MIGRATION FROM GOA: FACTORS, HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS AND CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE INEQUALITIES

A Thesis submitted to Goa University

For the Award of the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS

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Dedicated

To my Grandmother

Maria Basilia Gloria Ida Monterio E Pires

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms. Lira Menezes Gama has worked on the thesis entitled, 'Migration from Goa: Factors, Household Characteristics and Consumption Expenditure Inequalities' under my supervision and guidance. This thesis being submitted to Goa University, Taleigao Plateau, Goa, for award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics, is a record of the original work carried out by the candidate herself and has not been submitted for the award of any degree, diploma, scholarship or fellowship of this or any other University.

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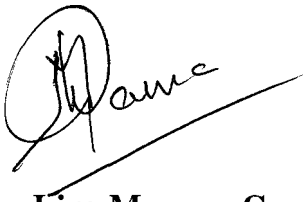
DECLARATION

I declare that the present thesis entitled, 'Migration from Goa: Factors, Household Characteristics And Consumption Expenditure Inequalities', is a consolidation of original work which has been carried out by me under the guidance of **Dr. Silvia M. De Mendonca e Noronha,** Professor, Department of Economics, Goa University, and that the same has not been submitted to any university or institute for the award of any degree, diploma or other such title.



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Mrs. Lira Menezes Gama
Research Scholar

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ABBREVIATIONS

SR. NO.	FULL FORM	ABBREVIATIONS
1.	Households	HHs
2.	International migrants	EMI
3	Internal migrants	OMI
4.	Non-migrants	NOM
5.	Monthly per capita expenditure	MPCE
6	Lorenz Curve	LC

CHAPTER -1

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

According to International Organization of Migration, 2011 migration is defined as, 'the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification'. Migration in recent years has been discussed not only in its volume of dynamic growth, but also its increase in variations in the types of migratory flows and is associated with terms such as family migration, circular migration, student mobility, etc. The mobility process is an important component of globalization and economic development, more so for less developed countries, thus entailing for a more wide-ranging and extensive understanding of the same.

Movement of people from their place of origin is a major force shaping international reality and is very effective in bringing about social changes and cultural interactions in the concerned countries. Migrants are provided with profitable opportunities to progress and are an important factor that has diverse developmental effects on both the home and host countries. Furthermore, migration results in the flow of finance, ideas, behaviors, languages, technologies and opportunities, both to and from the receiving countries and sending countries. History unfolds that people have migrated despite the physical, cultural, and economic obstacles in search of better lives. Migration varied greatly within countries, among regions and localities with apparently similar characteristics. The exact magnitude is difficult to arrive at as it is mostly undocumented, besides there is

reluctance of some governments to collect and publish the data on migrants and also many countries use different legal definitions to define migration.

The early migrant streams were often characterized by farmers and artisans from rural areas travelling in family groups with the objective of settling permanently and acquisition of land at the frontier, but as the century progressed, and as Europe itself industrialized, the migrants from any given country were less likely to originate with agricultural background. Historical perception of international migration tells us that some countries like Italy, Germany and Ireland in situations of severe famines or pressure of land pushed the unskilled labour towards labour scarce nations of North America and Australia. After the exploration and expansions of the European nations during the 16^{th} and 17^{th} centuries in the established colonies, there was a redistribution of the European population to North America, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and South America. The United Nations was one of the many destinations for the overseas expansion of European population. In order to reap benefits of oil revenues the Gulf States particularly Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Qatar imported large number of cheap and unskilled workers from Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Philippines and some Arab countries, on contract basis during the 1970s.

Contemporary migration, unlike the earlier migratory phenomenon, is uniquely related to the processes of economic and social integration which is collectively known as globalization, and is drowned in complexities, such as intricate legal barriers to settlement, recruitment mechanisms and institutional factors. The rich and complex patterns of modern migration have wide ranging demographic, economic, social, spatial and environmental consequences and are increasingly becoming important component of national and regional population change.

1.2 TYPES OF MIGRATION

The concept of migration essentially rests upon four crucial dimensions of movement of people: -space, residence, time and activity change. Based on the above criteria migration can be understood as stated below:-

a) ***Spatial Migration***- Spatial migration implies a movement from one place to another, which means a change of 'area' and a movement over some 'distance'.

b) ***Residential Migration***- Residential migration implies a movement to stay somewhere else, which of course raises the conceptual ambiguity of what constitutes "staying" and the matter of "duration of stay".

c) ***Temporal Migration***- This third aspect of population movement is the temporal dimension. How long should someone be away from a place is to be counted as having migrated.

d) ***Activity Migration***- The fourth dimension of population movement is change in the place of activity. A person can change place of activity without changing current or usual place of residence (Oberai, 1987).

The heterogeneity of the mobility process makes the use of such terminological complex. And based on the above aspects of migration, (space, residence, time and activity) population mobility is further defined as follows:-

Temporary Migration: - There is a change in the place of activity but not "usual" residence and consists of circular migrants (seasonal migrants). However a period of 30 long years can also be considered as "temporary migrants" because of the intention to return home. Temporary or transient migrants are those who shuttle between the city and their village wherein part of the year they work in the city and then return to their village during the sowing season. Modernization, quick and cheap means of transportation and

communication helps them to move between their village and the city where they work in factories, construction sites, etc. as daily wage labourers.

Transfers Migration: -A transfer involves movement of residence but no change in activity.

Long-term Migration:-There is a change in both residence and place of activity for a prolonged period.

Voluntary Migration: -The major reason for voluntary migration is economic and can be temporary or permanent (Cherunilam, 2010). Many studies suggest that migrants leave the area of origin primarily due to lack of economic opportunities & move elsewhere in the hope of finding better openings.

Settled or Resident Migration: -Settled or Resident Migrants are those who have settled in towns and cities on getting permanent jobs, they constitute an expanding group of middle class people having middle class values. Many of them have their families alongside and prefer white-collar jobs, rarely settling on a low productive, low paying and unpleasant jobs.

New and Fresh Migration:-New and fresh migrants come from villages and take up whatever jobs are made available to them with the help of settled migrants. Very few among these people find jobs in industries. The rest of them find self or wage employment as petty traders, hawkers, trucks and taxi drivers, rickshaw pullers, petty services providers, workers in repair shops, mechanics, office peons, etc.

Forced and Refugee Migration:-Forced and refugee migration is also termed as involuntary migration. In this type of migration circumstances cause the potential migrant not to remain at his home. Involuntary movements (more so international) of people occur due to two factors, *viz,* man-made and natural factors. Man-made factors are political, religious or racial in character and natural causes or factors can be suitably explained as environmental catastrophes.

Illegal Migration: -Illegal migration is also termed as undocumented migration. Illegal immigrants are those who have entered a country without government permission or stayed beyond the termination date of their visa.

Rural to Rural Migration: - In many poor countries/ regions, rural-rural migration dominates, as poor labourers with little education and either low/or no assets for investments travel to the agriculturally prosperous areas.

Rural to Urban Migration: - Rural to urban migration is the movement of people from rural to urban areas due to urbanization. Distinctly common in developing countries as industrialization takes place, it results in a shift of human resources from regions/areas where their marginal productivity is assumed to be zero to locations where their marginal productivity is not only positive but also growing due to technological progress and capital accumulation. This type of migration is considered desirous, as it results in economic development and growth of the rural areas and is due to rapid urbanizing economies which provide better pay (urban incomes are higher) and more regular work (as rural jobs are seasonal) as compared to rural areas.

Urban to Rural Migration: -Also referred to as counter-urbanization, this type of migration represents movement of people from urban to rural areas and is considered positively as it balances the out-migration of younger groups and more common in developed countries. Urban to rural migration is mostly by older retired couples or returnees (Pottier, 1988), is due to high cost of urban living, of those who rarely find a permanent white collar job on which to retire (Murphy, 1999), structural adjustments (Mbonile, 1995), demobilization from the army (Bryceson, 1999), better environment for children as well as the wish of living in a single family house (EEA, 2006), and to re-establish a certain quality to life (Hardill et al.2004). In addition many cities with high population growth, high property prices with small sized houses and deficient transportation system have worked towards "push factors" for urban to rural migration.

Non-Migrants:- Non- migrants are those who have never moved or who have never changed either place of residence or activity within a specified period. Such non-migrants can be either committed residents or potential migrants.

Internal Migration: - Migration of people within a country or moving to another place within the boundaries and

International Migration: - Migration of people across borders from one country to another.

1.3 REASONS FOR MIGRATION

Migrating people come to new locales (mostly to urban settlement) in search of livelihood and living space. In most neo-classical models, migration is seen as an equilibrating factor as individuals respond rationally to the comparative incentives of different sectors (Stretton, 1983), i.e., migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high prospects. Migration in all its variation is influenced by forces internal to the relatively poor, less-developed areas and to externally link with the relatively rich more developed areas, which influence the desire to migrate.

Economists believe that disparities in regional economic opportunities and geographic amenities are the most important determinants of migration (Todaro 1969, 1976; Massey et al. 1993; Borjas, 1999). The National Commission for Rural Labour Report (1991) suggests that labourers and farmers with little or no land have a high propensity to migrate as seasonal labourers.

The pressures of human migration, whether as absolute conquest or by slow cultural intrusion and resettlement or for that matter any other factor, have affected the impressive epochs in history. Though considered as a complex process, movement of people has been an important feature of human societies for centuries. The socio-economic characteristic of a migrant is of utmost importance while determining the

factors responsible for migration decision. The varying numerous reasons as to why people choose to migrate, are summarized as **push and pull factors.** These factors stimulate or influence the migration decision, both at the sending and the receiving end. They can be economic, political, cultural and environmentally driven.

1.3.1 Push factors

Push factors are related to the country from which a person migrates vis-à-vis with the country which attracts the migrants.

a. Joblessness/ bad working conditions/ low pay
b. Family ties, separation
c. Study and research; special qualifications abroad; job-related foreign assignment
d. Sinking living standards/ poverty; general situation of poor countries
e. Religious/ ethnic conflicts/ persecution ;xenophobia; human rights violations
f. War : mortal danger
g. Heavy environmental damage; drought: hunger, health risks

1.3.2 Pull factors

Pull factors on the other hand are general benefits that attract people to a certain place.

I. New work/ job; better condition/ lucrative pay
II. Family reunification
III. Special conditions for study and research; research area
IV. Social stability/ affluence
V. Safety/ Freedom from persecution/survival/ human rights protection
VI. Security of nourishments and health
VII. Social stability/ securing survival (Agozino, 2000).

1.4 CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

The benefits and short comings accrued to both the source country and the destination country which are briefly listed as follows:-

1.4.1 BENEFITS OF MIGRATION

1.4 .1.1 Benefits to Source Country

- Decreases the labour pool
- Helps to alleviate unemployment and in a way enhances better prospects of life for younger people
- Reduces income inequalities.
- Remittances received are beneficial in the following manner:- increases incomes (of HHs, local communities and national economies),enhances better standards of living, helps in higher investments in education, assists in savings and investments, poverty alleviation, augments the foreign exchange reserves, contributes toward countries trade balance and ensures sustained economic growth.
- Returning migrants bring savings, skills and international contacts.
- There is also 'brain gain' through transfer of knowledge from destination countries to source countries and
- Migration of young people leaves behind ageing population and hence better services can be provided for the old.

1.4.1.2 Benefits to Destination Country

- Job openings and skill gaps are filled.
- Migrants of all skill levels spawn creativity, enriches cultural diversity and spur economic growth
- New young workers contribute to the destination country by paying taxes which helps these countries' to cover up any financial deficiencies like pension gap etc.
- Closing down of schools due to falling numbers can be transformed.
- Facilitates development of new air routes thereby benefitting tourism industry
- Local workers will be more efficient and productive due to competition, which will in turn contribute towards new ideas and result in fresh approach to business and
- Greater cultural links between nations that will facilitate international trade.

In addition to the above, the ILO on UN International youth day in 2013 cited additional benefits of migration to destination countries, that migration:-

- Contributes to the survival and expansion of the sectors where firms are hiring migrants.
- Usually complement rather than compete with similar native workers.
- Will help boost the economy through consumption and investment and
- Young migrant workers with decent jobs, pay taxes, contribute to social security, and to the development of the economy and society of destination countries.

1.4.2 COSTS OF MIGRATION

1.4.2.1 Costs to Source Country

- The source country loses their most active, highly trained and enterprising members i.e., young men and women to migration which can have a destabilizing

effect on the family at micro-level and economy on a macro level. In other words children left behind will grow up without a wider family circle

- Brain drain has been a major issue as far as disadvantages of migration to the source country is concerned. Brain drain leads to low productivity, loss of investment on education, health, etc. and
- Remittances raise inequalities

1.4.2.2 Costs to destination country

- Temporary depression in wages may occur.
- Productivity, training and innovations may be ignored due to workers willingness to work for relatively low pay.
- Migrants may be exploited.
- Increased pressure on public services due to increase in population.
- Unrestricted migration can lead to unemployment and
- Integration difficulties that can result in friction with the local community.

Maimbo and Ratha (2005) have listed main concerns of migration from developed countries:-

- Local workers' fear of competition from migrants;
- The fiscal burden that may fall on native taxpayers for providing health and social security benefits to migrants;
- Fears of erosion of cultural identity and problems of assimilation of immigrants and;
- National security

The home and receiving countries in the long-run will have to deal with its own shares of merits and demerits of this never-ending phenomenon. Migration will continue due to personal gains and will facilitate labour mobility between origin and destination

countries, which can be viewed in the right perspective. This large movement of people will demand more security monitoring, as easy movement of populace have opened the doors to crime and human trafficking.

1.5 GOAN MIGRATION TREND- A BRIEF HISTORY

Goa is a narrow strip of land located in western India. It is nestled between the states of Maharashtra to the north, Karnataka to the east and south and the Arabian Sea to its western coastline of 131kilometers.The tiny state covers an area of 3,702 km^2 (1,429 square meters) of land which is 0.11 per cent of the total geographical area of the country and has a population of 14, 57,723 which accounts for 0.12 per cent of national population (as per 2011 census). This smallest state of India has a rich history of being ruled by many dynasties over the centuries, until in 1510 when the Portuguese established their permanent settlement for over four and a half centuries. It can be rightly said that Goa has witnessed an edifying synthesis of its people under different empires over the years.

Migration whether internal or international has been a part of Goan history right from the 16^{th} century (Pinto, 1970) when Goa had a population of a few thousands, to the present day population of over a million residents. Even to the present day unbridled migration takes place from Goa to neighbouring places in India and to far off places around the world, thus, supporting Pearson (1990), who asserted that, "Goans have always, even in the Pre-Portuguese times been open to the Arabian Sea & its littoral". And an important feature of Goa migration process was that migrating people were not drawn from any particular social category but the wave was such that as De Souza (1999) quotes an interview, "everyone was going to Africa, so I went also".

The Bulk of the migrants from Goa originated from coastal Talukas or from old conquests, such as Bardez, Salcete, Mormugao & Tiswadi. As far as religion is concerned Christian Goans compared to other religions, have always been a part of the

Portuguese and their seafaring tradition, for a long time. In other words the Christian community crossed the sea easily while Hindus considered it as a taboo. The ease by which the Christian population were open to travelling or crossing the sea is evident from a drastic decline in their number from 63.83 per cent as per 1851 census (De Souza, 1990) to 38.07% in 1960 and further to26.68 per cent (Economic Survey 2004–05). It should also be noted that the Hindu population increased from 59.92 per cent during 1960 to 65.79 per cent in present times. The decline of Christian population and an increase in Hindu population is attributed to out-migration of Christians and the return of the descendants of Hindu migrants who had fled Goa during Portuguese era (De Souza, 1990). Da Silva Gracias (2000) has categorized Goan out-migration (whether internal or international) in the following manner:-

- Early initial migration to the neighbouring kingdoms
- Migration to British India & Africa
- Post-colonial migration to the Gulf, the West (Europe & America) Australia & New Zealand (Da Silva Gracias, 1999).

During 16th and 17th century, Goans migrated to the neighbouring Kingdoms specially the Hindus [reasons mentioned in section 3.3(II)] and a few Christians migrated abroad. Goans also embarked on a career at sea (17th century) and worked on ships of English East India Company and merchant navy (Carvalho, 2008). These seamen were called *'tarvotti'*, which comes from the Sanskrit-Konkani word 'tarun' meaning boat.

The second phase of migration was during 19th and 20th centuries. Goans migrated in large numbers to British India & Africa (East) (Da Silva Gracias, 1999). The latter part of the nineteenth century, witnessed a regular practice of going 'out' to urban areas by a large number of Catholics and also some Hindus. There was a considerable demand for cooks, waiters, butlers, ayas (caretakers), tailors and musicians in various parts of India and also European countries. A small number of Goans, mainly from upper-caste, who

were literate in English managed to get white collar jobs (De Souza, 1999). During the Napoleonic Wars, i.e., in the 19th and first half of 20th century, Goa was occupied by British, whose ships were anchored in Goa and many Goans worked on them & when the ships left the Goan shores, they also went along with them.

In the 19th century Goa witnessed a stagnating economy with non-availability of jobs even for educated Goans. A section of news that appeared in 'The Anglo-Lusitano', (1896) which reads as follows reveals this situation. "Under the cloak of phantom of sedition all the responsible posts which were held by the natives of Goa have been done away with from them and a reign of Europeismo has earnestly commenced. What is the use then of the lycenm if we are to be deprived of any appointments". Consequently, Goans relied heavily on migration to earn a basic livelihood.

In the 20th century Goa saw an uptrend in the economy with the discovery of mineral deposits in many Talukas. The development of the mining industry was in favour of Goans due to availability of different types of jobs associated with mining. In spite of the growth of this promising sector, Goans were not deterred from migrating to foreign places with better salaries and superior ways of life. On the eve of Goa's liberation in 1961, 17% of its 5.89 lakh population had already migrated.

In the Post-Colonial Period, (1960's onward) the migratory trend of Goans took a different turn. Goans could no longer migrate to Africa as in 1960's Africa closed its doors, due to Kenyanisation in Africa. In 1973, the Gulf region was experiencing a price hike where large revenue accelerated the growth of industries and required the services of skilled & unskilled workers thus in early 1980's to 1990's Goans migrated to the Middle-East countries for better job opportunities. The migration phenomenon which was temporary i.e., for short-period in the earlier years, became a long term feature in order to reap the benefits like better and secure job prospects with regular salary, pensions, etc.

Our history reveals that Goans have travelled to the length and breadth of the world and currently Goans have settled in Canada, Britain, USA, Portugal, Australia and many more countries. Today migration and in particular international migration raises both hopes and concerns for Goans as migrants include large number of highly educated people and also a significant flow of relatively low skilled workers. Internal migrations too have had a significant impact on the Goan economy as many have moved to towns like Bombay, Bangalore, Pune, etc., to pursue higher studies in well- established colleges especially in technical subjects such as engineering and medicine and to secure well paid jobs.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The large scale migration witnessed by Goa over the years has resulted in a drastic change in Goa's distinctiveness, its culture and has hugely affected the economic life of the people. Undulated migration has taken place of middle-aged men and women and therefore changes have been observed in the HH characteristics such as family size and HH composition.

Factors affecting migration have also undergone radical changes with the initial stream of migrants from Goa consisting of illiterate or semi- skilled Goans migrating individually to earn a livelihood to present day educated Goans migrating with family with a quest for a high standard of living.

D'Souza (1975) had expressed the changes that would take place in Goa's population in due course of time due to migration and that it will be mainly composed of illiterate or uneducated agricultural peasants, retired old people and younger generation. The present scenario reported by the Census (2011) data has revealed the troubling facts that Goa is facing. This small State has the second-largest proportion of senior citizens (60

years and above) in the country, i.e. around 11.2% and has the lowest proportion of young children in the entire country, in the age group of zero to fourteen year old.

Furthermore consumerism has reached a different level and is affecting the sustainability of this tiny state. NSS 63rd round on HH consumer expenditure in Goa reports that there were no HHs in rural areas with monthly per capita consumption expenditure of less than rupees 510 per person. Similarly in urban areas too there were no HHs with monthly per capita consumption expenditure of less than rupees 580 per person. The MPCE of non-food Group in rural and urban areas was rupees 895.30 and rupees 908.53 respectively. It is important to note that on an average people in Goa spend more towards non-food items than food-items and all this may be attributable to the reasonably high per capita income in the State. Compared to the other states of India, Goa has been experiencing a higher standard of living in terms of literacy levels, healthcare, educational level and wages which are far exceeding the national average. Goan economy has witnessed a boom in remittance income from abroad which has caused an incredible change in the consumption patterns of Goans making them conspicuous consumer's which in turn has an adverse effect on the standard of living in the state.

The study of return migrants is important as a large body of work has shown that migration is often temporary rather than permanent and returns migrants often become successful entrepreneurs (McCormick and Wahba, 2001) or bring back highly productive skills with positive consequences for their countries. There is also evidence that return migrants receive income premia for their work experience abroad (Reinhold and Thom, 2009). Goa too has a substantial number of return migrants (internal as well as international) and therefore the study on return migrants is inevitable, moreover recognizing the over-all contribution in the progress of the economy.

Migration is a socially desirable phenomenon which cannot be stopped altogether. However the above developments in a small state like Goa bring forth the following socio-economic issues which need to be addressed in a suitable manner.

1. What are the most susceptible factors that are responsible for this out-ward movement of human resource?
2. Is there any effect of migration on the demography of Goa especially with respect to the HH characteristics'?
3. How has the consumption expenditure in Goa brought about a paradigm shift in the basic nature of the economy? And
4. What is the state of affairs as regards to the inequalities in the HH consumption expenditure on food and non-food items?

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The impressive history of Goan migration necessitates the following objectives:-

1. To examine the **factors** responsible for migration (internal as well as international) of Goans.
2. To know whether there is any **effect** of migration on HH characteristics in the three groups of HHs observed in Goa. **The 3 groups of HHs are---**international migrant HHs (EMI), internal migrant HHs (OMI) & non-migrant HHs (NOM) and the **HH characteristics** are HH size, number of adult males, number of adult females, number of children and **HH head characteristics** like age, gender, educational status and activity status of HHs
3. To derive the **determinants of consumption expenditure function** for food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs and identify any variations

4. To examine the consumption-expenditure **inequalities** on various food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs and
5. To suggest measures for policy formulation.

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study attempts to find the factors affecting Goan migration, effects of migration on the HH characteristics and consumption expenditure inequality in Goa. To achieve these broad objectives the researcher uses the cross-sectional data on Goa prepared under the title 'Goa Migration Study-2008' (GMS-2008). The GMS-2008 study has categorized Goans as: - emigrants, return emigrants, out-migrants, return out-migrants and non- migrants {explained in section 1.10 (i)}.

Accordingly to analyses the factors affecting international and internal migration, the whole sample respondents (i.e. 26,313) are categorized as international migrant, internal migrant and non-migrant. To study the HH characteristics and consumption expenditure inequalities the entire HH is considered as a unit of study and the HH classification is undertaken as under:-

EMI HHs-comprises of emigrant HHs and return emigrant HHs

OMI HHs- comprises of out-migrant HHs and return out-emigrants HHs and

NOM HHs- comprises of those HHs who have no previous migration experience.

The research in conducted on to see if there is any association between HH characteristics and migration status (EMI, OMI and NOM HHs). The consumption expenditure inequalities are evaluated in the three groups of HHs observed in Goa.

1.9 RELEVANCE /SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Migration is considered as the world's oldest strategy of poverty reduction, responsible for human development and economic growth. It is gaining importance in terms of

overcoming development challenges, demographic concerns, changing patterns of demand and supply, consumption expenditure and inequality apprehensions. Thus, migration issues are pertinent at all levels –international, internal and local, as all countries today are becoming simultaneously countries of origin, destination and transit. Goa with its rich history of out-migration has been a place of origin for many migrating Goans for ages and in recent years it has reached an unprecedented level, that today Goa has become a place of destination for many from neighbouring states.

The study will be of immense importance as it will reveal the factors responsible for migration of Goans over the years, whether migration has any effect on HH characteristics, consumption expenditure and inequalities in the three groups of HHs taken for study.

The knowledge of HH characteristics will help in developing and defining the community profile of Goa which can be functional to predict future modifications in consumer demand for food and non-food items which results from changes in the socio-economic and HH characteristics of the domestic population.

The study will deal with the determinants, patterns and disparities in the HH expenditures, which will provide insights into general consumption behaviour as a major source of human well-being and respective choices and restrictions of Goans. Further as the study will examine the contribution of each food item to overall food expenditure inequality and welfare, this will enable the policy-makers to reduce inequality through taxes or subsidies in the most efficient way. The analysis will also help policy decision makers to predict future food prices, consumption patterns, movements and make legislations that will affect HH income. It will also help in monitoring and explaining inequalities and changes in material living standards and general welfare.

Although Goa has a high PCI, it is a known fact that there is a huge exodus of Goans abroad. The study will provide gainful information as to why its people are leaving their

land and also whether there are any differences and/or similarities in the international migrant HHs, internal migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs under study.

1.10 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

1.10.1 Data Description

The data source is the 'Goa Migration Study 2008' which is a joint project between the office of the Commissioner for Non-Resident Indian Affairs, Government of Goa and the Centre for Development Studies Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. Migration trajectories of Goa represent a combination of internal migration, international migration, non-migrants and return migration. The Centre for Development Studies took the responsibility of the complete design, preparation of the survey modules, scheming and selecting the sample HHs, organizing the field work, collecting, editing, analyzing the survey data and preparing the report. The primary sampling unit of GMS was at the HH level. The state of Goa consists of 2 Districts, 11 Talukas, 347 Villages, 44 Towns, 201 Town wards and 294,812 HHs as of 2001 Census. Of the total 294,812 HHs, 145,229 are in the rural areas (villages) and 149,583 in urban areas (towns). The study used 6,000 sample HHs and distributed them based on districts and rural/urban status. The stages that were used in sampling are district, Talukas, rural and urban strata, villages/town wards (localities) and HHs. From each stratum, a certain number of localities were selected on the basis of the number of HHs in the strata. From each selected locality, 100 HHs were selected by systematic random sampling method. The sample of 6,000 HHs was selected from 60 (6,000 divided by 100) localities. The distribution of the 60 sample localities is done on the basis of the proportion of HHs in the strata (based on the census 2001) to the total number of HHs in the state. The study was on:-

Emigrants - members of the HH who had moved out of Goa and were living outside India at the time of the survey.

Return emigrants - members of the HH who had emigrated out of India but returned to Goa and were members of the HH at the time of the survey.

Out-migrants – members of the HH who left Goa and were living within India at the time of the survey.

Return out-migrants - members of the HH who had migrated out of Goa to other parts of India but had returned to Goa and were members of the HH at the time of the survey.

Non- migrants- those who have no previous migration experience.

The sample consisted of 6,000 HHs selected through Stratified Multistage Random Sampling Procedure.

1.10.2 METHODOLOGY

Methodology and Variables

The research has been conducted using diverse methodologies for the various chapters, according to the suitability of the methods to the objectives under study.

Research Methodology for Chapter Three

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is the Goan migration status. The Goa Migration Study 2008 has categorized Goans as internationally migrated (country-wise), internally migrated (state-wise) and non-migrant.

The dependent variable (N=26315) is divided into three categories (see Table 1):- having migrated internationally (N=1284), having migrated only within India (N= 717) and having no migration experience (N= 24,314). This categorization is accomplished using GMS -2008 information on destination of first migration, length of stay during first migration, age at first migration, and past international and internal migration experience.

Independent Variables

The independent variables of the study are age, gender, educational attainment, marital status, activity status and relation with the HH head.

Age specific analysis tells about dependency ratio, which is the ratio of economically active to economically inactive persons and this analysis is important for Effective Policy Formulations and Planning. The Goa economic survey 2007-2008 states that people belonging to the age group of 15-59 years is 61 % of the total population. The importance of gender lies in the fact that Goa has a sex-ratio of 961 females to 1000 males (census of India 2001) which is much better than all India ratios of 933 females for 1000 males.

The educational structure in Goa is such that years of schooling often exhibits clear stages –illiterate, literate without school education, primary not completed, primary, upper primary up to secondary, secondary passed but have no degree, degree holders and others. Shifting from one stage to another can result in a vast difference in interpretation. The 1960 census reported 30.5% of the population of Goa as literate (techno –economic survey of Goa) to the census 2001 reporting the literacy percentage as 82.01.

The activity status in Goa is divided as labour force and non-labour force. The labor force is the actual number of people available for work and includes both, the employed and the unemployed. In other words the combination of employed and unemployed persons is the official specification of the civilian labour force and anyone who does not qualify for the civilian labour force is classified as 'not in the labour force'. This 'not in labour force' category largely comprise of young, elderly, homemakers, and the military. It also includes people who are either unwilling or unable to engage in productive activities. According to census 2001 Goa has a working population of 77 percent to total population. The number of job seekers on the live register at the end of 2009-10, has

76957 (regional employment exchange –Goa) or one in every 14 Goans is unemployed as on January 2013 (regional employment exchange).

Marital status has been categorised as married, unmarried, widow/widower, divorced and separated are mutually exclusive. Marriages in Goa are compulsorily registered to create legal rights and therefore the categories of married and unmarried. Widow/widower is a term used if either of the spouse is dead (widow if the husband is dead and widower if the wife is dead). Divorced people are legally no longer husband and wife, whereas separated individuals are husband and wife until the court decree to annul the marriage.

The family structure of Goa is such that land owners choose to live in a joint family structure, but urban-dwellers prefer the nuclear family system (Larsen, 1998).

Table: - 1.1 Variables Used in the Analysis in Chapter three

Data variable	Data explanation	Data type	Conditioned used
DEPENDENT VARIABLE			
Migration status	International Internal Non-migrant	Multinomial	1- International 2- Internal 3- Non-migrant
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE			
Age	Age of members in years	Continuous	
sex	Gender of migrant	Binary	1-Male and 2- female
Educational status	Years of schooling - No formal education - *illiterate, literate without school education, Primary not completed.* 4 years - *primary completed.* 10 years - *upper primary up to secondary completed* 12 years - *secondary passed but have no degree* 15 years - *degree holders and* 17 years - others.	Categorical	Label value 1-illeterate 2-literate without school education 3-primary not completed 4-primary completed 5-upper primary up-to secondary 6-secondary passed but have no degree 7-degree holders 8-others
Activity status	Economic Activity is as follows: A) In labour force and (B) not in labour force. (A) In labour force (i) Employed and (ii) Unemployed. Employed: - (a) regular government (employed in state/central government, employed in semi-government aided school/colleges/co-operatives/local administrative bodies), (b) regular private (employed in private sector, self-employment), (c) self-employed (self-employment, unpaid family work), (d) casual (agricultural labour, labourers in non-agricultural sectors). Unemployed: - unemployed and job seekers. (B) Not in labour force.	Categorical	Accordingly value label is : 1-regular government, 2-regular private, 3-self-employed, 4-casual, 5-unemployed, 6-not in labour force
Marital status	Marital status	Categorical	1-married, 2- unmarried, 3-widowed, 4-divorced and 5-separated
Relation with the head	Relation with the head	Categorical	1-head of HH, 2-husband/wife, 3-unmarried children, 4-married children, 5-son-in-law/daughter-in-law, 6- grand children, 7-father/mother/mother-in-law, 8-servant and 9-others

Analytic Strategy/ model

The study explores factors affecting migration through the use of a multinomial logit model where migrants are divided into three mutually exclusive outcomes.

