1.1 Introduction

Cross culture education or migration for studying proposes is not a new phenomenon in the history of mankind. In ancient India students used to leave their residences and go to the teacher’s houses far away in search of knowledge. The Gurukula (an ancient Indian educational institution) system, which necessitated the stay of the students away from his home and stay at the home of the teacher or in boarding house of established reputation, was one of the important features of the ancient Indian education. A Chinese historical text mentions that in the year 639 A.D. the Emperor Taitusung established an institute of higher education to which students from the barbarian people came until the number of such foreign students was more than 8000 (Eide 1970). In ancient Greece also as early as the 4th century B.C there were groups of foreign students at the school of philosophy and rhetoric.

In the modern times, due to globalization, technology and advancement and improvement of communication system, people of different cultures can easily communicate and share their knowledge and experience with one another. Therefore, cross-border flow of students for higher studies has been boosted. As a result, major emphasis is on opening up markets for foreign students in several countries. USA is the largest recipient and host country for foreign students. The major flow of students is from developing and newly industrialized countries of Asia; China and India send the maximum number of students abroad for higher studies. It is also observed that China, Taiwan and India are the largest recipients of US science and engineering doctorate degrees. In fact oversea education has had, and will continue to have, serious consequences on the economy, society, education and culture of countries both origin and destination. By understanding people’s reason for making decision to study abroad, better predictions can be made about current and future student mobility, countries of both origin and destination can more effectively plan and adjust for the resulting consequences.
Students go across borders are an important part of internationalization (Reeve, 2001, Wiers-Jenssen, 2003). In the past decade, more than 1.5 million students have studied outside their home countries (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1997). In 2000, there were more than 1.5 million international students in higher educational institutions around the world (Hyam, 2001, Bohm, et. al. 2002). It is not a one-way traffic of Indian students going abroad to pursue studies as the country witnesses an increase in the flow of foreign students as well. A study by Association of Indian Universities (AIU), a body having about 275 universities in India as its members, showed that flow of foreign students to India has been increasing since 1996-97. There were 5,841 international students in India in 1996-97. However, in 2003-04, the number reached to 7,753. The highest number of students was from Malaysia (806), followed by 689 students from Nepal in 2003-04. As many as 4,809 students were from Asian countries, while there were 468 students from North America, including 354 from the US and 99 from Canada.

Realising the significance of education, almost every country of the world has engaged in reaching education to all segments of its population. National and international governments and non-governmental agencies are committed to expand education through establishing educational institutions and reaching their benefits to every nook and corner of the society. While benefits like providing freeships, scholarships, educational loans, reservations are meant for providing access to education to disadvantaged sections, provisions like encouraging overseas studies and exposing to intellectual climate outside the country are aimed at achieving the new horizons of knowledge.

In particular, encouraging overseas studies particularly at the higher levels of education is receiving impetus, sometimes intensifying the problem of brain drain. Whatever may be the costs of such overseas education, it is true that it facilitates for sharpening the knowledge, increasing the awareness of new developments in concepts, theories, methods and models of almost every discipline, improving international relations and initiating cultural exchanges. Therefore, the overseas education has become not only desirable, but also sometime, inevitable to cope with the developed countries of the world. That is why almost all countries are encouraging
governmental efforts as well as voluntary efforts to send creamy layer of their educated youths to receive education in other countries; Iran is no exception to this.

In spite of the overseas education, educated unemployment, brain drain, craze for employment in developed countries, constant demand for higher incomes and quicker jumps in career are increasing even among the persons educated abroad. There are several factors which necessitate or compel for overseas education and which contribute to successful completion of this education. A proper understanding of all these factors is necessary for making the overseas education more rewardful than wasteful. The present study, therefore, aimed at properly understanding the role of all such factors in the larger context of overseas education in general by taking a specific case study of Iranians’ higher education in five Indian cities, namely Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad.

1.2 Operational Definitions

Definitions of the terms used in this thesis are provided in order to clarify their meaning. The operational definitions for the terms used in this study are as follows:

There are three concepts dealt in detail which are higher education, overseas education and sociological factors.

