



# MIGRATION AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION IN SULTANPUR DISTRICT, UTTAR PRADESH

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## **Abstract**

Migration is one of the dominant processes of population which alter the size, and composition of population of a region. Excluding natural increase it is the only phenomenon which can bring a change in the population of India. Any area has increase population only through fertility of its citizens or by migration and it can lose population through mortality among its inhabitants or by migration, thus being embraced by central position the effects of migration on population growth are bi-directional while that of fertility and mortality are unidirectional. There are a variety of migration based on administrative boundaries crossed, period of stay and motivation behind migration. On the basis of motivation, migration has usually been considered as economic migration, social migration, cultural migration and retirement migration. It may also classify on the basis of environment of origin and destination, migration is classified as rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-urban and urban-rural.

Therefore a study of migration problem is of greater importance to planners for preparing schemes for national economic development, rural urban housing, medical, educational development and population policy implementation. In this study attempts have been made to have an account of internal migration in Sultanpur district, Uttar Pradesh. This paper outlines the conceptual framework of internal migration long with its various implications on migrants and their areas of going away and coming. It also attempt to identify various determinants of internal migration viz., physical, economic, social and demographic.

**Keywords:** Internal migration, Inequality, population, mortality

## **Introduction:**

The word migration has been taken from the Latin 'migrare' means to change one's residence, but in the current scenario it means rather to change one's community (Peterson 1968, p. 287). However, the dictionary definition of the verb 'to migrate' is 'to move from one place to another' (White and Woods 1980, p.3). In my opinion the term human migration implies some form of permanent or semi permanent movement on the part of an individual or a group of people. In the context of tourism, the movement of students and journeys to work are not included

because they do not involve a change of

permanent residence (Woods 1979, p. 165). Thus, it is easy to explain mortality and fertility, two component of population growth than migration. Therefore it is well said not all the moves across geographic boundaries are migrations, since not all of them involve changing residence that is re affiliation with a population (Yaukey 1985, p. 278).

Migration would also be defined broadly as a permanent or semi permanent change of house. No restriction is placed upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act and also no distinction is made between external migration and internal migration. On the other hand not all kinds of spatial mobility are included in this definition. Some of them excluded that are the continual movements of nomads and migratory workers, for whom there is no long term residence and temporary moves like those to mountains dweller for the summer (Lee 1970, p. 290).

To have more clarity on the term migration, the definition provided by The United Nations says the geographical mobility of persons between areas, generally involving a change of residence over a specific period of time. It is a definition which is most applicable to developed or relatively settled populations, and it manifested problems when applied to movements of population in developing countries. In many countries of Africa for example there are several kinds of large mobile elements. Some are nomadic pastoralists and some are involved in forms of shifting cultivation. The degree of mobility seems varying: Muslim pilgrims may travel, sometimes for many years, to visit Makkah and Medina. People may move seasonally from their village areas to work in city. These types of mobility are not normally included in the classical definition of migration.

## **TYPES OF MIGRATION**

The too much diversity of a migration in cause, direction, volume, velocity, selectivity and organization prohibits simple classification. However, scholars of different disciplines have tried to classify migration as seasonal, temporary, periodic, permanent, internal, external, inter-regional, international, continental and inter-continental migration. It is very common that there is a growing tendency to consider the phenomenon of migrations as either internal or external. This approach is proving to be very useful by the significance of boundaries of state and the availability of data at the state level. This is seem to be simple distinction and it cannot satisfy the geographers who are interested not merely in numerical gains and losses due to migrations and their demographic, social, cultural and economic effects, but also in environmental influences upon migration streams and consequences in areas of departure and destination (Clarke 1981, p. 130). An important division given by the Fairchild (1925) who classified migration into invasion, conquest, colonization and immigration. His classification have been modified later by Isaac (1947) and others who subdivided immigration into seasonal, nomadic, temporary and permanent and refugee, slave and population transfer (Quoted in Sinhal980, p. 105).

A quite complex typology of migration presented by Peterson (1958) is based on two main criteria of conservation and innovation which were modified by Price (1969). His classification is as under (Quoted in Sinha 1980, p. 106).

S. NO.	Relation : manand	Migratory force	Classes of migration	Types of migration	
				Conservative	Innovative
1	Nature	ecological push	primitive	wandering	Flight from land
2	State	Migratory policy	Forced impelled	Ranging displacement	Slave trade
3	Norms	aspiration	free	flight	Coolie trade
4	Other men	Social movement	mass	Group settlement	Pioneer urbanization

On the basis of time and space over which migration is effective, distinction has been made between long-term and short-term migration. At one extreme is a short term labour migration on a seasonal basis and at the other are permanent moves from which migrant never returns. In between are various forms of return migration occurring over periods ranging from a few months to a number of years coated by (White and Woods 1980, p. 18).

Kant has classified migration into two broad categories on the basis of duration and spatial course extent. His classification is as follows:

a.) Accidental or temporary b.) Permanent or periodic c.) Definitive migration

The change of residence within the boundary of a country is called Internal Migration. According to Dorothy S. Thomas, "The accepted definition of internal migration is change of residence from one community and other clearly defined geographical unit, to another within the national boundaries". But this definition is not completely free from ambiguities. There are people who do not have fixed residences or settlement, and even for those who have residences it may sometimes be difficult to distinguish between "migrants" and "movers". For statistical purpose, the only practical procedure is to define internal migration in terms of delineated areal subdivisions and well-marked time intervals (Zachariah 1964, p. 18).

