculturation Theory.

According to Cultural Capital Theory, a person's educational success is influenced by their cultural knowledge, skills and education (Bourdieu, 2011). In the context of migrant children, a lack of cultural capital along with the unfamiliar urban educational setting, hinders academic performance. Teachers play a crucial role in recognizing and valuing the diverse cultural capital that migrant children bring from their native place.

Social Reproduction Theory highlights the connection between the educational challenges faced by the migrant children and the broader social structure and its inherent inequalities (Bourdieu, 2018). They often lack cultural capital, such as educational resources and language proficiency, leading to struggles in school. Their habitus, shaped by family experiences and cultural background, may clash with the dominant school culture, causing misunderstandings and alienation (Yu, 2020). Adapting to a new environment adds stress, affecting performance. Marginalization by administrators and facing stigma and discrimination further hinder their educational progress.

Acculturation Theory examines how individuals adapt to new cultural environments (Berry,1980). Teachers can facilitate the acculturation process for migrant children, helping them to navigate through the challenges of integrating into urban schools while maintaining their cultural identities. This theory identifies various strategies individuals and groups use during the acculturation process, including assimilation, integration, and marginalization. Berry's framework helps in understanding the psychological and sociocultural adjustments required for successful acculturation (Fang et al., 2016).

According to the Social Capital Theory, the networks of relationships and trust within a community, is essential for educational success (Coleman, 1988). This paper indicates how teachers can leverage social capital to create supportive networks that enhance migrant children's educational experiences and outcomes.

Together, these theories provide a comprehensive framework for examining the educational experiences of migrant children. Cultural Capital Theory and Social Reproduction Theory help to identify the barriers these children face, while Acculturation Theory and Social Capital Theory offer insights into how teachers can effectively support their adaptation and integration into the school environment. By integrating these perspectives, the study illustrates how teachers can leverage their understanding of cultural and social dynamics to create supportive educational spaces that acknowledge and celebrate the diverse backgrounds of migrant children. 'Real learning' happens when the learner actively connects with past experiences, including people, technology and concepts. This process builds competency, perseverance, and curiosity, fostering intellectual growth (Bokayev, 2023).

This holistic approach not only highlights the challenges but also points toward strategies for promoting equity and inclusion in education, thereby enriching the academic and social experiences of this vulnerable population.

METHODS

Sample and Data Collection

Having an insider's perspective (both researchers are schoolteachers), the researchers knew the boundaries within which the teachers of the migrant children are working. Therefore, they tried to collect the data from them in a method that was most convenient for them to participate in. The researchers were aware of the long and demanding working hours of CSO run schools. Thus, data was collected through structured questionnaires given to eighty teachers from schools run by four CSOs working with migrant children situated in urban Bangalore, Karnataka, India. Four management representatives of the respective CSOs were interviewed.

The questionnaire was developed from scratch by the two researchers for the sole purpose of this study. Since the researchers are also teachers there was an element of insider's perspective. Thus, they had an understanding of the possible struggles and challenges faced by schoolteachers.

The questionnaire was developed in three stages. The first stage was creation, the second was pilot testing and the third was sending it out to the entire sample pool. In the first questionnaire there were 20 questions. 18 of them were close ended and two were open ended wherein the teachers could elaborate on the types of challenges they faced and the kind of support they expected from the CSOs and the Government.

In the preliminary stage itself the questionnaire was validated by two of the four CSO management representatives. Their recommendations and inputs were duly incorporated while making the second draft of the questionnaire. At this stage, Kannada translation of the English questions was added in the questionnaire. The local language of Karnataka, India is Kannada. Once the draft was ready, it was pilot tested in a small group of 22 teachers.

The final version had 23 questions where 20 were close ended and three were open ended. 80 teachers responded to it.

The profile of the schools under study were:

1. The schools were run by the CSOs from the past 10-20 years.
2. All the schools were day schools.
3. Most of the schools were bridge schools. These schools enabled the migrant children to overcome the learning gaps created due to migration, absence from school and change in curriculum. The aim of these schools was to merge the students into mainstream government schools.
4. The total number of students these schools cater to were 2,043.
5. The total number of teachers employed were ninety-six. However, only eighty teachers responded to the survey conducted.
6. All the CSOs provided a minimum of one and a maximum of three meals per day under the teacher's supervision.
7. Three out of four CSOs looked after the periodic inoculation of the students.
8. None of the CSOs charged any fee from the migrant children.
9. All the CSOs had mixed-age group classrooms, where students of varied age groups and/or different academic abilities sat together in the same classroom. The teachers catered to the heterogeneous academic needs of these children.

The researchers conducted an online interview for the four CSO heads. Twenty-five questions were asked to the CSO heads.

The researchers combined quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse and interpret the questionnaire and interview data. The interview questions for the CSO heads were framed after the answers from the teachers were assimilated. This helped the researchers to identify patterns and relationships in the data to draw conclusions about the research questions. A mixed method approach was undertaken to combine quantitative and qualitative data to provide a more holistic view. Qualitative data from the interview of the CSO heads helped to explain the reasons behind trends observed in quantitative data obtained from the teachers, providing a deeper contextual understanding. The integrated findings from both data types, highlighted how they complemented and converged with each other. Thus, multiple perspectives on the same issue, enriched the data triangulation by incorporating diverse viewpoints and experiences.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

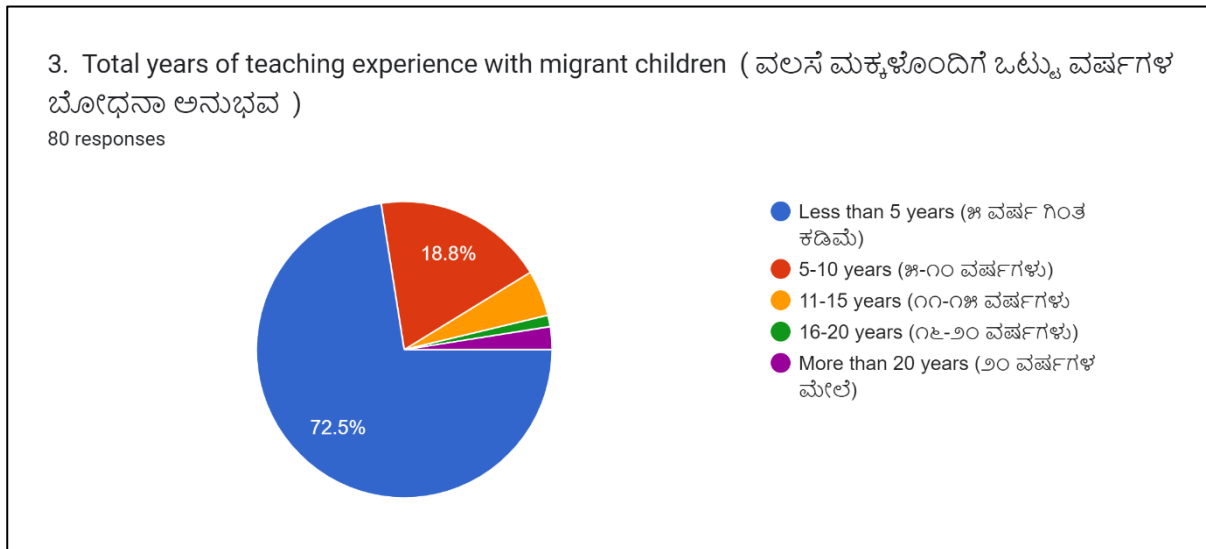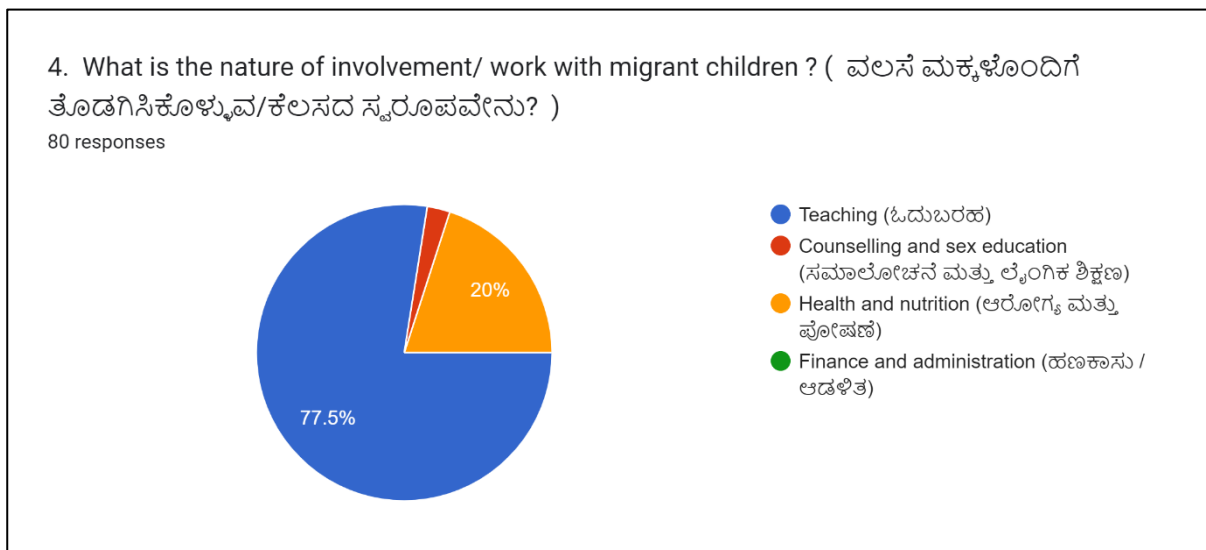The following are the results of the survey done for 80 teachers working with migrant children. Profile of the teachers:

Around 87% of the teachers were below 41 years of age. This age group aligned with the average age of private school teachers in India which is 34 years (Chudgar & Sakamoto, 2021). In this survey, a very small percentage of teachers were above 40 years (about 11.2%).

Figure 1.

Age Group of Teachers
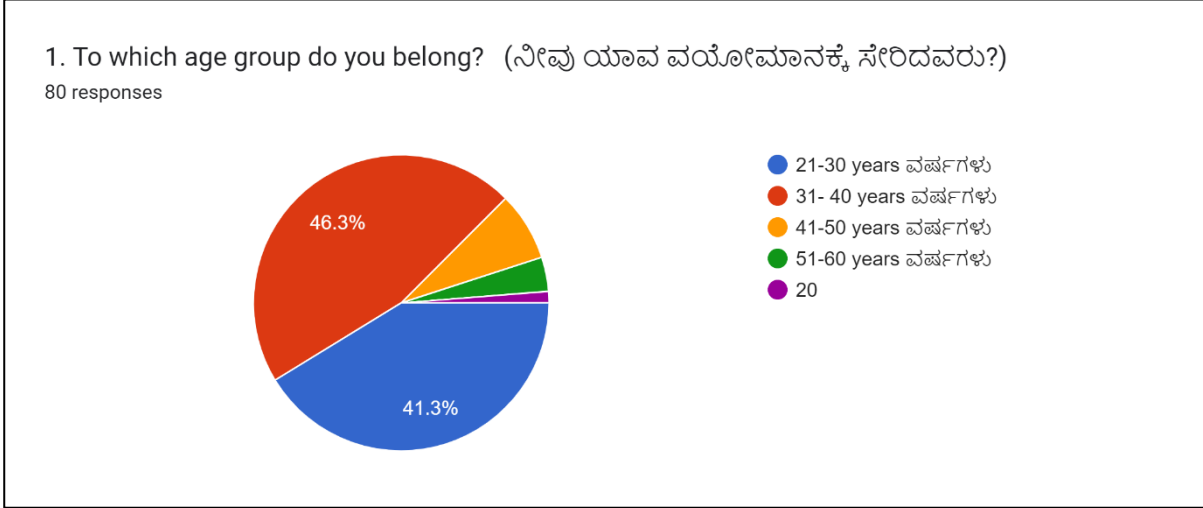
Figure 2.