1.2.1 Higher Education refers to education received in colleges, universities, research institutes and centers of advanced studies leading to graduation, post-graduation, doctoral and post-doctoral courses. Thus education upto matriculation and pre-university levels fall outside the scope of higher education.

1.2.2 Overseas Education refers to going to another country crossing the boundaries of the mother land and ocean or sea on the way. Since such visits to foreign countries are time-bound (until the completion of the course of higher education) and the concerned students know in the beginning itself that they have to return to their homelands after completing the course, such visits cannot be called emigration or immigration. However, it should be remembered that “push and pull factors” accounting for any migration, operate on such educational tours also.
1.2.3 **Sociological Factors** are not just social factors relating to the social aspect of man’s life. Since sociology can be distinguished from any other discipline on the ground of its holistic approach (studying any phenomenon as it exists amidst various factors), the sociological factors mean all the factors, which directly or indirectly influence the phenomenon in question (overseas education in the present context.) Thus sociological factors include not only push and pull factors, but also several other factors like demographic profiles, family background, social and community networks, achievement motivation, cultural similarities, political liberalism, quality of education, cost of education, future prospects, so on and so forth.

1.3 **Gaps in knowledge**

While the subject of overseas education has attracted the attention of scholars all over the world, the specific area of Iranians studying in India is not much researched into. The available studies are either not sociological taking note of the whole range of factors influencing it, or not empirical or field based. The findings of the studies mentioned in the second chapter may be summarized in the following words to provide a base for identifying the research gaps, which are the starting point of the present research:

1. The main factors that push younger generation from their countries for higher studies include political persecution and uncertainty, social tensions, lack of sufficient individual and social freedom, inadequacy of jobs and other opportunities of life, lack of job security etc.

2. The brain drain process, in which educated and bright youths leave their home land, is facilitated by certain “pull factors” like career prospects, better living standards, joyful education, security, family links, admissions based on performance in the entrance examination, social and political freedom, professional considerations, quality education at lower costs, familiar or adjustable language and culture and so on in the receiving countries.

3. There are certain other factors, which are neither pushing nor pulling in nature, but are basic or preliminary in overseas studies. They include, intellectuality of the student, economically favourable family background and institution of
reservation quotas (irrespective of whether politically oriented or social justice oriented), helping the beneficiary groups and so on. Similarly success in the scientific Olympiads held in Iran also fetched admission to reputed foreign universities.

From the foregoing summary, the following research gaps become clear:

1. Though the overseas studies are influenced by several factors like push factors, pull factors, and basic or initial advantages, none of the studies seems to have attempted to study all of them. In the sense, holistic approach to the subject of overseas education is lacking in the available literature.

2. Use of intensive field work methods at the grassroots level, to understand the real life situations, problems and survival strategies of students studying in other than their own countries, is also not found.

3. Certain other factors like achievement motivation, religious teachings encouraging the overseas studies, social nexus, nature of relationship between the sending country and the receiving country, widening horizons of the students, changing expectations of parents and teachers, globalization and such other processes of social change and experiences (success or failure stories) of earlier students also have a bearing on the overseas studies. But those are not covered by the available studies.

4. Few of the available studies were conducted by professionally trained sociologists using the concepts, theories, methods and approaches of sociology.

The present study, therefore, is intended to bridge these gaps in knowledge to the extent possible within its limits.

1.4 Research Issues

The broad questions like which particular factors promote or hinder the overseas studies and what is the relative importance of each of these factors are
reformulated thus to meet the requirements of an empirical and descriptive study conducted by a single researcher:

1. Are there initial advantages or basic factors that provide them the access to Indian education?
2. What are the factors that push them from Iran and pull to India?
3. Are there factors, other than the push and the pull factors, which promote or hinder the Iranians’ education in India? If “yes,” which are they?
4. How do Iranians live and study in India? Which problems they encounter in India and how do they manage with them?