1- If the individual is an international migrant

2- If the individual is an internal migrant and

3- If the individual is an non-migrant

Independent variables are age, educational status, marital status, gender, relation with the head and activity status and are naturally coded. The multinomial logit model determines the probability that migrant 'i' experiences one of the 'j' outcomes. When expressed as a probability model, the multinomial logistic regression model is commonly written as: (Greene)

$$\Pr\left(Yi = \frac{1}{Xi}\right) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^{J} \exp(Xi\,\beta j)} \quad for\ m = 1$$

$$\Pr\left(Yi = \frac{m}{Xi}\right) = \frac{\exp(Xi\,\beta m)}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^{J} \exp(Xi\,\beta j)} \quad for\ m > 1$$

Where Y --- the dependent variable with J outcomes, and the categories 1 through J are not assumed to be in any order.

Vector β ---represents the vector of coefficients including the constant, and

X*i* is a vector of values of the independent variables for the i^{th} individual.

Pr(y = 1 | **x**) --- the probability of observing a category 1 response, the comparison group, given **x**.

Pr(y = m | **x**) --- the probability of observing a category m response given **x**, for all response categories greater than 1.

The above expression can be explained as

Ln

$$\left(\frac{p(Migration=International)}{p(Migration=Non-migrant)}\right) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(age) + \alpha_2(gender) + \alpha_3(years\ of\ schooling) + \alpha_4(activity\ status) + \alpha_5(marital\ status) + \alpha_6(relation\ with\ the\ head)$$

Ln

$$\left(\frac{p(Migration=Internal)}{p(Migration=Non-migrant)}\right) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(age) + \alpha_2(gender) + \alpha_3(years\ of\ schooling) + \alpha_4(activity\ status) + \alpha_5(marital\ status) + \alpha_6(relation\ with\ the\ head)$$

Where α ---Regression co-efficient

Research Methodology for Chapter Four

Methodology and Variables

The statistical tools used to analyze the HH characteristics in the study are as follows:-

- Descriptive techniques such as mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum
- Independent samples chi-square test and anova to test the hypotheses and
- Post hoc test

These tests were conducted using the SPSS 18.0 student version statistical software.

Chi-square test is used to decide whether there is any significant difference between the expected frequencies and the observed frequencies in one or more categories

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test is used in order to analyze the differences among group means and "variations" among and between groups.

Post hoc test is used to explore the differences between means so as to provide further information on which means differ significantly from each other.

Variables

Goan HHs (N=5981) in the study are grouped as, HHs having migrated internationally (N=930), HHs having migrated within India (N= 470) and HHs having no migration experience (N= 4581). Internationally migrated and internally migrated HHs are those HHs which have at least one migrated member and also a return migrated member.

In other words migration status of HHs is divided into three mutually exclusive outcomes.

1- If the HH has international migrant

2- If the HH has internal migrant

3- If the HH has no migrant

The above categorization is accomplished using GMS -2008 information on destination of first migration and return migration

The other variables used in the study are HHs characteristics and HH head characteristics. HH characteristics are classified based on the HH size, gender composition i.e., number of males, number of females and number of children in the HH.HH head characteristics are age, gender, educational attainment and activity status. Much of the study on HH dynamics are based on unitary model assumptions that HHs function as a unit in which members in the family pool their resources and time to achieve a common set of goals.

Table: -1.2 Variables Used in the Chi-Square Tests in Chapter Four

Data variable	Data explanation	Data type	Conditioned used
HH size	HH size	continuous	
Number of adult males in a HH	Actual number of males	discrete	
Number of adult females in a HH	Actual number of females	discrete	
Number of children in a HH	Actual number of children	discrete	
Age of HH head	Age of HH head in	Continuous	

	years		
Sex of HH head	Gender of HH head	Binary	1-Male and 2- female
Educational status of HH head	Years of schooling of HH head	Categorical	0 years -illiterate 4 years -primary completed 10years - high school completed 12 years - higher secondary completed 15years – graduation completed 17 years - post graduation Completed
Activity status of HH head	Activity of HH head	Categorical	1 -Employed in the State/central govt. 2-Employed in semi-govt. Aided school/college, co-operatives/ local administrative bodies etc 3- employed in private sector 4-Self-employment 5- Unpaid family work 6-Agricultural labour 7-Labourers in non-agricultural sector 8-Job-seekers 9-Job not required 10 -Students 11 -HH works 12 -Pensioners, too old to work 13 -others

Research Methodology for Chapter Five

Methodology and Variables

The econometric tools used in the analysis are linear regression, decomposition analysis, Gini coefficient and Lorenz curve. These tests were conducted using the stata 12.0 version software

Model specification

The function for food expenditure of international, internal and non-migrant HHs is as follows:-

The equation for food items

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn} + \beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn} + \beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn} + u$ ----------1

Where,

- Y_{jn} is the HH n's share of per capita total food expenditure on item j
- $\beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn}$ is the HH characteristic family size
- $\beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn}$ is the age of the HH head
- $\beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn}$ is gender of the HH head
- $\beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn}$ is the educational status of the HH head
- $\beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn}$ is the activity status of the HH head

The function for non-food expenditure of international, internal and non-migrant HHs is as follows:-

The equation for non-food items

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn} + \beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn} + \beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn} + u$ ----------2

Where,

- y_{jn} is the HH n's share of per capita total non-food expenditure on item j
- $\beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn}$ is the HH characteristic family size
- $\beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn}$ is the age of the HH head
- $\beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn}$ gender of the HH head
- $\beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn}$ is the educational status of the HH head
- $\beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn}$ is the activity status of the HH head

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable (N=5981) is divided into three categories and separate linear regression is applied. HHs having migrated internationally (N=930), HHs having migrated within India (N= 470) and HHs having no migration experience (N= 4581). This categorization is accomplished using GMS -2008 information on destination of first migration and return migration. Consumer expenditure on food items is measured as monthly expenditure (Rupees) and consumer expenditure on non-food items is measured as monthly expenditure and proportionate expenses (Rupees)

The **dependent variable** in equation (1) is consumption expenditure on food in all the three groups of HHs and in equation (2) consumption expenditure on non-food items in all the three groups of HHs.

Independent Variables

The independent variables of the study are HH size, age of HH head, gender of HH head, educational attainment of HH head and activity status HH head.

Table:-1.3 Variables Used in the Analysis in Chapter Five

Data variable	Data explanation	Data type	Conditioned used
Dependent Variable			
Consumption Expenditure	International Internal Non-migrant		
Independent Variables			
HH size	HH size	continuous	
Age of HH head	Age of HH head in years	Continuous	
Gender of HH head	Gender of HH head	Binary	1-Male and 0- female
Educational status of HH head	Years of schooling of HH head	Categorical	0 years -illiterate 4 years -primary completed 10years - high school completed 12 years - higher secondary completed 15years – graduation completed 17 years - post graduation completed
Activity status of HH head	**Activity of** HH head	**Categorical**	3-employed in private sector taken as 1 Rest all 0 i.e., 1 -Employed in the State/ central govt. 2-Employed in semi-govt. Aided school/college, co-operatives/ local administrative bodies etc 3- employed in private sector 4-Self-employment 5- Unpaid family work 6-Agricultural labour 7-Labourers in non-agricultural sector 8-Job-seekers 9 -Job not required 10 -Students 11 -HH works 12 -Pensioners, too old to work 13 -others

Gini Coefficient and Lorenz Curve

The Gini index is the ratio of the areas on the Lorenz curve diagram. The area between the line of perfect equality and the Lorenz curve is labeled as *A*, and the area under the Lorenz curve is designated *B*, then the Gini coefficient index is $G = A / (A + B)$. If A = 0, the Gini coefficient turn out to be 0, which implies perfect equality, whereas if B = 0, the Gini coefficient becomes 1, which indicates complete inequality.

The Lorenz curve is represented by the function $Y = L(X)$, the value of B is found with integration:

$$B = \int_0^1 L(X)dX.$$

In some cases, this equation can be applied to calculate the Gini coefficient without direct reference to the Lorenz curve. For example (taking y to mean the income or wealth of a person or HH):

- For a population uniform on the values y_i, $i = 1$ to n, indexed in non-decreasing order ($y_i \leq y_{i+1}$):

$$G = \frac{1}{n}\left(n + 1 - 2\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(n+1-i)y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}\right)\right)$$

This may be simplified to:

$$G = \frac{2\sum_{i=1}^{n} iy_i}{n\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i} - \frac{n+1}{n}$$

DECOMPOSITION ANALYSIS

Decile Dispersion Ratio

Decile Dispersion Ratio represents the ratio of the average consumption (or income) of the richest 10 percent of the population to the average consumption (or income) of the poorest 10 percent.

Generalized Entropy Measures

Generalized entropy (GE) inequality measure includes Theil indexes and the mean log deviation measure. The general formula is:

$$GE(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha\,(\alpha - 1)}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\frac{yi}{y}\right)^{\alpha} - \quad 1\right]$$

Where y – is the mean income per person (or expenditure per capita). The values of GE measures vary between zero and infinity, with zero representing an equal distribution and higher values representing higher levels of inequality. The parameter α in the GE class represents the weight given to distances between incomes at different parts of the income distribution, and can take any real value. For lower values of α, GE is more sensitive to changes in the lower tail of the distribution, and for higher values GE is more sensitive to changes that affect the upper tail. The most common values of α used are 0, 1, and 2. GE (1) is Theil's T index, which may be written as

$$GE(1) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{yi}{y}\,1n\left(\frac{yi}{y}\right)$$

GE (0), also known as Theil's L, and sometimes indicated to as the mean log deviation measure, is given by

$$GE(0) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\quad 1n\left(\frac{\bar{y}}{y}\right)$$

Atkinson's Inequality Measures Atkinson (1970)

In Atkinson's measures of inequality the parameter ε measures aversion to inequality. ε values of 0.5, 1, 1.5 or 2 are used in practice. Higher the value, more sensitive is the Atkinson index to inequalities at the bottom of the income distribution. The theoretical range of Atkinson values is 0 to 1, with 0 being a state of equal distribution.

$$A_{\Sigma} = 1 - \left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\frac{yi}{y}\right)^{1-\varepsilon}\right]^{1/1-\varepsilon}, \varepsilon \neq 1$$

$$= 1 - \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{N}\left(y_i^{\frac{1}{N}}\right)}{\tilde{y}}, \varepsilon = 1$$

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The accuracy and authenticity of the study is based on the responses provided by the respondents of Goa Migration survey conducted in 2008.
- Since the data collected on different variables of interest are at a specific point of time (cross-sectional), the study provides information of a population at that point of time. Therefore the study will have its limitations as the population characteristics change constantly and the study may deviate from the actual situation.
- The study may also suffer from susceptible biases.
- Although remittances is an important part of migration, the study does not delve with it due to insufficient information of the same in the study and
- This is a state level study and hence no comparisons have been made with migration in other states.

Notes

The Economic Survey 2007–08 released by the Directorate of Planning, Statistics and Evaluation of the government of Goa.

CHAPTER -2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER-TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Internal and international migration is a common feature in the migration process, in both developing and developed countries. Urbanization has been the main cause of internal migration and altering global patterns have led to world-wide international migration. Internal or short distance migration refers to the movement of people within their country of origin (in-migration and out-migration), and international or long distance migration is the movement of people outside their country of origin into another country (emigration and immigration). Although both the types of movement of people are differentiated by distance, interconnection between the two appears obvious as far as economic, social, cultural and political factors are concerned. But King et.al (2008) contends that internal and international movement may be alternative and interchangeable responses to the same set of conditions and as such very often internal migration is regarded as an alternative to international migration. However the core difference was noted by Czaika (2011) who states that variance lies in the role of the state to regulate and control the flow of people, internationally. Consequently the selection of internal or international mobility can be viewed as competing strategies in a matrix of opportunities which the potential migrants are exposed to.

Whatever the relationship between the two migration processes, the link however is gaining importance at the international level where important questions raised are as follows:-

1) Whether today's internal migrants are tomorrow's international migrants?
2) Whether internal migration and international migration are substitutes for each other? and
3) Whether internal and international migrants share the same profile?

As IOM (2008) puts it 'needless to say, the answers depend very much on the local context and thus can only be arrived at through location-specific case studies.'

The present research is based on factors, HH characteristics and consumption expenditure of internal as well as international migration from Goa. Owing to the aim of the present study and the extensiveness of literature on migration, the present literature review is restricted to the following/subsequent topics (as per present research) and has been accomplished chronological in the following manner.

(A) Determinants of internal and international migration

(B) Effect of migration

(C) Internal or International migration?

(D) Consumption expenditure of migrant and non-migrant HHs

On account of relative paucity in literature related to Goa, the researcher has used substantial matter from Indian and international authors.

2.2 DETERMINANTS OF INTERNAL AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Migration with a history of apprehensions concerning an economy has kindled interest among researchers and the extensive work done in this area highlights the same.

2.2.1 Determinants of Internal Migration

Internal migration has been the center of theoratisation of migration from the earliest Raveinstein's 'Law of Migration', to Stouffer's gravity modelling (1960), Sjaastad's cost-benefit analysis of migration (1962), Wolpert's behavioral perspective on the

decision to migrate (1965), and Lee's theory on migration (1966). The UNDP Human Development Report of 2009 states that there are four times as many internal migrants in the world as there are international migrants. Fischer et al. (1997) assumed that for most macro-level areas, regardless of their level of average per capita income, internal migration remains quantitatively the most important form of migration and is mostly from rural HHs to urban HHs. Deshingkar, (2009) observes that in India internal migration is more important than international migration and is more likely to involve the lower caste, poor, and less educated. Besides, cities in India are growing at a fast rate due to migration from rural and smaller urban settlements to urban areas. Thus internal migration is important for developing countries in its pursuit for economic growth and development and the changing patterns of human settlement across much of the world are significantly due to internal migration.

Internal migration is classified as rural to rural migration, rural to urban migration and urban to rural migration depending on the migration stream (explained in section 1.2). In short however internal movement can be explained by four drivers: "commuting patterns; work-driven migration; pre-retirement (movement to rural areas with job but with the intention of retiring in that place) and retirement related moves" (Lowe and Stephenson, 2003).

Urban to Urban Migration

Urban to urban migratory flow is usually from the urban centre to the periphery which results in urban de- concentration.

The literature review concerning the **determinants of internal migration** is as follows:-

Filiztekin and Gokhan (2008) focused their study on both the economic and the social factors, having significant impact on migration. The economic and social factors taken up are unemployment rates and income differentials in the case of former and presence of social networks and uncertainty in the case of latter respectively. The study highlights

that migrants are younger, better educated and income seekers when compared to the whole population and the gravity model used in the study show that there is a difference between the genders and distance, income differentials, age, schooling, unemployment rates and presence of social networks have a significant impact on migration.

Sloan (2010) and Parida and Madheswaran (2011) in their study tried to investigate whether individual and HH characteristics are determinants of migration. Sloan (2010) used the multinomial logistic regression and considered figures from the project Nang Rang social survey which comprised of HH-level and community level data for more than 30,000 individuals, living in 51 villages in 1994 and 2000 and deliberated on characteristics like gender, age, years of schooling and family size.

The following multi logit regression was tested:

Y: Pr (a respondent becoming one type of migrant)

= f (respondent's demographic and HH characteristics)

≡ F ($\beta 0$ + $\beta 1$Male + $\beta 2$ Age + $\beta 3$ HH Head + $\beta 4$ Married + $\beta 5$ Edu + $\beta 6$ Agri Occ + $\beta 7$ Family size + $\beta 8$Language + $\beta 9$ HH Wealth)

Parida and Madheswaran (2011) on the other hand undertook analyses on individual features like age, marital status, human capital endowments, and HH characteristics like size of HH, caste and land possession. They with the help of probit model analysed the NSS data for 2007-08, and combined both Todaro's individual utility maximising behaviour and Stark's HH approach.

The 2010 study concludes that migration selectivity varies significantly by migrant destination and the role of HH head has a noteworthy positive impact on rural-to-rural and rural-to-urban migration. The results of the 2011 analyses highlights that individual aspects like age, human capital endowments, marital status, size of HH, land possession and caste have immense impact on the decision to migrate.

Hassan and Khan (2012) undertook the study on the geographical patterns of socio-economic causes of rural out-migration in India. The social factors that were analysed are moved with HH, education, marriage, moved after birth and other specific factors. The category 'other specific factors' comprised the sum total of persons displaced due to droughts, floods, developmental projects, social disturbances, etc. Employment and business purposes were also given a thought in the investigation, which was based on the secondary data collected by Census of India publications (2001).The authors conducted the analysis using GIS-Arc view programme (version 3.2) and prepared tables, multiple bar diagram and maps, so as to depict the patterns of interstate changes in the socio-economic reasons of rural out-migration. The researchers concluded that rural migration to other states and Union territories was due to movement with HH, movement after birth, marriage, education, work/employment, business (very few) and other specific dynamics.

Community and HH characteristics were also examined by **Herrera and Sahn** (2013) using the multinomial logistic models, where the importance of early childhood HH and community characteristics in young adults' migration decision were estimated. The data considered was the 2003 HH survey on education and welfare in Senegal, prepared in 33 rural and 30 urban communities, and the sample consisted of 2,676 individuals aged between 21 to 35 years. Thirty-five per cent of the individuals were found to be internal migrants and over half were defined as temporary migrants. Additional findings of the study are listed as follows:-

1) Causes of youth reallocation (migration) was found to be heterogeneous by gender and destination.
2) Father's education level was an essential deciding factor in daughter's decision to migrate.
3) Childhood spent in better-off HHs induced the young to move to urban areas.
4) The presence of younger relations influenced the movement to rural areas and
5) Availability of primary education decreased the likelihood of migration.

Chandrasekhar et al. (2014) probed into the migration decision of youth aged between 15-32 years. The authors addressed the issue of internal migration for education and employment purposes. These two issues were termed important as they were directed towards brain gain in some areas and brain loss in others. Data from NSSO's survey on employment and unemployment and migration which was conducted in July 2007-June 2008 covering several rural and urban HHs. The authors provided evidence on the issue of brain drain from traditionally backward states, which act as header's to states with better job opportunities. Brain drain is based on both the facets of human capital i.e., skill and education level. They were also of the opinion that the exodus of educated would not be a problem at all at the national level but from a state level point of view migration of educated would affect the state's growth and development.

2.2.2 Determinants of International Migration

The economic theory on *why* people migrate assumes a simple solicitation of the Human Capital Model, which perceives migration as an investment in one's welfare. The economic as well as non-economic factors that have influenced international movement have led to an increase in migration to more advanced countries tremendously over the years. The other factors that have contributed toward emigration are as follows:-

According to **Chapin et al.** (1970) wage rates are less significant than employment probabilities in migration decision. The authors studied the bilateral migratory flow over the period of 1950-1967 using simple regression analysis. They looked into variables like unemployment rates and wage rates in both source country and destination country.

Lianos (1972) using the pooled time-series (1959-1966) and cross-sectional data, examined the statistical significance of lagged migration and wage differentials. The conclusions of the study have been that "potential migrants respond to monetary incentives with a lag". He guesses that there may be other lags, but due to limited data exploring the other lag structures was impossible.

Along with educated and skilled migration, unskilled labour migrations are issues of much concern to policy makers. **Blejer et al** (1978) and **Davila** (1983) using measures of illegal immigrants, legal immigrants and total immigrants as dependent variables tried to show that each type of annual migration is particularly sensitive to unemployment-rate differentials between countries. The period of the study has been between 1960-1974 and 1950-1975 respectively and real wages were also explored.

Yet another type of international migration, where little research has been done is the 'migration of older person'. **Greenwood and McDowell** (1982), studies the responsive nature of fifty years and above people to change in real per capita GNP and the social assistance payments relative to the population in origin country viz-a-viz decision to migrate. The results suggests that immigrants who were 50 years old and above were unresponsive to variations in real per capital GNP in origin country. Senior citizens older

than 65 years and above were significantly discouraged to migrate if the social assistance was higher in the sending country.

Greenwood and McDowell (1982) studied emigration to US from twenty-three countries. Data analysed was cross-sectional relating to the years- 1970, 1971 and 1975. The independent variables were distance from origin to destination country, average weekly earnings in destination country's manufacturing sector and the population of destination country. The research was estimated with the help of log and double-log regression techniques and it suggested that the importance of differential economic gain lies in migration decision.

The much contentious issue of brain drain was analysed by **De Voretz and Maki** (1983) and **Hassan** (1988). The former author considered migration of professors, teachers, physicians and nurses while the latter deliberated on scientists and engineers. Both the studies used pooled cross-section and time series data. The 1983 study took a period from 1968-1973 and examined sixteen origin areas whereas the 1988 study observed eighteen origin countries, and period from 1972 to 1987. The studies derived their results from the variant of the Arrow and Capron (1959) model which assumes that excess demand draws migrants from excess supply areas. Both the studies arrive at a conclusion that labour demand conditions in host country prove to be an important determinant of the flow of educated individuals and Hassan (1988) further adds that pull factors as determinants of migration are more significant than the push factors.

The distribution of human capital between origin and destination country is well explained by **Borjas** (1987, 1991) in the paper's titled, 'self-selection and the earnings of

immigrants' and 'Immigration and self-selection' respectively, which led to the development of the utmost popular model in immigration economics. Borjas observed that people in the sending countries and host countries are characterised by entire array of skills, education levels, talents and other personal individualities. In other words, people from both countries are dissimilar in terms of age, education, ability, etc. Therefore the focus of the paper has been on the migration decision by the would-be migrant with special characteristics from a labour market which perceives his/her gain in a labour force with definite other distribution of workers' characteristics and different earnings. Borjas (1991) model shows that movement of people is more likely to occur if the host country values the migrant's net of migration characteristics, more than the origin country does.

Daneshvary et al. (1987) examined the patterns of highly educated immigrant settlements from 1970-1974 using regression analysis. The conclusions that have been drawn from the study on highly educated persons is that immigrants are drawn to a certain area depending upon the number of scientific workforces living in that region which acts as a proxy to know about the availability of jobs for educated individuals. They also noticed that some country migrants prefer employment opportunities to income and some prefer high incomes to employment prospects.

Unlike the conventional belief that people from developing countries move to developed countries, **Berman and Machin**, (2000) have interesting conclusions that individuals with skill-biased innovations migrate rapidly from developed to middle income countries due to skill-upgrading within industries rather than a reallocation of employment from low to high-skill industries, thus indicating skill-biased technological changes. The

objective of the paper has been to investigate the skill-bias of technological change in developing countries using the global sample of manufacturing industries.

Ahmad et al. (2008) investigated the impact of inflation, unemployment rate and real wage rate on migration. Time series data was employed for the analysis and co-integration and vector error correction models were used to derive short-run and long-run relationship between the parameters of the determinants. The study provided information on the relation between migration, inflation, unemployment rate and real wage rate. They highlighted that migration was positively related to inflation, unemployment rate and flow of remittances and conversely, negatively related to real wage rate in the country.

Bhagat (2009) used the required information from Census and NSS data source for the years 1971 to 1999-2000, and a correlation matrix have been derived to understand in and out-migration (internal migration). The results are put into perspective as follows: - In and out migration rates have important positive relation with PCI, share of GSDP in the non-agricultural sector and percentage of workforce. At the state level, poverty is not found associated with increased emigration. Neither social categories of HHs nor per capita monthly expenditure indicate that migrants belong to the disadvantaged sections (scheduled castes and scheduled tribes) of the origin country and thus the researcher concluded that increased mobility of people is more narrowed down to better-off sections.

Kim and Cohen (2010) quantified the determinants of international migration flows in 77,658 observations, using the panel data techniques between the years 1950-2007. They studied the outflows from thirteen of western countries and inflows from seventeen of western countries. The independent variables tested were demographic (population of

origin and destination country and IMR), geographic (distance between capitals and land area of the destination), social and historical characteristics. The above mentioned factors were so chosen because they were less-time sensitive and less uncertain compared to economic factors. The observations of the study can be summarised as follows:-

- That *Inflow* of immigrants was highly influenced by demographic, geographic and young at age structure (origin country) characteristics.
- Less subjected to historical, social and young at age structure (host country) characteristics and
- *Outflow* of people was mostly governed by population of both sending and destination country, infant mortality rate of destination country and distance between capitals.

The other striking causes of international inflows and outflow of people are urbanization (in both origin and destination country), having a common border, having the same official language, being landlocked, colonial links and sharing a minority language.

The two objectives of the analysis of **Ackah and Medvedev** (2010) were firstly, to estimate the causes of individuals' likelihood to be a domestic migrant and secondly to look into the relationship between domestic migration and welfare. The study was conducted using the nationally-representative dataset of Living Standards Survey of Ghana -2005/06. The findings of the above objectives are summarised as follows:-

The determination of migration is a combination of pull and push characteristics. Pull factors are individual based and push factors are community-level determinants. The likelihood of migration is higher in case of more educated and younger individuals. But the probability of migration is less in communities having higher level of literacy rates, more subsidized medical care along with better access to sanitation and water facility.

The study further adds to the existing literature that HHs with migrant are prosperous than HHs without migrant. But this positive relationship is found only in HHs with at least one member as migrant to urban areas but HHs with a migrant to rural areas are found to be the same as that of non-migrant HHs.

Migration for education purpose was explored by **Hercog and De Laar** 2013 by using the binary logit model. Kumar et al. (2009) proposes that internationalization of higher education and a rising middle class in India who can afford foreign university education has been the case of increased mobility of student population. Accordingly the authors used data collected through a survey of students at five Indian universities, supplemented by qualitative data from interviews to look into the role of students' personnel and family background, their social network, university-related factors and preferences for living location in their desire to migrate. Investigation was also aimed at understanding as to which individual and structural characteristics along with perceptions, explain whether individuals have any plans to move abroad in the future or not. Findings of the study disclose that type of university, field of study, professional aspects, parents' support (moral and financial), students' family and educational background and whether students' are from research-oriented universities or not act as strong predictors in case of students yearning to migrate internationally. Mobility of individuals is also affected by work-related factors, public safety and family-friendly environment. People who give importance to work-related aspects are more mobile than the ones who place high importance to public safety and family-friendly environment.

2.3 EFFECTS OF MIGRATION

The major benefits from migration arises from the remittances received by HHs in the home/origin country and are frequently assumed to bear a consequence on the welfare of the receiving HHs. This fact is rightly highlighted by **Zachariah et al.** (1999) in their study on Kerala's economy. The findings of the study are analysed as follows:-

- Nearly 1.5 million Keralites live outside India and that emigration will continue to increase for some more years.
- Remittances sent home are more than rupees 4,000 million a year.
- Non Resident Indians bank deposits have been increasing at a healthy 20-25% per year and
- That three-quarter of a million former emigrants have come back and live mostly on savings, work experience and skills cultured from abroad.

The study was conducted with data that was collected from large–scale sample survey of 10,000 HHs, comprising all the districts and all the Talukas of the state.

The effect of parent's migration on children's human resource development is researched in the following manner. **Mckenzie and Rapport** (2006) study the effect of parental migration on school attendance of children between the ages of 12-18 years in rural areas. Cross-sectional data from National Survey of Demographic Dynamics (Mexico-1997) was used in the analysis. The outcome of the study is that migration has a noteworthy negative consequence on school attendance of girls aged 16-18 years and of boys aged between 12-18 years. Further the effect of parental migration on boys and girls aged between 16-18 years is that it increases housework for girls and increases migration of boys.

Borraz et al (2008) examined the impact of international migration on the happiness of the members of family left behind by using the probit model and the propensity score matching estimator. The authors used the information confined in the 'Discrimination and Economic Outcomes survey' (Ecuador-2006). The results indicate that despite remittances, migration reduces the happiness of those family members left behind.

Derlacz (2008) in the paper titled, "The impact of internal and international migration on regional convergence in Poland" used for estimation the data from the 16 Polish voivodeships with observations for the years from 1995 to 2006. The standard Solow model had been employed for the analysis where gross migration had been taken into account and regressors are Gross Domestic Product, investment rate and population growth. The authors observed a relationship between migration (internal and international) from Poland and regional convergence (1995-2006) and estimated the growth regression to assess how movement of people influenced the speed of convergence, human capital is taken as a control variable. Results of the analysis are reported as follows:-

I. Migration effect was not visible for voivodeships
II. Moving from lagging regions to more advanced areas on lowering inequality was not confirmed
III. International outflow led to negative growth rate in the long run due to brain drain and
IV. Relationship between migration (internal and international) with heterogeneous labour movements and growth rates was found to be ambiguous.

The disadvantageous situation that a source country endures due to the migration of educated citizens has always been a contentious issue to many stakeholders and most specifically to policy makers. Authors **Chand and Clemens** (2008) researched on this subject and found out whether migration of highly-skilled workers led to the depletion of local human capital in origin country. The authors analysed a situation in which political shocks provoked large-scale exodus of skilled workers from a developing country. Results of the OLS regression reveal that high rate of emigration of highly-skilled individuals not only upraised investments in tertiary education but also there was an increase in the stock of tertiary educated people. Thus the drain of brain had resulted in tertiary education which was good enough to fully off-set the reduction in skill in home-country. Census and administrative micro-data of Fiji Bureau of Statistics was used in the study.

Chami Ralph, et al. (2008) paper titled, 'Macroeconomic Consequences of Remittances' was prepared at the request of International Monetary Fund's executive board. The paper investigates into the growth of cross-country remittance flows, remittance systems encompassing their impact on poverty and macroeconomic performance. The outcomes confirm that remittances improve HHs welfare through poverty alleviation and by assurance against income shocks. World Development Indicator dataset for the years between 1970 and 2005 was used and data regarding workers remittances, migrants' transfers and employee compensation was extracted for the countries under scrutiny.

Nguyen (2008), in their paper titled, 'Impacts of International and Internal Remittances on HH Welfare: Evidence from Viet Nam' measured the impact of internal and international remittances on HH welfare by using the random and fixed-effects regression, and Hausman specification tests. The data was from Viet Nam HH Living

Standard Survey (VHLSS) 2002 and 2004. The results of the study are that receipts of both internal and international remittances increased income as well as consumption expenditures of remittances recipient HHs, though the impact on non-food expenditure is found to be higher than that on food expenditure. A difference is also noticed as far as influence of foreign and internal remittance use, on income and consumption expenditure is concerned. International remittances show much higher effect on income (saving and investment) than on consumption expenditure and receipt of internal remittances show a slightly larger impact on income than on consumption expenditure.

Mueller (2009) research examined a correlation ship between HHs receiving internal remittances and investments on human capital in rural areas, using the propensity score matching approach. The authors found a positive relationship between internal remittances and attendance of teens at school, where the magnitude of correlation was found to be greater in low caste HHs and male schooling attendance. The findings which are based on the 2004-2005 Human Development profile of India survey provides a basis for future research in the area of migration and social protection.

Gibson et al. (2009), in the paper titled, "The Impacts of International Migration on Remaining HH Members" used the data from the Tongan component-Pacific Islands-New Zealand migration study. The authors used multiple hypothesis testing procedures in an attempt to examine the numerous impact of migration on family members left behind by focussing on income, labour supply, durable assets, diet, financial service usage, mental and physical health. The findings of the above study can be summarized at individual and HH level.