Sex Ratio of Teachers
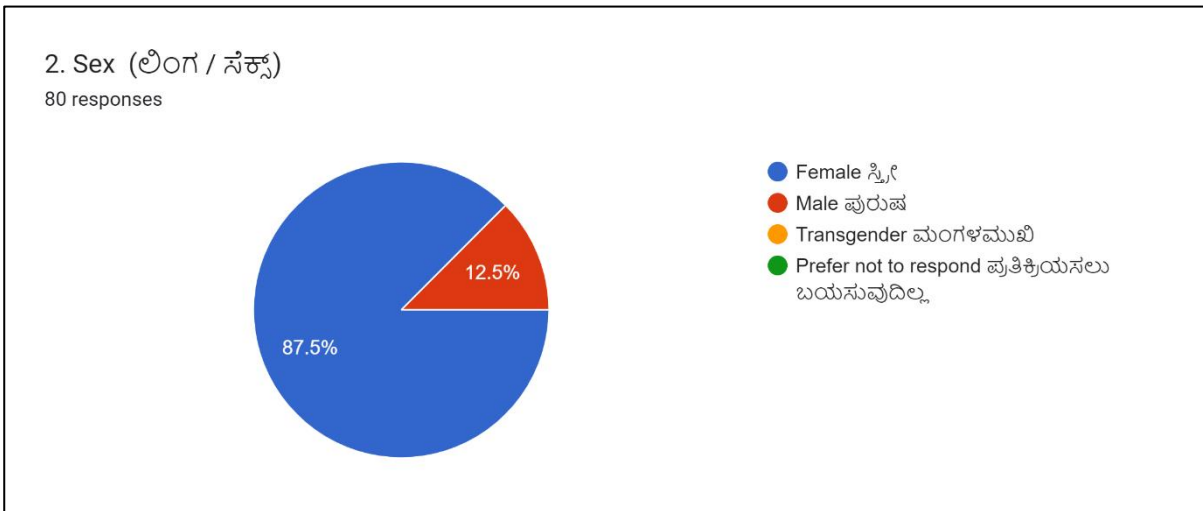
According to a report by International Labour Organization (2021), 55.5% of the primary school teachers were female. In contrast, this survey showed that 87.5% of the teachers were female. Research has shown that female teachers have a positive attitude towards inclusion of students with special needs into mainstream (Kumar, 2016). Hiring female teachers have been more effective for teaching girls and nurturing boys (Muralidharan & Sheth, 2016). Thus, the dominant female ratio of teaching faculty in the schools promotes inclusion and efficient caregiving.

Most of the teachers (72.5%) had teaching experience of less than 5 years. According to Parasuram (2006), teachers with less than 5 years of experience have more positive attitude towards inclusion. This attribute decreases with more experience (ibid).

Figure 3.

Teaching Experience

3. Total years of teaching experience with migrant children (ವಲಸೆ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಒಟ್ಟು ವರ್ಷಗಳ ಬೋಧನಾ ಅನುಭವ)

80 responses

- Less than 5 years (ಈ ವರ್ಷ ಗಿಂತ ಕಡಿಮೆ)
- 5-10 years (ಈ-೧೦ ವರ್ಷಗಳು)
- 11-15 years (೧೧-೧೫ ವರ್ಷಗಳು
- 16-20 years (೧೬-೨೦ ವರ್ಷಗಳು)
- More than 20 years (೨೦ ವರ್ಷಗಳ ಮೇಲೆ)

18.8%
72.5%

Figure 4.

Nature of Involvement

4. What is the nature of involvement/ work with migrant children ? (ವಲಸೆ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ತೊಡಗಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳುವ/ಕೆಲಸದ ಸ್ವರೂಪವೇನು?)

80 responses

- Teaching (ಓದುಬರಹ)
- Counselling and sex education (ಸಮಾಲೋಚನೆ ಮತ್ತು ಲೈಂಗಿಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ)
- Health and nutrition (ಆರೋಗ್ಯ ಮತ್ತು ಪೋಷಣೆ)
- Finance and administration (ಹಣಕಾಸು / ಆಡಳಿತ)

20%
77.5%

77.5% of the teachers were involved in the teaching-learning process. There was complete absence of teachers who were involved in finance and administration in this data pool. 20% of the teachers took care of the food and nutrition which highlights the importance of the work they are doing. Study shows that children who accompany their parents in circular migration from rural to urban areas face more malnutrition, stunted growth and have less immunity than children in sedentary setup of urban areas (Roshania et al., 2022). Due to the informal work conditions and poverty of the parents, children of migrant workers do not get a balanced wholesome diet (Ravindranath et al., 2019).

Counselling and sex education was provided by only 2.5% of the teachers. This is often a neglected area (Sharma, 2020). India has around 31 percent of population ranging from 10 years to 24 years of age who need counselling for sex education. Though the need for sex education is crucial in the 9 to 19 years' age group, there is a dearth of this facility among the children of migrant labourers (Ismail et al., 2015). There is a paucity of school based mental health counselling in India in general, though the need for it is felt intensely for the adolescent students (Parikh et al., 2019). The researchers felt that a higher ratio of teachers engaged in counselling and sex education would have had a positive effect on the mental well-being of students.

The CSO management said in the interview that the teachers help the students with co-curricular subjects and activities like dance, music, sports, and basic computer usage, which gives them a holistic development. Teachers accompany the students for field trips, oversee the distribution of food and look after the hygiene of the students. The teachers believe that a better chance of schooling equates to a better chance of success in life.

Figure 5.

*Number of Students per Teacher*
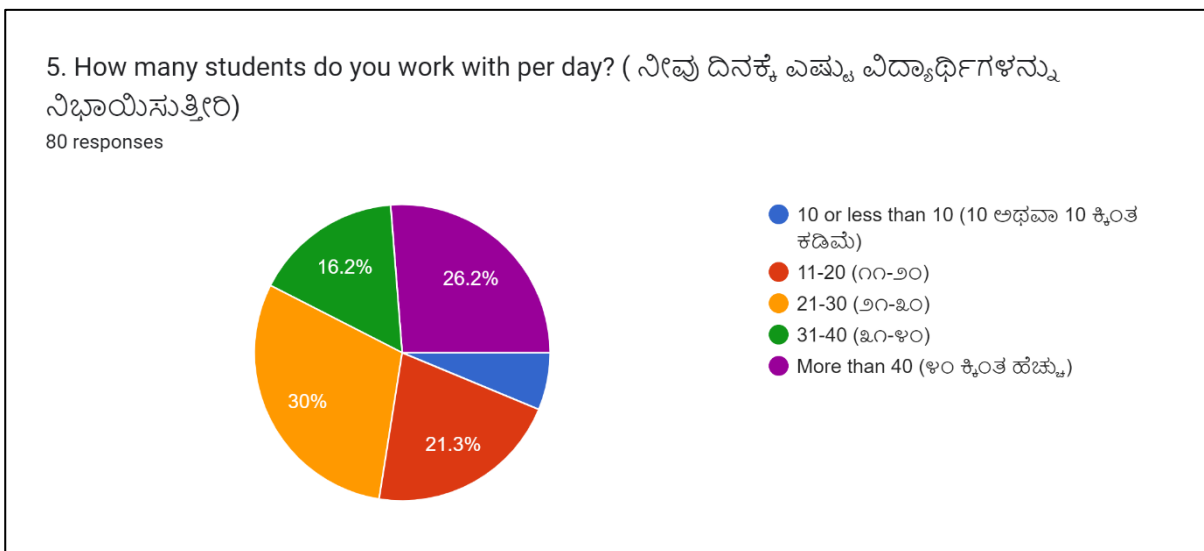
While 30% of the teachers worked with 21-30 students per day, 26.2% teachers worked with more than 40 students per day, which is a large number. Research shows that teacher efficiency increases with lesser number of students at hand as they can focus better (Koc & Celik, 2015). However, there was a very small percentage of teachers (6.3%) who worked with 10 students or less per day. In the proposed models for Early Childhood Education in India, the teacher: child ratio is supposed to be 1: 20 (pqals.nic.in). This ideal ratio is reflected in the study for 21.3 % of the teachers.

Kannada- the indigenous language of the state of Karnataka, was used to impart education by 53 out of 80 teachers. India is a multilingual country and there are 22 scheduled languages in India (Chandras, 2020). Since the children come from different states to Karnataka, 21 out of 80 teachers used a combination of two or more languages to work with the children. Though, the spread of English has grown because of globalization, better communication

technology, travel, trade, and the sharing of cultures and ideas (Alogali, 2018), only 5 teachers used English as the means of communication for teaching-learning. This is primarily because the rural areas in India have less exposure to English (Deshmukh, 2019). Though proficiency in English opens many employment opportunities, this advantage is grievously missing for the poor (Mohanty, 2017). Though there has been a marked change in the policy making in favour of Hindi by the Central Government in India since 2014 (Kumar, 2020), we found that only one out of eighty teachers used Hindi as a medium of instruction.
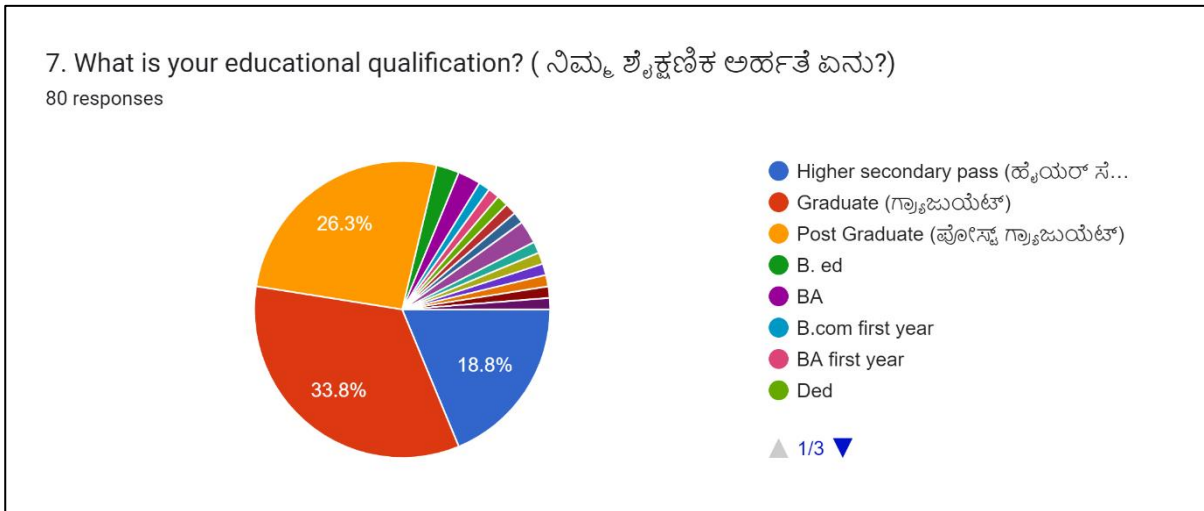
Figure 6.

Medium of Instructions
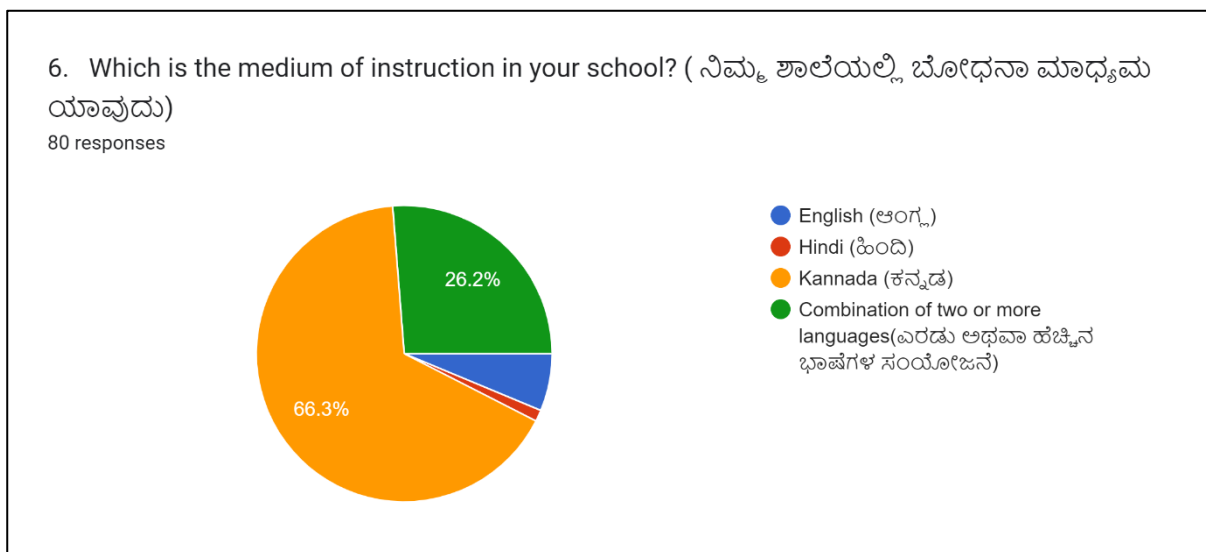
75% of the CSOs felt that the knowledge of local language was mandatory for the teachers.