The present study has tried to find answer to these questions by interviewing the Iranian students studying in Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities and by adopting holistic (sociological) approach to all the factors that influence their education in India. It is, therefore, that the statement of the research problem is “the role of sociological factors in Iranians’ higher education in Indian cities.”

1.5 Importance of the Study

The present study assumes significance from the points of view of both academic importance and practical utility to the sending (Iran) and the receiving (India) countries. With the advancement of science and technology and of international relations, new and newer processes of social change have been operating. The world is becoming small and practically every country is losing its self sufficiency. Growing individualization and widening horizons of the people have accelerated the physical movements not only at the level of districts, regions and states, but also at the levels of national and international. With the result, dramatic developments in terms of problems and changes are occurring in almost every area of life, necessitating for having scientific and complete understanding. The multi-dimensional overseas education, for instance, is becoming unplanned, highly expensive and less rewarding, attracting the attention of development planners, educationists and researchers. Thus the present study is of relevance to sociology of education, sociology of economic development and social change studies.
According to an estimate of the International Monetary Fund more than 1,50,000 youths of the creamy layer of the educated leave Iran every year, costing $40 billion a year. This cost is said to be four times more than the revenue earned from selling oil. Thus expectations of Iran from the overseas education must be more, necessitating for planning the flow of students from Iran to other countries. The present study is intended to provide insights for such planning to the Iranian government.

1.6 Objectives of the Study
Since the present study has aimed at finding empirical and descriptive answers to the research issues stated already, it has got the following objectives:

1. To understand the history of sending Iranians to study abroad.
2. To understand socio-economic background of the Iranian students studying in India (Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities).
3. To analyze the “push factors” operating in the sending country and “pull factors” operating in the receiving country and assess their relative role in the overseas education.
4. To examine the problems of the Iranians students relating to their stay and study in India and also their survival strategies.
5. To make policy suggestions

1.7 Hypotheses of the Study
Following hypotheses are formulated and tested in the present research work:

1. Students coming from higher socio-economic backgrounds are more inclined to study in foreign countries than those having lower socio-economic conditions.
2. Meritorious students have better chances of being encouraged to and selected for overseas education.
3. Iranian students come to India because of their Iranian friends or relatives in India
4. Students educated in India tend to work outside Iran.
1.8 Variables

As explained above, Iranians’ higher education in India is the cumulative effect of a host of factors like personality traits, socio-economic factors, political considerations, religious base, psychological factors, educational set up, familiar language and culture etc. Since Iranians’ higher education in India means physical movement of Iranian students to India for a time-bound purpose, a manifestation of an international migration, all the influencing factors can be understood in the terminology of migration. It is, therefore, that all the influencing factors were grouped under the categories like basic factors, pull factors, push factors, and other factors.

Among these categories of factors, age, course of the study, gender, marital status, and religion are independent variables. Dependent variables are the push factors, pull factors and other factors. For the sake of analytical clarity, these dependent factors may be elaborated thus:

1. Push factors – operating in the home country (Iran) include limited admission quota in government universities, having university entrance examination, policy of reservation of seats for admission, difference in the period of higher education etc.

2. Pull factors operating in the receiving country (India) include medium of instruction, liberty to choose interested subject, pursue the studies up to the post-doctoral level without passing in interview or entrance examination, availability of reputed professors in the educational institutions, easy to get a scholarship from western countries, the safety of foreigners, especially for women as compared to that of western countries etc.

3. Other factors include problems of the students, motivation, students’ perception of the Indian educational system etc.

1.9 Research Design

Since it is intended to conduct the present research in Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities in India, it is essential to justify the selection of India, and these cities. India is selected because it is becoming a global destination of education. India is today recognized as a world centre for education. Indian
entrepreneurs are making waves throughout the world. Their ideas, technical knowledge and entrepreneurship have yielded unprecedented growth in income, employment and wealth. The credit goes to the sound and practical educational foundation they have received in India. It is, therefore, that a large number of students keep coming to India from countries like Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Ethiopia, Fiji, Iran, Iraq, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Ghana, Lebanon, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mauritius, Myanmar, Nepal, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Syria and even the US. The quality of education, English as the generally accepted mode of teaching and affordable living standards are attracting thousands of foreign students.

