

Impact of Women Migration on Educational Humility of Childrens in Kalyana Karnataka Region

Bheemesh Machanur

Guest Faculty, Department of Women Studies, Krishnatunga Campus, Raichur University, Raichur, Karnataka, India

ABSTRACT

Migration has long been a defining factor in shaping socio-economic structures, particularly in rural India, where male migration is a widespread phenomenon. While men migrate for better employment opportunities, their families especially women and children undergo profound transformations in their daily lives. Number of studies have shown that adult male migration from rural areas for harnessing better employment opportunities, assist in achieving financial stability to the migrants family but research shows that the absence of parent can be detrimental to a child's social and psychological development. Migration of adult household members can affect the education of the Children who are left behind in several ways. On the basis of a sample survey of 200 households spread selected district in Kalyana Karnataka region, India, this paper analyses the educational status of the children left behind. The results indicate that migration matters for the education of children. It is evident from the study that enrolment-wise children of migrant households are ahead of those of returned migrant and non-migrant households, in the case of school attendance, continuation in education and educational attainment they lag behind the children in the latter two categories of household

Keywords: Women Migration, non-migrants, Children's education

INTRODUCTION

The number of migrant women is said to have doubled between 1960 and 2015. In 2017, women comprised slightly less than half, or 48 per cent, of the international migrant population. Interestingly, they outnumbered men in all regions except Africa and Asia.¹ Data indicate that the rate of female migration is growing faster than male migration in many receiving countries While migration has moved up in the international policy agenda, its wide-ranging implications for children have received little attention. Children are affected by migration when they are left behind by one or both migrating parents, migrating with parents (or born abroad), or migrating alone.² The impact of migration on children and adolescents must be seen in the broader context of poverty and conflict, and within the perspectives of vulnerability and resilience, gender relations and children's rights.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) protects every child, regardless of nationality or immigration status. States have obligations to respect the provisions of the Convention in their policies and actions toward each and every child within their jurisdiction. These provisions include the right to citizenship, physical integrity, health and education as well as the right to be free from discrimination, exploitation, and abuse. The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers reaffirms these rights set forth in the CRC.

Desai and Mehta (2016) examined the educational challenges faced by children in migrant households. The research found that higher dropout rates, poor academic performance, and reduced motivation were common among children whose fathers had migrated for work. Many children, particularly girls, had to take on additional household responsibilities, affecting their studies. The study recommended educational incentives and community support programs to help children stay in school.

Policies should protect children's rights by enhancing access to the potential benefits created by migration, while also providing protection for those who are vulnerable to its negative consequences. Effective migration policies need to be accompanied by additional investments in health, education and social protection to address the risks faced by children and adolescents who are migrating or left behind.

Migration is becoming a worldwide phenomenon in modern period. It is recognized as an indicator of changing political and economic circumstances on a national and international scale. It measures differences and disparities in social and economic conditions between different places. In addition to need, people may migrate voluntarily or involuntarily. Human rights violations, disasters, wars, climate change, job opportunities, and professional growth are just a few of the variables that affect people's free mobility. UN defined migration as moving from one migration-defining area to another, typically requiring a change of domicile and crossing administrative boundaries. In contemporary era, migration has spread throughout the world. It has integrated itself into global urbanization and industrialization process as a result of growth of transportation and communication.

The number of migrant women is said to have doubled between 1960 and 2015. In 2017, women comprised slightly less than half, or 48 per cent, of the international migrant population. Interestingly, they outnumbered men in all regions except Africa and Asia.¹ Data indicate that the rate of female migration is growing faster than male migration in many receiving countries

Interrupted Education: The Challenge of Schooling for Migrant Children.

