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## INTERGENERATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MOBILITY OF INTERNAL MIGRANTS: THE INFLUENCE OF GENDER AND FAMILY STRUCTURE

This research investigates the intergenerational educational advancement of internal migrants residing in Almaty, focusing on family structure and gender factors. By employing quantitative methodologies, including regression analysis, the study assesses the academic progress of migrants who have relocated to urban centers, particularly Almaty. The results indicate a substantial upward trend in educational mobility, particularly for children from intact families. Gender dynamics are found to play a crucial role, with fathers having a significant impact on their sons' educational outcomes and mothers influencing their daughters'. The regression analysis further highlights the differential effects of parental education levels on their children's educational attainment, emphasizing the vital role of parental involvement. The findings underscore the importance of educational policies that address both gender and family structures to improve educational mobility. Such policies are essential for the sustainable development of human capital, ensuring that both boys and girls from diverse family backgrounds can achieve their educational potential. This study contributes to a broader understanding of how family and gender affect educational success among internal migrants, providing valuable insights for social programs aiming to create equitable educational opportunities.

**Key words:** intergenerational mobility, internal migration, education, gender, family structure.

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### Ішкі мигранттардың ұрпақаралық білім мобильділігі: жыныс пен отбасы құрылымының әсері

Бұл зерттеу Алматы қаласында тұратын ішкі мигранттардың ұрпақаралық білім мобильділігіне отбасы құрылымы (толық және моно ата-аналық отбасылар) мен гендерлік факторлар тұрғысынан баса назар аударып отырып, талдау жасайды. Сандық әдістерді, соның ішінде регрессиялық талдауды қолдана отырып, зерттеу қалалық орталықтарға, әсіресе Алматыға қоныс аударған мигранттардың оқудағы жетістіктерін бағалайды. Зерттеу нәтижелері, толық отбасылардағы балалар арасында байқалатын білім мобильдігіндегі едәуір жоғарылау үрдісін көрсетеді. Сонымен қатар, гендерлік көріністің маңызды рөлі анықталды: ұлдарының оқу нәтижелеріне әкелері, ал қыздарының оқу жетістіктеріне аналары айтарлықтай әсер етеді. Регрессиялық талдау ата-аналардың білім деңгейінің балаларының оқу жетістіктеріне дифференциалды әсерін анықтайды, ата-аналардың қатысуының маңыздылығын көрсетеді. Зерттеу нәтижелері білім беру ұтқырлығын арттыру үшін гендерлік және отбасылық бағдарламаларды ескеретін білім беру саясатының қажеттілігін атап көрсетеді. Мұндай шаралар әртүрлі отбасынан шыққан ұлдар мен қыздарға тең мүмкіндіктерді қамтамасыз ететін адами капиталдың тұрақты дамуы үшін маңызды болып табылады. Зерттеу тең құқықты білім беру мүмкіндіктерін құруға ұмтылатын әлеуметтік бағдарламаларға құнды ұсыныстар бере отырып, ішкі мигранттардың білім алудағы табысына отбасы мен жыныстың әсерін түсінуге елеулі үлес қосады.

**Түйін сөздер:** ұрпақаралық мобильділік, ішкі көші-қон, білім беру, гендер, отбасы құрылымы.

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### Межпоколенная образовательная мобильность внутренних мигрантов: влияние пола и структуры семьи

Данное исследование анализирует межпоколенную образовательную мобильность внутренних мигрантов, проживающих в Алматы, с акцентом на структуру семьи (полные семьи и монородительские семьи) и гендерные факторы. Применяя количественные методики, включая регрес-

сионный анализ, исследование оценивает академические достижения мигрантов, переехавших в городские центры, особенно в Алматы. Результаты свидетельствуют о значительной восходящей тенденции в образовательной мобильности, особенно среди детей из полных семей. Гендерные аспекты играют ключевую роль: отцы оказывают значительное влияние на образовательные результаты сыновей, а матери — на достижения дочерей. Регрессионный анализ также показал различное воздействие уровня образования родителей на академические успехи их детей, подчеркивая важность родительского участия. Выводы исследования акцентируют необходимость образовательной политики, учитывающей гендерные и семейные программы для повышения человеческого капитала, обеспечивая равные возможности для мальчиков и девочек из различных семейных условий. Исследование вносит значимый вклад в понимание влияния семьи и гендера на образовательный успех внутренних мигрантов, предоставляя ценные рекомендации для социальных программ, стремящихся к созданию равноправных образовательных возможностей.

**Ключевые слова:** межпоколенная мобильность, внутренняя миграция, образование, гендер, структура семьи.

## Introduction

Substantial internal migration trends have gained attention in Алматы, the leading city in Kazakhstan. A considerable portion of relocations to the city are motivated by the pursuit of higher education, as indicated by Serikzhanova (2022), Makhmutova (2012), and Zabirowa (2002). It is worth noting that the Bureau of National Statistics (2023) reported that Алматы is home to 42 higher education institutions, both public and private, which cater to 172,000 students and provide a diverse range of opportunities for higher education and specialization. Education is a vital aspect of human capital development, contributing to the overall improvement of socioeconomic status, as Shenglia (2021) pointed out. It also plays a significant role in determining the degree of intergenerational inequality of opportunities and life opportunities for individuals, as Becker (1986) emphasized. Various studies on intergenerational social mobility highlight the importance of education as it serves as a conduit through which the educational achievements of a migrant's parents can influence their own educational attainment and subsequent socioeconomic outcomes.

