RURAL URBAN MIGRATION WITH REFERENCE TO RAIGAD DISTRICT

A Synopsis Submitted To The

TILAK MAHARASHTRA VIDYAPEETH, PUNE
FOR THE DEGREE OF VIDYANISANAAT (M.PHIL.)
IN THE GEOGRAPHY

UNDER THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

BY

RAMCHANDRA SUKDEV PATIL

UNDER THE GUIDANCE OF
DR. HEMANTKUMAR M. PEDNEKAR

NEHRU INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

(A POST GRADUATE & RESEARCH INSTITUTE)

MARCH-2009

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Dr. Hemantkumar M. Pednekar

Vice-Principal

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To, The Registrar,

Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth,

Vidyapeeth Bhavan, Gultekdi-Pune.

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "RURAL URBAN MIGRATION WITH REFERENCE TO RAIGAD DISTRICT" Which is being submitted herewith for the award of the Degree of Vidyanishnaat (M.Phil) in Geography of Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, Pune is the result of original research work completed by Shri RAMCHANDRA SUKDEV PATIL under my supervision and guidance to the best of my knowledge and belief the work incorporated in this thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree of similar title of this or any other University or examining body.

Dr. Hemantkumar M. Pednekar

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Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth,

Vidyapeeth Bhavan, Gultekdi-Pune.

Subject; - Submission of three copies of dissertation for the award of M.Phil

degree.

Respected Sir,

I hereby declare that the dissertation entitled "RURAL URBAN MIGRATION WITH REFERENCE TO RAIGAD DISTRICT" completed and written by me has not previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree or other similar title of this or any other University or examining body. I submitting three copies of dissertation along with 10 copies of synopsis for the award of M.Phil degree. So please accept and acknowledge the same

Ramchandra Sukdev Patil

Place: - PEN

Date:- 09/04/2009

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

INDEX

TABLES

MAPS

FIGURES

CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

Migration is defined as a permanent change of residence, at least for one year and involves crossing of administrative boundary, while circulation refers to short-term movement, repetitive or cyclical. Migration is viewed as process of population uplifting and a necessary corollary of economic development.

The migration process has been one of most dynamic human activities from the very beginning of human life. During early days people used to move from one forest to another in search of forest products. When most of the people divorced forest life and adopted civilized life, they developed relationship with domesticated animals and fertile land. As a result, mobility of mankind changed considerably. They almost left a wanderer's life and started development of settlements. Certainly at this stage also the mobility of mankind did not stop at all. In fact people continued to move from one region to another in search of fertile land for developing cultivation. Afterwards, the nature of mobility frequently changed. The people moved from early civilized area to other parts of the world, partly for agricultural purposes or for trade. When developed nations got industrialized and facilities for movement developed, rulers of some of the developed nations started colonizing other parts of the worlds. It was followed by the process of rural-urban migration and it caused growth of urbanization and industrialization. This process has been more significant in the developing nations.

The migration process involves different types of mobility: region to region, state to state, country to country, continent to continent, rural to urban, urban to urban, seasonal, temporary, permanent, etc. influenced by physical environment as well as socio-economic conditions of both the places, the place of origin and the place of destination of migrants. In almost all the developing nation's rural migration due to industrialization and urbanization has become of

considerable importance. More particularly, the developing countries having potentialities for industrialization and other development schemes have experienced considerable development in terms of industrialization and infrastructure facilities and such countries have recorded remarkable shift of working force and other people from rural areas to urban or industrial areas.

India being one of the leading developing nations has also tried to develop industries, transport network and other infrastructure facilities during a short period. As a result, industrial centers, mining centers, administrative centers and growth centers have increased in number. During pre-independence days there were only a few major urban centers and these centers were the focal points of attraction for the migrants from rural areas. For example, Kolkatta, Chennai, Mumbai, Delhi are noted for attraction of rural migrants from distant places. More particularly, Kolkatta, Mumbai and Chennai were attracting rural migrants from their hinterlands to provide job opportunities to uneducated and educated persons. These major urban centers had job opportunities for people of all grades. This is one of the reasons that there is not single village in Konkan from where at least one person has not moved to Mumbai either for job or business or for some other occupation. There are quite a large number of villages from where considerable number of people had moved to this major urban center.

The impact of Mumbai is more important. Certainly Mumbai has become a point of attraction during recent years because when labourer go to elsewhere they also become aware of the labour work at the fast growing urban center of Mumbai and some of them try to get jobs there.

Besides these major urban centers, other provincial capitals, district headquarters, industrial centers and local urban centers have also attracted rural migrants from different parts of the country. Raigad district is noted for contributing rural migrants to Mumbai. It may be due to high population pressure on land, poor economy, low living conditions and curiosity to transform socio-economic conditions. In fact, mobility of people from most of the villages of this

district to Mumbai has been responsible for transforming socio-economic conditions of most of the migrant's families. Most of the migrant's families have improved their economic conditions. This process has, to a great extent, transformed the socio-economic conditions of the people of large number of migrant families. Those families which have failed to move from rural areas to other places are not well off. In fact some of them now depend upon the help of families of the migrants.

Objectives of the study:-

1. To analyze and provide an overall scenario of ongoing trends of rural-urban migration.
2. To unfold causal links between rural-urban migrations.
3. To analyzes the causes of rural-urban migration in Raigad district.
4. To find out the co-relation between rural-urban migration and economic development.
5. To find out the variation in economic development of people who are ready to migrate and who are not ready to migrate.

Hypothesis :-

A hypothesis is tentative solution of the proposed problem, which would be tested the validity later on in study. The basic hypothesis of this study is that-:

1. In general the people are not willing to change their present situation. But some of them who are willing to migrate as to improve their economic conditions.
2. Migration and economic development are parallel concepts.
3. Generally migrants proceed only a short distance.
4. Less educated persons generally move out for short distance destination and highly educated persons even go for long distance destinations.
5. Directional pattern of migration is considerably influenced by the presence of friends and relatives at the place of destination who provide information about the job opportunities

6. Long distance migrants visit native place less frequently than short distance migrants.

Research design:-

1. The first chapter includes migration, definition, theoretical perspectives on migration, rural-urban migration and focus of the present study.
2. Second chapter deals with the study area-Raigad district.
3. Third chapter covers intra-regional variations in migration.
4. Forth chapter will scrutinize micro-level analysis of sample villages selected for the case studies from the Raigad district.
5. Fifth chapter covers conclusions, migration problems of the study regions and specific suggestions to solve them.

Methodology :–

The study is dominantly based on both primary and secondary data.

Tools of primary data: –

The present study is based upon primary and secondary data. Data concerning land use and agriculture is collected from Panchayat office. Population data is gathered from published and unpublished census records. Since migration data at village level is not available in census records, an attempt is made to gather different types of data with the help of questionnaires and schedules. For this purpose few villages is intensively surveyed. Some migrant's families from each village are interviewed and data concerning causes and consequences of migration is gathered.

Tools of secondary data:–

Secondary data was obtained from census report of India, Maharashtra, Raigad, Economic and social review of Raigad district, Gazetteer of Raigad district, Published work like research papers, documents, journals, newspapers, magazines, reports, periodicals and related reference books.

Review of literature:-

Dr. Vijay Khairkar. (2007) Migration and social Economics.

The study is deals with phases of population growth of Pune city. This is given in four phases, namely 1) Muslim Period 2) Martha Period 3) British Period and 4) Post Independence Period. Both, contribution by natural increase and migration have studied.

The author studies the origin of migrants. It tries to find out the places from where the migrants have come, including their number and percentage from districts of Maharashtra to Pune, provinces of India to Pune and countries of world to Pune. The reasons for migration and the relationship between distance and volume of migration have also been studied.

In his study the writer also expressed the pull-push factors particularly economic, social and natural factors affecting volume of migration from districts of Maharashtra of Pune and from Provinces of India to Pune.

The study also describes composition of migrant population including age, sex, literacy, education attainment, marital status and occupation structure for the four cities of Maharashtra.

The work also developed with the characteristics of migrants in the city, which was collected on the basis of first hand information, for this purpose author has taken 1000 samples of migrants according to occupational categories from the different parts of the city. This chapter deals with migrants age, family, educational attainment, marital status, reasons for migration an information about their links with original regions. Author has studied formation of linguistic enclaves by migrants in Pune. For this purpose a separate sample of 500 migrants from the different pockets of the city has been taken into consideration.

In the last stage of study the author has explained the causes of migration to Pune city which is increasing due to new trends like, globalization, liberalization, arrival of multinational companies, BPOs, IT industries, establishment of new

educational institutes. The city is developing but the haphazard growth of city poses challenges before researchers, planners, administrators and political leaders.

Dharma Vir. Migration: A Spatial Perspective. The Bist Doab region of Punjab.

Out migration from the Bist Doab has taken place not only to other areas of Punjab and other state of India but the region has also acquired the unique distinction of being a traditional area of sustained and sizeable emigration to foreign countries.

The present study was undertaken to explore the other adjustment, besides out-migration, which the human resources of the region might have made in the context of a changing socio-economic situation.

The second objective of this research was to make an in-depth analysis of the impact of migration on the Bist Doab in term of changes in the age-sex structure of its population and the size and occupational structure of the working force. The study also focused on the phenomenon of intra-regional migration from rural to urban areas, from the small a decaying towns to the large and growing urban centers, and in-migration from out side the region.

The third objective was to make a comprehensive study of the phenomenon of emigration from the Bist Doab. The region has been a continuing source of emigration to foreign countries particularly the United Kingdom, Canada, East African countries, and of late, the Gulf countries. In fact this region is one of the few interior areas in India which has recorded emigration on such a large scale. The study proposed to assess the role of the remittances in the socio-economic development of the region.

The final aim of the project was to make a detailed examination of the genesis of migration, its special inter connections, the multiplicity of pull and push factors operating the migration mechanism, and the various socio-economic changes that migration has brought about in the geographic personality of the region.

The present study is based on primary data generated through extensive field work. This study is unique and probably the first of its kind for any Indian area. In recent years a few geographic studies based on primary data have been attempted but such studies generally deal with migrants in an urban setting and cover a limited sample. The present study by comparison is exhaustive in its scope of enquiry and is based on carefully selected samples of both rural and urban population.

J.P. Singh (1981) Patterns of Rural Urban migration In India

Internal Migration in India has drawn considerable attention from practitioners of various social sciences. A wide range of issues associated with the volume, trends and patterns of the movement of population both within and between states, the adjustment of migrants at the place of destination, causes of migration, labour movement and characteristics of migrants has been discussed. However, certain gaps still exist in our knowledge of some important aspects of migration in India: A cross cultural analysis of differentials in rural-urban migration is one of the most notable ones. This work is a modest attempt to fill that gap.

An analysis of selectivity is still non-existent in India. This study, therefore concentrates on three states of the Indian union; two from the Eastern zone, Bihar and west Bengal, and one from the southern zone, Kerala, treating as three cultural regions in the country.

This study confined itself to rural to urban migration so that the analysis can be more narrowly focused.

The significance of this study, apart from some other features mentioned below, lies partly in the analysis of census statistics to reveal some interesting facts about migration differentials and the translation of macro-level data into a substantive socio logical statement which has remained neglected in India until now.

This study discusses such characteristics of rural to urban migrants as age, sex, marital status, occupation and education. Here migrants are the 'survivors' of those who have migrated to urban areas before the censuses

This study also highlights how causes of migration differ between the sexes; these differences influence the differential age characteristics of migrants by sex.

The main thrust of this work is to describe the patterns of rural to urban migrations as revealed by the migration data of the 1961 and 1971 censuses and highlight the differences in migration patterns between three Indian States- Bihar, West Bengal and Kerala.

This study duly emphasizes on the phenomenon of female migration. Sex has been taken as the principal variable through out the discussion.

This study tries to explicate patterns of rural-urban migration of one cultural region in relation to another, exhibiting contrasting features.

In general, this study has established that individuals are more mobile than families, and males are more mobile than females. Migrants, therefore, tend to keep moving between village and town in the interest of their family at the place of origin. This ultimately implies that rural-urban migration in India is not a once-and-for-all step; rather, it involves numerous 'entries' and 'exits' as in some south-east Asian countries such as Indonesia and Thailand.

This study has shown that social and economic structure characterizing a region has an important bearing on the patterns of rural-urban migration.

Sarvottam Kumar (2005) Rural male out-migration**.**

The present study is a geographical analysis of rural male out migration: case study of Bhagalpur District has been undertaken with a view to identifying and analyzing the process of out-migration from Bhagalpur district on the basis of primary data. Within this general focus, there has been an attempt to address five basic issues: 1) the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the out migrants, ii) The pattern of out-migration, iii) The linkages of out-migrants with

8

their native places, iv) The determinants of out-migration and finally, v) The impact of out-migration on the places of origin.

Rural male out migration is mainly affected by the socio-economic conditions prevailing in rural areas of developing countries. This study is designed to identify and quantify the major socio-economic conditions, which increase or decrease the migration propensity of residents in a rural area. This is a study of analysis of rural male out migration and development in Bihar in general and Bhagalpur district in particular as it includes all the three major physiographic regions of the state. Although it is primarily based on the survey of households and villages in the district, yet macro level analysis is fundamentally based on secondary sources of data for Bihar.

The objective of the study is to analyze the process of rural male out-migrations from several angles, so that it may help in understanding the problems of a backward economy as in Bihar. Moreover, the study aims at examining the quantum, as well as demographic, socio-economic aspects etc. of the rural male out-migration referring especially to the trends, patterns and determinants of rural male out-migration and the effects of rural male out-migration on the villages of Bhagalpur district.

Migration indeed yields substantial benefits to individual migrants and their households. The Migrants bring many outside influences into the rural areas by their continued linkage with their native villages. This comes through remittances, gifts, letters, and visits and finally, in many cases, return migration.

Ram Nath Singh(1989) Impact of out-migration on socio-economic conditions

The present investigation aims at analyzing various processes involved in out-migration. First of all attempts have been made to find out the causes of out-migration, It has ascertained why certain families have sent people to work elsewhere or why certain families have failed to do so. What socio-economic factors have been more forceful in motivating people to move out from the place of origin? It has also attempted to assess the differential economic development

between the migrant and non-migrant families in the study area. To what extent the process of out-migration has accelerated. The economic development in the region has also been evaluated. It has also been attempted to assess how far socio-economic conditions have been transformed by this process.

This study has attempted to highlight not those points which directly keep concern with this process and reveal changes due to out-migration. When analyzing the changes in social life emphasis has been laid on size of the family, type of the family, organization of the family, demographic attributes of family members, social status of the family, etc. Economic conditions like land share, household items, per capita income and family income, expenses incurred on food, cloth, education, social function, etc. have been duly considered. This study has also highlighted the changes which have taken place after out-migration of family members.

The present study has also attempted to analysis the factors which motivate out-migrants to keep contact with the places of origin and the places of destination; whether out-migrants lead dual life by keeping families at both the places-the place of origin and the place of destination or whether they lead bachelor's life at the place of destination and maintain families at the native place in order to maximize saving and remittance for the welfare of the family at the place of origin. Frequency of visits by out-migrants has also been taken into consideration, whether out-migrants visit their places of origin once in month or twice in a year or once in a year or frequently, or on certain festive occasions or do not like to visit their native place.

The study has also taken into consideration the socio-economic activities performed by migrants at the place of their destination.

Lastly this study has also investigated problems and consequences of out-migration and has suggested some measures for socio-economic development of the out-migrants' place of origin.

Shekhar Mukherji- The main human problem of interregional and rural-to-urban migration in the low-income countries of South and Southeast Asia is that people are mostly moving from unemployment to under-employment, form one kind of poverty to another, resulting in a colossal waste of human resources and great human misery,

David Mosse (2005) Seasonal labour migration has become an irreversible part of the livelihoods of rural adivasi communities in western India. The author examines the nature, experience and implications of such migration primarily to major urban centres for construction work. It goes on to suggest why those institutions mandated to protect vulnerable informal workers-labour departments, unions and the law- have largely failed to do so, and how in consequence adivasi migrants depend for their welfare upon agents, brokers and contractors who are also their most intimate exploiters. Finally, the article suggests how adivasi labour migrants might be supported and describes a recent initiative in this regard.

K C Zachariah (2004) - The United Arab Emirates once formed a principal destination for Indian emigrants in search of jobs. But the fear of a rapid demographic imbalance has prompted a policy shift- 'emiritisation' – which has led to a decline in numbers of unskilled and skilled emigrant workers from India In this article authors examines the state of Indian emigrant labour to the UAE, the structure and conditions of employment.

Neetha N (2004) – The article is base on a study of female domestic workers in Delhi, in this paper author highlights the primary role of women in migration and the survival of family. Women domestics are found assuming vital functions and roles in migration, the settling-down process and in the search for job. Women are seen as central in accessing and mobilizing social networks, which not only direct the course of migration, but also the survival of the migrant family in the urban milieu. Women are thus part of the migration systems and subsystems and take up numerous functions. This calls for a re-examination of the validity of the some of the widely accepted male centric analysis in the literature on migration.

Ms.Barkha Tondon (2007) –India ranks quite low among the countries of the world in the degree of urbanization, few reasons can be attributed to it – net migration from rural areas, agricultural economy, natural increase of urban population. Since the process of urbanization started in India about decade, it has not gathered enough momentum so as to enable it to absorb a significant chunk of the rural population.

D. Ramesh (2007) – This paper specifically makes some attempts to study migrant farm labourers, unskilled, skilled, non-farm labourers in the village of Mahabubnagar district of A.P. 300 Migrant labourers were selected from villages like Kosgi, Achampet and Shadnager. Information is collected from observation and interview schedules. The information is properly tabulated and analyzed.

The labour demand is not adequate to provide sufficient work to the existing rural labour force in the villages. There is thus shortage of employment opportunities and uncertainly of work. The situation has prompted some workers to shift occupations and some to shift places. It is mostly the younger males who go out of the village for work. The workers who stay behind are mostly elderly persons. Efficient and hardworking workers do not experience any difficulty in getting employment.

Amitabh Kundu (2007) –This paper analyses the pattern of migration in urban areas and its socio- economic correlates. The analysis is based on the National Sample Survey's reports. Economic deprivation is not the most critical factor for migration decisions. People migrate out of both poor and rich households, although the reasons for migration and the nature of jobs sought by them are different. Rural-urban migrants have a grater risk of being below the poverty line than the urban-urban migrants. Migration has been a definite instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping from poverty. The probability of being poor is much less among the migrants compared to the local population, in all size classes of urban centres.

Anwara Begum (1999) – Social network seems to provide the best mechanism for migrant assistance since it mediates between structural factors and individual activity particularly where the government is unable to provide the safety-net required for the majority of low-qualified migrants. The barriers to migration, that is, information, travel, entry into the job market, and maintenance of status quo are relatively cased with the help of network ties. In fact almost all migrant who have been abroad have sought the services of social network especially when crises-coping resources such as ready cash, mental and moral support, liaising with the local community are needed, and also for sending remittance

S Sundari (2005) –This paper, based on a sample study of female migrant workers in Tamil Nadu; the push and pull factors of migration and finally the role of migration as a livelihood strategy. The major push factor was lack of employment opportunities in the place of origin caused by drought and the pull factor was a favourable employment situation in the destination areas. After migration there seems to be sizeable improvement in self-employment and regular salaried jobs for women. But the concentration of women in the informal sector to the extent of 82 per cent is an indication of their disadvantaged position in the urban labour market. Weighing the gains and losses, the study concludes that migration has helped migrant households avoid hunger, starvation and death, thought it has failed to improve the economic well-being of about 43 per cent of the families, particularly the female headed households. To alleviate poverty, the government's attention should be directed toward combating movement via rural development and also improving of those who had already moved.

G Vijay (2005) –With a case study of labour in a new industrial setting in Kothur, Andhra Pradesh, and this paper seeks to address a number of questions: 1. From what context is labour migrating to Kothur? 2 What is the nature of employment opportunities in the new industrial labour market? 3 Why do the opportunities of employment and the nature of labour in Kothur represent a paradoxical trend contrary to conventional social mobility theories? 4 How can we analyse this

paradox? 5 What do new employment patterns and labour relations mean to the vulnerability of labour? 6 How dose the new labour policy address these issues?

Ravinder Kaur (2004)- Migration studies show that a non-trivial proportion of migration in low income countries, particularly in rural areas, is composed of moves by women for the purpose of marriage. Economists have tried to understand this as part of household strategies that seek to mitigate income risks and facilitate what Rozenzweig calls "consumption smoothing in an environment characterized by information costs and spatially covariant risks".

 Ranjan Basu (2001) - The present Study aims at observing the temporal variation of the population composition of Calcutta, causes of immigration and the impact of such migration on carious spheres of urban life mainly based on available data. Calcutta is a cosmopolitan city which is famous for its communal harmony and cultural exchange. Though matrimonial relations among different ethnic groups is rare. The attire, food habit and vocabulary of the Bengali speaking people have gone through gradual change over the last couple of decades under the influence of migrants from the other states of India.

Sruti Chaganti (2004) –In this paper, the author argues that the creation of cheap labour economies in the third world results in the creation of cheap labour economies in the first world. Thus wage rates are depressed all over the world, making greater profits for the capitalists. An essential precondition to the depression of wage rates, therefore, is labour migration, both interstate and international.

Rita Afsar (2000) - The study makes an innovative attempt to generate greater understanding about the rapid growth of Dhaka city. The deeply entrenched class hierarchy and offers a socio-economic analysis of the slum and non-slum households. "It is an important departure from the existing literature in a number of ways first, if used the latest and recognized sources of secondary materials and population estimates and projections. Second, it makes a thorough and broad-spectrum review of theories on determinants and consequences of migration.

Third, it attempts to supplement the destination based data with the case study of migrant's families and stayers at origin fourth, it has also combined different form of population mobility and examines critically the causes and consequences of migration for different streams of migrants.

"This study also considers the gender dimension and assesses the impact of migration in determining women's roles and status and goes on to make on institutional analysis to derive policy implications for urban management". "The book is destined to become a major reference work for town planners and those involved in urban governance"

Hamid Beladi (1996) – In this paper, a Harris- Todaro migration model is developed with the urban manufacturing sector supplying a crucial input for the rural sector. Capital is region specific but flows freely between two urban sectors final goods are traded and have exogenously fixed prices- competing manufacturing sector, employment might go down even if the protected sector is labor intensive. The paper describes how intersect oral linkages can play a significant role in determining the employment effects of a tariff.

Harris (2005) Government attitudes to migration- internal and external- have changed radically in recent years. Formerly seen as evidence of chronic social and economic breakdown, internal migration is now seen as a major mechanism for the redistribution of resources from richer to poorer localities and a vital means of raising the incomes of the poor. The same revision of view is affecting international migration. Remittance flows have become major components in the foreign exchange earnings of a number of counties. After some reluctance, governments have come to embrace emigration for work, to facilitate and reinforce its effects on the alleviation of poverty. However, there are problems in the loss of the most enterprising and best-trained workers of developing countries. Can the interests at stake- developing countries, migrants, developed countries-be reconciled? Temporary circulatory migration for the proposes of training would

seem to be the best outcome, so that migration becomes a means to enhance the human capital of developing countries for the task of reducing world poverty. There are, however, many options for developed countries without immigration- from the reform of their domestic labour markets to off-shoring. The real choice is about what sort of world we want.

CHAPTER- 2

RAIGAD DISTRICT

Historical background-

The narrow belt between the Arabian Sea and Sahyadri mountain range is known as 'Konkan'. Konkan is part of Maharashtra, located at the west coast of India; Konkan includes Mumbai, Thane, Raigad, Ratnagiri and Sindhudurg districts.

In the ancient books, there are mentions about the 'Konkan'. The Konkan was ruled by the Satwahanas in the first century, Kalchuri kings in the fourth and fifth century, Chalukya, Shilahar in the seventh century. Muslim rulers i.e. Bahamani, Adilshahi and Nijamshahi etc. ruled from 13th century to 16th century. In the beginning of the 16th century Portuguese occupied Konkan followed by British and Dutch rulers.

During Shivaji Maharaj regime, special importance was given to the Konkan and he shifted his capital place to Raigad. He built number of forts and fought with Mugals, Britishers and Portuguese.

The history of Raigad is very interesting. Raigad is known in all over India as the empire of the Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj. Raigad fort was the capital place located at Pachad near Mahad. On 1st Jan 1981 this district was renamed as Raigad, earlier it was known as 'Kolaba'.

In the 5th and 6th century Raigad was under the dominance of Mouryas. Thereafter this area was ruled by Adilshahi, Mugals, Portuguese and Habashies. In 1756, Britishers entered and kept this province under their control. In 1969, Separate Kolaba district was formed.