Individual-level outcomes of HHs having a migrant are as follows:-

a. Adults are less likely to be overweight and

b. Less incomes and wealth

HH-level outcomes of HHs having a migrant are as follows:-

I. Family left behind may initially be worse-off in many respects

II. HHs are smaller and are recipients of remittances which are more than per capita income

III. There is an ultimate reduction in overall HH income per capita as there is loss of HH labour to migration.

IV. Have fewer livestock and durable assets and

V. Are less likely to have access to banking services like ATM cards

Sharma and Hassan (2009) studied the effect of migration on expenditures of migrant and non-migrant HHs and along with evaluated the HH level benefits and costs of migration in 2007.In other words, the authors used the sampling procedure survey of migrant HHs to compare them with non-migrant HHs. The Propensity Score Matching Method and probit equation, where-ever necessary was used in the study. The effect of migration was seen in marked differences on expenditures where migrant and non-migrant HHs are concerned and it was also found that international migrant HHs accrues substantial benefits in terms of HH consumption, level of HH savings and use of advanced inputs in agriculture is concerned, which indicates that the monthly per capita total expenditure is higher in migrant HHs.

The second part of the researched paper highlighted on the costs of migration. The costs that have to be borne especially by the poor migrants are found to be full of constraints, risks and challenges. Gaining access to financing for the purpose of migration and to international labour markets involve monetary and time costs which are a reason for high

level indebtedness of the poor migrant HH. To add further it was observed that migration is primarily restricted to take place from certain regions which were found to be prosperous and were designated as "migration corridors" by the author.

Flore et al. (2009) used the nationally represented 2006 HH budget survey, which comprised of detailed information on income including remittances and transfers, consumption, credit, savings, HH members' characteristics, gifts and assets. The results of the standard Heckman two-step estimation reveal that:-

1. HHs receiving remittances are more productive as they invest in physical and human capital, thereby raising their wealth and productivity.
2. There is also a meaningful reduction in the number of poor
3. Migrants' transfers reduce inequality and
4. Lastly remittances are not always advantageous especially for upper quintile HHs.

To examine the aggregate impact of remittances on employment and unemployment rates, wage distribution, wages, and school enrolment rates, **Orrenius et al.**(2009) analysed the state-level data (2003-2007) from Mexico. The OLS results suggest that remittances may affect wages and employment. Accordingly a negative correlation has been observed between remittances and employment rates i.e., remittances do not increase employment rate but lower the unemployment rate and cause labour force to expand. The outcome of the study proposes that although wages, employment and school enrolment have increased, it is not due to increasing remittances in the state, but positive impact of remittances is seen in lessening the income inequality gap. Two-stage least

squares specifications put forward that there's a shift in the wage distribution to the right due to remittances, thereby decreasing the fraction of employees receiving the minimum wage or something less.

Vast literature on migration has looked only on issues concerning financial remittances, brain drain, etc. **Andersen and Christensen** (2009) and **Akesson** (2011) however have looked into an understated issue of "social remittances" gained by migrants in destination country and using the savings and skills of returnees' migrants for home country development respectively. The former author utilizes a three-wave panel HH (2001 to 2005) data to explore a thorough relationship between migration, remittances received and HH consumption. The bivariate selection correction procedure used explains that migrant HHs gain not so much from remittances, but from having migrants abroad. The authors further suggest that emigrants not only receive financial remittances but something more subtle like patterns of social interaction, business ideas, aspirations, belief systems, and other tangible assets which have been given a title of "social remittances".

Another variation in the effect of cross-border movement is the importance of social networks which are developed due to international migration, by entrepreneurs in origin country. **Nanda and Khanna** (2009) study the importance of social networks which are developed owing to international migration. The analysis which is a micro-evidence reveals that social networks play an imperative role in helping local businessman to evade the obstacles in the imperfect domestic institutions. The OLS regression analysis finds that businessman who have lived earlier out-side the source country, depend significantly on diaspora links for business financing and directions. Data from online

survey had been administered to the CEOs of all member-firms of the key industry associations for Indian software industry in 2004, was probed for the purpose.

Bayangos and Karel (2010) look into the effect of workers remittances on receiving countries competitiveness. The study is built on Bayangos (2007) as well as on Bayangos and Jansen (2009) structural, dynamic and three-monthly macro-econometric model and the dataset comprised of a period from March 1999 to June 2009. The scholars have used single-equation methods, two-stage least squares and OLS for the estimation. The results confirm that the labour market effects of migration and remittances have a significant bearing on competiveness that goes beyond the traditional exchange rate effect. Remittances demonstrate a positive impact on the economic indicators like labour productivity, consumption, investment and economic growth.

A comprehensive study had been conducted by **Singh and Hari** (2011) who examined the long-term effect of remittances on different macroeconomic and developmental facets of the Indian economy. The analysed data is from a period of 1971-2008 and remittances data and macroeconomic variables like Gross Domestic Product, savings, exports, imports, etc. are deliberated in the study. The results reveal that remittances in India have been consistently rising at a significantly fast rate and have had significant implications on the variables under study for the last fifteen years. The findings also highlight the importance of remittances as an external source of developmental finance and calls for a regulatory framework concerning or rather governing the flow.

The study by **Tumbe** (2011) provides factsheet on internal and international remittances across HH characteristics at state level and explains the extent of dependency on remittances. The analysis is carried on with the data from the 49^{th} and 64^{th} round of migration related RBI, National Sample Surveys and 2001 census.

The findings are as follows:–firstly the internal remittance market is in billion and a major part of the remittances are directed towards rural HHs. Secondly internal remittances finance more than one fourth of HH consumption expenditure. Thirdly remittances have increased inequality in source country and lastly almost one third of the remittances are directed in the informal sector.

Ziesemer (2012) studied the influence of remittances on taxes, savings and public expenditures on education, as a share of Gross Domestic Product. Data from samples of poor as well as from less poor countries was taken from World Development Indicators, World Bank (2007). The specified tax function was:-

Empirical model used was a Tax Function explained using index 'i' for countries and't' for time.

$Taxy_{it} = ao,i + a_1 taxy(-1)_{it} + a_2 savgdp_{it} + a_3(wr/gdp)_{it} + \ldots + u_{it}$.

Where savgdp is saving ratio and wr is worker remittances as a share of GDP.

A negative sign could imply that the effect of the GDP per capita is larger than that on taxes. Regression results were for countries with GDP per capita above $1200 and for countries with GDP per capita below $1200.

Summing up the findings for both the samples it can be said that:-

- Remittances received increases the saving ratio and
- Higher tax revenues results in higher public expenditure on education

The other conclusions of the study are as follows:-

- Savings have a U-shaped impact in poor (richer) countries as far as tax ratio is concerned.
- In richer sample it is found that with an increase in remittances, the tax revenue is less for the government, but the government spend more on education whereas
- In poorer sample the government increases more tax revenue at low levels of receipts nonetheless less at high level of remittances.
- The authors used simultaneous equation simulations which show a positive permanent shock in response to remittances, then the governments of better-off countries cut taxation and public expenditure on education as a share of Gross Domestic Product and
- Poor countries, witness higher tax revenues and spending of more money on education.

Brauw et al. (2013) examined the welfare impact of migration (internal) on migrants versus non-migrants using descriptive and regression analyses. The dataset that was used for the study is panel, tracked for migrants and non-migrants from 18 villages. Effect of migration is found to be gainful to objective welfare measures (e.g. consumption) and to male urban migrants.

Zhang et al (2013) paper titled, "The Impacts of Parental Migration on Children Left-Behind: Evidence from Rural China", investigated into the effect of absence of one versus both parents on children's learning outcomes or development of cognitive skills of children left behind. The authors used the panel method that control for unobserved heterogeneities and endogeneity in the absence of one parent or both parents. They used

the data collected from country's (china's) poorest rural areas with a high rate of parental migration. Findings of the study indicate towards significant negative impact on children's cognitive development in the absence of both parents and smaller insignificant impact if left behind by one parent.

Gassmann et al (2013) on the other hand evaluated the well-being of children (0-17 years) left behind from migrant HHs. They used the data from HH survey conducted between September 2011 and February 2012 by national representatives and used the child well-being index. The study states that migration is not associated with negative consequences on children's well-being, nor it is of any concern as to which member of the HH migrates. Children from return migrant HHs show a higher rate of well-being in dimensions like material well-being and emotional health. To add further contrary to previous research this paper suggests, that migration does not play a weighty role in affecting a child's well-being outcomes and has in circumstance linked migration to multidimensional child poverty.

Graham and Jordan (2013), seek to understand parents desire to migrate in order to secure a brighter future for their children and its influence on nutritional aspect on children aged between 9 to 11 years. The study has used data from CHAMPSEA project and has developed a series of logistic regression models.

The summary of the findings are listed as follows:-

a. No general benefit in migrant HH (where one parent is a migrant)
b. There is a reduced threat of stunting of children left-behind
c. Low educational attainment of the caregiver is a chief risk factor towards the left-behind children and
d. Complex relationship between parental out-migration and child nutrition.

Elliot et al. (2014) studied the socio-cultural effect of internal migration on HHs using the descriptive analyses along with linear multiple regression. The authors worked on the dataset consisting of 160 migrant HHs who participated in the Snow ball method of data collection.

The Linear multiple regressions tested was as follows:-

$Y = f(X1 + X2 + X3 + \ldots Xm)$

Where Y = Dependent Variable of the migrants' HH

X1 = Family Structure, X2 = Native Language, X3 = Traditional Occupation, X4 = cultural Festival, X5 = Native Attire, X6 = Native Food.

Significant and considerable effect is found on migrants socio-cultural variables such as family structure, native language, traditional occupation, native food, traditional attires and cultural festivals.

Awumbila et al. (2014) studied the livelihoods of poor migrants working and living in two urban settlements that are informal. These two urban communities are characterized by harsh and poor living conditions which are sinful den of vice and filth. The study tried to find out, although living in such severe conditions whether there is any effect on HHs in destination areas. The analysis states some interesting facts that though people migrate to places devoid of any pull factors, they contribute to the human capital development and poverty reduction in their home country through remittances and investments.

Besides the above classification (in section 2.2 and 2.3) the below mentioned books/articles looks into various other aspects vis-à-vis migration.

The book titled 'Migration and Development, The Kerala Experience' by **Zachariah and Rajan** (2009) highlights a deep socio-economic connection with the Gulf countries which has brought about a change in the otherwise gloomy economic scenario of Kerala. It provides information on trend, geographical distribution, size, remittances, socio-

economic composition of out-migrants and internal migration. Nevertheless the main thrust of the study has been on the socio-economic and macroeconomic significance of emigration to the economy. The book also deals with employment, unemployment, human resource development and consumption patterns of HHs from the developed state like Kerala which ranks above many other states and UTs in terms of Gross Domestic Product and economic productivity. Significant outcome of the study has been that although internal as well as external migration has increased unabated in all directions (and not only in Gulf) and that the impact has also accelerated greatly, only a small proportion of HHs have benefitted from both (internal and international) migration. There has also been an increase in remittances which has resulted in increase in per capita state income and an increase in demand for a variety of desirable and unwanted HH amenities. Impressive effects have also been observed in the demand of HH durables (such as vehicles, refrigerators, television sets, etc.). Beneficial outcome has been seen in case of Per Capita Income, housing, education and employment. However undesirable impact is seen in the rise of unemployment rate due to an increase in education rate and has been considered as a major social problem. The developmental potential of the economy has been drained as most of the goods consumed come from out-side the region (imported).

Rajan's (2010) book titled 'Governance and Labour Migration' is a consolidation of work done at the 'Research Unit on International Migration'-Kerala and also includes inputs from experts working in the area of migration. The book addresses the following four major issues related to determinants and effects of migration:-

- Governance of labour migration- both skilled and unskilled
- Importance of remittances on growth, consumption and investment
- Issues related to cross-border migration and
- Gender dimensions in migration

The study has come up with the ensuing findings that:-

- There was an exodus of labour from India to the plantation colonies during the imperial rule.
- There was a change in direction of Indians as far as destination is concerned, post-independence towards Gulf countries and Indians as 'knowledge workers' (IT revolution) have been in great demand worldwide.
- Remittances along with income, money supply and debt have consistently had an positive impact on private consumption
- Remittances have no effect on private investment and on the growth (output) of the economy
- Increase in remittances lead to an increase in consumption demand which ultimately raises the prices
- There is a need for government intervention in order to divert resources from unproductive use to productive use.
- Appreciation of the rupee has had an adverse effect on working and living conditions
- Half of the total Indian migrants work as domestic servants in Kuwait.
- India had witnessed a large scale mobility of human resources- especially female -nurses to cater to large institutional hospitals.

Akinson (2011) article diverges from the basic conventional policies on migration, returnee's role and development. The author's study is based on the anthropological study of Cape Verdean migrant returnees and analysis the importance of returnee's savings and skills on the locals in Cape Verdean; in particular the study deals with the entrepreneurial development. The findings concluded that structural conditions have an

important bearing on individual migrants' ability to sustain development, a perception left out of current policies.

Niranjan and Avijit (2011) attempted to investigate the influence of numerous economic and non-economic aspects on net internal migration and the effect of net migration on the level of economic progression in the states under study and used pooled cross sectional data. The findings of the study make known that net movement of people is positively governed by Per Capita Income and road infrastructure level. Positive association was found between development and net migration and negative association is found between unemployment rate and cost of living. Crime rate as a variable of net migration is found to be insignificant, showing that when people migrate from one state to another they are not concern about the risk of life but rather about basic needs of life.

2.4 INTERNAL MIGRATION OR INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION?

Bohra and Massey (2009) probed into as to which factors predict internal and international migration by using multinomial logistic regression. The data was from 1996-Chitwan Valley Family Study, conducted on individuals, HHs and neighbourhood. Variables specified were grouped as physical capital, human capital, neighbourhood socio-economic conditions and social capital.

The study brings to light a number of findings:-

1. Educational level and occupational status increase the probability of internal migration, but are not related or negatively related to international migration
2. Previous military experience predicts positive movement out-side country, but not internally.

3. The likelihood of migration to any destination declines as age increase, nevertheless in maximum cases at a decelerating rate.
4. Access to development indicator (electricity) show a drop in migration
5. The probability of international migration increase with economic development (indicated by travel time)
6. Internal and international migration gets lowered with the ownership of family business
7. Social capital like having neighbours with international experience strongly increases the likelihood of international migration and there is no effect or less effect on internal migration.
8. Similarly neighbours with local migration experience increase the probability of local migration.
9. As far as gender is concerned the probability of females to be a migrant is lower in all types of migration (internal and international).
10. The effect of ethnicity on migration show a pattern whereby people belonging to ethnic group with prior migratory experience are more likely to migrate compared to indigenous people.

Czaika (2011) viewed the determinants of migration and the respective decisions about out-migration, destinations or distances. The empirical analysis is based on the data of the 64th round of National Sample Survey in India covering around 125,000 HHs and around 100,000 former HH members taken as out-migrants. The study is focussed on the following two objectives. First the use of the concept of relative deprivation, the feeling of which is separated into intra-group and inter-group to test their importance in migration decision. And second the stages of absolute deprivation in fulfilling migration aspiration i.e., whether internal or international migration.

The findings are as follows:-

- Individual as well as group-based relative deprivation across social, political and religious categories are important in the decision to migrate if at all.
- The role of relative deprivation is ambiguous as far as choice of destination is concerned.
- Internal migration is facilitated more within a federal state (short distance)
- Internal movements to other states are unaffected by relative deprivation.
- But higher the relative deprivation lower is international migration.
- Both internal and international migration is associated by common sets of features.
- The choice of internal or international migration depends on the capabilities of the HHs to pay for the high costs of migrating to distance places.
- Less absolute deprivation HHs prefers inter-state and international migration and
- Individual relative deprivation of HHs and group-based, influence the decision about which family member should migrate and if they choose to migrate at all, the choice of destination.

Castaldo et al. (2012) study the importance of internal migration, remittances and poverty by taking evidences from two countries-Ghana and India, characterized by huge population and regional inequalities. The authors draw data from the Housing and Population Census of Ghana (2000) and Housing and Population Census of India (2001). Evidences from the study of these less developed countries show that internal migration out number international migration and that people move from relatively poorer areas to richer ones. The study also highlights unrecognized facts about internal and international remittances like that:-

I. The total remittances from internal migration is greater than that from international migration

II. Poorer regions of the two states are more likely to receive more of internal remittances and

III. Remitting money internally is more risky and expensive as migrants rely on informal channels of money transfer.

Abramitzky et al. (2012) in the paper titled, "Have the poor always been less likely to migrate? Evidence from inheritance practices during the Age of Mass Migration" considers the effect of parents' fortune on the decision to migrate-internally or internationally. The mass migration period from 1850-1913, is taken up for the study as it was marked with absence of government constraint on inflows and outflows of people. The data is from the Norwegian censuses of 1865 and 1900 and the dataset comprises of Norwegian born population living in the US during 1900.The study is established on the findings that parental fortune and gender composition of brethren (number of brothers and sisters) in the family shape the decision to migrate- whether internally or internationally later in life.

The choice of internal or international migration is comprehended by **Binci and Giannelli** (2012) who focuses on the effect of remittances on children's well-being. Based on the data from Vietnam Livings Standards Survey from 1992-93 and 1997-98and applying cross-section and panel analysis the authors investigated into the average school attendance and child labour in HHs receiving remittances and in HHs not receiving remittances. The results indicate towards an increase in schooling and decrease in child labour in remittance receiving HHs. Though there is a difference in the results of both the above mentioned analysis, as far as importance of internal and international

remittances is concerned, the panel analysis points towards internal remittances importance and cross-section analysis indicate towards international remittances having stronger beneficial impact than internal remittances.

Olowa and Awoyemi (2014) studied the demographic and economic determinants of migration (internal and international) and receipt of remittances, using the Nigeria Living Standards Survey (2004) data to estimate the multinomial logit model. The results indicate that maximum human capital variables (attainment of primary schooling, secondary schooling and university education) are statistically insignificant. For internal remittances, age of HH head, HHs with more members with secondary schooling, number of male above the age of 15, network zones (most of them which are specified in the study) and land size are positive and significantly correlated with internal migration and receipt of internal remittances. And for international remittances, age of HH head, HHs with members with university level education and land size are significant and positively related to receiving international remittances.

2.5 CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE OF MIGRANT

Consumption is an important concept in economics as well as in many other social sciences, the study of which is central to both macro and micro economics. The following literature review elucidates on the impact of remittances on consumption expenditure of migrant and non-migrant HHs.

Chen (2004) findings indicate that though migrant remittances made no significant contribution to both productive investment and to HH consumption, subsequent to the sample self-selection problem being taken into account, the migrant families were found to be better off on HH consumption compared to non-migrant families. The authors explored the impact of migration on the rural productive investment and HH

consumption using the data from the Chinese rural HH survey-1995 which is a nationally representative survey of individuals and HHs from rural areas.

Clément (2005) in the article, 'Remittances and HH expenditure patterns in Tajikistan: A propensity score matching analysis' tried to assess the effect of remittances on HH expenditure patterns. The author used the representative of propensity score matching methods to the Living Standards Measurement Survey-2003 which provided information on income, migration, expenditure, health, education, agriculture, etc. The conclusions of the study are that neither domestic nor foreign remittances have a positive impact on investment expenditures and that short-term migration with the benefit of remittances is interpreted as a strategy of dependent HHs to cope with basic level of consumption.

Sosa and Medina (2006) tried to estimate the potential impact of remittances on demand of education and HHs expenditure composition by using the Living Standards Measurement Survey-2003. The effect of remittances is found to be positive on education and important impact is found on the probability of going to a private, rather than a public educational institution. Also important impact is found on the living standards of beneficiary HHs, though the effect of remittances on consumption, health expenditure and investment are found to be null.

Taylor and Mora (2006) tests and quantifies the differences in expenditure demands amongst non-migrant and migrant HHs, using the new HH data from rural Mexico with the help of modelling approach. The findings are as follows:-

- Movement of people reshapes HH demands, independent of total income.
- The effect of migration on HH expenditure is complex
- Expenditure is an endogenous choice so is migration

- Migration does have an effect on expenditures – directly as well as indirectly through the interaction with other HH variables and total expenditures.
- On an average the incomes of migrant HHs is higher than that of non-migrant HHs likewise there is a difference in their socio-demographic characteristics

Castaldo and Reilly (2007) consider internal and international remittances and the differences in their effect on HH consumption patterns and examine the extent of HHs consumption patterns being affected by migrant remittances. The data undertaken for the study is from the Albania Living Standards Measurement-2002 survey. Results of the basic Working – Leser specification model states that the consumption patterns of HHs receiving remittances and HHs not receiving such transfers are not statistically different. In contrast HHs receiving international remittances, ceteris paribus spend on an average a lesser share of their remittances on food and a greater share on consumer durables when compared to HHs devoid of any type of (internal and international) remittances. Though foreign remittances do not play any significant role as far as marginal spending behaviour is concerned.

Simiyu (2013), attempts to answer the questions concerning the use of remittances arising due to increased remittances in Kenya, especially in rural areas. To elaborate further this paper endeavours to know the use of these increased remittances by focussing on education, health, food and other HH expenditure by applying the panel survey of 295 HHs in Kenya. The analytical evidence from the fixed effects model applied to conduct the study provide evidence that remittances are mostly used on immediate consumption demands like transportation costs and payment of utility bills.

Chandrasekhar and Sharma (2014) studied the impact of short-term migration on consumption expenditure across HHs having migrant and HHs having no-migrant

member. The analysis is based on nationally represented NSSO-survey, 64th round conducted from July 2007 to June 2008. The instrumental variable approach used, comes up with the following findings- that short-term migrant HHs have less monthly per capita consumption expenditure and monthly per capita food expenditure compared to HHs without a short-term migrant.

Ahmed and Mughal (2014) used the working-Leser framework and propensity score matching analysis to investigate into the disparity in consumption patterns of domestic and foreign remittances in HHs having migrants. The analysis was carried out on 16,341 HHs during 2010-2011 rounds of Pakistan Social and Living-Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM). This representative country-wide survey is on the HH incomes, wealth, savings, consumption, demographic, work and social features. The conclusions of the study are summarised as follows:-

(1) The expenditure of HHs receiving international remittances is higher for some items.

(2) HHs considers foreign remittances a fungible income source and spends the income.

(3) Expenditure on quite a few categories of items is similar among the internal remittances receiving and non-receiving HHs.

(4) Expenditure on health care is substantially higher among HHs receiving internal remittances.

(5) Foreign remittances receiving HHs are on an average better-off than HHs receiving internal remittances.

(6) It was also observed that there are differences in consumption patterns amongst poor and very poor HHs receiving remittances. When compared to rest of migrant

HHs' income, international remittances, are spent no more or less effectively, however proportionally more internal remittances is spent on health care.

2.6 LITERATURE REVIEW-OBSERVATIONS

The determinants of migration are the factors and the magnitude, which influence the decision to migrate. The factors that determine internal migration can be classified as individuals, HH, and community characteristic. In addition there are a number of social and economic factors that stimulate internal migration.

1) The individual characteristics are age, marital status, human capital endowments and years of schooling.
2) HH characteristic that influence mostly rural-urban migration are father's education, economic status of HHs, presence of younger siblings, family size, HH head, caste and land possession. Being HH head has an important positive impact on both rural to rural and urban to rural migration. It is also interesting to note that determinants of youth migration are varied by destination and gender. Youth migration especially for education and employment purposes raises contentious issues of lose and gain, in country of origin and country of destination respectively. States with better education facility and job opportunities will gain due to in-migration of youth and poorer states will lose on human capital due to out-migration of its young population.
3) Community characteristics include access to primary schools during childhood which decreases the likelihood of migration to urban areas.
4) Economic factors deemed important are income seekers (income differentials induces migration), unemployment rates, work/employment opportunities and business.

5) Social factors assessed to impact migration are distance and presence of social networks. Some researchers have considered migration with HH, migration due to marriage, education and migration after birth as social factors.

The other conclusions which can be drawn are as follows:-

1. General factors that are dominant in both the country of origin and destination are:-
    - demographic (i.e., population and IMR), geographic (i.e., distance between capitals and land area of the destination), young age structure, urbanization
    - having the same official language, having a common border, sharing a minority language, colonial links,
    - unemployment rates, wage rates, wage differentials, potential migrant respond to monetary incentives with a lag, flow of remittances
    - Manpower ministry and labour friendly migration policies.
    - Excess demand in destination country is assumed to draw skilled/educated migrants from areas with an excess supply of such workers from origin country.
    - In case of highly skilled/educated individuals, pull factors are found to be more important than push factors.
    - For education purpose
    - Internationalization of higher education and rising middle class specially in less developed countries
    - Students' professional aspirations for better future
    - Students' mobility is due to preference of work-related factors, or family-friendly environment and public safety, parents' support (in moral as well as in financial terms), and obligation towards family.
2. The push factors that are responsible for exodus are classified as:-

- Social, historical, lower earnings, inflation, unemployment rate and real wage rate.
- More educated in origin country and unemployment rate
- Students background (personal and family), social network, university-related factors and preferences of living conditions
- Students educated background
- Inflow of remittances positively affects migration

3. The pull factors highlighted in the study are:-
   - Employment probabilities and prospects of higher income
   - Presence of family and friends in the destination country
   - High earnings
   - Occupation-specific job opportunities
   - Occupation-specific income opportunities
   - Labour demand conditions
   - Educated are attracted by the number of scientific personnel living in the areas, which presumably proxies employment opportunities
   - Certain educated are income driven and some are job prospect driven

The effect of migration on HHs is seen on:-

I. Children's human capital development (education, health and other aspects of life), overall human capital development, poverty reduction and improved investments

II. Savings, work experience and skills

III. Increased consumption expenditure

IV. Increased inequality in source country

V. Impetus to formal and informal sector

VI. A push to traditional culture

VII. Negative impact on children's cognitive development and child nutrition

VIII. Long run negative growth rate due to brain drain

IX. Higher public expenditure on education

X. Remittances are termed as external source of development finance which calls for a regulatory framework concerning the flow

XI. There is a difference in the effect of internal remittances and international remittances.

XII. The effect of HH consumption expenditure is complex

XIII. HHs spend more on some items of consumption and

XIV. Remittances are mostly spent on immediate consumption wants like transport and utility bills.

2.7 PRESENT RESEARCH VIS-À-VIS OTHER STUDIES

The present study attempts to make a specific contribution to the existing literature on migration, by using the original micro-level cross-sectional data collected by Goa Migration Study-2008 from Goa. The study deals with internal migrant, international migrant and non-migrant individuals and HHs. The researcher attempts to analyse the factors affecting migration both internal and international, to analyse the HH characteristics and consumption expenditure of the three groups of HHs observed in Goa. Unlike other studies which are grounded on macro-level, HH and community characteristics the present study proposes to include variables like age, gender, marital status, educational status, activity status and relation with head which are individual based characteristics in an attempt to study the factors affecting migration.

A detail study is directed on HH characteristics like HH size and HH composition, and on HH head characteristics like age, gender, years of schooling and activity status.

Further an elaborate deliberation is focussed on the consumption expenditure on food and non-food items of the three groups of HHs in Goa. The determinants of consumption expenditure (food and non-food items) inequality is quantified for the three sets of HHs in the study. To conclude the study has specified and estimated models which has identified factors affecting international migration and determinants of consumption expenditure for Goa.

CHAPTER –3

DETERMINANTS OF FACTORS AFFECTING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OF GOANS

CHAPTER–THREE

FACTORS AFFECTING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OF GOANS

Since the sixteenth century Goa has fostered a resilient migration relationship with the rest of the world and the factors that have governed this exodus of people to far off places outside India and to closer neighboring places within India have over the years undergone many changes. History unveils a number of reasons (or causes) as to why Goans were attracted to places outside Goa and the present chapter reconnoiters into the individual characteristics of Goans as determinants of internal (neighboring places out-side Goa but within India) as well as international (out-side India) migration. The six key individual features of Goans that are investigated in the present chapter are- age, gender, educational status, activity status, marital status and relationship with the head. The multinomial logistic regression examines the likelihood of the above mentioned factors in affecting internal as well as international migration of Goans.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Migration has occurred throughout human history and can be best attributed to factors such as climate and scarcity of resources. The enormous literature on migration tends to reach at a consensus that the primary necessity for the decision to migrate has been the economic consideration of well-being of every human being. In the past, the fundamental factor that stimulated migration was the desire for social and economic betterment, rather than income differential. Over the years, the factors and determinants of migration have changed from country to country and within a country from one region to another. The reasons vary depending on wide ranging socio-economic, political, cultural, demographic and environmental factors.

In contemporary times the inequalities in development between countries and absence or less rigid restrictions to entry, facilitated by rapid and effective flow of information, migration stream is directed from developing to developed countries of the world on an increased pace.

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Migration determinants can be defined as forces existing at macro, meso and micro levels (Faist, 2000) which affect the decision whether to migrate or not. This decision depends on individual (micro-level), aggregate (macro-level) and meso (in between the micro and macro level, e.g. on the HH or community level) (Zanker, 2008). The theories that belong to the above grouping can be used to explain both the causes and perpetuation of migration. Raveinstein a geographer cartographer gave the first 'Laws of Migration' ((1885; 1889), and asserted that migration was an integral part of development and is mostly due to economic causes. A diverse approach has been used to understand migration over different time periods. The various theories formulated may be categorized as:-

3.2.1 Initiation theories and

3.2.2 Perpetuation theories

3.2.1 INITIATION THEORIES

The initiation theories that explain migration are as follows:

3.2.1.1 Neo-classical (Harris & Todaro, 1970; Lewis, 1954; Ranis & Fei, 1961)

3.2.1.2 New economics of migration (Stark and Bloom, 1985)

3.2.1.3 Dual labour market (Piore 1979)

3.2.1.4 World system theory (Wallerstein (1974)

3.2.1.1 Neo-Classical

The profounder of Neo-classical migration theory views migration at micro and macro levels. At a macro-level the economic theory explains migration in terms of geographical differences in the supply and demand for labour. The simple and compelling explanation of international migration offered by neo-classical macroeconomics has strongly shaped public thinking and has provided the intellectual basis for much immigration policy (Massey, et. al 1993). At the micro- level the decision to move is considered a rational individual decision, governed by cost-benefit calculations. Thus, neoclassical migration theory is of the view that the supply of labour to the urban industrial economy makes the rural-urban migration an important constituent of the development process (Lewis 1954). The main propositions of neo-classical theory of migration may be summarized as:

- Migration is caused due to wage differentials between regions (in order to maximize income)
- The individual is considered as unit of study
- Elimination of wage differentials, can eliminate migration
- Wages are determined by labour market imperfections
- The state should be involved in labour markets
- Highly skilled workers (human capital) - respond positively to differences in the rate of return.

3.2. 1.2 The New Economics of Migration

The New economics of migration is characterized by developmentalist assumptions. It argues that migration (1) is a family decision, (2) family uses migration as a "Risk diversification strategy" so that family raise income, invest and insure, (3) risks are everywhere not only in labour market ;and (4) states should influence migration rates through policies that influence labor markets, shape insurance markets, futures market and capital markets.

The neo-classical and new economics of migration theories are micro-level decision processes with the difference being that the former takes individual and the latter takes HH as the unit that makes decisions and are supply oriented. The Neo-classical and New economics of migration theories consider the main cause of migration are economic and analyze the supply side of labour. However, the following are theories focuses on forces that work at a much higher level of aggregation.

3.2. 1.3 Dual Labour Market

The dual labour market theory divides the economy into two parts *viz* primary and secondary.