Other categorizations of migration are the following:

1. Temporary
2. Permanent
3. Voluntary
4. Permanent
- 5) Counter-urbanization

- 6) Emigration
- 7) Immigration
- 8) Internal migration
- 9) International migration and
- 10) Rural-urban migration

## **2.Features of Migration**

The features of migration are mentioned below:

- 1.Migration always is signified by movements of persons or a community
- 2.It can be forced or voluntary
- 3.It always involves a change of residence
- 4.It leads to population change in the area
- 5.Migration may lead to emigration (when a person leaves his/her own country to settle permanently in another country)

### **Migration & the Census of India:**

In the Indian Census, migration is signified by two types: Migration by birthplace, Migration by place of last residence is: Work/Employment, Business, Education, Marriage, Moved after birth, and Moved with household.

As per 2001 census of India:

- 5.3 crore migrants were recorded who moved from one village to another
- 2.1 crores migrants moved from the villages to towns
- 62 lakhs migrants from moved from towns to villages
- 1.4 crore migrants moved from one town to another
- Maharashtra topped the list of the states w.r.t the number of net migrants (23.8 lakh)
- Uttar Pradesh (-26.9 lakh) and Bihar (- 17.2 lakh) were the two states with the largest number of persons migrating out of the two states.

## **3.Causes of Migration**

The people are emotionally attached to their place of birth. But millions of people leave their places of birth and residence. There could be a variety of reasons. These reasons can be put into two broad categories: Push factors, these cause people to leave their place of residence or origin; and Pull factors, which attract people from different places.

In country like India, people migrate from rural to urban areas mainly due to poverty, better future prospects, high population pressure on the land, and lack of basic infrastructural facilities like health care, education. Apart from these factors, natural disasters such as floods, drought, cyclonic storms,

earthquakes, tsunamis, wars and local conflicts also give an extra push to migrate. On the other hand, there are pull factors that attract people from rural areas to cities. The most important pull factor for the majority of the rural migrants to urban areas is the better opportunities, availability of regular work and relatively higher wages. Better opportunities for education, better health facilities and sources of entertainment are also consider quite significant pull factors.

#### **4.Migration and its Consequences**

a) Migrants of all skill levels considerably contribute to societies. They spawn creativity, nourish the human spirit and spur economic growth. They bring diversity, provide innovation and bring about economic development and growth in the host societies. The primary motivation for migration is economic and at the heart of migration, management is imperative to maximize the development impact of international migration for all. India exemplifies the strengths of a large, tolerant, secular, live democracy with a pluralistic society in which people of different faiths, languages, ethnicity and political persuasions co-exist and thrive. Indeed, this milieu is the 'sine qua non' of any society that can create conditions for positive migratory movements and labour mobility for the benefit of all. This places India in a position to help contribute to the international community's efforts to develop an appropriate world migration strategy. Migration is a response to the uneven distribution of opportunities over space. People tend to move from places of low opportunity and low safety to places of higher opportunity and better safety. This, in turn, creates both benefits and problems for the areas; people migrate from and migrate to. Consequences can be observed in economic, social, cultural, political and demographic terms.

Economic Consequences of migration include a major benefit for the source region is the remittance sent by migrants. Remittances from international migrants are one of the major sources of foreign exchange. Demographic Consequences is Migration leads to the redistribution of the population within a country. Rural-urban migration is one of the important factors contributing to the population growth of cities. Age and skill selective out-migration from the rural area have an adverse effect on the rural demographic structure. Social Consequences comprises migrants act as agents of social change. The new ideas related to new technologies, family planning, girls' education, etc. get diffused from urban to rural areas through them. Migration leads to intermixing of people from diverse cultures. It has positive contributions such as the evolution of composite culture and breaking through the narrow considerations and widening up the mental horizon of the people at large. Environmental Consequences of migration in India is overcrowding of people due to rural-urban migration has put pressure on the existing social and physical infrastructure in the urban areas. This ultimately leads to the unplanned growth of urban settlement and the formation of slums shanty colonies.

## **Social, Economic and Demographic aspect of migration**

Economic factor plays pivotal role in all aspects and stages of migration. The differential economy and desire for economic betterment motivate people to migrate from one place to another. The consequence of migration is also felt on the migrants, on the place of origin and destination and on intervening areas. Migration generally enables movers to improve their economic status by getting better job. But when we speak about involuntary migration the effect is reverse, because when migrants are forced to leave their places of origin due to political, economical and social reasons they lose their belongings and restart their pursuits. Now society is changing and at the place of origin significant changes are marked in agriculture, industries and occupational structure of the people. The place of destination which is generally industrial area, solves its labour problem, increases industrial production and accumulates wealth by the investment of migrants and experiences multidimensional progress. The effect of migration is also felt on the intervening areas, it may be the area where transport facilities increase, employment structure changes and growth centres develop (Sinha and AtauUah 1987, p. 140-41). In areas of in-migration, a major economic consequence is pressure on the labour market, which in turn affects the level of wages and may encourage the development of labour absorbing industries. Where wages rate are low, it is difficult for the local market to expand, and as a result, quite a large proportion of employed persons are engaged in non productive occupations. The over growth of tertiary sector in India situations is typical. In theory a migrant who joins a new and developing community can rapidly climb in the economic and social hierarchy (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, p. 255).

As migrants move in large number from rural to urban areas, the economic set up of rural and urban economy gets modified and a balanced relationship between the people and resources of the two regions is tried to be achieved (Shah 1998, p. 120). The impact of migration is also felt on Indian economy under agriculture and agricultural products. When the population of certain area increases due to regional and town migration, the pressure of man on land increases. As such people are compelled to expand agricultural land, therefore percentage of agricultural land to the total area increases. Where expansion of land is not possible due to limited resources, people are forced to adopt intensive cultivation and produce several crops in the same piece of land. Intensive cultivation and multiple crop practice lead to the increase in the production of crops.