India had historical and cultural relationship with Iran since long back, Iranian students studying in India as per Science and Education section of Embassy of Iran in India are about 5000.

Table 1.1: Number of Iranian students studying in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name of the city</th>
<th>No. of Iranian Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Pune</td>
<td>2809</td>
<td>56.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Bangalore</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Hyderabad</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Chandigarh</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Aligarh</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Coimbatore</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Mumbai</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Mangalore</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Chennai</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5017</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Embassy of I.R. of Iran in India (2006)

Table 1 shows that in India, Maharashtra State (consisting of Pune and Mumbai cities) alone constitute about fifty seven per cent of the Iranian students studying in India. The next important state is Karnataka (with Bangalore, Mysore and Mangalore cities), which accounts for 31.04 per cent of the students, and Delhi city accounts for 3.6 per cent and Hyderabad accounts for 3 per cent of the Iranian
students. Other cities are having the negligible number of Iranian students. Hence these five major cities each with more than 100 Iranian students are selected.

Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities are selected partly because these are highly cosmopolitan and moderately significant in terms of the concentration of Iranian students; hence are selected.

1.9.1 Selection of Sample Respondents

In order to collect data for this study, a sample of only 10 per cent of the students pursuing higher education (Table 2) was selected, using proportionately stratified simple random sample technique. The respondents for this study consist of Iranian students, who have come to India under student visa or research visa and who study in India for more than 6 months. The study was confined to five major cities in India: Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities, which consists of 4685 Iranian students. A sample of 468 students (10 per cent) were selected for in-depth interviews. These 468 students were selected proportionately to the levels and courses of education they have joined. Besides, 6 case studies were conducted by drawing one student from each level and course of education he or she has joined.

The total sample of 468 respondents consists of both males and females who are studying at different levels of education thus: Bachelor degree (310), Master degree (106), and Ph. D. degree (52).

Table: 1.2 Iranian Students by Educational Levels in the Selected Cities of India (2006-2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl no</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Master’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pune</td>
<td>1720</td>
<td>761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bangalore</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hyderabad</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>3099</td>
<td>1063</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.9.2 Methodology: Data Collection

The present research is based on two types of data, namely secondary and primary data. The secondary data are collected from published materials, documents,
mimeographs, dissertations, books, journals and internet. The primary data are collected by doing field work at three levels, viz., census, sample and cases selected for the case studies). At the census level, a list of number of Iranian students in each city was obtained. This was done by going through the records of the office of international students and scholars, Islamic association of Iranian students, science and education of Embassy of Islamic Republic of Iran and foreign section of police commissioner, where Iranian students registered their name there. The sample of 468 students was interviewed by a detailed interview schedule. In addition, case study method was used by selecting six cases giving representation to each city. These case studies are aimed at understanding the real life situations and living conditions of the Iranian students in the Indian cities.

1.9.3 Data analysis
Following statistical methods were applied for the data collected in the present study.
1. Frequency and percentages
2. Contingency coefficient analysis
3. Independent samples ‘t’ test
4. Analysis of variance –one way ANOVA

1.10 Theoretical Frame Work:
The theoretical literature on migration and international students’ mobility are substantial. There are scholars who have expressed their views concerning, theories and models related to size, direction, motivation and mechanism of migration and international students’ mobility. Space does not permit a comprehensive review of all theories concerning migration and international student’s mobility. However the present study is based on push and pull theory but a brief summary of the more important contributions to international migration is appropriate.

1.10.1 Push and Pull Theory: View of various Authors
Push-Pull model have been used most often to explain international students dispositions and expectations towards studying abroad and migration. The foregoing description of the view of the various authors of the phenomenon of migration and
international students mobility indicated how complicated the factors in migration and students mobility are.