The History of Raigad as is available from the 'Iron Era, this area was ruled by Mourya, Satwahan, Kshlrap, Tari kutak, Kalchuri, Chalukya, Rashtrakut, Shilahar, Bahamani, Nijamshahi, Siddhi, Marathe, Angre and Britishers. It is clear from available source that the 'Buddha Culture' was deeply rooted in this

area. In 1818, when Peshwai come to an end, the Kolaba area was acquired by British Government.

During the freedom struggle, Raigad occupied a place of revolutionary activities and social reforms. In this district number of great activists like Naga Katkari, Hiware Guruji, Vasudev Balwant Phadke, Bhai Kotwal, and Nana Patil played an important role in the freedom movement. In the Quit India movement Raigad was on the front.

Acharya Vinoba Bhave could be mentioned as a last link in the chain of saintly tradition in Indian culture. He was a philosopher and social reformer. He was born on 11th Sept 1885 at Gagode (Pen) in Raigad district. Philosophical layout of non-violence and Sarvodaya are his main contributions. He was a founder of 'Bhudaan movement'. He actively participated in freedom movement. He was a commentator of 'Bhagavat-Geeta'. Vinoba Bhave is known for his famous literature 'Geetai'. In 1983, he was awarded by 'Bharatratna' after his death. Raigad district is birthplace of great men such as C.D.Deshmukh, General Arunkumar Vaidya. In the modern history of Raigad special importance is given to Murud-Janjeera, Bhor and Goa Mukti Andolan. Mahad Satyagraha (Chavdar Lake). Thus it is a place of historic importance.

Geography of Raigad-

Raigad district is spread along the Arabian Sea from $17^0 51^1$ to $19^0 8^1$ North latitudes and from $72^0 51^1$ to $73^0 40^1$ East longitudes. The extent of the Raigad district from South to North is 150 km. and along East-West is 24 to 48 km. Thane district is to the North.

Location-

Kolaba district was re-named as 'Raigad-district' from 1st January 1981. Raigad district forms part of 'Konkan plain' and has a coast-line of about 240 km. The district lies between $17^0 51^1$ and $19^0 8^1$ North latitude and $72^0 51^1$ and $73^0 40^1$ East longitude. The length of the district is about 150 km. while the breadth varies between 24 to 48 km. (Map.No.1)

RAIGAD DISTRICT
LOCATION AND BOUNDARIES

19⁰.80' North

Panvel

Karjat

Uran

Khalapur

Pen

Alibag

Sudhagad

INDEX
------- Dist. Boarder
.... Taluka Boarder
⊙ Dist. Place
○ Taluka Place

Roha

Murud

Tala Mangaon

72⁰.51'

Mahasala

Mahad

Shriwardhan

Poladpur

17⁰.51'

72⁰.51'

73⁰.40' East

INDIA

MAHARASHTRA

MAHARASHTRA District Map

RAIGAD DISTRICT

ARABIAN SEA

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Map No. 1

19

Boundaries-

Raigad district is bounded in the east partly by the foot-hill zone and partly by the water-shed of the major Sahyadrian scrap beyond which lies Pune district by boundary that is mainly an administrative. Arabian Sea is along the western boundary of Raigad district. In the south, the boundary with Ratnagiri district partly follows river Savitri. Satara district adjoins Raigad district for about 32 km. in the south east. Thane district is in the north and the Greater Bombay district lies in the north-west.

Topography-

Raigad district can be divided into three natural zones from point of topography. The coastal zone covers about 18.8% of the area of the district and comprises Alibag, Uran, Murud and Shriwardhan tahsils. It is marked by rice cultivation and plantations of coconut and betel nut in low lying areas.

The central zone covers about one third of the district area and has fertile lands in low-lying areas which are used for rice cultivation whereas ragi and wari are grown on hill slopes. The hilly zone consists of eastern parts of Karjat and Khalapur tahsils, the north east of Mangaon and Mahad tahsils and Sudhagad and Poladpur tahsils. This zone has good forests. The Sahyadrian ranges on the eastern boundary having highly uneven surface are agriculturally poor and natural vegetation is negligible. The low-lying areas in Mangaon and Mahad tahsils are fertile and due to irrigation facility two crops are taken in a year in some areas. (Map No. 2)

Hills and Rivers-

The main range of hills is the Sahyadris. Except the immediate coast-line where plain land is suitable for coconut and betel nut cultivation, the land of the district has a hilly and irregular surface.

In the north, the Matheran plateau complex of hills is quite prominent. Karnala (1,560 feet), Ratnagad (1,800 feet), Mirya dongar (1,100 feet) and

RAIGAD DISTRICT
PHYSICAL

HEIGHT IN METRES
600 AND ABOVE
300 To 600
0 To 300

Index :
District Boundary
Taluka Boundary
District Headquarters
Taluka Headquarters
Fort
Ghat
Peak
Hills/ Range

0   10   20   30
Kilometres

THANE DISTRICT
Malangagad
Bhimashankar Ghat
Tungi
Kotligad
Sawla Ghat
PANVEL
Matheran
Dhak
Karnala
KARJAT
Kusur Ghat
KHALAPUR
River Ultras
River Patalganga
Bor Ghat
PEN
River Bhogavati
ALIBAG
Underi Island
Khanderi Island
River Amba
River Amba
Sudhagad
Chaul
Rohe Creek
PALI
(SUDHAGAD)
Sarasgad
Tamhini Ghat
Avchitgad
Sargad
ROHE
River Kundalika
Linga Ghat
MURUD
Ghosalgad
Kumbha Ghat
Kawlya Ghat
Janjira
Mangad
Lingana
TALE
Talegad
MANGAON
Raigad
Shewtya Ghat
MHASALE
River Ghod
Songad
River Gandhar
River Kal
SHRI-
VARDHAN
River Savitri
Varandha Ghat
Mengalgad
MAHAD
Chandragad
River Savitri
Dhawla Ghat
Bankot Creek
POLADPUR
Par Ghat
Pratapgad
RATNAGIRI DISTRICT
SATARA DISTRICT
ARABIAN SEA
MUMBAI SUBURBAN DISTRICT
MUMBAI CITY DISTRICT
Gharapuri
URAN
Dronagiri
Panvel Creek
Dharamtar Creek

21

Sagargad (1,357 feet) are prominent elevations in the northern portion of the district. In the southern half, the Talagad, Sukely range and Mangaon range are more important hills. The famous fort of Raigad (2,851 feet) and Mangalgad are on the detached outlines of the main Sahyadris.

The main important rivers of the district are the Ulhas, the Patalganga, the Kundalika, the Amba, the Savitri, the Ghod and the Kaal, of these, the first three rivers receive the water of hydroelectric projects.

The Ulhas, after flowing for 24 km. in the northern part of the Raigad district flows into Thane district to join the sea in the Bassein creek. The river is not navigable in this district.

The Patalganga River is the next important river flowing east to west in Pen tahsil to join the Dharamtar creek. The river is navigable form Antora creek westwards after a flow of about 45 km.

The Amba River which rises in the Sahyadris about 3 km. South of Khandala has its course of about 66 km. out of this, the stream of about 38 km. from Nagothana is navigable by boats at high tides.

The Kundalika River (Roha River) is the main line of drainage of central Raigad. Out of its total length of 80 km, only 22 km. stream is navigable.

 The Savitri River passes though Poladpur and Mahad tahsils. It has a total length of about 100 km. of which last 32 km. act as a natural boundary between Raigad and Ratnagiri districts. The river is navigable at high tides for about 50 km; from Dasgaon.

The Ghod River with its tributary, the Kaal River, drains towards the east and the central parts of the district and to the north as the Kundalika valley. They meet at Mangaon and after about 18 Km. of flow & join the River Savitri

Soils-

The Sub-Soil Stratum consists of 'Deccan Trap' rock which is completely impervious to percolation, thereby causing an acute shortage of water in summer though it receives rainfall varying from 2,000 mm to 3,500 mm. in different parts.

On the hill slopes, the soil is reddish which is used for grass crops; the shell sand near the coast is suitable for plantation of coconut and betel nut. The radish brown and coffee brown soils are excellent for paddy cultivation and are capable of producing a second crop. The distribution of soil by types is

    a) Coarse grain trap original   : 35.2 percent.
    b) Late rite and lateritic soil   : 39.5 percent and
    c) Coastal alluvial and coastal saline   : 25.3 percent.

Climate-

The climate of Raigad district is typical. On the west coast with plentiful and regular seasonal rainfall, oppressive weather is experienced in hot months and high humidity's throughout the year.

Temperature is recorded only at two centers viz. Alibag and Bhira. Alibag being a coastal place, the daily and seasonal variations in temperature are not large. During the year 2001 the maximum temperature recorded at Alibag was 34.3 centigrade in the month of November and the minimum temperature recorded was 17.5 centigrade in the months of February Similarly at Bhira centre, the maximum temperature recorded during 2001 was 40.4 centigrade in the month of April and the minimum temperature was 16.1 centigrade in the month of February. The temperature of Bhira is representative of places away from sea whereas the temperature for Alibag represents that of coastal areas. At places situated in the interior, the mid days are hot except in the month of January and February and the nights are sometimes cold and chilly. The climate in May is healthy and pleasant in west Alibag and some parts of Roha and Pen tahsils. The cool climate of hill station of Matheran during summer has made it an attraction for tourists.

Rainfall-

There are sixteen weather centers in the district each one at Taluka head quarters and the additional one is at Matheran. The normal rainfall at Matheran is 3812.4 mm. which is the highest in the district, whereas the lowest normal rainfall at Uran is about 912.2mm.The normal rainfall is recorded at four centers viz.

Alibag, Uran, Shriwardhan and Murud, while for the remaining twelve centers viz. Karjat, Roha, Khalapur, Sudhagad, Mahad, Poladpur, Mangaon, Tale Matheran Mhasala Panvel and Pen record rainfall more than the average.

Area and Territorial changes-

The total Geographical area of the district is 7148 sq km (2002-03). This district consists of 1919 villages (1852 inhabited and 67 deserted) and 26 towns as per the 2001 census. As far as area is concerned, Raigad is the smallest district in Mumbai division.

Forests-

The hilly area and heavy rainfall are the two important contributory factors for development of forest in this district. However, forests are situated mostly on higher slopes and spur of these hills which are fairly scattered since lower slopes and flatter tops of the hills are invariably cultivated. Thus the Government forests are mostly relegated to the middle poorer and unfertile slopes of hills which could not be of much use to the villages.

Panvel, Pen, Karjat, Alibag and Roha are well wooded, while Mangaon, Tale and Mahad are thinly wooded. Forest area in this district was 1,622 Sq. kms, during the year 2002-03 which covers 22.69 percent of the area of the district. Teak is the most valuable species found in the district. Ain, Devdar, Kinjal and Khair are also found in the forest. Total value of major and minor forest produce obtained from forests in Raigad district amounted to Rs. 38.69 lakh in 2002-03. The table below shows the percentage of production by its type to total produce. The main market for teak is Pune and Mumbai whereas fire-wood is consumed in the district and also transported to Mumbai.

Types of Forest

Sr.No.	Types of Forest	Value in (000 Rs.) 2002-03	Percentage
1.	Timber	2242	58%
2.	Fuel	344	9%
3.	Minor forest product	1283	33%
	Total	**3869**	**100**

(Table No. 2.1)

Source: Socio-economic Review of Raigad district -2003

(Note: figures in brackets show percentages to total.)

Minerals-

So far, no notable mineral of economic importance has been discovered in the district. However, the traps are considered to be one of the best materials used as building stones, road metal and ballast and there is no dearth of the same in the district.

A very small quality of Bauxite is reported in Shriwardhan, Roha and Murud tahsils. However, these occurrences have not been examined in great details. Iron-ore of low-grade is found in the district. Ochre deposit also occurs in district. They are useful in the manufacture of paints. Building stone is found every where. Large quantities or raddish earth is found in Alibag tahsil.

There are springs of mineral water at Unhere (Sudhagad) Saave and Vadvali (both in Mahad tahsil). They are supposed to posses medicinal properties in curing skin diseases and rheumatic complaints. It is possible to develop some of these places as health resorts.

Salt is produced by direct evaporation of sea water at Uran, Sheva, Karanja, Pen and Panvel.

Population -

As per the 2001 census, the total population of Raigad district was 22, 07,929 which is 20.89 percent higher than the population of the 1991 census. Out of the total population 24.24 percent was urban and 75.76 percent rural in

2001, while in the previous census these percentages were 17.84 and 82.16 respectively. The economic classification of population as per the 2001 census shows that 912995 (41.35 percent) were workers, while in the 1991 census the number of workers were 800548 (43.87 percent).

Population (2001) census

		Population	Male	Female	Sex Ratio
Maharashtra	T	96878627	50400596	4647803	922
	R	55777647	28458677	23318970	960
	U	41100980	21941919	19159061	873
Raigad	T	2207929	1117628	1090301	976
	R	1673094	833865	839139	1006
	U	534835	283663	251172	885

(Table No. 2.2)

Source: - District Census Handbook of Raigad 2001

Population Growth (1921-2001)

Year	Population			Decadal Growth %		
	India in crore	Maharashtra in crore	Raigad	India	Maharashtra	Raigad
1921	25.13	2.08	677,586	- 3.00	- 3.00	- 5.15
1931	27.89	2.40	756,315	+ 11.00	+ 15.00	+ 11.62
1941	31.86	2.68	805,157	14.2	12.00	6.46
1951	36.10	3.20	909,083	13.3	19.25	12.91
1961	43.90	3.69	1,058,855	21.5	23.60	16.48
1971	54.80	5.04	1,263,003	24.8	27.50	19.28
1981	68.50	6.28	1,486,452	24.7	24.50	17.69
1991	84.36	7.89	1,814,628	23.5	25.50	22.08
2001	102.70	9.67	2,205,972	21.34	23.00	20.89

(Table No. 2.3)

Source: – Maharashtra State Gazetteer, Raigad District (1991) and Director of economic And Statistic. Government of Maharashtra (2002-03).

Raigad

Population Growth

Year	Population	Difference in decade	Percentage
1921	677586	- 36785	- 5.15
1931	756315	78729	11.62
1941	805157	48842	6.46
1951	909083	103926	12.91
1961	1058855	149772	16.48
1971	1263003	204148	19.28
1981	1486452	223449	17.69
1991	1814628	328176	22.08
2001	2205972	391344	20.89

(Table No. 2.4)

Source: - District census Handbook – Raigad-2001

Number of literates and literacy rate by sex

		Literate			Literacy rate (%)		
		Persons	**Male**	**Female**	**Persons**	**Male**	**Female**
Maharashtra	T	63965943	37184963	26780980	76.9	86.0	67.0
	R	33313270	19711796	13601474	70.4	81.9	58.0
	U	30652673	17473167	13179506	85.5	91.0	79.1
Raigad	T	1458324	822913	635413	70.0	86.1	67.7
	R	1055120	596315	458805	73.8	84.1	63.6
	U	403204	226598	176606	87.1	92.0	81.4

Table No.2.5

Source: - Census of India -2001, District census Handbook- Raigad-2001

Raigad

Total Population, scheduled caste and scheduled Tribes population and their proportions to total population

		Total	SC Population		ST Population	
		Population	Population	%	Population	%
Raigad	**T**	2207929	53667	2.4	269124	12.2
	R	1673094	32418	1.9	244269	14.8
	U	534835	21249	4.0	24855	4.6

(Table No.2.6)

Source: – Census of India 2001.

Raigad

Distribution of Total workers by category

		Total workers			Cultivators			Agricultural labours (%)			Workers in household Industry (%)			Others (%)		
		P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Raigad	**T**	912995	588943	325052	28.6	21.8	40.9	20.4	13.9	32.1	2.7	2.3	3.2	48.4	62.1	3.2
	R	731334	437043	294291	35.3	28.9	44.7	25	18.2	35	2.7	2.5	2.9	37.1	51.6	7.2
	U	181661	151900	30761	1.7	1.2	3.8	1.9	1.3	4.7	2.6	1.9	6.2	93.9	95.4	5.8

(Table No. 2.7)

Source: – Census of India 2001.

T – Total, R – Rural, U – Urban, P – Persons, M – Males, F – Females

Raigad

Rural – Urban population

Year	% of Rural population	% of Urban population	Number of Cities
1951	89.44	10.56	12
1961	89.92	10.08	12
1971	87.92	12.08	14
1981	85.88	14.12	16
1991	82.16	17.84	19
2001	75.76	24.24	26

(Table No. 2.8)

Source: District census Handbook -2001

Raigad

Male, Female and Destiny of Population

Year	Male	Female	Density of population/ Km^2
1981	726512	759940	208
1991	907907	916909	255
2001	1116829	1089151	309

Table No: - 2.9

Source: - District Census Handbook-Raigad 2001.

Raigad

Literacy rate (2001 Census (%))

Rural	Urban	Male	Female	Total
74.13	87.14	86.4	68.05	77.32

(Table No. 2.10)

Source: - District census Handbook- Raigad 2001.

Raigad

ST and SC population (1991 Census)

Schedule Tribe			Schedule cast			Total
Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	
25513	25486	50999	118238	115715	233956	284952

(Table No. 2.11)

Source –

    1) Government of Maharashtra, Maharashtra State, Gazetteer Raigad District 1993.

    2) Government of Maharashtra, District Socio-economic Survey District Directorate of economics and Statistics Mumbai 2002-03.

Agriculture-

The economy of Raigad district is primarily agrarian in character. Near about 50% (percent) of the population is engaged in agriculture. Agriculture has become the main occupation due to heavy rainfall. Paddy is the main crop of the district.

    a) Total Geographical Area   :   6, 87,000 hector.

    b) Area under forest   :   1, 49,000 hector.

    c) Area under crop-   :   1,74,000 hector.

Raigad is famous for rice (Basmati). Earlier Raigad was known as 'Granary of Rice' in the state. Even today Raigad produces 12 percent of the rice production of the State. Nachani, Jowar, Ragi are secondary crop tur and vaal are also grown in the area. Producation of fruits like coconut, arecanut, mango, kokam, cashew nut, watermelon, chikkus, jackfruit, guavas etc. are taken and vegetables are also grown.

Wells, lakes and rivers are the main sources of water supply. In some places, water is used for the generation of electricity. There are three powerhouses

at Bhira, Bhivpuri and Khopoli in the district. There are the hydroelectric power generation plants. Khopoli hydroelectric power generation plant was setup by the Jamshedji Tata in 1910 to provide electricity to Bombay. The latest Uran gas turbine power generation project was started in 1979.

Forest covers the $1/4^{th}$ of the geographical area of the district. There are quite few patches of forests in the mountain areas of Pen, Panvel, Karjat, Roha and Sudhagad talukas. The main forest products are Tectona grandis, Mangitera, Indica, Terminalia, Arjuna, Seraca, Cassia, Fistula, Santalum Album, Azadirachta indica, fiscus, Rumphil, Bambusa, Arundnacea etc. nearly 1604.48 sq. km. of land in Raigad is under cultivation. 248 different types of plants are found in the district. Many of these scarce plants are used for medicinal and they are found in this district only.

Fishing-

Fishing is the second largest occupation in Raigad district as seashore of 240 km. is available and nearly about 2,000 different kinds of fish are found in the region. The share of Raigad district in fish production is 78 per cent of the total fish catch of the state. 103 villages are engaged in this occupation. There is abundant marine wealth in the Arabian sea. Fish is the most important of this marine wealth; fish is the staple food of the people living in coastal area.

Surmai, Bangda, laid katri, rawas, saranga, Poplet, pedve, renvya, prawns and many types of fish, shellfish and crabs are found in the sea, prawns are in great demand from other countries. According to the recent survey 61,058 fishermen are engaged in fishing. Annual marine production rose to 45,000 metric tones, at number of fishing centers and the turnover was Rs. 47 crore. Government provides subsidy to the fishermen to build boats. The total numbers of co-operative societies are 2,594 and the membership rose to 5, 82,036.

Thus agriculture, fishing and service sector are the main sources of live-hood & 65 per cent of the total population depends upon agriculture and allied activities such as fishing.

Religious and cultural -

There are hundreds of temples in Raigad district. Kankeshwar, Mahad, Pali, Uddhar, Harihareshwar, Shivther Ghal (the place at where Samartha Ramdas Swami wrote the holy book 'Dasbodh') are some of them. Ballaleshwar-Pali, Varadvinayak-Mahad at Khalapur are two of the Ashtavinayk temples Religious minded people, pilgrims and tourist visit these places in the Holi month of Bhadrapad and every Sankashthi Chaturthi.

A newly established 'Birla Mandir' a beautiful temple of Lord Ganesh is situated at hills Revdanda near Salav.

Harihareshwar is known as 'Dakshin Kashi' where the temple of Lord Shiva is situated. All religious minded people and tourist often visit the place.

Ganpati industry of Pen is famous not only in India but also in the world. The government and co-operative banks now support this industry. Ganpatis are exported abroad from Pen, which, earn valuable foreign exchange. This industry has provided large number of employment opportunities to the people.

Raigad
Tourist places - Forts

Sr.No.	Name of forts	Place (Taluka)
1.	Kolaba	Alibag
2.	Avachitgad	Roha
3.	Karnala	Panvel
4.	Padamdurg	Janjira
5.	Sarasgad	Pali-(Sudhagad)
6.	Raigad	Mahad
7.	Lingana	Mahad
8.	Khanderi-Underi	Alibag
9.	Vishalgad	Chowk-Varsai

(Table No: - 2.12)

Raigad

Tourist places -Caves

Sr.No.	Name of Cave	Place
1.	Elephanta	Gharapuri
2.	Tale, Kuda	Mangaon
3.	Thanale	Pali
4.	Kondane	Karjat
5.	Ambivli	Karjat
6.	Gandharpale	Mahad
7.	Kol	Mahad
8	Khandsamble	Pali

(Table No. 2.13)

Raigad district has been developing as one of the important tourist centre (places) in the state of Maharashtra. A conducted tour is organized to see important places in the district. There are extensive beaches and hilly scenic places with good greenery in the district. However, in Konkan tourism is not much developed. Foreign tourists are not yet attracted due to poorly developed transport and due to lack of publicity though there are so many known and unknown places.

As the Konkan Railway already developed, it has been easier for tourist to reach remote locations having beautiful scenery.

There is good potential to develop domestic tourism as there are tourist destinations of diversified nature.

Forts – Kolaba (Alibag), Avachitgad (Rohe), Karnala (Panvel), Padmadurg (Janjira), Sarasgad (Pali), Raigad (Mahad), Lingana (Mahad), Khanderi-Underi (Alibag), Vishalgad (Chowk near Varsai) etc.

Beaches- Alibag, Varsoli, Sasawane, Revdanda, Nagaon, Akshi, Mandva, Kihim, Murud, Harihareshwar, Shriwardhan, Diveagar kashid, etc.

Hill Station- Matheran.

Caves- Elephanta Caves (Gharapuri 100 km from Gateway of India, Mumbai), Tale, Kuda (Mangaon), Thanale (Pali), Kondane (Karjat), Aambivili (Karjat), Gandharpale Caves (Mahad), Kol Caves (Mahad), Khandsamble (Pali), etc.

Hot Spring- Unhere (Pali).

Bird Sanctuary- Karnala (Panvel).

Infrastructure –

Industries prefer Raigad district due to its location advantage. It takes four hours by road from Mumbai, the capital city of Maharashtra to reach Raigad though the climate is moist, it is generally healthy. Chemical, engineering, iron product industries are predominant followed by consumer goods industries.

Raigad district is under the jurisdiction of collector of Raigad- Four subdivisions- Alibag, Panvel, Mahad, and Mangaon were formed for administrative convenience. These subdivisions are under control of the collector of Raigad.

Transport and communication –

Transportation is of the vital factors in the process of development of Industries. During the last two decades Raigad district had received much attention towards the development of transportation and communication facilities.

A district is just adjoining district to Mumbai and there are number of industrial towns and urban centre well served with road as well as railway transport;

There are two national highways

Mumbai – Goa (NH-17)

Mumbai- Pune- Bangalore (NH-04), and Mumbai- Pune Express highway which passes through the district. The present situation regarding the road length in Raigad is given in the table.

Raigad

Road length (March 2006)

Sr.No.	Different Classes of road	Km
1.	National highways	232
2.	State highways	1178
3.	Major District roads	511
4.	Other district roads	652
5.	Village roads	2030
	Grand Total	**4854**

(Table No. 2.14)

Source – District socio-economic survey 2005-06

At present there are four railway lines (299 Km) passing through the district. They are –

1) Mumbai-Pune

2) The Konkan Railway.

3) Panvel-Uran railway line is used for transport of goods.