Though the Government of Karnataka promotes two languages in the school curriculum, the importance of Kannada cannot be undermined to enable the absorption of the migrant children in the mainstream schooling (https://karnataka.gov.in/educationalist/en). In the interview, it emerged that the bridge schools that were run by the CSOs followed the 'Nali Kali' curriculum that was specially designed for the migrant children. It promotes self-paced learning and is in Kannada (https://dsert.karnataka.gov.in/info-4/Nali+Kali/en).

Figure 7.

Educational Qualifications

Figure 8.

Teaching Qualifications
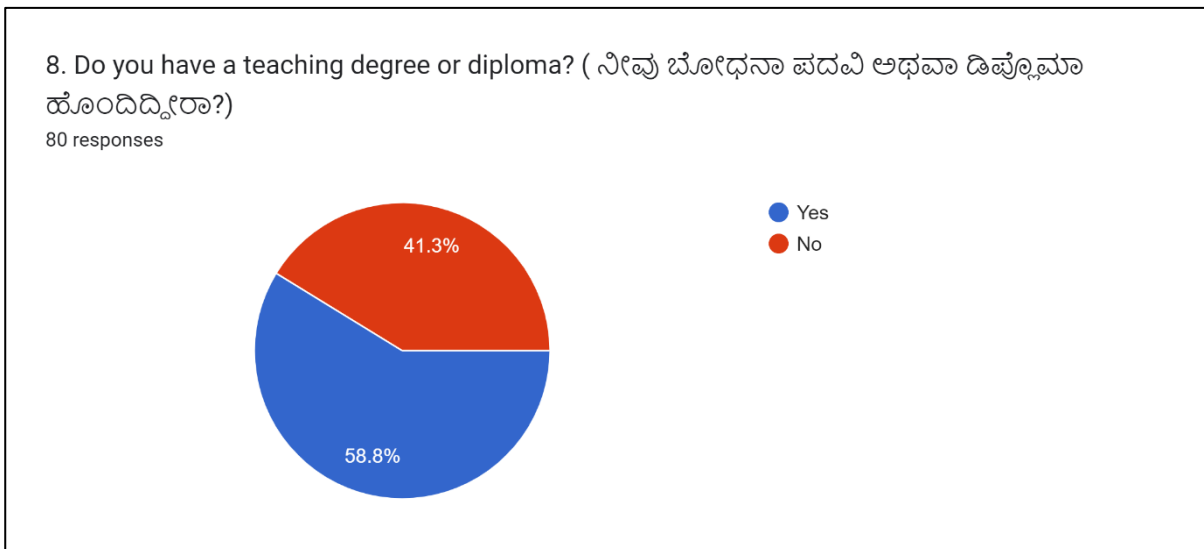
This survey showed that 33.8% of the teachers were graduates and 26.3% of them were postgraduates. In the survey form issued, some teachers also chose to mention their degrees separately. Thus, the total percentage of teachers who were graduates was 43.6%.

Two out of the four CSOs felt that the desired qualification while hiring teachers was a Higher Secondary certification. The other two CSOs preferred to choose between graduates and those with teaching degrees. Studies show that better teacher qualification has a direct relationship with the student educational outcome (Lee & Lee, 2020).

Figure 9.

Grades Handled by Teachers
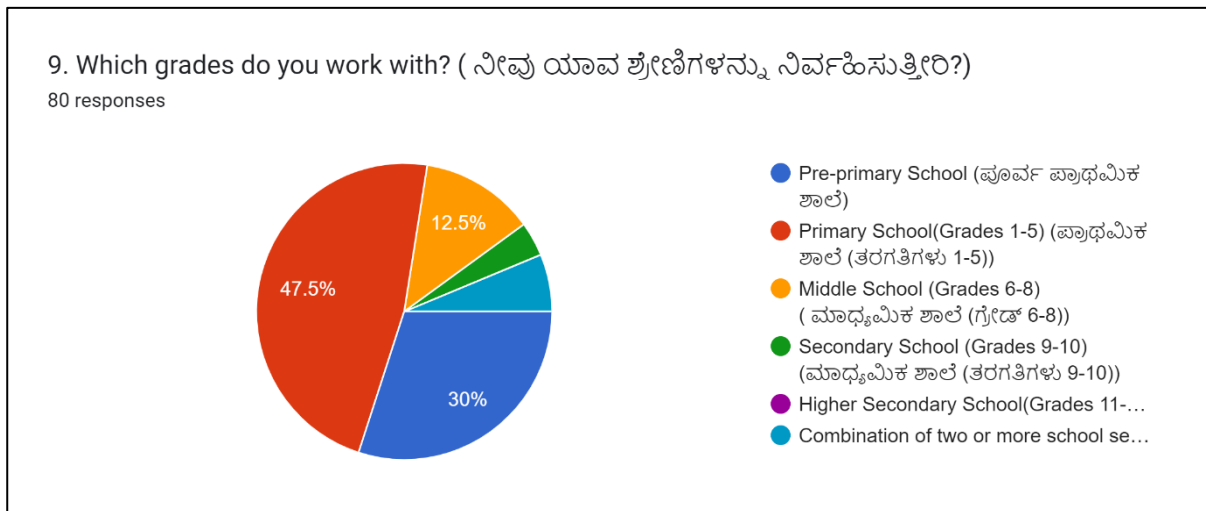
In Karnataka around 49 percent of the total teachers employed under different managements are engaged in primary schools (education.gov.in). This research sample also reflects the same trend as 47.5 percent of the teachers are primary school teachers. In a regular educational set-up, the number o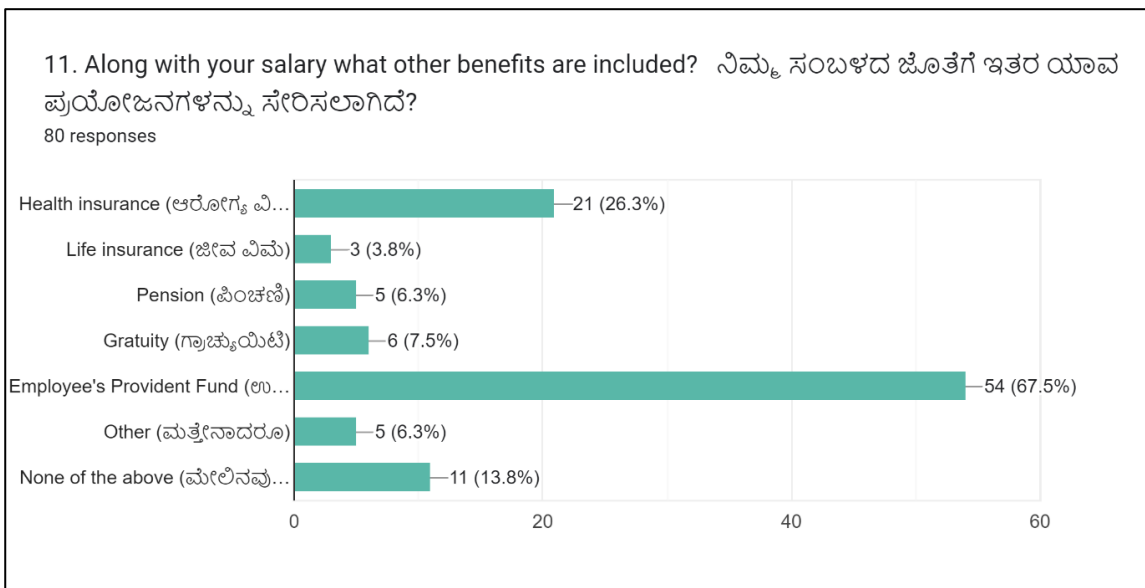f teachers working in primary and secondary school are comparable (ibid), however, schools run by NGOs for the migrant children show a significant drop in the number of teachers teaching in secondary school. As per this research sample, only 16 percent of the total teachers were secondary school teachers as compared to 39.5 percent in Karnataka. While the Government collected data (ibid) shows almost 11 percent of the teachers working for higher Secondary schools there is complete absence of teachers in this category in the research sample.

There has been a progressive decline in the number of teachers enrolled, from primary (50 Percent) to secondary (39 percent) and higher secondary (11 percent) across all management categories. This decline becomes starker in the case of schools run by the NGOs for the migrant children, where the percentage of teachers working with primary, secondary and higher secondary are 47.5; 16; and 0 respectively. The reason behind this progressive decline could be that these schools act as bridge schools for the migrant children. These children on attaining a particular grade level proficiency are transferred to government schools. 30 percent of teachers were engaged with pre-primary students and six percent of the teachers were teaching a combination two or more school grade levels.

Figure 10.

Monthly Income

10. What is your take home monthly income? (ನೀವು ಪ್ರತಿ ತಿಂಗಳು ಮನೆಗೆ ತೆಗೆದುಕೊಳ್ಳುವ ಸಂಬಳ ಎಷ್ಟು?)

80 responses

- Below 10 thousand (10 ಸಾವಿರಕ್ಕಿಂತ ಕಡಿಮೆ)
- 10-20 thousand (10-20 ಸಾವಿರ)
- 20-30 thousand (20-30 ಸಾವಿರ)
- 30-40 thousand (30-40 ಸಾವಿರ)
- Higher than 40 thousand (40 ಸಾವಿರಕ್ಕಿಂತ ಹೆಚ್ಚು)
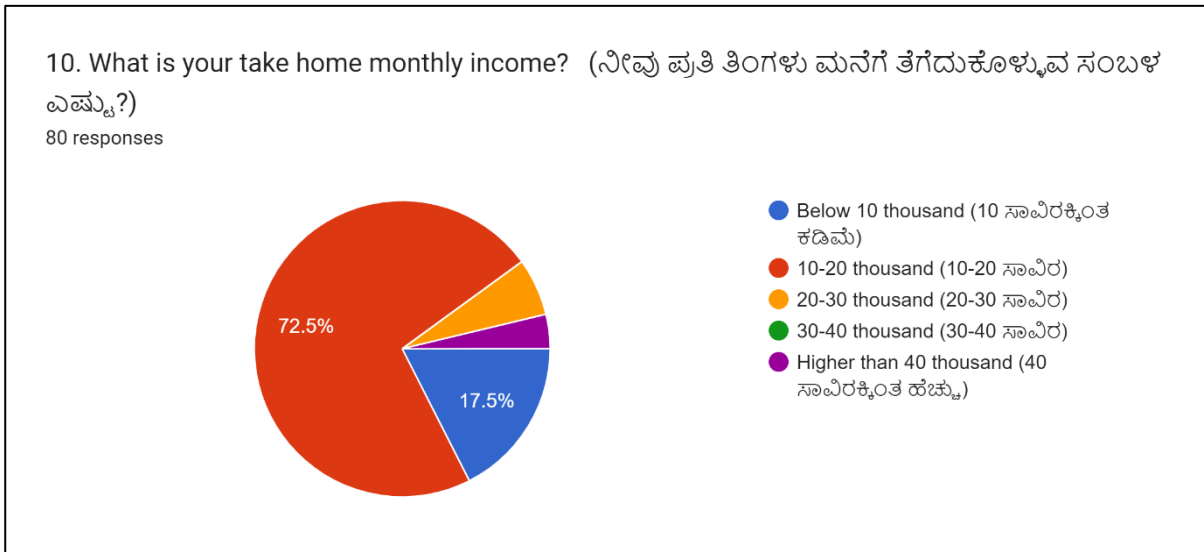
72.5% of the teachers said that their take home salary was between 10-20 thousand Indian rupees. Ideally the compensation for quality service from a teacher should be at par with the salary of any government schoolteacher (as per the Seventh Pay Commission) (pqals.nic.in). In government schools, the monthly salary of a primary teacher ranges between 35,000 to 37,000 Indian rupees as per the 7th pay commission (ctet.co.in). Along with good management, when teachers are paid sufficiently their effectiveness and productivity is better than those who are underpaid (Lemos et al., 2021). Although the CSOs pay scale did not match with that of the government, yet in the interview, it was highlighted that the attrition rate was as low as 0-10%, indicating high motivation among teachers.