The push and pull theory articulates factors that contribute to “pushing” students out of the source countries such as capacity limitations in home countries and “pulling” students into study destinations through marketing and other activities.

1.10.2 Mazzarol et al Theory

According to Mazzarol et al (2001), the combination of the “push and pull” factors is largely responsible for the world wide pattern of international students’ flows. The key push factors are identified as (a) the level of economic development in the source country, (b) the capacity of the source country’s domestic education system to meet demand, (c) the per capita income and (d) the size of the employment market for professionally educated graduates.

The pull factors included (a) knowledge and awareness of the study destination, (b) recommendations by relatives and friends, (c) cost issues, (d) environment, geographical proximity of home country to the destination country and (e) the presence of family and friends in the study destination. (Mazzarol et. al. 2001, Lawley, 1997, 1993). Several other researchers includes Molla and Sedlacek (1989), Steadman and Dagwell (1990), Purdy (1992), Andressen (1993), Smart and Ang (1993), Harris and Rhall (1993), Nesdale et al (1995), and Duan (1997), have identified similar factors in the past.

1.10.3 Altbach Theory

Altbach (1998) presented what he called the push-pull model for international student mobility. He pointed out that some students were pushed by unfavourable conditions in their home countries, while others were pulled by scholarships and other opportunities in host countries.

1.10.4 Davis Theory

Davis (1995) stated that pull factors of the host countries have included advance research facilities, congenial socio-economic and political environments and the prospect of multinational class-mate. The push factors create a generalized interest
in oversea education but do not give specific direction to individuals, while the pull factors are specific to potential host countries and institutions

**1.10.5 Donald J. Bogue Theory**

The push and pull hypothesis is made use of for listing important factors affecting a given migratory movement (Bogue: 1959, Mortar 1967). Attributes of place of origin and destination have been recognized by Bogue. He believes that there are positive and negative views of migration provoking situations. Sometimes people are attracted by job opportunities at a destination to improve their socio-economic conditions and in such a case the destination exerts a pull on migrants. But sometimes people are forced to move out from the place of origin due to undesirable social and economic conditions and such factors are considered as push factors. This is certain that migration takes place only when the positive pull factors at the place of destination are out-numbered by negative push factor at the place of origin. Myrdal is of the opinion that only push factors are potent reasons for migration, while Sovani, Bose, Trewartha assert that migration occurs due to complex interaction of push and pull factors.

**1.10.6 G.S. Aurora Theory**

He believed that in all types of migration these two factors “push” and “pull” are present. He refers to these pull factors as the attainment of a higher standard of living, the possibility of receiving better treatment, better educational facilities, prestige in the home society as a person with wider experience. He gives the following reasons for the push factors: high population pressure on land, break-up of the joint family, and unsettled political conditions which may bring about economic and even physical insecurity of the people.

**1.10.7 Everett S. Lee Theory**

Lee’s model focused on the decision-making process of the potential migrants. The factors that are important are those that enter directly into this process. Lee classified these factors as:

1. Factors associated with the area of origin
2. Factors associated with the area of destination
3. Intervening factors
4. Personal factors
The factors at the place of origin and destination can be either positive or negative in that they either attract a person to the place or repel him from it. Lee points out that some of these factors affect most people in much the same way, while others affect different people in different ways. Nevertheless, we may distinguish classes of people who react in similar fashion to the same general sets of factors at origin and destination. The intervening obstacles can be physical or legal barriers to migration or simply the cost and burden of moving. The effect of a given set of obstacles varies with the number of dependants and with the possessions of the potential migrants. By introducing the forth set of factors, Lee allows for individual differences in the perception and assessment of the others.

1.10.8 Duan Theory
Duan (1997) described two approaches relating to the choice of study destinations by prospective students. One approach has been to look at the macro-environment variables such as the country’s higher education system, historical links, level of economic development, foreign aid and economic policies. Duan (1997) describes these as the factors at a country level that influence the outflow of students from source countries. Another approach is to identify reasons of choice at an individual level by examining perception of students, agents and other stakeholders, which are categorized as individual level factors.