4) Vadkhal-Thal railway line is used for transporting chemical fertilizers from Rashtriya chemicals Fertilizers (RCF)

5) Local trains now play from Mumbai-Panvel and Mumbai-Pune via Karjat.

Total length of railway lines in the district is 299 kms. Industrial development is taking place in the district due to the Konkan railway, which runs along the coast of Raigad district started on 16th November 1996. Central railway connecting northern and southern part of India runs through eastern part of the district.

The district has got 240 km of coast line and one major port for the development of sea transport by streamer and by power driven boats, except one all these ports are seasonal. Shriwardhan, Revdanda, Janjira, Karanje, Mora,

Mandva, Revas and J.N.P.T (a big port) are the important ports, which are along the route coastal shipping vessels that sail from Mumbai southwards.

The coastal trade includes fish, Mango, Salt, Sand, wood, food grains etc.

Communication -

STD/ISD service is available in the entire Raigad district. Alibag GPO and other taluka post offices offer fax services to the public. Speed post facilities are available from GPO and talukas post offices. At Present there are 438 post offices and 44 telegram offices.

Today 95.38 per cent villages are connected with telephones. The telephone network is rapidly expanding in the district. At present there are 20 telephone exchange centers and 1, 29,164 telephone holders. 66 percent exchange centers are directly interconnected with advanced equipments and there is a direct dialing service to all over India. The first advanced C-DOT-MAX (X4) electronic exchange center was setup at Alibag. Telex service is also available in the district. There are lakhs of mobile phone holders. In the district Bharat Sanchar Nigam has given 6491 internet connections to the customers. There are 21 internet café in the district.

Educational facilities –

Raigad district is also well known for education. The renowned Raigad Military School is at Lonere. There are two central schools, 2412 Pre-primary, 2753 Primary, 282 Secondary, 74 Higher Secondary Schools, 71 Junior Colleges, 78 Senior Colleges, 2 B. Ed College, 18 ITI centers, 03 Polytechnic College, and 01 Technical University in the district. Various Management courses are conducted in Senior College (D.B.M., D.C.M., B.C.S., etc.) These courses, degrees and ITI provide an additional infrastructure to growing industrial section.

Raigad district has also to his credit an Ayurvedic (BAMS) College, one government polytechnic college, and college of Engineering (03).

The first law college was started under the leadership (stewardship) of Advocate D.N.Patil (Ex MLA).

Mahila Mahavidyalaya at Pezari is affiliated to Mumbai University is another feather in its cap.

Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeet, Yashwantrao Chavan Mukt Vidyapeet (YCMOU), SNDT University are working for the noble cause of spreading distance education in the district. As a result of increased educational facilities the literacy rate has risen to 77.32 per cent.

Banking -

There are 297 branches of 20 commercial banks and 101 branches of co-operative banks providing banking facilities to the people. Banking facility made available to 135 towns and villages. There are 05 branches of LIC and 2,860 co-operative credit societies in the district. The Per Capita Income of Raigad district at current prices is Rs. 2, 72,289.

Health facilities –

The medical facilities have also increased. In 2002, there were 16 hospitals, 12 dispensaries, 07 maternity hospitals, and 53 primary health centers in the district. 221 doctors and 495 sisters were working in providing medical facilities. 1005 beds were made available. Considering the vastness of the health problem these facilities are meager. In spite of these many more private medical facilities are made available to the people.

Electricity Supply –

Since 1947, Bhivpuri, Khopoli and Bhira are three important electricity generating units playing an important role to meet the increasing demand for electricity. Over the past five decades there has been a massive increase in installed electricity generating capacity in the district.

Similarly, irrigation facilities in the district have increased raising irrigated area. In this regard Kaal project. (Tal. Rohe) Amba Valley medium project (Tal. Rohe) and Hetwane medium Project (Tal. Pen) have played an important role and contributing to the historical development of district.

The need of electricity is met by the following power generation companies, which have located their plants in different parts of the district.

Raigad

Power Generation Plants

Place	Taluka	Power generating co./ Power transmitting co.	Power Generated/ Transmission Capacity
Tailrace	Mangaon	M.S.E.B.	2 set x 40 Mw = 80 Mw
Uran	Uran	M.S.E.B.(Gas Turbine)	4x60 Mw = 240 Mw
Uran	Uran	M.S.E.B.(Gas Turbine)	4x180 Mw = 720 Mw
Bhivprui	Karjat	Tata	6x12 = 72 Mw
Khopoli	Khalapur	Tata	6x12 = 72 Mw
Bhira	Mangaon	Tata	3x25+3x25 = 150 Mw
Bhira	Mangaon	Tata (pump)	1x150 Mw = 150 Mw

(Table No. 2.15)

Raigad

Captive Power Generation Plants

Sr.No.	Name of Captive Generation co.	Power Generated
1.	R.C.F.Ltd, Thal Tal-Alibag	30 Mw
2.	Reliance, Patalganga, Khalapur	12.3 Mw
3.	Hainlera, Wanivali, Khalapur	17.87 Mw
4.	IPCL Nagothane, Rohe	85 Mw

(Table No. 2.16)

Source: – DIC Report (1999-00 to 2004-05) Industrial Development of Raigad District.

Thus, due to these infrastructures, good climatic condition and convenient location Raigad district has been selected as a growth center. After 1960, Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation occupied vast area consisting of 893 hectors of land at Taloja for industrial development in pursuance of its industrial dispersal (location) policy announced in 1962.

Further, impetus to industrial growth of Raigad district was received when other industrial estates and colonies were established to develop Raigad district as growth center.

Thus, Raigad district appeared on the industrial map of Maharashtra, especially after 1960. Details of the industrial areas in Raigad are as follows.

Industrial Raigad district –

Raigad District as an Industrial Centre at a Glance (Alibag – District Headquarter)

* Location – : 100 to 200 Km by road from Mumbai.
* Total land area – : 7152 Sq. Km.
* MIDC area – : 3935.308 hector.
* Roha (1963) – : 244.590 hector.
* Patalganga and additional Patalganga
  (Khalapur) (1979) : 316.762 hector.
* Taloja (1968) – : 823.350 hector.
* Mahad and additional Mahad (1980) : 925.490 hector.
* Nagothane – : 622.250 hector.
* Usar – : 238.400 hector.
* Vilebhagad – : 764.160 hector.

RAIGAD DISTRICT
MAIN ROADS AND RAILWAYS

To Kalyan

Thane

Taloje

Neral

To Mumbai

PANVEL

Nhava Sheva
Port

Matheran

Gharapuri

Bhivpuri

More

Chauk

KARJAT

URAN

Rasayani
Apte

Palasdari

Karanje

KHALAPUR

Mahad

Mandve

Revas

Khopoli
Bor Ghat

Underi

Thal
Vayshet

PEN

Khanderi

Dharamtar

Wadkhal

To Pune

ALIBAG

Jambhulpada

Revdanda

Nagothane

PALI

Tamhini Ghat

Borli

To Pune

ROHE

Kolad

Bhira

Nandgaon

Vile

MURUD

Rajpuri

TALE

Indapur

Nijampur

Raigad

Dighi

Pachad

MANGAON

Borli- Panchatan

Goregaon

Varandha Ghat

MHASALE

Dasgaon

Pale

To Bhor

SHRIVARDHAN

MAHAD

Karanjadi

POLADPUR

To Mahabaleshwar

Vinhere

To Khed

To Goa

ARABIAN SEA

N

Index :

National Highways

Main Roads

Railways

District Headquarters

Taluka Headquarters

Town   Ghat

EXPRESSWAY

0   10   20
Kilometres

The territorial waters of India extends into the sea to a distance of twelve nautical miles measured from the appropriate base line.

40

CHAPTER – 3

INTRA-REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN MIGRANTS OF RAIGAD

3.1 Selection of Indicators of Migration -

In order to analyse the intra-regional variations in migration, the tahsil was chosen as the unit of analysis. In the present study four demographic indicators have been chosen; they are growth rate, sex-ratio, percentage of female workers and dependency ratio (ratio of non-workers to workers).

Normally population of any region increases with the passage of time; hence under normal conditions the growth rate of population in a region tends to be positive. In abnormal conditions such as wars, epidemics or natural catastrophes like earthquakes, cyclones etc. growth rate tends to decline. Since there is no evidence of such causes in Raigad, the low growth rate is attributable to out-migration. Migration is generally a sex-selective process and females are less likely to move out of the village; large scale female migration is mainly related to marriage migration. With the exception of movements due to marriage, migration from rural India is generally male selective and this affects the sex-ratio of the source area. When the young adult males move out of the village, females in that village normally undertake some work in order to supplement the remittances received from the migrant. Hence a high participation of females in work characterizes out-migration areas. The dependency ratio (ratio of non-workers to workers) is also a good indicator of out-migration, as most of the migrants are workers and the village is hence depleted of active persons and has a relatively high proportion of persons in the dependent age groups i.e. children and old persons.

The above mentioned four indicators were hence studied for each tahsil in the study area in order to identify the spatial patterns, if any. The study was carried

out for three time periods i.e. 1981, 1991 and 2001; this has enabled to analyse the temporal variations. Base maps for these years were compiled from the census maps.

3.2 Preparation of Base-maps -

Prior to 1981, the district census handbooks of Maharashtra indicated locations of different villages by dots on the taluka maps. It was only in 1981 that the Census authorities published detailed maps showing village boundaries. The maps for different talukas were on different scales; hence the photo-copying and enlargement method was used to bring the maps to the same scale. The 2001 base map is used for analysis of the data of 1991 as the number of tahsil in Raigad changed between the decadal years. The number of tahsils in the study region which were 14 in 1991 increased to 15 in 2001.

3.3 Growth-rate of Population –

The study area has consistently recorded low growth rates; this is particularly apparent in the context of the growth rates of Maharashtra and India (Table 3.1).

Raigad

Growth rates of Population

(Compared to State & National figures)

Region	Growth-rate of Population		
	1971-81	**1981-91**	**1991-2001**
Raigad	17.69	22.76	20.89
Maharashtra	24.54	25.73	22.57
India	25.00	23.86	21.34

(Table 3.1)

Source: Census Handbooks – Raigad, Maharashtra and India, 1981, 1991 & 2001.
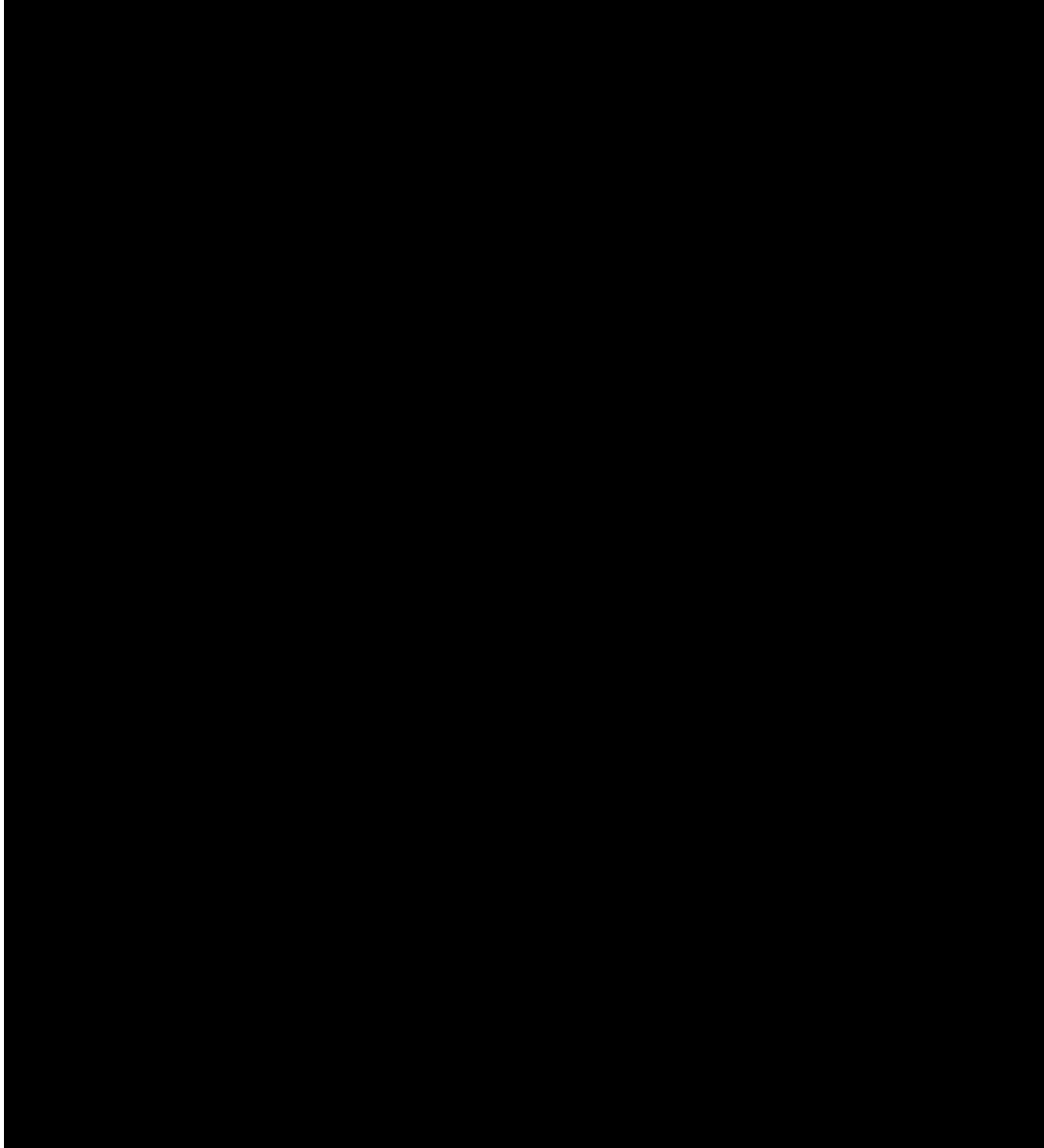
(Fig.3.1)

Raigad

Tahsils Categorized according to their Growth-rates

Growth rate of population (%)	Name of the Tahsils		
	1971-81	**1981-91**	**1991-2001**
More than 40	-	Khalapur	Panvel
35 to 40	Panvel, Khalapur	Panvel	-
30 to 35	-	Sudhagad	Uran
25 to 30	Uran	Roha	Khalapur
20 to 25	-	Pen	-
15 to 20	Karjat, Pen, Roha, Mhasla	Uran, Karjat, Mangaon, Murud	Alibag, Karjat, Pen, Roha,
10 to 15	Alibag, Shrivardhan	Alibag, Mahad, Mhasla, Shrivardhan	Mahad, Murud.
05 to 10	Mangaon, Mahad, Poladpur, Murud	Poladpur	Mangaon, Mhasala, Shrivardhan, Tala
0 to 05	Sudhagad	-	Sudhagad
-05 to 0	-	-	Poladpur

(Table 3.2)

Source: District Census Handbooks – Raigad – 1981, 1991 and 2001

Raigad
Growth Rate
1971-81

Fig.No. 3.2 (a)

Raigad
Growth Rate
1981-1991

A
R
A
B
I
A
N

S
E
A

P
U
N
E

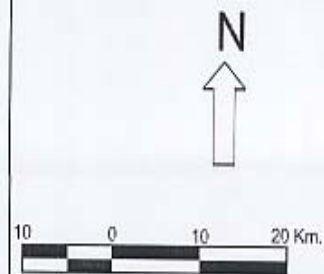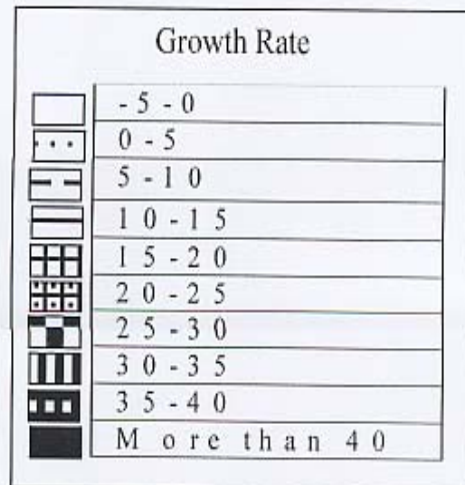|	Growth Rate
	- 5 - 0
	0 - 5
	5 - 1 0
	1 0 - 1 5
	1 5 - 2 0
	2 0 - 2 5
	2 5 - 3 0
	3 0 - 3 5
	3 5 - 4 0
	M o r e t h a n 4 0

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3. 2 (b)

46
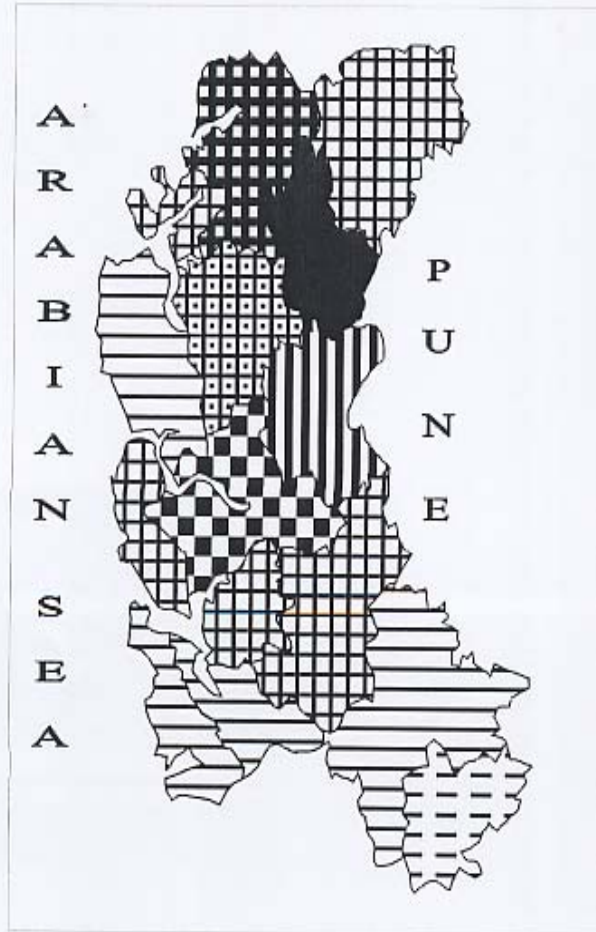
Raigad
Growth Rate
1991-2001

A
R
A
B
I
A
N

S
E
A

P
U
N
E

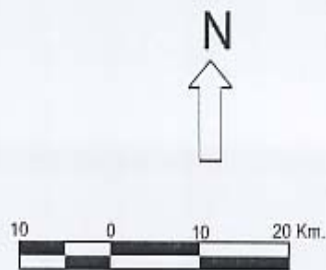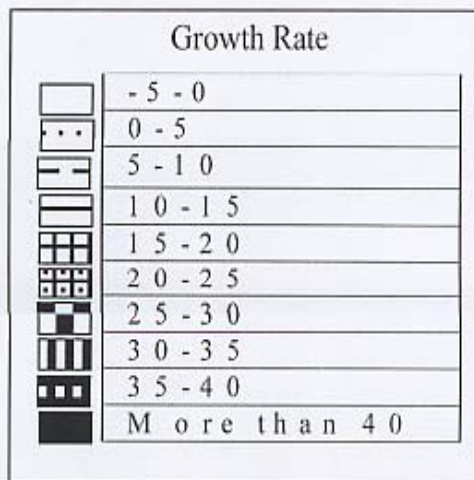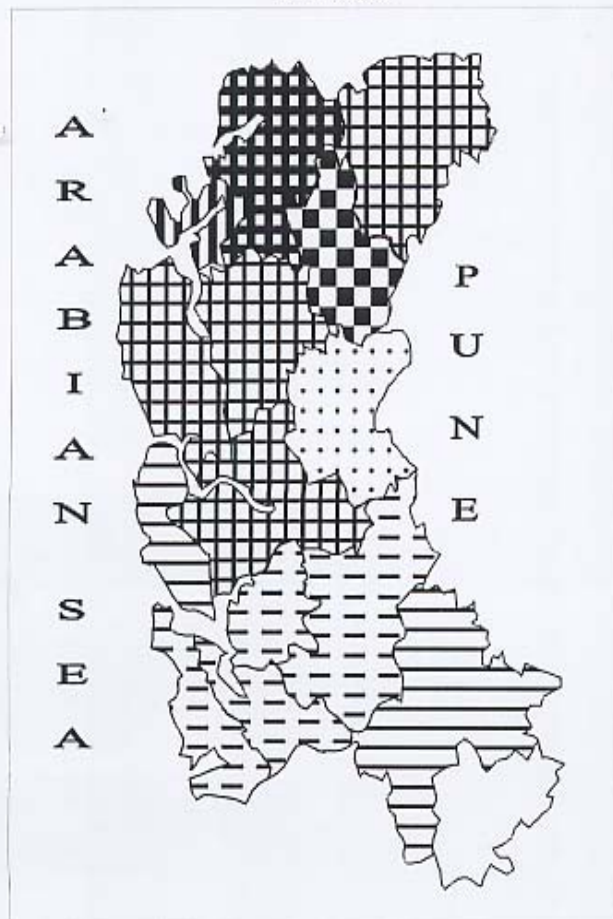| Growth Rate	
	- 5 - 0
	0 - 5
	5 - 1 0
	1 0 - 1 5
	1 5 - 2 0
	2 0 - 2 5
	2 5 - 3 0
	3 0 - 3 5
	3 5 - 4 0
	M o r e t h a n 4 0

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3. 2 (c)

Within the district there are significant differences in the growth rates. In 1991-2001, a large number of the tahsils had stagnant growth rates ranging from 0 to 15% and only one tahsil (Panvel) showed a significant growth (Table 3.2). It is noteworthy that about 11 tahsils out of 15 declined in population in the decade. In terms of the spatial pattern, it is evident that the small pockets of high growth rates are generally located near the major route ways; for example the main Mumbai-Goa highway, Mumbai-Pune Express highway and the feeder routes connecting the highway to Desh. High growth rates are found in the extreme north part of the district. It is interesting to note that the coastal areas were characterized by low growth rates with pockets of negative growth rate near the ports and other locations (such as bus termini) which have direct transport links. The large pocket of low growth rate near Poladpur thasil is quite conspicuous.

There is a phenomenal increase in the number of tahsils which had experienced a decrease in population. There is no distinct pattern and pockets of high and low growth rates are found in different parts of the area. However, relatively higher growth rates are more noticeable in the northern part while in the south the pockets of high growth rate appear to have become less prominent due to their scattered nature and smaller areal extent.

3.4 Sex-Ratio –

The sex ratios of the study area are distinctly higher than the state and national figures (Table 3.3) In fact in Maharashtra; it is one of the districts having the highest sex-ratio.

Raigad

Sex-Ratio

(Compared to State and National Figures, 1981-2001)

Region	Sex-Ratio (females per 1000 males)		
	1981	**1991**	**2001**
Raigad	1046	1010	975
Maharashtra	937	934	922
India	933	927	933

(Table 3.3.)