Sultanpur is the headquarters of the Sultanpur district, the north side of the district is bounded by Ayodhya district previously known as Faizabad; the south side by Pratapgarh district; the west side by Barabanki and Raebareli districts and the east side by Azamgarh, Ambedkarnagar, and Jaunpur districts. Sultanpur has an average elevation of 95 metres. The geography of Sultanpur comprises plain lands, except for some regions around the Gomti River, which is important river in this district, drains almost the whole city and district. The southern division of city drains towards the Sai River flowing through Pratapgarh district. The only noteworthy minerals found in the region are in Kanker district. It joins sharda canal in whole district and fulfill the requirements of water for the purpose of

agriculture. Migration and demography are interrelated concept as migration always has demographic consequences since it is people who move from one region to another and change the demographic structure of both the places of origin and those of destination. It changes the distribution, growth, age, gender, literacy, occupation, fertility and mortality of people. The phenomenon of movement from one community to another has the effect of declining the population in the community of origin and raising the population in the community of destination. Therefore it has a doubled barreled effect on population distribution, as well as on inter area differences in the rates of population growth (Bogue 1969, p. 752). The nature of migration is that is equalizes the distribution of population and usually people move from the densely populated regions to the sparsely populated pockets and this minimizes uneven distribution of population. But this general trend of population has undergone changes during the recent years due to urbanization, modernization, industrialization and imbalanced regional development. Better service opportunities and living conditions in industrial and urban centres have attracted the people even from sparsely populated regions to highly congested urban areas. This process led to the desertion of village areas and over-crowding of urban industry.

Migration exerts significant impact on the age and sex composition of population of both that is the place of origin and those of destination. At the place of origin out-migration of people of working age-group leads to the increase in the proportion of children and olds. On the other hand, in-migration of adults in the host society increases the proportion of adults and decreases the proportion of children and olds and similarly sex ratio also changes due to migration. When people migrate with their family, ratio does not change due to migration. But when people migrate without taking their family with them, as it happens in most of the cases the ratio of male increases in the host society and that of female in the donor society. In case of marriage migration, mostly females are on the move. But this does not change the sex ratio of either the place of origin or destination. At the place of birth the loss of females is compensated by the in-migration of brides. Similarly, at the place of target the gain of females is compensated by the out-migration of brides. Literacy rate and level of education are also influenced by migration of human and in most of the cases migrants are educated. The movement of people increases the percentage of literacy at the place of destination and decreases at the place of origin. Long distance migration involves educated and skilled persons. According to the 2011 Indian Census report, Sultanpur had a total population of 107,640 of which 56,420 were males and 51,220 were females. Population within the age group of 0 to 6 years was 11,647. The total number of literates in Sultanpur district was 84,080, which constituted 78.1% of the population with male literacy of 81.5% and female literacy of 74.4%. The effective literacy rate of the 7+ population of Sultanpur was 87.6% of which male literacy was 91.6% and female literacy rate was 83.2%. The Scheduled Castes (SC) population was 7,706. Sultanpur had 17,954 households in 2011.

Migration is a major symptom of basic social change (Bogue 1959, p. 486). Rural and urban areas have distinct composition, size and institute of family. When people migrate from rural to urban, these aspects of family also undergo changes. Joint families of rural areas become nuclear. The process of urbanization and industrialization which attracts rural migrants into urban areas disturbs the homogeneity of the family. All migrants who go to the cities for search of job do not bring their

families with them either because of their economic conditions and maintenance of the traditional property in the village, emotional attachment to the family and the place, dislike of parents to move to the city, etc. Migration has its strong impact on various aspects of marriage and family. Ritual of marriage, age at the marriage, selection of pair, caste organization of marriage are deeply influenced by migration. In the present society impact of migration on marriage has been changing with time and space. Previously people of both the areas: place of origin and that of destination were more inclined towards the traditional manners. As such migration used to exert very little impact on marriage systems. Now a day there is big gap in outlook in rural and urban areas. This is why people of urban areas have experienced fast change in the matters of marriage. Migration has brought about changes in inter-caste relations too. The most important of these changes or transformation relates to inter-caste commensality. Traditional restraint on untouchability dining and drinking in the caste system has been removed. This change in the commensally habits of the emigrant families is most definitely the outcome of their contact with the cities. Migrants come to the towns to improve their economic status. Originally they belong to different class hierarchy but due to higher earning they change the hierarchy of class. The income and status differentiation among them bring about a sort of class consciousness among the migrants. A feeling of belongingness or we can say we feeling exists, at least to some extent, among the members of a particular class. Because of this class consciousness migrants are obliged to unite to fight for their right and safeguard their interests. Migration has its impact on the social domain of the people. It brings out decrease in the extent of relationship with family members, peer group and relatives. The migrants do not get opportunity in sufficiently to maintain contacts and relationship with their family members, relatives, friends and others. As the distance increases, the extent of closeness with them decreases.

### **Objectives of study**

The broad objective of the present study of sultanpur district is to explore the internal migration and examine socioeconomic determinants of migration in sultanpur district of Uttar Pradesh. Specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- 1.To study the internal migration of sultanpur district.
- 2.To study the conceptual framework and types of migration in above said study.
- 3.To explore the consequence of migration.
- 4.To examine the socioeconomic determinants of temporary labour migration.