The transmission of socioeconomic advantages and constraints from one generation to the next is a common occurrence, and a child's educational attainment often correlates with that of their parents (Becker and Tomes, 1986; Goldthorpe, 2013; Schneebaum, 2015; Shnarbekova, 2021). In other words, the educational success of internal migrants in a large city is to some extent predetermined by the level of education achieved by their parents. Internal migrants are a diverse group with various socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, including gender, age structure, family background, and place of birth. Many factors can influence intergenera-

tional educational mobility including gender, family structure, along with institutional and structural factors. These factors can both strengthen and weaken intergenerational educational mobility, regardless of the parents' level of education. This study focuses on two key factors that are crucial for understanding the impact of family on intergenerational educational mobility: family structure and the gender identity of both parents and internal migrants themselves.

The topic of family structure and its influence on intergenerational educational mobility among internal migrants is of significant interest to academic researchers. Various studies, such as those conducted by Biblarz and Raftery (1997) and Martin (2012), have demonstrated a positive correlation between having an intact family and achieving high educational success for children. This relationship is attributable to the fact that in intact families, both parents share the responsibility for raising children, whereas in incomplete families, this responsibility falls on one parent. Martin's (2012) research supports these findings, revealing that children of single mothers are less likely to attain the same level of educational achievement than children from intact families. Based on these findings, we can hypothesize that internal migrants raised in complete families tend to exhibit a pattern of upward intergenerational educational mobility in large urban settings.

The subject of gender and its impact on intergenerational educational mobility has garnered significant interest in social mobility research, particularly in developing countries where traditional societal structures may impede women's access to higher education. However, in the Kazakhstani society, the gender gap in tertiary education is not a concern. Consequently, this study explores the interrelationships between the transmission of educational status through the categories of *father-son*,

*father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughter*, particularly intriguing in terms of how educational mobility is transmitted. According to Schneebaum et al. (2015), a child's educational attainment may be more strongly correlated with the educational achievement of parents of the same gender. This is because children often construct their identity based on that of their same-gender parents and learn gender roles predominantly from them. Based on this premise, the following hypothesis is proposed: internal migrants tend to reproduce the educational trajectories of their parents of the same gender.

Current domestic scientific literature tends to overlook the intergenerational educational mobility of internal migrants. However, Shnarbekova's (2021) study showed a positive correlation between parents' educational level and the ambition of young individuals to pursue higher education for success in life. Roberts, Kamruzzaman, and Tholen's (2009) findings also underscore the importance of family cultural capital in the higher education process in Central Asian countries. Nurbaev (2021) drew attention to the underdevelopment of educational infrastructure in rural areas compared with urban areas, which may impede the accessibility of higher education for internal migrants in large cities. According to the Asian Development Bank (2018), Kazakhstan exhibits a low level of gender inequality, particularly in education, with little to no difference in access to education, expectations, and opportunities for men and women, and equality of opportunities for career and professional development. Satpayeva's (2023) data confirm the absence of such differences in attitudes towards women. The lack of research on the impact of family structure on the higher education process represents a significant challenge in the scientific understanding of this topic, making it difficult to comprehensively understand the factors influencing the educational trajectories and successes of internal migrants. Thus, the research gap on the intergenerational educational mobility of internal migrants includes the absence of analysis of factors such as the influence of family structure and gender on the process of obtaining higher education by internal migrants in Almaty.

This study investigates the intergenerational educational mobility of internal migrants in a large city, with a focus on family structure and gender identity. It is crucial to assess the level of equality or inequality in access to higher education among internal migrants, to identify factors that impact opportunities for higher education, and to identify potential barriers or inequalities. By gaining a deeper understanding of these aspects, we can work

towards reducing social inequalities and ensuring equal access to education for all segments of the population. Intergenerational educational mobility serves as a metric for evaluating the level of equality or inequality in opportunities for internal migrants.

### Research methodology and methods

The primary aim of this research is to investigate intergenerational educational mobility among internal migrants residing in Almaty while also assessing the impact of family structure and gender on the level of mobility among internal migrants. This study employs a quantitative research design, using face-to-face questionnaires to gather data from internal migrants. Spearman correlation, analysis of variance, regression analysis, and odds ratios were applied to analyze the data.

Data collection for quantitative analysis was conducted through the distribution of questionnaires in the eight administrative districts of Almaty. The survey implemented a proxy respondent approach, whereby the respondent provided information on behalf of their current household as well as their household of origin and youth formation (parental household). The sample of respondents was drawn using zoned quota sampling based on the following criteria: 1) internal migrants over the age of 20 who are part of the economically active population, have completed their education, and have plans for further educational development; and 2) internal migrants who have lived in Almaty for at least three years and previously resided in other regions.

A range of statistical analyses were conducted, encompassing descriptive statistics and classification methods, such as discriminant analysis, clustering, and grouping, which facilitated the identification of distinct groups of objects that were similar within each group. Additionally, a study of dependencies was undertaken, including correlation (Spearman correlation), analysis of variance to determine the presence or absence of dependence between variables, regression analysis to establish quantitative dependence between variables, and logistic regression analysis to determine the relationship between variables and their correlation with one another. Moreover, analysis of dependencies was conducted, encompassing correlation (Spearman's correlation) and analysis of variance to assess whether there was a dependence between variables, regression analysis to establish a quantitative dependence between variables, and logistic regression analysis to determine the relationship between variables and the odds ratio. These analyses were executed using specialized

software and tailored Python programming, as well as MS Excel spreadsheets for statistical testing and graphical representation of the results.