Source : Census Handbooks – Raigad, Maharashtra & India, 1981,1991 and 2001
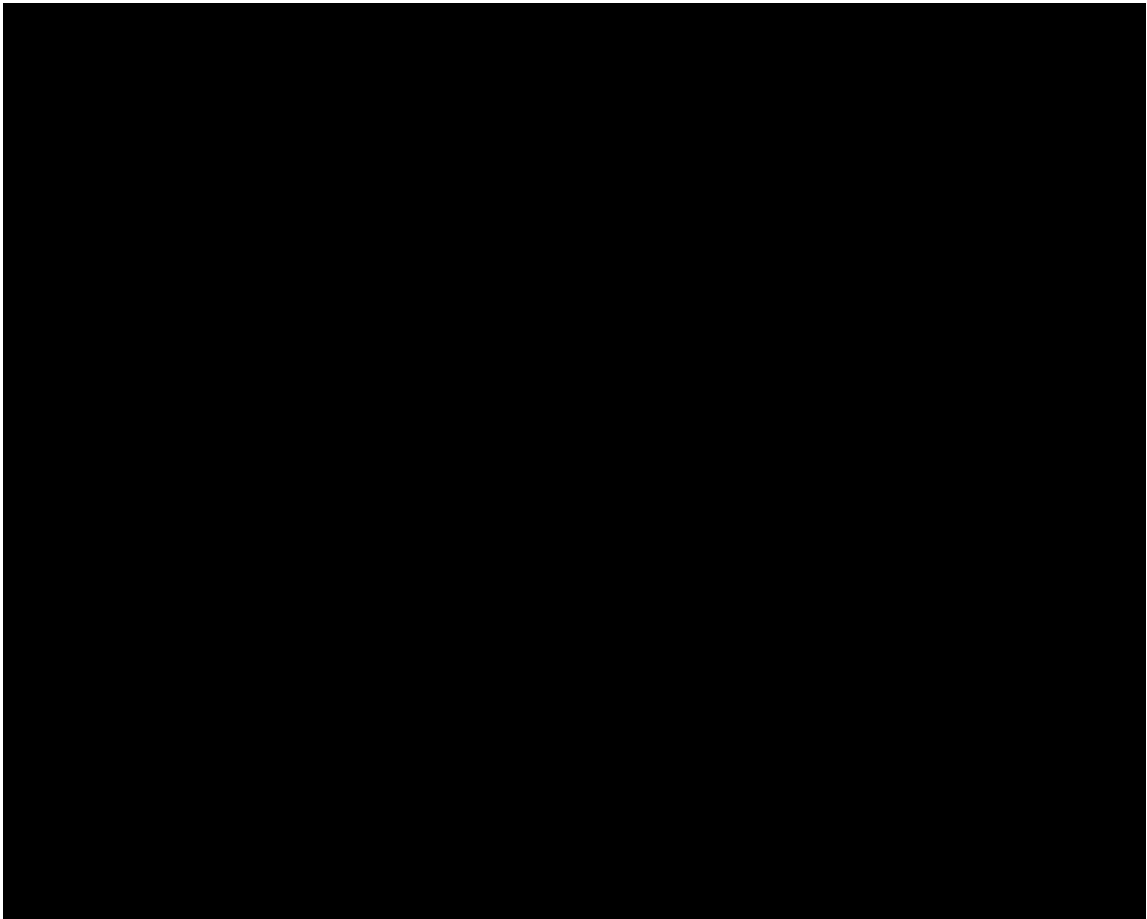
(Fig. No. 3.3)

Sex-Ratio of Raigad and Maharashtra
(1901-2001)

Year	Sex-Ratio (Females per 1000 males)	
	Raigad	Maharashtra
1901	1000	978
1911	1023	966
1921	1028	950
1931	1009	947
1941	1036	949
1951	1040	941
1961	1058	936
1971	1056	930
1981	1046	937
1991	1010	934
2001	975	922

(Table 3.4)

Source: District Census-Handbook-1991.

From 1901 to 2001 though the sex-ratio fluctuated, generally there was trend of increase in contrast to the state figure where there was decreasing trend up to the 1951. (Table 3.4) The increase of sex-ratio in the area lends support to the argument that males dominate out-migration, perhaps for better employment opportunities, is the main cause for the low growth rate and increasing predominance of females.
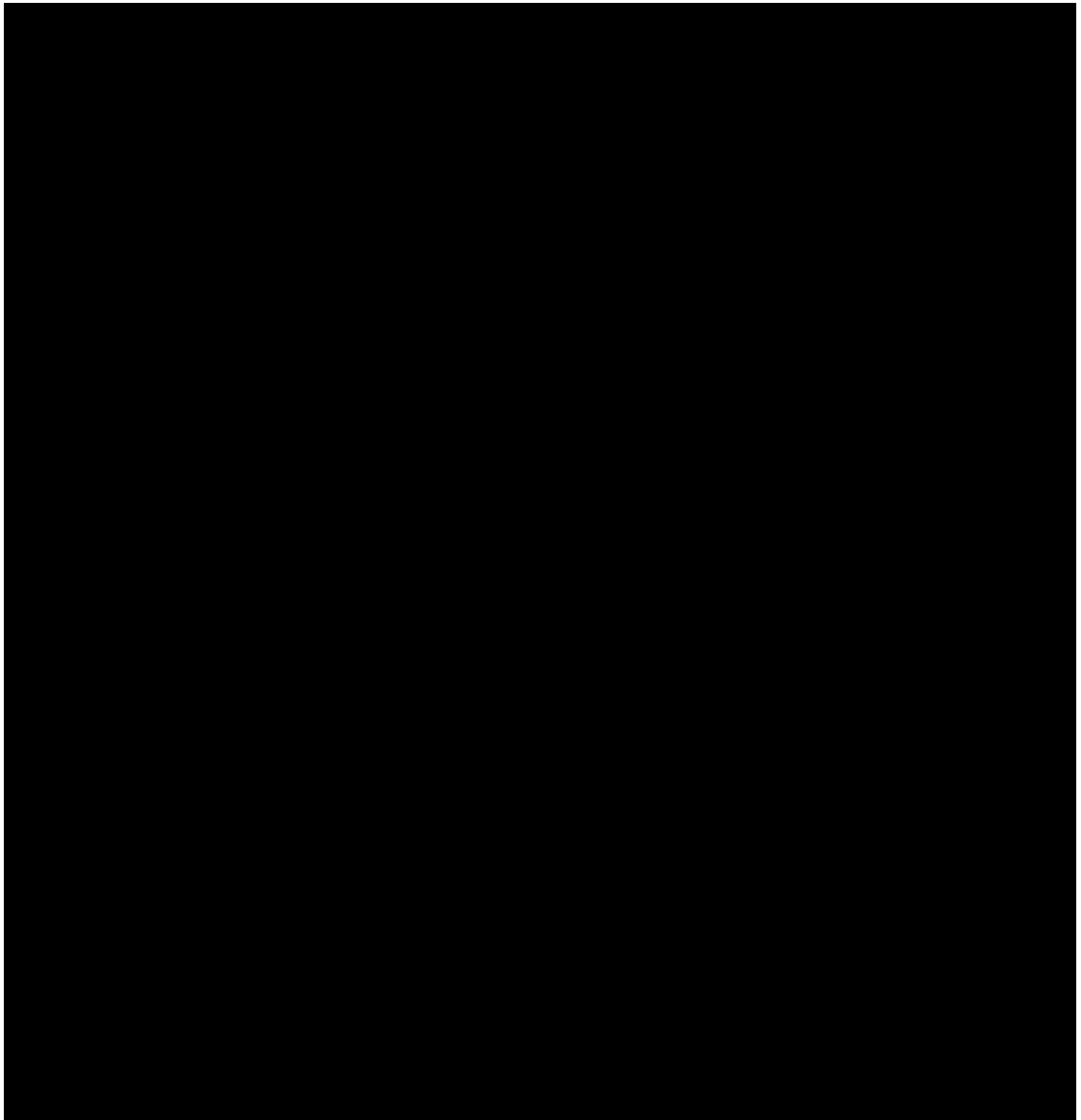
(Fig 3.4)

Raigad

Tahsils classified on the basis of Sex-Ratio

Sex-Ratio (Females per 1000 males)	Name of the Tahsils		
	1981	1991	2001
Less than 900		Khalapur	Panvel, Khalapur
900-950	Uran, Panvel, Karjat, Khalapur	Panvel, Uran, Karjat	Uran, Karjat, Pen
950-1000	Roha	Pen,Sudhagad, Roha	Alibag, Sudhagad, Roha
1000-1050	Alibag, Pen, Sudhagad	Alibag	-
1050-1100	-	Murud	Mangaon, Mahad, Murud
1100-1150	Murud	Mahad, Mangaon	-
1150-1200	Mangaon, Mahad	Poladpur, Shrivardhan	Poladpur, Shrivardhan
1200-1250	Shrivardhan		
1250-1300	Poladpur	Mhasla	Mhasala, Tala
1300-1350	Mhasla	-	-

(Table 3.5)

Source: District Census Handbooks-Raigad, 1981, 1991 and 2001.

In 2001, a large number of the tahsils (7) had sex ratios exceeding 1000 (71.5%). In fact the sex ratios of almost all the tahsils were more than the state and national figures as is evident from the fact that very few had values less than 900 (Table 3.5). Tahsils with high sex-ratio (over 1150) appear in the southern part of district with very high sex-ratio (over 1250) concentrated in the coastal area particularly in the south. Tahsils of relatively low sex-ratio are found in the northern part of the district namely Panvel, Khalapur tahsils.

Raigad
Sex Ratio
1981

Sex-Ratio

	Less than 900
	900-950
	950-1000
	1000-1050
	1050-1100
	1100-1150
	1150-1200
	1200-1250
	More than 1250

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3.5 (a)

53

Raigad
Sex Ratio
1991

A
R
A
B
I
A
N

S
E
A

P
U
N
E

Sex-Ratio

	Less than 900
	900 - 950
	950 - 1000
	1000 - 1050
	1050 - 1100
	1100 - 1150
	1150 - 1200
	1200 - 1250
	More than 1250

N

10   0   10   20 Km.
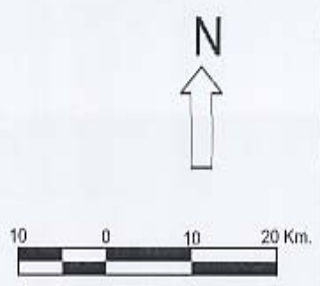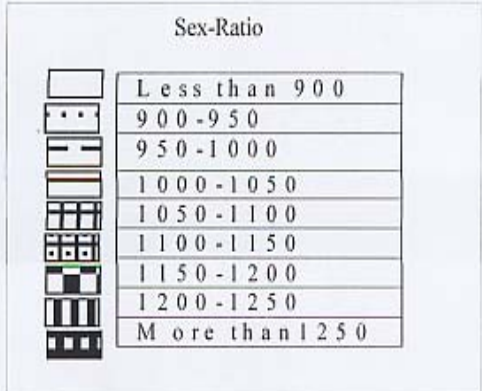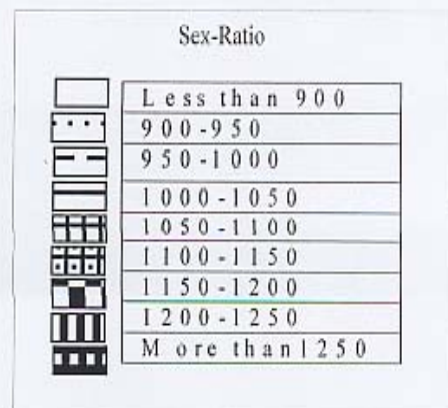
Fig.No. 3.5 (b)

Raigad
Sex Ratio
2001

ARABIAN SEA

PUNE

Sex-Ratio

	Less than 900
	900-950
	950-1000
	1000-1050
	1050-1100
	1100-1150
	1150-1200
	1200-1250
	More than 1250

N

10   0   10   20 Km.
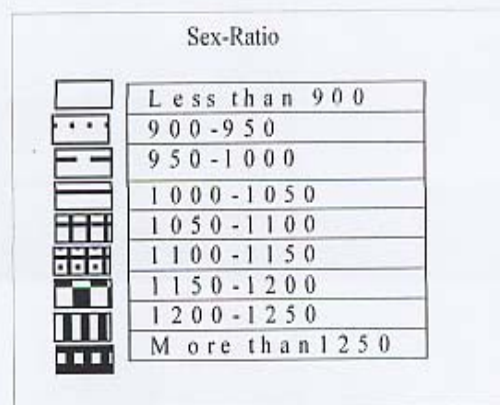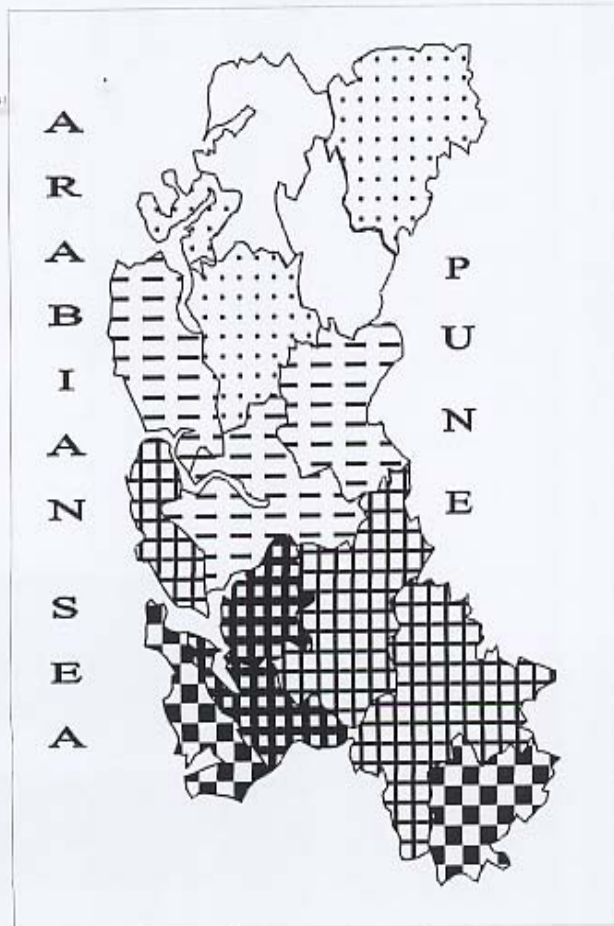
Fig.No. 3.5 (b)

3.5 Percentage of Females in Workforce -

The percentage of female workers is consistently more than the state average and there has been a continuous increase from 1981 to 2001 (Table 3.6). Rice cultivation, horticulture and related small-scale food processing industries are labour intensive and employ female workers who are available at lower wages.
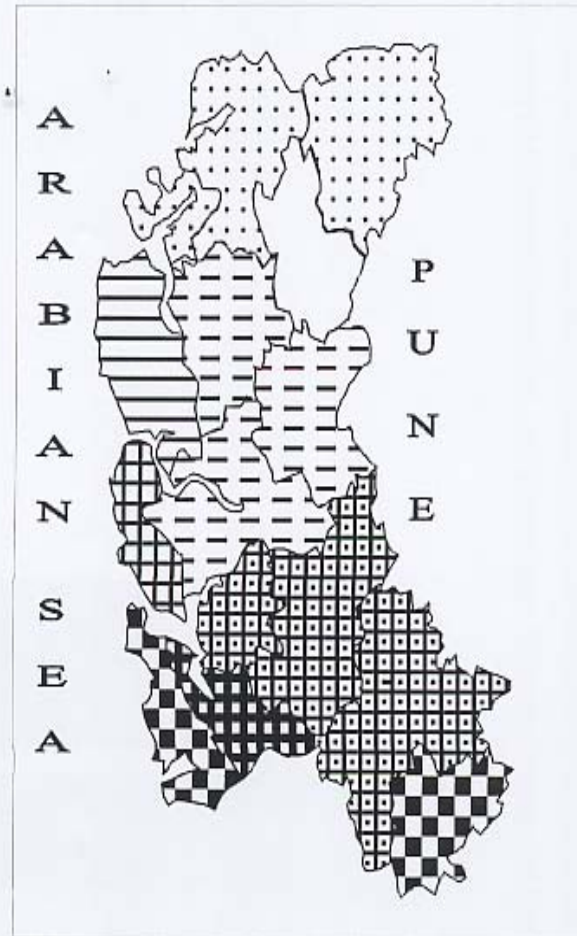
Raigad
Percentage of Females in Workforce
(Compared to State and National Figures, 1981-2001)

Region	Percentage of female workers to total workers		
	1981	**1991**	**2001**
Raigad	36.05	36.25	35.56
Maharashtra	29.96	33.11	32.59
India	20.21	31.63	25.68

(Table 3.6)

Source: Census Handbook-Raigad, Maharashtra, India, 1981, 1991 and 2001

(Fig. 3.6)

Raigad

Tahsils classified according to percentage

of females in workforce, 1981-2001.

Percentage of females in workforce	Name of the Tahsils		
	1981	**1991**	**2001**
Less than 25	Panvel, Khalapur	-	Uran, Panvel, Khalapur, Shrivardhan
25-29.9	Uran, Murud	Panvel, Khalapur, Murud	Karjat, Murud
30-34.9	Karjat, Shrivardhan	Uran, Shrivardhan	Roha, Mahad
35-39.9	Alibag,Pen,Mhasla, Sudhagad, Roha, Mangaon, Mahad	Alibag, Karjat, Mahad	Alibag, Pen, Mangaon, Mhasla
40-44.9	Poladpur	Pen, Roha, Mangaon, Mhasala	Sudhagad
More than 45	-	Sudhagad, Poladpur	Tala, Poladpur

(Table 3.7)

Source: District Census Handbooks –Raigad, 1981, 1991, 2001

In 1991, a large number of tahsils had a predominance of females in the workforce. The southern coastal tahsil stand out prominently as areas with high percentage of female workers (Fig 3.3). Percentage of females in workforce is much less in the northern part of the study area.

In 2001, though there was a slight decrease in the proportion of tahsils where females comprised 40% to 50% of the workforce, at the same time there was analysis increase in the percentage of villages in the groups of less than 25%.

Raigad
Female Workforce
1981

Female Workforce

. . . .	Less than 25
- - -	25-29.9
	30-34.9
	35-39.9
	40-44.9
	more than 45

N

10   0   10   20 Km.
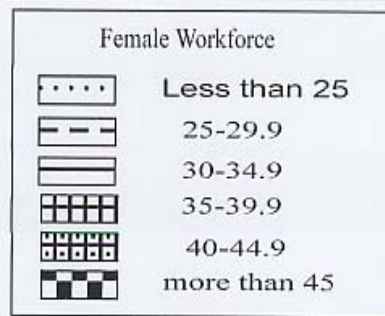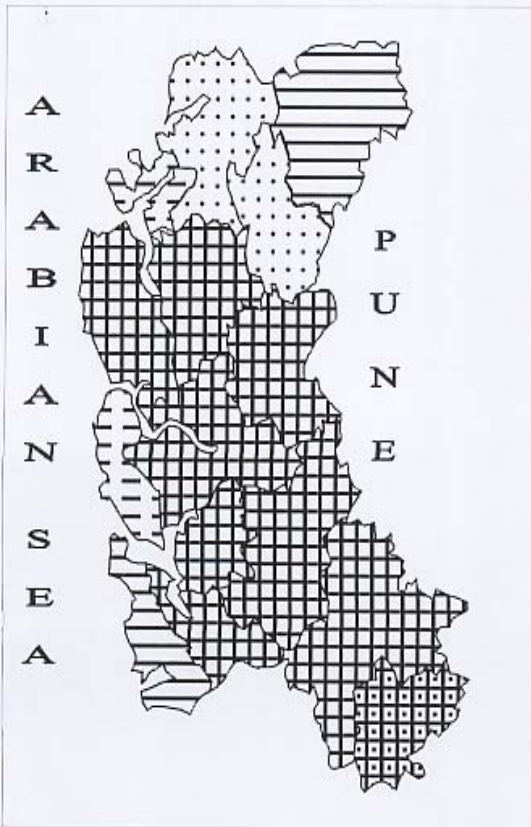
Fig.No. 3·7·(9)

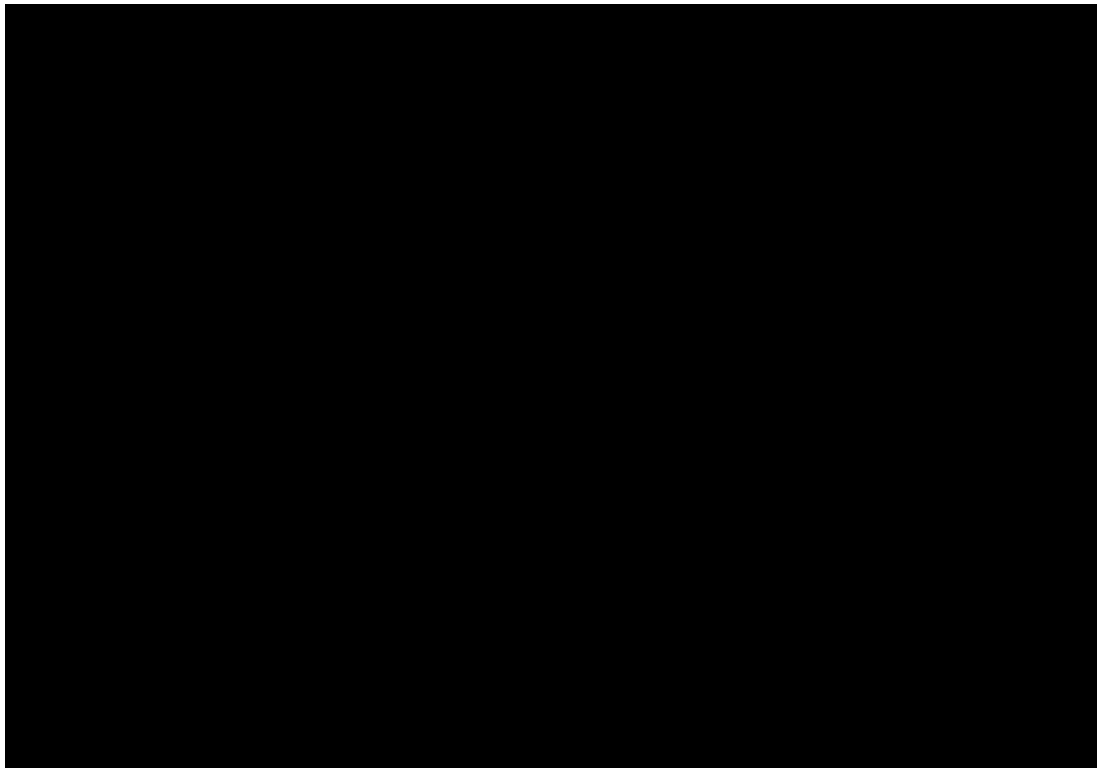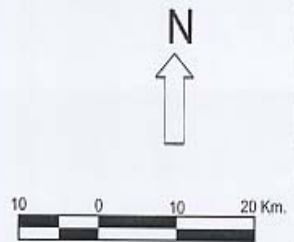Raigad
Female Workforce
1991

Fig.No. 3.7 (b)

59

Raigad
Female Workforce
2001

A
R
A
B
I
A
N
S
E
A

P
U
N
E

Female Workforce

.....	Less than 25
- - -	25-29.9
	30-34.9
▦	35-39.9
▦	40-44.9
▓	more than 45

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3.7.(c)

60
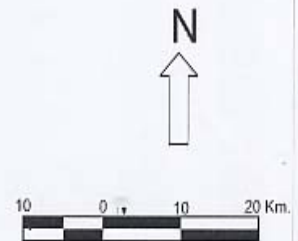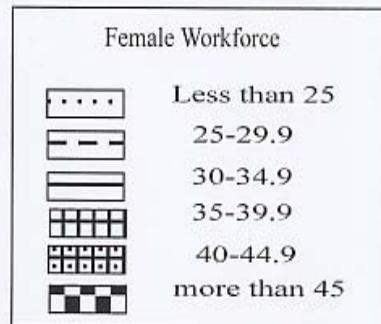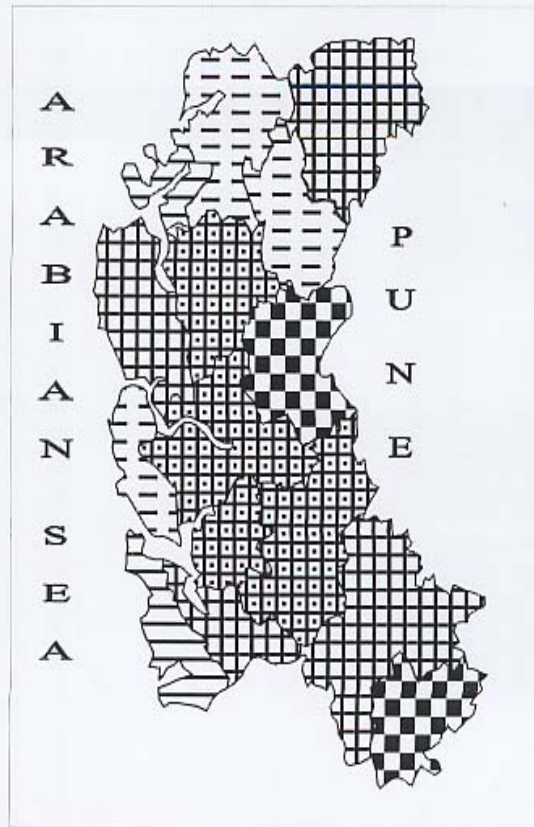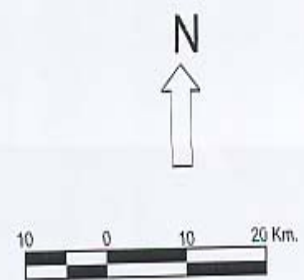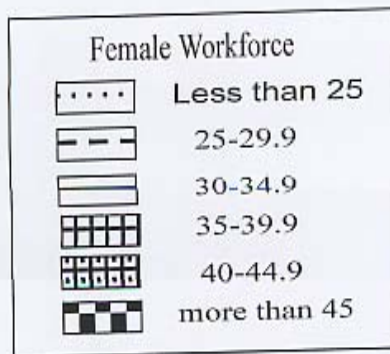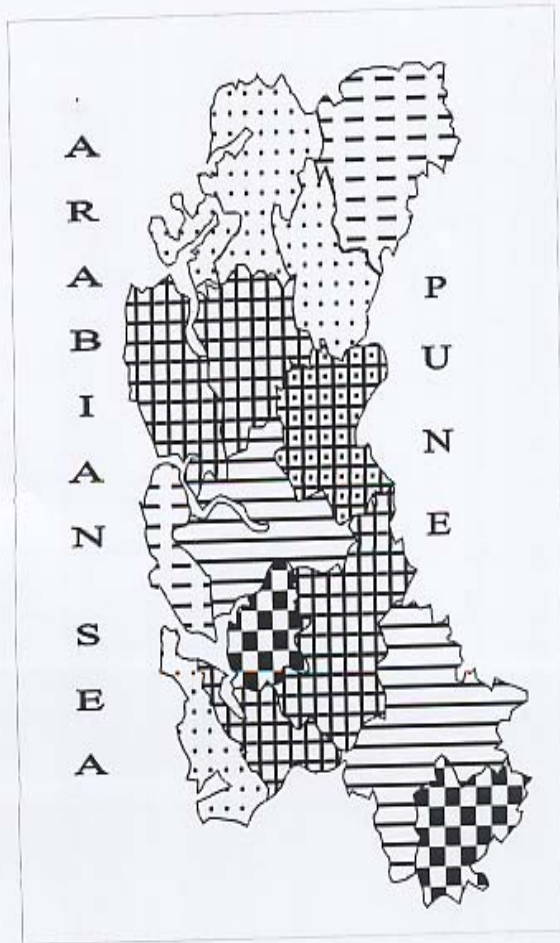
3.6 Dependency Ratio –

Raigad being an area of out-migration the relative proportion of non-workers is more than that of workers (Table 3.8). There has been some change in the definition of 'worker' from census to census, so that the proportions are not strictly comparable as in the case of the earlier indicator of percentage of females in workforce.