The primary labour market is typified by high incomes and overall good job prospects. The secondary labour market is typified by low incomes and low job prospects

1) Migration stems from intrinsic demand for migrant labour in advanced industrialized societies.
2) Labour migration is demand based i.e. migration is caused due to demand for labour which is inherent to the developed countries economic structure.
3) Employers will develop institutions which ensure a steady flow of migrant labour in all concerned occupations
4) The state will not interfere i.e. demand for labour will take place through institutions

3.2. 1.4 World Systems Theory

World-systems approach seeks to explain the dynamics of the "capitalist world economy" in a macro-sociological perspective. The theory argues that migration follows the political and economic organization of an expanding global market. The main hypotheses are:

1) Migration is a natural outgrowth of disruptions and dislocations
2) It is due to capitalist development in developing countries

3) The world economic system is divided into a hierarchy of three types of states - the core states, peripheral and semi-peripheral areas
4) Migration is due to structural changes in world markets and a function of globalization, the increased interdependence of economies and the emergence of new forms of production (Massey et al. 1993).
5) Migration is facilitated through cultural, linguistic, investment, transportation, and communication links.

3.2.2 PERPETUATION THEORIES

The perpetuation theories are:-

3.2.2.1 Network theory and

3.2.2.2 Institutional theory

Despite the fact that factors such as wage differentials, risk diversification, HH and family unit, demand for labour and others may continue to cause people to migrate, new settings or situation arise to function as independent causes. In recent years the incentives on the supply side, like cheap transportation and communication cost and high wage differentials across countries have increased mobility of people. They offer few insights into migration-undermining mechanisms and the decline of migration systems overtime (De Haas, 2009). Diverse theories stress on different circumstances, independent of individual or structural factors that originally caused migration. The following theories explain why international migration perpetuates:-

3.2.1 Network Theory

Networks can be defined as sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas, through bonds of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin (Massey et al., 1993). Network connections are a form of social, material and human capital (education, skills and knowledge) and an

essential migration resource in (1) enabling (2) inspiring people to migrate and (3) bringing down the costs of migration. The study of migration networks has become popular in the past two decades.

3.2.2.2 Institutional Theory

A range of institutions benefits from international migration including capitalists and entrepreneurs who make a profit from migration, humanitarian groups (some of them with clout), and recruiters who engage in legal migration. Underground, smugglers and traffickers also make a lucrative profit from migration.

In the 1950s and 1960s there existed developmentalist optimism regarding migration. In the 1970s and 1980s structuralist and neo-Marxist pessimism and skepticism ruled. The 1990s saw a more nuanced views influenced by the new economics of labour migration. Since 2000, there has been a sudden renaissance of optimistic views and a boom in empirical work on migration and development (De Haas, 2008). Besides the above, factors such as population pressure, demographic pressure, or environmental degradation have commonly been postulated as "root causes" of migration.

Thus the theoretical background shed light on the intellectual profounder that list the various factors that have affected migration over thousands of years. They conclude that migration has occurred for a variety of reasons for different groups of people and where individual as well as HH characteristics have determined the decision. Besides the socioeconomic variables such as age, sex, caste, landholding size, family size, composition of family members, economic activity, consumption levels, etc., have characterized migration in different forms over the years. In recent years authors like Aravena (2002) have studied whether factors such as education, marital status, and the number of children influence women's migration status using the multinomial logistic

regression analysis to test the three groups: having no migration experience, having migrated internally, and having migrated internationally.

3.3 HISTORICAL PERCEPTION ON FACTORS AFFECTING GOAN MIGRATION

The general causes of migration are well explained by the push-pull model which consists of a number of push (negative) factors in the country of origin that drives people away, in combination of pull (positive) factors in the country of destination that attracts people into their country. The proponents of push factors assume that more disadvantaged a place is, there is every possibility that it will produce more migrants. On the other hand the pull factors that affect migration are the comparative advantages in the richer countries or destination countries. However some researchers argue that labour market factors in receiving countries rather than in sending countries determine migration (Piore, 1979) and ultimately the combination of both the push and pull factors determine the size and direction of the flow of people (Portes and Böröcz, 1989).

Migration of Goans to the neighboring states and outside India began as early as the 16th century (Xavier, 1987), continued during the Portuguese rule and is still an ongoing process. Stagnant Goan economy and the allurement of job opportunities outside the territory were the main reasons for migration which accelerated from the mid-19th century onwards. The reasons enumerated in the present study as push-pull factors responsible for this large-scale phenomenon are varied and differ during different time periods, the manifestation of which is presented in the following section.

3.3.1 The Push Factors Responsible For Goan Migration

The state of Goa characterized as a rural economy was prosperous during the two closing decades of the 16th century. Portuguese invasion and ultimate rule brought about many political, social and cultural changes in the society which forced or pushed many Goa's out of their land in search of better life and livelihood. Goa has witnessed significant internal migration during 16th and 17th century, indicating a regional inequality, in terms of economy, opportunities and living standards (Islam and Saleheen2006). As early as 1646 Goans migrated to closer neighbouring places like Sawantwadi, Vengurla, Malwan, Dharwad and Ratnagiri to escape Maratha raid on Goa and predatory forays of neighbouring chieftains (Teresa Albuquere, 2012) to far off places in Africa during the same period. Also prominent is the migration of Goans to a little distant (distance-wise) states like Pune, Calcutta, Karachi and Mumbai in particular, where Goans began working in the British naval fleet between 1797 and 1813. It should be noted here that Goa being a Portuguese colony, any migration to India was considered international.

It should also be noted that the first migrants from Goa were the people of laboring class and musicians (Pinto, 1960), subsequently followed by many highly educated Goans. The wide-ranging motives behind this on-going trend is listed as follows:-

1) Forceful influx first of the Muslims and later the Portuguese in Goa in the late 1500 and early 1600 (Karen, 1998)
2) The missionary activity of conversion of Hindus into Christianity or religious intolerance
3) The communidades were adversely affected by the appropriation of a portion of communal land by the Portuguese mainly in the 16th and 17th century(De Souza, 1979) and from the 19th century by state interference in the customary code of

practice which inter alia, changed the prevailing norms governing access to usufructry land rights (Pereira, 1981)

4) From 1787 onwards for a period of almost 20 years, the British army had a battalion in Goa and during this period local Catholic Goans were employed as stewards, cooks and artisans. When the army in due course left Goa for British India, local catholic Goan attendants went along with them (Pinto, 1960).

5) The then Goa government (Portuguese) in addition imposed a military tax upon those termed 'Assimilados' (i.e., Portuguese knowing Goans) and 'Emigration Tax' upon everyone both 'Assimilados' as well as 'Indegenos' (i.e., natives who do not know the Portuguese language) who left the country to seek some employment in India or elsewhere (Pinto, 1960).

6) The impoverishment of Goan masses due to the bourgeois life-style of the Portuguese at the cost of Goans (De Souza, 1979)

7) Revenue from custom duties, and heavy taxation of the local population was used by the Portuguese to help military expeditions and missionary activities outside Goa

8) To escape epidemics (Da Silva Gracias, 2000), heavy taxation including property tax (De Souza, 1979), insecurity which was caused by the Dutch blockade, threats from neighboring rulers and continuing wars.

9) There was a threat to Goa from the Napoleon's to make Goa a base from which to destroy their colonial power- this saw a financial decline in Goa where the common man was hit the hardest (Albuquere, 2000)

10) The introduction of steamship and railway lines in the 1850s reduced distances and facilitated migration to a great extent.

11) The construction of railroad in 1870s made it possible to settle in neighbouring places like Hubli, Dharwar, Belgaum, Pune and Bombay (De Souza, 2002).

12) The deteriorating economic conditions of Goans from mid-19th century

13) The removal of religious bias on non-Christians (Hindus and Muslims) in 1910, after Portugal became a Republic, the non-Christians were admitted to Portuguese schools, colleges, government service, and also the independent professions in Goa passed into the hands of non-Christians (Pinto, 1960). Christians not being able to withstand the stiff competition from non-Christians fled to other states with the only hope for survival.

14) The catholic community had no idea of starting business of their own so those equipped with educational qualification became doctors, lawyers, professors and journalists and majority in search of white collar jobs left the state leaving their wives, children and aged parents behind.

15) During the Second World War undivided India being a British Dominion was completely cut off from food supplies from abroad owing to enemy action on British shipping. There was a famine throughout the country and Goa being in the grip of the Indian sub-continent was drawn into this famine stricken orbit and suffered terribly for want of foodstuffs. This led to Goan emigration into the adjoining and neighboring Bombay province in search of food (Pinto, 1960).

16) Parents sent their children to Belgaum, Poona and Bombay to study at English schools and colleges which were managed by priests and nuns (Mascarenhas-Keyes 1988).

17) In the 16th century Portuguese transported a number of baptized Goans as settlers to Mozambique on the east coast of Africa (Albuquere, 2000). Goans also migrated as traders and soldiers.

18) Goan prisoners were deported by the Portuguese to their African colony of Mozambique which also served as a penal colony for convicts (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 2011)

19) Priests and Goan Catholics from upper class families migrated for higher studies (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 2011)

20) Catholic Goans had contacts with Europeans because most of the schools and colleges they usually attended were run under the auspices of the Catholic Church, and often there were some European Catholic staff that helped Goans to migrate to places like Spain (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 2011).

21) Goan priests and nuns have been able to provide reliable points of contact, sources of information, guidance and support for Goan migrants (Moraes, 1972).

22) The large movement of Goans during the 18th century was largely encouraged by the Portuguese as they found it was a chief source of revenue flowing into the Goan treasury by way of foreign remittances.

23) After liberation of Goa in 1961, the Catholic community, especially those with Portuguese education, found that there was no future for them in Goa as a result of which Goans immigrating to Portugal.

Thus it can be said that the push factors contributing to the large-scale movement of Goans have been opportunity, providence, and circumstantial compulsions.

3.3.2 The Pull Factors Responsible For Goan Migration

Minor migration i.e., migration from one area to another to improve quality of life (Carvalho, 2010) was part of Goan migration history. As the pull factors of the neighboring states (internal migration) cannot be overlooked so is the desirability for international migration, which has been mostly due to long term employment with career prospects and superannuation benefits (Mascarenhas –Keyes, 1985).Many Indian states and places out-side Goa with opportunities of jobs and better life, attracted (pulled) Goans, the details (place-wise or destination-wise) of which are recorded as follows:-

3.3.2.1 Africa

Goans connection with East Africa dates back to the 10th century as traders and later in the 1784 (18th century) as soldiers. At the turn of the 19th century, the creation of the British Protectorate of Kenya and the construction of the Kenya-Uganda railway drew many people of the state to East Africa though the first settlement of Goans in Zanzibar can be traced prior to 1800 (The Golden Jubilee Souvenir of the Goan Institute, Nairobi). Goans also worked as sailors, cooks, tailors, railway employees and clerks (GMS 2008) in Kenya. In Zanzibar Goans had provisional stores, worked as medical officers in the service of the sultan of Zanzibar in 1870, medical practitioners and musicians (the second coming of Goans –Xavier Institute) and in Mombassa Goans had business houses

In 1857, two great European explorers mentioned about 'Goanese cooks' who provided dinner to them on their famous journey from Zanzibar to discover the source of river Nile (the second coming of Goans). In 1897 Goan merchants first established themselves in Mombasa and Machakos (Goans in Kenya).

At the turn of the 20th century white collar opportunities arose in Africa due to the expansion of British and Portuguese colonialism. In Tanganyika by 1921 Goan clerks had taken over the secretariat, railways, P.W.D and post and telegraph offices that British public opinion inquired as to why so many Portuguese nationals were required (Carvalho, 2010).

The prominence of Goans in Africa can be comprehended through the Newspaper '*The Anglo-Lusitano* January 1933 which reported that "Goans who number roughly about 800 in the Island enjoyed the patronage and favor of the Sultan, and many hold leading positions in the Government". Goans in Africa have played a dominant role in civil service and in different professions including medicine, in countries like Mozambique, Uganda, Kenya and Angola (Goa Today, 1979).

The people of Goa who migrated to Africa sometimes took their families or returned home to take brides. The Indian annexation of Goa in 1961, witnessed a strong desire amongst many educated catholic Goans to migrate to Africa (Lourenco, 2013).However from the late 1950s onwards, the Africanisation policies led to the curtailment of job prospects there.

3.3.2.2 On board ship –*Tarvotti*

Right from ancient times Goans were associated with distant countries of the east and west for its great commerce. In their peak days Portuguese enjoyed naval supremacy and Goans sailed along with them on their ships patrolling and policing their trade (Albuquere, 2012), with seafaring in their blood early Goans were attracted to this profession. In 1856, the Calcutta and Burma Steam Navigation Limited was established in British India (Carvalho, 2010). Many Goans were recruited on board the ship with lucrative job opportunities.

3.3.2.3 British India

New opportunities and economic development in British occupied India (Nazareth, 1981) made Goans move in search of greener pastures in neighboring states of British India. The military and civilian settlements of British in India, Burma, and Middle East created a huge demand for personnel who could meet European tastes in food, drink, music, dress and medicine. Christians who were unhappy by the adverse local conditions took advantage of these opportunities and worked as cooks, stewards, butlers, musicians, tailors, ayahs and a few worked as pharmacists, clerks, doctors and nurses. In the late 19th century Goans who were educated in English set off to British Indian states like Bombay, Calcutta, Karachi and the Persian Gulf which were conducting extensive developmental projects with lots of employment opportunities. In the 1930s seventy thousand Goans had migrated from Goa out of which 2/3rd settled in British India.

3.3.2.4 Bombay

Bombay provided for a perfect destination for Goans in the late 1800's and early 1900's.The upcoming town attracted Goans due to the following reasons:-

1) As early as 1665 British set up an excellent shipyard (Albuquere, 2012) and thus this mercantile city was recognized as a Port city with British dominance
2) It was a fast developing urban center closer to Goa and transportation like ship was easily available.
3) Fast growth of the city due to industrialization, availability of job opportunities especially to illiterate Goans as kitchen helpers or domestics in private HHs and higher wages (Albuquere, 2012).
4) The city had many Goan village clubs (kudds) which provided for friendly environment with many Goans and was temporary accommodation at a reasonable rate, in case of unemployed youth seeking jobs in the city and on steamship
5) Musicians who learnt music as an integral aspect of Portuguese missionaries curriculum could eke out a living (Albuquere, 2012).
6) In fact all the profession right from seamen, ayahs, cooks & butlers, musicians, bread makers, tailors, jewelers, coach builders, mill-workers, undertakers to intellectual stalwarts and eminent physicians could earn a decent living in Bombay.
7) Bombay provided English education of superior quality as education in Goa was either in Portuguese or Marathi (Larsen, 1998)
8) The cosmopolitan religiously liberal city offered freedom from restrictions of village life

In 1819 Vitorino Mudot, a native of the village of Assagao in Goa, set up the first baker's oven and is considered the Father of Goan Bakers in Bombay(Albuquerque, 2012). In Bombay there was the 'Goan Emigrants' Fund Committee' working for the welfare of Goans in Bombay as is evident from the report that appeared in *The Anglo-Lusitano* September 9, 1933 that 'The Goan Emigrants' Fund Committee is starting Handloom Factory for unemployed Goans in Bombay and free of charge'. The committee which was based in Bombay was looking after feeding the poor Goans, arranging medical relief, providing training in housekeeping, cookery, care of children, etc.

Thus the proximity of a great and flourishing city of Bombay may have put a premium on the natural tendency of an urban life which Goans aspired being in Goa and Bombay too welcomed Goans as is evident from the various facilities available for Goans in Bombay.

3.3.2.5 Cochin

Although Cochin was closer to Goa, minimal Goans migrated to Cochin for reasons like work obligation and many sailors were docked there for a number of months (Larsen, 1998).

3.3.2.6 Karachi

Goans arrived in Karachi around1842 when it was a still small, swampy fishing village and the first batch of Goans that crossed 500 miles and landed in Karachi consisted of educated men (The Anglo-Lusitano, 1896). Goans migrated to Karachi to seek employment in the civil clerical cadre and invest in small scale industries. But as the city grew successive waves of Goan émigrés comprising of doctors, teachers, confectioners, nurses and small businessmen converged upon the city and with the development of port

came the sea merchants (Goa Today, 1991). The prospects of jobs and education were high during the early 20th century Karachi, with British building schools, setting up a new Government and raising the entire city (Goa Today, 1991). Goans settled in Karachi worked in railways, customs and police as well.

3.3.2.7 Portugal

During colonial period intellectual upper class Goans migrated to Portugal to study and then to settle and numbered in hundreds (Chanda and Ghosh, 2012). These intellectuals later became clerics, doctors, engineers, lawyers, magistrates, teachers, journalists, officials in the army and navy, in the bureaucracy in Portugal or in its colonies and occupied high positions (Da Costa, 1956). Though there was a taboo on Hindus for crossing the sea, Hindu goldsmiths from Goa went to Portugal to produce objects of art for the royal court (Silva et al. 1996).Portuguese established *EscolaMédico-Cirúrgica de Goa* (Medical-Surgical School of Goa) in 1842 (Borges, 1997). Therefore many *EscolaMédico-Cirúrgica de Goa* graduates went to Portugal to acquire practicing licenses. Likewise the scholarships instituted by Portuguese government in 1950 attracted many Goans who wanted to pursue further studies to Portugal (Chanda and Ghosh, 2012).

In the 20th century following the takeover of Goa by India (i.e., in 1961) Goans were given a choice of opting for Portuguese citizenship, that was when a large number of Goans in administrative services and military officers immigrated (Duttagupta, 2008).

The new or recent wave of migration from Goa has been of Goans migrating after attaining the 'Portuguese passport'. The Portuguese nationality law allows those born in Goa, Daman and Diu before 1961 or their descendants up to the third generation to 'recover' their Portuguese nationality (even if they do not know Portuguese) (Chanda

and Ghosh, 2012). Many Goans especially less skilled ones have taken advantage of this privilege and have migrated to the larger European market.

In the mid-20th century long term settlements in Portugal for better prospect was considered worthwhile due to:-

(a) Better and secure jobs with regular salary

(b) Goans lacked business acumen

(c) Little interest in agriculture and

(d) Lack of infrastructure for the establishment of agro based activities.

Goans have settled even in Portuguese colonies as Goan traders were there in Mozambique and other parts of East Africa, who took part in the trade of ivory and gold (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 1979).The Portuguese colonies, especially Mozambique, recruited Goans who were literate in Portuguese language to work as clerks and administrators (Malheiros, 1996). In Angola, Goans were mostly employed in public services or as doctors

3.3.2.8 Gulf countries

Goan migration to the southwest of Iran began in 1920s with oil being drilled commercially by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company (Carvalho, 2010). Thereon Goans were employed in various capacities in Persia (now Iran), Kuwait, Bahrain and Aden (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 1988).By 1930, there were 658 Goans employed in the oil industry mostly in Khuzestan, on the southwest of Iran (Carvalho, 2010). A large number of Goans were engaged by Bahrain Petroleum Company in 1937 as cooks, caterers and waiters (Goa Today, 1978).

In 1960s with Middle-east countries experiencing petro-dollar boom, services of large number of unskilled and skilled workers were in demand (Prakash, 1998). Many Goans

migrated so as to benefit from this lucrative prospect. However migration to the Middle East is not a permanent migration, as local laws in the Middle Eastern countries do not permit permanent migration.

3.3. 2.9 United Kingdom

The first Goan migrants to the United Kingdom were the 'tarvottis' who were found settled in the port-towns of England during the first half of the 20th century (Carvalho, 2008).There-after the occupation type of Goans in London was professional, managerial, supervisory high and supervisory low, skilled manual, semi-skilled manual and unskilled manual (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 1979). In recent times professionals and educated elite are seeking economical betterment in more advanced countries in the world. There has been an outflow of entrepreneurs, store owners, professionally employed businessmen, etc., to European countries primarily to the United Kingdom as countries in UK provide attractive social security, good education and superior quality of life.

3.3.2.10 United States

A number of Goans settled in Canada as a result of wholesale expulsion of Asians from Uganda in 1972, and were termed as refugees (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 1979). Canada followed a scrupulous selection procedure of these refugees so as to meet the needs of Canadian economy and selected youngest, well educated, easiest to absorb in Canadian work force, and least likely to be a burden on pension, welfare and medical programs (Pereira et al., 1979).

Besides the above categorization records say that a Goan was in the service of the Royal Indian Marine at Basrah and Baghdad between 1874 and 1880 as the employ of Messrs. Also some were found in almost every walk of life in Government departments, banks and commercial firms in Mesopotamia (Lopes, 1921).Goans who could not prosper in Portugal re-migrated to Portuguese overseas territories such as Angola or Mozambique or to foreign countries like France, Germany, England, US and Canada (Goa Toady,

1970).In more recent times many Goans have settled in Australia lately due to job opportunities and latest technology at work.

The Anglo Lusitano of 26 April 1888 had reported, ' The population of Goans actually residing out of their country will number about 60,000 souls, of whom about 50,000 will be in different parts of British India and the rest in other parts of the world, such as the eastern part of Africa'. The percentage of the population of Goa that migrated rose from 4% in 1878, to 13% in 1920 (Torrie and da Fonseca, 1879; census, 1920). A small proportion of this is probably accounted for by internal migration. In 1921, 20, 0000 Goans were in British India, Burma, east Africa and Mesopotamia (The times of India, 1931).

Today Goan diaspora is found on board the ships, in various parts of India and at length and breadth of the world, signifying that internal as well as international migration is a part of Goan history and has a far reaching socio-economic impact on the state's economy. The changes in the political economy of Goa and worldwide led to migration year after year and generation after generation. As Mascarenhas-Keyes (1988) notes that the cultural emphasis of "doing well" and "coming up" along with the new global employment opportunities has indeed given an impetus to this constantly growing phenomenon. In consequence, it is noteworthy to state that political, religious, and socio-cultural factors have shaped Goan migration and in consequence the present study focuses on important individual determinants affecting migration which are age, gender, educational attainment, activity status, marital status, and relation with the HH head.

3.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK - FACTORS AFFECTING MIGRATION

Conceptual framework of understanding the determinants of migration is important as it is centered around the individual characteristic and provides the clearest understanding as to why some people move and others do not, thus contributing to the growth of micro-level migration (De Haans, 2011).

3.4.1. Age

At what age one migrates? Children are dependent and migrate as a part of family migration whereas adults migrate for educational purpose and/or job purpose. In the long run the age at which an individual migrates is potentially an important determinant of how that immigrant will eventually fair in the labor market.

The ILO on UN International Youth Day in 2013, while answering some essential questions on migration said that 'Young people are the largest group of individuals migrating each year and they do so mainly in search of decent work and better living conditions, education, family reunification and for humanitarian reasons. In 2010, some 3.6 million young people were enrolled in tertiary education abroad. Unemployment, underemployment, low wages and family poverty are major factors, as is the availability of higher-paying jobs abroad'. ILO further stated that roughly 27 million youth leave their countries of birth to seek employment abroad as international migrants.

Friedberg (1992) enlists five reasons in support of migration when young: - firstly when immigrants arrive in the destination country as youth they are expected to assimilate better than immigrants who arrive in adulthood as immigrant attend school in the destination country and accumulate labour market experience of the destination country. Secondly, adjustments to labour market institution become easier when young. Thirdly, when young in age learning the language of the place to enhance earning potential becomes easier and finally, younger people are more adept at becoming socially assimilated than are older people. Further, young adults are less risk-averse and have a

longer time horizon to recoup an 'investment' in migration (Franklin, 2003), and youth migration leads to higher levels of human capital, longer pay-back period for costs incurred due to migration, lower social capital accumulation so lower psychosocial cost of mobility and greater degrees of personal freedom (as they are less bound by family ties and new environments are important to them) (Fouarge and Ester, 2007).According to the Human Capital Model 'Young educated individuals are the most likely to move because they have the most to gain; given a longer life span'. One cannot deny the fact that employers show preference for 'youthful workers' such as "boy", "girl" "young women" and so on (Graebner 1980).

Older workers are said to face barriers to employment as they are less likely to upgrade themselves (Taylor and Walker, 1994) and are therefore seen as less adaptable (Smith, 2001).According to Campanelli (1990), age- based discrimination is largely false. The author states that "Older workers are not less adaptable, but they often possess rare and complex intellectual capital, provide longer and more reliable service to their employers, and have fewer accidents, injuries and occasion fewer workplaces losses than their younger, and often more expensive, colleagues". In other words one can say that with age one reaches a level of real producing value. During the Thailand crises (1997) and Mexico crises (1995) the composition of wage earners changed with a shift from younger to older workers (Behrman et al. 2001). Studies have shown that older people migrate as well although for different reasons like providers of childcare for their grandchildren (Da and Garcia, 2010).

The bias against the older employees prevail much stronger and is termed as 'ageism'. Branine and Glover (1997) defined ageism as "a form of prejudice which use perceived chronological age in forming judgments' about people, and age discrimination is based on such prejudice."

The evolvement of economies in an industrial era gave rise to age discrimination. Age discrimination by employers existed right from the 19th century. The original Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) 1967 prohibits discrimination on the basis of age for those aged 40-65. Subsequent amendments (1978) raised it to 70 and eliminated it altogether in the year 1986. In doing so the act eliminated mandatory retirement for nearly all workers however, age-based employment discrimination do still persists internationally (Wilson et al. 2007).

Goan migration happenstance began with young Goans migrating for sustenance purpose on account of backward economic conditions in the state. Later migration trails show that Goans, young or middle-aged migrated for diverse purposes ranging from odd jobs to white collar job achievement.

3.4.2. Gender

Men and women are differently or more often unequally positioned in an economy. They perform different socially pre-determined responsibilities, face different obstacles and as a result respond differently to labour markets. Thus 'Gender' can be defined as a social identity made up of the role a person has to play because of his or her sex. Socio-cultural factors create the male/female distinctiveness that shape how an individual exists and interpret the world around them. Accordingly gender refers to the opportunities, social attributes, and relation-ships that are associated with being feminine and masculine and affects and is affected by economic, political, social and religious forces. Gender analysis thus gain significance due to the perception of the diverse roles of women and men who help understand what they do, what their needs and priorities are and what resources they have. In other words gender roles are those errands, behaviors and responsibilities that a society considers appropriate for men and women.

Although in a broader sense the role of male/female in a society depends upon the access to productive resources and opportunities with women in developing countries being associated with low social cost related to education and other assets. But for centuries stereotyping of activities for men and women have taken place with men being considered as the breadwinner, compelling him to seek greener pastures and women playing an important role of providing unpaid labour in the HHs. There's definitely a lack of literature on the gender-specific allocations of duties, from a male perspective like child care and raising children (Herwartz-Emden 2000).

In recent years though, the role of men and women has undergone many varied demographic, socio-economic and cultural changes. The pace of transformation is more rapid in the western societies. The changes that have shaped the western world are evolutionary changes in society, including economic shifts which have changed the way people work with an increase in the number of females in workforce, and by possible pressures for a change in social organization which was inequitable.

Consequently, there are commonly a combination of factors that affect both women and men migration. How the decision to migrate is made, who migrates and how often, depends on gender roles, relations and responsibilities. It is mostly understood that males from rural areas and economically backward HHs migrate for sustenance purpose. Though studies show that pioneer migrants are mostly males and are from urban middle-class or upper-class nuclear families with a weak religious affiliation, and who want to provide their children with good education, and will migrate at an earlier age as compared to other families. Majority of independent international labour migrants, from around the mid-19th century to the latter part of the 20th century, were male with females usually accounting for less than a third of all migrants.

The minutiae of female migration remain unexplored due to heavy emphasis on male migration. Male migration remained in focus owing to economic considerations, unlike

female migration which is considered for social and family-related reasons .ILO, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific; Asian Development Bank – Bangkok, 2011 states the role of a women as ' In developing Asian countries, women still make up the "buffer workforce" – both within labour markets as flexible and expendable workers concentrated in informal employment and within HHs as "secondary earners" or "added workers". As far as migration is concerned women are labeled as 'secondary' or 'associational' migrants, who migrate due to 'primary movers' decision (Balan 1981). The globalization process has brought about changes in overall migration of males and moreover of females. It is evident from various studies that women from different socio-economic background migrate, internally as well as internationally. The percentage of female migrants world-wide has risen from 46.7 percent in 1960 to 49.6 percent as of 2005 according to United-Nations statistics. According to Census of India 2001, female internal migration has been 22.9 million, of the total 55.2 million migrant populations. The increase in female migration can be attributed to wide-ranging reasons from educational purposes (Kanaiaupuni, 2000) to demand for women in low paying service sector jobs in developed economies (Sassen, 2003), to high-skill level jobs in developed and developing countries (Docquier et al, 2006) and in recent times women's role as providers of childcare for their grand-children (Da and Garcia, 2010).

The other factors responsible for increased female migration are:- personal freedom from conservative background (Percot, 2006),immigration policies, policy induced costs of destination countries (Mckenzie, 2005), demand for certain types of gender specific labour activities by host countries (Percot, 2006), destination country characteristics (amenities, public expenditures, climate, etc.), migration costs (transportation costs, expenditures to learn the new language, etc.), escape from social control like gender discrimination (Posel, 2003), and also prejudice in their own home community if they follow socially denounced work like certain manual wage labour and sexual services

(Tacoli, 2001). All the stated factors are redefining the female migratory flows in recent years. To add further, jobs available for women as migrant are varied, compared to male migrants, who are clustered around limited jobs such as construction, manufacturing and agricultural activities.

The attempts of some countries to control female migration have only led to migration of some women into more risky and stealthy forms of migration (like prostitution).

Globalization has created opportunities for men and women, within and between nations. Fair globalization requires democratic participation of men and women in the labour market to augment their material prosperity and meet their aspirations.

Reckoning Goan history on migration, one gets to know that early migration from Goa was more of males than females. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy to insist on the fact that Goa has a rich history of female migration, although males dominated the process owing to the wide ranging jobs available to males in the labour market. Goans were prominent in male dominated jobs like chefs and stewards, butlers, baker, photographers, tailors, musicians, pharmacists, doctors, working in hotels, restaurants, bars and on construction of the Uganda Railways. Many Goans migrated to east Africa for job opportunities in the construction activity in the early 20^{th} century. Goans were also employed in the Sultan's government and later on in the British administration throughout British East Africa (Mangat, 1976). Post-colonial era many families sent their unemployed, drunkard or wayward sons and husbands to the Gulf, believing that a strict life without alcohol will reform them (Da Silva Gracias, 1999).

One cannot deny the fact that the conquest of Goa by the Portuguese in 1510, gave a gentle push to the stagnated womanhood along the path of social justice (Kamat, 1987). Even though there was prevalence of patriarchal social norms in Goan society, yet it did not deter women from seeking jobs overseas, in spite of the fact that the labour market for Goan women was restricted. Some uneducated women learnt English language which

gave them easy entry into the homes of Europeans, as ayahs, better still, as nannies (Larsen, 1998 and De Souza, 1989). Some women were taken as brides to Africa and Bombay due to the training they had undergone in their konkan homes (Carvalho, 2010).Unmarried girls migrated to amass wealth for marriage purpose, married women to support large families or due to drunkard husbands(Da Silva Gracias, 2000). Even in recent years an NGO-Goa Streets states that 'Countless men while away their days in an alcoholic haze while their wives keep the families afloat'. Statistics of 2013 at Goa Medical College show that as many as 302 deaths are due to alcohol consumption i.e., one death in every 29 hours. Also as many as 85 deaths occurred in the age group of 41 to 50 whereas 72 deaths in the age group of 51 to 60 years.