The study included 317 individuals, including 179 females and 138 males. The average age of the participants was 40 years, with a minimum age of 21 years and a maximum age of 64 years. The average duration of residence in Almaty City was 18 years (range: 1–42 years). From 1981 to 1990, 8% of the participants relocated to Almaty. From 1991 to 2000, the number of participants who moved doubled compared with the previous period, amounting to 17% of the total number of participants. The highest percentage of internal migrants was observed between 2001 and 2010, accounting for 47% of all the participants. Over the past 12 years, the share of internal migrants has increased to 28%. The majority of participants (51%) moved to Almaty City between the ages of 16 and 20. 31% of the participants moved between the ages of 21 and 30, whereas the remaining age categories accounted for no more than 6% of the participants.

In this study, the concept of generations was used to divide the population into two categories:

the modern generation and the parental generation. Categorization was based on the respondents' reported ages and their parents (guardians). The modern generation category comprised the internal migrants themselves, while the parental generation category included the primary and secondary income earner (parents and guardians) of the respondents. The age of the respondents was recorded upon completion of the questionnaires, with an average age of 40 years (minimum, 21; maximum, 64). Eighty-three percent of respondents were under 50 years of age on the study date. The period of socioeconomically active life for the modern generation was determined to be from 2000 to 2023, while the period of socioeconomically active life for the parental generation was from 1970 to 2000. This formalization is conditional and is employed solely to compare the data related to the educational context of each period.

The information presented in Table 1 demonstrates that the level of education is contingent upon the number of years spent studying the curricula, considering the discrepancies between the educational systems of parental and modern generations.

**Table 1** – Education level in years for two generations

Education level		Number of years
According to questionnaire	According to the census	
	primary education	4
incomplete secondary education	basic secondary education	8
general secondary education	general secondary education	10
secondary technical and specialized/vocational education	specialized secondary education	11
incomplete higher (at least 3 courses) education	incomplete higher education	13
higher (tertiary) education	higher education education	15
postgraduate education	postgraduate education	19

Information regarding the level of education was captured through the following responses: *incomplete secondary education* (8 grades), *general secondary education*, *secondary technical and vocational education*, *incomplete higher education* (minimum of three courses), *higher (tertiary) education*, and *postgraduate education* (postgraduate and doctoral studies). The measurement of education level is based on Article 12 of the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan “On Education” and the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Intergenerational mobility intensity was calculated using the following formula:

$$L = M/N$$

where:

$L$  – the intensity of intergenerational mobility;

$M$  – number of mobile respondents;

$N$  – the total number of respondents;

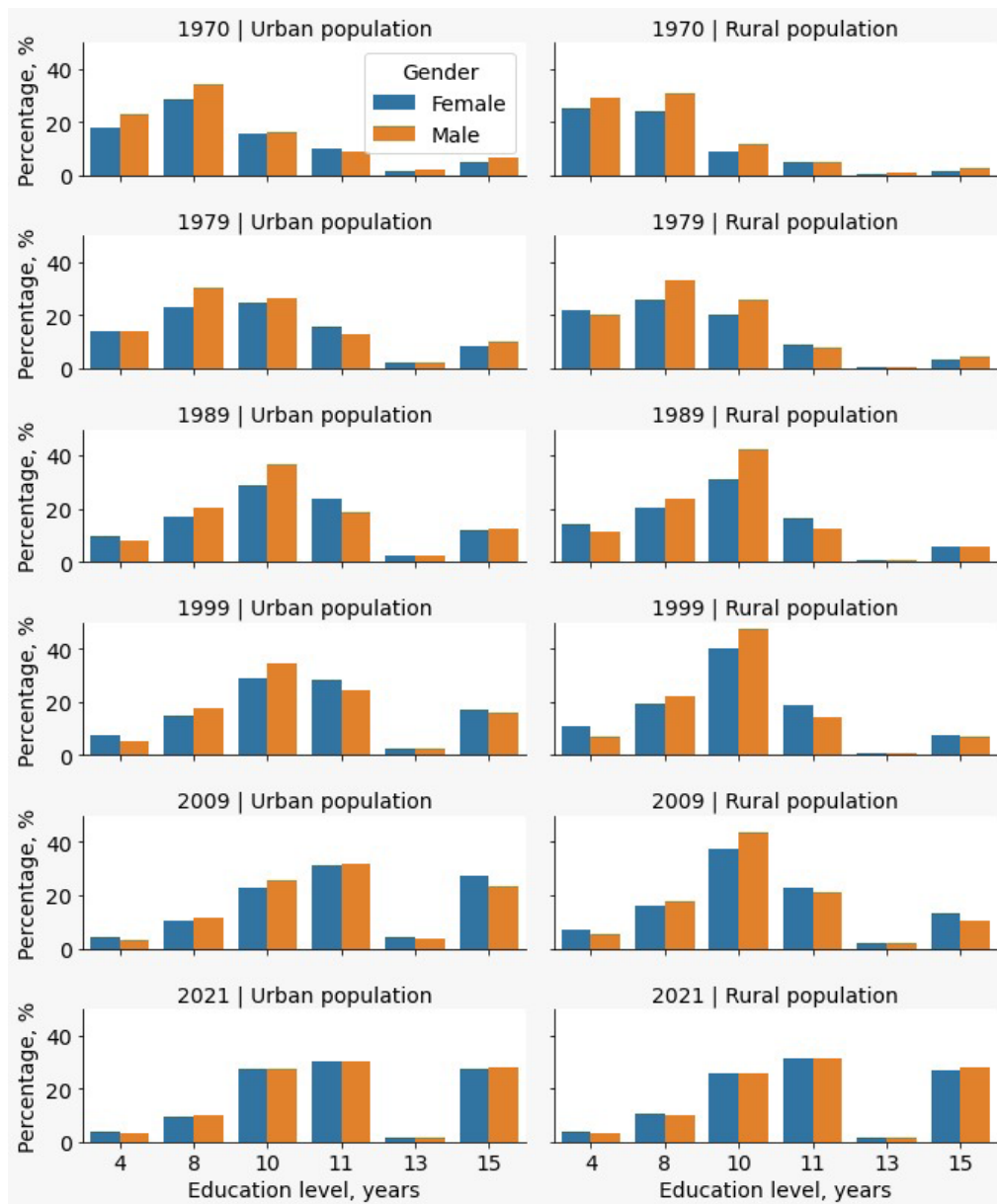
The following formula was employed to identify the indicators characterizing the primary modes of mobility: *general*, *upward*, *downward*, and *zero* mobility. In the course of a questionnaire survey, respondents reported their parents as the primary income earner (father or mother) and the secondary income earner (father or mother) in instances