Raigad

Dependency Ratio

(Compared to State and National Figures, 1981-2001)

Region	Decadal variation		
	1981	**1991**	**2001**
Raigad	1.39	1.28	1.42
Maharashtra	1.48	1.33	1.35
India	1.71	1.67	1.56

(Table 3.8)

Source: Census handbooks- Raigad, Maharashtra, India 1981, 1991, 2001
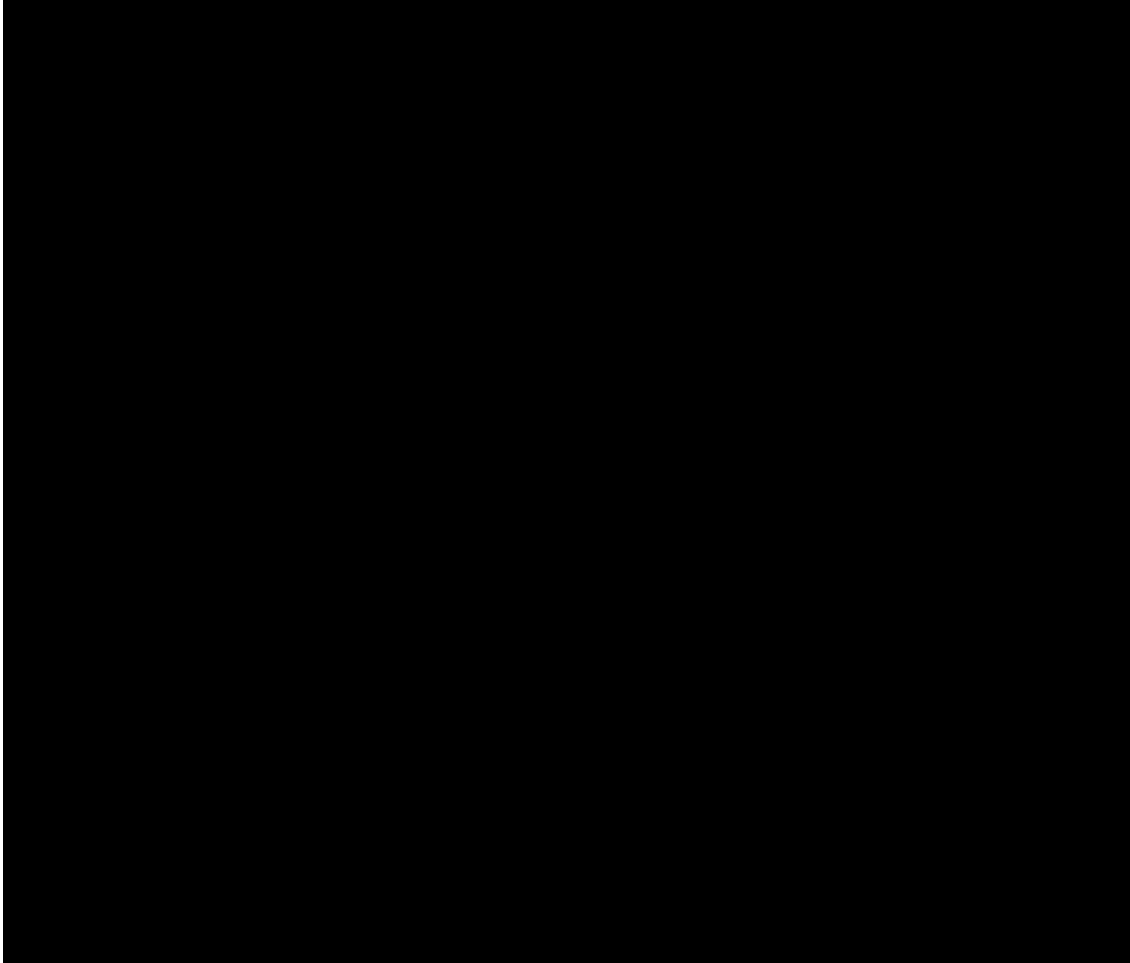
(Fig. No. 3.5)

Due to the definition of 'workers' having becoming more strict, there appear to have been drastic changes in the dependency ratio. This is very apparent when one considers the tahsils having a dependency ratio of less than one (Table 3.9)

Raigad

Tahsils classified according to Dependency Ratio

Dependency ratio (non-workers to workers)	Name of the Tahsils		
	1981	**1991**	**2001**
Less than 1	-	Sudhagad	-
1.0 to 1.20	Sudhagad, Roha	Karjat, Pen, Roha, Poladpur	Pen, Sudhagad, Poladpur, Tala
1.21 to 1.40	Alibag, Karjat, Pen, Mangaon, Poladpur	Alibag, Uran, Mangaon, Khalapur, Mahad, Mhasala	Alibag, Roha, Mangaon, Mahad
1.41 to 1.60	Uran, Panvel, Khalapur, Mahad, Mhasla, Shrivardhan	Panvel, Shrivardhan	Uran, Khalapur Karjat, Mhasla, Murud
1.61 to 1.80	Murud	Murud	Panvel
1.81 to 2.00	-	-	-
More than 2.00	-	-	Shrivardhan

(Table 3.9)

Source: District Census Handbook – Raigad- 1981, 1991, 2001

Raigad
Dependency Ratio
1981

A
R
A
B
I
A
N
S
E
A

P
U
N
E

Dependency Ratio

Less than 1

1.0-1.20

1.21-1.40

1.41-1.60

1.61-1.80

more than 1.81

N

10   0   10   20 Km.
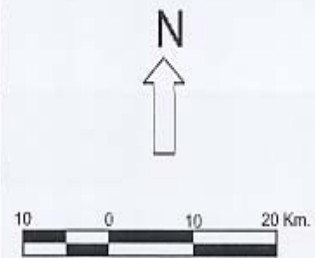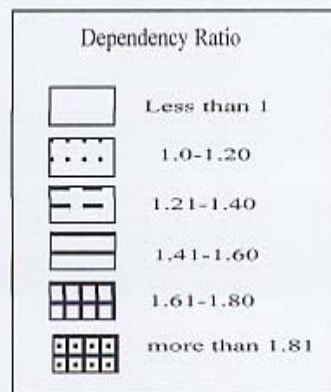
Fig.No. 3.9 (a)

Raigad
Dependency Ratio
1991
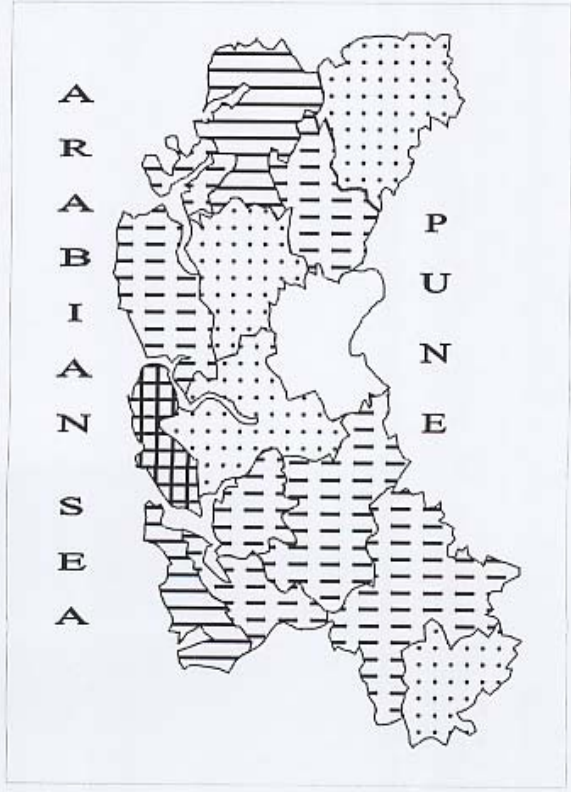
ARABIAN SEA

PUNE

Dependency Ratio

	Less than 1
	1.0-1.20
	1.21-1.40
	1.41-1.60
	1.61-1.80
	more than 1.81

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3.9 (b)

65

Raigad
Dependency Ratio
2001

A R A B I A N   S E A

P U N E

Dependency Ratio

Less than 1

1.0-1.20

1.21-1.40

1.41-1.60

1.61-1.80

more than 1.81

N

10   0   10   20 Km.

Fig.No. 3.9 (c)

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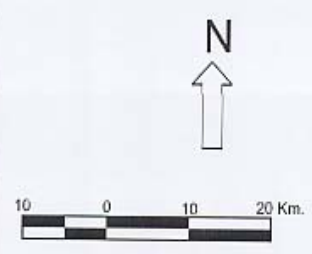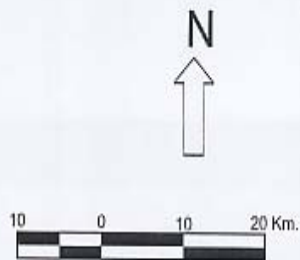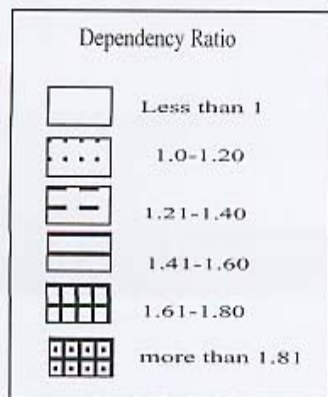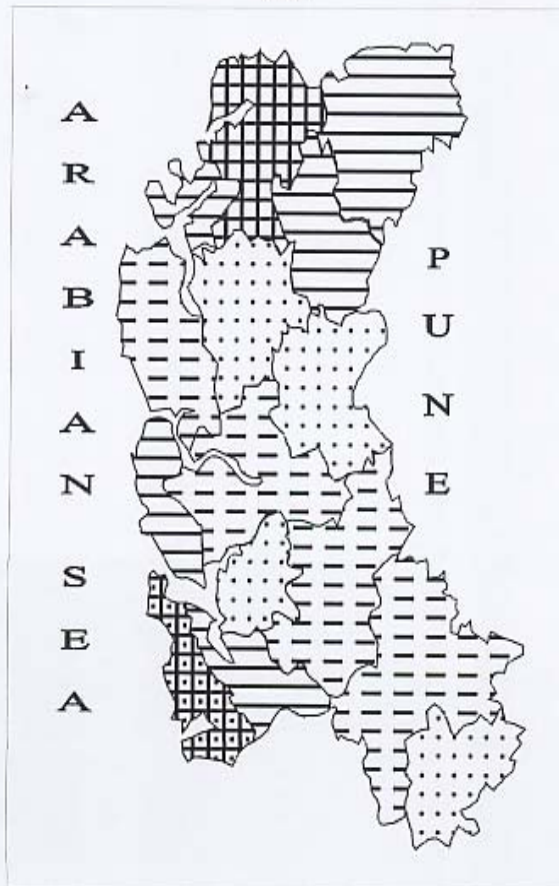
In 1991, only Sudhagad tahsil has more workers than the non-workers. In the rest of the tahsils reverse was the case and in a majority of them, the non-workers in Raigad were between 1 to 1.80.

In 2001, there was a drastic reduction in percentage of tahsils in which workers exceeded non-workers. Very high dependency ratio was recorded in 8 tahsils of district. No clear-cut spatial pattern emerges; however, southern parts of Raigad district stand out in terms of high dependency ratios.

3.7 An Evaluation of the Four Indicators –

Of the four demographic indicators discussed above, it is difficult to determine which the best indicator of migration is, since migration data is not available at the village or taluka level. However, since data on births and deaths is available for the talukas, the difference between these can be considered to give an indication of the natural increase of population in the taluka. The comparison of natural increase with the actual increase provides a method for the determination of the net migration.

Natural increase in **=** Total births, 1991-2001 – Total deaths, 1991-2001
Population, 1991-2001

Actual increase in population 1991-2001 = Population 2001 – Population 1991

If actual increase is less than natural increase the areas have experienced net out-migration, while if actual increase exceeds than natural increase the areas must have received net in-migration.

Net migration was hence calculated by using the following formula:

Relative net migration 1991-2001 $= \dfrac{\text{Actual increase of pop}^n. \ 1991\text{-}2001 - \text{Natural increase of pop}^n \ 1991\text{-}2001}{1991 \text{ Population}} \times 100$

3.8 Selection of the Sample Villages-

The political map of Raigad district was used for selection of sample villages for primary data collection. Keeping in the view constraints of time fifteen (one village from each tahasil) villages were selected: with the help of random sample method. It was decided to cover ten households in one village.

Raigad Location of Sample Villages
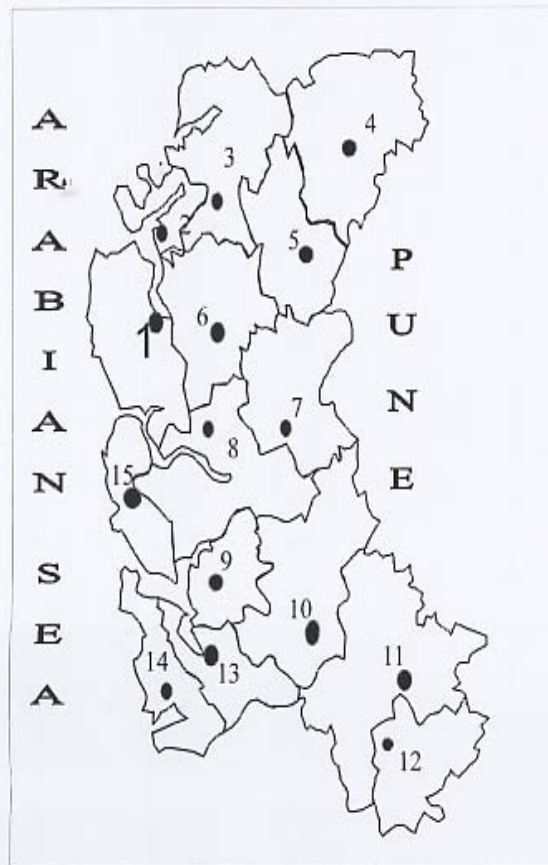
Sample Villages

1) Shahabaj
2) Kalambusare
3) Kasarbhat
4) Naldha
5) Vadval
6) Tilore
7) Adusle
8) Kadsure
9) Khairat
10) Sai
11) Kalij
12) Cholai
13) Pabhare
14) Kalinje
15) Sarve

N

Fig.No.

10   0   10   20 Km.
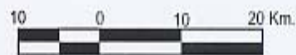
CHAPTER – 4

ANALYSIS OF SAMPLE VILLAGES

1. Occupation of the head of household:-

The Study of economic composition of population remains incomplete without its reference to the occupational composition of (head of household) population. The occupational structure of a society is the product of a number of intimately related factors. Obviously quantities and qualities of job play a very important role regarding migration process for a particular place of distribution (Sarvottam Kumar -139, 2005)

Occupation of the head of household

Sr. No.	Occupation	No. of house hold	Percentage to total No. of household
1.	Agriculture	105	70.00
2.	Labour	05	3.33
3.	Service	16	10.67
4.	Business	03	2.00
5.	No occupation & Retired	21	14.00
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table 4.1)
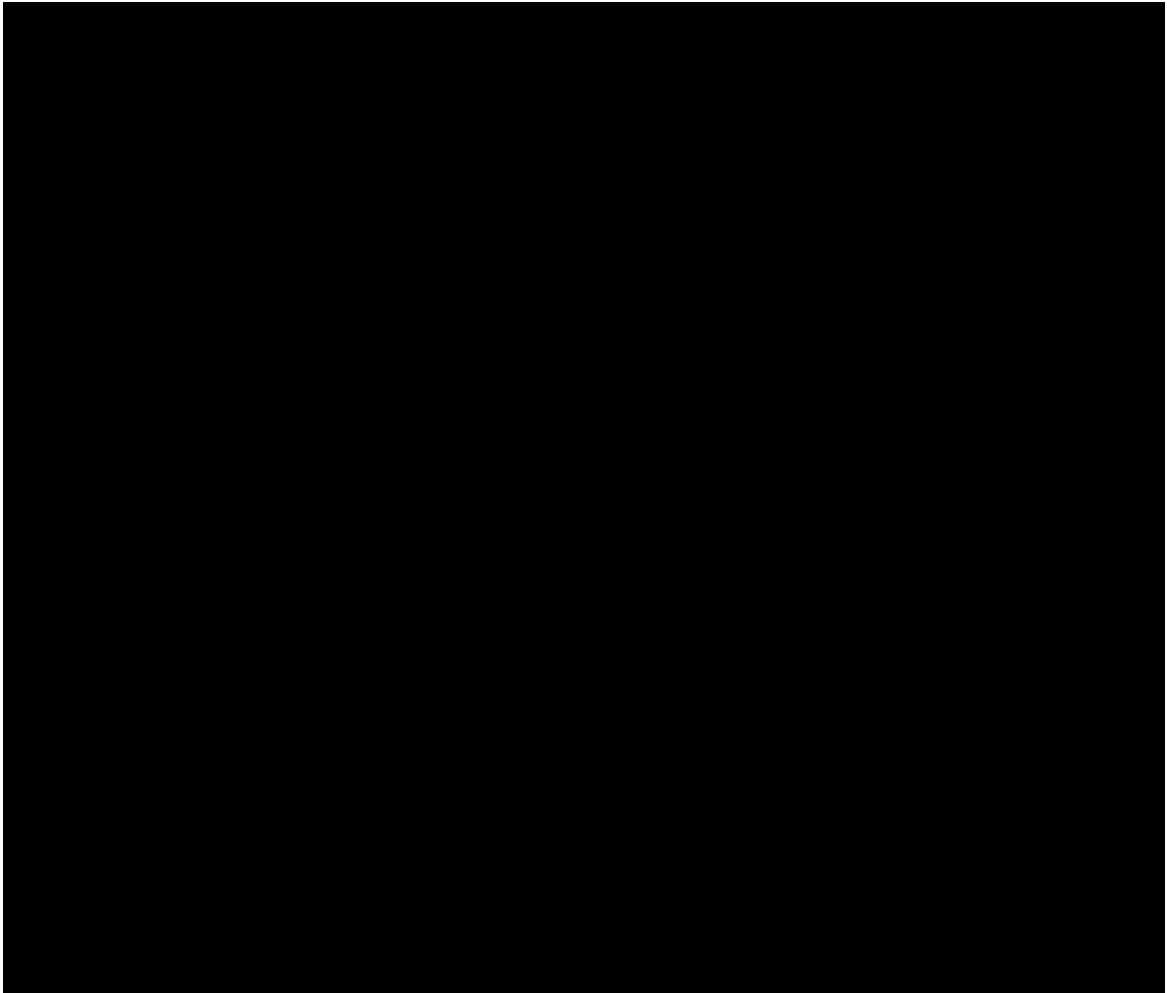
(Fig 4.1)

Agricultural is a major occupation and 70 % of the households are directly dependent on agricultural, while 30 % are engaged in other occupations.

2. Size of the land holdings:-

The possession of land is greatly valued in rural life. It is valued not only as a factor of production but as a continued source of income and security also. As in the majority of cases rural livelihood pattern is determined by agriculture –based employment. The landholding pattern may be an influential variable in the study of out –migration. Land holding of a household plays an important role in determining out-migrants in an agrarian economy where people are mostly dependent on land for their survival. The higher percentage of out-migration

71

(rural-urban migration) rate of the households with no land and small size of land holdings in comparison to households with more land may be attributed to the fact. That the persons belonging to landless and near landless households have nothing to do with the cultivation of the land, and hence, may have higher chance of out-migration (rural-urban migration) than the persons in the households possessing more land. Actually, such households may be nuclear family households comprising only one adult male member to cultivate the land and thus posing a hindrance to out-migration. The positive association between out-migration and possession of land may be perhaps due to the fact that the landholding households are large in so much so that they work like joint families. In such household it is perhaps easy for a member to out –migrate to different places of location for earning more money while the rest in households cultivate the land of his share also. (Sarvottam Kumar -2005 P-149)

Classification of household according to the size of land holdings

Sr.No.	Size of landholdings (in acres)	No. of Farmers	Percentage to total farmers
1.	Landless	39	26.00
2.	Up to 1	35	23.34
3.	1.1 - 2.0	33	22.00
4.	2.1 - 3.0	17	11.33
5.	3.1 - 4.0	04	2.67
6.	4.1 - 5.0	05	3.33
7.	More then 5	17	11.33
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No.4.2)
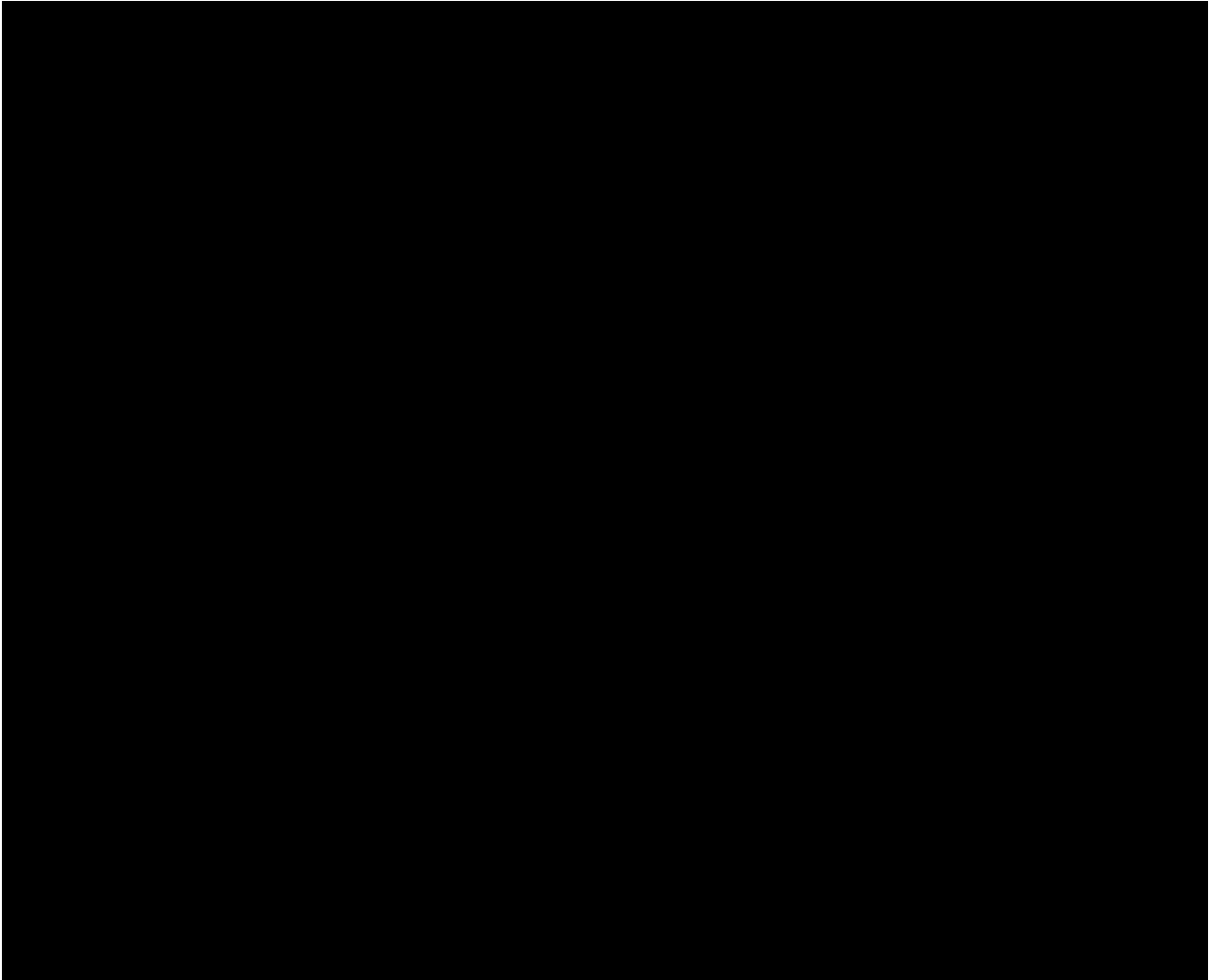
(Fig No.4.2)

A large number of households have landholdings up to three acres (table 4.2). The number of households progressively decreases as we move to larger landholdings.

