

Intrastate student migration and trends: Impact on Urbanisation and subsequent migration behavior

Mateen Yousuf

Department of Management Studies
SV University, Amroha

Abstract- Capital cities in J&K have emerged as hub of education activities and as such students from all over the state migrate to the places seasonally. Srinagar as well as Jammu have emerged as the hub of education where students and aspirants flock to enroll themselves in the institutes of their choice. The availability of large number of teachers, enhanced investment, safety reasons, choice and competition, easily available supplementary and complementary facilities are some of the main reasons why students preferred the urban areas as their ideal choice of education. The objective of this research is to find out the trends of migration of students and teachers from rural to urban places in Kashmir. Various changes that have taken place in time have been observed. The research process involved setting up of focus groups of various stakeholders and discussing the research objectives. The inferences drawn were compared to the hypothesis and compared with the data which was collected through open ended questionnaire. It was found out that parents prefer to send their wards to urban areas to avail various facilities but over the years efforts have been made to setup the same facilities in native towns and villages which was found to have a significant negative impact of growth of educational infrastructure in the urban areas. The trend of shifting to urban areas was found to be positive over the past 30 years. It is recommended that the stakeholders collaborate with government to develop the twin cities in the state of J&K as the hub for education not only among intra-state but inter-state as well.

Keywords- migration, students, Kashmir, urban connect, education

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a perceived failure in the education policy formulation in India post-independence. There has been a growing discrepancy in the growth of educational infrastructure and teacher development in urban and rural areas on India.

India has witnessed a boom in the educational infrastructural growth in the first half of the 21st century. The vision of the forefathers of India that development should reach the last man standing in the village and until then there cannot be a real success in the country. The perception is that urban areas have been the epicenter of growth and development especially in two major indicators of perceived growth i.e., health and education. Education has been a subject of debate and its growth has witnessed many reforms over the decades. The sector has seen many world class institutions been created over the last six decades. But it is still found that there is an exclusion in the sector and that education is not for everyone and quality education is missing in the unprivileged class. They have felt that it has seen little progress has been seen in the sector.

It has led to a large scale migration among students or prospective students from under privileged regions to places where the facilities of education are a bit tad

developed. Migration is a natural process and it will increase in the future if the education policy of India does not change the way education is delivered in its current mode. The dropout rates are high because of the lack of avenues at higher education level, thus leading to higher migration to urban areas. The government need to improve the age specific attendance ratio at higher education level. This ratio is different in different states and it has been found that the places where the ratio is level, the higher is the number of students migrated out of that area. This has led to brain drain and less development of that area as most of the students find opportunities outside and settled there subsequently.

The migration is found to vastly outnumber urban areas to rural areas and the reasons are obvious. It has been found out that migration starts directly after 8th class and goes upto 12th standard and this age has been found to be prime for those looking for better opportunities. It is widely believed by experts that higher enrollment in higher education is good for the economy of that place and the equitable development that government yearns to achieve. The countries where the students persisted in higher studies and developed the local infrastructure in education were found to be successful not only in India but other South Asian countries as well. Upon research, it is found that the countries in our neighbourhood which have yearned for corporate growth has initially managed to sustain the enrollment at technical and professional levels.

India has been successful in boosting its fundamentals of economy but it still needs to invest heavily in human resource development. The investment should be more in terms of women empowerment because at least male population have started to migrate while as females have continued to be the highest number in the indices of dropout. If technical and vocational education can be improved at tertiary level, it will have a substantial effect on interstate migration. The data suggests that the increase in the localisation of education directly translates into increase annual growth rate quadruple. In this scenario, the students who migrate to other areas do not necessarily return. It is a known fact that brain drain has serious consequences, because unlike China, Indian tend do not usually come back and invest back their intellectual capital. Some research has been conducted on internal migration in search of employment and education. The urban areas offering better opportunities and better wage markets tend to attract people from rural areas. Institutions having better facilities and offering specialised courses are obviously located in urban areas and as such are the natural breeding grounds to intelligent and aspiring students from all hues and regions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The studies mainly outline the elements affecting the costs and benefits of migration for students who decide whether to acquire education abroad (Kyung, 1996; Bessey, 2006; and Agasisti and Dal Bianco, 2007). Heaton and Throsby (1998) analyzes the determinants of flows in a cost-benefits framework. Mac and Moncur (2001) found that higher wages in the country of origin positively affect the rate of out-migration. It is so, because agents with higher income can bear the costs of migration more easily and have better possibilities to invest in high quality of education. Papatishba (2005) argued that studying overseas enhance the social and cultural development of migrants and therefore leads to human capital gains. Mectenber and Strausz (2008) underlined the trade-off facing government, i.e., competition versus free riding.

