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Embedded but Unequal: Generative AI Adoption across NGO Beneficiaries, Staff, and Students in India

[1]*Jia Keniya
[1]School - Gems Modern Academy, Dubai, UAE.

Abstract

Background: Generative artificial intelligence is becoming a natural part of everyday digital platforms, including WhatsApp, Google Workspace, and Canva. AI tools are now available even in low-resource environments. However, there is very little information on the actual utilisation of these technologies in Indian Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), especially among student beneficiaries.

Objective: This study aimed to analyse access, understanding, and utilisation of generative AI tools by three audiences, including student beneficiaries of NGOs, student teachers and staff of NGOs, and student learners in digitally advantaged mainstream schools.

Method: A cross-sectional descriptive study was carried out across various NGOs in India including Calcutta Foundation, Kshamata, Children Hope India (Delhi and Hyderabad), Akaanksha Foundation, Kailash Satyarthi Foundation, Sahaara, Kurniv Foundation, and Chaitanya Kul, with a comparative sample of mainstream schools. The sample size was 157 (NGO student beneficiaries: n=111, NGO teachers/staff: n=9, mainstream school students: n=37) selected through convenience sampling. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse data, including frequencies and percentages, and comparative analysis on a group level.

Results: Findings showed that there was a high level of inequality in the access to AI in the NGO context, with 9% of NGO student beneficiaries reporting that they were not allowed to use their phones at all because of institutional policies. The academic purpose was the most prevalent, and more than 55 NGO students cited studies as their main purpose of using AI tools. In general, 78.1% of NGO beneficiaries said that AI had a positive influence on their studies. The most commonly used tools by NGO students were Meta AI on WhatsApp and ChatGPT, whereas mainstream school students showed a wider range of multi-platform applications and were more critical. The most common challenges that were mentioned included poor internet connectivity (reported by 25 NGO students) and language barriers.

Conclusion: This study highlights that while embedded GenAI tools lower entry barriers, unequal institutional access, infrastructural limitations, and limited digital literacy support may reinforce educational inequalities rather than reduce them.

Keywords: Generative AI, Personalized Learning Environment, ChatGPT, NGOs, Meta AI.

1. Introduction

The fast growth of generative Artificial Intelligence (AI) is changing how people learn, communicate, and conduct their daily academic and work activities (García-Peñalvo et al., 2023). ChatGPT, Meta AI built into WhatsApp, AI-enhanced apps in Google Workspace, and design tools like Canva AI are only a few examples of tools enabling users to create written outputs, summaries, presentations, and visual outputs with little to no effort by inputting a query (Darwish, 2025). Notably, these technologies are being more and more integrated into common digital spaces instead of being viewed as systems of their own, and thus they are becoming more visible and accessible, even to people with a low level of technical skills (Wrench & Elmoudden, 2025).

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are very important in India in bridging the education gap and empowering the needy societies (Saxena, 2025). The popular and inexpensive platforms, especially WhatsApp and Google Workspace, are being used by many NGOs to deliver instructions, communicate, coordinate, and document (Lydia, 2025). As generative AI is now being

Jia Keniya
School - Gems Modern Academy, Dubai, UAE.
Email: jia@researchergroup.co

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incorporated into these platforms, NGOs can have new avenues of learning support as well as organisational efficiency (Spătariu, 2022). Nonetheless, there is still a lack of empirical support on the actual access to these AI tools, their comprehension, and utilisation within NGO ecosystems, especially among student beneficiaries.

Existing research on AI usage in education has largely focused on formal school and higher-education settings, primarily in high-income countries (Al-Zahrani & Alasmari, 2025). Studies conducted in the United States and the United Kingdom report that students frequently use generative AI tools for concept clarification, summarisation, drafting written work, and idea generation (Cabrera-Arnau, 2024; Johnston et al., 2025). Serra & Oliveira, (2025) suggest that students often engage with AI-enabled features without explicitly identifying them as AI, especially when these features are integrated into familiar interfaces such as search engines, document editors, or messaging applications (Serra & Oliveira, 2025). These findings are particularly relevant for NGO learning environments, where formal instruction in digital or AI literacy may be limited.

Additionally, research on educators' and professionals' use of AI indicates growing adoption for lesson planning, administrative tasks, and content creation, alongside concerns related to trust, training, and ethical use (Benyahia, 2025). Within the Indian nonprofit sector specifically, prior studies have focused more on digital communication practices than on AI-driven tools. For example, Thakur et al., (2025) highlights WhatsApp's central role in coordination and outreach for Indian social organisations, while other studies document its use for information dissemination and community engagement (Thakur et al., 2025). However, this study largely predates the integration of generative AI features such as Meta AI within WhatsApp.

Broader institutional reports further indicate that while interest in AI adoption among nonprofits is increasing, significant barriers remain (Arowosegbe et al., 2024; Johnston et al., 2024). Reports and analyses identify challenges, including inconsistent internet access, language limitations, lack of AI-specific training, and concerns around data privacy, particularly when working with vulnerable populations (Malik et al., 2025). These constraints are likely to be more pronounced in NGO settings compared to formal schools or corporate environments.