where a full family was involved. For single-parent families, only the primary income earner is noted.

### Results and Discussion

To conduct a comprehensive analysis of the results, it is essential to evaluate the context of the dynamics of access to higher education in Kazakhstan over the past 25 years. To this end, it is necessary to examine the educational structure of the population, as shown in Figure 1. This figure presents data on the number of years of education received by the population aged

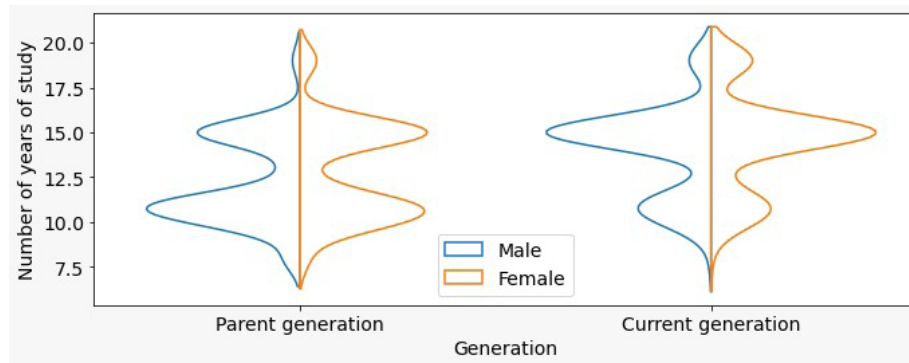
15 years and older based on the adopted levels of education. The census results indicate that tertiary education coverage in Kazakhstan has increased significantly over the past 25 years, with coverage increasing 6.6 times between 1970 and 2021 and 2.2 times between 1999 and 2021. Furthermore, the census data show that tertiary education coverage in 2021 is the same for both rural and urban populations, as well as for men and women. Consequently, it can be concluded that the reforms introduced in Kazakhstan’s educational sphere ensured access to education for the entire population.



**Figure 1** – Dynamics of population enrollment in higher education for the period 1970-2021 in Kazakhstan  
 Source: Author’ calculation on the basis of the 1970, 1979, 1989, 1999, 2009 and 2021 censuses (<https://stat.gov.kz/ru/national/2021/>)

Based on research among internal migrants, it has been observed that there is a substantial rise in the proportion of individuals with higher education in the modern generation as compared to the parental generation. Specifically, the proportion of internal migrants with higher education in the modern generation is 78%, whereas it was only 50% in the pa-

rental generation. Moreover, in the earlier generation, the share of women with higher education was 56%, while for men it was 42%. Comparatively, in the modern generation of migrants who have relocated to urban areas, there is a notable increase in the proportion of individuals with higher education, with 80% of women and 76% of men (as depicted in Fig. 2).

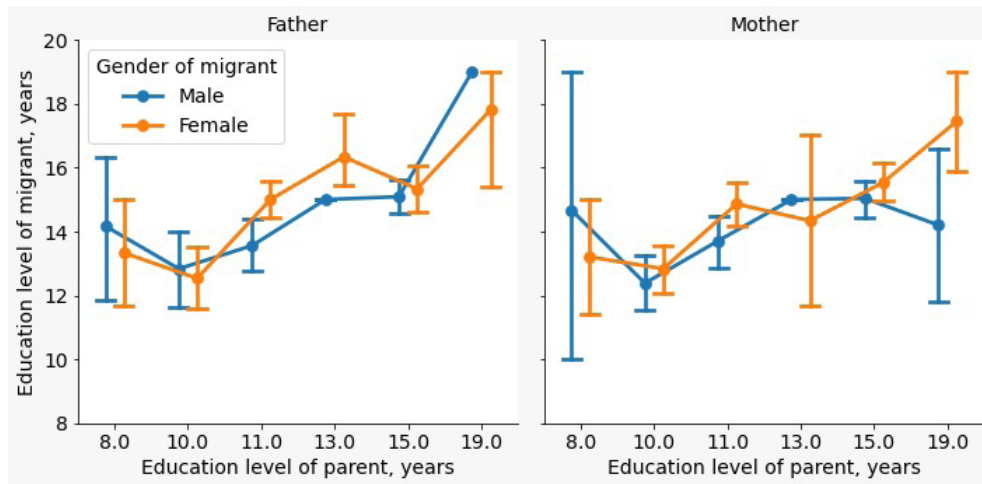


**Figure 2** – The distribution based on the highest educational attainment reached by parents and the current generation