The large majority of international students are self-funded and, although some do return home to make a positive contribution to their homeland, there are indications that many are choosing to remain (Lowell et al.). There is a general consensus that the movement of the highly skilled is now a key feature of increasingly globalised education and labour markets (Lowell et al., 2004; Kapur & McHale, 2005).

India's higher education sector is undergoing a process of restructuring. Government funding has been cut and greater emphasis is placed on generating income from industry and student fees (Gillan et al., 2000). Feeling excluded from elite institutions and unwilling to study at second-tier institutions which are over-burdened by numbers and under-funded, an increasing number of

middle class families consider the option of sending their children abroad for undergraduate or postgraduate studies (Gillan et al., 2000). This has been facilitated by the liberalization of India's economy allowing for the export of currency. In April 1993, the Indian Government allowed students to take out foreign exchange for tertiary studies (Louden, 1996:74). In addition, some student loans have been made available by Indian banks (Gillan et al., 2000). Many students are particularly attracted by the flexibilities afforded by the Australian system whereby students can progress through different levels of qualifications in the school, university and vocational training sectors. Qualifications are cross-credited and there are different pathways to achieving a certain level of qualifications (Australian High Commission, 2004).

The Government of India, although a bit late, has awakened to the problem of massive exodus of students. It has been highlighted in the Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007–2012) and the Twelfth Five-Year Plan (2012–17) which states that: 'Higher education in India is passing through a phase of unprecedented expansion, marked by an explosion in the volume of students, a substantial expansion in the number of institutions and a quantum jump in the level of public funding'(Government of India, 2012). Pawan Agarwal (2009) argues, 'the country would not be able to sustain its growth momentum and maintain competitiveness unless problems of higher education are fixed'.

In this regard, the role of India diaspora (which is already active in the education sector) can prove to be extremely significant. Nick Clark (2010) states 'The government has to find the right balance between regulating the sector to ensure unscrupulous providers do not dominate, and deregulation so that foreign universities will actually be interested in the opportunities in India. India has immense potential to tap the trillion dollar industry worldwide given its history, demographic advantage, growing knowledge economy, and rich heritage. International educational experience is also considered an important attribute of intercultural competence, useful for future job-market chances (Shaftel et al. 2007; Cubilo et al. 2006; Cant 2004). Often, studying abroad is considered a stepping stone towards migration in the future (Vincent-Lancrin 2008). Foreign students, especially those from developing countries, demonstrate high stay rates in a host country after the graduation (Rosenzweig 2006; Finn 2003; Hein and Plesch 2008).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. **International Reliability:** Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the reliability of scale and validity of data entered.

2. **Open ended questionnaire:** was the research instrument used in determining the trends of student migration.
3. **Non-probability judgmental technique:** was used to choose the population to be surveyed. Among 15400, a sample of 1981 people was chosen who had migrated from rural to urban areas since past 5 years.
4. **Data Sample:** 1255 among the surveyed had come for education purposes. 59 had come for business. Another 411 had moved in for jobs. And 256 had come in for other purposes.

IV.RESULTS

Table 1 – Demographics

Purpose of Visit		Frequency	%	Cumulative %age
Education	Till Class 10th	87/1255	6.93 %	63%
	Post 10+2	868/1255	69.16 %	
	After Graduation	250/1255	19.92 %	
	Study for Jobs	50/1255	3.98 %	
Business		59		2.97%
Jobs		411		20.74%
Others		256		12.92%

Table 2 - Skewedness

Variables	Skewedness
1. Housing	Positive
2. Land Rates	Positive
3. Temporary Accommodation	Positive
4. Coaching Centers	Positive
5. Schools	Positive
6. Related Business	Positive

Table 3 - Move Back to Native – 754 Surveyed

	Variable	Frequency	%
1.	Move back to native after finishing education	754	100%
2.	Use learnt skills to start initiatives back in native	681	90.31%

Table 4 - Stayed in Urban Areas - 1227

	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Stay in Urban area for further education	501	40.83%
2.	Take a Job in Urban area	458	37.32%