Indian migrant children experience extreme education disruption from seasonal labour migration, even with the Right to Education (RTE) Act of 2009 in force. Research shows that economic stress compels families to migrate, taking children out of school and into work, with socio-economic constraints, illiteracy among parents, and language disparities exacerbating dropout rates (Barik & Paltasingh, 2024). Seasonal hostels intended to assist them seldom have adequate resources, and RTE schemes continue to be poorly executed (Barik & Paltasingh, 2024). Likewise, Roy et al. (2015) points out that remittances can benefit left behind children, whereas migrant children are excluded from schools because of uncertainty and denial of access, and child labour risk is heightened. Tackling these challenges calls for focused policies, improved resource allocation, and tighter enforcement of education safeguards in order to provide equal learning opportunities for children of migrants.

The Research Problem

The above review points to a number of blind spots in existing research. First, the findings are mixed and diverse obviously because they are context and area specific studies. Second, the literature survey exposes the limited attention of researchers to the vital dimensions of migration such as links with kith and kin and education of children. Third, these issues have been totally neglected by the scholars in whatever limited works they have done in respect of rural-urban migration in the Kalyana Karnataka context. There is thus a need for filling these research gaps and hence the present study.

Objectives, Data Base, Methodology and Plan of the Study

Against this backdrop, the present paper seeks to analyse the educational status of the children left behind on the basis of a sample survey of 200 households in a selected district in Kalyana Karnataka region, India. Data for this study were collected by the authors by canvassing a structured questionnaire in person among the migrant workers at their worksites and place of living at the destination and other respondents at their native village during Jan-May, 2019. A five stage simple random sampling procedure was adopted for the purpose. The district, the blocks, the gram panchayats, the villages and the households constitute the five stages in the process. Respondents of 100 migrant households, 50 returned migrant households and 150 non-migrant households from selected district in Kalyana Karnataka region were interviewed to elicit the required information. The 139 migrant workers from 100 selected migrant households were contacted directly by us at the destination and some of them were also interviewed at their native festivals in 2019. Simple statistical tools were used to summarize the information in quantitative forms and discuss the findings of the survey

Education of the Children

The United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child (1989) envisages a host of rights of children including their right to care protection and develop to their full potential. Developments of children as human resources are conditioned by their access to education and learning outcomes. Enrolment and attendance in schools and supervision and addressing psychological problems of children are the keys in this regard. The financing and caring roles of parents are the vital aspects.

Enrolment

In India elementary education is free and mid-day meals are provided to children at schools for which enrolment at the preliminary level is high. Hence no difference in enrolments between children in migrant households and non-migrant households may be expected. But the difference in enrolment arises at the higher level of education and at a relatively higher age-group when children/adolescents can work for wages. The table -1 shows the enrolment rate for various age groups of children in the households surveyed by us.

Table1. School Enrollment by Age and Category of Household

Age	Migrant Households		Returned Migrant Households		Non-Migrant Households		All Households	
	No of Children	Children Enrolled	No of Children	Children Enrolled	No of Children	Children Enrolled	No of Children	Children Enrolled
4-8 years	75	70(93.33)	32	30 (93.75)	110	104 (94.54)	217	204 (94.0)
9-13 years	63	58 (92.20)	28	24 (85.71)	99	85 (85.85)	190	167 (87.89)
14-17years	37	30 (81.08)	19	14 (73.68)	60	45 (75.0)	116	89 (76.72)
All age Groups	175	158 (90.28)	79	68 (86.07)	269	234 (86.98)	523	460 (87.95)

The table shows that the primary and basic enrolments rate in the study area are very high. Within the age group of 4-8 years the enrollment has been found to be about 95 per cent. In the case of migrant households it is 93.33 per cent as against 93.75 for the returned migrant households and 94.54 per cent for the non-migrant households. Even though the migrant households have slightly higher enrolment in comparison to the other two, it will not be right to say that migrant households have advantages over the later two. In the age group of 9-13 years the enrolment is little lower than that at the preliminary level. The enrolment in this age group is 87.89 per cent. The enrolment rate of the children of migrant households (92.20 per cent) is higher than that for the non- migrant households (85.71 per cent) and returned migrant households (85.85). Within the age group of 14-17 years the enrolment has been relatively lower. The enrolment at this stage is 76.72 per cent with migrant households sending more children to school (81.08 per cent) followed by non-migrant households (73.68 per cent) and returned migrant households (75 per cent). There is lower enrolment in this age group because some of the children help their family members in different domestic works and some migrate with their family/father to different urban destinations for work. It may be summarized that migration status does not affect the enrolment significantly for the reasons already stated. The motivational schemes like mid-day meals, free reading materials, free dresses and other popular benefits helped in increasing enrolment in the school. The motivational factors are the key forces determining enrolment in basic and upper primary level, rather than migration status.