Da Silva Gracias (2000) analysis on Goan in the Middle East reveals an interesting fact that in one village in Goa; practically every family has sent a female member to the Gulf. Thus to recapitulate, Goan women have worked in the Gulf, in the west and also in the European homes, hospitals and hotels and were forced to move, to either earn their livelihood or supplement family income. In recent years, females have attained better educational achievements, thereby inducing an increase in women's labour force participation and an increase in female/male earnings ratios.

To summarize one can say that the following factors have been conducive for the rise in female migration:-

I. Age

II. Power position within the family setup

III. Stage in the life-cycle (whether they are leaving children behind or not)

IV. Capacity of HHs to do without them and

V. The presence of other women able to replace them in their domestic activities.

The scope of internal migration is less for Goan women because the economic background of Goan women is rather appealing compared to women of other states in India. The Human development indicators such as per capita income of Goa are at an advantageous position when the same is compared with that of other Indian states. Hence Goan women may not be motivated to migrate internally as compared to internationally.

3.4.3. Educational attainment

Human capital can be attained in the following manner-The first type of human capital is high in quality, growth enhancing and is the primary engine of innovations and development of new ideas. The second type of human capital contains less of intellectual quality and more of manual and practical skills that are relevant in performing tasks that are related to existing technologies.

Education and skill attainment play an imperative role at many stages of an individual's migration decision. The economic success of the migrant in the destination country is to a large extent determined by educational background. Education is a main determinant of wages, both in the country of origin and the potential destination country. Human capital accumulation leads to maximization of an individual's lifetime utility.

The Human Capital Model too postulates that education is an investment, and individuals compare the direct and opportunity costs of education with its future benefits. Jacob Mincer estimated returns on educational investment by means of its earning function, which explains the differences in earnings among individuals according to differences in schooling attainments and work experience.

An important question as to whether education attained in origin country will determine the type of job in the receiving country. Since the educational system of origin and destination country determines the performance of migrants, the ILO, 2013, says that many young and well-educated migrants are overqualified for the jobs they hold abroad

and generally get paid higher wages. Though a problem that highly qualified migrants may face in destination country is that, migrants may be confined to jobs that do not match their educational background which may ultimately harm their professional development and lead to brain waste. Another interesting development in the job market which settles the debate on education and white collar jobs is the demand by several employers in Southeast Asia and Europe of Filipinos as domestic helpers, as they have high education level, language (English) ability, and friendliness.

On the other hand the immigrants from developing countries or poorer economic backgrounds may have fewer skills and may be less educated. Such immigrants are likely to migrate irregularly, under adverse situation and end up working in indecent conditions. They may also not get jobs at par with the natives for the same educational qualification. The ILO 2013 states "The kinds of jobs young migrants get at destination totally depend on the background/skills/education level of the migrants and if they immigrated legally or illegally."

Goans had a very narrow access to education before the advent of Portuguese in Goa. It was limited to where and for whom it was imparted (caste) and what languages were taught, thus giving rise to oriental school. Literature review reveals an ambiguity as far as educational attainment and migration is concerned under the Portuguese rule in Goa. It is difficult to say that educational attainment led to migration but migration did lead to development of education as in the year 1831 Portuguese government opened schools in two Talukas- Bardez and Salcette (Mathew et al. 2001) to meet the needs of the emigrants (i.e. knowledge of English and to migrate to British India). Those who could not afford much education, trained themselves as cooks, waiters, musicians, tailors, etc., and practiced theses crafts in British India (Da Silva Gracias, 1989)

Portuguese rule ushered missionary education and taught languages and sciences of the west in the early (first) education institution named as 'Seminario de Santa Fe' (Seminary of the Holy Faith) in 1541. By 1545, every parish had an elementary school imparting training in reading and writing Portuguese and in singing religious songs (Gazetteer of The Union Territory Goa, 1979).By 1829, the Government opened primary schools. By 1870, Goa had lower-grade and higher grade schools, medical school, school of chemistry, the mathematical and military school and a seminary for priests. The entire system of education was reorganized in the year 1871 and primary education was made compulsory for all children between the age group of 9-12 years. Education was also imparted in various fields like agriculture, typing, technical, foundry work, engineering fabrication, horticulture and animal husbandry. However, the development of educational system was not as per the approaches prescribed to educational planning i.e., the rate of return approach, manpower forecasting/requirement approach and cultural approach (Chathley, 1995).The focus of the Portuguese government was only on manpower requirement contemplation. Older censuses on Goa defined 'literate' as those who were able to read and write. Based on this definition and from different censuses, the literacy rate in Goa has increased from 10.91% in 1881 to 31.23% in 1960 (before liberation).

Although Goans migrated as early as 16th century, the phenomenon gained momentum in the second half of the 19th century. Educated Goans like doctors and advocates were already present in India as well as outside India (Mascarenhas, 1974).

Presently the education system of Goa is effectively streamlined in keeping with the National Policy on Education, 1986 and modified in 1992, to upgrade the quality of education at all levels. The state has already enacted the Compulsory Education Act (1995) and has enforced it from September, 1996, to ensure that no child in the age group of 6-14 years remains out of school. Goa is the only State where higher education

up to standard twelve is free of cost. Free and compulsory Primary education is made mandatory. Goa's education system consists of skill training, with catering and professional colleges. Besides there are a number of Schemes ushering education in Goa and educating the illiterate adults in the state has gained much importance. Further, basic skills of vocational training are imparted under various schemes. The state has achieved 87.40 percent literacy as per 2011 population census. The all-inclusive, impressive education system boost's the excellent human development of Goa. Studies have shown that education increases migration (Bhasker, 2002), or long distance movement (Kodrzycki, 2001) and that the immigration policies favour highly skilled individuals.

3.4.4 Activity Status

Economic activity is any activity the outcome of which is the production of goods and services that adds value to Gross National Product. Such activities include production of all goods and services for market i.e., production for pay or profit and production of primary commodities for own consumption and own-account production of fixed assets, among the non-market activities. The stage of economic development of a country determines the type of economic activity taking place in a country. For example the 'stage theory of economic growth' (Fisher, 1935) highlights the fact that, the share of agricultural income and employment declines and that of the non- agricultural sector, particularly that of the service sector accelerates at a faster rate as an economy advances in mature stage of growth.

Private and public sectors are important sectors for any economy as far as employment generation is concerned. Private sector attracts a whole gambit of young people due to high starting salary (earning quick money), recognition of talent, innovative working style and to resign from private jobs is much easier. However, the private sector is highly related to stress (early ageing) and employment/salaries in the private sector are linked to

market conditions and government policies. The growth of private sector or the industrial sector depends upon the economic policies of the state.

The public sector or the government sector at central and state level is the biggest employer. Government jobs offer beneficial pay package and perks like pensions, promotion, pay hike, housing facility, etc., with more relaxed and congenial working style. However the main reason for opting for government employment is the 'job security' assured by government as an employer. Government jobs are immune to the fluctuations in the economy and the salaries depend on the pay commission. In addition lien facility is available for government employees for a period of six years with the disadvantage of not being counted for pension benefits there by reducing the pension benefits and one is considered 'not in service' for all purposes.

The other economic activities contributing towards the economy are people employed in semi-government jobs, self- employed, agricultural laboures, labourers in non-agricultural sector and casual workers.

Semi Government institute is described as half private and half government. It is a term which is usually used to define a company/department/ or an institute which is basically a government run institution though enjoying a certain degree of independence.

A person is said to be self-employed when he/she works for himself/herself instead of working for another employer that remunerates him/her with a salary or a wage.

Agricultural labour and labourers in non-agricultural casual workers are hired for specified periods that may not exceed 90 working days in one calendar year. Casual workers are paid at the minimum rate of the applicable pay scale for the group and level assigned to the requirements of the job.

Job seekers are the ones who look out for gainful occupation, due to unemployment, dissatisfaction with the existing position, or an aspiration for a better position. Unemployed persons have greater economic incentives for moving and lower moving costs than employed persons. Longer the duration of unemployment, higher maybe the likelihood of moving out because very often the local employment opportunities are exhausted first (job search theory).

The determinants of economic activity in Goa depend on its location, political mileage and economic setup. Goa –described as the Rome of the East is endowed with natural beauty, resources and metallic wealth. Beguiling Goa has ensnared sojourns of rulers from the Mauryan Empire to the Portuguese who ruled Goa for almost 450 years. From the early sixteenth century Goa has been the administrative, trading and ecclesiastical headquarters of the Portuguese *Estado da India* (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 2011). The economic order in Goa was largely self-reliant in the matter of necessities and the villages were governed by village *commune* system. In the early period of Portuguese rule apart from agriculture the other flourishing trades were fishing, raising coconut trees for coconut and for making intoxicating liquors like *feni and urraca,*gold smithy, carpentry, other artisanal works, black smithy, toddy-tapping painting, music and dancing. Rice, betel leaves and specially areca nut which were of good quality were exported. The census of 1900 lists nearly 100 occupations in Goa and as per census of 1950 the occupations (type of work) in Goa were agriculture, mining (largest industry), manufacturing, construction, electricity, gas, water and sanitary work, commercial establishments, transport and communications and service.

In 1961 there were only a few industrial units including rice mills, oil crushers, power looms, cashew nut processors, etc., all units were privately owned. There was no public sector or capital development during the Portuguese rule (Da Silva Gracias, 1989). In recent times, tourism is Goa's primary industry followed by mining. Construction

activities are at a boom in the last decade or so. Agriculture, fishing, forestry, livestock, finance, insurance, working in HH industries, etc., are the other occupations of Goans. Goa has many medium scale industries and 16 planned Special Economic Zones (SEZS). The state is among the largest manufacturing locations for pharmaceuticals in India. Remittances from Goans working abroad are a huge source of revenue to the state economy. According to S Irudaya Rajan, professor with the research unit on International migration at Centre for Development Studies, "Remittances are equivalent to 6.3% of the state's Domestic Product or 33% of the revenue receipts".

Goans in the 16th and 17th century migrated as cooks, butlers, tailors, musicians, nannies, etc., in search of greener pastures. The mid-19th century opened avenues for jobs, prospects in steamships by P&O and B.I for global passenger travel and carriage of goods and mail, as well as the military and civilian settlement of the British in India, Burma and Middle East and Goans besides the menial jobs also worked as pharmacists, doctors and nurses (Mascarenhas-Keyes, 1988). Today many Goans hold an official job, with the result that the state government has a bloated workforce of nearly 55,000 and one of the highest ratios of government employees to citizens. Goa's economy has witnessed a structural change in its workforce distribution where the service sector has grown considerably thereby increasing employment opportunities for Goans.

For regular private employment, job security is not assured therefore migration to earn a better living in progressive areas is acceptable. So also for the self-employed, the impetus for such people (entrepreneurs) to migrate is to develop intangible assets like business ideas, belief systems, aspirations, patterns of social interaction, and other intangibles, termed as social remittance (Andersen and Christensen, 2009 and Levitt, 1998).

3.4.5. Marital Status

The relation between marriage and labor migration are not popular themes in the migration literature. Married or unmarried, it is imperative that the desire to make money is the main cause for migration and for both men as well as women. As it is understood that migration is a function of spatial disequilibria that exists in the world, people are expected to move from low-income areas to high-income areas (Ravenstein, 1885; 1889) – (laws of migration) also people choose their destination locations by comparing the levels of taxation and public services (Tiebout,1956). Workers in high-income countries earn almost five times the level of that in low-income countries, counterparts (ILO).

Sandefur and Scott (1981) showed that married individuals have lower rates of migration than do singles, this is because the economic cost of moving increases as the number of persons living in a family unit rises. Secondly, the presence of additional members in the family means that more ties must be broken at the place of origin and established at destination. Mulder and Wagner (1993) suggested that singles have a significantly higher propensity to move over long distances, but they have a lower probability to move over short distances. History too supports the rich migration trajectories of men over the years. Traditionally conceived as the main bread winner, migration was associated with male (whether married or unmarried) for the purpose of employment.

Female (married or unmarried) exodus on the other hand is based on four principal types which are summarized by Thadani and Todaro (1984) as follows: - 1) married women migrating in search of employment; 2) unmarried women migrating in search of employment; 3) unmarried women migrating for marriage reasons; and 4) married women engaged in associational migration with no thought of employment.

But, in recent years there has been an increase in female migration. Unmarried women migrate to supplement family income, as can be seen in internal migration from Filipinos, where families send daughters as they perceive them to be more reliable in

sending remittances and if the daughter is the eldest then her remittances are invested in other siblings education (Ware, 1981).

Single migration has always been more than married migration. There are instances whereby State policies may also encourage solo male migration within the country. An example of this was *apartheid* in South Africa, which resulted in the influx of male mine workers who were prohibited from bringing their families with them (Brown, 1983). Although ethnographic evidence from Ghana finds that villagers discourage single women from migrating because they fear the possibility of immoral sexual conduct, the study by Deshingkar (2005) shows that lately more women are migrating for work independently of husbands in Asia, especially East Asia, because of increased demand for female labour in some services and industries, and because of greater social acceptance of women's economic independence and mobility.

Fan and Li (2002) have argued that marriage is not only a life event that triggers migration but also can be an important means for women to move to more favorable locations, and that marriage and labor migration are intricately related to one another. To support the above, Census 2011 in India cited marriage as the main reason for internal migration, showing that married are more migratory. The study of marital status of the population is one of the fundamental element which permits to evaluate the changes that are experienced in a social aggregate and know their causes and the future population.

Historical evidences on Goan migration and the type of jobs secured by Goans in India and abroad brings to fore that Goans in the past have migrated irrespective of their gender and marital status. It can be said that of recent times, Goa has been swept by consumerism and a high demonstration effect. So in order to meet the demands of large families it becomes imperative to increase the HH incomes and thus there are every possibilities of married member being a migrant.

3.4.6. Relation with the Head

Weeks (2005) claim that there are socio-cultural factors which influence the decision as to who should migrate in a family. The conceptual framework adopted by Weeks (2005) has three sub models, namely decision to migrate, propensity to migrate and motivation to migrate. This further depends upon: Individual human capital attributes individual risk-taking traits, HH characteristics and resources, HH/family migration norms, community characteristics and community migration networks. The decision to migrate is further governed by costs- benefits (goals) of migration.

HH head is an important person in the family and represents a number of concepts like the chief economic provider, the chief decision maker, the person designated by other members as the head, etc. The focus changes depending on the specific circumstances in the country. Generally, the definition of head of HH reflects the stereotype of the man in the HH as "the person in authority and the bread winner" (Hedman et al, 1996). However age of HH head may be the inhibition factor as far as migration decision is concerned. Previous research have shown that a migrant is typically the oldest son who relocates away from home, yet remains bound to his family of origin. Abramitzky et al. (2012) study on parental wealth and migration finds that oldest son of affluent HHs are less likely to migrate due to the probability of inheriting parents' wealth. (Sana, 2003) observes that the short-term and target-oriented worker, who identifies with his family of origin, and who expects to return home, as opposed to settling in the host country is most likely to be a male who could be either a son of the HH head or the HH head himself.

Family structure in Goa especially in rural areas is characterized by patriarchal joint family system, where the decision of the head of the family is final and binding. Thus the onus of the family lies on the HH head.

The human capital model sums up the conceptual framework background of some of the above discussed characteristics in the following manner. Migration, considered as an investment and the implications of the individual characteristics like age, educational attainment and marital status of migrants is that (i) the likelihood of migration decreases with age, due to smaller expected lifetime gain for older people, younger people have less attachment and less seniority rights invested in a job (Sloan, 2010) and younger people are less risk averse (David, 1973) (ii) individuals with a higher education show signs of a higher migration probability, because higher education allows for better ability to collect and process information thereby reducing the risks of migration and that (iii) Migrants are mostly single (Sloan, 2010).

Literature on migration specifically with regards to determinants of migration does not seem to reach a significant conclusion. There have been varying results regarding the relationship between migration decision and individual's demographic characteristics – age, sex, marital status, educational status and activity status. Therefore the novel contribution of this research is to examine which set of characteristics have a significant impact on an individual's probability of becoming a migrant using the informative data set of Goa Migration Study – 2008.

3.5 HYPOTHESES TESTING

In the light of the above discussions resultant hypotheses are as follows:-

***H1*- Younger in age will increase the odds of international as well as internal migration.**

***H2*- Females compared to males will increase the odds of international migration however females compared to males will not increase the odds of internal migration.**

H3- **Higher levels of educational attainment will increase the odds of international as well as internal migration, when compared to non-migrants.**

H4-**Regular private and self-employed will increase the odds of international as well as internal migration when compared to non-migrants.**

H5-**Married compared to unmarried will increase the odds of international and internal migration when compared to non-migrants.**

H6-**Husband/wife of the HH will increase the odds of international and internal migration compared to non-migrants.**

3.6 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The broad understanding gained through the descriptive statistics of the variables used in the study are reported as follows.

3.6. 1 Migration Status of Goans

Migration has significant implications for development of the origin country. Though increasing migration from a particular region reflects upon the push factors, the growth of migratory flow in recent decades is the most visible indicator of the globalization process. Goans belonging to the smallest state in India, with a population of a few lakhs are found in many parts of the world, reinforcing the strong connect of migration with Goa for over five decades. The migration status of Goans is shown in **Table 3.1**

Table-3.1 Migration Status of Goans

Categorical Variables	Frequency	Percent
Migration Status		
International	1284	4.9
Internal	717	2.7
Non-migrant	24314	92.4
Total Observations	26315	100.0

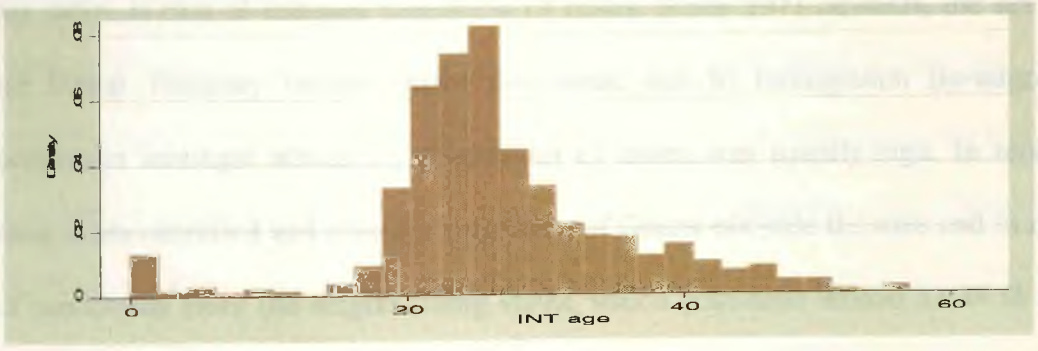
Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

After excluding observations with missing information, the analysis sample contains observations for 26,313 Goans. In the sample majority of Goans are non-migrant (92.4%) (high percentage is because all the members of the HH are included in the analysis). Further around 2.7% and 4.9% of Goans are categorised as internal and international migrants respectively. Internal as well as international migration constitutes a very small figure (as only the individual migrant is taken into consideration in the analysis and not the whole migrant HH).

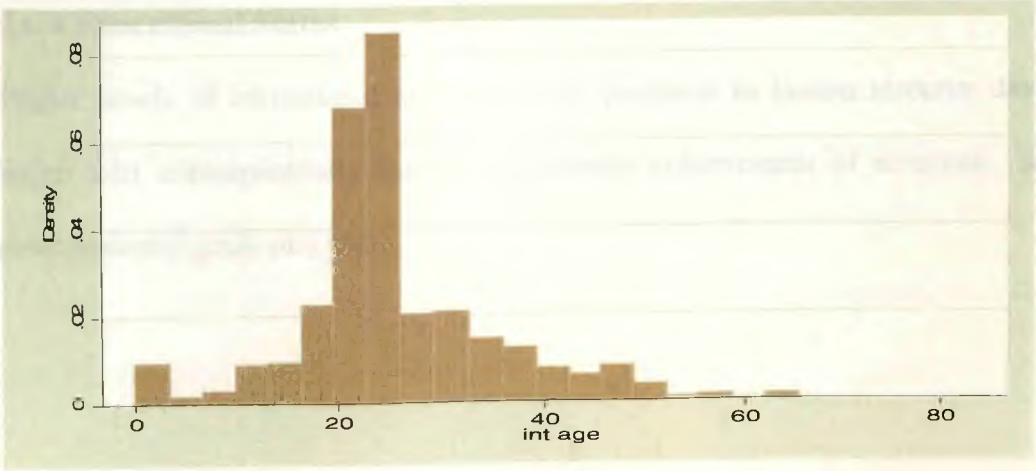
3.6.2 Age

Age as an important variable in the determination of migration shows that maximum international as well as internal migrants belong to the age group of 20-30 years. **Graphs 3.1 and 3.2** shows that as age advances migration of individual's decreases. Most of the international migrants belong to the mid-twenties age group **(Graph 3.1)** whereas internal migrations peak is seen in the age early twenties **(Graph 3.2)**

Graph: -- 3.1 Age of International Migrants



Graph: - 3.2 Age of Internal Migrants



3.6.3 Demographic Variable

Demographic variables or characteristics of a state or a country provide an overview of territorial distribution of population, population size, composition, changes therein and the components of changes such as nativity, social mobility, mortality, etc.

Table: -3.2 Demographic Variable

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	13,672	52.0
Female	12,641	48.0
Missing	2	
Total Observations	26,315	100.0

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

Sex ratio in Goan HHs shows a male member bias with 52% males and 48% females. This is in keeping with the declining sex-ratio in Goa, which according to census 2011 are 973 females per 1000 males. It is interesting to note that prior to liberation in all the census right from 1900 onwards, it was found that Goa as a Union Territory was female dominated society. Interestingly the reason cited by De Souza (1990) for this distinctive sex ration is that of rampant migration of males. Since 1971 onwards, the sex ratio for the Union Territory became male dominated due to immigration (in-migration) of population amongst whom the proportion of males was usually high. In recent years there is uncontrolled and massive migration of Goans out-side the state and in migration of non-Goans from the neighbouring states, which constitute around 33-34 % of Goa's population.

3.6. 4 Educational Status

Higher levels of educational attainment are pertinent to human resource development which will consequentially lead to sustainable achievement of economic, social and environmental goals of a place.

Table:-3.3 Educational Status

Educational Status	Frequency	Percent
1-Illiterate	2,827	10.7
2-Literate without school education	1376	5.2
3-Primary not completed	3046	11.6
4-Primary	4072	15.5
5-Upper primary up to secondary	7215	27.4
6-Secondary passed but have no degree	4291	16.3
7-Degree holders	3156	12.0
8-Others (specify)	330	1.3
Missing	2	
Total Observations	26,315	100.0

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

In view of the impressive education system and an excellent literacy rate in Goa i.e. 88.70 per cent as per 2011 population census, it is noteworthy to note that in the sample majority (i.e. 27.4%) Goans have completed their secondary schooling. Considering, as to how much Goa spent on education in the last ten years (2001-2011), it can be understood that Goa ranks as a highest spending state in India. The annual education expenditure is rupees 3476 per person and annual expenditure is rupees 487 crores.

Also, significant number of Goans have completed degree level of education. However, the illiteracy rate is quite high (10.7) in spite of the fact that the Goa government makes tremendous efforts in executing free and compulsory education for children below 14 years of age in Goa. It could be mentioned that migrant constitutes around 40% of Goa's population and poor non-Goans forms majority in that population, thereby indicating towards the noteworthy illiteracy rate.

3.6.5 Activity Status

Economic activity of a place is circumscribed by its natural resources, labour, capital, technology and innovations. Economic activity contributes substantially to the economy and the various components of an economy such as consumption, savings and investments determine the macro-equilibrium of a state.

Table:-3.4 Activity Status

Activity Status	Frequency	Percent
Regular government	1,928	7.3
Regular Private	6,064	23.0
Self employed	1,990	7.6
casual	1,328	5.0
unemployed	1,144	4.3
Not in labour	13,859	52.7
Total Observations	26,313	100.0

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

In 1961 (liberation year) out of the total workforce of 41.19 percent, majority workers were engaged in primary activity, with 58 percent workers in agriculture and 12 percent in mining. Just 9 percent workers were engaged in secondary sector, 7.3 percent in manufacturing and 2 percent in construction. 20 percent of the workforce was employed in the service sector, with 9.3 percent in public services like education, public administration and health. There has been a decadal change in the type of jobs available for Goans over the years. In 1991, the percentage of main workers in the primary sector work force declined to 30 percent, while that in the secondary sector increased to 20.42 percent and the service sector employed 42.49 percent of the main workers in the work force. The 1993-94, NSSO figures reveal a decrease in agricultural workforce and an increase in manufacturing, construction, trade, transport, storage and hotels sector employment and much more increase in favor of the service industries. Government of India reports that in 2001, the agricultural labor and cultivators were 6.85 and 9.6 percent respectively of the workforce and that the non-agricultural sector (secondary and service) had an impressive 83.55 of the workforce with higher in the service sector. The average contribution of the three sectors to GSDP from 1999 to 2007 is 14% from primary, 41% secondary and 45% tertiary.

Thus, Goa's economy witnessed structural changes in its workforce distribution where service sector has been the major employer in the economy. Consequently the analysis

show that Goans employed in regular private jobs are three times more than those employed in regular government jobs. Considering the fact that the private sector is a part of the service sector, the latter has grown tremendously with 50 percent and 40 percent contribution to the state income and state's employment respectively. The overall public sector employment has all along been 9-10% and the analysis reveals 7.3% employment in public sector.

The unemployed makes up for around 4.3% of the sample population. One of the reasons for this could be a large scale increase in women's education which has led to a higher proportion of women participation in the workforce. Male literacy increased from 88.4% in 2001 to 92.8% in 2011 census, while female literacy increased from 75.4% to 81.8% in the same census.

3.6.6 Societal Variables

A society is characterised by many factors that direct or affect life style of its people. In other words the experiences and facts that influence individual's attitudes, personality and lifestyle are termed as societal factors. Some important social factors are religion, family, economic status, marital status, ethnicity, relation with the head of family, etc. The present study has engaged marital status and relation with the head to understand the factors governing international migration.

Table:-3.5 Societal Variables

Marital status	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Unmarried	11,258	42.8
Married	13,238	50.3
Widowed	1,684	6.4
Divorced	73	0.3
Separated	58	0.2
Missing variable	2	
Total Observations	26,315	100.0
Relation with the Head	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Head of house hold	5984	22.7

Husband/wife	4531	17.2
Unmarried children	8094	30.8
Married children	1855	7.0
SIL/DIL	1645	6.3
Grandchild	1655	6.3
FIL/MIL	589	2.2
Servant	78	0.3
Others	1882	7.2
Missing	2	
Total observations	26,313	100.0

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

The married, unmarried status of Goans tilts in favour of married (50.3) members who constitute majority in the sample, unmarried population too is quite high (42.8%). People in the category of widow/widower, separated and divorced are very less.

Relation with the head grouping shows a significant population in all the categories.

3.7 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The model that has been tested with multinomial logistic regression is presented as follows:-

Ln

$$\left(\frac{p\,(Migration=International)}{p\,(Migration=Non-migrant)}\right) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1\,(age) + \alpha_2(gender) + \alpha_3(years\ of\ schooling) + \alpha_4(activity\ status) + \alpha_5(marital\ status) + \alpha_6\,(relation\ with\ the\ head)$$

Ln

$$\left(\frac{p\,(Migration=Internal)}{p\,(Migration=Non-migrant)}\right) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1\,(age) + \alpha_2(gender) + \alpha_3(years\ of\ schooling) + \alpha_4(activity\ status) + \alpha_5(marital\ status) + \alpha_6\,(relation\ with\ the\ head)$$

Where α ---Regression co-efficient

Table 3.6 below presents the results of dependent variable migration status (international, internal and comparison category non-migrants) and regressor variables

age, sex, years of schooling, activity status, marital status and relation with the head. To test the hypotheses a multinomial logistic regression model is estimated.

Table:-3.6 Results of Multinomial Logistic Regression

Number of Observations	26313	
LR chi2(52)	4018.52	
Prob> chi2	0.0000	
Pseudo R2	0.2397	
Log likelihood	-6374.60	
Independent variables	INTERNATIONAL	INTERNAL
Age	-.0880***	-.1125***
	(.0042)	(.0052)
Sex		
Male	Omitted	*omitted*
Female	-1.705***	-.9948***
	(.0988)	(.1104)
Constant	-1.693***	-.8722***
	(.256)	(.2671)
Years of schooling		
No formal education	**Omitted**	**omitted**
Four years of schooling	.6541***	.8712***
(4-Primary completed)	(.1661)	(.1772)
Ten years of schooling	1.513***	1.084***
(5-upper primary up-to secondary)	(.1425)	(.1717)
Twelve years of schooling	1.917***	1.757***
(6-Secondary passed but have no degree)	(.1446)	(.1685)
Fifteen years of schooling	2.443***	2.600***
(7-Degree holders)	(.1502)	(.1701)
Seventeen years of schooling	2.234***	2.584***
(8-others)	(.2601)	(.2640)
constant	-1.693***	-.8722***
	(.256)	(.2671)
Activity status		
Regular government	Omitted	omitted
Regular private	1.831***	.6068***
	(.1753)	(.1464)
Self employed	1.625***	.7483***
	(.1929)	(.1683)
Casual	1.419***	-.6417
	(.2517)	(.4078)
Unemployed	1.769***	.1665
	(.2052)	(.2284)
Not in labour	.5203***	-.3362**
	(.1910)	(.1704)
constant	-1.693***	-.8722***

	(.256)	(.2671)
Marital status		
Married	Omitted	omitted
Unmarried	-1.046*** (.1167)	.3705** (.1702)
Widowed	.4986** (.2480)	1.904*** (.2848)
Divorced	-.0726 (.4770)	.1653 (.7690)
Separated	.5524 (.5393)	1.530** .6645
Relation with the head		
Head of family	Omitted	omitted
Husband/wife	1.881*** (.1391)	-.2482 (.1905)
Unmarried children	-2.025*** (.1444)	-1.591*** (.1905)
Married children	.4339*** (.1178)	-.6374*** (.1394)
SIL/DIL	1.289*** (.1543)	-.4366** (.1938)
Grand child	-1.902*** (.2171)	-2.408*** (.2959)
FIL/MIL	2.189*** (.3732)	1.094** (.5202)
Servant	-30.157 (.2169)	-32.19 (4679)
Others	-.1775 (.1460)	-.5491*** (.1776)
Constant	-1.693*** (.256)	-.8722*** (.2671)

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
Standard errors in parentheses
Notes: Reference category for the equation is non-migrant
* Significant at 10 per cent, ** significant at 5 per cent, *** significant at 1 per cent

As can be seen in **Table-3.6** one unit increase in age is associated with (0.07) decrease in the relative log odds of being an international migrant and also decreases (.09) the relative log odds of being an internal migrant, with reference to the comparison group - non-migrants.

Gender as a factor of migration shows that females compared to males decrease the odds of being international as well as internal migrant, but the regression coefficient of both (international as well as internal migrant) are significant at one percent. The result is in

complete contrast to the stated hypothesis that females increase the odds of international and internal migration compared to non-migrants and also to the fact that in recent year's females form the bulk of international

Years of schooling is an important variable determining internal as well as international migration in view of the rise of the knowledge economy, and so educational attainment is of prime importance. Results listed in **Table 3.6** communicate that as the number of schooling years increases from four years to seventeen years the log likelihood of international as well as internal migration increases and to add further every level of educational attainment is significant at 1 percent.