The study's results show an increase in the proportion of internally migrated individuals with higher education in Almaty city's modern generation compared to the parental generation, which aligns with the broader national trend of increasing the percentage of the population with higher education over the past 25 years. This trend reflects the global community's and Kazakhstani society's aspirations to ensure equal educational opportunities and development for all citizens (Kapanadze, 2016; Mutize & Roser, 2022; Yu & Ertl, 2010). It is important to note that the gender identity of internal migrants does not have a significant impact on the attainment of higher education in either the parental or modern generation. In fact, women are more likely to pursue higher education, a trend observed not only in developed countries but also globally (McDaniel, 2012). Additionally, the gap between men and women in higher education is decreasing in developing countries as well. Pursuing higher education is a widespread practice across the globe. When examining data, it can be challenging to effectively convey information about the distribution of values within each category using categorical scatter plots. In these situations, *point plots* are a useful tool for summarizing distribution information more effectively and facilitating comparisons between category levels. These types of charts encode the value of the estimated mean using the height on the vertical axis and display the

confidence interval as a vertical line, illustrating the spread of the data. This approach allows for the easy visualization of the central tendency of the data and the comparison of the underlying dependencies and differences in slopes between categories. Figure 3 displays the point plots, which present the relationship between the education levels of parents of internal migrants and the education level of internal migrants themselves, as well as the results of the regression analysis that considers the full family. The education levels of both parents are used as independent variables in the analysis (Table 2).

The regression analysis results, excluding the child's gender, demonstrate that both parents' education level has a significant impact on the educational level of internal migrants. However, when considering the child's gender, differences emerge. The effect of parents' education level on their son's educational level reveals that the regression coefficient for the father-son line is superior to the same coefficient for the mother-son line, with corresponding significance. Conversely, when examining the influence of parents' educational level on their daughter's educational level, a higher regression coefficient and a higher level of significance in the mother-daughter line compared to the mother-son line are observed. This confirms the hypothesis that children's educational trajectories depend on the educational status of parents of the same sex.



**Figure 3** – Relationship between the education level of parents and children in complete families

**Table 2** – Results of regression analysis of the relationship between the education levels of parents of internal migrants

	Irrespective of the migrant’s gender (N=262)		Son (N=118)		Daughter (N=144)	
	<i>coeff</i>	$P> t $	<i>coeff</i>	$P> t $	<i>coeff</i>	$P> t $
<b>const</b>	8.8880	0.000	8.8915	0.000	8.7043	0.000
<b>Education level of father, years</b>	0.2208	0.005	0.2653	0.018	0.1771	0.109
<b>Education level of mother, years</b>	0.2240	0.002	0.1532	0.131	0.3050	0.002

According to Schneebaum (2015), children often construct their identity based on the identity of their same-sex parents and learn gender roles predominantly from their parents through socialization mechanisms. Moreover, the relationship between the level of education of the parent who played the dominant role in the family (father/mother) and the level of education of children, considering single-parent families, is presented in Figure 4. Out of 309 respondents, 269 grew up in complete families, where in 236 cases the primary income earner was the father. Forty respondents grew up in single-parent families, where in 38 cases the primary income earner was the mother. In total, in 71 families the main income earner was the mother.

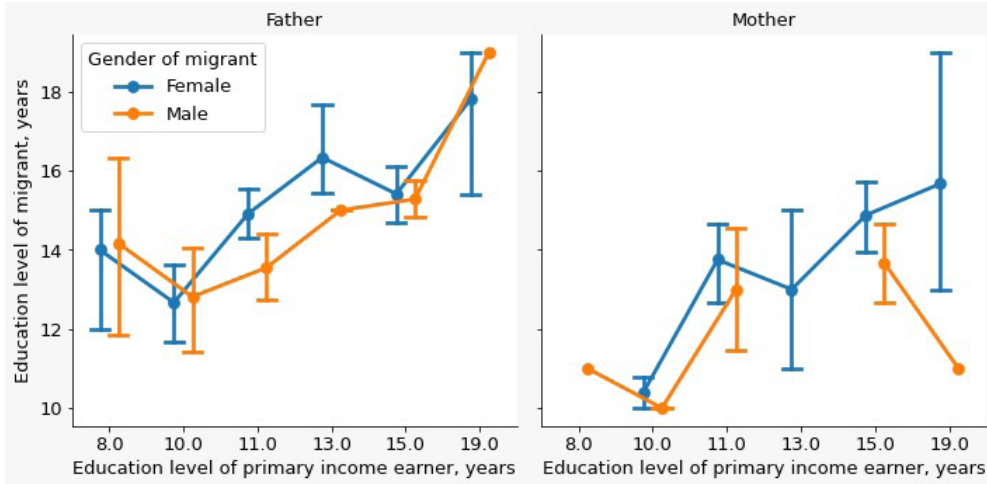
The following text presents the results of the regression analysis examining the relationship between a child’s education level and the education level of the primary income earner, while also considering single-parent households (Table 3, 4).

In families where the father is the primary provider, the regression coefficients and

significance coefficients for sons and daughters are highly similar, suggesting that there is no gender-specific influence. The prevailing trend can be attributed to the impact of the father’s educational level on the children’s educational trajectory through socialization processes. At the same time, the role of the mother, as an auxiliary educator, tends to correlate with the educational level of the father. In families where the mother is the primary income earner, the regression coefficients and significance coefficients on the “mother-daughter” line are significantly higher than on the “mother-son” line, indicating a marked gender specificity of educational status inheritance. This phenomenon can be explained through the lens of socio-psychological identification, where daughters are more likely to associate themselves with their mothers. This identification process influences the formation of their educational preferences and professional orientations (Crook, 1995; Scheenbaum, 2015). In families where mothers are forced to raise their children alone, sons may not exhibit an upward trend in their educational career

due to the absence of paternal influence, which research shows plays a significant role in shaping children’s educational path. Additionally, single

mothers may face financial and time constraints, which may also affect their children’s educational opportunities (Martin, 2012).