3.	Move to live in urban area	369	30.07%
4.	Shift permanently in urban area	299	24.36%

V.DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

In the past 30 years, Srinagar has been developed as a hub of education in the field of private coaching centers for competitive education. The trend of migration of students has continued since long time since the creation of University of Kashmir way back in 1948. Students from far flung areas of Kashmir used to come to Srinagar for the purposes of enrolling in Kashmir University. In the last 2 decades, a new trend started in Kashmir wherein students started coaching for all India level exams. This trend capitulated into a number of students opting for the same. Universities all over India increased their threshold for admissions wherein the admission process became cumbersome and through a rigorous and comprehensive examination pattern. This led to the privatization of competitive examination, to an extent that every year hundreds of thousands of students every year enroll in these coaching centers. This led to a more sociological pattern of students migrating to urban locations wherein the educational centers are located. This led to increased urbanization. It was found out the students who had migrated for education tried to find jobs in the urban areas itself. Therefore, the education migration resulted in a demographic change which could have been avoided provided that sufficient educational infrastructure was created in the rural hubs itself. It was found out that maximum number of students who migrated never returned back. This resulted in permanent brain drain as well the loss of financial resources and manpower. The migration of students also led to a rise in land prices in Outskirts of Srinagar. It was found out these new colonies developed in the vicinities of educational hubs. This was in continuation of the general urbanization. It was one of the factors that played out.

Recommendations

1. Alternate educational hubs can be developed in towns of districts wherein the students can manage to study locally without having to migrate.
2. Alternate townships can be created in places where the rate of brain drain is high.
3. Local talent in teaching can be developed in local areas which can be beneficial because the language barrier and other barriers can be broken by local teachers.
4. Investments in teaching infrastructure can lead to the overall development of related infrastructure in townships.
5. Subsidized special education zones can be created to attract investment and provide facilities for both teachers and students.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Kyung, W. (1996), "In-Migration of College Students to the State of New York", the Journal of Higher Education, 67 (3): 349-358.
2. Bessey, D. (2006), "International Student Migration to Germany", University of Zurich, Institute for Strategy and Business Economics, Economics of Education Working Paper Series, n. 6.
3. Agasisti, T. and A. Dal Bianco. (2007), "Determinants of College Student Migration in Italy: Empirical Evidence from a Gravity Approach", Working Paper series.
4. Heaton, C. and D. Throsby. (1998), "Benefit-Cost Analysis of Foreign Student Flows from Developing Countries: The Case of Postgraduate Education". Economics of Education Review, 17(2): 117-126.
5. Mak, J. and J.E.T. Moncur (2001), "Interstate Migration of College Freshmen: An Economic Analysis". University of Hawaii at Manoa, Working Paper, 11-5.
6. Papatsiba, V. (2005), "Political and Individual Rationales of Student Mobility: a Case Study of Erasmus and a French Regional Scheme for Studies Abroad", European Journal of Education, 40 (2): 173-188.
7. Mectenbergh, L and R. Strausz (2008), "The Bologna Process: How Student Mobility Affects Multi-Cultural Skills and Educational Quality", International Tax and Public Finance, 15(2): 109-130.
8. Lowell, B. L., Findlay, A., & Stewart, E. (2004). Brain strain: Optimizing highly skilled migration from developing countries. London: Institute for Public Policy Research.
9. Kapur, D., & McHale, J. (2005). Give us your best and brightest. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development.
10. Gillan, M., B. Damachis and J. McGuire 2000 "Australia in India: A Case Study of the Commodification and Internationalisation of Higher Education." Paper presented at the Asian Studies Association of Australia Biennial Conference, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, 3-5 July.
11. Loudon, David 1996 "Earnings Rise from Education Exports," Business Review Weekly, June 17:74-76
12. Australian High Commission New Delhi 2004 "Australia –A Popular Destination for Indian Students," http://www.ausgovindia.com/education/pop_dest.htm, accessed 21 October 2004.
13. Kumar. Sarkar, S., & Sharma, R. (2009). Migration and diaspora formation: mobility of Indian students to developed countries. IMDS Working Paper Series, 8(May 2009), 29–45.
14. Agarwal, P. (2009), Indian Higher Education: Envisioning the Future. New Delhi, India: Sage.
15. Cant, A. G. (2004). Internationalizing the business curriculum: developing intercultural competence. Journal of American Academy of Business, 5(1/2), 177–182.
16. Cubilo, J. M., Sanchez, J., & Cervino, J. (2006). International students' decision-making process. International Journal of Educational Management, 20(2), 101–115.
17. Rosenzweig, M. (2006). Higher education and international migration in Asia: Brain circulation. Paper presented at the Regional Bank Conference on Development Economics: Higher Education and Development, Beijing, January 2007.
18. Hein, M., & Plesch, J. (2008). How can scholarship institutions foster the return of foreign students? Diskussionspapier der Forschergruppe (Nr. 3468269275) "Heterogene Arbeit: Positive und Normative Aspekte der Qualifikationsstruktur der Arbeit", 8(2).