All the categories in activity status increase the odds of international migration. In other words Goans who are in regular private jobs, self-employed, casual workers, unemployed and not in labour force increase the odds of international migration compared to non-migrants and all categories are significant at 1 percent. As far as internal migration is concerned, Goans who are in regular private jobs, self-employed and unemployed increases the log likelihood of internal migration compared to non-migrants and regular private employed and self-employed are significant at 1 percent level of significance. Whereas Goans in casual activity and not in labour force decreases the odds of internal migration compared to non-migrant.

Unmarried and divorced Goans decrease the odds of international migration, whereas widowed and separated increases the odds of international migration. The coefficient of unmarried is significant at 1percent and regression coefficient of widowed is significant at 5 percent for international migration. Further unmarried, widowed, divorced and separated i.e., all categories of marital status increase the odds of internal migration. Widowed is significant at 1 percent in internal migration while unmarried and separated are significant at 5 percent level of significance.

Unmarried children and grandchildren although statistically significant at 1 percent level of significance decrease the odds of international migration. Husband/wife, married children, sister-in –law/daughter-in-law, father-in-law/ mother-in-law are significant at 1 percent level of significance and increase the log likelihood of international migration. As far as internal migration is concerned, all categories i.e., husband/wife, unmarried children, married children, sister-in–law/daughter-in-law, grandchildren and even servant decreases the log likelihood of internal migration compared to non-migrants and only father-in-law/mother-in-law increases the log likelihood of internal migration. Unmarried children, married children, grandchildren and others are significant at 1 percent.

Using multinomial logistics it is interesting to note that all the independent variables i.e., age, sex, years of schooling, activity status, marital status and relation with the head, are significant at 1% level of significance (in internal as well as international migration), except relation with the head which is not significant in internal migration.

3.8 MAJOR FINDINGS

The important findings (hypotheses test results) are listed as follows:-

(a) Age decreases the odds of being an international as well as internal migrant, and is in accord with the H1 hypothesis that younger in age will increase the odds of being an international as well as internal migrant.

(b) Females compared to males decrease the odds of being international as well as internal migrant.

(c) Increase in the number of schooling years increases the log likelihood of international as well as internal migration thus being in accordance with hypothesis H3.

(d) Regular private and self-employed increases the odds of international as well as internal migration.

(e) Unmarried decreases the odds of international migration but unmarried increases the odds of internal migration.

(f) Husband/wife increases the likelihood of international migration but decreases the likelihood of internal migration.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Empirical evidences show that migrants as decision makers decide to migrate in order to maximize their quality or utility of life. Origin and destination country's' state policies either constrain or enable immigration/emigration depending on age, skill, gender, ethnic and regional differences and so on. Although the aggregate labour market variables like wage is important in migration decision yet still the heterogeneity of individual characteristics are extremely crucial in the decision to migrate. The chapter focused on individual as a unit of study (Neo-classical theory) and applied the multinomial logistic regression model to provide sufficient evidence that the individual characteristics like age, gender, educational status, activity status, marital status and relation with head are important factors in the decision to migrate internationally as well as internally. It can also be concluded that the outcomes are significantly and consistently in conformity with previous empirical studies and also with the prominent and widely-used human capital model. In summation, the findings of three variables- age, educational status and activity status are in consonance with the hypotheses H1, H3 and H4.

The study shows that a unit increase in age decreases the log-likelihood of international as well as internal migration and is in conformity with the latest trend of 'youth migration'. With the availability of broad based education, educated youth, unable to find any openings in home country are compelled to seek greener pastures elsewhere. Also year after year there is an addition to the existing work force which is not matched with job opportunities.

Attainment of higher levels of education too predicts higher level of international and internal migration. Literature review on brain drain arrives at a consensus that people move so as to benefit from better standards of living, superior quality of life, higher salaries and an access to advanced technology. Today skilled migration is motivated by the development of knowledge economies and by the emergence of global labour market for qualified professionals.

Further the inferences reveal that Goans, performing any type of economic activity, are largely prone to migration and moreover international migration. Many Goans, who are working in private sector jobs, too are attracted to higher incomes in higher paying areas. A striking feature of this study is that Goans who are employed in casual activity (agricultural laborers and laborers in non-agricultural sector) increase the odds of international migration and decrease the odds of internal migration in-spite of the fact that one has to incur exorbitant expenditure/cost on immigration. The manic desire to go abroad has reached its zenith that Goans today equate happiness with a job abroad and hence has no inhibitions to mortgage or sell HHs or common assets like gold and property to fulfill their pipe dreams.

Further the result on variable gender that females increase the log likelihood of international migration is not in accordance with the hypotheses on gender. The possible cause could be that the workforce participation rate for females to males in Goa is 25.51% to 53.26% as per census 2011 thereby indicating towards Goan culture which still considers male as the main breadwinner. Besides Goa is experiencing a dwindling sex ratio in favor of males which is 960 females for 1000 males as per 2011 census. Yet still the development of 'London fever' wherein the male member migrates first followed by the entire family (including old parents) could be the strongest cause of the outcome of the study.

The findings that unmarried children decrease the odds of international as well as internal migration can be agreed upon as the unmarried children or the 'young dependency' population constitutes 6.9% of Goa's zero to fourteen years old and the state ranks seventh in India as far as young population is concerned (2011 census). The social order of India/Goa is such that parent's sustain their offspring's till they (children) are economically independent.

Goa with its rich history of migration reveals that migration is a part of its society as well as its economy, and history has indeed endured Goan migration process for centuries, but the factors determining migration have changed over the years. Initially, a complete non-existence of job opportunities in Goa was the main and only important economic reason for migration. Today the migrants range from young adult male as well female Goans migrating to earn a basic livelihood, to highly qualified Goans migrating to gain returns on their investments in education to supplement HH incomes and to maintain a certain quality of life.

CHAPTER- 4

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANT AND NON-MIGRANT GOAN HOUSEHOLDS

CHAPTER-FOUR

HOUSE-HOLD CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANT AND NON-MIGRANT HOUSE-HOLDS

Emigration and immigration of people in and out of a country has a deep impact on the lives of the members of migrant well as non-migrant HHs, which ultimately leads to shaping of society due to the cumulative effect of labour mobility. The present chapter attempts to study the influence of out-migration on the HH characteristics of the three groups (EMI, OMI and NOM) of HHs observed in Goa. The HH characteristics analyzed are HH size, number of males above eighteen, number of females above eighteen, number of children between zero to seventeen years and HH head characteristics like age, gender educational attainment and activity status of HH head. The chapter makes use of comprehensive statistical tools to describe the above mentioned HH and HH head characteristics besides, it also attempts to understand if there is any association between the migration status (international, internal and non-migrant HHs) and all the above mentioned HH and HH head characteristics. Hypotheses are tested with necessary statistical tools like anova, post hoc and chi-square tests.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Movement of people has brought about quick structural changes and incredible transformations, obvious by reduced government control over labor mobility throughout the world. This significant phenomenon has for centuries shaped the demographic profile of towns, cities, and nations at a macro-level and of HHs at a micro-level. There is no inkling of doubt that births and deaths have resulted in changing population structure of countries, and migration too over the years have been an important contributing factor to this great geographical mobility.

Although considered the most profitable form of human capital investment, movement of people in and out of their country of origin have significantly changed the HH characteristics mostly in terms of family size, HH composition, HH head gender, childbearing, decision making, etc. Nevertheless, a well-researched topic for a long time, there is a need at some point to elucidate whether HH characteristics determine migration status of HHs or whether migration status of HHs determines the HH characteristics.

4.2 HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS OF GOANS

Goan HH characteristics have been shaped by the synchronism of cultural dynamics that have prevailed over Goa for centuries. The state has witnessed the rule, social institution, mannerism, values and interactions of Sultans, kings and governors of different dynasties. Goans have remained committed to its traditional ancestries, and at the same time accepted the most appealing elements of different rulers over different time periods, moreover of the Portuguese who ruled Goa for nearly 450 years. Hence it can be rightly assumed that Goan HHs were influenced by the political history beginning from the first conclusive records in 300 B.C of Mauryan Empire to the most recent developments of free Goa and the opportunities of the 21st century.

The most significant characteristic of the pre-1510 Goan economy was the existence of self-sufficient, quasi autonomous autarchic village community known as the *Gaonkari* (kamat, 2000) and almost completely devoid of any external social relations. Cluster of houses were surrounded by cultivated and uncultivated lands, villagers were mostly agricultural peasants, artisans and servants and there existed barter internal as well as international trade. The predominant socio-cultural system prevalent in Goan society was essentially Hinduism with rigid caste system, rituals and sacrifices (Shirodkar, 1987). Pre-Portuguese Goan society HHs was joint family patriarchal, headed by oldest male member. The decisions of the father (oldest male member) were binding and final

regarding all family matters. A Hindu joint family consisted of man, his wife (wives), unmarried children, married sons their wives and children, in some cases relations such as widowed daughters or sisters of the family head and servant (depended on the family status) (Bento, 1975) were a part of HH. The eldest male member of the family managed the finances, religious rituals and attended functions. According to the decree of 16th December 1880 in the Hindu family in the absence of a capable male, the wife of the Karta (patriarch) could function as the head of the family (Shastry, 1987). Family was a very important unit with unalterable division of labour and individuals lost identity without a family.

During the Portuguese rule the joint family institutions were breaking and nuclear HHs were taking shape and there was a move of focus from family to individuals. Emigration too was responsible for the disintegration of joint family patterns and the establishment of nuclear HHs. The civil code of 1867 based on Napoleonic code, sought to protect and safeguard the family as a social unit and it was for this reason that the husband by the very nature of things was declared the head of the family (Shastry, 1987). Accordingly the earlier larger HHs were characterized by joint family system, self-sufficiency of villages and unalterable division of labour.

Stolnitz (1964) observed that 'All nations in the modern era, which have moved from a traditional, agrarian—based economic system to a largely industrial, urbanized base, have also moved from a condition of high mortality and fertility to low mortality and fertility'.

Though Goa may have not experienced huge industrialization or urbanization, but definitely moved away from agriculture and have experienced a demographic transition with low birth rates and low death rates. Migration (in-migration and out-migration) of

people into Goa and outside Goa have further contributed to the population growth process in the state.

Regular censuses have been held in Goa since 1881 and the recorded population growth shows a steady increase up to 1910. A slight decrease was noted after that, which was due to emigration (out-migration), epidemics and certain economic conditions. **Table-4.1** shows that Goa has experienced a rise in population and an overall increase in the number of HHs with more or less same family size over the years.

The population of Goa grew rather slowly (0.28%) under the Portuguese rule mostly during the first six decades of the 20thcentury. After 1961 there was a sudden increase in population of the state which remained that way for almost two decades before it began to decline mainly due to the lower birth rates. But after 1971 there was expansion in government employment opportunities, increase in tertiary sector activities, availability of plenty of resources and growth of a large number of educational institutions which resulted in migration of people both skilled and unskilled from adjacent states into an advancing state of Goa which resulted in an increase in population. The immigration (in-migrant) population as a percentage of Goa's total population is rising. The rise is especially seen in manual labour and unskilled workers, for employment in construction industry. Presently the population of Goa has a growth rate of 14.9% per decade which is mainly due to in-migration of from neighbouring states. In recent times Goa's population has not grown much due to improvement in the literacy percentages, adoption of small families, late marriage norms and low fertility rates.

Table:-4.1 Population and HHs in Goa

Year	population	Number of persons in each HH	Number of HHs	Decadal growth (%)
1881	4,45,449			
1910	4,86,752	5	108,046	+2.36
1931	5,05,281	5	111,864	+7.62
1940	5,40,925	5	116,636	+7.05
1950	5,47,448	4	122,636	+1.21
1960	5,89,997	5	126,335	+7.77
2001	13,47,668	5	294,812	+15.21
2011	14, 57,723	4.24	343,611	+8.23

Source: Census data for Goa

As per 2011 census Goa has 66.8% of its population in the productive age group of 15 to 59 years and 6.9% of population belonging to below 14 years and above 60 years, supposedly considered as economically dependent. The State's workforce is about 5, 77,248, of which 4, 19,536 are males and only 1, 57,712 are females and this constitutes 39.58% of the total population in the state (Census 2011). The workers comprise of 476053 main workers i.e., those workers who had worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. 6 months or more) and 1,01,195 marginal workers i.e. workers who had not worked for the major part of the reference period i.e. less than 6 months). The trend in active working population and dependent population has been that the former is increasing and the latter is decreasing.

Literacy rate in Goa has seen an upward trend from 31.23 percent in 1961 to more than double i.e., 88.70 percent as per 2011 population census. Male literacy rate is better than female literacy rate and stands at 92.65 percent males to 82.16 percent for females.

4.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The words 'family' and 'HH' are often used as a synonym of each other. Although the word family comes from the latin word familia which means HH, the definitions of HH does not endorse the similarity. Accordingly census Bureau defines a HH as one that consists of one or more persons living in the same house, condominium or apartment and

who may or may not be related. According to Chort and Senne (2014) a HH is regarded as a "portfolio" of members whose geographical allocation is decided on collectively. The livelihood approach has described a "HH" as "a site in which particularly intense social and economic interdependencies occur between groups of individuals" (Ellis, 2000).The word 'HH' although considered to be the smallest social unit, covers a wide range of groupings and functions of people thereby making a general definition of 'HH' intricate. In the above context it can be said that a HH is a group of more than one individual with members having varying aims, objectives and individual goals. A commonly acceptable definition on HHs is '...a group of people who pool resources or 'eat from the same pot' (Robertson, 1984).

A family on the other hand has been defined as consisting of two or more members who live in the same home and are related by birth, marriage or adoption. According to Burch (1979) and commonly used definition in social science literature 'family' refers to a group of kin-persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption. Demographers and economists define a family as the members of a HH who are related through marriage, blood, or adoption (United Nations 1980).

Accordingly it can be said that a 'family' can be considered as a HH, but not all HHs can be taken as families thereby disclaiming the belief that family is same as HH. Nonetheless many studies take the two terms as tantamount to each other, and whether family or HHs, they are the most elementary socioeconomic institutions in human society. Supported by Becker (1991) and Kuznets (1978) 'the role of the HH and residential family is central in economic analyses, because these units are usually the locus of joint decisions regarding consumption, production, labor force participation, savings, and capital formation'. Hence it can be noted that the numerous definitions on HHs, contain the key words such as food consumption, residency requirements, income and production decisions.

In The Wealth of Nations, Adam smith (1776-1930) in a chapter on wages addressed the term family, when he mentioned that wages should be high enough to support the family. Reid (1934) pioneering work recognized unambiguously that a HH is the locus of production as well as consumption unit. Her work defined housework (that is, those unpaid tasks performed by family members that could be replaced by market goods or services), as productive. **Neoclassical economist** understands 'the HH' as an undifferentiated utility optimizing single unit where resources are shared fairly within the unit and which consists of rational actors. The neoclassical theories (unitary and collective models) are basically founded on rather simplistic assumptions of human behavior.

Gary Becker's in-depth study on various dynamics of a HH, has led to a plethora of HH models and the study of HH gained importance in the 21st century with **Becker's (1965),** definition of a HH as "A HH is truly a 'small factory': it combines capital goods, raw materials and labour to clean, feed, procreate and otherwise produce useful commodities." Gary Becker along with Jacob Mincer founded the 'New Home Economics' in the 1960s. New Home Economics is that branch of economics concerned which is concerned with intra-HH or family dynamics. It is a move toward the study of agricultural HHs, resource allocation, utility maximization processes, consumption, labour supply, along with other family decisions that centers on the HH rather than on individuals and emphasize on the significance of HH production or the HH production function.

Under the impact of the 'new HH economics', the HH is seen as having a joint welfare function in which equitable or rational distribution among its members is guaranteed on the basis of family altruism under the benign dictatorship of a male HH head (Becker,

1981). The consumer demand theory has been deliberated and developed autonomously by Becker and Lancaster (1966) by concentrating on different aspects of HH behavior.

Further Becker's (1965) original time allocation theory treats the HH as maxi-mizing a single utility function, and so the HH behaves in ways that are empirically indistinguishable from the behavior of a single utility maximizing individual or could be expressed as a "unitary" model.

Well established unitary model on economic behavior of HHs have depicted HHs as unified entities where all members agree, resources are pooled across members, and Pareto efficiency is achieved (Deaton and Muellbauer, 1980).However in recent times, economists view HHs across the world as consisting of several decision makers who possibly have differing preferences and control over separate set of resources.

Becker (1974) observes that the resources within a HH are determined by the bargaining among HH members, with outcomes that may depend on the determinants of the bargaining power of each HH member (later became known as distribution factors). Becker and Tomes (1979) approach is set on three related assumptions: maximizing behavior, market equilibrium and stable preferences. Furthermore he addresses the issue of rational choice approach which uses a frame work to combine maximizing behavior with the analysis of marriage and divorce markets, division of labour, investment in children etc.

Chiappori (1992) was the first to formulate the efficiency model. He argues that the internal rules and processes of a particular HH can be defined by observing its external behavior (aggregate consumption and labour supply).

Becker (1993) refers to the high value of time which increases the cost of children, diminishes the demand for large families, and reduces fertility. Since time is a scarce resource, demand remains unsatisfied, and as goods become more abundant, time becomes more valuable. Further Becker divides time in two categories labour time and

consumption time-as a result he sees the consumer as either a worker outside the HH or as a consumer within the HH.

Alternative models to unitary models assume that in many member HHs, decisions are made by individuals who have their own preferences and constraints. Substitute models proposed by critics are bargaining model, consensual model and independent individual's models. Bargaining models suggests that HHs play games similar to that of a cooperative nature (McElroy et al., 1981). Samuelson's (1956) consensual model proposed that HHs have a social welfare function (SWF)and independent individual approach of decision-making do not make any explicit assumptions of joint decision-making in HHs (Grossbard, 2011).

There is much focus on bargaining models to describe the HH economic behavior. Bargaining models are based on the unitary models, but differ while considering two actors within a HH whose interests differ and thus bargaining takes place. Becker introduces a particular rule for bargaining or decision making according to which the HH maximizes only one individual's utility function, which is also the utility function of the altruistic member (Manser and brown, 1980; Chiappori, 1992). Economists focusing on microeconomics of HHs have looked into the bargaining power of different members in a HH. HH decisions are through by the bargaining process between husband and wife, or between parent and child. According to Sen (1982) in some cases the bargaining agents might not have full perceptions of either their economic contributions to the HH or their interests and that bargaining outcomes are influenced by "the perception of contribution" and "the perception of self-interest".

In recent years there is a move from unitary HH to collective HH models. Collective models of HH behavior, also referred to as pluralistic decisions making models within the family encompasses factors like, how does an increase in income of one HH member affect the well-being or food consumption of other members? (Bergstrom,

1997).Collective models concentrate explicitly on the individuality of members in a HH and take into account the fact that HHs are multi-person and members in a HH have different decision making rules. The theories which emphasize on the interplay between the resources of individuals and preferences within the HHs in shaping HH outcomes, also referred to as HH behavior theories are unitary model (Becker, 1981), collective choice models (Chiappori, 1988), bargaining models (Manser and Brown, 1980; McElroy and Horney, 1981) and non-cooperative models (Chen and Woolley, 2001).

To sum up Becker's new HH economic theory is the complete presentation of unitary HH model and is the centerpiece on economic theory of family. It is also the most prevailing and widely applied model of resource and labor time distribution within a HH. The influence of migration on HH characteristics can be straightforwardly understood by the various studies. Sand fur and Scott (1981) show that singles have higher rates of migration than do married individuals, and that as the family size increases the rate of migration decrease significantly. They studied the effect of family, age and employment variables on internal and international migration. Courgeau (1989) too found that married individuals have a lesser probability to move than do singles (mainly to the cities),and the effect of childbearing varies across destination i.e., after each successive birth the probability of moving to rural areas increase slightly (Lindgren, 2003) even as the probability of moving to cities decreases significantly. White et al. (1995), studied the effect of fertility on migration,

and found that larger the family size lower is the risk of moving from one settlement to another. Adams (2006) examined three types of HHs, characteristics i.e., those receiving no remittances, those receiving internal remittances and those receiving international remittances. Their study found that on an average, when compared (t-test) with non-remittance HHs, HHs receiving remittances (internal and international) have more members with secondary education, older HH heads, fewer children under age five, and

more wealth (value of house). Further the authors use the choice equation of the probability of a HH that has a migrant and receives remittances to identify variables that are distinct for migration and the receipt of remittances. The estimated equation is follows:

Prob (Y= migration and receives remittances) = f {human capital of HH members (with preparatory, primary, secondary or university education), HH characteristics (age of HH head, HH size, number of males or females over age 15), migration network, HH wealth (value of house)}.

Accordingly the present study have included variables like HH size, number of males above 18, number of females above 18, children between the age of 0-18, HH head characteristics like the age, gender, educational background and activity status. The rationale for the inclusion of such variables is that various literatures have suggested that HH characteristics and HH head characteristics affect the probability of migration. For example family size is often associated with family resources and authors have derived an inverse relationship between the two. Adams (1993) have proposed that migration is a life-cycle event and that HHs with older heads, and more males and females over age 15 are more likely to be a part of migration.

4.4 ANALYSES ON HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

HHs being multi-dimensional, knowledge of the characteristics will help in analyzing the human capital of a family. HH characteristics include demographic data such as HH head, family size, HH composition, educational attainment and marital status. HH population dynamics encompass several key variables like nuptuality, fertility, mortality, morbidity, migration, as well as the 'lifecycle' of a HH, which affects HH's size, age and sex composition.

The descriptive analyses below provide a broad perception regarding the HH characteristics of the three groups of HHs seen in Goa.

Table:-4.2 Descriptive Analysis of HH Characteristics

Variables	Migration status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max
HH size	EMI	930	5.046	2.169	1	17
	OMI	470	4.545	2.028	1	16
	NOM	4581	4.244	1.880	7	18
	Total	5981	4.392	1.961		
Number of males above 18	EMI	930	2.371	1.139	0	7
	OMI	470	2.187	1.125	0	8
	NOM	4581	1.722	1.015	0	8
	Total	5981	1.859	1.074		
Number of females above 18	EMI	930	1.991	1.062	0	8
	OMI	470	1.796	1.053	0	7
	NOM	4581	1.663	0.924	0	7
	Total	5981	1.724	0.964		
Children between 0-17	EMI	930	0.658	0.955	0	5
	2OMI	470	0.566	0.934	0	6
	3NOM	4581	0.861	1.077	0	7
	Total	5981	0.806	1.053		

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
Significant at 10 percent*, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The descriptive statistics displayed in **Table-4.2** provides separately the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum value for variables HH size, number of males, number of females and for children between the age group of 0-17 years for the three groups of HHs used in the empirical analysis.

4.4. 1 Household Size

The most basic demographic characteristics of a HH is the HH size. The HH equivalence scales (Buhmann et al., 1988) which provides a way to meaningfully compare material levels of living across HHs with different demographic compositions uses family size as the only factor in equivalence adjustments[1]. According to *National Sample Survey 63rd Round* HH size is defined as **'**the number of normally resident members of a HH is its size. It will include temporary stay-away (those whose total period of absence from the

HH is expected to be less than 6 months) but exclude temporary visitors and guests (expected total period of stay less than 6 months). The determination of the actual composition of a HH will be left to the judgment of the head of the HH'. HH size is an important component for determining the quality or welfare of life or the economic well-being of the family as major portion of family income is spent in fulfilling the basic needs of family members.

The determinants of HH size are summarized by Bongaarts (1983) who proposes six immediate demographic determinants of the size of nuclear HHs which are- nuptiality, fertility, adoption, mortality, migration, and divorce. Family size is also determined by the social institution established in a society for example in India with the prevalence of strong joint family system the family size tends to be bigger and younger due to presence of younger children.

Studies have shown that increase in family size reduces family resources and results in negative impact on housing expenditure (Deurloo et al., 1994; Withers, 1998), savings (John and Grant, 1998) and children's outcome at school which in turn decreases the aggregate income of the HH (Becker, 1960; Becker and Lewis, 1973). The above stated tradeoff between child quantity and quality within a family is not agreed upon by Black et al., 2005, who found a small and generally insignificant effect of family size on education and earnings. To add further literature is full of evidence regarding larger HHs association with poverty (Lanjouw and Ravallion, 1994; Szekely, 1998; Anyanwu, 1997, 2012; and Gang et al., 2004) and lower ability to accumulate assets (Espenshade et al., 1983). But Lancaster et al. (1999) adds that some of the relationships observed earlier between poverty estimates and size economies of consumption are unlikely to be robust in the presence of HH compositional variables.

Nevertheless the development of the term 'size economies', which tells about the economies accrued to large HHs, have taken the debate of HH size to an interesting

level. The concept of 'HH size economies' has emerged from the existence of public goods which can be shared within members of the HHs where two or more persons obtain the same satisfaction as a single person consuming the same services. In the words of Kakwani (1997) 'Economies of scale in HH consumption generally occur as a result of joint consumption of public good and since large HHs are likely to have younger children with lower needs than those of older members of the HH, the per capita expenditure of larger HHs may be lower due to either lower average needs of its members or due to economies of scale'. Furthermore in case of bigger HHs, sharing opportunities are observed in the costs of shelter, in economizing services such as food preparation and savings from bulk purchases of food (Deaton & Paxson, 1998; Griffith et al., 2009; Kakwani, 2005; and Nelson, 1988).

Engels method[2] which has been applied in HH size economies estimation using food share as a welfare indicator of different size HHs show the existence of HH economies of scale which make a larger HH with same per capita expenditure as a smaller HH better-off (Deaton & Muellbauer, 1980; Lanjouw & Ravallion, 1995). To supplement the above argument in favour of larger HHs, larger HHs are likely to be supportive of female's education as there are more members to do the HH chores in the prevailing cultural norms of society, and also the rate of migration-individual and family, can be reduced due to family size.

As far as migration and family size is concerned, individual migration (Sandefur and Scott, 1981) can be reduced as it involves an increase in economic cost of moving and also the presence of additional member in the family means that more ties needs to be broken at the place of origin and established at destination. Family migration especially if the family is large (White et al. (1995), lowers the risk of moving as the cost of relocating a larger family, including some children who may be of school age, is greater. And human capital approach states that children decreases migration likelihood since

migration costs increase with family size and school aged children cause stronger ties to current region.

Courgeau (1989) made a distinction between the effect of family change (increase in HH size due to birth of a child) on rural–urban and urban–rural migrations. The analysis reveals that married individuals have a lower probability to move than do singles (particularly to the cities). The probability of moving to cities decreases significantly after each successive birth, while that of moving to rural areas increases slightly with growing family size (Kulu, 2007) owing to better environment in the countryside (Lindgren, 2003).

Table:-4.3 Percentage of HH Size

Size	EMI	OMI	Others
1	0.32	0.85	3.38
2	3.23	5.96	12.29
3	16.77	25.74	20.02
4	26.56	28.94	27.18
5	22.58	17.45	18.18
6	12.58	7.23	8.45
7	6.02	5.11	3.99
8	5.05	3.83	3.47
9	3.23	1.91	1.66
10	2.47	1.28	0.63
Above 10	1.18	1.70	0.74
	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

Graph:-4.1 Graphical Representation of HH Size

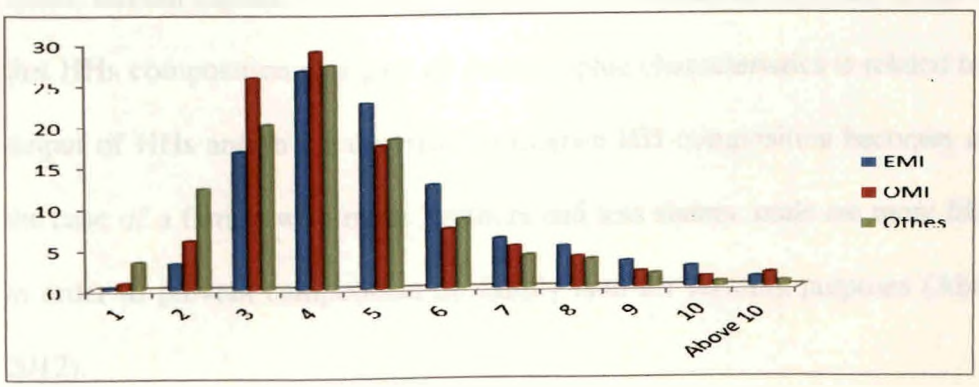


Table-4.3 reveals that HH size four, has the highest frequency. Internal migrant HHs has the highest number of HHs in the above mentioned category compared to the other two types of HHs. It is also noteworthy to note that international migrant HHs have a fairly significant number of HHs with five members and internal migrant HHs having reasonable number of HHs with three members **(Table-4.3 and Graph 4.1).** The findings of the present study does not support Mollers and Meyer (2014) who contends that migration depends on the availability of work force in a HH as a result migrant HHs tend to be bigger.

The increase in the size of the family from one to three in the three types of HHs demonstrate a dissimilar trend, though after reaching the peak (HH size four) the decrease in size show a similar trend in all the three types of HHs **(Graph 4.1)**

4.4. 2 Household Composition

HH "Composition" describes the structure of families and HHs—the set of statuses, availability of human resources, related roles of members that are important for the functioning of a society and domestic resource mobilization to sustained economic growth. The importance of HH composition lies in the fact that, as a demographic factor human composition has an effect on demand, income, consumption, production, expenditure, savings and borrowings. Accordingly, HH's heterogeneity or HH's demographic characteristics are important in determining decision making, migration status, human capital, other HH assets and the objectives of a HH. It can be rightly said that HHs composition as a part of demographic characteristics is related to the input and output of HHs and in the decision to migrate HH composition becomes important as in the case of a family with more brothers and less sisters, male are more likely to migrate in order to prevent competition on family land for farming purposes (Abramitzky et al. 2012).

To elaborate further the knowledge of the composition of population by sexes is of fundamental importance as it helps in the study of more varied problems such as male/female birth rate, fertility, nuptiality, etc. and in the words of (Emden, 2000) "the gender-specific dimensions of intra-familial migration processes are important to analyze the distinctive role of male and female and to know the specific position of each and particular function of the family in general".

HH composition is a result of demographic processes or family related events such as childbearing, death, marriage, divorce, migration and consequently a HH consists of elderly, adults and children living together and having a relation with one another. The number of males and females in a HH above the age of eighteen play an important role as they form the bulk of the labour supply from a HH. The HH labour supply adds to the working population which according to the life-cycle theory has an effect on the saving rate of a country (Modigliani, 1970; Modigliani and Cao, 2004). Males have certainly dominated the labour market for reasons like stereotyping, strong preference for sons' especially in developing countries and also there is a possibility of more male members being present in a larger HH compared to smaller HHs.

Table:-4.4 Percentage Distribution of Adult Males, Adult Females and Children

Number	EMI HHs			OMI HHs			NOM HHs		
	Males	Females	Children	Males	Females	Children	Males	Females	Children
0	.9	1.7	**59.6**	.6	3.8	**64.9**	4.1	3.1	**50.2**
1	22.9	34.7	22.0	26.8	**42.3**	19.8	**46.7**	**49.0**	24.6
2	**34.8**	**38.2**	13.1	**41.7**	33.6	11.5	29.8	32.0	17.4
3	27.2	17.0	3.8	21.3	14.3	2.6	13.4	11.5	5.4
4	9.1	5.8	1.3	6.2	3.4	.4	4.5	3.5	1.7
5	4.1	1.9	.2	1.7	1.9	.6	1.0	.7	.4
6	.9	.4		.6	.4	.2	.3	.2	.2
7	.1	.1		.9	.2		.0	.0	.0
8		.1		.2			.0		
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

The above **Table-4.4** presents a summary of the HH composition in the three groups of HHs observed in Goa. In international migrant HHs maximum number of males and females are

two. Almost same is the case in internal migrant HHs where out of 470 HHs, frequency is frequent in HHs having two males and one female member. In non-migrant HHs out of 4581 HHs, maximum frequency is for one male and one female. It is also interesting to note that in all the three types of HHs, no children category have the highest frequency. In other words table-4.4 show a cluster and highest frequency at one, two and three number of males and females in all the three types of HHs and on the other hand frequency for number of children is highest in HHs with no children followed by one and then two children in all the three types of HHs.