Despite this increasing studies, there remains a clear gap in research that examines generative AI usage across both beneficiaries and staff within the same NGO context, particularly in India. Additionally, limited work has compared AI access, usage patterns, and attitudes between underserved learners and students from digitally well-resourced educational environments. This study addressed these gaps by examining how NGO student beneficiaries, teachers/NGO staff, and mainstream school students; access, use, and perceive generative AI tools, including ChatGPT, Meta AI within WhatsApp, Google Workspace AI, and Canva AI. By situating the analysis within real-world NGO contexts and incorporating a comparative student group, the study contributes context-specific insights into AI adoption, challenges, and attitudes within education and social impact settings.

2. Methodology

2.1. Research Design and Setting

The research design used in this study was a cross-sectional descriptive study, which used a sample consisting of various groups of participants to analyse their access, awareness, and usage patterns of generative AI tools. Structured questionnaires were used to gather data through the administration of questionnaires across several NGOs working in India, and a comparative sample was collected among mainstream schools. The study employed a predominantly quantitative methodology, with limited qualitative input in the form of short explanatory responses. The NGOs were the Calcutta Foundation, Kshamata, Children Hope India (Delhi), Children Hope India (Hyderabad), Akaanksha Foundation, Kailash Satyarthi Foundation, Sahaara, Kurniv Foundation and Chaitanya Kul.

2.2. Participants and Study Context

To allow a comparative analysis of the different educational and institutional environments, the participants were divided into three categories. These were NGO student beneficiaries, which comprised of children and adolescents attending an NGO-facilitated learning activity; NGO teachers and staff, including educators, administrators, field workers, communications staff and operational staff; mainstream school students in digitally well-resourced educational settings, such as IB schools and urban schools, both in India and the Middle East. Participants were categorised into three groups:

1. NGO student beneficiaries, primarily children and adolescents attending NGO-supported learning sessions. (N~111)

2. Teachers and NGO staff, including educators, administrators, field workers, communications personnel, and operational staff. (N~9). The reason only 9 teachers/ staff members were inquired is because there were only 9 NGOs which were visited with one teacher each, while the students were more.
3. Mainstream school students, drawn from well-resourced and digitally connected educational environments, including IB schools and schools in urban India and the Middle East. (N~37).

This categorisation enabled comparative analysis across levels of digital access, institutional context, and role-based AI usage.

2.3. Sampling technique

Participant recruitment was done using a non-probability convenience sampling method. The participants were selected using the network of NGOs and school contacts, depending on their availability and willingness to be part of the virtual sessions scheduled. This sampling method was deemed to be suitable because the research was exploratory and the logistical difficulty of operating through several organisations.

2.4. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

2.4.1. Inclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria of the study included NGO student beneficiaries who participated in learning or educational support programs provided by the selected NGOs in India; NGO teachers and staff members who were actively working at the participating NGOs and engaged in academic, administrative, or operational activities; and mainstream school students who were enrolled in digitally well-resourced schools and served as the comparative group. Only individuals who were living in India during the time of data collection and could comprehend and answer the questionnaire (with or without the help of the facilitator) were included.

2.4.2. Exclusion Criteria

The participants were not to be included in the study when they are not directly connected to the chosen NGOs or mainstream schools, which were a part of the study, or when they were not living in India during the data collection period. Those who did not have the basic knowledge of digital platforms that were needed to be exposed to AI (e.g., did not know about WhatsApp, did not have access to the internet, did not use a smartphone) were not included since they could not provide meaningful responses related to the use of generative AI tools. Moreover, incomplete answers and those without consent were not included in the final analysis.

2.5. Research Instrument and Data Collection

The study was conducted over a three-month period in 2025, with data collection being conducted during the months of July-August and December 2025. The main data collection tool that was utilized was a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was not borrowed or adapted to an already published instrument, but was developed independently by the researcher. A mixed-mode approach was used to collect data. The questionnaire was not self-administered to the participants as responses were obtained through live, face-to-face meetings and interactive sessions where the researcher asked the questions directly and recorded the answers in real time. In the case of mainstream school students, the questionnaire was sent via an online platform (Google Forms). To minimize the potential human error and reduce the researcher bias in the process of manual coding, the responses were written down as soon as they were provided to the researcher, and there was minimal possibility of them being changed subsequently, based on the memory or interpretation. Moreover, the responses of the participants were audio-recorded (where applicable) so as to be able to verify and cross-check the recorded responses with the input data. The sample size was achieved by the convenience-based availability as no formal method of calculating the sample size was applied; the sample size depended on the number of students and teachers available in the NGO at the time of data collection. To analyze the data, the responses were organized and processed in Google Sheets and Microsoft Excel, and the data was stored in a spreadsheet format to be verified and reviewed.

Three distinct questionnaires were created to make it relevant and clear to the students of NGOs, teachers and staff members of NGOs, and mainstream school students. The questionnaires were mainly a set of multiple-choice and categorising questions that measured device access, knowledge of AI tools, usage frequency, platform-specific adoption (mentioning ChatGPT, Meta AI on WhatsApp, Google Workspace AI, and Canva AI) and perceived impact in academic or work, and barriers to use, like language barriers or poor internet connectivity. The language used in questions was simple and age-friendly to aid in understanding, especially among the younger

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participants. In the data collection process, no personally identifiable data was gathered.