School Attendance

Education is multidimensional. It encompasses enrolments, school attendance and learning outcome or educational attainment. School attendance is a fundamental pre-condition for effective learning. Table 2 shows the overall school attendance by students in the study area over one year.

Table2. School Attendance by Age and Household Type

Age group	No of School Days	No of Days Attended by Children			
		Migrant Households	Returned Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households	All Households
4-8 years	223	215 (96.41)	215 (96.41)	218 (97.75)	216 (96.86)
9-13 years	223	212 (95.06)	213 (95.55)	214 (95.96)	213 (95.55)
14-17years	223	143 (64.12)	174 (78.02)	180 (80.71)	165 (73.99)
All age Groups	223	190 (85.20)	200 (89.68)	204 (91.47)	198 (88.78)

The table shows school attendance by children of different age groups across the three categories of households over a year. The numbers of school days in the 2017-18 academic year were 223 in the study area. As can be seen from the table, the overall attendance is 96.86 per cent within the age group of 4 to 8 years as against 95.55 per cent for the age group of 9-13 years and 73.99 per cent for the 14-17 years age group. The average attendance is estimated at 88.78 per cent. If we analyze the school attendance by household types in the sample, we find that it to be high and more or less similar for the age groups 4-8 and 9-13 years for all the households. Even though the non-migrant households' children have little higher attendance the percentage value is very close to that for other two categories. But the school attendance has been observed to have declined after 14 and here the influence of migration may be more evident. The household wise comparison reveals that children of migrant households miss the school most within the age group of 14-17 years with very low school attendance at 64.12 per cent. On the other hand, within the same age group, the children from non- migrant households attended 80.71 per cent and those from the returned migrant households attended 78.02 per cent of total school days. From the table it is also found that the overall attendance of migrant households was 85.20 per cent as against 88.78 per cent and 91.47 per cent respectively in the case of the children of non-migrant and returned migrant households. Thus, the children from non- migrant and returned migrant. households attended a greater number of school days in comparison to those of migrant households. Most children from non-migrant and returned migrants households reported that they tried not to miss the school, and that their parents enforced school attendance. But this did not take place in the case of the migrant

households. Because of the absence of father, the mother and grandparents failed to give required importance to school attendance. From the table it is evident that within the age group of 14-17 years more students missed the classes across all categories of households and it is severe in case of the children of migrant households. Table 3 shows the reasons for missing schools.

Table3. Reasons for Missing School by Household Type

Reasons	No of Responses			
	Migrant Households	Returned Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households	All Households
Illness	28 (13.65)	14 (18.66)	62 (18.07)	213 (34.18)
Paid Work	77 (37.56)	28 (37.33)	128 (37.3)	233 (37.39)
Household Work	95 (46.34)	32 (42.66)	146 (42.56)	273 (43.82)
Stress at Home	05 (2.43)	01 (1.33)	07 (2.04)	13 (2.08)
Total	205 (100)	75 (100)	343 (100)	623 (100)

Children reported missing school largely because of illness, paid work, and household work. Illness accounts for 34.18 per cent of non-attendance of classes. Paid work, household work and stress at home have shares of 37.39 per cent, 43.82 per cent and 2.08 per cent respectively in non-attendance. A more or less similar pattern is observed across the three categories of households. If we compare the three household types, we find that the children of returned migrant households missed more classes than those of non-migrant and migrant households. Illness was the major reason for missing classes within the age group of 4-8 years and for the other age groups household work and paid work have been the important reasons. Children of migrant households suffered from more emotional stress and this is where migration seems to play a role.