The knowledge of number of children in a HH assumes significance due to the understanding that children at a very early age have their own preferences regarding consumption (Harbaugh et al. 2001) can make their own decision making, affect parent's labour supply, poses bargaining skills, can been treated as HH public good (Bourguignon, 1999; Blundell et al. 2005), and reveals HH economic status and assets (Havanon et al., 1990).

Children below 10 years of age have lower choices in consumption of private goods such as food and clothing. The decision making role of children is questionable with Dauphin et al. (2008) agreeing that daughters and children aged between 16 and 21 are definitely decision-makers, although Bourguignon, 1999 says otherwise. HHs with children will migrate depending upon the availability of schooling facility for children in the destination country, on mother's mobility, socio-economic status of HH and the presence of prime-aged elderly females in the HH (Madhavan et al., 2012 and Liang et al., 2010).

4.4. 3 Hypotheses Testing of Household Characteristics

4.4.3.1 Anova Test

The following are null and alternative hypotheses for **anova test.**

1 H_o **-There is no difference in the means of HH size in the three groups of HHs**
1.1 H_a**- There is a difference in the means of HH size in the three groups of HHs**
2 H_o **-There is no difference in the means of number of males above 18 in the three groups of HHs**
2.1 H_a **-There is a difference in the means of number of males above 18 in the three groups of HHs**
3 H_o **- There is no difference in the means of number of females above 18 in the three groups of HHs**
3.1 H_a **- There is a difference in the means of number of females above 18 in the three groups of HHs**
4 H_o **-There is no difference in the means of number of children in the three groups of HHs**
4.1 H_a **-There is a difference in the means of number of children in the three groups of HHs**

Table: - 4.5 Anova Test Results of HH Characteristics

Variables	Migration status	N	F-test	Significance
HH size	EMI	930	67.703	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4581		
	Total	5981		
Number of males above 18	EMI	930	174.548	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4581		
	Total	5981		
Number of females above 18	EMI	930	47.063	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4581		
	Total	5981		
Children between 0-17	EMI	930	27.832	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4581		
	Total	5981		

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
Significant at 10 percent*, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The p-value is highly significant at 1 % level for all variables, hence it is concluded that there is significant difference in means of HH size, number of males above 18, number of females above 18 and children in the three groups of HHs (**Table-4.5**).

4.4.3.2 Post Hoc Test

Post hoc test is conducted to verify any relationship between the three groups of HHs.

The three groups are EMI &OMI HHs, EMI &NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

The null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:-

5 Ho -There is no difference in the means of family size of EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

5.1 Ha -There is a difference in the means of family size of EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

6 H_o - There is no difference in the means of number of adult males in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

6.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of number of adult males in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

7 H_o – There is no difference in the means of number of adult females in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

7.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of number of adult females in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

8 H_o - There is no difference in the means of number of children in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

8.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of number of children in EMI &OMI, EMI &NOM and OMI &NOM HHs.

Table:-4. 6 Results of Post Hoc Test

Variables	Migration status	Mean diff	Std. error	P-value
Family size	EMI & OMI	0.501	.109	.000***
	EMI & NOM	0.802	.069	.000***
	OMI &NOM	0.300	.093	.006***
Number of adult males	EMI & OMI	0.183	.059	.008***
	EMI & NOM	.649	.037	.000***
	OMI &NOM	.465	.050	.000***
Number of adult females	EMI & OMI	.195	.054	.001***
	EMI & NOM	.328	.034	.000***
	OMI &NOM	.133	.046	**.016****
Number of children	EMI & OMI	.092	.059	**.300***
	EMI & NOM	-.202	.037	.000***
	OMI &NOM	-.294	.050	.000***

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The results in **Table- 4.6** show that there is significant difference at 1% level in HH size, number of adult males above 18, number of adult females above 18 in EMI and OMI and EMI and NOM groups and number of children in EMI and NOM, and OMI and NOM groups. P-value is significant at 5% for number of adult females in OMI and NOM groups and number of children and EMI and OMI group.

Further the EMI and OMI HHs are combined together as **migrant HHs** and tested against **non-migrant HHs** (t-test).

Following are the null and alternative hypotheses.

9 H_o - There is no difference in the means of family size of migrant and non-migrant HHs

9.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of family size of migrant and non-migrant HHs

10 H_o - There is no difference in the means of number of adult males in migrant and non-migrant HHs

10.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of number of adult males in migrant and non-migrant HHs

11 H_o –There is no difference in the means of number of adult females in migrant and non-migrant HHs

11.1 Ha There is a difference in the means of number of adult females in migrant and non-migrant HHs

12 Ho There is no difference in the means of number of children in migrant and non-migrant HHs

12.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of number of children in migrant and non-migrant HHs

Table:-4.7 Results of Migrant (Combination of EMI &OMI) and NOM HHs

Migration status		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	Degree of freedom	Sig. (2-tailed)
Number of adult males	migrant	1400	2.309	1.137	18.410	5979.000	0.000
	NOM	4581	1.722	1.015			
Number of adult females	migrant	1400	1.926	1.063	8.995	5979.000	0.000
	NOM	4581	1.663	0.924			
Number of children	migrant	1400	0.627	0.949	-7.297	5979.000	0.000
	NOM	4581	0.861	1.077			
HH size	migrant	1400	4.878	2.135	10.684	5979.000	0.000
	NOM	4581	4.244	1.880			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

As can be seen in **Table-4.7** P-value is highly significant for all the groups of HHs so in all cases the null hypotheses is rejected.

4.5 ANALYSES ON HOUSEHOLD HEAD CHARACTERISTICS

Researchers have attributed the origination of 'HH head' to avoid double counting of HH members at the time of data collection. *Policy makers* and *researchers* increasingly assigned a normative authority and income generating responsibility to this member (Barros et. al., 1997). The term HH head is used to cover a number of different concepts like the chief economic provider, chief decision maker, person designated by other members as the head, etc., and the focus changes depending on the specific circumstances in the country. The composition of HH is derived from the information on the relationship of each HH member to the head of HH. Largely, the definition of head of HH reflects the stereotype of the man in the HH as the person in authority and the bread winner (Hedman et al, 1996*)*.The equivalisation technique[3]toogives HH head the highest weight and so a HH head gains the importance of a primary decision maker who decides everything from food purchase and consumption patterns to other HH decisions and is considered as an acceptable indicator of intra-HH bargaining power (Chudgar, 2011).

The HH production function approach assumes that a combined HH utility function is maximized and resource allocation decisions are made through the 'benevolent dictatorship' of the HH head (Becker 1981). However recent studies have shown that this HH head is neither the bread-winner nor the only decision maker nor have a complete control over the family members. As per the definition of National Family Health Survey (NFHS) for the year 2005-06, *headship is not necessarily dependent on the earning* capacity of the head. The HH models also did assume that HH head characteristics, characterize the HH head as a decision maker and neither the unitary HH model nor the collective models found any validity in the assumption.

Kabeer (1991) showed that resource allocation decisions are made by the HH head as well as by the other members of the HH. Thus giving rise to the bargaining power of the family members which play an important role in resource allocation decisions. Sen (1990) argues that the stronger the bargaining power of a family member the more influence they will have on resource allocation decisions. Not only resource allocation decisions, but even other HH decisions are not left to the man of the house alone but both the partners have a final say in HH decisions (Kleinjans, 2012).

Fuwa (2000) categorizes headship based on *demographic factors* which focus on the presence of husbands in the family, *economic factors* that take into account the economic contribution of each family member, and *self-reported* factors are the survey respondent's perception of as to who is the HH head. Aritomi et al (2008) have listed a couple of measures which seem potentially better measures to incarcerate the multidimensionality of the headship concept they are: - earnings and hours worked-based, asset ownership, participation in social programs and actual resource allocation-based.

According to census of India, 2001 head of the HH is defined as 'The head of HH for census purposes is a person who is recognized as such by the HH. She or he is generally the person who bears the chief responsibility for managing the affairs of the HH and takes decision on behalf of the HH. The head of HH need not necessarily be the oldest male member or an earning member, but may be a female or a younger member of either sex. In case of an absentee de jure 'Head' who is not eligible to be enumerated in the HH, the person on whom the responsibility of managing the affairs of HH rests was to be regarded as the head irrespective whether the person is male or female'.In conclusion the generally accepted definition of HH head is "the one who manages the income earned and expenses incurred by the HH, and is considered by other members of the HH as the head".

4.5.1 Household Head Age

HH head age is an important variable in a HH as family size, amount of assets, type of productive activity, nature of responsibilities, and availability of time vary with different stages of life of the HH head. Age influences HH savings, (John and Grant, 1998), schooling of siblings (Saha, 2005), number of HH members, decision on nutritional requirements of HH (Sekhampu, *2012*) and prediction of poverty.

Table:-4.8 Descriptive analysis of HH head age and years of schooling

Variable	Descriptive analysis	EMI	OMI	NOM
Age group 17-30 30-45 45-60 60+	Mean	3.07	3.04	2.87
	Standard deviation	.801	.7	.852
	Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00
	maximum	4.00	4.00	4.00
Years of Schooling	Mean	8.16	8.93	6.45
	Standard deviation	5.303	5.425	5.557
	Minimum	0	0	0
	maximum	17	17	17

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

Table-4.8 explains the descriptive statistics of age and years of schooling of HH heads in all the three types of HHs. The standard deviation in all the three types of HHs is less than one, indicating that the data tend to be very close to the mean. The minimum and maximum is the same in all the three types of HHs.

Table:-4.9 HH Head Age (in percentage)

Age Group	EMI	OMI	NOM
17-30	4.1	3.0	5.6
30-45	16.3	17.0	26.6
45-60	47.6	52.8	42.5
60+	32.0	27.2	25.3
Total	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

Graph-4.2 Household Head Age

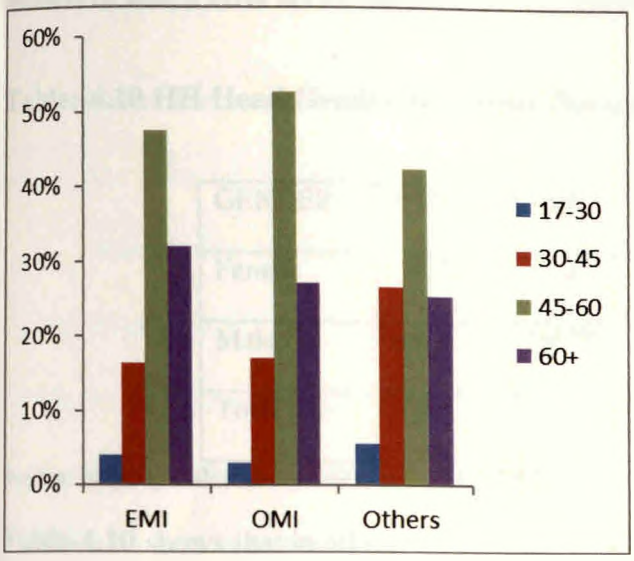


Table 4.9 reports that there are HH heads in the youngest age group (17-30 years) to the oldest age group (60+) although majority of HH heads belong to the age group of 45-60 years. There is also a substantial figure of HH heads in the 60 years and above grouping of age. As a result confirming the *Cultural biases that* the oldest (male) member mostly in patriarchal society is a self-reported HH head, who has high level of control over the entire family. Non- migrant HHs show an impressive figure in 30-45 years of HH head unlike international and internal migrant HHs which have a shoddier figure. **Graph 4.2** depicts that the HHs belonging to the age group of 45-60 years are maximum in internal migrant HHs. It is also interesting to note that in non-migrant HHs; the HHs head belonging to the age group of 30-45 years and 60 and above years are almost the same.

4.5.2 Household Head Gender

Importance of HH head gender lies in the manner in which HH resources are managed within a HH and the way in which HHs are networked for exchange of resources with other HHs. In other words HH head must ensure the economic stability of the HH irrespective of his/her sex. In HHs with a female earning member, it is more likely for male members to manage the income and make decisions on behalf of the HH, particularly in rural India, where men control women in all spheres of life. Buvinic and Gupta (1997) too argue that in developing countries, owing to strong patriarchal values, HHs are more likely to be classified as male-headed when in reality they are female-

headed. Much of the recent literature on HH economics have been critical of unitary models in which HHs act as monolithic blocs possibly led by a male benevolent dictator.

Table:-4.10 HH Head Gender Bivariate Percentage

GENDER	EMI	OMI	NOM	Total
Female	34.73	11.70	17.83	19.98
Male	65.27	88.30	82.17	80.02
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

Table-4.10 shows that in all the three types of HHs male heads are in majority in internal migrant HHs having maximum number of male HH heads. Female HH heads feature highest in international migrant HHs. Female-headed HHs' are the housing units whose members acknowledge a woman as the head of the HH. Female-headed HHs in developing countries range between 10 to 25 percent, and the number has increased over the years (Bruce et al, 1995). Female headship in a patriarchal society infers that there is an absence of an eligible male head in the HH. The other general reasons for female headed HHs are listed as follows:-

⇒ Women who head HHs are widowed, separated or divorced (Rosenhouse, 1989)

⇒ The demographic factors such as women's greater life expectancy compared to men.

⇒ Cultural factors such as the breakdown of joint family institution

⇒ Unfavorable circumstances like family dissolutions, single/adolescent parenthood, or social/cultural constraints (Handa, 1996).

It has been estimated that approximately thirty per cent of the world's HHs are headed by women (Chant, 1991) and many are found in urban areas. The rise in female headed HHs

in urban areas is due to migration of women from rural areas to urban areas for various reasons:

- Economic factors such as failure of rural areas to sustain families adequately and the demand for female labour in cities have led to migration of women from the countryside to the cities and their subsequent decision to stay (Brydon and Chant, 1989).
- In some rural areas deplorable condition of women due to elders inability to guarantee access to resources, male breadwinner not sending remittances and lack of protection from risk to women force women out of villages
- Young women are released from rural HHs without greatly affecting the HHs agricultural activities (Phongpaichit, 1993) and
- Many women consider migration for work purpose as their duty to boost family finances.

Female-headed HHs are often thought to be "disorganized" or "broken" due to internal insufficient internal authority and lack of care and guidance towards children. Chant's (1991) refutes the charges on the basis of his research where he found that children in female-headed HHs appear to be mature and responsible, and that there was less discrimination towards girl child compared to male-headed HHs.

Further as far as nutrition is concerned Kennedy and Haddad (1994) found that, though woman-headed HHs are poorer in terms of income, malnutrition was sometimes more severe among preschoolers in male-headed HHs. In fact children from female headed HHs were healthier (Handa, 1996) and enjoyed better outcomes (Johnson and Rogers, 1993) compared to children from male headed HHs.

The expenditure too on welfare of children was found to be high in female headed HHs compared to male headed HHs (Seebens, 2009) and daughters from female-headed HHs

were more likely to attend school than from male-headed families (Khan and Ali, 2005). On the contrary, Dancer and Rammohan (2006) found that a rural female child living under female headship was over 6 times more likely to be never enrolled rather than attaining some schooling. They are of the view that negative effects of female headship on female educational attainment are due to rural areas.

In contrast one sees a bias in male headed HHs as far as expenditure on children is concerned. Male headed HHs favour and invest more on sons as compared to daughters (Husain et al., 2011). In addition, the women of the HH too are controlled by the male head of the HH to the extent of taking permission for education purpose and medical treatment (Hamid, 1993).The study by Vallières et al. (2013) with vast majority of HHs with male as head, identifies that lack or limited education exposure for HH head's act as a barrier to women's use of health care.

According to (Chernichovsky, 1985), as far as education attainment of HH members is concerned gender of HH head is not a significant factor but HHs head characteristics is an important factor (King and Lillard, 1983). Dancer and Rammohan (2004) found no evidence of female headship exerting any influence on educational attainment of rural girls. Contrary to above findings, some studies favored for comparatively more decision-powers of female head of the HH at family for promoting the educational levels of females, especially in developing countries.

As for performance of children at school is concerned Das et al. (2012) found that children from female headed HHs either perform better or similar, but never worse than those from male headed HHs.

Further studies by Marcoux (1997) and Moghadam (1997) have shown that there is an increase in female headed HHs and there is considerable evidence to suggest that female headed HHs are poorer than others (Buvinic and Gupta, 1997). Studies in India too have

shown that HHs headed by females are poorer compared to HHs headed by males (Dreze and Srinivasan, 1997; Gangopadhyay and Wadhwa, 2003). In the words of Davids and Driel (2001) 'the feminization of poverty focuses on female-headed HHs as an expression of that same feminization of poverty'.

Barros et al. (1997) says that female-headed HHs have worse social, economic and demographic features compared to male-headed counterparts and are thus more likely to be poor. In female headed HHs the role of women is in the management of income-generation, housework and child care which in turn compromises on the economic efficiency and well-being of the members of the HH (Chant, 2003). Buvinic and Gupta (1997) maintain that women's lower average earnings compared to men, along-with less access to remunerative jobs, and productive resources such as land and capital contribute to the economic vulnerability of female-headed HHs. However the above argument of linking women headship to poverty is proved to be incorrect by Loi, 1996 who reveals that female-headed HHs are not worse off than male-headed HHs in terms of living condition and consumption-expenditure per capita because female heads are educated and working in professional carrier. Chant (1997, 1998) has further added that although considered to be socially vulnerable to underprivileged well-being, comprehensive study has shown that due to factors such as contribution from children, effective use of HH labour and the different distribution and use of resources within the HHs, female headship does not necessarily make a HH worse-off. In fact the chances of being poor are more in male headed HHs as unemployment rate is found to be higher in small male headed HHs compared to female headed HHs (Waite, 2000).

Goa has the fourth largest proportion of female-headed HHs in the country (20.3%) according to the latest 2011 census data. The findings do not necessarily signal women empowerment, as causes for female-headed HHs were often found to be absence of a resident male head due to widowhood, divorce, separation and desertion, lack of mature

sons to take over the HH, migration of the male member for long periods or loss of economic function by resident males due to disability, illness etc. and sons residing in independent nuclear units with their own spouse and children.

4.5. 3 Educational Attainment and Activity Status

The characteristics of HH heads like educational attainment and occupation or activity status contribute to the formation of human capital. The term human capital suggests that persons

who have highly developed human capital can do any activity better than the ones with lower human capital and play a significant role in overall development. Education is also assumed to be a social capital which confers improved social status, increases individual's income-earning potential and affects many aspects of life including individual demographic, health behavior and lifestyles.

HH heads education attainment affects the HHs in various ways. In situations where HH heads are the main decision makers, superior human capital among HH heads will definitely give better opportunities to other members of the HH. It will also lead to increase in bargaining power of adult members of the HH and improved human development through better health and schooling outcomes for children. To add further heads of HHs with higher educational levels are more likely to enroll children for higher level schooling (Chernichovsky, 1985) or enhances the probabilities of educational expenditure (Vu Quang,2012), more importantly daughter's schooling is considered important (Khan and Ali, 2005), it also determines school achievement of children, earning capacity, whether or not to migrate decision, positively affects his/her decision-to-save (Mumin, 2013), children have high earning aspirations and are more mobile.

HH heads with low levels of education are more likely to be poor compared to a HH where the head has a higher level of education (Botha, 2010). Another interesting finding has

been that family heads without education or below primary education tends to educate sons more than daughters, those with secondary or higher levels of education tend to behave in a more equitable manner (Husain et al., 2011).

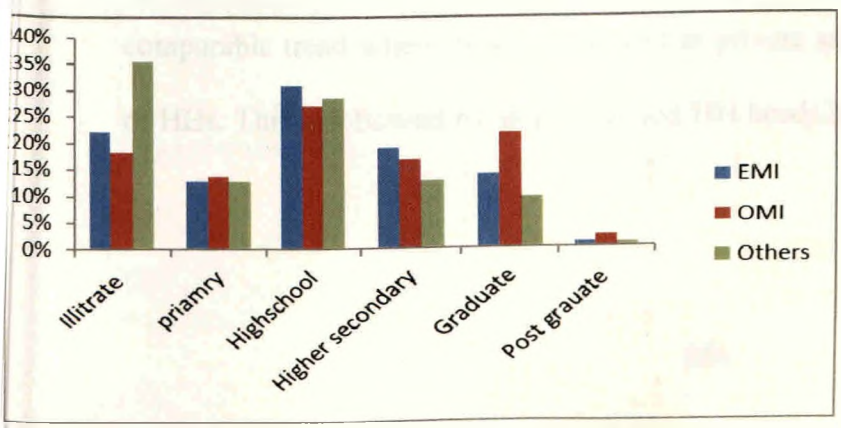
Table:-4.11 Percentage Distribution of Years of Schooling of HH Head

Years of schooling	EMI	OMI	NOM
0-Illiterate	22.2	18.3	36
4-primary	12.8	13.8	13
10-High school	31	27.1	28.4
12-Higher secondary	19	16.8	12.8
15-Graduate	14.1	21.7	9.5
17-Post graduate	.9	2.3	0.3
Total	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

It is interesting to note that in all the three types of HH's maximum years of schooling is seventeen years. **Table 4.11** exhibits a high frequency for high school level of educational attainment for EMI and OMI HHs, whereas maximum number of HH heads are illiterate. EMI and OMI HHs too have illiterate HH heads but much less than NOM HHs. High school attainment is a notable figure in all the three types of HHs **(Graph 4.3).** Around one-fourth of HH heads in all the three types of HHs have attained primary level of education. Graduate HH heads are highest in internal migrant HHs whereas in all three groups post-graduate HH heads are very few.

Graph:-4 .3 Years of Schooling of HH Head



Occupation of an individual depicts his/her income level, socio-economic status and duration of working hours. HH

heads are assumed to be the highest income-earner in the HH and according to Posel (2001) heads have final say over decisions even when they do not earn the most. If the HH head is an entrepreneur, then the HH is much less likely to be poor. There is no clear differentiation between the poor and the non- poor on the basis of their sector of employment, occupation, education, or other observed indicators. There is a slightly greater risk of poverty in HHs whose head is unemployed or not working due to disability, a pensioner or where HH incomes come from social assistance.

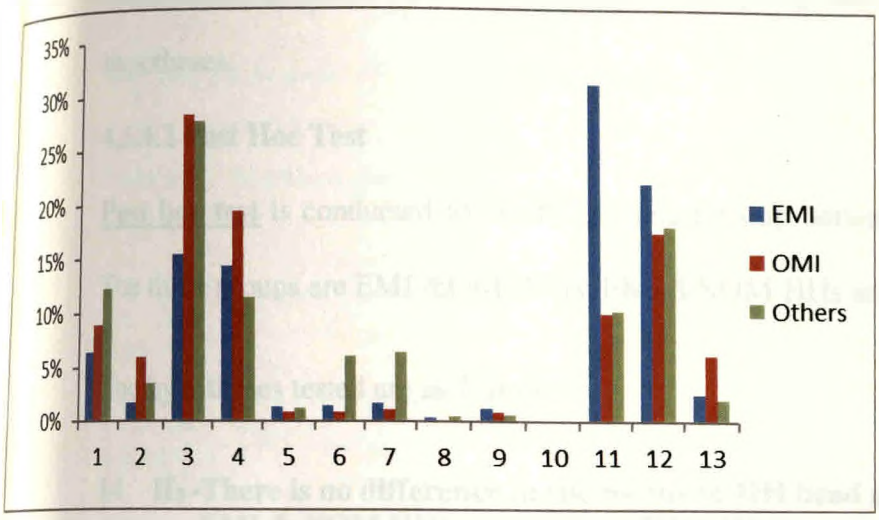
Table:-4.12 Percentage Distribution of Activity Status of HH Head

Activity status	EMI	OMI	NOM
1-Employedin state/central govt.	0.5	8.9	12.2
2-Employed in semi-government aided school/colleges/co-operatives/local administrative bodies	1.7	6	3.5
3-Employed in private sector	15.4	28.3	27.6
4-Self-employment	14.3	19.4	11.4
5-Unpaid family work	1.4	1	1.3
6-Agricultural labour	2	1	6.0
7-Labourers in non-agricultural sectors	2	1.1	6.5
8-Job seekers.	0.4	0.2	0.5
9-Job not required	1.2	.9	1
10-Students	.1	0	0
11-HH works	31.2	10	10.2
12-Pensioners, too old to work	22	17.4	18.1
13-Others	2.6	6.2	2.1
Total	100	100	100

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

The activity status of HH head **(Table 4.12)** shows that the percentage of 'HH work' as an economic activity is highest (31%) among EMI HHS and is relatively very high compared to EMI and NOM HHs. Pensioners and too old to work heads in international migrant HHs is also a noteworthy figure. Internal and non-migrant HH heads show a comparable trend where heads employed in private sector feature first in both the types of HHs. This is followed by self-employed HH heads in OMI HHs and Pensioners,

Graph:-4.4 Activity Status of HH Head



It is also interesting to note that in all the three types of HHs, there are no HH head as job seekers and students.

Graph 4.4 reveals that most HH heads work in private sector, are self-employed, are pensioners, or too old to work and HH work. HH work as an economic activity is more frequent with HH heads in all the three types of HHs and exceptionally high in OMI HHs.

4.5.4 Hypotheses Testing of Household Head Characteristics

4.5.4.1 Anova Test

The following hypotheses are tested with **anova test**.

13 H_0 -There is no difference in the means of HH head age in the three groups of HHs

13.1 H_a - There is a difference in the means of HH head age in the three groups of HHs

14 H_0 -There is no difference in the means of number of years of schooling of HH heads in the three groups of HHs

14.1 H_a- There is a difference in the means of number of years of schooling of HH heads in the three groups of HHs

Table:-4.13 Results of Anova Test

Variables	Migration status	N	F value	p value
Age of HH head	EMI	930	43.192	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4581		
	Total	5981		
Years of schooling	EMI	930	71.678	.000***
	OMI	470		
	NOM	4579		
	Total	5979		

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The results in **Table 4.13** warrants for accepting the 13.1 and 14.1 alternative hypotheses.

4.5.4.2 Post Hoc Test

Post hoc test is conducted to verify any relationship between the three groups of HHs. The three groups are EMI &OMI HHs, EMI &NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

The hypotheses tested are as follows:-

14 H_0 -There is no difference in the means of HH head age in EMI &OMI HHs, EMI & NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

14.1 H_a- There is a difference in the means of HH head age in EMI &OMI HHs, EMI &NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

15 H_0 -There is no difference in the means of number of years of schooling of HH heads in EMI &OMI HHs, EMI &NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

15.1 H_a-There is a difference in the means of number of years of schooling of HH Heads in EMI &OMI HHs, EMI &NOM HHs and OMI &NOM HHs.

Table:-4.14 Results -Post Hoc Test

Variables	Migration status	Mean difference	Standard error	P-value
Age of HH head	EMI & OMI	.2930	.7285	.922
	EMI & NOM	3.7487	.4629	.000***
	OMI &NOM	3.4556	.623	.000***
Years of schooling	EMI & OMI	-.761	.312	.051
	EMI & NOM	1.716	.198	.000***
	OMI &NOM	2.477	.267	.000***

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

There is no significant difference between the means in age of HH head and the groups EMI and OMI HHs, whereas there is significant difference at one percent in the means of age of HH heads in the groups EMI and OMI, and OMI and NOM HHs.

The means of years of schooling in the EMI and OMI groups is significant at 5% while the same mean is significant at 1% for the groups EMI and NOM, and OMI and NOM.

Further EMI and OMI HHs have been combined together and considered as **migrant HHs** and tested against **non-migrant HHs**, the results are as follows.

Table:-4.15 Results of Independent Sample t-test-Migrant and NOM HHs

Variables	Migration status	Number of observations	Mean	Std. Deviation	Degree of freedom	t-test	Significance (2-tailed)
age HH head	migrants	1400	54.27	12.66	5979	9.286	.000***
	NOM	4581	50.62	12.94			
years of schooling HH head	migrants	1400	8.42	5.35	5977	11.717	.000***
	NOM	4579	6.45	5.56			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The above **Table-4.15** demonstrates a significant difference in the means of age of HH head and years of schooling of HH head in the migrant and non-migrant groups. Thereby rejecting the null hypotheses and accepting the alternative hypotheses.

4.5.4.3 Chi-square test for Age and Gender of HH head

Hypotheses are as follows:-

16 H_0 - There is no significant difference in average age of male and females in the total HHs
16.1 Ha -There is significant difference in average age of male and females in the total HHs
17 H_0 - There is no significant difference in average age of male and females in EMI HHs
17.1 H_a- There is significant difference in average age of male and females in EMI HHs
18 H_0 -There is no significant difference in average age of male and females in OMI HHs
18.1 H_a - There is significant difference in average age of male and females in OMI HHs
19 H_0 - There is no significant difference in average age of male and females in NOM HHs
19.1 H_a - There is significant difference in average age of male and females in NOM HHs

Table:-4.16 Independent Sample T-Test for Age and Gender of HH Head

group	Gender	Number of observations	Mean	Std. Deviation	t test
Total	Female	1195	55.78	13.49	13.019***
	Male	4786	50.40	12.60	
EMI	Female	323	51.39	14.84	4.837***
	Male	607	55.95	11.24	
OMI	Female	55	58.82	14.71	3.047***
	Male	415	53.44	11.95	
NOM	Female	817	57.31	12.42	16.947***
	Male	3764	49.16	12.59	

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

Since P-value < .01 it is concluded that there is significant difference in average age of male and female in the all categories i.e., total HH males and females, EMI HHs males and females, OMI HHs males and females & NOM HHs males and females.

4.5.4.4 Chi-square test for HH Head Gender and HH Head Activity Status

Chi-square test is used to study whether HH head gender and HH head activities status are associated with each other or not.

Hypotheses Tested Are As Follows:-

20 H_0 - There is no significant difference in total of all HH heads activity status and gender.
20.1 H_a - There is significant difference in total of all HH heads activity status and gender.
21 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in EMI HHs
21.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in EMI HHs
22 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in OMI HHs
22.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in OMI HHs
23 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in NOM HHs
23.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads activity status and gender in NOM HHs

Table:-4.17 HH Head Activity status and Gender (cross tables)

Groups	Chi-square value	Degree of freedom
Total & Gender	2163.19***	12
EMI and Gender	445.175***	12
OMI and Gender	200.86***	12
NOM and Gender	1382.162***	12

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The analysis found that there is significant association at 1 percent between the total of all HH heads, EMI HH heads, OMI HH heads and NOM HH heads activity status and gender. Thus accepting the alternative hypotheses in all cases.

4.5.4.5 Chi-Square Test for HH Head Age and Sex Ratio.

Chi-square test is further applied to study whether there is any association between HH head age and sex ratio.

Hypotheses tested are as follows:-

25 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in total HHs.

25.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in total HHs.

26 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in EMI HHs.

26.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in EMI HHs.

27 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in OMI HHs.

27.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in OMI HHs.

28 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in NOM HHs.

28.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH heads age and sex ratio in NOM HHs.