2.6. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical techniques were used to analyse the data through SPSS software. The analysis of the responses of the participants was summarised by frequencies and percentages to identify the main patterns. The group-level comparisons and visual charts were used to conduct comparative analysis to identify the differences in AI tool use among the categories of participants, adoption trends regarding the use of specific platforms, attitudes towards generative AI, and the barriers and perceived effects of AI use reported by the participants.

2.7. Ethical Considerations

The ethcial approval was obtained by the local ethics research committee of the university. Informed consent was also obtained from the participants and all the personal information was kept confidential. Non-sensitive, age- and context-related questions to student participants were posed. STROBE guidelines were followed, however, the study also followed the institutional ethical guidelines to ensure validity.

3. Results

3.1. The NGO Spectrum

The results show that the digital divide exists not merely between the beneficiaries of the NGOs and the mainstream students in schools, but also within the NGO sector itself on a larger scale. An evident continuum of involvement was noted among organisations. At the high-engagement end, Kurniv Foundation and Calcutta Foundation students had a high level of digital exposure, with many reporting high device use (usually over six hours per day) and engaging in generative AI to solve comparatively high-level academic tasks like presentation creation and assistance with college-related work. Conversely, a middle group with resource constraints, such as beneficiaries of the Kailash Satyarthi Foundation and Sahaara, exhibited moderate adoption of AI. Despite the knowledge of the AI tools, their use was limited because these students did not have enough devices, had to share a phone, and limited data availability limited the use of AI to a quick concept clarification by using Google voice search or Meta AI on WhatsApp. On the exclusionary side of the spectrum, there was a zero-access group of beneficiaries in Kshamata and Children Hope India (Delhi). There was a large gap in digital literacy, even in comparison with other NGOs, since strict no-phone policies and rehabilitation-oriented environments ensured that these students were virtually not exposed to AI at all.

3.2. Teachers vs. Students Usage and Perceptions

Comparative results of teachers/staff and student beneficiaries found a clear-cut productivity versus learning gap in the use of generative AI. Educators and non-governmental organisation workers, specifically in digitally engaged organisations like Children Hope India (Hyderabad), noted the use of AI tools in professional productivity activities, such as lesson planning, report writing, documentation, and writing official communication. To this population, AI was seen mostly as a tool of workload reduction and efficiency. Conversely, students in most NGOs (except the zero-access groups) used AI as an alternative learning tool mostly. They were used around Meta AI in WhatsApp to give easy explanations, summarise messages and translate English instructions to more comprehensible forms. Notably, institutional capacity was very influential in determining access and adoption. It was noted that there was a sharp difference between CHI Hyderabad, where the staff was more digitally literate and CHI Delhi, where caretakers were reported to be unaware of basic technological knowledge. This may indicate that even within a single organisation, local leadership and staff digital competence is a significant factor in determining whether AI will be an empowering tool or will be inaccessible.

3.3. Mainstream School Students (The "Power User" Group)

The general school population of students showed the pattern of AI use that was not only about accessing different, but also more profound and sophisticated. As opposed to the beneficiaries of NGOs who used the WhatsApp-integrated Meta AI or simple use of ChatGPT, mainstream students showed a multi-tool methodology. They often moved within an AI application ecosystem, where ChatGPT was used to draft and generate ideas, Perplexity was used to research-based queries, and Canva was used to create visually improved academic work. Also, mainstream students were more apt to use iterative prompting, in which they polished the answers by follow-up questions and critically assessed the AI output. They also had quite different concerns, as they were more concerned with academic integrity, ethical implications, and possible

dependence. By comparison, NGO beneficiaries were more interested in fundamental understanding, language differences, and data-related restrictions, which are inherently different in the digital contexts that the groups serve.

3.4. Device Access and Platform Familiarity

It was observed that device access among beneficiaries of the NGO was not consistent, but fragmented.