Dropout

Even though we have achieved almost 100 per cent access to school for the children at the primary level, the dropout rate is very high. Students are found to have dropped out of school at a little higher age for various reasons. The table 4 shows the schools drop out at various age groups.

Table4. School Dropout by Age and Household types

Age	Migrant Households		Returned Migrant Households		Non-Migrant Households		All Households	
	Children Enrolled	No of Drop out	Children Enrolled	No of Drop out	Children Enrolled	No of Drop out	Children Enrolled	No of Drop out
4-8 years	68	5 (7.35)	30	2 (6.66)	103	10 (9.7)	201	17 (8.45)
9-13 years	57	11 (19.29)	22	4 (18.18)	82	11 (13.41)	161	26 (16.14)
13-17years	28	15 (53.57)	13	4 (30.76)	41	15 (36.58)	82	34 (41.46)
All age Groups	153	31 (20.26)	65	10 (15.38)	226	36 (15.92)	444	77 (17.34)

The table shows that about 17.34 per cent of children discontinued their studies after enrolment. The dropout rate is lower in the age group of 4-8 years (8.45 per cent) and has increased with the increase in age. 16.14 per cent of children discontinued their study in the age group of 9-13 years as against 41.46 per cent in the 14-17 age group. The school dropout rate is the highest in the case of children of migrant households followed by non-migrant and returned migrant households in that order. The school dropout is more or less the same in all the three categories households in the age group of 4- 8 years. Even though it is little higher in the case of children of migrant households, the difference is negligible. In the age group of 9-13years, 13.41 per cent of the children of migrant households dropped out of school while 13.41 per cent of children of non-migrant households discontinued and in the case of returned migrants the dropout rate is 16 per cent. But there is a greater deviation in the age group of 14-17 years. So far as the children of migrant households are concerned the dropout rate is 53.57 per cent. The dropout rates are 36.58 per cent and 30.76 per cent in the case of the non-migrant and returned migrant households respectively.

The dropout rate is less in the lower age groups because education is free. The second reason is that the parents wanted their children should get some basic education. Once they are grown up and had their basic education many of the children moved with their fathers to the different urban destination areas for the sake of employment. In some cases because of the low academic performance, they were not able to complete the secondary level of education and hence dropped out to search for some jobs. These are the two most important reasons for which the dropout rate is the highest among the children

of migrant households. The relatively higher dropout rate of migrant households' children is due basically to lack of supervision and care and the lure of paid work in urban areas.

Educational Attainment

Educational attainment is the most vital aspect of education. It reflects not only whether children are enrolled, attended and continued school, but also how they performed. Table 5 shows the educational achievement of the children in the study area. We have taken here the final results of the students for 2018-19 academic years.

Table5. Educational Achievement

Household Category	No. Appeared	Number Passed					No. Failed
		60% +	50%-60%	40%-50%	30%-40%	All	
Migrants	40	2 (8.0)	08 (32)	11 (44.0)	4 (16)	25 (62.5)	14 (35)
Returned Migrants	9	1 (16.66)	03 (50.0)	02 (33.33)	0 (0.0)	6 (66.66)	2 (22.22)
No-Migrants	74	15 (23.80)	24 (38.09)	19 (30.15)	03 (4.76)	63 (85.13)	10 (13.51)
All	123	18 (19.14)	35 (37.23)	32 (34.04)	07 (7.44)	94 (76.42)	26 (21.13)