3. Major crops:-

The main food crops are rice, ragi, vari and kodra among cereals: val , moog (green gram) and udid (black gram) among pulses; and fruits and vegetables. Fodder, Seas mum and coconut are among the important non- food crops.

Major Crops

Sr.No	Crops	No. of farmers	Percentage to total farmers
1.	Paddy	106	70.67
2.	Paddy & vegetables	1	0.66
3.	Paddy & pulses	11	6.67
4.	Paddy &mango	07	4.67
5.	Paddy& paddy (Karif & Rabi)	-	-
6.	Not cultivated	26	17.33
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No.4.3)
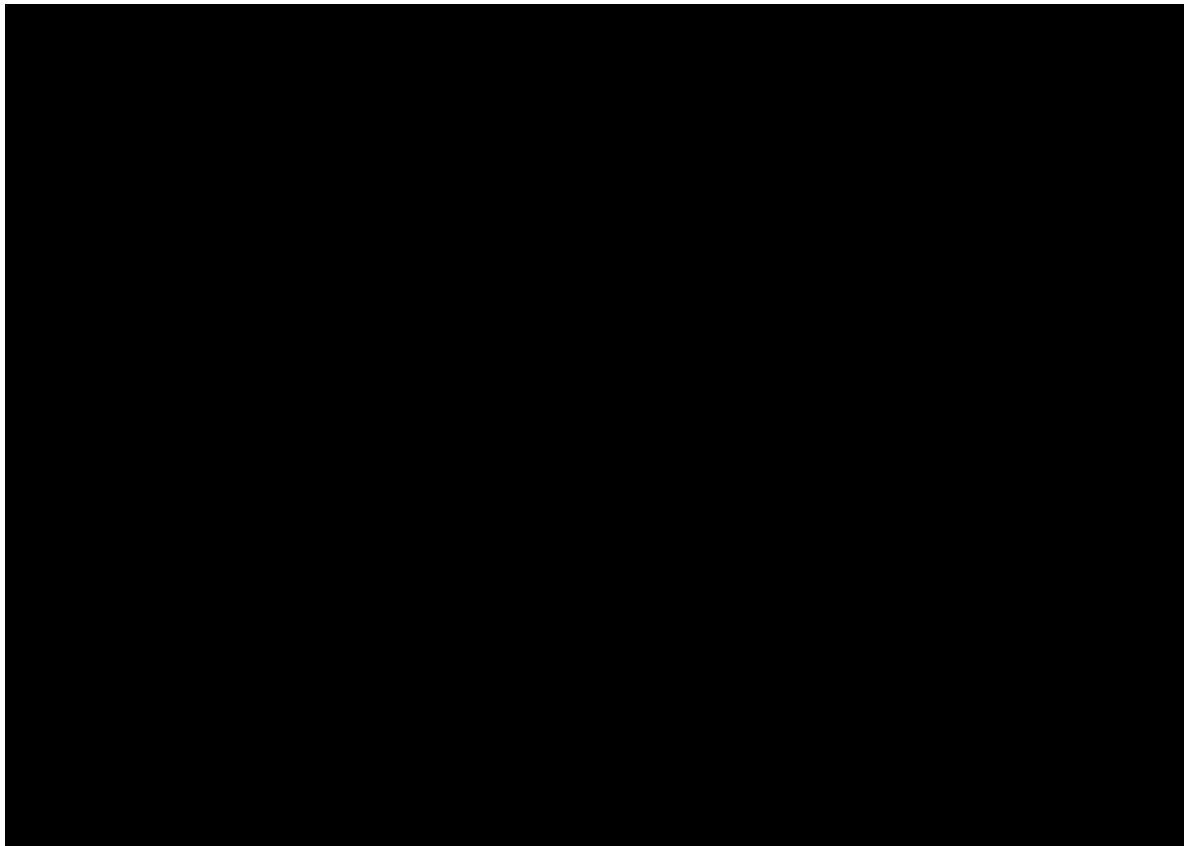
(Fig No.4.3)

Cultivation was formerly confined to the monsoon season as factors such as assured water supply, market etc. acted as constraints to cultivation in rabbi season. There has been a marginal change in the last few years due to installation of electric pumps. Rice is practically the major crop cultivated during the monsoon season.

4. Destination of migrants:-

Destination of Migrants

Sr. No	Destination	No. of Migrants	Percentage to total migrants
1.	Within the tahsil	22	14.67
2.	Within the Raigad district	24	16.0
3.	Within the State of Maharashtra	91	60.67
4.	Within the India	02	1.33
5.	Out of India	-	-
6.	Not Responding	11	7.33
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table 4.4)

Destination of Migrants
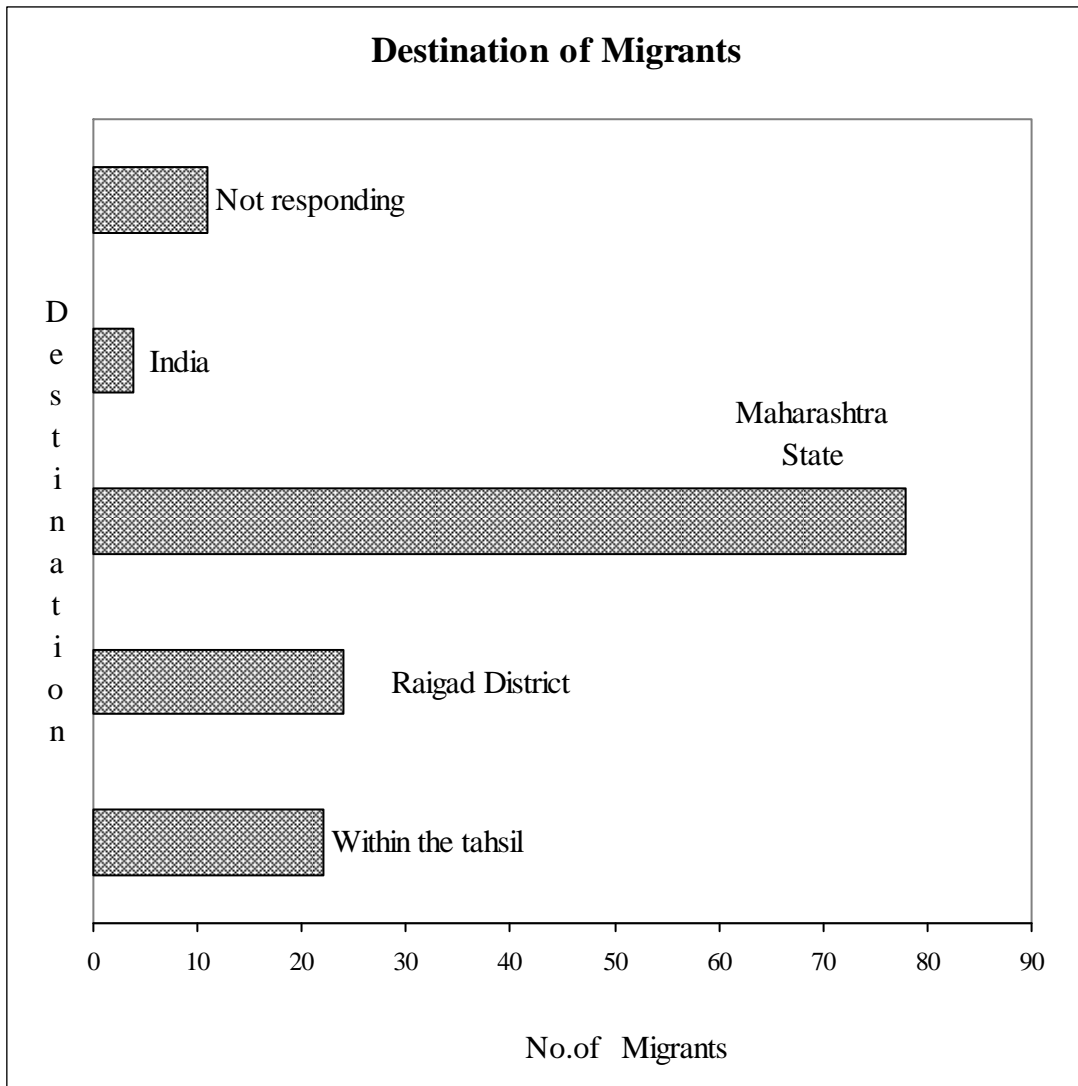
(Fig.No.4.4)

When the sample data was analyzed for identification of the destination of the migrants it was found that the migration for other districts within the state is more significant and that for other states of India is less significant. It is also noted from sample study that in case of migrant to other districts the significance of migration to neighboring districts stands out clearly in comparison to the migration for other districts of the state. Mumbai being the large metropolis in close proximity where job potentials are great; most of the migrants prefer to migrate to Mumbai rather than to any other place.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRATION:-

1. Sex composition of migrants:

Sex characteristics of migrants should be examined at the time of their migration because with the increase in duration of residence at destination the sex composition of migrants undergoes change.(Singh J.P.-115)

In term of sex composition of the migrants, out of the total 150 heads of migrants families 143 (95.33 percents) migrants are males and only 7 (4. 67 percents) respondents are females. This clearly indicates that from Raigad district the migration is male dominated, as males are more mobile than females. (Dr. Khairkar Vijaya 2007-138). Dominance of males is one of the major characteristics of migrants from villages, hence they are male selective. Since the villagers are orthodox, females are neither encouraged to take up outside employment to go in for higher education. This has resulted in the proportion of female migrants from villages being negligible (Dr.Pednekar-1990).Economic factors are the most important determinants of male migration.

The rural-urban migration was dominated by male and, as expected in the context of a gradually growing economy under a planned programmed of development, was associated more closely with economic factors. However, numerically even this migration was insignificant as it hardly involved about 2 % of rural male population. Likewise the rural migration was small in volume and was dominated by females.(Dharam Vir p-22)

Migration pattern trends to be particularly sex selective with the males dominating the migration in most of cases. Generally, males are more mobile than females; here also the same picture is seen. Similar migration pattern is found in other parts of India as well as in other developing countries.

Sex Composition of Migrants

Sr.No.	Sex	Total	Percentage of the migration
1.	Male	143	95.33
2	Female	07	4.67
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table No.4.5)

Sex composition of Migrants

Female 5%

Male 95%
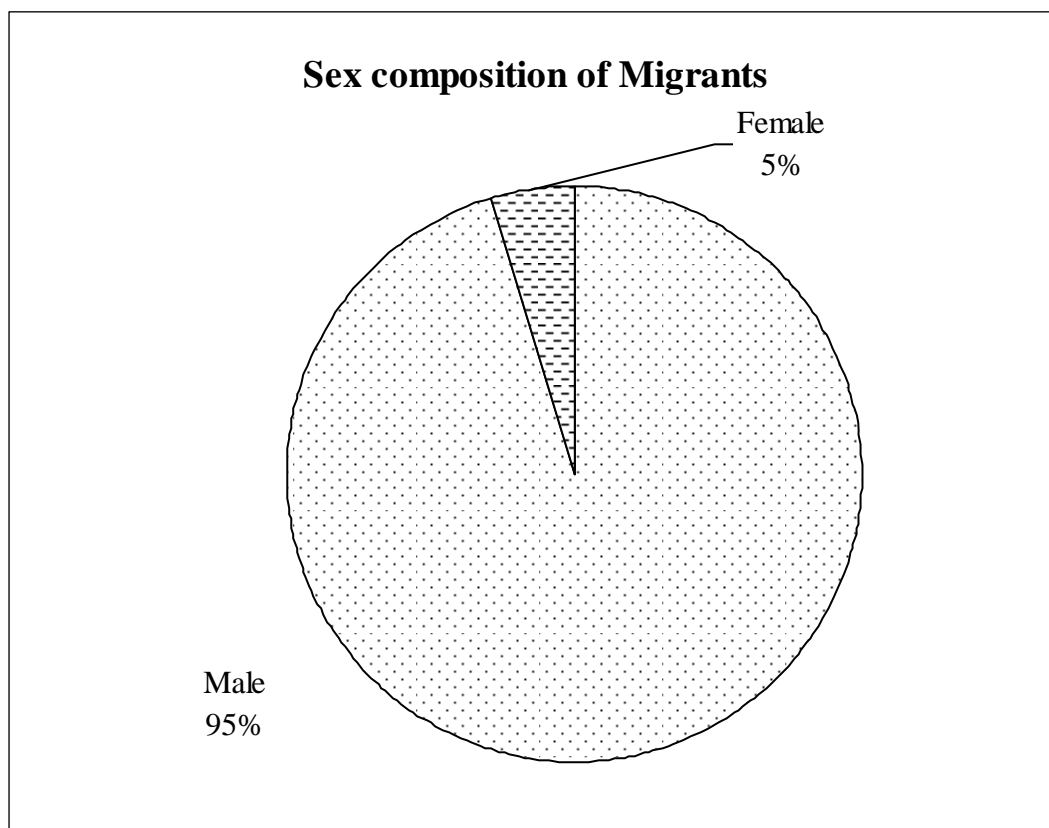
(Fig.No.4.5)

The factors many of the characteristics of proximity of the urban centre have led to the immediate incentive to migrate being undoubtedly economic. Both 'push' and 'pull' factors have played an important role. The push factors stem from the lack of development of Raigad district rural area, which has reduced the employment potentials. The pull factors are a result of the rural urban income.

2. Age of the migrants:-

Most of the previous studies are related to age selectivity of migrants, both in developing and developed societies, have suggested that 'migrants are generally concentrated in an age range from 15 or 20 to about 30 or 35 years. The findings of J.P.Singh Study too suggest that migrants have their highest concentration at ages 15-24, but a good proportion of male migrants are also drawn from the age groups 25 - 49.

Migrants are drawn from a wide range of age groups in India because the rural laborers, who vary greatly in terms of age, move into cities when they have no jobs on farms during the lean season or when they face economic hardship in villages arising out of frequent natural catastrophes like floods, droughts, famines, etc .Sometime rural laborers are also drawn to cities following the commencement of new construction project. Thus, in the context of the employment situation in rural and urban areas the finding relating to the age selectivity conforms to our expectation interestingly, different age groups exhibit varying reasons for migration .(J.P.Singh -112)

Economists have advanced a purely economic explanation for migrants youthfulness, the economic explanation is that people migrate at young ages because lifetime income gains will be greater due to a longer earning period. This may not apply in less developed countries. For example, in India a fairly good proportion of young migrants from villages are the students who migrate to towns for further education.

Age of the migrants

Sr. No.	Age group	Total Nos.	Percentage
1.	Below 15	15	10.00
2.	15-30	124	82.67
3.	30-45	07	4.67
4.	45-60	04	2.66
5.	60+	Nil	nil
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No.4.6)
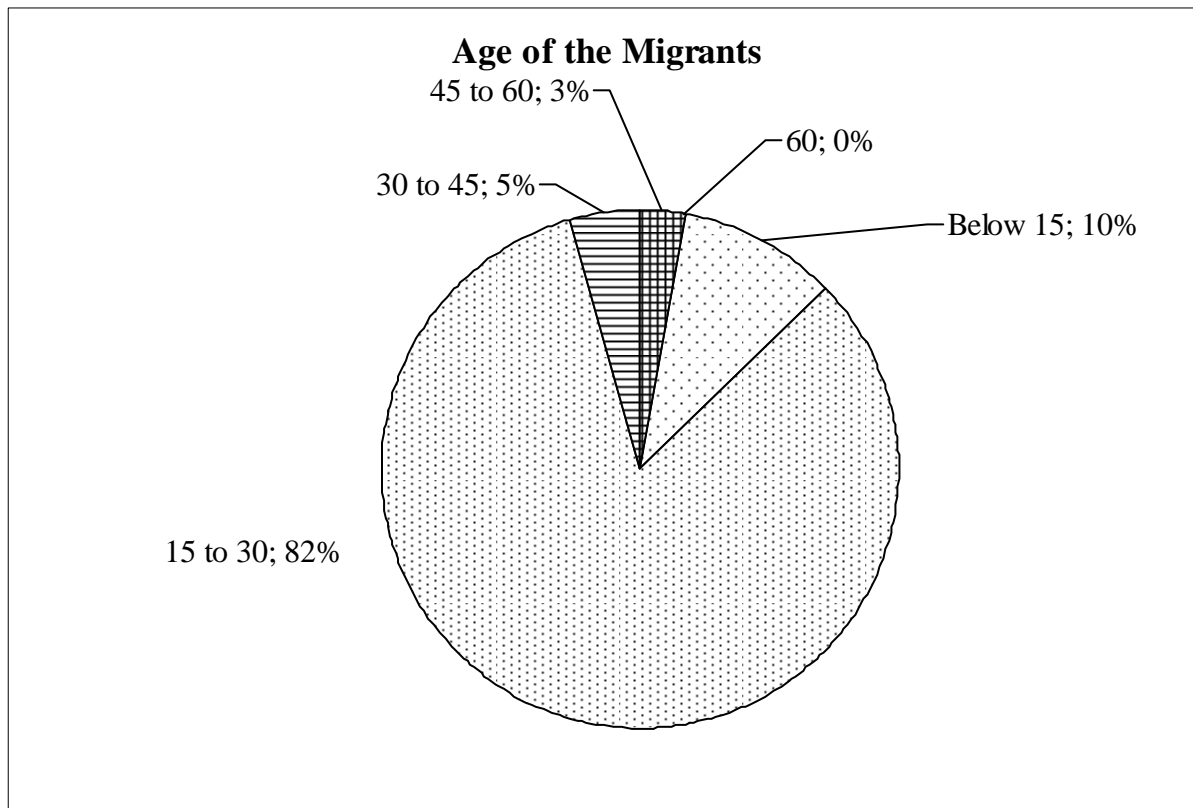
(Fig No. 4.6)

The age group analysis of Migrants clearly indicates that most of the migrant population from Raigad district for the purpose of education and for job opportunities in the various economic sectors. This is the perfect time for the career and family formation; generally the young generation is more active, Enterprising and mobile. So the migration rate is relatively high at the young age group. The analysis of migrants according to their age indicates that, nearly 10 percent migrants are in the age group below 15 years. The second age group that is 15-30 years, which accounts for 82.67 percent migrants. The third category of 30-45 years age groups is 4.67 percent, 2.67 percent for age group of 45-60. This clearly indicates that, the population, which accounts for 100 percent migrant population.

3. Educational Status of the Migrants:-

Education acts as a catalytic agent for migration. It makes people skilful and capable of doing the jobs which cannot normally be done by unschooled persons. Modern education propels people to move in search of jobs which can offer greater monetary gains and carry a better social image. For some people education makes them unfit for agricultural jobs, as they are generally not considered 'dignified' by the society. In fact, most rural jobs are usually looked down upon by the people. More often they not, low- paid urban-based jobs are preferred to high paid jobs of a similar nature of high income occupations in villages. Money is not always the prime consideration in migration, especially from rural to urban areas. For many people particularly the educated ones, the 'bright lights' of the city are a very powerful attraction (J.P. Singh- 1988).

Since education exercises a crucial influence on migrants from village to city, it is expected that employed migrants will show a higher educational attainment than non-migrants at destination. In migrants into Bombay (Zacharia 1968:383) and Calcutta (Kuroda 1957:51) have less education than non-migrants at the place of destination but more education than the population of the states from which they are drawn.

Educational Status of the Migrants

Sr.No.	Educational Status	Total No of migrants	Percentage
1.	Literate	140	93.33
2.	Illiterate	10	6.67
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table No.4.7)

Educational Status of the Migrants

Illiterate ; 7%
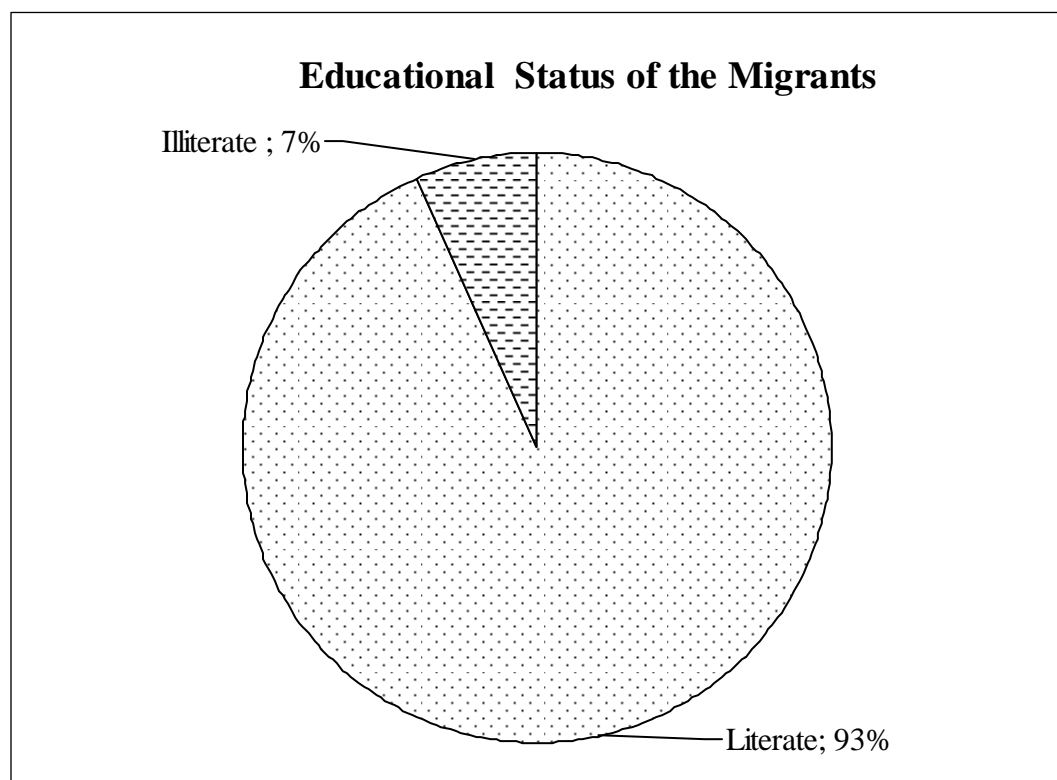
Literate; 93%

(Fig 4.7)

Out of the total of 150 respondents only 10 persons (6.67%) are illiterate and remaining 140 (93.33%) are literate. The findings reveal that more than 93% migrants are literate. This leads us to conclude that the migration process mostly

pushes out the more educated people. Generally the migrants are skilled people; they migrate mainly for economic opportunities.

It is observed that the educated migrants have a higher tendency to move to the urban places. In the urban economy more employment opportunities are available for the educated migrants. Skilled labour has more dominance in migration, many of them being semi-skilled or skilled workers, most of such migrants have low-grade education (Ref Table 4.7) Those who are low grade education cannot succeed in getting better opportunities in the city (urban centers) when such people migrate to city, they are generally involved in manual jobs, which require neither skill nor education but only physical energy.

4. Educational attainment of migrants :-

Since education exercises a crucial influence on migrants from village to city, it is expected that working migrants will show a higher educational attainment than non-migrants at destination.

Since wives are usually less educated than husbands (largely because of the neglect of female education in India) and most of the women are house wives and dependant on males, females show a much lower level of literacy than males. It is generally said that migrant distribution by education follows a U-shaped pattern, for migration is highly selective of both illiterate and educated persons (Dr.Khairkar-2007).