### **Sources of Data and Methodology**

In general speaking, statistical data on migration are much more difficult to obtain than those for other demographic phenomena. This is true for developed countries, but it is even more so for developing ones, where there may be no data at all. Often these countries have no regular statistical service and if there is a census generally after ten years, it may yield only limited data. Migration studies based on census data, even when these give information on place of birth, sex and duration of



residence, are concerned only with the total amount of movement., A person who moves several times for the better job but return to his original residence during the inter-censal period will not be recorded as migrant, and the migrant who dies before the census is taken goes unrecorded. Depending upon the census, seasonal migrants or worker are most likely to be missed completely. Thus migration data based on censuses are inevitably underestimated, and information must be sought elsewhere. Only from purposely designed studies it will be possible for example to follow the stages in the movements of individuals from rural to urban areas, back to rural, and then perhaps again to urban areas. The number and range of such specific studies are clearly partial (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, pp. 251-52).

Analysis of the problem of migration in Indian society presents some peculiar problems. The records of migration are probably the least suitable of all population data. This is partly correct because their collection is poorly organized, and partly because migration is inherently difficult to standardize units for counting (Barclay 1958, p. 242). There are two major procedures of obtaining migration data: direct method and indirect method.

#### Direct Method

A direct measurement of migration requires including the persons who change their residence across migration-defining boundaries. Such information is available only in nations where there is a system of residence registration or where a direct migration question has been asked at a census enumeration (Bogue 1959, p. 491). Most nations still lack a national system for registering changes of residence. Migration related data directly or indirectly may be obtained at the time of the national census by inserting a question, "where was this person living x year ago?" By comparing the place of enumeration with the place of residence x years ago, in this way it may be possible to identify the persons who have been migratory. If it is understood that each migrant moved directly to his own residence from his residence x years ago, it is possible to tabulate streams of in migration and out- migration for particular places. This method has some limitations: it relies on the memory of respondents and it fails to identify migrants who returned to their place of origin. The question usually asked for this purpose are - place of birth, nature of residence, sex, place of last residence, place of residence at a fixed prior date.

#### Place of Birth

The information regarding the place of birth provides a crude index of migration being useful because it is the only data available comparing the level with the earlier census, and to understand the main current of migration in India. But the place of birth unless classified by age and sex loses much of its meaning as information on migration, as the factor of age and sex accounts for the effect of differential mortality in the estimation of the volume of migrants. It fails to measure the intermediate and multiple movements of person and our tabulations related to place of birth would surely give an underestimate of the actual frequency of movements. There is another limitation on the theoretical frame. In the earlier census place of birth was considered by the status at the place of time of

enumeration while in the latter it was denoted by the status at the time of birth and this affects comparability.

### Duration of Residence

There is a lack of conceptual clarity in the measurement of duration between 1961 and 1971 census data. According to the 1971 census of India, persons who had left the his village or town and had lived elsewhere for some time and had come back again to his village/town, the duration of residence recorded against them would be the period of last continuous residence. Furthermore, there is no specific time reference for this period of residence. In the year 1961 census the period "temporarily away" was not considered in denoting the duration of residence. It furnishes a distribution of lifetime in migrants by time of last arrival or a classification of migration cohorts. This data if available for two censuses can be used to estimate the scale of remigration. The limitation of this method is that the question on duration of residence if considered alone can give no information regarding the direction from which the in-migrants originated. This information was collected in 1971 census at the district level under the rural urban categories. The rural urban status was determined with reference to the time of migration from the place of last residence to the place of enumeration. Multiple moves in case of place of previous residence may reflect the last move only, but in addition to place of birth this may shed some light on the short-term migration also. Tabulations of data and classifying the place of previous residence by duration of residence would possibly show the number of persons in the population of a given area who have in-migrated during the migration interval (Chakravarty 1977, pp.321-22).

### Indirect Method

If in a nation there is a good system of birth and death registration and if two or more reliable consecutive censuses with age tabulations are available it is possible to estimate indirectly the amount of net-migration that has taken place within the various communities of a nation. In order to estimate the net migration for a community, region, it is necessary only that the data have been tabulated for the area for which the estimate is desired. There are three indirect methods for measuring internal migration: first is "the vital statistics "method, second is the "survival ratio" method, and the third is "place of birth statistics" method.

### The Vital Statistics Method

The statistics method for measuring net intercensal migration estimates the total net gain or loss in population that community experiences between two censuses as a result of migration. The total population change that occurs in a community during the interval between two censuses consists of two major components first is natural increase (total births minus total deaths), net migration is total in-migration minus total out-migration. Net- migration may define total population minus total natural increase. Therefore, where two consecutive reliable censuses are available from which total population change can be computed and where a reliable count of births and deaths during the intercensal period is maintained. (Bogue 1959, p. 442).

$$P_t - P_o + B - D + M$$

$P_t$  stands for Population at the end of an intercensal period (last census)

$P_o$  is Population at the beginning of an intercensal period (previous census),  $B$  represents number of births during the intercensal period,

$D$  stand for number of deaths during the intercensal period,  $M$  is net-migration during the intercensal period.

#### The Survival Ratio Method

This method tells us about how many people from a preceding census would be alive and living in the same place at the time of the next census if there were no migration. If we subtracts this expected data of survivors is from the actual census count at the second census and the difference is accepted as an estimate of the net number of migrants. The estimate of survivors is obtained by multiplying each age group of the original census by a "survival ratio", which estimates the proportion of persons of that age who will survive to be counted at the next census.

$$M_i = P_t - P_{os}$$

Whereas  $P_t$  and  $P_o$  are defined as above, except that they refer to age groups, and  $s$  is an estimate of the proportion of the age group who will survive from one census to another. In this estimate allowance must be made for the fact that the survivors grow older during the intercensal period and at the second census are counted in different age group than at the first census.