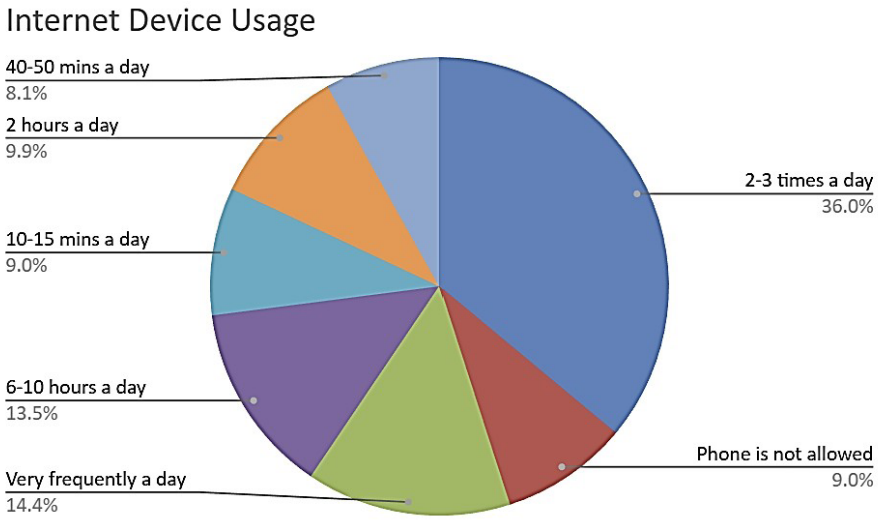

Figure 1. Internet Device Usage among NGO students

Figure 1 indicates that 36% of NGO students reported accessing the internet two to three times daily, 9% were strictly forbidden to use phones (institutional restrictions), especially in CHI Delhi and Kshamata. This brings out the issue that access can be influenced by organisational policy and not personal interest. The results also indicate that platform familiarity is a significant aspect of AI entry. ChatGPT and WhatsApp Meta AI were the most frequent AI exposures.

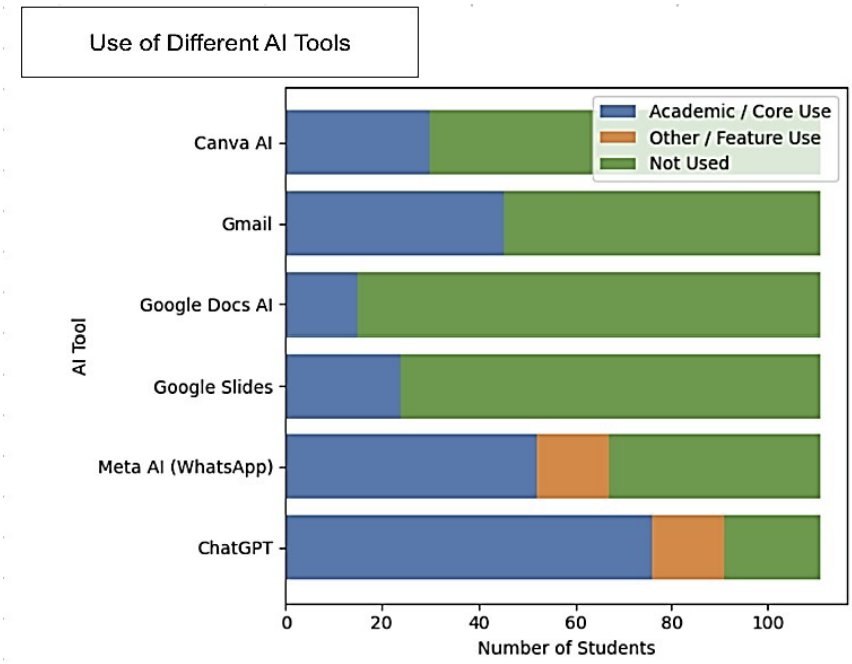

Figure 2. Use of Different AI Tools among NGO students

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ChatGPT was the most popular among NGO students in the academic or core category, but its highly popular integration into a popular communication platform made Meta AI close up to ChatGPT. Conversely, more productivity-focused tools like Google Docs AI and Canva AI had high non-use in their responses, which means that they were not aware of AI-based features on professional or creative productivity tools, as shown in Figure 2.

3.5. Primary Drivers and Perceived Impact

AI usage among student participants was largely driven by academic needs, though variations were observed in both the intensity and sophistication of use across the groups.

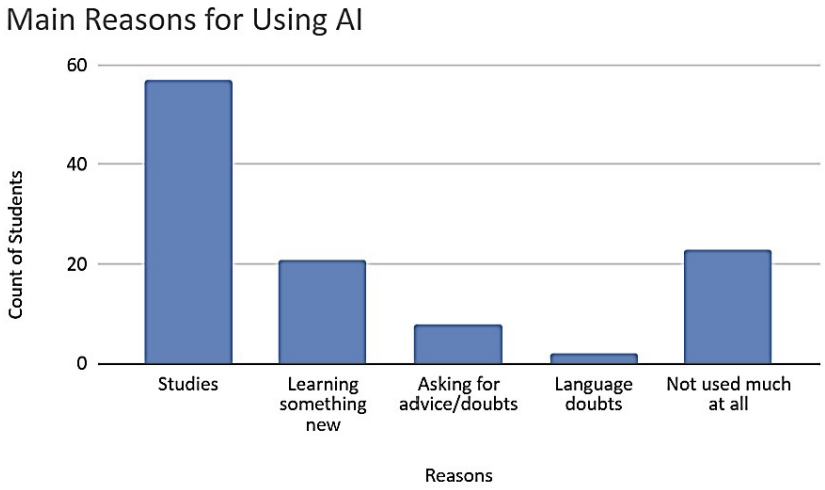

Figure 3. Main Reasons for Using AI among NGO students

Over 55 NGO students, as illustrated in Figure 3, indicate that they used AI primarily to facilitate their education, such as learning lessons, explaining concepts, and enhancing schoolwork. This scholarly form of usage was in close relation to perceived educational value. This trend is also supported in Figure 4, 78.1 % of NGO students felt that AI positively affected their studies. This implies that despite access and infrastructure-related constraints, students see considerable value in generative AI as an aid to learning, even in resource-restricted settings.