The overall pass-fail percentages are estimated at 76.42 per cent and 21.13 per cent respectively the pass percentage of children of non-migrant households is higher (85.13) than those of migrant (62.5) and returned migrants (66.66) households. Percentage score wise, the performance of the children of non-migrant households is also far better than those of migrant and returned migrant households. It has been found that from the 25 children belonging to migrant households who cleared the examinations (8.0 per cent) passed with 60% and above, 8 (32.0 per cent) with 50%-60%, 19 (38.09 per cent) scored 40%-50% and 7 (7.44 per cent) scored 30%-40%. Similarly out of the 6 returned migrant's children 16.66 per cent passed with 60% and above marks, 50 per cent with 50%- 60% and 33.33 per cent with 40%-50%. From this we can conclude that performances of the children of non-migrant households are better than those of returned migrant and migrant households. There are indications that children in migrant households lack support with regard to the education from their parents and that is the most vital reason which affected their performance. So migration of male members or the head of the family affected the academic achievement negatively through reducing parental supervision and assistance, through children becoming de- motivated or behaving worse, and through children becoming distracted by other duties.

Migration seems to have no serious adverse effect on enrolments in schools at the lower level and lower ages. But when it comes to school attendance, dropout and learning outcomes particularly at higher levels and age-groups, the children of migrant households are some steps back because of lack of supervision and mentoring.

Suggestions For Problems associated with Migration

1. There should be initiatives to promote financial independence among women in migrant households through skill development programs, microfinance loans, and employment opportunities.
2. Awareness campaigns should be conducted to educate affected families about available government schemes and ensure easier access to financial aid and welfare programs.
3. Counselling services should be made available to both women and children dealing with emotional distress due to male migration. Support groups and community networks should be strengthened.
4. Scholarships and free educational programs should be introduced for children from migrant households to prevent disruptions in their studies.
5. Training in areas such as tailoring, digital literacy, and entrepreneurship should be provided to help women generate independent incomes.
6. Self-help groups should be encouraged and expanded to provide emotional, financial, and social support to women and children affected by male migration.
7. Local governments and NGOs should work towards establishing mental health support centers in high-migration areas. Psychological support should be integrated into community health programs.
8. Existing migration-related policies should be reviewed and modified to ensure better assistance for affected families. The implementation of these policies should be closely monitored.
9. More job opportunities should be created for women, especially in rural areas, by promoting cottage industries and home-based businesses.
10. NGOs, local authorities, and community leaders should work together to develop sustainable support systems that cater to the needs of migrant families.

CONCLUSION

It is thus clear that migration matters for the education of children. Even though enrolment-wise children of migrant households are ahead of those of returned migrant and non-migrant households, in the case of school attendance, continuation in education and educational attainment they lag behind the children in the latter two categories of household. In the case of children of migrant households school attendance is lower and dropout is higher at higher age groups compared to the children of other household categories because the girls are required to help their mother at home and the boys do domestic and outside work in the absence of the father and sometimes migrate with father to work in cities. The lower levels of their educational attainment are due to lack of supervision and mentoring.