#### Place of Birth and Statistics

Almost each and every census of the world record the state, province, or commune of birth. By comparing the place of birth with the residence of the person at the time of enumeration it may possible to separate the population into migrants and non-migrants. This method usually is restricted to large units of area. It cannot be determined exactly when the migration happen. Return migration to the place of birth is remaining undetected. Despite these shortcomings the place of birth statistics can provide useful identifications of the direction of migration flows and in many nations are the only sources of migration information. They can be tabulated in such a way as to provide data for migration streams as well as for differential migration (Bogue 1969, p. 759).

The indirect measures of migration are invaluable even where direct data are available. Take the example, estimates of net-migration obtained by the vital statistics method probably are fully as accurate if not more so than estimates of net-migration tabulated from a migration registration system, and they are almost certainly more accurate than estimates of net-migration obtained from census tabulation of residence  $x$  years ago. Zachariah has given very important-equation to estimate net internal migration from place of birth data (for detail see Zachariah 1964, pp. 44-45).

## Review literature

- 1) Davis (1951) in his book, "The Population of India and Pakistan", provide a vivid account of immigration, emigration and internal migration in India. Davis tried to give a unique elucidation of internal migration in India on the basis of place of birth data of 1940. The aspects which were discussed are magnitude and major direction of movement in Indian sub-continent, migration between British India and native states, nature and types of migration, direction of rural-urban migration etc.
- 2) Gosal (1961) published an article on 'internal migration in India : a regional analysis' in which he asserted that mostly the migrant in the country are short run, though large cities have attracted migrants from far and wide. In general there is inverse relation between the number of in-migrants to these cities and the distance of migration. When talked about the internal migration in future, the author pointed out that it bound to increase with the view of growing diversification of economic activity as it determine the direction of migration.
- 3) Bose (1967) presented his paper on 'migration streams in India' he has tried to illustrate an overall picture of internal migration in India in terms of the origin, I direction, distance and volume of migration streams, based on 1961 census data on migration. He highlighted numerous new aspects of migration about which very little were known in the past due to inadequate data. In his paper, Bose has given twelve types of migration streams and pointed out that rural to rural migration dominates in the Indian country and this migration in case of female is mainly due to 'marriage migration' and not 'economic migration' and only in case of long distance migration among males rural to urban migration is more important than other types of migration. On the bases of duration of residence data, the author has also computed the annual 'out-migration rates'.
- 4) Bohra (1971) in his researchpaper on 'internal migration in Rajasthan' gave a detailed account of patterns of internal migration in the state of Rajasthan. The migration behavior of population, types of migration, regional patterns of internal migration and rural to urban migration in cities have been discussed in detail. His study is based on the migration data recorded on the basis of place of birth in the 1961 census.
- 5) Kumar (1971) in his published article on 'distribution and displacement of population in Bihar', pointed out that industrial regions of Bihar are attracting population from other states and also losing her population to other states. He claimed that migration due to inter-state marriage was high in border districts. Mining and industrial towns of South Bihar are the centres of economic in-migration and Both push and pull factors have affected the pattern of inter-district and inter-state migration and the decennial growth rate of regional population.

## THE STUDY AREA

Sultanpur district is situated on the banks of holy river Gomati in the Indian state of Uttar Pradesh. The administrative headquarters of Sultanpur District and is a part of Faizabad division in Uttar Pradesh, India. It is situated 135 km east of state capital Lucknow. The common language people spoken by the people of Sultanpur are Awadhi. Kurebhar is a most developed town in the district. Common colleges include Maharana Pratap Post Graduate College, Kamla Nehru Institute for Physical and Social Sciences, Engineering and management colleges include Kamla Nehru Institute of Technology and KNIPSS- Management Institute. Sultanpur Junction railway station (station code: SLN) connects Sultanpur to major cities in India. The nearest airport to Sultanpur is Ayodhya Airport and Allahabad Airport which is 99 kilometers away. Lucknow Airport also known as amusi airport is 140 km from Sultanpur and is connected by 4-lane NH 56. Sultanpur is connected in close proximity cities through the 4-lane Lucknow to Varanasi NH 56 and the 2-lane Allahabad to Faizabad road. UPSRTC is the major public transport apart from other commercial modes run by private agencies.

### District Highlights: 2011 Census

1. District Sultanpur ranks 15th in terms of population in the state.
2. The percentage share of urban population in the district is 5.3 percent as against 22.3 percent of the population in urban areas of the state.
3. Sultanpur district has population density of 856 which is more than the state average of 829 persons per sq. km.
4. Sultanpur district ranks 5th in terms of sex ratio (983) which is higher than the state average (912) females per thousand males.
5. Sultanpur district ranks 32nd in literacy with 69.3 percent which is higher than the state average of 67.7 percent.
6. There are only 29 uninhabited villages out of total 2,527 villages in the district.
7. Decadal growth rate of the district 18.1 is lower to the state average of 20.2 percent.
8. Lambhua tahsil has the highest number of inhabited villages (448) while Gauriganj tahsil has the lowest number (257) of inhabited villages.
9. The district has 11 towns out of them 6 are statutory towns and 5 Census towns. Neither any statutory town has been added, merged nor declassified after 2001 census. One new tahsil Jai Singhpur has been carved out after 2001 census.