Figure 11.

Benefits other than Salary

11. Along with your salary what other benefits are included? ನಿಮ್ಮ ಸಂಬಳದ ಜೊತೆಗೆ ಇತರ ಯಾವ ಪ್ರಯೋಜನಗಳನ್ನು ಸೇರಿಸಲಾಗಿದೆ?

80 responses

Benefit	Count
Health insurance (ಆರೋಗ್ಯ ವಿ...)	21 (26.3%)
Life insurance (ಜೀವ ವಿಮೆ)	3 (3.8%)
Pension (ಪಿಂಚಣಿ)	5 (6.3%)
Gratuity (ಗ್ರಾಚ್ಯುಯಿಟಿ)	6 (7.5%)
Employee's Provident Fund (ಉ...)	54 (67.5%)
Other (ಮತ್ತೇನಾದರೂ)	5 (6.3%)
None of the above (ಮೇಲಿನವು...)	11 (13.8%)

67.5% of the teachers said that Employee Provident Fund (EPF) was part of their benefit along with their salary. 26.3% teachers said they get health insurance, gratuity was received by 7.5% teachers, pension by 6.3% teachers and life insurance by 3.8% teachers. 13.8% of the teachers however, mentioned that they were given none of the above benefits.

The EPF system is an obligatory contribution where 12% of basic pay is invested by both the employer and the employee and it is entirely tax free (https://www.epfindia.gov.in/site_en/index.php). Gratuity is a mandatory payment from an employer to an employee for providing continuous service for at least five years (Khanna, 2018). Teachers are entitled to other benefits like dearness allowance, house rent allowance, medical insurance, and pension (Ramachandran et al., 2017). However, in the study sample around 14% of the teachers were deprived of all such benefits.

Figure 12.

Leave Eligibility

12. How many leaves are you eligible for in a year with no pay cut? (ವೇತನ ಕಡಿತವಿಲ್ಲದೆ ಒಂದು ವರ್ಷದಲ್ಲಿ ನೀವು ಎಷ್ಟು ರಜೆಗಳಿಗೆ ಅರ್ಹರಾಗಿದ್ದೀರಿ?)

80 responses

- Less than 8 days (8 ದಿನಗಳಿಗಿಂತ ಕಡಿಮೆ)
- 9-12 days (9-12 ದಿನಗಳು)
- 13-16 days (13-16 ದಿನಗಳು)
- More than 16 days (16 ದಿನಗಳಿಗಿಂತ ಹೆಚ್ಚು)

52.5% 21.3% 15% 11.2%
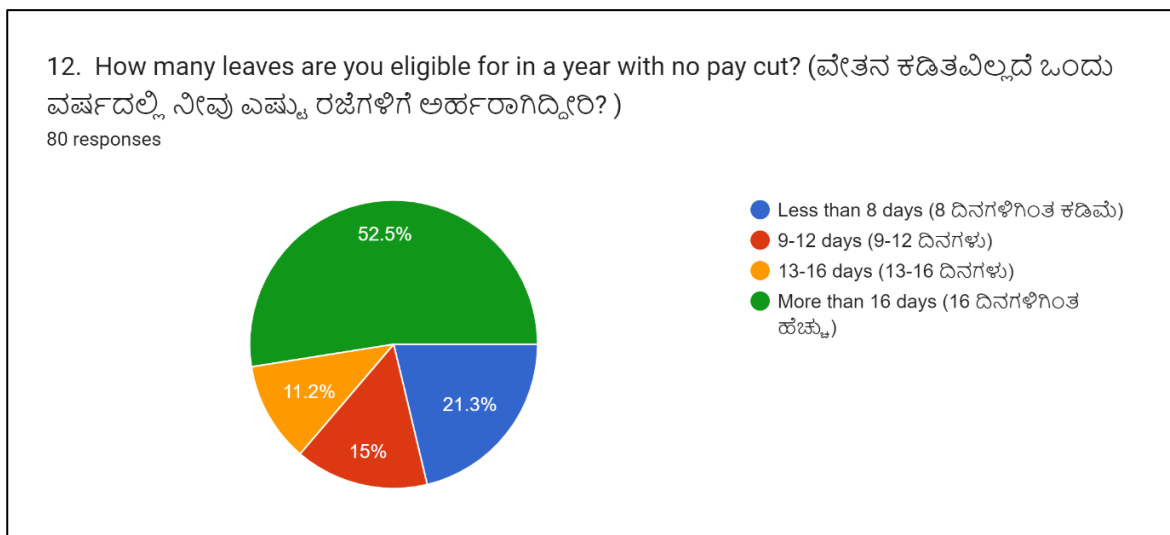
Across India, teachers are entitled to take leaves. The nature and duration of the leave may differ from state to state. In some states teachers are entitled to maternity leave, medical leave, earned leave and unpaid leave (ibid). This survey showed that 52.5% of the teachers could avail a maximum of 16 days leave in a year without any pay cut. For 21.3% teachers, less than 8 days of paid leave was the maximum entitlement while 26.2% of the teachers could avail 9-16 days of paid leave.
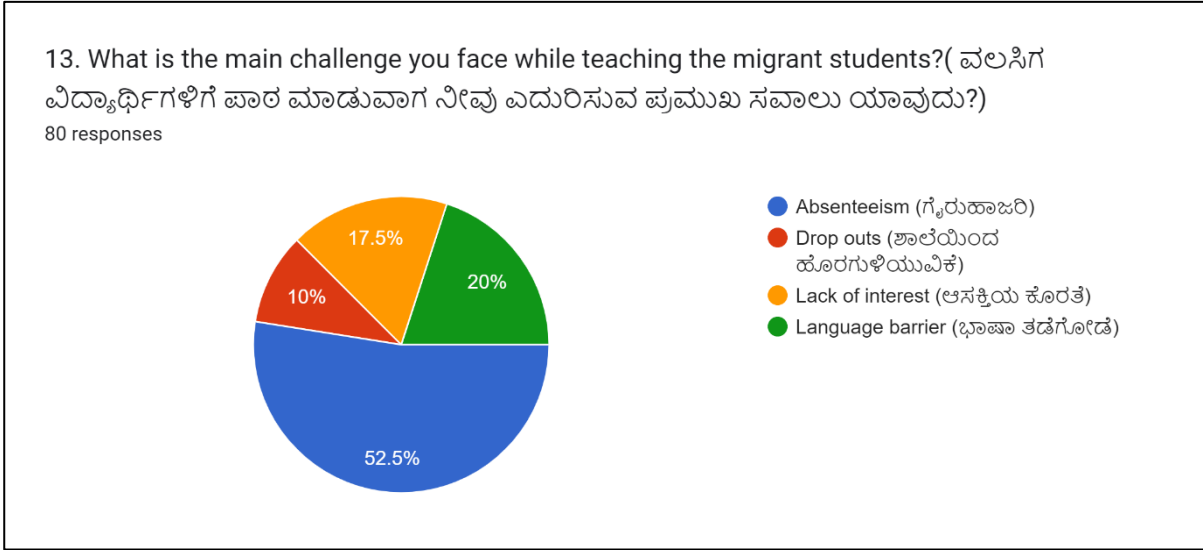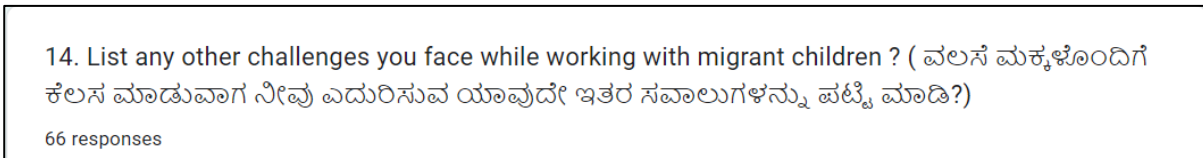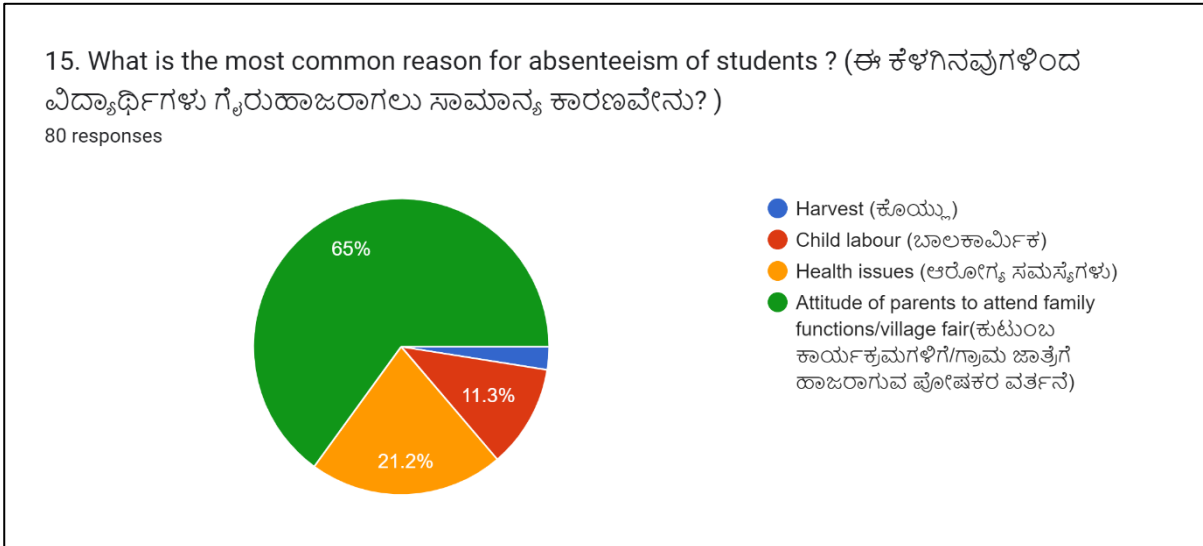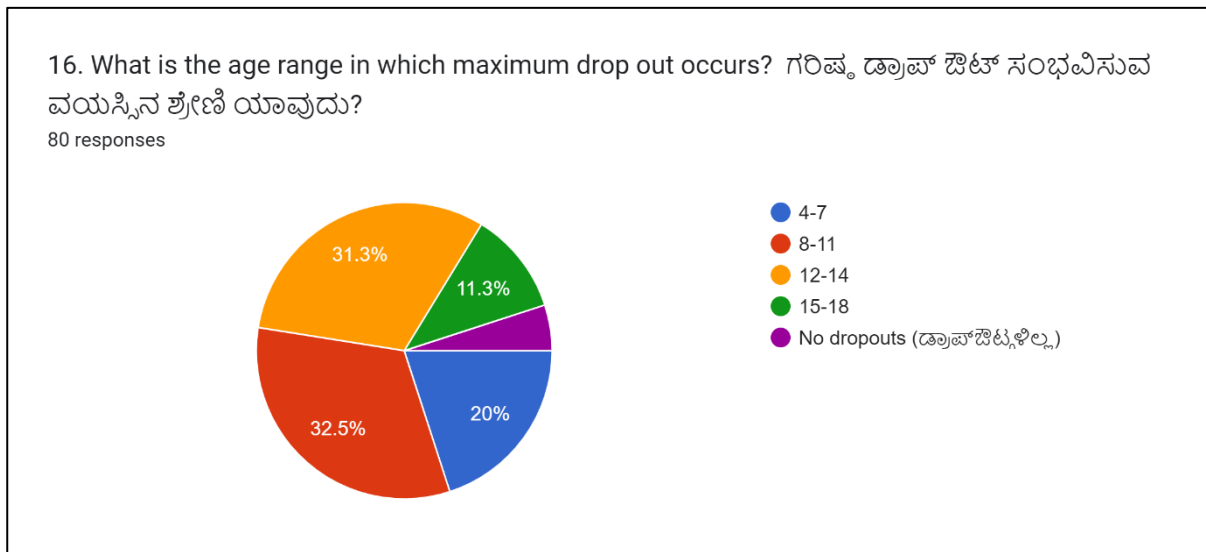
Figure 13.

