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Chapter - 2
**Does the Quality of Life of Workers Improve
after Migration? Evidence from Goa**

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Chapter - 2

Does The Quality of Life of Workers Improve after Migration? Evidence from Goa

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Abstract

The paper examines the issue of internal migration in Goa. The main objective of the paper was to highlight the quality of life of migrant workers in Goa. The study is based on primary data collected from 350 migrant workers in North and South Goa. The result of the logistic regression model shows that the quality of life of migrant workers is lower compared to the local workers. In addition, the majority of migrant workers were young and migrated in search of higher wages and a better quality of life. The study also found that the wealth of migrant workers was significantly lower than that of native workers. The regression coefficients for the number of days worked was negative, indicating that migrant workers receive a lower number of days worked per year. We conclude that the large number of young people moving to other states shows that India's employment generating initiatives have failed. It means that the cumulative causation process, which is having an impact on the various states, is causing the difference between the states to widen with time. Therefore, it is essential from a policy perspective that migration does not have a detrimental influence on regions that are already experiencing backwardness. It is imperative that adequate air, lighting, drinking water, and sanitary facilities be provided for them.

Keywords: Migration, migrants workers, local workers, age, assets, working days.

Introduction

Employee migration is a human phenomenon with deep historical roots and broad ramifications. Migrations have an economic origin and subsequent socio-political and cultural repercussions. Throughout India, social structures and patterns of development are the fundamental drivers of migration. The fundamental driving force for migration is uneven development. The

differences between regionally and among uniquely created socioeconomic strata are brought to it. The majority of migrants are landless, impoverished people from lower castes, indigenous groups, and economically underdeveloped areas. The unfavourable distress factors push them to the urban centers with the intent of saving a part of their income. But they are often exploited by the middlemen and other agents. The vulnerable sections of migrants are women and children.

Migrants are very often subjected to new social and living conditions in their new settlements. The right to reside and settle in any area of Indian territory is guaranteed by Article 19(1)(e) of the charter, subject to reasonable restrictions in the benefit of the general public or the safety of any scheduled tribe. However, people who migrate for work face significant challenges such as:

- i) Lack of social security and health benefits and poor implementation of the minimum protection standards regulation.
- ii) A loss of portability of country-provided benefits, particularly food provided through the public distribution system (PDS).
- iii) A loss of access to affordable housing and basic amenities in urban areas.

According to the 2011 census, Goa has a population of 14.58 lakh people, 18.5% of whom are immigrants from other states. About 1.35 lakh people moved to Goa from other states in 2011, and since then, the population has been increasing. Although these employees are mostly employed in the hotel, tourism, and construction industries, they have a sizable presence in almost every other sector in the state. The majority of inter-state migrant workers lack adequate housing and are forced to live in unsanitary neighborhoods without adequate sanitation and safe drinking water, which contributes to the spread of communicable diseases and other social problems in society. The inter-state migration, aside from the neighboring states of West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Chhattisgarh, and Jharkhand are the dominant migrant labours force in state's job sector. Reports have shown, these individuals work for a meager wage and make up the least privileged corporations in the labour market. The criminal protection envisioned by the Interstate Migrant Workmen (law of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979 is not available to them because they are not employed through a contractor or intermediary.

There are many reasons why migration is increasing in Goa. Workers from other states moved to Goa in pursuit of higher pay and better living

conditions due to the high wages. Rapid industrialisation and the ensuing growth of the tourism sector led to a rise in technical and white-collar occupations. In addition, due to unexpected growth in a variety of unrelated areas, such as production and home-based businesses, the influx of migrants labour have been increasing in recent years. Further, boom in construction industry and flourishing service sector had provided a vast employment opportunity for migrants labour. Besides, Goa is one of the more prosperous states, with a per capita income of Rs.49, 673, the highest in the country. These also provide incentives for migrants to influx in Goa, as migrant's population who are largely marginalized are fascinated by high living standard in state.

Review of literature

The studies on impact of migration are sparse in Goa. This make even difficult to trace the effect of migrations on Goan economy and its positive and adverse effect. However, various studies have highlighted the issues of migration, its causes, its beneficial and negative effect on society. Shamna and Baiju (2016) use a qualitative tool to gauge satisfaction with their working and living conditions. The issues that immigrant employees confront include wages, employment, living conditions, working conditions, health-related concerns, and social security benefits. Rajan & Suneetha (2015) found that migrant labourers in the southern Indian state of Kerala face daily hardships such as a fight for a better living wage and better working circumstances. They put up with the sweat and labour because those who come to India from other regions of the country promise them a brighter future. Using information from the Indian Census, Viswanathan and Kumar (2012) investigate the three-way interaction between climate variability, agricultural productivity, and internal migration in India at the state and district levels. With respect to the per capita net state domestic product, the interstate outmigration rate has an elasticity of about (-) 0.75. Korra (2011) looked into the characteristics of both temporary and long-term migration. The majority of short-term migrants, it was found, relocated to metropolitan and other rich rural areas in search of work. Permanent migration is more common among female migrants seeking better opportunities. According to Mahapatro (2010), migration studies should place more emphasis on the impact of economic factors in determining female migration, rather than just family and employment reasons. The data show that throughout time, the labour participation rate of female migrants increased in rural-urban migration relative to female non-migrants. According to Bhagat (2010), the percentage of the workforce, per capita income, and the share of the state's