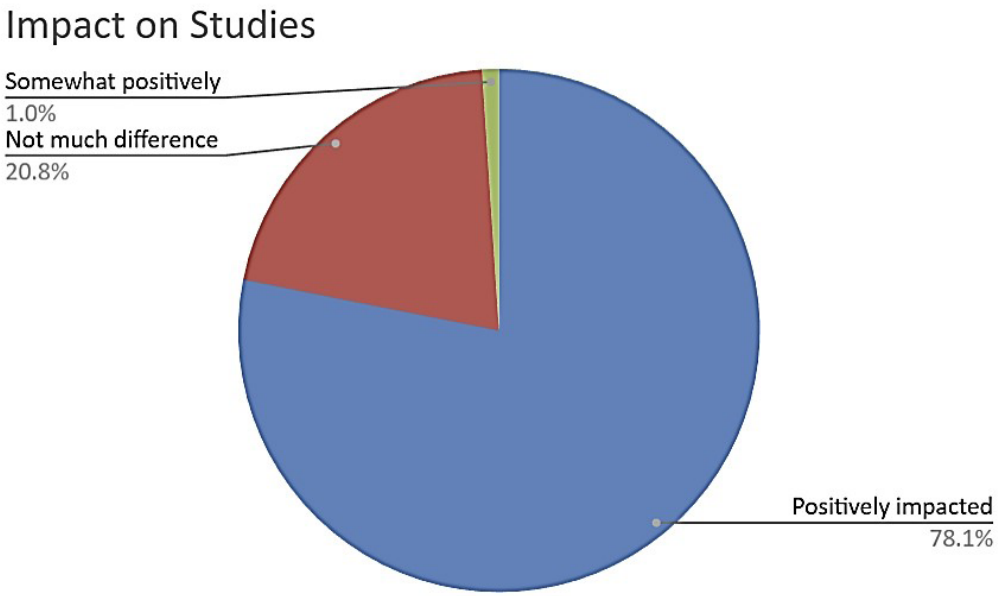

Figure 4. Impact of AI on Studies

3.6. Comparative Analysis: Usage and Drivers

The existence of a utility versus productivity gap was strengthened through a wider comparison between NGO beneficiaries, teachers/staff, and mainstream school students.

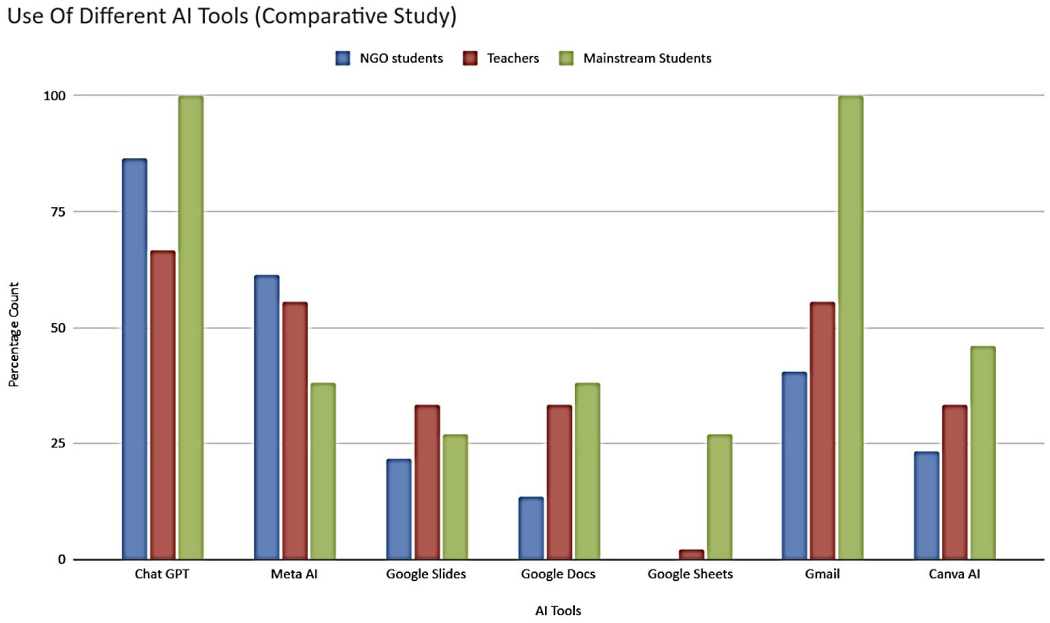

Figure 5. Comparative Analysis on Use of Different AI Tools

Mainstream students showed almost universal usage of such tools as Gmail and ChatGPT, which indicates the steady presence of digital access as a part of academic life (Figure 5). NGO students, in their turn, expressed more dependency on Meta AI as it is accessible via WhatsApp, whereas teachers and staff members demonstrated a more equal distribution of AI tools usage, which was mostly defined by the administrative and organisational requirements.