1.10.9 Neoclassical Economics: Macro Theory
The oldest and best-known theory of international migration was developed originally to explain labour migration in the process of economic development (Lewis, 1954; Ranis and Fei, 1961; Harris and Todaro, 1970; Todaro, 1976). According to this theory and its extensions, international migration, like its internal counterpart, is caused by geographic differences in the supply of and demand for labour. Countries with a large endowment of labour relative to capital have a low equilibrium market wage, while countries with a limited endowment of labour relative to capital are characterized by a high market wage, as depicted graphically by the familiar interaction of labour supply and demand curves. The resulting differential in wage causes workers from the low-wage country to move to the high-wage country. As a result of this movement, the supply of labour decreases and wages rise in the capital-poor country, leading, at
equilibrium, to an intentional wage differential that reflects only the costs of international movement, pecuniary and psychic.

**1.10.10 Neoclassical Economics: Micro Theory**

Corresponding to the macroeconomic model is a microeconomic model of individual choice (Sjaastad, 1962; Todaro, 1969, 1976, 1989; Maruszko, 1987. In this scheme, individual rational actors decide to migrate because a cost-benefit calculation leads them to expect a positive net return, usually monetary, from movement. International migration is conceptualized as a form of investment in human capital. People chose to move to where they can be most productive, given their skills; but before they can capture the higher wages associated with greater labour productivity they must undertake certain investments, which include the material costs of traveling, the cost of maintenance while moving and looking for work, the effort involved in learning a new language and culture, the difficulty experienced in adapting to a new labour market, and the psychological costs of cutting old ties and forging new ones.

**1.10.11 The New Economics of Migration**

In recent years, a “new economics of migration” has arisen to challenge many of the assumptions and conclusion of neoclassical theory (Stark and Bloom, 1985). A key insight of this new approach is that migration decisions are not made by isolated individual actors, but by large units of related people-typically families or households-in which people act collectively not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the labour market (Stark and Levhari, 1982; Stark, 1984; Katz and Stark, 1982; Lauby and Strak, 1988; Taylor, 1986; Stark, 1991)

**1.10.12 Dual Labour Market Theory**

Although neoclassical human capital theory and the new economics of migration lead to divergent conclusions about the origins and nature of international migration, both are essentially micro-level decision models. What differ are the units assumed to make the decision (the individual or the household), the entity being maximized or minimized (income or risk), assumptions about the economic context of decision-making (complete and well-functioning markets versus missing or imperfect
markets), and the extent to which the migration decision is socially contextualized (whether income is evaluated in absolute terms or relatives to some reference group). Standing distinctly apart from these models of rational choice, however, is dual labour market theory, which sets its sights away from decisions made by individual and argues that international migration stems from the intrinsic labour demands of modern industrial societies.

Piore (1979) has been the most forceful and elegant proponent of this theoretical viewpoint, arguing that international migration is caused by a permanent demand for immigrant labour that is inherent to the economic structure of developed nations. According to Piore, immigration is not caused by push factors in sending countries (low wages or high unemployment) but by pull factors in receiving countries (a chronic and unavoidable need for foreign workers). This built-in demand for immigrant labour stems from four fundamental characteristics of advanced industrial societies and their economies.

1.10.13 World Systems Theory

Building on the work of Wallerstein (1974), a variety of sociological theorists has linked the origins of international migration not to the bifurcation of the labour market within particular national economies, but to the structure of the world market that has developed and expanded since the sixteenth century (Portes and Walton, 1981; Petras, 1981; Castells, 1989; Sassen, 1988, 1991; Morawska, 1990). In this scheme, the penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral, non-capitalist societies create a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad. According to world systems theory, migration is a natural outgrowth of disruption and dislocation that inevitably occur in the process of capitalist development as capitalism has expanded outward from its core in Western Europe, North America, Oceania, and Japan, ever-larger portions of the globe and growing shares of the human population have been incorporated into the world market economy. World systems theory thus argues that international migration follows the political and economic organization of an expanding global market.
1.10.14 Network Theory