Here what is suggested that rural to urban migration is highly selective of educated people. On the basis of fig.4.8 it is observed that the higher the level of education, the greater is the chance of migration from the village to towns. In India the propensity to migrate to urban areas is much higher among literate and educated people than among the illiterate. It is increasingly being argued that literacy and relatively better economic conditions in the village are more important factors of migration from the village than illiteracy and mere poverty.

Educational attainment of migrants

Sr.No.	Educational Attainment	Total No of Migrants	Percentage
1.	Primary	01	0.66
2.	Middle School	74	49.34
3.	Higher Secondary	36	24.00
4.	Graduate	21	14.00
5.	Post Graduate	01	0.66
6.	Diploma	01	0.66
7.	Technical Degree	03	2.0
8.	D.Ed.	01	0.66
9.	B.Ed	02	1.34
10.	M. B. A	01	0.67
11.	Illiterate	04	2.67
12.	Not Mentioned	05	3.34
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table 4.8)

Educational Attainment of the Migrants

1% 1% 3% 3% 1%
2%
1%
1%
14%
48%
24%

Legend:
- Primary
- Middle School
- Higher Secondary
- Graduate
- Post Graduate
- Diploma
- Technicale Degree
- D.Ed
- B.Ed
- M.B.A.
- Illiterated
- Not Mentioned
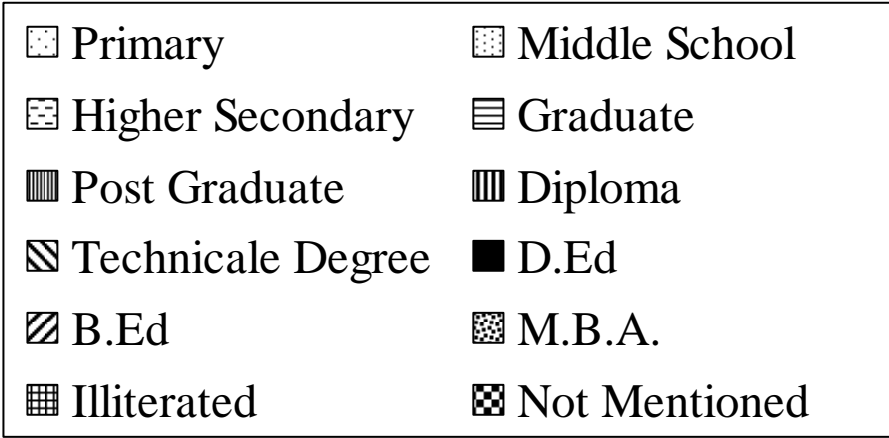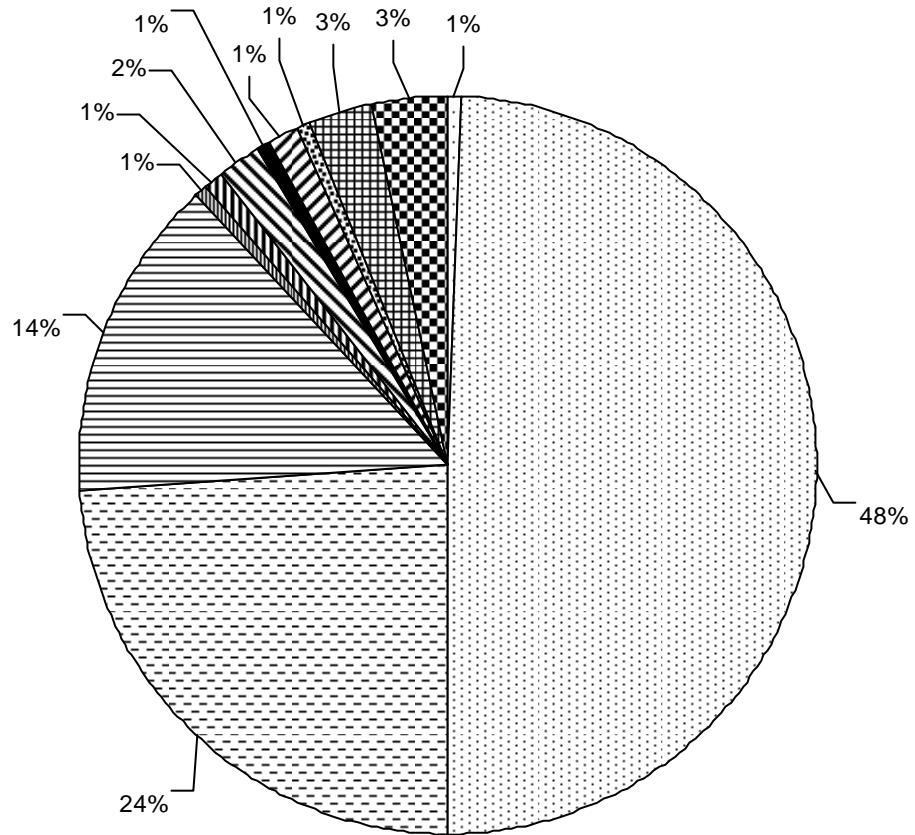
(Fig. No.4.8)

As far as the educational attainment of the migrant population is concerned, 93.33 percent are literate. Nearly 0.67 percent migrants are literate up to primary. The second educational level is 5th to 7th standard accounts for 49.33 percent migrants. The third group, that is educated up to 8th to 12th standards, includes nearly 50 percent migrants, 24.00 percent migrants have obtained higher education (Graduate and P.G.) nearly 14.67 percent migrants hold diploma (technical as well as non-technical). The last group, that is the technical degree holders, accounts for 2.0 percent migrants. Out of the total literate migrants 2.0 percent hold diploma and degree of educational field (D.Ed and B.Ed) .Related several studies to both developed and developing countries have established that rural to urban migration is highly selective of educated people.

5. Marital Status of the migrants:-

Migration is positively selective of bachelors, married people are migratory too, but there are a higher proportion of married males in the sedentary population of than the migrant population. It has been shown in some studies on rural to urban migration that migration is highly selective of unmarried youths (Dr. Khairkar 2007) observed that married people were relatively immobile because they developed a stronger sense of families bonds and increasingly greater obligations to the family of origin after their marriage, compared to the bachelor. Most married migrants were those who were less attached and owned lesser obligation to their family at the time of moving away from their village.

Marital Status of the Migrants (at the time of migration)

Sr.No.	Marital status	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1.	Married	36	24.00
2.	Unmarried	109	72.67
3.	Not Mentioned	05	3.33
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table. No.4.9)

Marital Status of Migrants

Not Mentioned;
3%

Married ; 24%
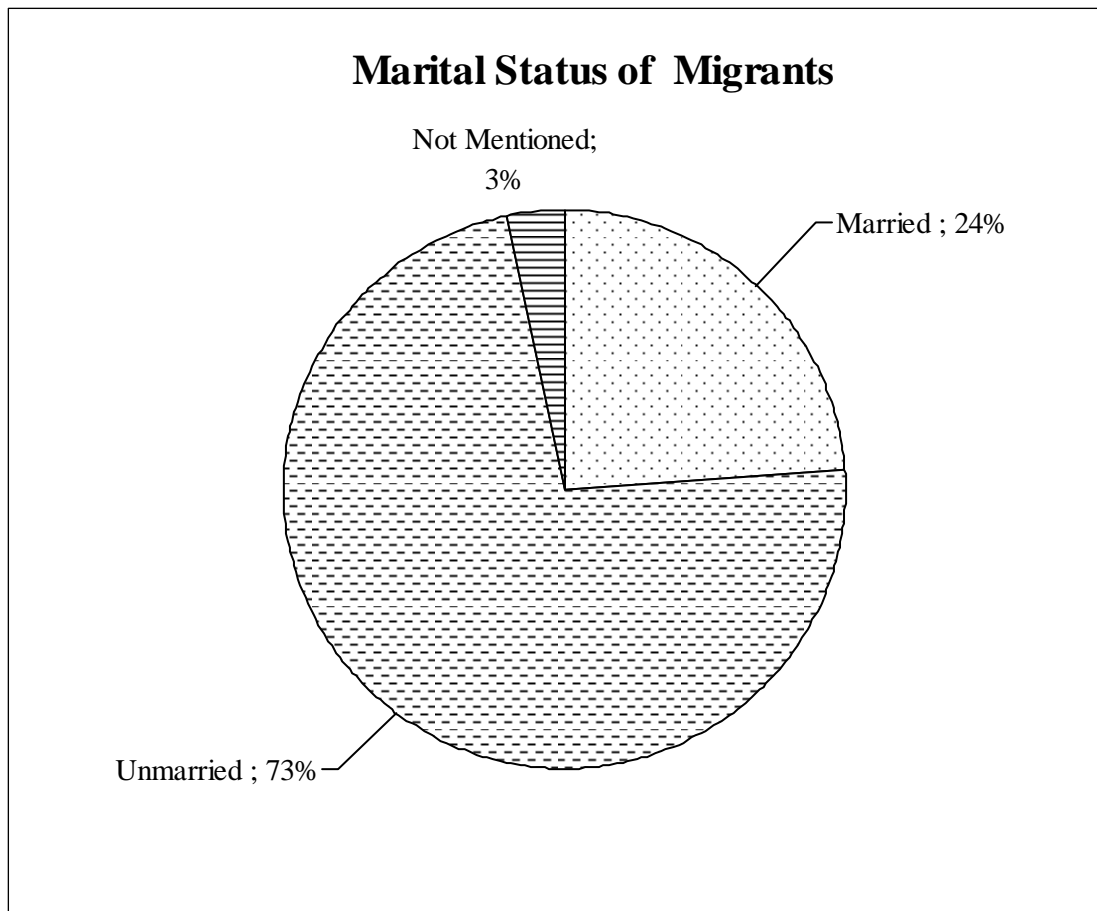
Unmarried ; 73%

(Fig. No.4.9)

The analysis of migrants according to their marital status indicates that, the unmarried persons (72.67 percent) are the largest proportion of the total migrants (Table 4.9). While, the proportion of married migrants are 24 percent. In the United States an analysis of 1960 census data disclosed, rather surprisingly, a higher proportion of migrants among married persons than among single person.

Unlike that of male migrants, the pattern of female selectivity is slightly equivocal. It is surprising primarily because unmarried rural girls, more often than not, are discouraged from moving into urban areas individually either to pursue higher education or to take up some independent job. Instead, they tend to move with their out-migrating parents. A vast majority of the people believe that the lack of parental care and control over their daughters might result in premarital sexual relationships or inter caste marriages which are carefully guarded against almost universally in India for various social and cultural reasons (J.P.Singh 148)

6. Number of Children of Migrants:-

Sometimes migrants go to city with their family. Their children are dependant migrants.

Number of Children of Migrants

Sr.No.	No. of Children	Total of Migrants	Percentage
1.	No Child	46	30.67
2.	1 Child	32	21.33
3.	2 Children	54	36.00
4.	3 Children	18	12.00
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No.4.10)
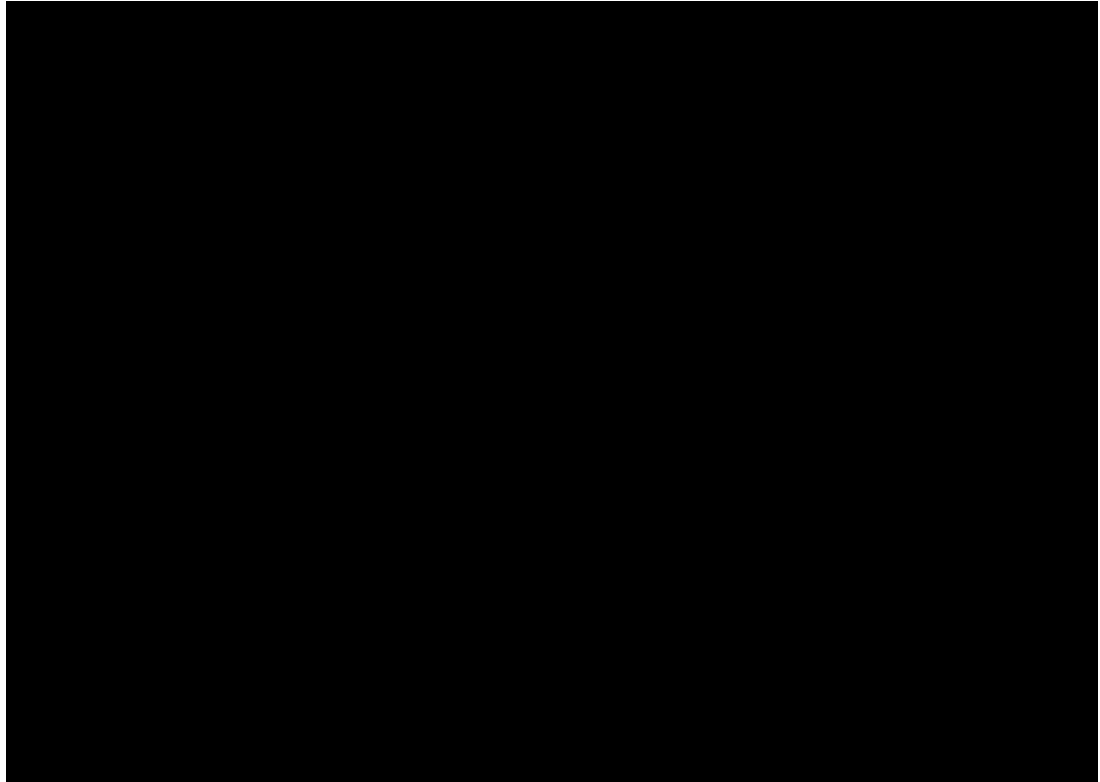
(Fig. No.4.10)

The analysis of the data from chosen samples indicates that, out of the total migrants 30.67 percent do not have a child, 21.33 percents are having only one child, 36.0 percents have 2 children, 12.0 percent having 3 children. This shows that majority of migrants have 1 or 2 children, because in urban centers, the standard of living is very high and it is very difficult to maintain a big family for poor migrants in such an expensive urban centers. So they become aware of situation and follow the small family norms. The more educated upper and middle class couples postpone marriage and childbearing for several years. Among the professional workers numbers of children are less. Various studies in Argentina Brazil and Puerto Rico have found that migrants have fewer children than non-migrants.

7. Reasons for migration:-

The reasons for population migration are extremely diverse. It is rare that the migration is only cause but generally several reasons can be identified as stimulations to migration. The major reason for migration is economic. Almost all studies confirm that most of the migrants (excluding forced and sequential migrations) have moved in search of better economic opportunities. Hence, migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon though non-economic factors also obviously have some bearing. Migration flows have generally taken place from the economically backward areas to prosperous areas.

Reasons for migration

Sr. No.	Reason	Numbers	Percentage
1.	Job Opportunities	138	92
2.	Education	12	08
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table. No.4.11)
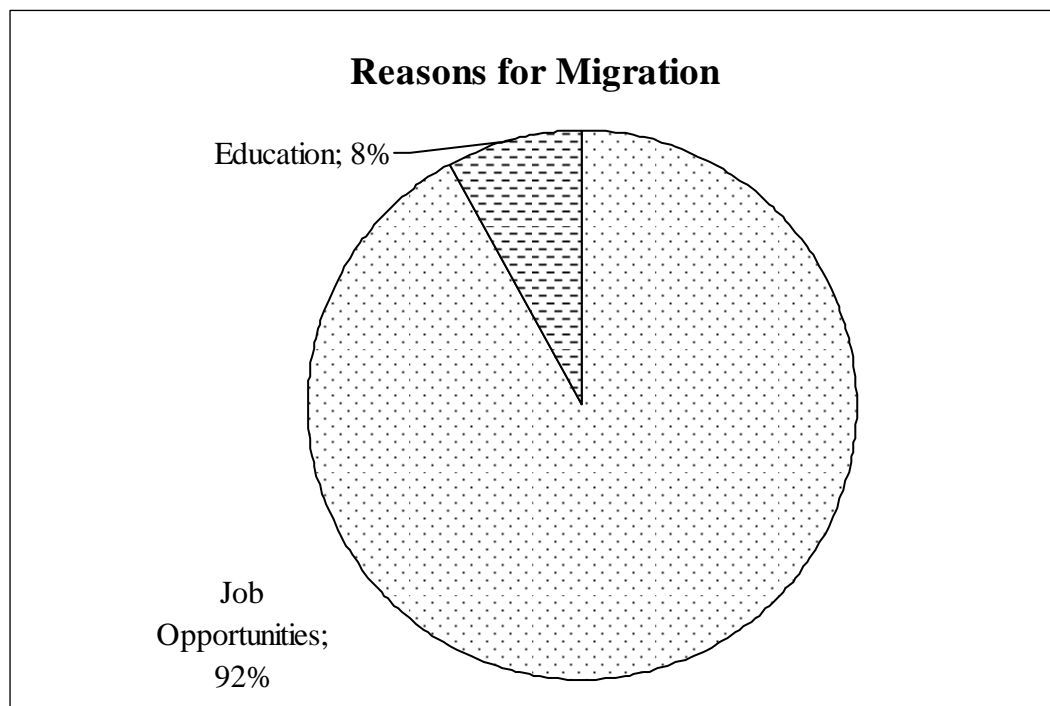
(Fig. No.4.11)

The analysis of the data from the chosen samples indicates that, about 92.0 percent of the migrants go to urban centers for job opportunities. The second important reason is educational facilities, which accounts for 8.0 percent. This clearly shows that the important reason is economic.

8. Occupation of the migrants:-

It is very difficult for an unskilled rural migrant to find a well-paid job in the urban centre. Often migration to urban areas involves occupational shifts from non-technical occupation to specialized highlighted technical occupations. It has almost become an established fact that migration is selective of occupations i.e. in certain occupation migrants show a greater proportion than non-migrants. Selectivity in occupation of the migrants can be seen at the place of origin or destination or at both places (J.P.Singh-169).

We have simply highlight selectivity in occupation of migrants at destination as in terms of economic activity. Urban areas are more heterogeneous than rural areas and the shift in occupation is one of the important causes and consequences of migration from village to towns.

Occupation of the migrants

Sr.No	Occupational Category	No. of Migrants	Percentage to Total Migrants.
1.	Students	09	6.00
2.	Police and soldier	11	7.33
3.	Private Industry (Non Technical Post)	19	12.67
4.	Private Ind. (Technical)	12	8.00
5.	Govt. Office	02	1.33
6.	Semi Govt. Office	01	0.67
7.	Other Offices	29	19.34
8.	Own Business	18	12.00
9.	Teaching	10	6.67
10.	Other employment	09	6.00
11.	Hotel Worker	21	14.00
12.	No Job	02	1.33
13.	S.T	02	1.33
14.	Part Time	02	1.33
15.	Retired Person	03	2.00
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No.4.12)
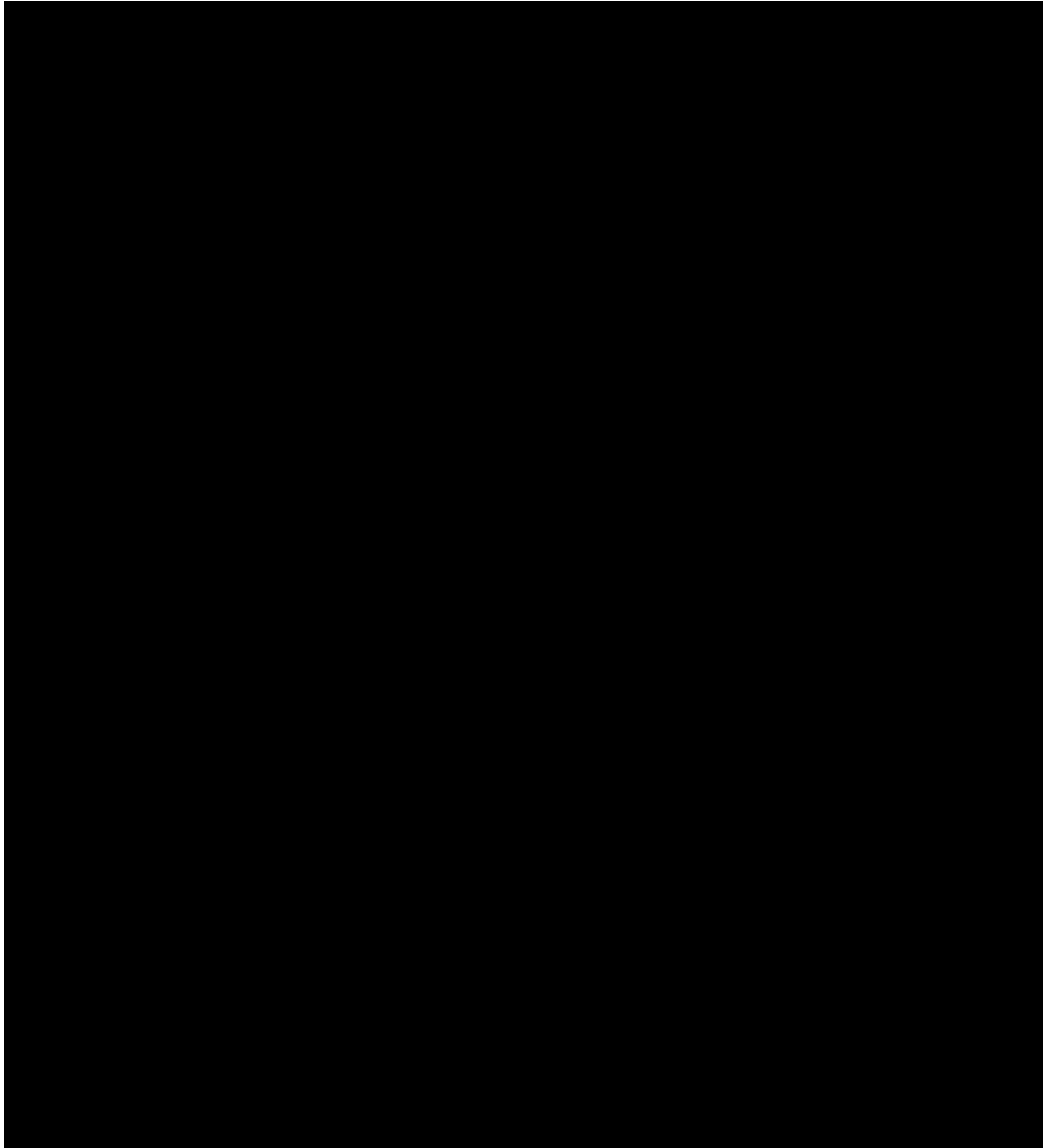
(Fig 4.12)

Most of the migrants from sample villages do not possess technical qualification (Table 2.8) and hence more than 13% of the migrants are employed in private industry in non-technical position. The number of migrants holding technical positions is very small (8 %). The proportion of migrants in other offices, own business hotel workers, police and   military services is comparatively large, the credit goes to the migrants who joint such services earlier.

9. Income of the Migrants:-

Income of the migrants is an important aspect as migration is mainly for search of better economic opportunities. Income is associated with other characteristics, such as education and occupational skill levels, aspirations, information and awareness, self-efficiency, intelligence and attitude towards development, which promotes migration.

Ramnath Singh (1989) has observed that migration process has improved the level of income of most of the migrant families and as a result they have been able to improve their status and economic condition by purchasing land, constructing better houses, keeping household items etc.