gross domestic product produced by industries other than agriculture were all significantly positively connected with both in-migration and out-migration rates. However, state-level analysis did not discover a significant link between poverty and a rise in out-migration. Mehta (1996) assessed the volume of high-skilled immigration from India before identifying two of its effects on the domestic economy. Remittances sent home have surged as a result of high-skilled migration; at the moment, India is the world's top beneficiary of remittances. The nation's deficits have diminished as a result of the accessibility of these remittances. Prabhat (2007) looks into the nature of development gaps and interstate migration in India. The Composite Development Index was calculated using 14 socioeconomic indicators. It is discovered that the net migration rate and interstate disparities are connected. The relationship between these differences and net male migration rate is stronger. Based on an analysis of the empirical data, Haan (1999) draws the conclusion that it may not be able to draw broad conclusions about the traits of migrants or the impacts of migration on overall development, inequality, or poverty. Population mobility should be encouraged by policies, and options for enhancing its benefits should be investigated.

Given the dearth of research in this field, we concentrate on three key elements in our paper. First, we aim to provide a evidence of state which are contributing maximum to migration in Goa. Second, to understand the socio-economic profile of migrants labours in Goa. Third, to determine the quality of life migrants enjoys when compared to local workers. We have used simple statistical tools such as averages, parentages'. Further, we have provided a result using logit regression model. The study is analytical and descriptive in nature. Separate structured interview schedules for migrant workers, local workers, and employers were used to obtain primary data. A total of 350 migrant labourers were taken into account: in North Goa 200 workers were selected and in South Goa, 150.

Analyses and interpretations

We began our analysed by providing a demographic profile of the respondents. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic profiles of the respondents

Variables	Category	Number of Respondents	Percentages
Age	Up to 25	160	45.71
	26-35	120	34.28
	Above 35	70	20.01
Total		350	100

Gender	Male	275	78.57
	Female	75	21.43
Total		350	100
Marital Status	Single	210	60.00
	Married	140	40.00
Total		350	100
Number of dependent family members	01-03	130	37.14
	03-05	120	34.28
	More than 5	100	28.75
Total		350	100
Area	Rural	280	80.00
	Urban	70	20.00
Total		350	100
Education	Primary	160	45.71
	Secondary	80	22.85
	Higher Secondary	60	17.14
	Graduate	50	14.28
Total		350	100

Source: Author calculations based on Primary Data

The migrant population of Goa is described in various fascinating ways in the demographic profile. Table 1 shows that the age group between 25 and 35 years old, which is followed by the age group under 25 years old, accounts for the largest proportion of migrant workers (45.71 percent) and (34.28 percent). Additionally, around 21.01 percent of the migrating population is above the age of 35. (20.01 percent). The classification based on gender reveals that males migrate at a higher rate (78.57 percent) than females (21.43 percent). Further, we discovered in our sample study that migration is higher among single people (60%) than it is among married people (about 40%). The number of family members who are dependent on the migrants' labour is another fascinating feature of the demographic profile analysis. According to our research, 37.14 percent of migrant workers have 1 to 3 family members who are dependent on them. The percentage of migrant workers who had dependent family members in the age groups of 3 to 5 and more than 5 was followed by 34.28 and 28.75 percent, respectively. The data also demonstrates that the majority of migrants come from rural areas (80%), while only around 20% of migrants come from urban areas, which is consistent with migration theory, which states that this is where the rural-urban migration typically occurs.

We have also broken down migrant labour by state of origin. According to the census from 2011, we chose these states for our study since there is a large migration rate to Goa from these states. Additionally, these states score poorly on economic development metrics such the HDI, PCI, or HPI.