Migrants’ networks are sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and nonimmigrant in origin and destination area through ties of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin. They increase the likelihood of international movement because they lower the costs and risks of movement and increase the expected net returns to migration. Network connections constitute a form of social capital that people can draw upon to gain access to foreign employment. Once the number of migrants reaches a critical threshold, the expansion of networks reduce the costs and risks of movement, which causes the probability of migration to rise, which causes additional movement, which future expands the networks. And so on. Over time migratory behavior spreads outward to encompass broader segments of the sending society (Huge, 1981; Taylor, 1986, Massey and Garcia Espana, 1987; Massey,1990a; Gurak and Caces,1992).

1.10.15 Institutional Theory

Once international migration has begun, private institutions and voluntary organizations arise to satisfy the demand created by an imbalance between the large number of people who seek entry into capital-rich countries and the limited number of immigrant visas these countries typically offer. This imbalance, and the barriers that core countries erect to keep people out, create a lucrative economic niche for entrepreneurs and institutions dedicated to promoting international movement for profit, yielding a black market in migration. As this underground market creates conditions conducive to exploitation and victimization, voluntary humanitarian organizations also arise in developed countries to enforce the rights and improve the treatment of legal and undocumented migration.

1.10.16 Cumulative Causation

In addition to the growth of networks and the development of migrant supporting institutions, international migration sustains itself in other ways that make additional movement progressively more likely over time, a process Myrdal (1957) called cumulative causation (Massey,1990). Causation is cumulative in that each act of migration alters the social context within which subsequent migration decision are made, typically in ways that make additional movement more likely. So far, social scientists have discussed six socioeconomic factors that are potentially affected by
migration in this cumulative fashion: the distribution of income, the distribution of land, the organization of agriculture, culture, the regional distribution of human capital, and the social meaning of work. Feedbacks through other variables are also possible, but have not been systematically treated (Stark, Taylor, and Yitzhaki, 1986; Taylor, 1992).

1.10.17 Migration Systems Theory

The various propositions of world systems theory, network theory, institutional theory, and the theory of cumulative causation all suggest that migrational flows acquire a measure of stability and structure over space and time, allowing for the identification of stable international migration systems. These systems are characterized by relatively intense exchanges between others. An international migration system generally includes a core receiving region, which may be a country or group of countries, and a set of specific sending countries linked to it by unusually large flows of immigrants (Fawcett, 1989; Zlotnik, 1992).

1.10.18 Social Psychological Theory

Social psychologists have addressed themselves to questions of motivation and decision to move. In the last resort, migration is an individual choice although such conditions may be made in consultation with family members or others in a close-knit community or religious group. Most micro-level studies of migration decision making have been conducted among those whose main motivation has been economic or family related. An assumption of “rational choice”, following a considered evaluation of options available, is implicit in most theories of motivation. A distinction is generally made between “push” and “pull” factors, which must be taken into account and weighted in the balance. Human needs and aspirations are generally represented in terms of economic benefits, social mobility or family reunion.

The researchers link macro level influences to the migration decision-making process of individuals using a variety of conceptual and analytical model (De Jong and Gardner, 1981; Fawcett, 1985). A major premise of the value expectancy model is that some motivation for migration have counterparts in environmental and structural factors. The model emphasizes the processes through which such macro stimuli
convert into individual decision-making processes. Background and personal aspects are linked conceptually and analytically to migration intention/behaviours by their impact on the individual/family expectancy that migration will be followed by a given consequence and by the value of that consequence. Such perceptions in turn affect migration intentions and actual migratory behavior. Social contacts represent networks of information and social and economic assistance between areas, and they are important influences in international migration decision-making processes (De Jong, Root and Abad,1986; Fuller et al.,1985, De Jong, et al,1985).

Though several theories have discussed in the preceding pages, the researcher found it difficult to pinpoint a single theory which can explain the dynamics of the present topic. As the topic selected for the research is multi-dimensional, it will be useful to take the essence of several relevant theories to explain the process. Hence no attempt is made to prove or disprove any theory discussed above.