REFERENCES

1. Acosta, P. (2006), Labour Supply, School Attendance, and Remittances from International Migration: the Case of El Salvador. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3903, Washington.
2. Adams, R.H. and J. Page. (2003), International migration, remittances, and poverty in developing countries: World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3179, Washington.
3. Battistella, G., and M. C. G. Conaco. (1996). Impact of Migration on the Children Left Behind. *Asian Migrant* 9 (3): 86–91.
4. Dave, M. (2021). Role of self-help groups in empowering women in male migrant households. *Development Studies Quarterly*, 28(2), 211-219.
5. Desai, M., & Mehta, J. (2016). Impact of male migration on children's education in Gujarat. *Journal of Education and Development*, 34(1), 89-97.
6. Joshi, R. (2017). Healthcare challenges faced by women and children in migrant households. *Health and Society*, 29(2), 134-140.
7. Patel, R. (2018). Women's economic roles in male migrant households in rural Gujarat. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 45(2), 112-118.
8. Shah, P. (2020). Psychological well-being of women in male-migrant households in Gujarat. *Indian Journal of Psychology*, 55(3), 203-212.
9. Trivedi, H. (2019). Irregular remittances and financial strain in migrant families in Gujarat. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 54(12), 45-50.
10. Verma, D. (2019). Support system for migrant families in India. *Sociological Perspectives*, 48(3), 78-87.
11. 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.
12. Chakravarty, D., & Chakravarty, I. (2012). *When daughters migrate and mothers do not: Girl children's paid outside work in West Bengal, India* (SOAS Department of Economics Working Paper Series No. 175). SOAS, University of London.
13. Lei, L., Desai, S., & Chen, F. (2020). Fathers' migration and nutritional status of children in India: Do the effects vary by community context? *Demographic Research*, 43, 545–580.
14. Mishra, P. S., Jamadar, M., Tripathy, A., & Anand, A. (2022). Understanding the socio-economic vulnerability in child malnutrition between migrants and non-migrants children (12–59 months) in India: Evidence from a cross-sectional study. *Child Indicators Research*, 15, 1871–1888.
15. Barik, D., & Paltasingh, T. (2024). Educational challenges among migrant workers' children: Evidences. *Indian Journal of Adult Education*, 85(2), 38–50.
16. Aberman, N. (2005) *The Impact of School Enrolment in Secondary Schooling in Nicaragua*, American University, Substantial Research paper.
17. Amuedo-Dorantes, C and Puzo, S. (2006). Remittances and Insurance. Evidence from Mexican Migrants. *Journal of Population Economics*, Vol 19(2), pp. 227-254.
18. Amuedo-Dorantes, C and Puzo, S. (2010). Accounting for Remittances and Migration, Effects on Children's Schooling, *World Development*, Vol. 38, pp 1747-1759.
19. Battistella, G and Conaco, C, G (1998) The impact of labour Migration on the children left behind: A study of elementary school children in the Philippines, Sojourn: *Journal of issues in Southeast Asia*, Vol 13(2) pp 220-241.
20. 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.
21. Chakravarty, D., & Chakravarty, I. (2012). *When daughters migrate and mothers do not: Girl children's paid outside work in West Bengal, India* (SOAS Department of Economics Working Paper Series No. 175). SOAS, University of London.
22. Lei, L., Desai, S., & Chen, F. (2020). Fathers' migration and nutritional status of children in India: Do the effects vary by community context? *Demographic Research*, 43, 545–580.

23. Mishra, P. S., Jamadar, M., Tripathy, A., & Anand, A. (2022). Understanding the socio-economic vulnerability in child malnutrition between migrants and non-migrants children (12–59 months) in India: Evidence from a cross-sectional study. *Child Indicators Research*, 15, 1871–1888.
24. Barik, D., & Paltasingh, T. (2024). Educational challenges among migrant workers' children: Evidences from Odisha. *Indian Journal of Adult Education*, 85(2), 38–50.
25. Pandit, S., & Adhikari, R. (2023). Effect of internal migration of families on the educational achievement of their children. *Asian Journal of Population Sciences*, 3(1).
26. Glewwe, P. & HG Jacoby (2004): *Economic Growth and the demand for Education: Is there a wealth effect?* *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol. 74, pp 33-51.
27. Lee, M. (2011), Migration and Children's welfare in China: The Schooling and health of children left behind. *Journal of Developing Areas* Vol.44 (2): pp 165-182.
28. Lee, L.A. Park (2010) *Parental Migration and Child Development in China*. PA University of Pennsylvania, Working paper
29. Li, Y. (2012). Education of the children left behind in rural China, *Journal of Marriage and Family* Vol.74(2) : pp328-341
30. McKenzie, D. and H. Rapoport (2006) *Can Migration reduce educational attainment? Evidence from Mexico*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No 3952.
31. Meyerhoefer, C.D. and Chen, C.J. (2011). The effect of parental labor Migration on Children's educational progress in rural China. *Review of Economics of the Household*. Vol. 9(3): pp.379- 396.
32. Schapiro K. (2009) *Migration and Educational outcome of Children*, Human Development Research Paper, UNDP.