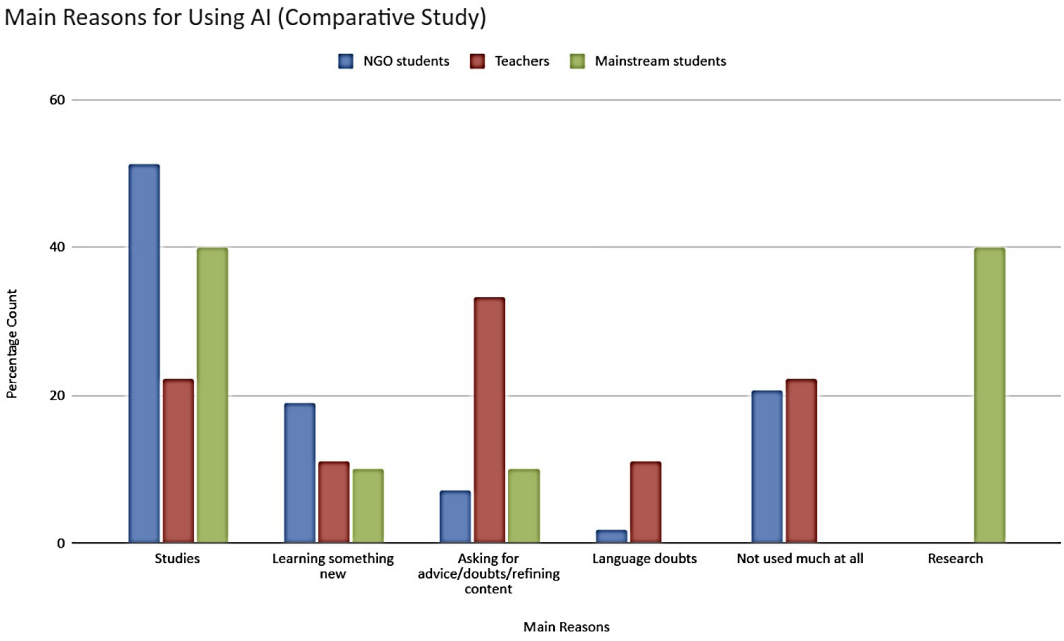

Figure 6. Comparative Analysis on Main Reasons for Using AI

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Figure 6 shows differences in the major motivation to use AI. The usage based on research appeared nearly exclusively with mainstream students (about 35%), but teachers and staff mostly used AI to refine content, consultations, and assist with professional document-related tasks (about 33%). These differences underscore how context and digital preparedness can influence access, as well as the objective and intensity of AI activity.

3.6. The Psychological Landscape in Excitement VS Dependence

Attitudinal results indicates a sense of optimism and concern among all the groups of participants. The strongest emotion regarding AI observed was excitement, the highest of which was among mainstream students (approximately 60 percent). Nevertheless, those who are beneficiaries of NGOs had a more relative fear of reliance and the loss of creativity, as around 28% said they were concerned that AI might diminish independent thought. This anxiety about creativity seems to be a special psychological impediment to underserved learners, which might be conditioned by poor instruction on the responsible use of AI and a lack of understanding of how to reconcile AI assistance with personal learning and originality, as shown in Figure 7.

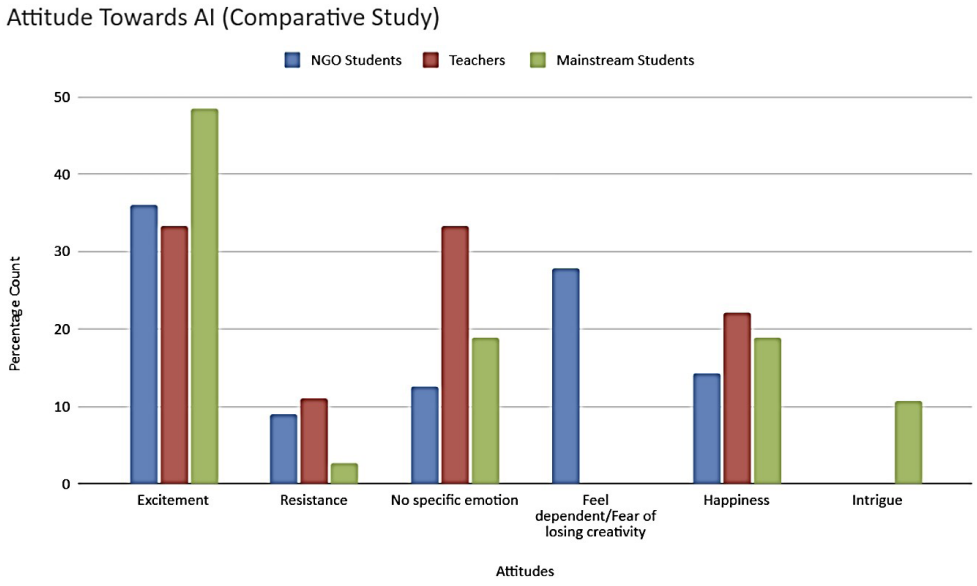

Figure 7. Comparative Analysis on the Attitude towards AI

3.7. Reported Challenges and Barriers

These challenges reported are a strong indication of the phenomenon of the double divide, through a convergence of infrastructure constraints and literacy constraints. Figure 8 shows that the most commonly identified barrier was poor internet connection, mentioned by 25 NGO students, as many structural barriers remain that of unstable digital access. The second most prevalent issue was language barriers, and it highlighted the fact that there was a high language tax to be paid by NGO beneficiaries. The lack of English proficiency meant that many students found it difficult to decipher AI-written answers, and this disadvantaged them when compared to normal students who had better linguistic capabilities to critically interpret AI-generated answers. Altogether, the results imply that access cannot be considered a sufficient condition, and to achieve meaningful AI use, one needs a stable infrastructure, support in multiple languages, and institutional guidance to promote equitable educational outcomes.