10. There are 623,523 households in the district accounting for 1.9 per cent of the total households in the state. The average size of households in the district is 6.1 persons.

**Table 1**  
**Decadal Population Growth in Sultanpur District**

Sr. No	Tahsil	Population						Percentage Decadal variation 2001-2011			Percentage Urban	
		2001			2011			Total	Rural	Urban	Population	
		Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban				2001	2011
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Musafirkhana	597,301	589,935	7,366	709,816	677,165	32,651	18.84	14.79	343.27	1.23	4.60
2	Gauriganj	326,723	326,723		390,935	390,935		19.65	19.65		0.00	0.00
3	Amethi	389,476	370,584	18,892	447,330	426,957	20,373	14.85	15.21	7.84	4.85	4.55
4	Sultanpur	717,969	617,904	100,065	833,355	717,411	115,944	16.07	16.10	15.87	13.94	13.91
5	Jaisinghpur	346,749	346,749		420,611	420,611		21.30	21.30		0.00	0.00
6	Lambhua	405,040	397,763	7,277	471,564	462,637	8,927	16.42	16.31	22.67	4.32	1.89
7	Kadipur	431,574	412,916	18,658	523,506	501,485	22,021	21.30	21.45	18.02	1.80	4.21
<b>District Total:</b>		<b>3,214,832</b>	<b>3,062,574</b>	<b>152,258</b>	<b>3,797,117</b>	<b>3,597,201</b>	<b>199,916</b>	<b>18.11</b>	<b>17.46</b>	<b>31.30</b>	<b>4.74</b>	<b>5.26</b>

The above table discusses the growth rate of the sultanpur district for total, rural and urban areas and percentage of urban population to total population. The decadal growth rate of the district is 18.11 percent during the year 2001-2011. The growth rates for rural- urban areas of the district are 17.46 and 31.30 per cent respectively. Out of the total population of the district 94.74 per cent lives in village areas while 5.26 per cent lives in urban areas of the district. The proportion of urban population has slightly increased during the decade from 4.74 per cent in 2001 to 5.26 per cent in 2011 in the district of Sultanpur. The highest growth of urban population is recorded in Musafirkhana tahsil that is 43.27 per cent and lowest is registered in Amethi tahsil (7.84 per cent). Urban population is concentrated in Sultanpur tahsil although Gauriganj and Jaisinghpur tahsil are entirely rural.

**Table 2**  
**Distribution of Rural-Urban Population in Sultanpur district**

Total population	Absolute			Percentage		
	Total	R u r a l	U r b a n	Total	R u r a l	U r b a n
Persons	3,797,117	3,597,201	199,916	100.0	94.7	5.3
Males	1,914,586	1,810,496	104,090	100.0	94.6	5.4
Females	1,882,531	1,786,705	95,826	100.0	94.9	5.1

Above table illustrate the distribution of rural urban population in the district of sultanpur. Rural population is 94.7 per cent while urban population is 5.3 per cent.

**TABLE 3**  
**Sex ratio of Sultanpur district 2011**

Sr. No	Name of Tehsil	Sex Ratio		
		Total	Rural	Urban
1	Musafirkhana	974	977	925
2	Gauriganj	986	986	0
3	Amethi	1000	1003	944
4	Sultanpur	963	972	910
5	Jaisinghpur	992	992	0
6	Lambhua	1009	1010	941
7	Kadipur	982	984	943
	<b>District: Sultanpur</b>	<b>983</b>	<b>987</b>	<b>921</b>

Table three gives sex-ratios for total, rural and urban areas at tahsil level as per 2011 census. There are 983 females for every thousand males in the district. It becomes apparent from the table that sex-ratio in rural areas is higher than that of urban areas. The sex-ratio among rural and urban inhabitants is 987 and 921 respectively. The rural sex-ratio in the tahsils varies between 972 females per 1,000 males in Sultanpur tahsil to 1,010 in Lambhua tahsil. The sex-ratio in Amethi, Jaisinghpur, Lambhua and Kadipur is higher than district rural average population (987). In urban areas the highest sex-ratio is recorded in Amethi tahsil (944) and the lowest in Sultanpur (910).

**TABLE 4**  
**Number of literates and illiterates in Sultanpur district, 2011**

Sr. No.	Name of town	Number of literates and illiterates						Literacy rate			Gap in male-female literacy rate
		Number of literates			Number of illiterates			Persons	Males	Females	
		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Musafirkhana (NP)	5876	3303	2573	2123	840	1283	84.17	91.22	76.58	14.64
2	Kathaura (CT)	7671	4454	3217	3934	1577	2357	75.42	84.26	65.85	18.41
3	Palpur (CT)	3827	2150	1677	1875	836	1039	78.44	84.28	72.04	12.24
4	Nihal Garh ChakJangla (CT)	4560	2531	2029	2785	1274	1511	72.19	77.45	66.55	10.9
5	Amethi (NP)	9488	5314	4174	4361	1735	2626	78.3	86.01	70.27	15.74
6	Korwa (CT)	5528	3036	2492	996	394	602	92.43	96.78	87.62	9.16
7	Sultanpur (NPP)	84080	45996	38084	23560	10424	13136	87.59	91.62	83.17	8.45
8	Kasba Sultanpur (CT)	4978	2882	2096	3326	1415	1911	69.7	78.25	60.6	17.65
9	Koeripur (NP)	5494	3195	2299	3433	1403	2030	72.31	81.26	62.71	18.55
10	Dostpur (NP)	9155	5080	4075	4856	2137	2719	77.72	84.15	70.97	13.18
11	Kadipur (NP)	5571	3112	2459	2439	1002	1437	80.42	87.2	73.23	13.97
<b>District (Urban): Sultanpur</b>		<b>146228</b>	<b>81053</b>	<b>65175</b>	<b>53688</b>	<b>23037</b>	<b>30651</b>	<b>83.14</b>	<b>88.62</b>	<b>77.2</b>	<b>11.42</b>

Table 4 shows number and percentage of literates and illiterates person by sex during 2011 in the urban areas of the district. on the subject of absolute figures of literates Sultanpur NPP town is way ahead of othertowns. The table reveals that literacy rate is high in the urban areas of the district (83.14). The literacy rate is quite high (above 77 per cent) among males. talking to Female literacy rate it is not far behind in all towns (highest being in Korwa CT where it is 87.62 per cent).