Main Challenge Faced by Teachers

13. What is the main challenge you face while teaching the migrant students?(ವಲಸಿಗ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳಿಗೆ ಪಾಠ ಮಾಡುವಾಗ ನೀವು ಎದುರಿಸುವ ಪ್ರಮುಖ ಸವಾಲು ಯಾವುದು?)

80 responses

- Absenteeism (ಗೈರುಹಾಜರಿ)
- Drop outs (ಶಾಲೆಯಿಂದ ಹೊರಗುಳಿಯುವಿಕೆ)
- Lack of interest (ಆಸಕ್ತಿಯ ಕೊರತೆ)
- Language barrier (ಭಾಷಾ ತಡೆಗೋಡೆ)

52.5% / 17.5% / 10% / 20%

Figure 14.

Other Challenges Faced by Teachers

14. List any other challenges you face while working with migrant children ? (ವಲಸೆ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡುವಾಗ ನೀವು ಎದುರಿಸುವ ಯಾವುದೇ ಇತರ ಸವಾಲುಗಳನ್ನು ಪಟ್ಟಿ ಮಾಡಿ?)

66 responses

Figure 15.

Reason behind Absenteeism for Students

15. What is the most common reason for absenteeism of students ? (ಈ ಕೆಳಗಿನವುಗಳಿಂದ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳು ಗೈರುಹಾಜರಾಗಲು ಸಾಮಾನ್ಯ ಕಾರಣವೇನು?)

80 responses

- Harvest (ಕೊಯ್ಲು)
- Child labour (ಬಾಲಕಾರ್ಮಿಕ)
- Health issues (ಆರೋಗ್ಯ ಸಮಸ್ಯೆಗಳು)
- Attitude of parents to attend family functions/village fair(ಕುಟುಂಬ ಕಾರ್ಯಕ್ರಮಗಳಿಗೆ/ಗ್ರಾಮ ಜಾತ್ರೆಗೆ ಹಾಜರಾಗುವ ಪೋಷಕರ ವರ್ತನೆ)

65% / 11.3% / 21.2%

Figure 16.

School Dropout

16. What is the age range in which maximum drop out occurs? ಗರಿಷ್ಠ ಡ್ರಾಪ್ ಔಟ್ ಸಂಭವಿಸುವ ವಯಸ್ಸಿನ ಶ್ರೇಣಿ ಯಾವುದು?

80 responses

- 4-7
- 8-11
- 12-14
- 15-18
- No dropouts (ಡ್ರಾಪ್ಔಟ್ಟಿಲ್ಲ)

52.5% of teachers reported that the major challenge they faced while working with migrant children was absenteeism. For educators, absenteeism among students remains a serious issue (Kearney, 2008). Language barrier and lack of interest was cited as a challenge by 20% and 17.5% of the teachers respectively. Linguistic barrier was cited as one of the major challenges in providing education to migrant children (Bhor, 2020). However, in the interview the CSO management said that the teachers cater to diverse languages, cultures, and religions. They teach children to appreciate linguistic and cultural diversity and accept people as they are; thus, building a strong emotional foundation.

Only 10% of the teachers said that students dropping out was the main challenge they faced. Numerous factors contribute to school dropouts, including parent's financial hardship, impending marriage, the need for youngsters to work to support their families, and physical limitations (Ansary, 2023). The main reasons why most migrant children were not attending school were poverty, frequent job changes, a lack of information about the admission process for schools, and the lack of childcare services on construction sites. According to Roy et al. (2015), when both the parents are away, the children assist their parents by caring for their younger siblings, preparing meals, and gathering fuel wood. In addition to poverty, other significant factors were a lack of interest in academic pursuits amongst boys' and girls' domestic responsibilities. While interviewing the CSO management, it was evident that the teachers provide a safe place in the form of crèche for the younger sibling so that the older child can continue with the education. The crèche provides a stimulating environment for the children by the teachers. They provide the students an atmosphere that is friendly for teaching-learning to avoid school dropouts. Basic reading, writing and language skills are imparted to the children. Teachers are vigilant and identify the students with potential, and thereby help them merge into mainstream government schools. They continuously work with the government schools to achieve their target of no child being left behind. Research shows that teacher-led activities help

children develop and use diverse metacognitive skills. Children can identify and express new learning strategies such as thinking while doing, modeling, and using self-created strategies (Monkeviciene et al., 2020).

The absence of adequate infrastructure and transport options for pupils to get to school was stated in response to question number 14 (Figure XIV: Other Challenges Faced by Teachers), which asked about other difficulties faced by the teachers. Kids' health suffered because of their inability to keep things tidy. Parents' lack of participation and apathy were mentioned as other issues. More difficulties resulted by cramming students who were at various learning levels into a single classroom due to space constraints. The teachers had to pitch in and do extra work to help the pupils who did not attend pre-primary school and were thereby unable to cope.

As cited by the teachers, the most common reason for absenteeism was students attending village fairs in their hometowns coupled with the attitude of parents to attend family functions in their native villages. While reading the open-ended responses given by the teachers, the researchers came across an insightful comment that highlighted that going to the native places during village festivals was not an attitude problem but a social need to stay connected to their roots. Even after getting admission in schools at times, these children face various hurdles like lack of proper study environment at home, additional household chores, absence of basic infrastructure at home like drinking water, electricity, etc. Many schools deny admission to these children due to their temporary residential status. These factors collectively contribute towards absenteeism (Betancourt et al., 2013).

However, absenteeism due to the harvest season at their place of origin contributed negligibly. The main reason for children not going to school was either going to work with parents or staying at home to look after younger siblings when parents leave for work (Gopal, 2016). Menstruation, migration, lack of interest in school, social attitudes (Uppal et al., 2010) weather, and illness are all linked to high rates of student absenteeism, according to prior research (Biswas, 2018; Planning Commission, 2010). Marginalised groups have the most to lose in this delicate balance because attendance can make the difference between continuing in school and dropping out (Amor et al., 2020).

Teachers support the children not only in school but also outside the school, where they engage with the parents through continuous dialogue. Importance of primary education and the need to send their children to school is reinforced by the teachers. As per the interview of the CSO management, the teachers conduct one hour of remedial class per day to bridge the learning gap and to fast track the missed-out 'Nali Kali' curriculum due to absenteeism.

The success of a child's education is equally dependent on the parents' mindset and the dedication and efficiency of the teachers (Santhakumar et al., n.d.). The head teachers need to play a considerable proactive role in influencing the parents to tackle absenteeism and minimize dropouts (ibid).

As a continuation of the question on absenteeism and the reasons behind it, the teachers were asked about the age range in which maximum dropouts occur. 32.5% of teachers said that

maximum dropouts happen in the age group of 8–11 years; 31.3% said that the age range was 12–14 years; 11.3% said that the age range was 15–18 years; and 20% of the teachers said that the age range was 4–7 years. Only 5% of teachers said there were no dropouts, which was encouraging but not satisfying due to the small number.

Figure 17.

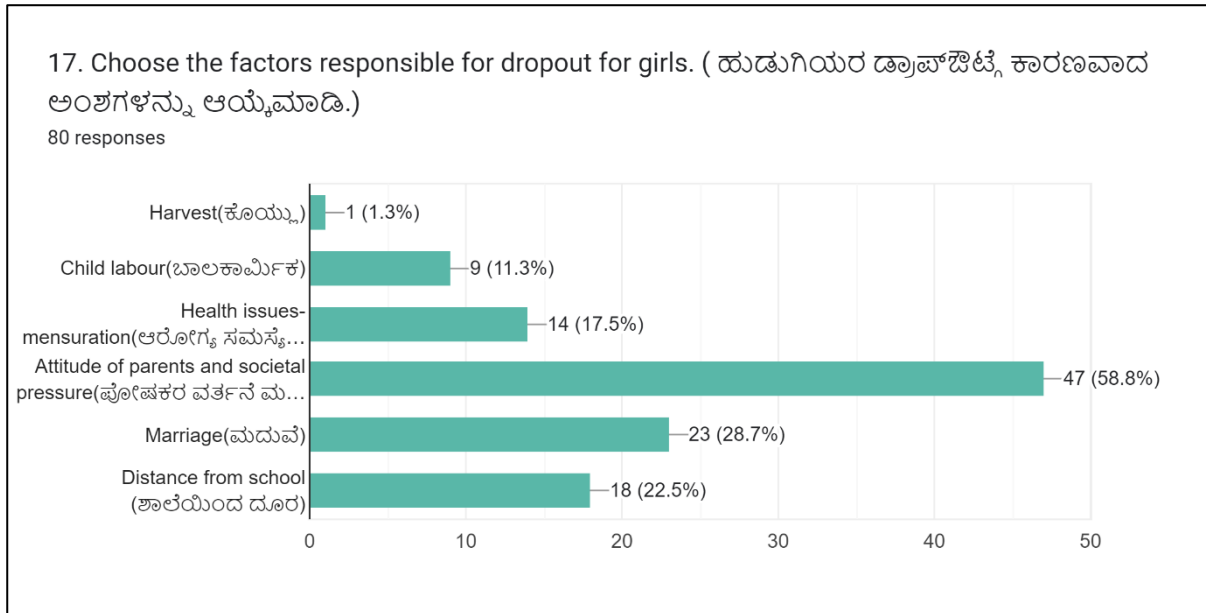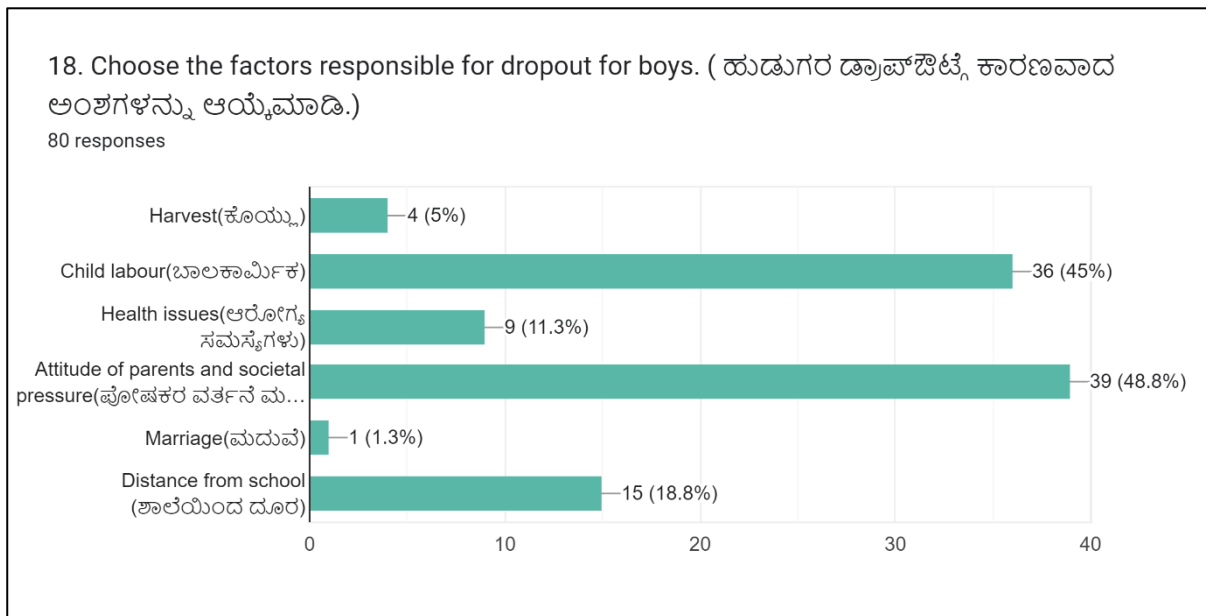*Factors Responsible for Dropout of Girls*

Figure 18.