4. Discussion

Generative artificial intelligence is increasingly embedded within everyday digital platforms, creating new opportunities for learning and academic support across diverse educational settings. However, access to these tools is not evenly distributed, particularly in resource-constrained environments where institutional policies and infrastructural limitations may restrict exposure. This study highlights a complex and multifaceted terrain of generative AI adoption and use in learning spaces, showing that there are major inequalities between NGOs and mainstream schools, as well as among NGOs themselves. The results revealed that although a small group of NGO beneficiaries actively

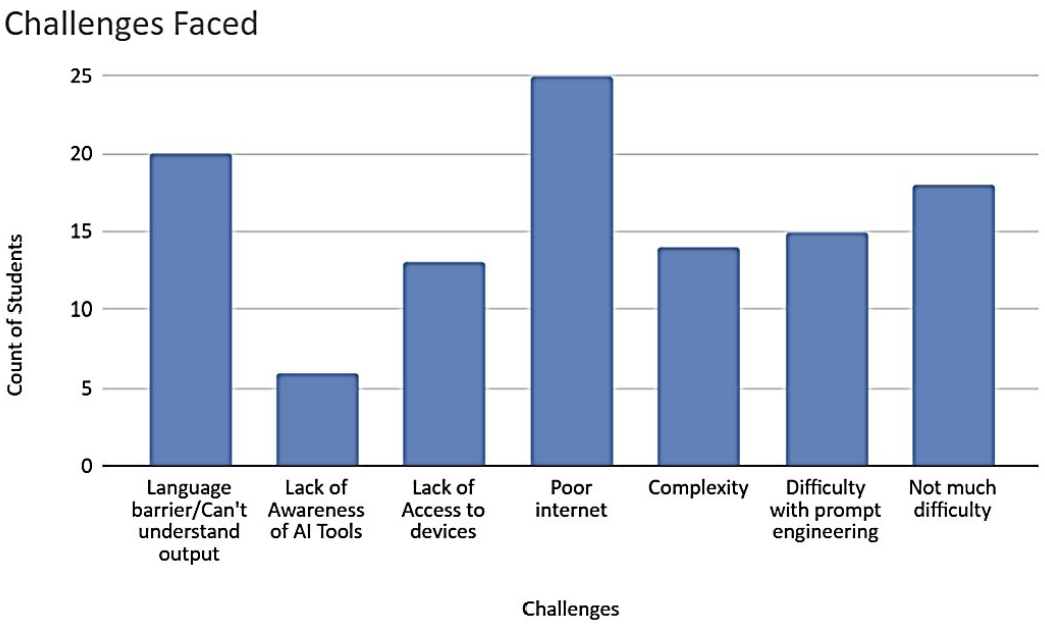

Figure 8. Challenges Faced while Using AI

used AI, with such platforms as Meta AI on WhatsApp and ChatGPT to complete academic assignments, other groups experienced extreme marginalisation due to the limiting device policies or rehabilitative environments, which practically formed a zero-access block. These findings are not limited to mere measures of access; they suggest that institutional policies, local leadership, and digital literacy levels are the determinants of whether AI will become a tool of empowerment or will be inaccessible.

In addition, the fact that there is evidence of a utility versus productivity gap between teachers and students indicates that staff are more likely to use AI to do organisation-based work, when compared to students who primarily use AI as a tutoring or clarifying tool. In contrast, mainstream students demonstrated a multi-tool, iterative prompting strategy, more intensive use of AI in research, and more critical platform navigation patterns, which are linked to the higher levels of GenAI literacy (Kim et al., 2025). Notably, regardless of the access limitations, most students of NGOs noted that AI affected their education positively. However, this interest was somewhat diminished by anxiety about creativity and language barriers, which indicated a psychological aspect of the digital divide that transcends infrastructure.

With these results and the new research on AI in education, some commonalities and differences are evident. An increasing number of studies highlight the fact that the benefits associated with AI are not all-encompassing and that structural disparities tend to have varying impacts on learning scenarios (Lee et al., 2025). An example is a recent study of AI and the digital divide in education, which states that technology access is essential. However, equitable AI adoption requires dealing with cultural, linguistic, and institutional injustices as well as access challenges, a theme that is echoed in this study's findings on language taxes and policy-based exclusion in NGOs (Park, 2025). This study also points out that the digital inequality literature neglects meaningful patterns of use and key digital skills in favor of access itself, reflecting our focus on depth of use and introducing sophistication to signify engagement (Matjie et al.).