Income of the Migrants

Sr. No	Income Per Month(Rs)	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Less than 3000	12	8.00
2	3000-6000	52	34.67
3	6000-9000	33	22.00
4	9000-12000	21	14.00
5	12000-15000	17	11.33
6	More than 15000	12	8.00
7	Not earning	03	2.00
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table 4.13)

Income of the Migrants
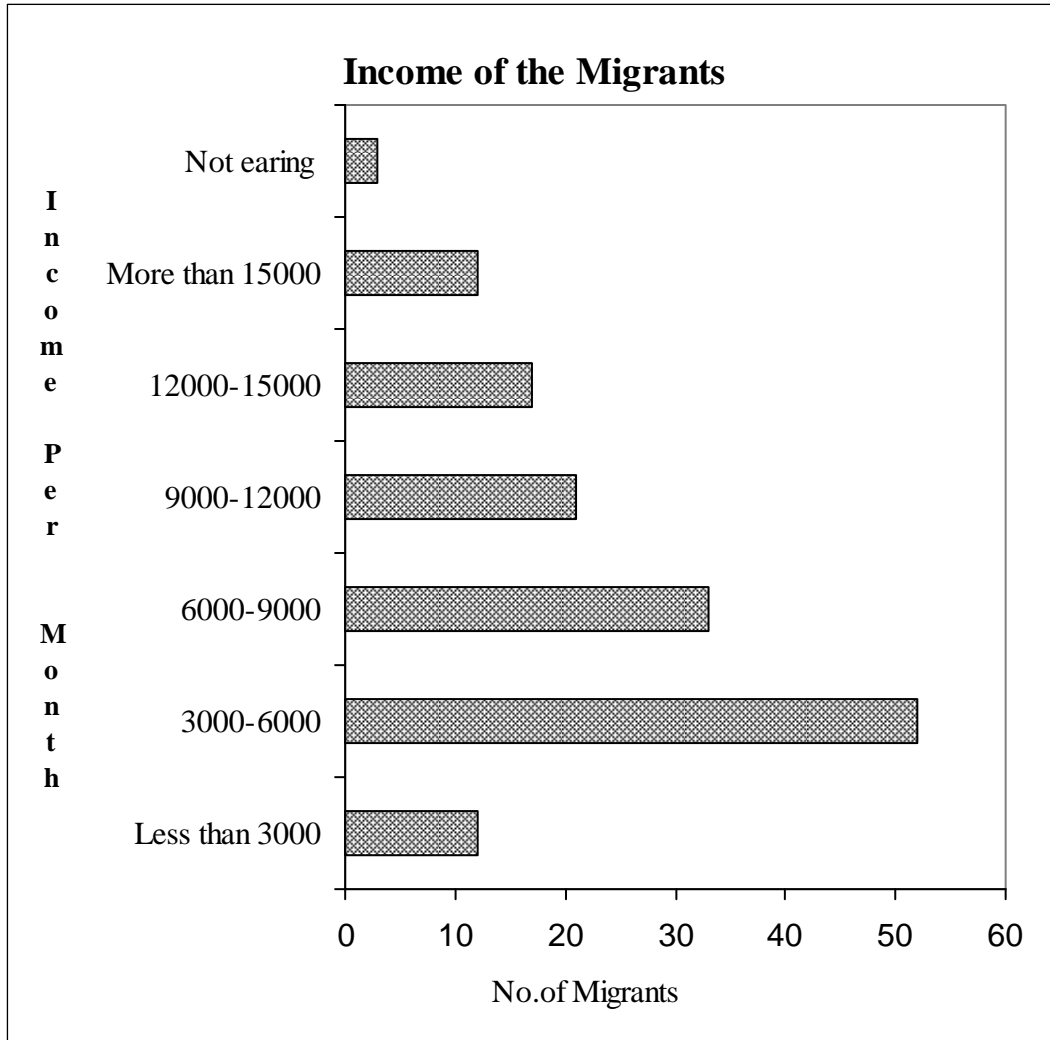
(Fig 4.13)

The analysis of migrants according to their income per month indicates that, nearly 42.67 percent of them are earning less than Rs.6000 per month. The second income group i.e. Rs.6000-12000 per month, accounts for 36.0 percent of the migrants. A third income group, that is more than Rs.12000 includes, 21.33 percent migrants.   This clearly indicates that, the migrants earning less than Rs.12000, per month dominates the entire flow of migration, this accounts for nearly 78.67 percent. There are few migrants having higher income (Ref. Table 4.13)

10. Residential Status:-

People migrate to the city mainly in search of employment. Many migrants migrate at the instance of their relatives or friends, who make some arrangement for their accommodation and mostly the migrants stay in rented houses or with the relatives.

Ownership of Accommodation

Sr.No.	Ownership of Accommodation	Total No. of migrants	Percentage
1	Own	83	55.33
2	Rental	35	23.33
3	with relatives	15	10.00
4	At work place	17	11.34
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table 4.14)
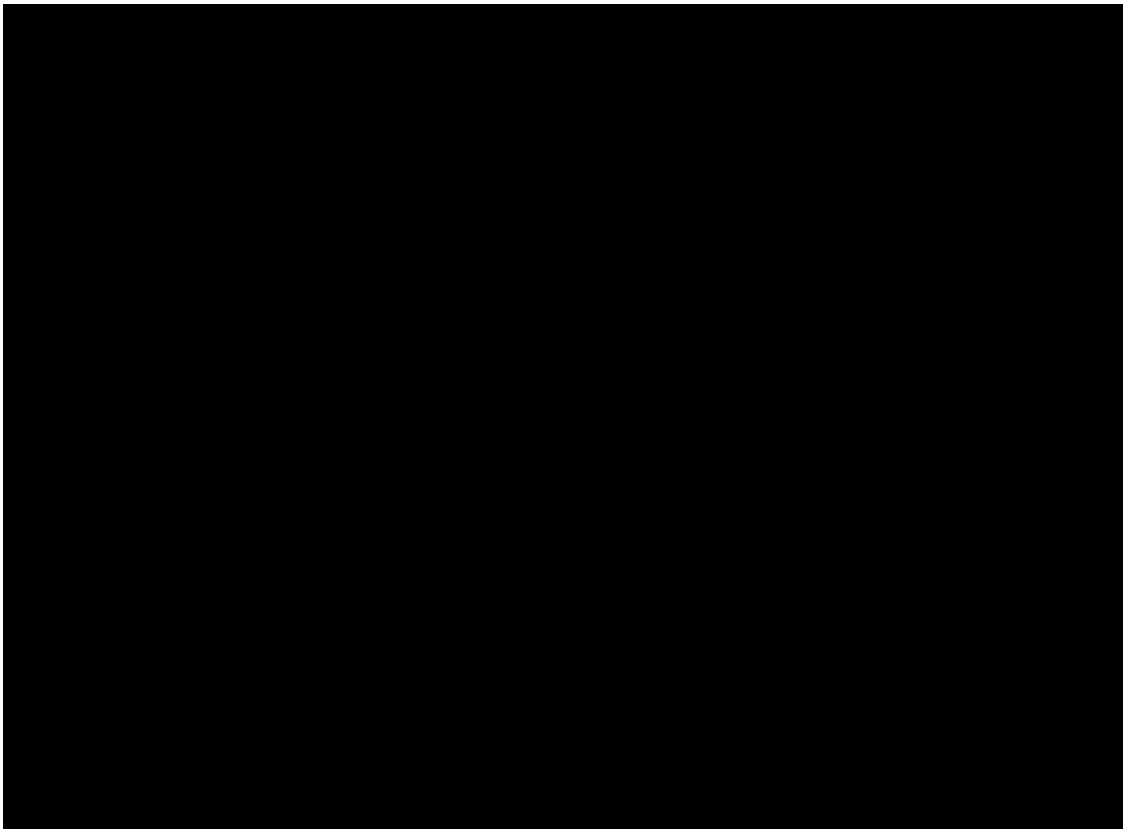
(fig 4.14)

As the above chart indicates 55.33 percent migrants have their own houses. More than 23.33 percent migrants are staying in rented houses and 10.0 percent migrants live with their relatives. Another 11.33 percent migrants stay at work place. This shows that more than 44.67 percent migrants don't have their own house (Ref Table 4.14) .Generally; the migrants migrate for work or for earning money. They can't afford to have their own house. So till they get settled they live in rented houses and after that they purchase their own house. T.S. Mujumdar (1983:67) found in his Delhi survey that about 70 percent of the new migrants are staying in the Jhuggis (slums). Khandawale and Chorghade (1994:66) found in their Nagpur survey that near about 95 percent migrants are staying in huts or Kuccha houses.

11. Remittance to Native Places:-

Most migrants after securing the urban employment send a portion of their income to their home, to supplement the income of their families, which changes both the level and distribution of the rural income. It helps to upgrade their standard of living in the village. Those who are working as permanent laborers increase their capacity to remit money to home, to repay loans, purchase land and repair old houses in their native places (Vassof and Rao 1987) The size of the remittances in the form of money depends on the type of migrants, the degree of migrant's attachment to the rural areas and needs of the members of the family left behind. Among the younger and recent migrants, income hardly covers their own expenses in the city, occasional trips to home and purchase of clothing and food (Dandekar 1986).

Remittance to Native Places

Sr.No.	Rs. Per Month	Total No of migrants	Percentage
1.	Regular	93	62.00
2.	Irregular	47	31.33
3.	Never	10	6.67
	Total	**150**	**100**

(Table 4.15)
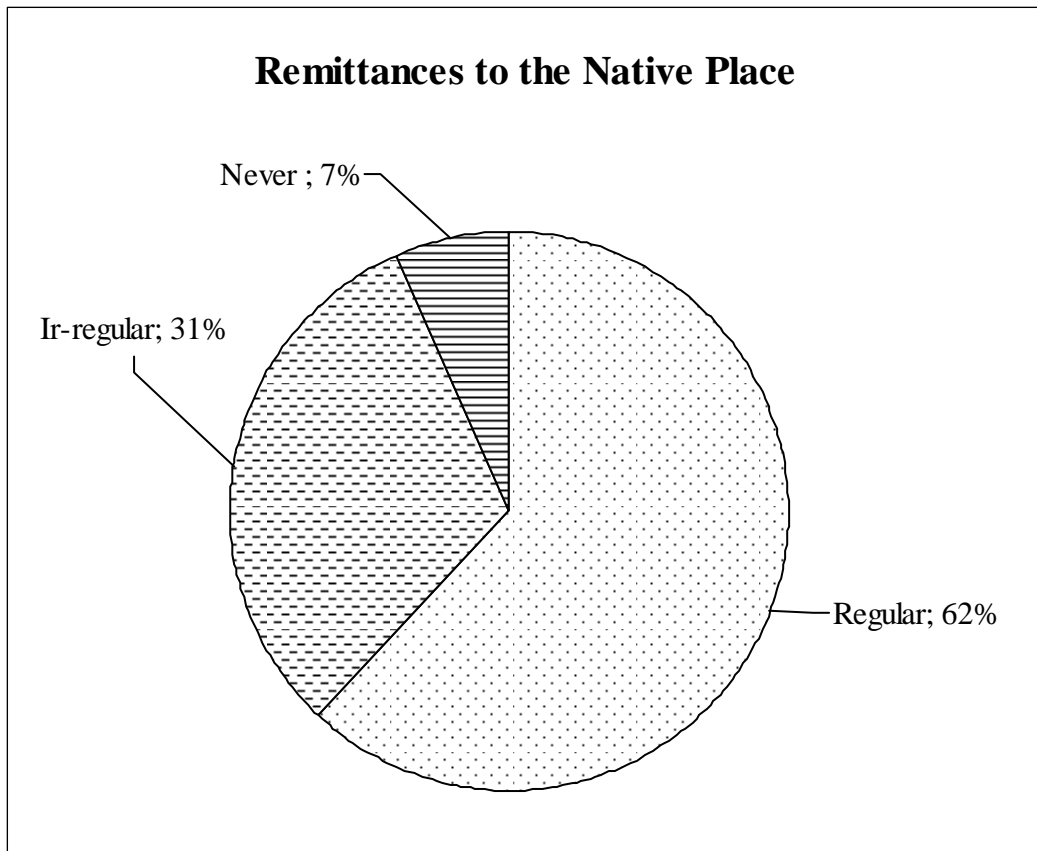
(Fig 4.15)

According to the above data, we found that 6.67 percent of the migrants did not send money to their native places and 93.33 percent migrants send money their native places.

Majority of the migrants leave their places for livelihood. They are bound to help economically, their families back home. Most of the migrants, after securing urban employment, generally send a portion of their income to their village homes to help their families. Remittances not only help the rural families but also promote the village economy, the same trend has been found in the case of migrants from the Raigad district.

Most of the rural urban migration is economic migration and hence remittance becomes an integral part of such migration. A large number of studies have indicated that most of the migrants send remittance. Caplan (1970) found that the remittances are related to the size of the migrant's nuclear family while Bienefeld (1974) related it with income level of the migrant and his ties with the home town. Baxter (1973) indicated that the remittances are related to the need of the household and the nature of links between migrant and his community. He further pointed out that the remittance decrease gradually over a period of time.

Remittances are mostly used for everyday needs, for household maintenance, to purchase grain. In many cases remittances are used for education and hence stimulate further migration. Moock (1972) also pointed out that the remittances are mainly used for consumption rather than agricultural investment.

12. Migrants' visit to native place:-

The complete absorption of migrants at destination seems to be a fairly long process "Even more permanent migrants maintain strong identification with in their area of origin" (Hugo 1991). The maintenance of regular contact with the place of origin takes the form of information flow towards origin. "such a pattern is highly conducive to the development of chain migration since initial pioneer migrants are likely to be continually sending information back to their place of origin and to assist fellow villagers in migrating to the city" (Hugo 1991:200) "Regular transfer of resources and frequent visits by the migrants to rural areas

generally hold good in the case of a large section of migrants to Bombay". (Banerjee and Biswas 1981).

To show the in migrants' links to their native places, information on the distribution of immigrants by the number of visits to their native place regions was collected and it is given in the table below:-

Migrants' visit to native Place

Sr.No.	Visit Per Year	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1.	Less than 1 in a year	02	1.33
2.	1 time in a year	15	10.00
3.	2 time in a year	110	73.33
4.	More than 3 (regularly)	23	15.34
	Total	**150**	**100.00**

(Table No. 4.16)
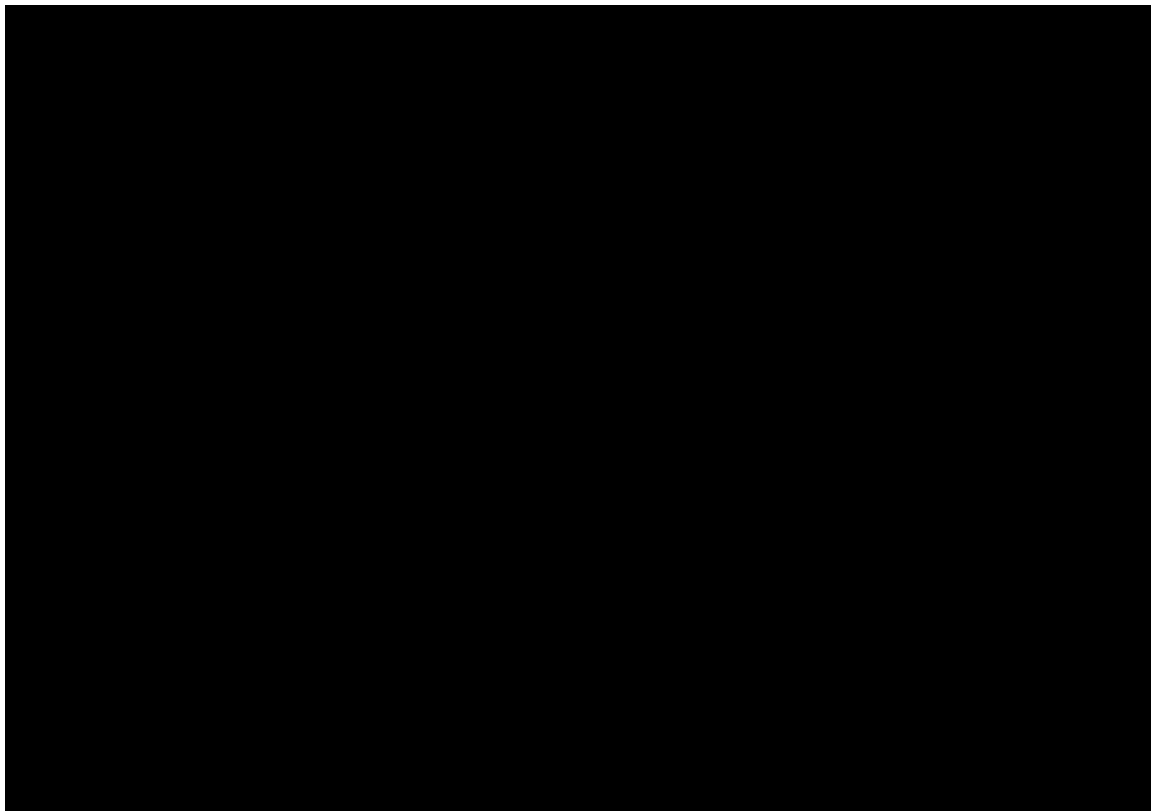
(Fig. No.4.16)

The analyses of the migrants according to their visit to their native places per year indicate that, nearly 10.0 percent of the migrants visit once in a year and 73.33 percent twice a year. Out of the total migrants 15.34 percent visit their native places regularly (per month.). This clearly shows that 100 percent migrants visit their native places. With regular visit we can see their links with the native place.

Generally migrants within the tahsil (Raigad district) visits per month. They visit the village to help in agricultural operations at the time of the onset of the monsoon or at the time of harvest because there is a shortage of labour in the rural areas during this period. Very few migrants do not visit their native place because, either their stage of life is different (senior) or they have their whole family with them. Distance is a factor that supports or obstructs such visits to native place. The visits are inversely proportional to the distance. Obviously on account of the cost of transportation or the time required for movement, or both, the link of the migrant with the native region is reflected in the frequency of visit to their native region. This frequency of visits to their native region also depends on distance and whether it is family migration or other wise. If it family migration and if the distances are large, then the possibilities of migrant visiting the native region are slim and narrow.

CHAPTER – 5
CONCLUSION

The study brings into sharp focus the significance of rural urban migration from Raigad to the urban centers. It is the result of the complex interaction of the factors that share many of the characteristics of similar migration streams in other parts of India as well as in other developing countries. The proximity of the urban centre of Mumbai has led to the immediate incentive to migrate being undoubtedly economic. Both push and pull factors have played an important role. The push factors stem from the lack of development of rural area of Raigad, which has reduced the employment potentials. The pull factors are a result of the rural urban income differentials to which many authors have drawn attention in other developing countries.

An analysis of village level data suggests that poor households in rural areas are likely to send out one or more of their adult members to other locations, possibly to create an outside support system for livelihood. In case of the economically better-off strata, however, migration often means shifting of the entire family. The motivations for migration are, thus, diverse and varied depending on the socio-economic characteristics of the household.

The study also highlights the importance of social networks. The presence of friends and relatives acts as a major cushioning factor; in most cases they have played a significant role in making the migrant aware of employment opportunities and sometimes even in helping him to obtain a job. Similarly the social networks established over a long period of time have led to the migration being a direct migration without any step in between. In the case of Tilore village (Pen) in spite of the contrast in the environment to which the migrant is exposed when he moves from native place to destination, acclimatization has been aided by the presence of relatives and friends.

It is important to note that though the migrations from Raigad consist primarily of literate persons the level of educational attainment is very good, and

this acts as opportunity to the migrant in the urban centers. The high cost of living in the city limits the amount of remittance which the migrant is able to send home. There is no doubt that the remittances are important for the family members left behind so that the villagers feel that the migrant should not come back to the village as he is able to help them more by staying on in the city. This feature is particularly evident in the case of Tilore where the potentiality for absorption in the traditional occupation of farming is very limited.

Those who work at great distances from home regularly remit money to the village kin through money orders and return to their village home on long holidays or vacations to spend time with the members of their family or to celebrate festivals jointly. It is evident that impact of migration on Raigad has not been uniform as the nature of the rural economy has played an important role. In the case of an agricultural village, migration has depleted the village of the manpower which is necessary if agriculture is to be improved and made more productive. At the same time the migrant from some villages with less education and skills is not able to aspire for more remunerative jobs in the city. Hence, if some effort is taken to improve inputs into agriculture in this region so that it becomes more productive, probably it would be possible to partially stem the flow of migration from this area.

The field work along with the analysis of primary data collected for the households in villages are:-

1) Mumbai being the large metropolis in close proximity where job potentials are great: most of the migrants prefer to migrate to Mumbai rather than to any other place. Few migrants choose other places such as small towns or taluka places in Raigad as their destination.

2) All migrations are direct, without any step in between: Mumbai has become a traditional area of migration. Most of the villagers have their relatives or friends in Mumbai. As they take care of accommodation, food and in some cases even provision of jobs, migrants directly go to Mumbai without any hesitation.

3) The main motive behind the migrations from the villages is to obtain a job. Migration for education is less important. Close relatives or family members play an important role in the process of migration.

4) Dominance of males is one of the major characteristics of the migrants from these villages, hence they are male selective. Similarly most of the migrants are in the age groups of 15 to 30 years and 30 to 45 years. The number in the age groups of over 45 years or below 15 years is very low.

5) At the time of survey it was found that, at the time of migration they were generally bachelors, only after getting stabilized in terms of job and accommodation they got married.

The migrants maintain close links with their village through visits to their native place.

6) Regarding educational qualification the proportion of S.S.C. and H.S.C. migrants is very high (in the case of these villages) and the situation regarding technical education is poor.

7) Many of the migrants sent remittances to the family members at the villages. The amount is used for subsistence purposes. They also keep close links with the village, through regular visits.

Problem-(Effect of Migration)

1) From the point of view of agriculture the Raigad district is not well developed. In fact cultivators follow traditional methods. In spite of agricultural orientation of the Society. People have not been able to develop agriculture fully on scientific basis. Only recently new varieties of seeds have been introduced and improved varieties of paddy, vegetables are being grown in the region. Mechanization of agriculture has not been possible because of lack of resources and very less per capita share of land.

The agriculture of this region is based on rainfall and only a few areas have irrigation facilities.

2) The households in the villages have been affected due to migration. There is decrease in agricultural production due to loss through migration of the active male workers.

3) The opinion of the villagers was elicited about the return of the migrants. The villagers' general feeling is that the employment opportunities, in the village are getting reduced due to increase of population and living conditions are also deteriorating, hence the households feel that the migrant should not come back to village.

Measures

Some of the measures that could be initiated for stemming the flow of migration from this region of the Raigad district would be.

1) Strengthening the agricultural base through the development of small irrigation projects on the rivers; this would enable more intensive cultivation and provide employment throughout the year; towns located in such areas could be developed as service centers.

2) Education is positively associated with migration- the greater the level of education, the more likely it is that people will out-migrate from their rural household. Educated persons move into cities not merely for jobs but also for furthering their education. The educated people show a higher proportion than illiterate persons, because they have a greater preference for urban employment, so that educational facilities and employment opportunities should be developed in rural areas

3) Raigad district's physical setting and historical background invest it with the potentially for the development of tourism. The area with its numerous streams, beaches and undulating topography has a great scenic beauty. This along with its proximity to Mumbai is in asset for promoting the tourist industry. The industry, if developed, could provide employment to the local population if they are given some training to act as guides.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaires for characteristics for composition of Migrants

Name of the village   Sr. no

1. House no.

2. Name of the head of household:

3 .a) Religion   b) Language:

4. Information about the household

Sr.No.	Name	Sex	Age	Education Qualification	Occupation	Relation with the head
1.	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						

5. How many persons from the household are engaged in farming?

6. Area in acres under possession:

a) Cultivate: b) Other:

7. Give the details about the type of crops which are grown in your field:

Type of crop	First crop	Second crop
a)Rice b)Vegetables c)Pulses d)Any other		

8. Do you experience any effect of migration on your present occupation?   Yes/ No

If yes, then how?.....

a) Decrease in production

b) Limited area under cultivation

c) Change in the products

d) Stopped certain type of production ?

9. Do you take help from outside laborers?   Yes/ No

If Yes….

a) Seasonal laborers   :   (Number)

b) Permanent laborers: (Number)

10. Do you use fertilizers? Yes /No If yes……

a) Manures

b) Chemical fertilizers

11. Do you practice any other occupation during the off season?   Yes /No.

If yes, please specify the type of occupation:

12. How do you utilize your agricultural production?

a) For subsistence

b) For market

c) A small proportion for the market and large part for subsistence.

d) Large proportion for the market and small part for subsistence.

13. Do you send agricultural products to the migrants?   Yes/ No

14. Information about the migrants

No.	Name	Sex	Age Present	At the time of migration	Marital Status Present	At the time of migration
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Relation with the head of household	Education Qualification Present	At the time of migration	Technical qualification	Type of job
8	9	10	11	12

15. Who was the promoter of migration?

a) Close family member

b)Distant relative

c) Friend

d) Any other, please specify

e) None

16. What was the reason for the migration?

a) Job

b) Education

c) Marriage

d) Any other, please specify

e)Not stated

17. How often does the migrant come home?

a) Twice in a year

b)Once in a year

c) Once in two years

d)Never

18. Have you visited to the migrants' destination

a) Per month

b) Twice in a year

c) Once in a year?

19. How much he/she earn per month?

a) Rs. 0 to 3000

b) Rs.3001to 6000

c) Rs.6001 to 9000

d)Rs.9001 to 12000

e) Rs12001 to 15000

f) more than 15000

20.Type of the house where the migrant live

a)Own

b) Rental

C) Relative's

21. Is there in change in your standard of living after migration?   Yes/ No

22. Do you get any help from the migrant?   Yes/ No

If yes, state the type of help:

a) in occupation

b) in getting employment for other members

c) in education

d) in marriages

e) in sending money

f) in any other way

23. Do you get money from the migrant?   Yes/ No If yes ….

a) Regularly every month

b) Occasionally

24. How do you utilize this amount?
a)For subsistence
b) For occupation
c) For saving
d) For education
e) For other uses

25. Do you feel that migrant should come back to the village?   Yes/ No