Factors Responsible for Dropout of Boys

When asked to list the main reasons behind the dropout of girls and boys, there were a few common factors. The attitude of parents and societal pressure affected 58.8% of girls and 48.8% boys. These were cited as the main reasons for both boys and girls to drop out from school. While child labour (45%) was given as the second most prominent reason for boys to drop out, child marriage (28.7%) was second for girls. Distance from school came in next (22.5%

for girls and 18.8% for boys) followed by health issues (17.5% for girls and 11.3% for boys). Harvest in native villages contributed the least for both groups of migrant children (1.5% and 5% for girls and boys respectively).
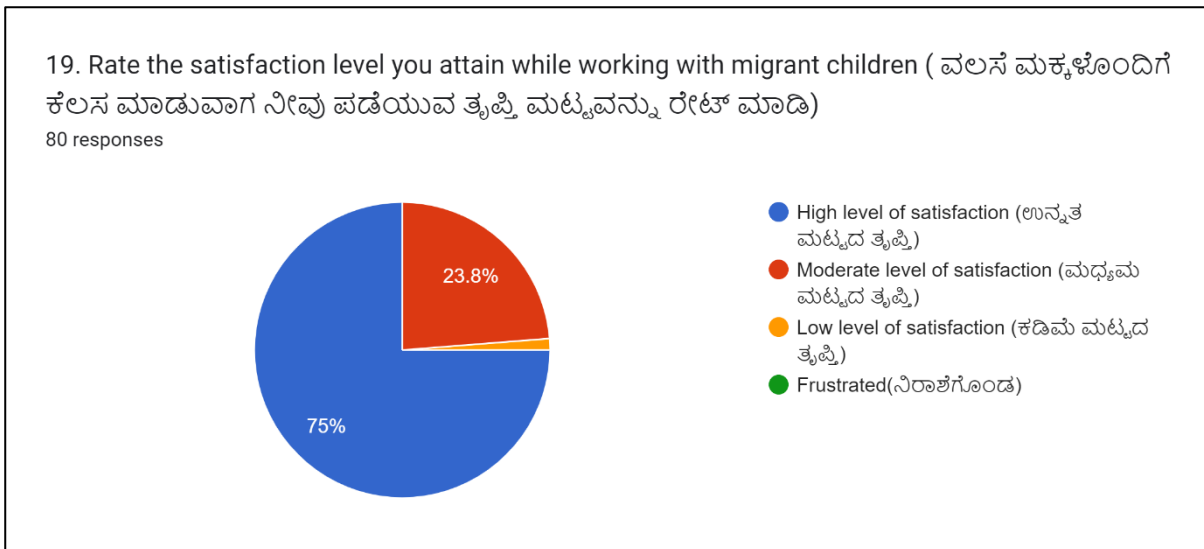
The research conducted by Das and Das (2023), Nayak and Kumar (2022), Saravanan and Ramesh (2022), indicate that greater the distance of schools from the place of residence, higher is the chance of early dropout. According to data from the 71st round of the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), the likelihood of obtaining secondary and higher education decreases if the distance between the secondary schools and place of residence increases more than 2-3 kilometers.

Women are denied educational opportunities more than men, which is a blatant discrimination in the family dynamics. Girls are married early as the society is patriarchal. The effects of such unequal treatment place restrictions on the options and possibilities available to girls (Saravanan & Ramesh, 2022).

As per the Census done in 2011, there are 10.1 million children employed as child labour out of which, 5.6 million were boys and 4.5 million were girls (Sharik, 2022). This data supported the finding that child labour is a prominent reason for school dropouts amongst boys rather than girls.

Figure 19.

Job Satisfaction of Teachers

19. Rate the satisfaction level you attain while working with migrant children (ವಲಸೆ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡುವಾಗ ನೀವು ಪಡೆಯುವ ತೃಪ್ತಿ ಮಟ್ಟವನ್ನು ರೇಟ್ ಮಾಡಿ)

80 responses

- High level of satisfaction (ಉನ್ನತ ಮಟ್ಟದ ತೃಪ್ತಿ)
- Moderate level of satisfaction (ಮಧ್ಯಮ ಮಟ್ಟದ ತೃಪ್ತಿ)
- Low level of satisfaction (ಕಡಿಮೆ ಮಟ್ಟದ ತೃಪ್ತಿ)
- Frustrated(ನಿರಾಶೆಗೊಂಡ)

75% | 23.8%

Teaching is a profession that has its moments of reward and satisfaction, and it can also be a source of stress, anxiety and even depression (Agyapong et al., 2022). Sixty out of eighty teachers said that their work was highly rewarding and only 19 teachers out of eighty said that it was moderately satisfying and only one said that the satisfaction level was low. There were none who said that it was frustrating. Research shows that schools with high collective teacher efficacy results in better wellbeing of the students (Kundu et al., 2018). Since 75 % of the teachers reported high satisfaction from the work they are doing it also reflects the collective teacher efficacy of the institution. Research shows a definitive link of job satisfaction with

professional commitment (Bashir, 2017). Since three-fourth of the teachers reported a very high job satisfaction, it reflects their dedication and sincerity. According to Demirhan and Yucel, (2016) teacher commitment is influenced by managerial task orientation, which focuses on organizational goals, role clarity, and structured success, while human orientation, centered on support, motivation, and a positive work environment, plays a lesser role. The high levels of satisfaction seen in the study are a reflection of the CSOs efficient managerial policies. Around a quarter of the total teachers said that their job satisfaction was moderate. According to Solanki and Mandaviya (2021), there are several factors responsible for low job satisfaction. Some of them are inability to have a work life balance, marital stress, big families with many children, gender stereotyping at workplace etc. Additionally, distance of school from the place of residence emerged as a source of attrition not only for NGOs but also for government schools (Moloele & Moeti, 2024; Ramachandran et al., 2005).

All the CSOs unanimously said that the rate of attrition amongst teachers per year is only between 0 to 10%, which supported the high job satisfaction levels of the teachers. This is a significant achievement for the CSOs and NGOs. This is in keeping with the national trend where we find that attrition rate among teachers is low (Ramachandran et al., 2017). This contrasted with the international scenario where there is a high rate of resignation from the teachers in public schools (Diliberti et al., 2021).

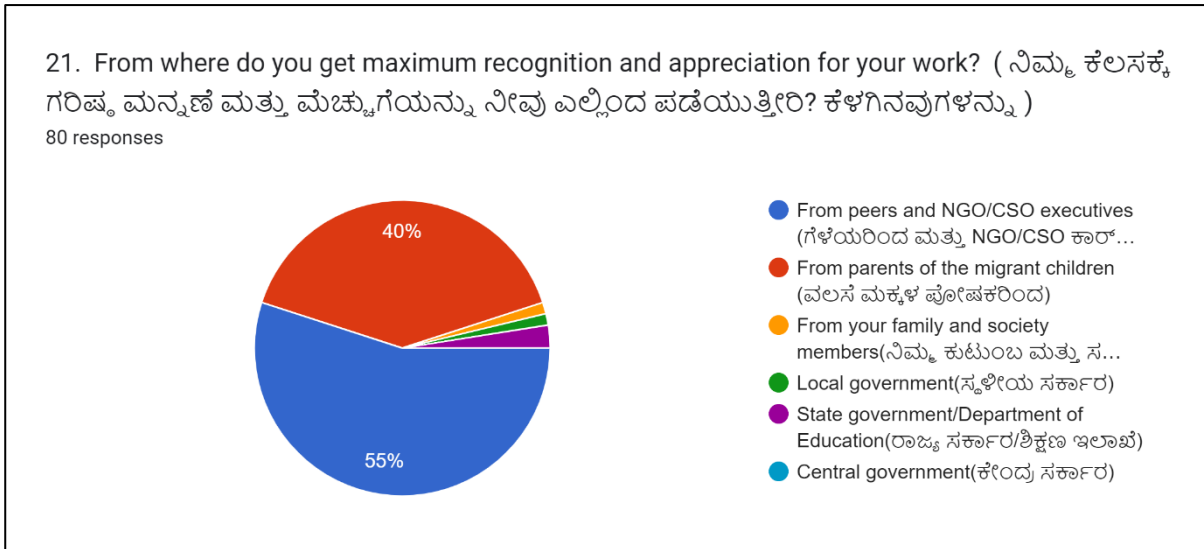**Figure 20.**

Assessments of Students
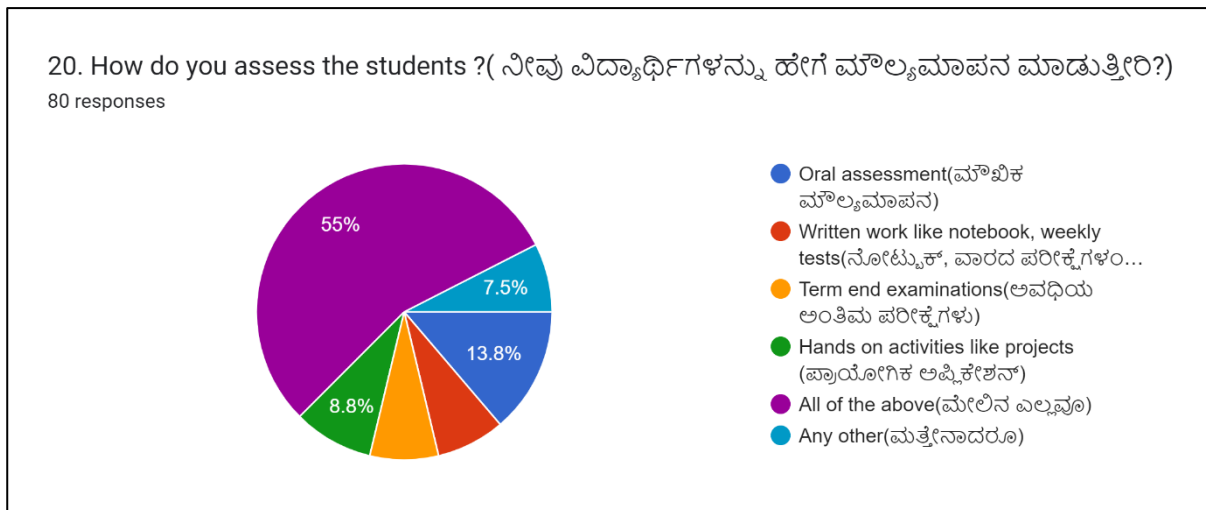
No single assessment tool has been recognised as the ultimate tool to ascertain the performance of the student's learning (Behere, 2014). The students come from varied background with different competency levels and sit in mixed age classrooms. Thus, planning for assessments needs time, effort and creativity. In this survey, 55 percent of the teachers said that they use a combination of tools to judge the learning level of the children. Around 14 percent of the teachers depended on the oral revision for assessing the level of teaching and learning. Nine percent of the teachers valued hands-on projects for testing the child's learning.

7.5 % trusted written work for assessment and another 7.5 % used the term-end examination for assessment. The last 7.5% teachers used tools that are over and beyond the scope of the ones given in the questionnaire, but the methodologies are not clear or specified. Thus, teachers are continuously designing and redesigning appropriate assessment tools.

Figure 21.

Source of Recognition and Appreciation for Teachers

21. From where do you get maximum recognition and appreciation for your work? (ನಿಮ್ಮ ಕೆಲಸಕ್ಕೆ ಗರಿಷ್ಠ ಮನ್ನಣೆ ಮತ್ತು ಮೆಚ್ಚುಗೆಯನ್ನು ನೀವು ಎಲ್ಲಿಂದ ಪಡೆಯುತ್ತೀರಿ? ಕೆಳಗಿನವುಗಳನ್ನು)

80 responses

- From peers and NGO/CSO executives (ಗೆಳೆಯರಿಂದ ಮತ್ತು NGO/CSO ಕಾರ್…
- From parents of the migrant children (ವಲಸೆ ಮಕ್ಕಳ ಪೋಷಕರಿಂದ)
- From your family and society members(ನಿಮ್ಮ ಕುಟುಂಬ ಮತ್ತು ಸ…
- Local government(ಸ್ಥಳೀಯ ಸರ್ಕಾರ)
- State government/Department of Education(ರಾಜ್ಯ ಸರ್ಕಾರ/ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಇಲಾಖೆ)
- Central government(ಕೇಂದ್ರ ಸರ್ಕಾರ)

One of the most crucial factors that affect teachers' competency is 'teacher appreciation'. Teacher appreciation raises their competency levels which improves students' accomplishment (Yoestara et al., 2020). In this survey, 55% of the teachers said that they received maximum recognition and appreciation from their peers and CSO/NGO executives or school management. This indicates a positive work environment which is conducive to effective teaching-learning. This can also be correlated to the high job satisfaction mentioned by teachers in the previous question. 40% of the teachers said that they received maximum appreciation from the parents of the migrant children. While 2.5% of them said that the state government or department of education gave them maximum recognition. Family and local government came in last with 1.2% in each case. Study has shown that collaboration between schools, government organizations and parents is required for enhanced school and teacher performance. Family involvement, through active participation in school, creating a supportive learning environment at home, and maintaining strong communication with educators, plays a crucial role in a child's academic success (Camarero-Figuerola et al., 2020). However, this is an extremely difficult task because there is an inbuilt resistance to change by aligning with each other (Dickerson, 2011). Studies have further shown that the respect for teachers in society has gone down significantly since the inception of universalisation of education by Government as teachers have become a mere tool in the hands of the government officials (Ramachandran et al., 2005).