**Figure 4** – The relationship between the education level of primary income earner and migrants, considering single-parent families

**Table 3** – Results of regression analysis: primary income earner – father

Education level of father, years	Son (N=110)			Daughter (N=128)		
	coeff	P> t	corr, p-value	coef	P> t	corr, p-value
<b>const</b>	9.3774	0.000	0.386, 0.000	9.8027	0.000	0.411, 0.000
<b>Father</b>	0.3933	0.000		0.4022	0.000	

**Table 4** – Results of regression analysis: primary income earner – mother

Education level of mother, years	Son (N=25)			Daughter (N=46)		
	coeff	P> t	corr, pvalue	coeff	P> t	corr, pvalue
<b>const</b>	10.3530	0.000	0.356, 0.081	7.7713	0.000	0.488, 0.000
<b>Mother</b>	0.1969	0.270		0.4632	0.001	

The examination of the intergenerational educational mobility of internal migrants reveals diverse pathways, with upward mobility being the most prevalent. Tables 5 and 6 provide information on the trajectories and level of intergenerational educational mobility. The highest general level of intergenerational educational mobility is observed in complete families along the lines of the father-daughter and mother-daughter. In households where the primary earner is the father, the highest general level of intergenerational educational mobility is observed in the “father-daughter” line, accounting

for 69%.

The greatest degree of upward intergenerational mobility within the educational system is observed in families that consist of a father and daughter or a mother and daughter, particularly in complete families where the father is the main breadwinner. In contrast, in incomplete families where the mother is the main breadwinner, the level of upward mobility is significantly lower for both sons and daughters. However, it is worth noting that the “mother-daughter” line still dominates in terms of upward mobility, accounting for 33% of such instances.



In terms of downward mobility, there is a noticeably high degree along the “mother-son” line in incomplete families, which accounts for 28% of such instances. Additionally, there is a significant level of downward mobility in the “mother-daughter” line compared to complete families, which accounts for 17% of such instances. Overall, the level of downward mobility is much lower compared to other directions of mobility, with the maximum level being 11% along the lines “mother-son” and “mother-daughter” in complete families, and less than 6% along the lines “father-son” and “father-daughter” in complete families.

In terms of inheritance of educational status, about half of sons (up to 52%) inherit their

parents’ educational status. Among daughters, this indicator is slightly higher in complete families, where it amounts to about one third (up to 33%). In incomplete families, the difference between the shares of inheritance of educational status between daughters and sons is insignificant (2%).

In conclusion, in complete families, children tend to achieve a higher educational status compared to incomplete families. In incomplete families, in terms of gender dynamics “mother-daughter”, the achievement of a higher level of education is more pronounced compared to the dynamics “mother-son”. In approximately half of cases in incomplete families, both daughters and sons inherit their mother’s educational status.

**Table 5** – Trajectory and intensity of intergenerational mobility (complete families)

Direction	Father-son	Father-daughter	Mother-son	Mother-daughter
Overall	50%	69%	56%	67%
Upward	44%	65%	45%	57%
Downward	6%	5%	11%	10%
Immobile	50%	31%	44%	33%

**Table 6** – Trajectory and intensity of intergenerational mobility (single-parent households)

Direction	Father		Mother	
	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter
Overall	48%	68%	52%	50%
Upward	44%	63%	24%	33%
Downward	5%	5%	28%	17%
Immobile	52%	32%	48%	50%

The research unveils various trajectories of intergenerational educational advancement among internal migrants, primarily characterized by upward mobility. The most pronounced educational progress between generations is evident in entire families, particularly in the “father-daughter” and “mother-daughter” relationships. In households where the father is the primary breadwinner, the highest degree of upward mobility is observed in the “father-daughter” connection. In incomplete families, where the mother is the primary breadwinner, the level of upward mobility reduces, yet remains prominent in the “mother-daughter” relationship. Generally, complete families contribute to higher educational attainment of children compared to single-parent

families. Various studies have demonstrated that children raised in single-parent families often exhibit lower levels of educational achievement, which may be attributed to economic and psychological factors (Bloome, 2017).

The following is an analysis of the dynamics of respondents’ educational status changes based on gender and education level of parent and child in complete families (Figure 5). It indicates that in the class of incomplete secondary education (8 years) for the parent, there is a hundred percent upward mobility of children in all lines. This is attributed to the fact that Kazakhstan adopted a new Constitution in 1995, which mandated universal compulsory free secondary education.

In the general secondary education class (lasting 10 years), upward mobility is the predominant trend, with a minimum of 72% of students experiencing upward mobility. In the secondary technical and vocational education class (lasting 11 years), the level of upward mobility remains high, but there is a decline in the “father-son” line, with 56% of students experiencing downward mobility. Despite this, there is a high level of inheritance of the educational level in this line, with 40% of students inheriting the educational level of their parents. In the incomplete higher education class (lasting 13 years), 100% upward mobility is observed on all lines except for the “mother-daughter” line.