Table 2: Migrant labour by state of origin

States	Total number of respondents	Percentage
Bihar	46	13.14
Assam	28	08.00
Jharkhand	14	04.00
Uttar Pradesh	43	12.28
Orissa	12	03.42
Bengal	24	12.00
Karnataka	145	41.42
Chattisghad	38	10.85

Source: Primary Data

The study's findings indicate that the state of Goa experiences a maximum inflow of migration of about 41% from Karnataka. Such high-level migrations can be explained by two different factors. First off, Karnataka is a neighboring state to Goa and has excellent transportation options. Second, it is convenient for immigrants to quickly pick up Goan languages and culture. The largest influx of migrants after Karnataka comes from Bihar (13.14 percent), next from Uttar Pradesh (12.28 percent), West Bengal (12.28 percent), Assam (08 percent), Jharkhand (4 percent), and Orissa (03.42 percent).

We also looked at the source of information regarding job information for migrants in our investigation. We have identified a number of factors that could serve as informational resources for migrants travelling to Goa. The recognised sources of employment openings were agents, close relatives, social networks, and other people. Table 3 contains the findings from the sources of information about the job opportunity.

Table 3: Source of knowledge about job opportunity

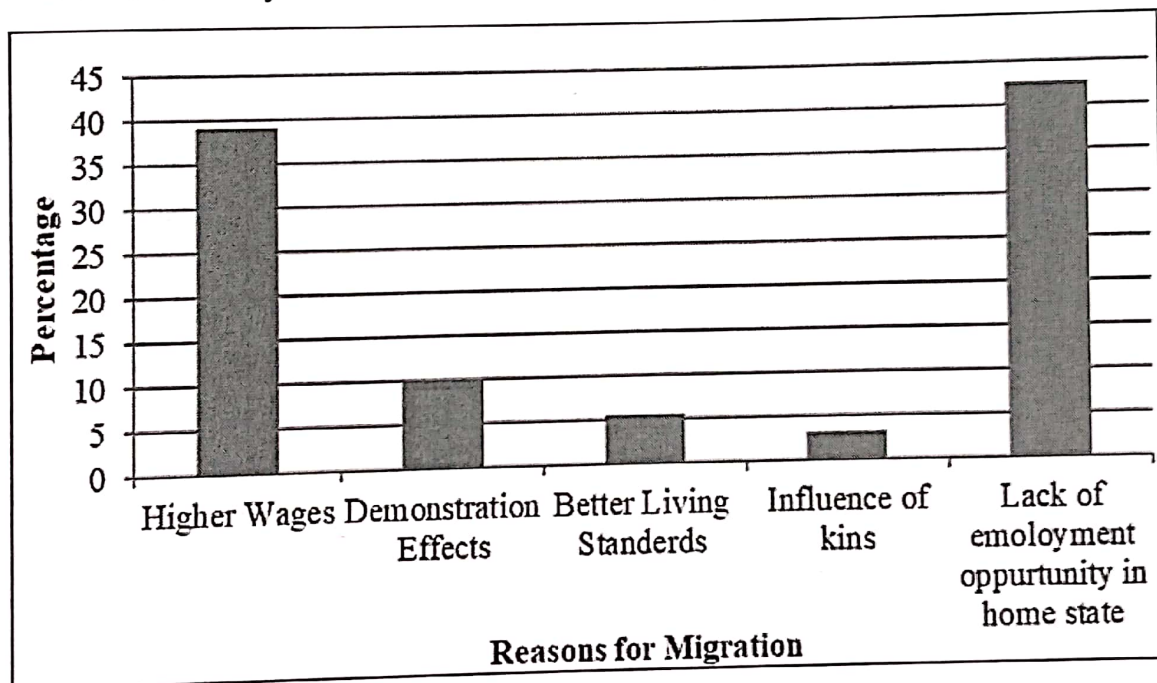
Source of Knowledge	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Social Network	174	49.79
Agents	45	12.85
Relatives and close Kin	67	19.14
Media	34	09.71
others	10	2.85

Total	250	100
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Source: Primary data

According to the analysis, the majority of the migrant workers were aware of job openings via their social networks. We discovered that 49.79% of migrants learn about job openings in Goa using social networks. Following this were family members and close friends (19.14%), agencies (12.85%), the media (09.71%), and other sources at roughly 2.85 percent.

We also looked at the reasons why people migrate to Goa as labourers, which was an interesting topic. We identify a number of them, including improved living conditions, higher earnings, the demonstration effect, the absence of employment possibilities in the home state, and the influence of friends and family. The outcome is shown in Figure 1 below.



Source: Primary Data

Fig 1: Reasons for migrations from domicile state

The higher incomes that draw a lot of migrants to Goa, as seen in Figure 1, are the main drivers of migration. According to our research, almost 39.14% of migrants moved to Goa in search of jobs with greater pay. Theoretical and empirical literature both strongly supports this and is in line with a priori predictions. Additionally, the dearth of employment possibilities in their home states is a contributing factor in the significant migration to Goa. We discovered that this aspect affected migrant workers' decisions by about 42.34 percent. We also discovered that migrations from the domicile state to Goa were significantly influenced by the demonstration effect. We discovered that the demonstration effect causes about 10% of migrants to relocate to Goa.