The last two questions in the questionnaire were open ended. While question number 22 asked the teachers about the support they require to empower them further; question

number 23 asked them to write about any other comments that was worth sharing regarding their work for the education of the migrant children.

As an answer to the question "Describe the support you require to empower you further," the teachers gave various suggestions which would empower them. Some of the recommendations were teacher training, better pay, vocational skill upgradation, recreational learning, parental cooperation and understanding, advanced technological know-how, better team support, effective learning materials, government and community support, recognition and appreciation, fast track curriculum, language bridging curriculum, flexible schedules, preschool programme for the younger students and stability in work environment. Here are some of the responses that represents the sentiments of the majority of the teachers. "There should be less report making, should give more time for the purpose of children, should increase salary" and "We need more training."

Technology has become a crucial tool in education, with many countries investing heavily in classroom technology to enhance the quality of teaching and learning (Hamakali & Josua, 2023). All the CSOs said that professional training was already being given to the teachers and additionally, necessary technological support was given during the COVID times.

The last question asked the teachers about any other comments or views or opinions they had regarding their work with migrant children. The majority of the teachers expressed that they were extremely satisfied with their work and found happiness in working with the children. An answer that had an incisive perspective was:

"There is a huge gap in our education system where we have not recognized the rights of a migrant child for education. They come from most rural distress situations which forces them into the city. These are not migrations of choice but survival. Given this the only hope to pull this family out of distress is the child and building their human resource potential through education. Only then can they contribute fully to the economy."

The insights shared by the teachers highlight both the challenges and rewards of working with migrant children. Their perspectives, ranging from personal fulfilment to critical observations of systemic gaps, underscore the complexity of the issue. While many teachers derive great satisfaction from their work, there is a clear recognition of the urgent need for structural changes to better support these children. This feedback provides a crucial foundation for the following recommendations aimed at policymakers and the government.

Suggestions for Policy Makers/Government

After the data analysis, the following suggestions have been put forth for the holistic empowerment (mental, financial, social, and psychological) of the teachers:

1. Gratuity, pension and medical health benefits should be given to all the teachers working with the NGOs.
2. House rent allowance and transport facility should be made available to the teachers as it was found to be one of the biggest impediments in their smooth functioning.

3. Training available to the Government teachers should be extended to the teachers working with the migrant children at no additional cost.

4. Special training to empower the teachers to work with differently abled students should be provided by the government. Additionally, teachers at government schools might get special training in new techniques created by NGOs to make learning more effective for such children fostering symbiotic relationship between government and NGOs.

5. The effort and dedication of the teachers should be recognised at their own taluk/district level by the state government in the form of awards, certificates of appreciation or monetary incentives.

6. Community outreach programmes should be systematically implemented to provide the migrant families with the necessary documents to be a part of the mainstream society. This will stabilise the migrant parents and ensure the continuity of their children's education.

7. Parent awareness initiatives should be organised in partnership with the NGOs to increase enrolment, prevent gaps in attendance and minimise dropouts.

8. NGOs should be actively integrated in the policy making process for primary education. The government might assist NGOs in their effort to enroll out-of-school children of migrant workers. Cooperation between Government and NGOs is more advantageous than NGOs working independently.

Suggestions for Policy Makers by Earlier Researchers

During the literature review, some pertinent suggestions from previous research papers on migrant children have been collated and presented below. Though these suggestions are not directly related to the teacher's wellbeing however, it provides useful hints for an overall betterment of education for the migrant children.

1. Policies should be tailor-made

According to Rajan (2018), the policies that the Government make for the upliftment and empowerment of the children of migrant labourers should be according to the specific needs and struggles of these children and not according to a generic broad spectrum. The approach that one policy would cater to all (one size fits all attitude) must be avoided to generate trust and foster inclusion (Ahmed et al., 2022).

2. Establishment of non-formal schools

There is a complete absence of an alternative model of education for the migrant children. Thus, the children remain deprived of good quality education which could have opened the window for learning specialised skills for better employability (Anand,1998).

Another area that can be developed are non-formal schools which can prove to be a good alternative to formal primary education. Such schools show better success rates in maintaining children post primary education (Sud, 2010).

3. Empowering government officials at grassroot level

According to Aiyar and Bhattacharya (2016), the people who are implementing the education policies at the ground level feel that they are merely paper pushers and do not have actual

authority in making any difference in providing quality education. This is especially true about the elementary education administrators at the block level (ibid). Transparency through use of technology in the working of the government can reduce the bureaucratic impediments and red-tapism at each level.

4. Provide Teacher Training

According to a study done by Wiksten (2020), the teachers training is the key to empower the teachers in measuring the educational outcome of the students. They can provide global standard guidance to the students by tailoring it to suit the local needs.

CONCLUSION

NGO-Government partnership

In India, NGOs and CSOs have taken the responsibility to provide education to children from disadvantaged backgrounds like migrant families. They are helping to raise the standard of basic primary education for the marginalised. Teachers working in these organizations are diligently working towards fulfilling this aim. The paucity of research on this profile of teachers shows the lack of recognition for these unsung heroes. The NGOs and CSOs are constantly investing in their teachers to empower them with professional training along with advancing their technical know-how. The scope of the teachers' responsibilities includes mentoring migrant parents to ensure continuity of education for their children. Certain NGOs who are working at the local level have designed flexible curriculum to suit the needs of the migrant children and are more successful in filling the learning gaps. These NGOs have effective networking facilities that help the teachers to create a bridge for these marginalised children to gradually move into the mainstream government schools. This requires an investment of time and effort along with immense dedication. Barriers like caste hierarchy, gender bias, language and religious differences need to be overcome to create an environment of inclusivity.

Scope for Future Research

This article fills a gap in the existing literature. This provides foundation for future research to empower the CSOs and NGOs and the teachers involved in working with the migrant children. Some of the possible research objectives that future scholars could work on are:

To explore how strong, supportive relationships between teachers and migrant children affect the academic performance and emotional well-being of students.

To identify the best practices for building trust and rapport between teachers and the migrant students to promote inclusive classroom environments and reduce bullying.

To investigate how culturally responsive teaching methods can influence the academic success and integrate the migrant children in the mainstream education.

By focusing on these areas, future research can significantly influence how teachers, NGOs, and CSOs support migrant children, leading to better educational outcomes and a more transformative environment.

Limitations

This study is limited to the surroundings of the cosmopolitan town of India; Bengaluru. The reach was limited to the teachers and the CSOs and their ambit did not extend to the students or their parents. There was a language barrier as the researchers were fluent in Hindi and English and not Kannada which is the dominant local language. This prevented one-on-one interview with the teachers. Medium sample size of eighty teachers is seen as one of the limitations of the research. This affects the generalisation of results. Future researchers should increase the sample size and reach out to teachers belonging to different cities to obtain a broader and wholesome perspective.

REFERENCES

Agyapong, B., Obuobi-Donkor, G., Burback, L., & Wei, Y. (2022). Stress, burnout, anxiety and depression among teachers: A scoping review. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, *19*(17), 10706. https://doi.org/10.1192/j.eurpsy.2023.2010

Ahmed, A., Vandrevala, T., Hendy, J., Kelly, C., & Ala, A. (2022). An examination of how to engage migrants in the research process: building trust through an 'insider'perspective. *Ethnicity & health*, *27*(2), 463-482. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.112481

Aiyar, Y., & Bhattacharya, S. (2016). The post office paradox: A case study of the block level education bureaucracy. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 61-69. https://doi.org/10.1093/ww/9780199540884.013.u202557

Alogali, A. (2018). World Englishes: Changing the Paradigm of Linguistic Diversity in Global Academia. *Research in Social Sciences and Technology, 3*(1), 54-73. https://doi.org/10.46303/ressat.03.01.4

Amor, Y. B., Dowden, J., Borh, K. J., Castro, E., & Goel, N. (2020). The chronic absenteeism assessment project: Using biometrics to evaluate the magnitude of and reasons for student chronic absenteeism in rural India. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *72*, 102140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2019.102140

Ansari, P. A. (2016). Internal migration: An analysis of Problems faced by the migrants in India—A step to the solution. *Political Sci*, *6*, 7-9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s43545-021-00226-2

Ansary, S. (2023). School Dropouts: A Major Challenge to Indian Education System. *Sanshodhan*, *12*(1), 24-35. https://doi.org/10.9783/9781512802931-009

Bashir, L. (2017). Job satisfaction of teachers in relation to professional commitment. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, *4*(4), 52-59. https://doi.org/10.25215/0404.007

Behere, R. (2014). Introduction of Mini-CEX in undergraduate dental education in India. *Education for Health*, *27*(3), 262-268. https://doi.org/10.4103/1357-6283.152187

Berry, J. W. (1980). Acculturation as varieties of adaptation. *Acculturation: Theory, models and some new findings*, *9*, 25. https://doi.org/10.3390/soc12060181

Betancourt, T. S., Shaahinfar, A., Kellner, S. E., Dhavan, N., & Williams, T. P. (2013). A qualitative case study of child protection issues in the Indian construction industry: Investigating the security, health, and interrelated rights of migrant families. *BMC Public Health*, *13*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-13-858

Bhatnagar, N., & Das, A. (2014). Regular School Teachers' Concerns and Perceived Barriers to Implement Inclusive Education in New Delhi, India. *International Journal of Instruction*, *7*(2), 89-102. https://doi.org/10.1049/iet-tv.45.568

Bhor, N. (2020). Linking Education with Health: Lessons from Children of Migrant Construction Labourers in India. *SOCRATES: Vol. 8 No. 1 (2020): (Special Issue) June, Sustainable Development Goals 2030: Ideas and Innovations for Better Tomorrow*, *8*, 54. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-42488-6_4

Biswas, B. (2018). Assessment of school absenteeism: A community-based study among children aged 7–18 years in a slum of Kolkata. *International Journal of Medical Science and Public Health*, *7*(2), 97-102. https://doi.org/10.5455/ijmsph.2018.0718917122017

Bokayev, B. (2023). Beyond Borders: Understanding Intellectual Migration among Kazakhstani Graduates of Foreign Universities, *Journal of Social Studies Education Research*, *14*(3), 167-188. https://jsser.org/index.php/jsser/article/view/5226/630

Bourdieu, P. (2011). The forms of capital. (1986). *Cultural theory: An anthology*, *1*(81-93), 949.