However, literacy rate among females is low that is 60.6 per cent in Kasba Sultanpur CT town, thus the gap in male female literacy rate is also very high (17.65).



**TABLE 5****Number and percentage of scheduled tribe literates and illiterates by sex in sultanpur district, 2011**

Sr.No.	Name oftown	Number of Literates and Illiterates						Literacy rate			Gap in male-female literacy rate
		Number of literates			Number of illiterates			Persons	Males	Females	
		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Kathaura (CT)	4	3	1	0	0	0	100	100	100	0
2	Korwa (CT)	1	0	1	0	0	0	100	0	100	-100
3	Sultanpur (NPP)	6	3	3	4	3	1	75	75	75	0
<b>District (Urban): Sultanpur</b>		<b>11</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>84.62</b>	<b>85.71</b>	<b>83.33</b>	<b>2.38</b>

Table 5 shows number and percentage of Scheduled Tribes literates and illiterates by sex in urban population at the 2011 census. There is small Scheduled Tribes (ST) population in the towns of the district and in eight towns there is no Scheduled Tribe population. In Kathaura CT and Korwa CT towns which have Scheduled Tribe population, the percentage of literates is 100 percent. The gap in male and female literacy in Korwa CT town is -100 percentage points.

**TABLE 6**

**Number and percentage of main workers, marginal workers, and non-workers by sex in sultanpur district , 2011**

Sr. No.	Name of Sub-district	Persons/ Males/ Females	Total population	Main workers		Marginal workers		Total workers (main and marginal Workers)		Non workers	
				Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Musafirkhana	Persons	709816	127139	17.91	100354	14.14	227493	32.05	482323	67.95
		Males	359507	104582	29.09	63389	17.63	167971	46.72	191536	53.28
		Females	350309	22557	6.44	36965	10.55	59522	16.99	290787	83.01
2	Gauriganj	Persons	390935	67509	17.27	70527	18.04	138036	35.31	252899	64.69
		Males	196844	52683	26.76	40613	20.63	93296	47.40	103548	52.60
		Females	194091	14826	7.64	29914	15.41	44740	23.05	149351	76.95
3	Amethi	Persons	447330	85395	19.09	73289	16.38	158684	35.47	288646	64.53
		Males	223644	64720	28.94	38709	17.31	103429	46.25	120215	53.75
		Females	223686	20675	9.24	34580	15.46	55255	24.70	168431	75.30
4	Sultanpur	Persons	833355	160413	19.25	101106	12.13	261519	31.38	571836	68.62
		Males	424494	130579	30.76	62944	14.83	193523	45.59	230971	54.41
		Females	408861	29834	7.30	38162	9.33	67996	16.63	340865	83.37
5	Jaisinghpur	Persons	420611	74601	17.74	64405	15.31	139006	33.05	281605	66.95
		Males	211201	58957	27.92	36821	17.43	95778	45.35	115423	54.65
		Females	209410	15644	7.47	27584	13.17	43228	20.64	166182	79.36
6	Lambhua	Persons	471564	78474	16.64	69886	14.82	148360	31.46	323204	68.54
		Males	234774	61139	26.04	38031	16.20	99170	42.24	135604	57.76
		Females	236790	17335	7.32	31855	13.45	49190	20.77	187600	79.23
7	Kadipur	Persons	523506	97436	18.61	72098	13.77	169534	32.38	353972	67.62
		Males	264122	75655	28.64	41016	15.53	116671	44.17	147451	55.83
		Females	259384	21781	8.40	31082	11.98	52863	20.38	206521	79.62
<b>District: Sultanpur</b>		<b>Persons</b>	<b>3797117</b>	<b>690967</b>	<b>18.20</b>	<b>551665</b>	<b>14.53</b>	<b>1242632</b>	<b>32.73</b>	<b>2554485</b>	<b>67.27</b>
		<b>Males</b>	<b>1914586</b>	<b>548315</b>	<b>28.64</b>	<b>321523</b>	<b>16.79</b>	<b>869838</b>	<b>45.43</b>	<b>1044748</b>	<b>54.57</b>
		<b>Females</b>	<b>1882531</b>	<b>142652</b>	<b>7.58</b>	<b>230142</b>	<b>12.23</b>	<b>372794</b>	<b>19.80</b>	<b>1509737</b>	<b>80.20</b>

Table 6 provides the data about the number and percentage of main workers, marginal workers and non-workers by sex at tahsil level in the district as per 2011 Census. The proportion of the total workers works out to 32.73 per cent of the total population in the district. The total numbers of workers are comprised of 18.2 per cent of main workers and 14.53 per cent of marginal workers and the remaining 67.27 per cent are non-workers. Among the main workers of the district, male participation rate in the district is 28.67 per cent and 7.58 per cent of females and Male and female marginal workers account for 16.79 and 12.23 per cent respectively. When talk about total workers (main and marginal workers) among tahsils varies from 31.38 per cent in Sultanpur tahsil to 35.47 per cent in Amethi tahsil.