Here, the shares of respondents with upward and downward mobility are equal at 50%. In the higher education class (lasting 15 years), the prevailing trend is inheritance of the parent’s educational level. Specifically, 80% of students in the “father-son” line inherit their parent’s educational level, while 73% of students in the “mother-son” line inherit their parent’s educational level. On the “father-daughter” and “mother-daughter” lines, the share of inheritance is 67%. Additionally, there is a greater share of upward mobility on these lines, at 19-22%, compared to the “father-son” and “mother-son” lines, where the share of upward mobility is 11-15%.

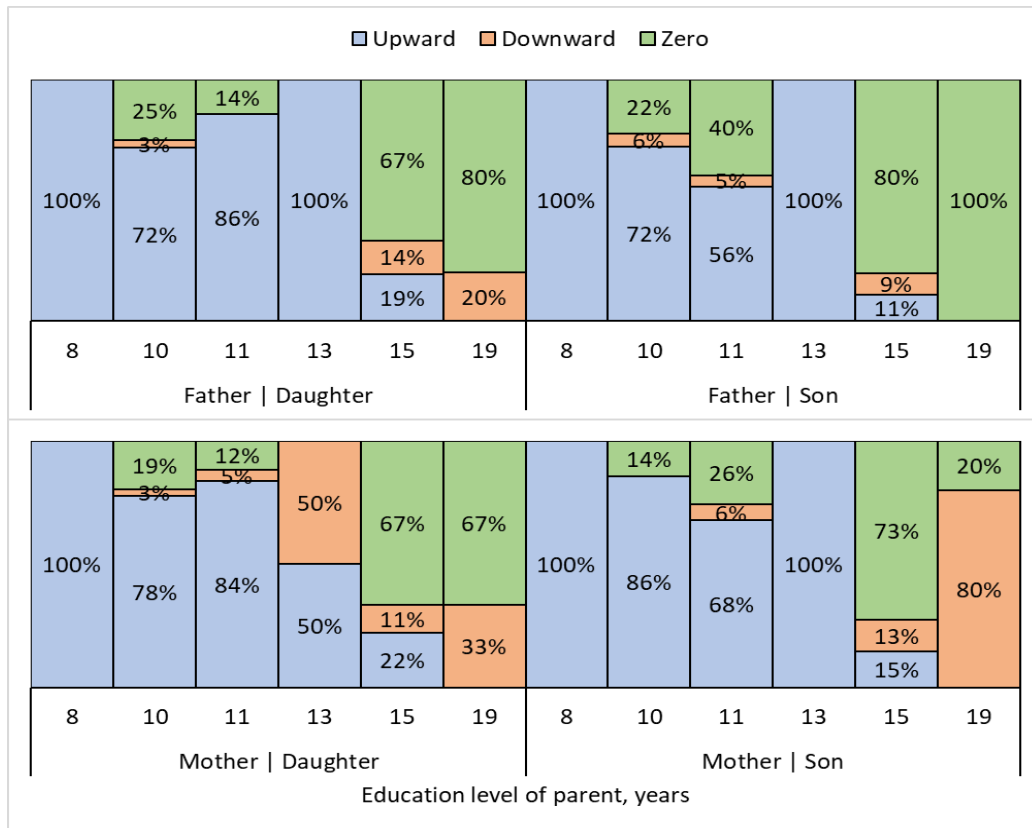
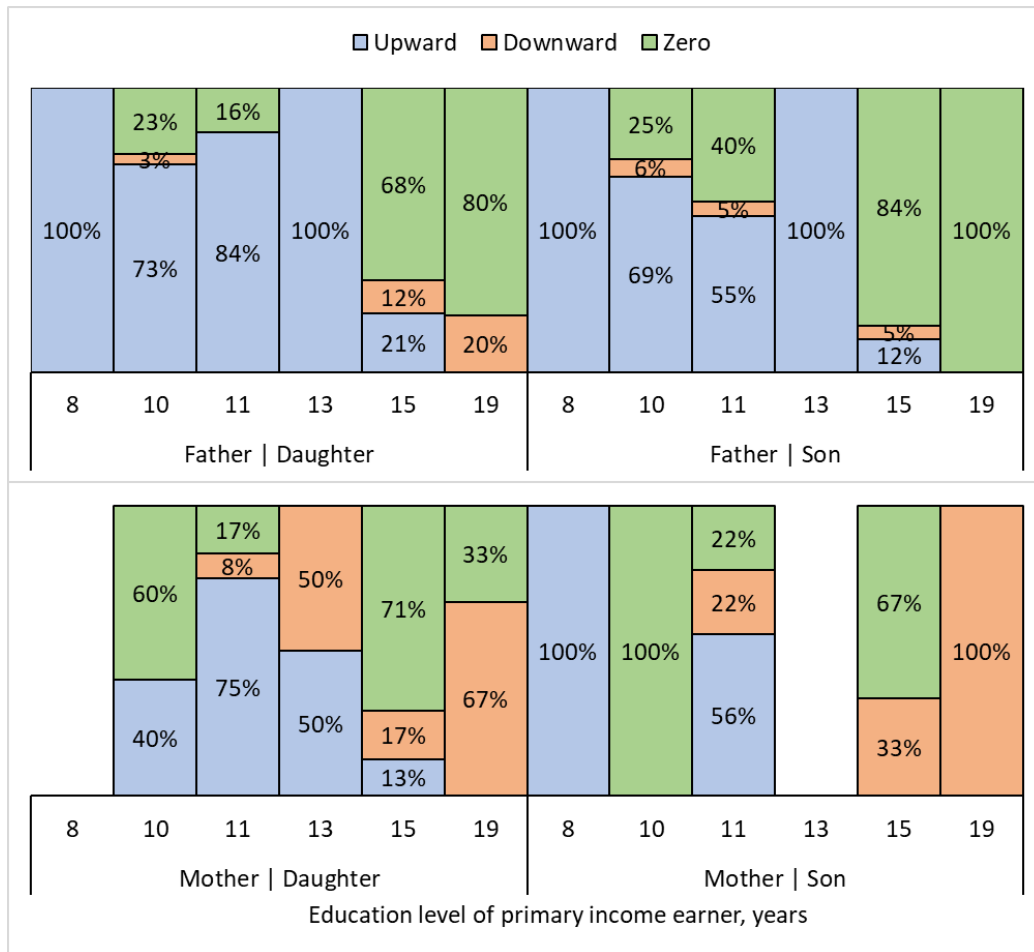