In addition, a study on GenAI literacy at schools shows that students can demonstrate a moderate level of knowledge about tools such as ChatGPT, but they are often challenged by prompt engineering, critical assessment of the results, and ethical consciousness (Francis et al., 2025). These studies recommend direct literacy guidelines and institutionalisation of GenAI skills, which are in line with the findings of this study that the use of NGO students was still superficial and heavily relied on single query responses instead of interrogating AI responses. These similarities indicate that to achieve equal educational impact, it is essential to cultivate AI literacy not just by simple access.

The same themes have been found in a cross-national study on the perception and use of generative AI among university students, which discovered that access differences might

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not be as pronounced as presumed. However, differences in the application of the tool, its conceptual knowledge, and contextual use patterns reflect more broadly on the digital ecosystem and educational standards (Karan & Bakina, 2024). Although this research did not represent the underserved NGO learners, it supports the notion that context (resource limitations or cultural norms) determines the introduction of AI into the learning processes, which underpins our discussion of intra-NGO variability and the role of local leadership in the process of AI implementation. The studies of AI acceptance in educational settings tend to indicate a two-faceted character of AI adoption (Mohamed et al., 2025). Some researchers claim that generative AI is able to boost personalised learning and student motivation, and at the same time, engage challenges associated with academic integrity and equity and dependency impacts (Mohamed et al., 2025). These debates overlap with the creativity anxiety that has been found in this study among NGO students, which suggests that the psychological involvement of learners with AI, such as the fear of reliance and diminished creativity, is a little-understood aspect of the digital divide that is not well-reflective of the conventional access paradigm.

Lastly, organisational policy and practice discourses like those of UNESCO highlight human-centred, inclusive responses to AI in education, promoting AI competency frameworks to both teachers and students that anticipate equity, access to language, and ethical use, all reflected in this study's suggestions of vernacular interfaces, train-the-trainer courses, and guided workshops. Overall, the results of this study add to the existing body of empirical research that demonstrates a dual divide in NGO education settings, but they resonate with and expand on the current research trends, indicating that access, institutional policy, literacy, and socio-cultural factors influence digital inclusion in generative AI. To make the educational promise of AI a real opportunity, these interconnected dimensions must be tackled to make sure that the opportunities created by AI can become a fair learning opportunity and not a continuation of structural inequities (Spătariu, 2022).

5. Recommendations

According to the results of this study, NGOs and social impact stakeholders can be advised to take a number of measures to make the adoption of generative AI more fair and meaningful. To begin with, NGOs must stop relying on the image of an invisible AI because, although Meta AI on WhatsApp may serve as a good entry point, organised workshops must be implemented to help students get acquainted with a productivity-focused tool, including Canva AI and Google Workspace AI. The shift between messaging-based utilisation and skill-building applications is critical to enhancing academic achievements and workforce preparedness over time. Secondly, NGOs ought to put into play the train-the-trainer AI programs to overcome the staff-student disconnect, whereby, teachers and staff are not just trained to use AI to report and do administrative tasks but also be ready to serve as AI mentors who can train students on iterative prompting, critical thinking, and responsible learning. Moreover, linguistic localisation should be considered a priority as the research demonstrates that the language obstacle poses a serious language tax to underserved learners; thus, the vernacular AI interfaces and the use of multilingual training should be provided to allow the students to concentrate on mastering the concepts and not on translation. Also, NGOs need to create ethical guidelines about AI that are simple and appealing to the age group, since creativity anxiety among NGO learners has been observed, and learners need to perceive AI as a helpful co-pilot, not as a substitute for independent thinking. Lastly, there is a high demand to institutionalise digital policies within NGOs, moving beyond uncompromising no-phone policies in favor of controlled and modeled access frameworks, so that rehabilitation or safety-related issues do not inadvertently result in total digital exclusion and increase educational disparities even further.

6. Limitations and Future Research

There are a number of strengths of this study. First, it offers empirical data on the adoption of generative AI in the context of Indian NGOs, which are rarely studied. It presents the views of several stakeholder groups, such as NGO student beneficiaries, NGO staff/teachers, and mainstream students of schools, making it possible to conduct a significant comparison. Second, the incorporation of various NGOs emphasises the intra-sector diversity and demonstrates the influence of institutional policies and resource restrictions on the patterns of AI access and use. However, the use of convenience sampling and a relatively small sample of staff members is one of the study's limitations, as it might not be representative of all NGOs in the Indian context. Future studies ought to use bigger and more representative samples in various regions and incorporate longitudinal designs to investigate how the use of AI changes over time. Further, a qualitative interview or

focus group may be used to understand more about critical engagement with students, ethical implications, and how language barriers contribute to learning outcomes.

7. Conclusion

This study highlights that the adoption of generative AI in the NGO sector in India is not taking place in any homogenous way, but instead in discrete and disjointed ways of accessibility and use. Although AI tools like Meta AI on WhatsApp lower barriers to entry and allow numerous NGO beneficiaries to utilise AI to support their academic tasks, a significant percentage of students lack access because of institutional constraints and a lack of access to computers and the internet access. Overall, these findings indicate that unless linguistic support, target training, and inclusion institutional policies are in place, generative AI can contribute to the existing inequalities in education and not alleviate them.

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