**TABLE 7****Number and percentage of main workers, marginal workers, non-workers by sex in Sultanpur**

Table seven shows the number or percentage of main workers, marginal workers, and non-workers by sex in Sultanpur district, census 2011. According to table, Total worker in population is 58983824, number of male worker is 40,981,558 while female worker's number is 13,002, 26. Main Workers' count is 39,337,649 and Marginal Workers count is 14, 64 6,175 while Non Workers is 112,214,097 in number. Cultivators in sultanpur district are 22,167,562; Agricultural Laborers count is 13,400,911; Workers in house hold industry 3,031, 164 while other workers count's is 15,384,187.

(iii) Workers in house hold industry					
Total Workers	Person	53,98 3,824	32.5	1,032,520	32.1
(Main and marginal) Worker and nonworker	Male	40,98 1,558	46.8	725,043	44.7
	Female	13,002, 26 6	16.5	307,477	19.3
(i) Main Workers	Person	39,337,649	23.7	679,114	21.1
	Male	34,338,260	39.2	563,227	34.7
	Female	4,999, 389	6.4	115,887	7.3
(ii) Marginal Workers	Person	14,64 6,175	8.8	353,406	11.0
	Male	6,643, 298	7.6	161,816	10.0
	Female	8,002, 877	10.2	191,590	12.0
Non -Workers	Person	112,214,097	67.5	2,182,312	67. 9
	Male	46,583,811	53.2	898,776	55.3
	Female	65,630,286	83.5	1,283,536	80.7
<b>Category of worker main and marginal</b>					
(i) Cultivators	Persons	22,167,562	41.1	429,148	41.6
	Male	17,479,887	42.7	330,213	45.5
	Female	4,687,675	36.1	98,935	32.2
(ii) Agricultural Laborers	Persons	13,400,911	24.8	338,614	32.8
	Male	8,245,599	20.1	189,083	26.1
	Female	5,155,312	39.6	149,531	48.6
(iii) Workers in house hold industry	Persons	3,031, 164	5.6	67,77 6	6.6
	Male	1,946, 545	4.7	40,215	5.5
	Female	1,084, 619	8.3	27,561	9.0
(iv) Other workers	Persons	15,384,187	28.5	196,982	19.1

	Male	13,309,527	32.5	165,532	22.8
	Female	2,074,660	16.0	31,450	10.2

## Discussion and Conclusion

This paper discussed about pattern of socio- economical migration in the district of Sultanpur, Uttar Pradesh. Consequent to the urbanization and development processes, the concomitant increase in communication and transport facilities, movement of people across state and country boundaries has become a common phenomenon in developing countries like India. However, much attention has been paid on international migration despite the notable fact that the bulk of people migrate within their own country and district. It is obviously that most internal migrants are labor migrants and a larger proportion of them migrate on temporary basis. Moreover, paper suggests that internal temporary labor migration plays an important role in household survival in several agrarian economies. A major finding that emerges from results is that temporary labor migration is predominantly a rural phenomenon, dominated by rural to urban migration and more prevalent in north Indian states. The district of Bihar, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, and Nagaland show a very high intensity of temporary labour migration. However notable regional variation is found at intra-state level and some pockets of poverty do exist in prosperous states, from where socially and economically disadvantaged groups migrate in large numbers. Rate of temporary labour migration is seven times higher than the permanent labour migration rate. Also, notable socioeconomic differentials are found between the two forms of labour mobility. Social mobility is growing rapidly in village areas for the purpose of employment. Apparently, persons belonging to poor and disadvantaged caste groups with low educational attainment have a high propensity of engaging in temporary labour migration, which is in contrast to permanent labour migration. This indicates that temporary labour migration is mainly a survival strategy in the country which is different from the phenomenon of permanent labour migration. One important characteristics of temporary labour migration is that it is more prevalent among younger age population who are skilled, which is a clear manifestation of the higher risk taking ability of young people to take decision to migrate temporarily for feeding their children and elders left at home. The major proportion of labor migrant's work in construction sector at the place of destinations, which is more prevalent among rural to urban migrants. Whereas most important job provider for rural to rural temporary migrants is agricultural sector. As agriculture sector contributes positively in GDP of country. In this paper I have discussed Decadal Population Growth in Sultanpur District, Distribution of Rural-Urban Population in Sultanpur district, Sex ratio of Sultanpur district 2011, Number of literates and illiterates in Sultanpur district, 2011, Number and percentage of scheduled tribe literates and illiterates by sex in sultanpur district, 2011 and Number and percentage of main workers, marginal workers, and non-workers by sex in sultanpur district, 2011.

It can be said that seasonality is an important aspect of labour migration in Sultanpur, which varies according to the seasonal labour requirements of rural agricultural sector as well as urban informal sector. However, one cannot say that there is a particular season at national level, when most of temporary labour migrants migrate rather, different regions have different pattern of seasonality. As this study shows that the poor households generally migrate either to augment their income or for survival. This is also evident as several household level factors are found to be critical in determining the migration decision of a household member. Overall migration is more prevalent in low-income central and north Indian states. The propensity of labour migration declines with improvement in economic condition, educational status, and social status. However, social and cultural factors are not so important in urban areas as compared to rural areas. The association of temporary labour migration with poor economic status and its high prevalence in backward states indicate that temporary labour migration is mainly a distress driven migration.

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