Figure 5 – Intergenerational educational mobility depending on gender and education level of parent and migrant in complete families

In the graduate-level course, it is observed that there is a 100% inheritance of the parent’s educational level in the “father-son” line. In contrast, the “father-daughter” line has a lower inheritance share of 80%. In the “mother-son” line, the smallest inheritance share of the parent’s educational level is

found at 20%. Additionally, this line shows an 80% downward mobility rate.

Moreover, we examine the shifts in educational status of the respondents based on gender and the educational level of the primary income earner, factoring in single-parent families (shown in Fig. 6).



**Figure 6** – Intergenerational educational mobility by gender and education level of the primary income earner and migrant

In households where the primary provider is the father, the pattern of intergenerational educational mobility replicates the trends observed in complete families. This is evident in “father-son” and “father-daughter” relationships, with only minor differences. According to the information provided, in 71 households, the primary earner was the mother, while 40 respondents grew up in families where they were not complete. Furthermore, in 38 cases, the main breadwinner was the mother. Therefore, it can be observed that roughly half of the households where the mother was the primary earner were incomplete.

In all educational classes, the trends among mother-daughter pairs are generally consistent with those of complete families, except in the case of general secondary education (10 years) and postgraduate education (19 years). Specifically, in the general secondary education class (10 years), the percentage of upward mobility is 40%, compared to

78% in complete families, and the percentage of inheritance is 60%, compared to 19%. Meanwhile, in the postgraduate education class (19 years), the percentage of inheritance of educational level is twice as low as in complete families (33% vs. 67%). The differences between the mother-son line and the same line in complete families are indisputable. In the lower secondary education class (10 years), there is a 100% reproduction of educational attainment. However, in the same class of complete families, the inheritance share is at 14%, while the upward mobility share is at 86%. In the context of higher education, the inheritance rate for classes is significantly lower than that of complete families, with only 67% compared to 73%. Moreover, there is no evidence of upward mobility within these classes.

The assumption about the observed upward trend in intergenerational educational mobility among internal migrants, particularly in the context of their move to Almaty, is supported. This trend

can be attributed to migrants' desire to enhance their educational status, including the pursuit of higher education and the acquisition of a relevant diploma. This may be attributed to both the personal attitudes of migrants and the availability of educational resources in large cities such as Almaty.

The hypothesis pertaining to family structure has been validated: children from complete families exhibit more conspicuous intergenerational educational mobility relative to those from incomplete families. Notably, the father's educational status holds considerable sway over intergenerational educational mobility. Conversely, the mother's educational status, which plays a crucial role in maternal leadership, fosters the daughter's educational mobility yet may impede this process for the son. As previously mentioned, children are more inclined to follow the educational trajectories of same-sex parents due to the process of self-identification. The absence of a father figure can detrimentally impact the son's self-identification, thereby diminishing his educational mobility.

Regarding gender identity, it has no bearing on intergenerational educational mobility in the context of higher education for internal migrants. However, in Kazakhstani society, there is a trend for women to pursue higher education more frequently. Consequently, if the mothers of female migrants possess higher education, their daughters are significantly more likely to attain higher education as well. This raises the question of why men have lower rates of higher education, which warrants further investigation.

### Conclusion

The research exploring intergenerational educational mobility among internal migrants in Almaty has uncovered noteworthy trends that may impact the dynamics of educational mobility in society. It was determined that there is a pattern of upward mobility in education among internal migrants, with migration to major urban centers like Almaty exacerbating this trend. Additionally, family structure proves to be a crucial factor in determining educational trajectory, as migrants

from intact families exhibit greater prospects for educational advancement in comparison to those from fragmented families.

The significance of gender factors must not be overlooked, particularly in the context of the relationship between fathers and their sons' educational accomplishments, as well as mothers and their daughters' achievements. These findings underscore the necessity of implementing gender-specific strategies when devising approaches to enhance educational mobility among internal migrants.

Considering the identified factors, it is advisable to establish educational programs and initiatives that are specifically designed to support and target socioeconomic disadvantaged individuals in order to reduce inequalities and promote upward mobility in education. Additionally, it is crucial to conduct in-depth research to comprehend the intricate mechanisms that influence the educational outcomes of migrant populations, while simultaneously examining the diverse sociocultural factors that may differ across various regions of the nation.

The importance of individual and family strategies aimed at enhancing education and social betterment, as well as their partnership with state programs in the realm of education and support for migrants, should be underscored. In the context of educational reform, it is prudent to contemplate initiatives that account for the unique aspects of internal migration and furnish appropriate assistance in acclimating to new educational circumstances. In summary, these investigations highlight the necessity for a comprehensive educational policy approach that will encourage intergenerational educational progress for internal migrants and spur human development across Kazakhstan.

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