1.11 The Interview Schedule

The composition of the interview schedule is as follows:

Section I deals with collection of information on demographic variables like age, gender, marital status etc.

Section II covers information on educational information of the participants, which included course of study, educational status of the parents, highest degree completed in Iran, type of school/university attended in Iran, marks obtained, publication of articles, taking entrance examination and so on.

Section III deals with Information on Employment/Income of the respondents as well as their parents. It included occupational status of the parents, occupation of the students, details regarding income, money spent on course, source of finance and so on.

Section IV deals with various statements on push factors of Iranian students to study in India, where they had to answer one of the options for each statement like –very important, important, somewhat important, not important and not at all important.
Section V contains various statements on pull factors of Iranian students to study in India, where they had to answer one of the options for each statement like –very important, important, somewhat important, not important and not at all important.

Section VI includes motivation aspect of the respondent as person who influenced him/her more, family support, company when moved to India, learning about higher education.

Section VII covers information on accommodation and place of stay.

Section VIII deals with interactive relations where the aspects covered are perception about local people, relations with Indian families, reaction towards Indian festivals, preference to Indian languages in TV/radio, Islamic Association of Iranian students and so on.

Section IX covers a students’ problem such as illness, financial, loneliness and so on.

Section X deals with several statements on academic life, progress, comparison of Indian degrees to Iranian degrees and so on.

Section XI deals with the plan after completing studies or research.

1.12 Scope and Limitations of the study

The scope of the present study is vast in so far it has adopted the holistic approach to the research problem. It takes note of the whole range of factors that have a direct or an indirect bearing on the Iranians’ education in India. Besides, the research focuses on different courses and levels of higher education with the help of the proportionately stratified simple random sample. However, within the time and the resource constraints of a single researcher the study has got limitations as mentioned below:

1. Intensive field work and in-depth interviews are limited to only the sample students and the selected case studies.
2. Information regarding the family background and parental attitude towards the immigrant student, which needs to be collected from the head of the family, is collected from the students only, due to the practical difficulty of approaching their parents, who are in different parts of Iran.

3. The scope of the research was limited to the Iranian students in India. So conclusions based on these students may not be applicable to Iranian students in other countries. It can be applicable elsewhere with certain precautions. Students from other foreign countries might have different problems and opinions.

4. As the researcher himself is a student, he was unable to enlarge the size of the sample to students from various parts of India. For financial reasons, that is why this research is limited to Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Delhi, and Hyderabad cities.

5. As there were not many reference studies available for the present work, the researcher hopefully expects that the present study may at least give a base for the formulation of hypotheses for future research.

6. Findings of the study are based on the information given by the Iranian students in India. There is every possibility that the respondents might have hidden some facts which cannot be ruled out. But the researcher on his part made every possible effort to elicit authentic information.

7. Some of Iranian students have migrated to India due to unstable political situation in Iran. Among the Iranian students, it is found that different groups are having different socio-political opinions. Because of this fact, it became difficult for the researcher to collect information from students belonging to different groups.
Form of research output and its chapters:

The findings of the present research work are presented in seven chapters:

The first chapter has introduced the research topic, the background, hypotheses and research issues, objectives, research design and methodology, scope, limitation and significance of the study.

Chapter two reviews the existing literature on subject areas of the study. This review forms the foundation for development of the theoretical framework, the hypotheses and research gap for the study.

In the third chapter the profile of Iran, history of Iranian higher educational system and trend of Iranian students to study abroad have been analysed.

Chapter four presents a profile of the students selected for the study. It also throws some light on socio economic backgrounds of their family. The chapter also gives a brief introduction to the cities from where sample of students are selected.

The push and pull factors favouring the student to move from Iran to India have been dealt in the Chapter five while chapter six deals with to examine the problems of the Iranians students relating to their stay and study in India and also their survival strategies.

Chapter seven provides concluding remarks-summary of the findings and policy suggestions.