The quality of life of migrant workers is then understood by calculating the logistic regression. A dummy variable that represents different forms of labour is used as the dependent variable in the study. The dummy variable is programmed to indicate 1 if they are migrant workers and 0 if they are local workers. In the logistic regression model, six significant variables that are connected to the workers' quality of lives were used as independent variables. Age, assets possessed, job, salaries, working days, and living expenditures were some of the factors in the model. Except for working days and living expenditures, all independent variables were changed to dummy variables. In our approach, we treat the number of working days and daily living costs as continuous variables. We have presented the summary of the logistic regression in Table 4.

Table 4: Coefficients of final logistic regression model

Step	-2 log likelihood	Cox & snell R square	Nagelkerke R square
13	34.326	0.804	0.947

Source: Authors Calculation based on primary

According to the model summary of logistic regression, Cox and Snell's R square is 0.814, meaning that the six variables kept in the final regression model account for 70.4% of the variation in the status of being a migrant or local laborer. According to Nagelkerke R Square, 94.7 percent of the variation is covered by the independent variables that were kept. According to the findings, the six variables account for nearly 80% of the difference in laborers' status as either migrants or locals.

We now proceed to calculate the logistic regression model's coefficient. Table 5 includes the coefficient and associated attributes.

Table 5: Result of logistic regression model's coefficient

Variables	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.
Age	6.51	3.647	3.199	1	0.034
Assets held	-7.764	3.267	5.671	1	0.017
Employment, Wages	-15.291	4.285	12.73	1	0.002
Wages per day	-4.039	5.567	4.56	1	0.001
Working days	-9.876	6.897	8.984	1	0.000
Living Expenses	-6.564	8.987	8.576	1	0.000

Sources: Author calculation based on primary data

At a significance level of 5%, the coefficient of all the variables is significant. The Wald results and Stanford errors show that the model is well-fitted, highly effective, and consistently reliable. We can now move on

to the result estimations. The final regression model's results showed that the dummy variables' coefficients for the age are positive. The conclusion that follows is that migrant workers are generally younger than local workers. Since the coefficient is largest in this age group, the proportions of migrant workers are substantially larger in the youngest age range of up to 25 years. Although they have a negative coefficient, the asset variables are quite important. It indicates that, in comparison to local workers, migratory labourers have fewer assets. There are two plausible explanations for this. Due to Goa's significantly higher rent costs, the labour force of migrants must first spend a larger portion of their salary on accommodation. Second, the migrant workers send the money to their home state because they are staying outside of their hometown and away from their relatives. Positive regression coefficients for the dummy variables denoting daily wages as the kind of employment show that migrant workers are, on average, paid daily wages. Compared to migrants, local labourers were found to have a higher percentage of contract jobs. In our model, the pay coefficient comes out to be negative but significant. This demonstrates that the average wage for migrant workers was lower than the wage for local workers by 4%. It is clear from the outcome that migrant workers make comparably less money than local workers. Workday and living expense variables are treated as continuous variables. These variables' regression coefficients are found to be negative, indicating that migrant employees receive a lesser number of working days annually. The regression coefficient demonstrates that overseas employees work nine fewer days per month than domestic employees. Meanwhile, migrant workers' living costs are significantly lower (6%) than those of native labourers. This may be primarily because, in comparison to local labour, the majority of migrant workers do not spend their money on entertainment and other leisure pursuits.

Our research has several implications. First off, the enormous number of young people leaving other states demonstrates the failure of India's employment generation policies. Second, it implies that the gap between the states is growing over time due to the cumulative causation process, which is affecting the different states. Third, it is abundantly obvious from the data that the majority of the states have failed to offer youth job possibilities, which has led to population migration and the establishment of firms in other states. Fourth, although migrants move with the purpose of earning higher pay and increasing their quality of life, the quality of their work life is lower to that of local workers. Finally, excessive migration might result in social, economic, and unemployment issues in the receiving state.

Conclusion

Migration has been a significant human activity for centuries, driven by the desire for better economic opportunities and safer environments. These movements significantly impact the lives of migrants and their communities, enhancing their prospects and those of their offspring. However, migration also has a significant impact on society, particularly in regions already experiencing backwardness. To prevent negative effects, it is crucial to improve the quality of life in these regions, ensuring they have suitable sanitary, drinking, and lighting conditions. Additionally, the potential impact on host communities' infrastructure and resources must be considered. Investments in healthcare, education, and transportation sectors are essential to ensure better living conditions for both natives and immigrants. Policies should also promote social cohesiveness and reduce conflicts, encouraging integration and cultural interaction between immigrants and host communities.

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