Bourdieu, P. (2018). The forms of capital. In *The sociology of economic life* (pp. 78-92). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429494338-6

Camarero-Figuerola, M., Dueñas, J.-M., & Renta-Davids, A.-I. (2020). The relationship between family involvement and academic variables. *Research in Social Sciences and Technology, 5*(2), 57-71. https://doi.org/10.46303/ressat.05.02.4

Chandras, J. (2020). Multilingualism in India. *Education about Asia*, *25*(3). https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003433545

Chudgar, A., & Sakamoto, J. (2021). Similar work, different pay? Private school teacher working conditions in India. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *86*, 102478. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2021.102478

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American journal of sociology*, *94*, S95-S120. https://doi.org/10.1086/228943

CTET. (n.d.a). https://ctet.nic.in/

Das, B., & Das, A. (2023). Is Distance to Secondary School a Barrier to Secondary and Higher Education in India?. *Millennial Asia*, *14*(1), 102-126. https://doi.org/10.1177/09763996211035073

Davin, K. J., & Heineke, A. J. (2016). Preparing teachers for language assessment: A practice-based approach. *TESOL Journal*, *7*(4), 921-938. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.253

Demirhan, G., & Yucel, C. (2016). A Prediction for Teacher Commitment; Effects of Managerial Style, Burnout and Demographics. *Research in Social Sciences and Technology, 1*(1). https://doi.org/10.46303/ressat.01.01.2

Deshmukh, M. M. (2019). Communicative English: An Insight of Young Learners in Rural India. *Editorial Board*, *8*(8), 7. https://doi.org/10.1075/ltyl.00054.rea

Dickerson, M. S. (2011). Building a collaborative school culture using appreciative inquiry. *Researchers World*, *2*(2), 25. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315457130-20

Diliberti, M., Schwartz, H. L., & Grant, D. M. (2021). *Stress topped the reasons why public school teachers quit, even before COVID-19*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand. https://doi.org/10.7249/rra1121-2

Educational statistics at a glance - ministry of education. (2018). https://www.education.gov.in/sites/upload_files/mhrd/files/statistics-new/ESAG-2018.pdf

Employees' provident fund organization. (n.d.b). https://www.epfindia.gov.in/

Evaluation report on Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan - 14.139.60.153. (2010).http://14.139.60.153/bitstream/123456789/1048/1/Evaluation%20Report%20on%20Sarva%200Shiksha%20Abhiyan.pdf

Fang, L., Sun, R. C. F., & Yuen, M. (2016). Acculturation, Economic Stress, Social Relationships and School Satisfaction Among Migrant Children in Urban China. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *17*(2), 507–531. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-014-9604-6

Gopal, A. (2016). Why do children stay absent from school? A study of causes in Bargarh cluster, Chitrakoot district, Uttar Pradesh.

Government of Karnataka. index. (n.d.c). https://schooleducation.karnataka.gov.in/en

Gui, A. K. W., Yasin, M., Abdullah, N. S. M., & Saharuddin, N. (2020). Roles of teacher and challenges in developing students' morality. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *8*(3), 52-59. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.081606

Hamakali, H., & Josua, L. (2023). Engendering Technology-Assisted Pedagogy for Effective Instructional Strategy in the University of Namibia Language Centre. *Research in*

Educational Policy and Management, 5(1), 18-32.
https://doi.org/10.46303/repam.2023.3

Ismail, S., Shajahan, A., Rao, T. S., & Wylie, K. (2015). Adolescent sex education in India: Current perspectives. *Indian journal of psychiatry*, *57*(4), 333. https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5545.171843

Jennings, P. A. (2015). Early childhood teachers' well-being, mindfulness, and self-compassion in relation to classroom quality and attitudes towards challenging students. *Mindfulness*, *6*, 732-743. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-014-0312-4

Kapur, T. (n.d.d). Analysing why dropouts are taking place in government schools in Delhi and what can be done to mitigate it.

Kearney, C. A. (2008). School absenteeism and school refusal behaviour in youth: A contemporary review. *Clinical psychology review*, *28*(3), 451-471. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2007.07.012

Khanna, N. (n.d.e). Investment Pattern and Legal Provisions in India. https://doi.org/10.36282/ijasrm/3.9.2018.761

Ki-Moon, B. (2013). Secretary-general's remarks to high-level dialogue on international migration and development. In *United Nations, New York, available at https://www. un. org/en/ga/68/meetings/migration/pdf/Press% 20release_closing% 20of% 20HLD_% 20Migration* (Vol. 204). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2006.051_1.x

Koc, N., & Celik, B. (2015). The impact of number of students per teacher on student achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *177*, 65-70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.335

Kumar, A. (2016). Exploring the Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Education System: A Study of Indian Teachers. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(34), 1-4. https://doi.org/10.20533/ijtie.2047.0533.2017.0140

Kumar, S. (2020). Hindi in Multilingual India: Exploring the Transition since Independence. In *Great Transition in India: Critical Explorations* (pp. 143-157). https://doi.org/10.1142/9789811222344_0007

Kundu, A., Dey, K. N., & Mondal, S. (2018). A study on collective teacher efficacy in low performing Indian schools. *International Journal of Innovative Studies in Sociology and Humanities*, *3*(11), 71-83.

Kuset Ş., Gür Ç. (2021). Immigrant mothers with preschool children in northern Cyprus and their attitudes towards their children. *Journal of Social Studies Education Research, 12*(2), 26 – 53. https://jsser.org/index.php/jsser/article/view/2512/497

Lal, B. S. (2019). Child labour in India: Causes and consequences. *International Journal of Science and Research*, *8*(5), 2199-2206. DOI: 10.21275/ART20198458

Lee, S. W., & Lee, E. A. (2020). Teacher qualification matters: The association between cumulative teacher qualification and students' educational attainment. *International*

Journal of Educational Development, *77*, 102218.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2020.102218

Lemos, R., Muralidharan, K., & Scur, D. (2021). *Personnel management and school productivity: Evidence from ndia* (No. w28336). National Bureau of Economic Research.
https://doi.org/10.3386/w28336

Ministry of Education. (2021). *Right to education (RTE)*. Department of School Education & Literacy. https://dsel.education.gov.in/rte

Mohanty, A. (2017). Multilingualism, education, English and development: Whose development. *Multilingualism and development*, 261-280.

Moloele, R., & Moeti, K. B. (2024). Critiquing Various Antecedents of Job Satisfaction and Job Performance of the Workforce in Schools. *Research in Educational Policy and Management, 6*(1), 161-179. https://doi.org/10.46303/repam.2024.11

Monkeviciene, O., Vildziuniene, J., & Valinciene, G. (2020). The Impact of Teacher-Initiated Activities on Identifying and Verbalizing Ways of Metacognitive Monitoring and Control in Six-Year-Old Children. *Research in Social Sciences and Technology, 5*(2), 72-92.
https://doi.org/10.46303/ressat.05.02.5

Muralidharan, K., & Sheth, K. (2016). Bridging education gender gaps in developing countries: The role of female teachers. *Journal of Human Resources*, *51*(2), 269-297.
https://doi.org/10.3368/jhr.51.2.0813-5901r1

Nali Kali. Nali Kali - Department of State Educational Research and Training. (n.d.f).
https://dsert.karnataka.gov.in/info-4/Nali+Kali/en

Nayak, K. V., & Kumar, R. (2022). In Pursuit of Education: Why Some Tribal Girls Continue and Others Dropout of Schools in Rural India? *Journal of Human Values*, *28*(2), 129-142.
https://doi.org/10.1177/09716858211064251

Pal, S. D. (2014). Anakuran: A Proposed Path to Education for Children of Migrant Construction Workers in India. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, *10*(3), 96-106.
http://ijedict.dec.uwi.edu/viewarticle.php?id=1716

Parasuram, K. (2006). Variables that affect teachers' attitudes towards disability and inclusive education in Mumbai, India. *Disability & Society*, *21*(3), 231-242.
https://doi.org/10.1080/09687590600617352

Parikh, R., Michelson, D., Sapru, M., Sahu, R., Singh, A., Cuijpers, P., & Patel, V. (2019). Priorities and preferences for school-based mental health services in India: a multi-stakeholder study with adolescents, parents, school staff, and mental health providers. *Global Mental Health*, *6*, e18. https://doi.org/10.1017/gmh.2019.16

Pushpanadham, K., & Mammen, N. J. (2020). Teacher as a transformational leader: Perspectives and practices of teacher education in India. *Teacher education in the global era: Perspectives and practices*, 209-226. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4008-0_13

Rajan, V. (2018). Stolen childhoods? Observations on education of migrant children.

Rajan, V. (2021). Migrant children and 'free' education in India.

Rajan, V. (2022). Migrant childhoods and schooling in India: Contesting the inclusion-exclusion binary. *Children's Geographies*, *20*(6), 760-773. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003431527-3

Rajan, V. (2023). Migrant Childhoods and Temporalities in India: A Reflective Engagement with Dominant Discourses. *Journal of Childhood Studies*, *48*(1), 30-43. https://doi.org/10.18357/jcs202320499

Ramachandran, V., Béteille, T., Linden, T., Dey, S., & Chatterjee, P. G. (2017). *Getting the right teachers into the right schools: managing India's teacher workforce*. World Bank Publications. https://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-0987-3

Ramachandran, V., Pal, M., Jain, S., Shekar, S., & Sharma, J. (2005). *Teacher motivation in India*. Discussion Paper, (Azim Premji Foundation, Bangalore, 2005).

Ravindranath, D., Trani, J. F., & Iannotti, L. (2019). Nutrition among children of migrant construction workers in Ahmedabad, India. *International Journal for Equity in Health*, *18*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12939-019-1034-y

Roshania, R. P., Giri, R., Cunningham, S. A., Young, M. F., Webb-Girard, A., Das, A., & Ramakrishnan, U. (2022). Early life migration and undernutrition among circular migrant children: An observational study in the brick kilns of Bihar, India. *Journal of Global Health*, *12*. https://doi.org/10.7189/jogh.12.04008

Roy, A. K., Singh, P., & Roy, U. N. (2015). Impact of rural-urban labour migration on education of children: A case study of left behind and accompanied migrant children in India. *Space and Culture, India*, *2*(4), 17-34. https://doi.org/10.20896/saci.v2i4.74

Santhakumar, V., Periodi, U., Moger, G.S., & Gowder, G. (n.d.g). *The knowledge of head teachers*. University Practice Connect. https://practiceconnect.azimpremjiuniversity.edu.in/the-knowledge-of-head-teachers/

Saravanan, A., & Ramesh, S. (2022). Relationship between Socio-Economic Characteristics and School dropouts of tribal girls: An Exploratory study. *International Journal of Special Education*, *37*(3), 3705-3710.

Sharik, M. (2022). The Practice of Child Labour in India. *Issue 3 Int'l JL Mgmt. & Human.*, *5*, 1352.

Sharma, R. (2020). Vital need for sex education in Indian youth and adolescents. *The Indian Journal of Paediatrics*, *87*, 255-255. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12098-020-03240-z

Singh, C., & Basu, R. (2020). Moving in and out of vulnerability: Interrogating migration as an adaptation strategy along a rural–urban continuum in India. *The Geographical Journal*, *186*(1), 87-102. https://doi.org/10.1111/geoj.12328

Singh, H. (2016). Increasing rural to urban migration in India: A challenge or an opportunity. *International Journal of Applied Research*, *2*(4), 447-450.

Smita, S. (2008). Distress seasonal migration and its impact on children's education.

Solanki, S., & Mandaviya, M. (2021). Does gender matter? Job stress, work-life balance, health and job satisfaction among University Teachers in India. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, *22*(7), 121-134.

Sud, P. (2010). Can non-formal education keep working children in school? A case study from Punjab, India. *Journal of Education and Work*, *23*(1), 1-26. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080903448300

Teng, L. S. (2016). Changes in teachers' beliefs after a professional development project for teaching writing: two Chinese cases. *Journal of Education for teaching*, *42*(1), 106-109.https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2015.1135228

UNICEF.(2020).https://www.unicef.org/india/media/3421/file/Child-migration-India2020.pdf

Uppal, P., Paul, P., & Sreenivas, V. (2010). School absenteeism among children and its correlates: a predictive model for identifying absentees. *Indian paediatrics*, *47*, 925-929. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13312-010-0156-5

Vaijayanta, A. (2016). Advocating for the rights of construction workers: Nirman's experience. *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, *59*(3), 847-863.

Vance, A., Pendergast, D., & Garvis, S. (2015). Teaching resilience: A narrative inquiry into the importance of teacher resilience. *Pastoral Care in Education*, *33*(4), 195-204.https://doi.org/10.1080/02643944.2015.1074265

Wiksten, S. (2020). A Critically Informed Teacher Education Curriculum in Global Citizenship Education: Training Teachers as Field Experts and Contributors to Assessment and Monitoring of Goals. *Journal of international cooperation in education*, *23*(2), 107-130.

Yoestara, M., Putri, Z., & Ismail, N. M. (2020). School appreciation and teachers' competence: Are they correlated? *International Journal of Language Studies*, *14*(3).

Yu, H. (2020). Inheriting or re-structuring habitus/capital? Chinese migrant children in the urban field of cultural reproduction. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, *52*(12), 1277-1289.https://doi.org/10.1080/00131857.2019.1689814

Zheng, F. (2022). Fostering students' well-being: The mediating role of teacher interpersonal behaviour and student-teacher relationships. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 796728.https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.796728