The results are summarized as follows.

Table:-4.18 HH Head Age and Sex Ratio

groups	Chi-square statistics	p-value	Degree of freedom	Number of cells having zero expected count
Total & Age	157.485***	0	3	0
EMI & Age	53.180***	0	3	0
OMI & Age	11.160**	0.011	3	1
Others & Age	246.935***	0	3	0

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
*Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

Chi-square test of HH age and sex reveals that total of all HHs, EMI HHs and NOM HHs are significant at 1 percent level. OMI HH's head age and sex ratio are significant at 5 per cent.

Chi-square test was conducted to see a relationship between migrant and non-migrant HHs.

Hypotheses tested are listed as follows.

29 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH head age and migration status
29.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH head age and migration status
30 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH head gender and migration status
30.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH head gender and migration status
31 H_0 - There is no significant difference in HH heads educational status and migration status
31.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH head educational status and migration status
32 H_0 -There is no significant difference in HH head activity status and migration status
32.1 H_a - There is significant difference in HH head activity status and migration status

Table:-4.19 Summary of Analysis on HH head Characteristics and Migration Status [(Migrant (EMI and OMI) v/s NOM) Using Chi-Square Test

HH characteristic	Migrant v/s Non-migrant HHs Analysis value	Degree of freedom	p-value (2-tailed)
Age-HH head	73.426	3	.000***
Gender HH head	56.342	1	.000***
Years of schooling HH head	151.751	8	.000***
Activity status HH head	339.185	12	.000***

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
Total N = 5981, * significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

Results from the above table are summarized as follows:-

I. The relation between age of HH head and migration status is found to be significant, x^2 (3N=4581) =73.42, p=.000.

II. The relation between gender of HH head and migration status is found to be significant, x^2 (1 N=4581) =56.34, p=.000. Thus rejecting the null hypotheses and accepting the alternative hypotheses.

III. The relation between years of schooling of HH head and migration status is found to be significant, x^2 (8 N=4581) =151.75, p=.000.

IV. The relation between activity status of HH head and migration status is found to be significant, x^2 (12 N=4581) =339.18, p=.000. Thus rejecting the null hypotheses and accepting the alternative hypotheses

4.6 MAJOR FINDINGS

Major findings are summarized as follows:-

1. That there is significant difference in means of HH size, number of males above 18, number of females above 18 and children in the three groups of HH
2. There is a difference in the means of HH size, number of males above 18, number of females above 18 and children in migrant and non-migrant HHs

3. There is a significant difference in the means of HH head age, years of schooling, gender and activity status in the three groups of HHs
4. There is a significant difference in the means of HH head age, years of schooling, gender and activity status in migrant and non-migrant HHs

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter has elaborately described the HH characteristics and HH head characteristics of international migrant, internal migrant and non-migrant HHs. Information has been taken regarding the HH characteristics like HH size, number of adult males, number of adult females and number of children and of HH head characteristics like age, gender, educational attainment and activity status, to understand the basic structure of the three different types of HHs found in Goa.

As Goan migration can be suitably understood as international in character and mostly male dominated, leaving behind old parents, spouse and children. As a result EMI HHs show a modestly bigger figure for females as HH head. HH headship may undergo a change in Goa if one relies on the news that appeared on Goanews desk 18 July 2012 that the then chief minister Mr. Manohar Parrikar has agreed to do away with the discrimination among male and female in the Law of Succession in the Goa Civil Code. Where it is suggested that the word 'male' should be removed from Article 2068 of the law, which would then give the right to both male or the female, who is the eldest to be the head.

The above analysis highlights the HH size, HH composition and HH head characteristics in the three different types of HHs in Goa. Interestingly significant differences have been observed in or between them which could be due to receipt of remittances by EMI and OMI HHs. The economic performance of the smallest state too is noteworthy. Goa has a

much larger share of 0.4 per cent of all-India net domestic product (NDP) and is considered one of the richest States in India with a highest Per Capita Income. Tourism and mining are stereotyped to be the backbone of Goan economy (although mining in Goa has been

brought to an abrupt end by the Supreme Court order in response to the petition reference no.435/2012). But sector wise analysis has found that manufacturing and communication too have supported substantially to the growth of the state's economy. The economic survey 2007-08, states that the role of secondary sector's (manufacturing) to Gross State Domestic Product has increased to 43 per cent in 2005-06 from 29 percent in 1990-91. In addition one cannot deny the good infrastructure and the favorable industrial policy that Goa can boast about. Even the urbanization trend in Goa is higher than the national average of its total population - 49.8%. Consequentially Goa has emerged as the most competitive state in the country with a high per capita income, wide-ranging consumption pattern and favorable demographics. It can thus be concluded that Goan HH characteristics have been shaped by industrialization, in-migration, out-migration, rapid growth of population and new work conditions prevailing in Goa.

Notes

1. **Equivalence Scale-**An equivalence scale is a measurement of the cost of living of a HH of a given size and demographic constitution, in relation to the cost of living of a reference HH (usually a single adult), when both HHs attain the same standard of living or level of utility.
2. **Engel Curve -** An Engel curve defines how HH expenditure on a particular good or service differs with HH incomes.
3. **Equivalisation Technique -**Equivalisation Techniques a technique in economics in which HH members receive different weightings. Then total HH income is divided by the sum of the weightings to produce a representative income.

CHAPTER- 5

CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE AND INEQUALITIES IN MIGRANT V/S NON-MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS IN GOA

CHAPTER-FIVE

CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE AND INEQUALITIES IN GOAN HOUSEHOLDS

The outcome of chapter four provides exhaustive information on the HH characteristics in the three groups of HHs found in Goa and taken up in the present study. The result shows that there is significant difference in the HH characteristics in the EMI, OMI and NOM HHs. As a result the present chapter looks into the determinants of consumption expenditure on food and non-food items and consumption expenditure inequalities if any in these three groups of HHs. The determinants and the differences in consumption expenditure on food and non-food items is studied in detail using simple linear regression and accordingly the consumption expenditure equation is defined for the three groups of HHs, for food and non-food consumption expenditure.

Inequality considerations are found through analyzing the consumption expenditure on various food and non-food items in the three different groups of HHs using an interlinked equivalent-Lorenz Curve and the Gini Coefficients. These two techniques help to understand as to in which group of HHs (from the 3 groups of HHs) there exists more equality and in which group of HHs there occurs least equality in terms of consumption expenditure on the different items in the food and non-food categories.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Consumption is an important component of national income accounting and is the largest component of a country's GDP. Modern economists unlike the classical economists consider consumption as an important element in economics on which lies the strength of a country's economic system. In terms of the circular flow of income, consumption and expenditure is effectively the same thing, often referred to as "consumption expenditure". Thus, HH

consumer expenditure (HCE) is expenditure incurred by HHs on consumption of goods and services during the reference period (NSSO 68th round). It includes various kinds of imputed expenditure incurred by a HH in a given year. Monthly per capita consumer expenditure (MPCE) is defined as "for a HH, this is its 30 days' total consumer expenditure divided by its size". A person's MPCE is understood as that of the HH to which he/ she belongs.

Accordingly the various groups of items that make up the total monetary values of consumption expenditure are (i) food, pan (betel leaves), tobacco, intoxicants and fuel and light, (ii) clothing and footwear and (iii) miscellaneous goods and services and durables. The limitations to consumer expenditure are the budget constraint at one end and demand, needs, choice, preferences, etc., at another. A HH will thus maximize its utility by choosing or spending on a set of goods and services keeping in mind the confines.

5.2 HOUSEHOLD INCOME OR CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE- A Better Guide to Well-Being?

In general HH income coupled with consumption expenditure are important direct monetary indicators used in measuring the economic well-being of a populace. However, the reasons as to why *consumption expenditure* is preferred to HH income are that consumption expenditure, reflects long-term economic status of the HH, particularly in low income countries (Friedman, 1957), it reveals living standards more accurately than income (Deaton and Zaidi, 2002),is a more informative indicator, less volatile over time and more reliable. According to Atkinson, (1998), "Expenditures are thus supposed to better reflect "long-term" or "permanent" income and are from this point of view considered to be a better measure of economic well-being and respective inequalities". Brandolini and Smeeding (2008) state that HH consumption is less affected by temporary losses of income and its

seasonality, and is thus a more appropriate indicator for the assessment of inequalities in society. Consumption expenditure also gains importance due to the understanding that aggregate personal income ought to fluctuate more than aggregate personal consumption, since people can save in good times and borrow during bad times (Freidman, 1957)thus reinforcing the reality that consumption always remains what- ever is the situation in the economy.

HH incomes are however not easy to measure as they are not always a correct reflection of actual incomes. Interestingly some economists too argue that expenditure may not be the correct criteria to measure the well-being as it is likely that expenditure is less unequally distributed than incomes. The reason for this is that firstly in rich HHs savings are predicted to be huge, and so the gap between expenditure and incomes are larger than among HHs in lower income group. In other words HHs in lower-income groups are likely to be dis-saving. Secondly for the poor, expenditures will be positive, even if it means low, zero or negative incomes if the individual has to survive.

Although consumption is considered a better yardstick to know the living standards than current income, it is still not considered a complete measure of wellbeing of a society. Consumption estimates do not include consumption of public goods like recreational facilities, government-funded goods and services such as public health care and education or goods produced within home. Including these goods in estimates lowers income inequality in general (Barrett et al. 1999)

Studies on inequality measurements reveals that income inequality is greater than expenditure inequality (Li et al., 1998) as life-cycle hypothesis suggests that people smooth out their consumption behavior over their lifetimes, so even if income varies considerably over the life-cycle, consumption is less variable than income from one period to another.

Consumption expenditure inequality is understood to be more lasting inequality than income inequality as it affects savings, borrowing, insurance arrangements, etc.

5.3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Keynesian theory of aggregate consumption function developed in his 'General Theory (1936)' posits that aggregate consumption is a positive but diminishing function of aggregate income. Duesenberry (1949) in his book titled "Income, Saving and the Theory of Consumer Behavior," challenged Keynes views on consumption behavior and introduced psychological factors connected with habit formation and social interdependencies based on relative income concerns (Palley, 2008). His original work is macroeconomic in character and focuses on aggregate consumption. Dusenberry theorized that individuals are less concerned with their absolute level of consumption than with their relative level—the idea of "keeping up with the Joneses." Further the theory states that individuals approach to consumption and saving is governed more by his income with respect to others than by abstract standard of living. In other words the satisfaction (or utility) an individual derives from a given consumption level depends on its relative magnitude in the society (e.g., relative to the average consumption) rather than its absolute level. The theory also hypothesizes that the present consumption is not influenced merely by present levels of absolute and relative income, but also by consumption levels attained in previous period.

Since the 1950s economists have been seeking to build on a theory of aggregate consumer spending, and trying to understand how individual HHs prefer to spend and how the choices vary when variables like interest rates, etc., change. Consequently, in the 1950s, Duesenberry's theory of consumption was displaced by Modigliani and Brumberg's (1954) lifecycle theory of consumption and Friedman's (1957) permanent income hypothesis.

5.3. 1 The "Life-Cycle" Theory

The theory states that consumer spending does not depend on this year's disposable income but rather on the disposable income expected over a long time period (one's lifetime). The life cycle hypothesis (LCH) is an economic concept that analyzes individual consumption patterns. The factors that affect consumer spending according to the life-cycle theory are (i) certainty of expectation and (ii) age distribution of the population. The more certain one is of one's future income, one will spend a higher percent of one's income. The more uncertain one is of one's future income; one will save a higher percentage of one's income. The other aspect highlighted by the theory is the age distribution of the population. In other words consumption decisions by people are made based on the resources available over lifetime and on their current stage of life. Individual's save while they work in order to finance consumption after they retire. Individuals put together assets at the initial stages of their working lives and later during retirement they use the reserve assets. Thus working people set aside their assets for their post-retirement lives and adjust their consumption patterns according to their requirements at different stages of their lives. "According to the life-cycle hypothesis any change in wealth should produce an identical effect on consumption, no matter what is the source of the wealth change"(Wilkinson, 2008, p. 161). According to the life-cycle theory, a person's life-cycle wealth is defined as the sum of current wealth, present income and the discounted value of expected future income.

5.3.2 The Permanent Income Theory of Consumer Spending

Friedman published the Permanent Income Theory of Consumption in 1957. Accordingly based on the understanding of the theory, Friedman divided disposable income into two parts-"permanent income" and "transitory income".

Permanent income as per Friedman determines how much we will spend. In other words permanent income will settle on as to where we will live, what kind of clothes we will wear, where we will shop, what kind of food we will eat, and so on.

The other part of disposable income i.e., the *transitory income* is something that 'comes and goes' or which is in transitory. Interesting aspect of this transitory income is that, transitory changes in income are only one-time events (not recurring) and can be positive or negative. Hence, according to Friedman the transitory changes in income will have little effect on consumer spending. Consequently in its simplest form, Friedman assumes rational behavior by consumers due change in permanent income rather than a change in temporary income which ultimately affects the choices of consumer consumption patterns.

According to the permanent-income hypothesis, a HH's consumption in any given period is equal to its permanent income, defined as the annuity value of HH wealth. The current value of HH wealth is the sum of human wealth and non-human wealth. Human wealth which includes education and experience influence the consumer's ability to earn and also to make an estimation of an anticipated lifetime income. Non-human (physical) wealth includes shares, bonds, property and also both financial and housing wealth, with housing wealth often forming the largest constituent of HH assets

The above three theories i.e., Duesenberry's theory of consumption, Modigliani and Brumberg's (1954) lifecycle theory of consumption and Friedman's (1957) permanent income hypothesis have their conceptual roots in the microeconomic theory of consumer choice. However, the life-cycle and permanent income hypotheses display most similarity; both theories assume that individuals attempt to maximize their utility or personal well-being by balancing a lifetime stream of earnings with a lifetime pattern of consumption. In

other words both the theories propose that consumers choose current consumption after taking into account the state of resources available to them over their whole lifetime.

Recent studies noted that life-cycle/permanent-income theories are best suited to explain consumer behavior in the long-run, but the theories do not provide an adequate explanation of consumer behavior over the short-run period. The knowledge of consumer behavior in the short-run is important as consumer expenditures account immensely towards the Gross National Product of a country thereby is of use to policy makers. The life-cycle and permanent income theory of consumption suggests that consumers look at the resources available to them from a lifetime perspective rather than current consumption motive. The lifetime consumption perspective of a consumer implies that the impact of a variation in current income on current consumption should mirror the effect of the income change on the present discounted value of all resources expected to build up to the consumer over the lifetime. The theory of consumption is chuckled down with many challenges over the years, but due to the association of economists and psychologists ideas, the life-cycle hypothesis remains an important part of economists' thinking and both the theories ('Permanent-income' theory and 'life-cycle theory) are today the widely recognized and extensively used theories.

5.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Consumption is a quantitative exercise which is carried on through-out the life cycle of individuals amidst income uncertainty and incomplete markets (Storesletten et al., 2004). Sekhampu (2012) analysis on factors affecting HH food expenditure found that HH income (Gheblawi and Sherif, 2007), HH composition over the life-cycle (Banks et al., 1994), HH size (Gheblawi and Sherif, 2007; Banks et al., 1994), age of HH head, employment status of

HH head and educational attainment of HH head significantly influence food expenditures. In other words larger HH sizes are associated with increased spending on food and the age, employment status and the educational attainment of the HH head are also associated with increased spending on food (Sekhampu, 2012). Family size increases rapidly in the early years of marriage which in turn increases the family's demand for food consumption. In addition to the above cited factors Khan (2014) added social status and Yameogo (2014) included female heads, access to electricity, whether living in urban areas and international remittances as factors contributing towards HH expenditure behavior.

Huston (1991) and Bruck (2001) consider education, sex and family size as non-economic factors. Bansback (1995) and Dickinson et al. (2003) specify that these non-economic factors (also termed as non-price/income factors) are becoming more important in determining consumers' purchasing decisions. Consumption expenditure also depends on public expenditures and private domestic investment which have a larger multiplier effect and results in increase in national income and gross national product.

5.5 DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE

The Keynesian Theory of Consumption states that the current real disposable income is the main determinant of consumption in the short-run. Disposable income is calculated as the National Income minus taxes plus transfers and the income is adjusted for inflation. The disposable income spent on consumer goods is referred to as 'average propensity to consume'. There also occurs a change in consumption that results from a given change in disposable income. This is referred to as 'marginal propensity to consume' by Keynes. In other words consumer spends a fixed fraction of every incremental dollar of income which is referred to as 'the marginal propensity to consume'.

Average Propensity to Consume = $\frac{\text{Consumption}}{\text{Disposable Income}}$

Marginal Propensity to Consume = $\frac{\text{Change in Consumption}}{\text{Change in Disposable Income}}$

Thus the standard Keynesian consumption function is as follows:

$C = a + cYd$

Where,

C= consumer expenditure

a = autonomous consumption i.e., the level of consumption that would take place even if income is zero (dis-saving)

c = marginal propensity to consume

Yd = disposable income

Besides disposable income which determines consumption expenditure, there are various other factors that decide upon consumer spending:-

According to Keynes, the two types of factors which influence the consumption function are classified as subjective and objective. Both these factors cause shifts in consumption function and are as follows.

I) **Subjective Factors:** Subjective factors affect the propensity to consume and are endogenous or internal to the economic system itself and are related to psychological characteristics of human nature, social structure, social institutions and social practices. These psychological factors govern the spending habit of HHs and do not undergo a material change over a short period of time i.e., they remain constant in the short run. The subjective factors or Psychological characteristics of human nature are religious belief of the people

towards spending, their foresight, attitude towards life, level of education, etc., all these directly affect propensity to consume or determine the slope and position of the consumption curve.

II) **Objective Factors:** The objective factors are exogenous, or external to the economic system. They undergo rapid changes and bring market shifts in the consumption function. Keynes enlists these factors as motives and are as stated below:-

- **The Motive of Precaution**-The desire to build up a reserve against unforeseen contingencies.
- **The Motive of Foresight**-The desire to provide for anticipated future needs, e.g., in relation to old age, family education, etc.
- **The Motive of Calculation**-The desire to enjoy interest and appreciation, because a larger real consumption, at a later date, is preferred to a smaller immediate consumption.
- **The Motive of Improvement**-The desire to enjoy a gradually increasing expenditure since it gratifies the common instinct to look forward to a gradually improving standard of life rather than otherwise.
- **The Motive of Independence**- The desire to enjoy a sense of independence and the power to do things.
- **The Motive of Enterprise**- The desire to secure a mass de manoeuvre to carry on speculation or establish business projects.
- **The Motive of Pride: The desire to possess or to bequeath a fortune.**
- **The Motive of Avarice The** desire to satisfy pure miserliness, i.e., unreasonable, but insistent abstinence from expenditure as such.

Keynes adds a corresponding list of motives on consumption such as enjoyment, short-sightedness, generosity, miscalculation, ostentation and extravagance.

III) **Other factors:** Besides the above, the other factors responsible for consumer expenditure are:-

Interest rates: As real interest rates rise (fall), consumer spending falls (rises). The two reasons for this are firstly as real interest rates rise, it becomes more expensive to borrow and if people borrow less, they spend less on consumer goods. Secondly, as real interest rates rise, it is more rewarding to save and if people save more, they will spend less on consumer goods. Lower interest rates work otherwise.

Consumer confidence: If people have low confidence about the state of the economy e.g., fear of unemployment, they will presently spend less and save more. However more confidence will boost spending which will not come from extra income, but from savings. Consequently, consumption increases and savings decreases.

Income distribution: Income distribution affect consumer spending as people with different incomes will spend differently.

Consumer Expectations: consumer expectations of a recession, expansion and inflation in the near future in the economy influences consumer spending. If consumers expect a recession, consumer spending will decline. Expectations of an expansion in the economy will induce consumer spending. Inflation too will bring about consumer spending now in order to buy before the prices rise.

Consumer Debt: if a consumer is reeling under too much debt, consumer spending will decrease. A comfortable debt will increase consumer spending.

Wealth: wealth can be viewed as financial wealth (including stocks, bonds and money) and physical wealth (including cars, furniture and appliances). An increase in financial wealth

will increase consumption and decrease savings. On the other hand, an increase in physical wealth will reduce buying and increase savings.

Taxes: taxes are resultant of HH disposable income. A drop or a rise in disposable income is a consequence of increase or a decrease in taxes on this disposable income. Consequently consumer spending too will depend upon the availability of income.

Above and beyond the mentioned factors, there are some economic and other factors such as people's economic background, availability of credit, house price, inflation/deflation, age, education, family size, advertising and consumerism that influence consumer spending practice. The consumption function is also influenced by consumer's preferences (patience, or the willingness to delay gratification) and by the consumer's attitude toward risk.

It can be noted from the above understanding that consumers have drifted away from the conventionally determinants that have governed consumer behavior like the logic norm of lower the price higher the demand, price of substitutes/complementary, etc. Rationally a consumer would spend on those goods that would deliver the most utility (satisfaction) according to individual tastes and relative prices. In recent years changes in consumer spending and consumption behavior is governed by the changes in the financial self-sufficiency of members in a HH, changes in the retail sector organization, growing prosperity, governmental intervention through legislations and large innovations in the type of goods and services available to HHs. Consumers have developed their own rules like buying branded brands, buying the cheapest and buying what a friend/neighbor has bought (demonstration effect).

5.6 IMPORTANCE OF CONSUMER EXPENDITURE TO MACROECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

Consumption expenditure is an important indicator in knowing the overall economic performance of the country. A country's economy is a broad combination of individual, business and government spending or investment which depends on decision making rules within HHs and social groups. Spending is an important function of consumers and is considered as the ultimate purpose of economic behavior thereby gaining importance in economic theory. The significance of expenditure by consumers' lie in the fact that in a country all the economic activity begins and ends with consumption expenditure and as Adam Smith puts it, consumption, "... is the sole purpose of all production." In simple words the consumption function enables micro and macro-economic decision making.

Consumer expenditure on goods and services is the main cause of aggregate demand at the macroeconomic level in an economy and is the largest Gross Domestic Product component which even affects the movements in the economic cycle. Hence, it can be said that Consumer expenditure is the largest sector of the economy and accounts for 70 percent Gross Domestic Product, 90 percent of HH disposable income and over two thirds of real Gross National Product, and in this context is important to policymakers.

Consumption expenditure is an important pointer to the government in terms of formulation of economic policies, determination of minimum wages, imposition of taxes, production of essential and non-essential commodities in the country, to know the saving capacity of the public and an imperative driving force during recession. Further consumer expenditure plays an important role in macroeconomic activity affecting both short-run business cycles and long-run economic growth. Economic growth begins with investment and ends with

consumer spending. Thus high levels of consumer spending are a consequence of economic growth.

The knowledge of consumption expenditure defines the HH's socio-economic structure, income and consumption level. Consumption expenditure constitutes a major portion of disposable income of HHs at the microeconomic level. The welfare of an economy depends on consumption (Slesnick, 1993 and Cutler and Katz, 1991), and for that reason acts as a guide to monitor the general well-being, living standards, long–term economic status and consumption patterns of a HH. Income, consumption and expenditure become a source for the compilation of national accounts aggregates, to furnish information so as to understand the living conditions, provide for weights while measuring consumer price index and assists in knowing the poverty levels. To larger extent information on consumption patterns of HHs will help countries to approximately measure the demand and supply. Differences in the level and pattern of consumption in poor and rich families which shows the standard of living, is a matter of concern among social reformers.

Changes in consumer spending have a significant impact on other aspects of the economy:-

- They affect the level of spare capacity in markets and the level of planned investment by businesses
- Flow of direct and indirect tax revenues into the government exchequer will be disturbed
- By impacting on aggregate demand, changes in consumption affect the level of demand-pull inflationary pressure
- Changes in consumption have a direct impact on the balance of trade in goods and services

- Swings in consumer spending and saving have a huge effect on the labour market. There is a possibility of a rise in unemployment levels.
- Free market economies rely on consumer demand to gauge the allocation and distribution of economic resources any alteration in consumer spending will affect misallocation of resources
- Being a GDP component, consumption has an immediate impact on it. An increase in consumption raises GDP by the same amount, other things equal.
- soaring consumption raises the production capacity utilization, with positive effects on profits
- The variations in HH expenditure depend heavily upon the manifestation of socio-economic inequalities, cultural and social differences and technological changes. John Maynard Keynes considered consumer spending to be the most important determinant of short-term demand in an economy. Consumption function, in economics, is the relationship between consumer expenses or spending and the various factors determining it at the HH or family level and which resolves many macro and micro economic questions.

To sum up, the importance of consumption expenditure can be explained with the circular flow model in which consumption expenditure is the key component. It is termed as a flow between the HH sector and the product markets. The circular flow captures the continuous movement of production, consumption, income, and factor services that move between producers and consumers. In particular, the HH sector makes consumption expenditures to purchase a portion of gross domestic product from the business sector through the product markets. The HH sector then pays for these

purchases with income received from selling factor services to the business sector through the resource markets

5.7 SECTOR-WISE INCOME GENERATION

The state of Goa has experienced a significant up gradation from being a stagnant economy of the 16th century (under Portuguese rule) to the present day richest state in India. The per capita income of the state is almost three times that of the average for the country as a whole. In Goa's growth trajectory, economic and social factors have contributed tremendously resulting in high rate of economic growth, which has been sustained over time, and considered as one of the main yardsticks of Goan economy's satisfying performance.

The planning process in Goa was introduced somewhere in 1950's on a restricted scale, covering limited development Programme's due to the availability of limited resources(Almeida,1962). Important developments in the Goan economy took place during the tenure of Goa's first Chief Minister, Dayanand Bandodkar. In the words of Couto (2004) 'He revived agriculture and animal husbandry, developed forest sanctuaries (traditionally the sacred groves), established a network of roads and public buildings in keeping with the aesthetic and culture of the place, and brought a large segment of the population belonging to the backward classes into the framework of economic and cultural life, opening up schools, dispensaries and community halls in areas where they lived in hardship and poverty'.

5.7.1 Agricultural Sector

Goa is predominantly an agricultural state and agriculture has sustained Goa from the Portuguese times to the present. At the time of liberation 70% of its rural population was engaged in agricultural activities. This figure has come down drastically to 16.6% presently.

Although agriculture was the major economic activity in Goa, the colonial regime of 451 years made no capital investment in the pursuit of up gradation of this sector. Thus with Goa having a little less than $3/4^{th}$ of its population whose livelihood depended on agriculture, it contributed to hardly 16 per cent of state's income and presently a mere 7 per cent. In 2006 agriculture has been considered as an unviable proposition with high costs of inputs and labour, which has resulted in low profit margins. The employment rate in the agricultural sector was around 49% in 1971 which came down to 19.63% in 1999. As per the advance estimates of GSDP for 2010-11 at constant prices, primary sector registered a growth rate of -1.46% which is attributed to the steep fall in the growth rate of mining and quarrying, which is one of the sub-sectors under the primary sector.

Crops of Goa are paddy, pulses, groundnut, sugarcane, cashew nut, coconut, areca nut, banana, pineapple, vegetables and black pepper. Today Goa imports basic requirements like vegetables, fruits, flowers, cereals and even rice (which is the staple crop of Goa) from neighboring states like Karnataka and Maharashtra.

5.7.2 Industrial Sector

Four and a half decades of Portuguese rule in Goa made no attempts to industrialize Goa, although colonial ruler's themselves were the pioneers of industrialization in their own land. Till 1961 the industrial structure was limited to few agro based, local resource based and cottage and small scale units known to produce soaps, tiles, rice milling, oil extraction, cashew-nut processing, fish canning, salt manufacture, tanning, etc.

The information gathered from Goa Today (1970), addresses the employment situation in Goa where a majority of units were considered as industry only by courtesy since they were one man establishment struggling to exist in the face of stiff competition, inadequate facilities and incentives from the government.

Goa has shown excellent performance in the manufacturing sector particularly after 1970. During this period the growth rate of the industrial sector has been impressive (44 percent) especially during the years of 1971 to 1981 where the number of industries jumped from 621 to 2229 which grew at 44 percent. The increase in the number of industrial units resulted in shifting of people (workforce) from primary activities to secondary activities and from agro-based economy to industrial based economy (Badigar and Badigar, 2003). This structural change in the economy led to an increase in the per capita income of Goans thereby taking the state to the second position among Indian states as one with highest per capita income. Mining has been the backbone of Goan economy right through the 20th century. Started in 1906 (Talukdar, 1962) mining witnessed many up's and down's due to the international market conditions but sustained throughout as a lucrative economic activity for Goans. Mining has been an important element in the economic history of Goa and an important source of foreign exchange for the state.

State's industrial prospects changed for better from 1993, when the then Finance Minister Manmohan Singh granted a tax holiday to industry in Goa under the Income Tax Act of 1961. As per the Act, new industry in Goa would be totally exempt from income tax for the first five years. The tax holiday coupled with the sales tax exemption were supposed to be the main stimulators for investments in Goa. However former president of the Goa Chamber of Commerce & Industry, (2013), Nitin Kunkolienker, has exhorted his apprehension that Goa has been unable to attract any major investment in manufacturing in the last 10 years, partly because other states like Himachal Pradesh offer more incentives in the form of tax breaks. The contribution of the secondary sector to employment has been 22.75% in 1999. As per the advance estimates of GSDP for 2010-11 at constant prices, the secondary sector registered an increase in its growth rate from 5.70% in 2008-09 to 8.77% in 2009-10.

5.7.3 Tertiary Sector

The tertiary sector has been a major contributor to the growth process in Goa right from 1970 and has grown steadily from 43% in 1970-79 to 46.15% in 1980-89 to 50% in 1990-2003. In 1970 with a population of about 627,000 an accrual income of rupees 30 crores from the mining industry and in addition from commerce, agriculture and small scale industries, Goa had the highest per capita income in Goa.

In other words in the early 21st century it has contributed over 50 percent to its state income and over 50 percent to the state's employment. The service Sector or the Tertiary sector covers a broad range of activities ranging from intermediary services or producer services, like communication, distribution, transport ,banking and insurance demanded by the manufacturing sector and many of which have high value potential, to consumption related services like laundry, hotels and restaurant services ,tourism etc. to public or government services. In the 1990s, banking and insurance, trade, and hotels emerged as the fastest growing sub services at 20.08 and 17.05 percent growth respectively. In the early 21st century tourism constituted significantly to Goa's economy. Government is a big employer in Goa as can be seen from the annual budget expenditure of close to 30% which goes towards the payment of salaries and other perks.

Fisher 1935, states that 'as an economy matures into an advanced stage of growth, the share of its agricultural income and employment declines and that of the non-agricultural sector, especially of the service sector accelerates at a faster rate'. This is very much true with Goa as it is obvious from the contribution of agriculture which has reduced considerably and the share of service sector that has increased drastically. Consequently it can be said that Goan economy has undergone structural changes in terms of income and very distinctly in terms of employment composition over time. Goa has seen the emergence of service sector as a

pre-dominant area making Goan economy a service-oriented economy. Industrialization and urbanization process have further strengthened the economy thus increasing the per capita consumption expenditure of the state. As per the advance estimates of GSDP for 2010-11 at constant prices tertiary sector which had a growth rate of 15.26% in 2008-09, witnessed a downward trend with a growth rate of 11.13% in 2009-10 and stood at 11.98% in 2010-11, the survey states.

5.8 REMITTANCE ECONOMY OF GOA

Increasing international and internal migration have resulted in the remittances received by the source country to be an 'important and stable source of external development finance' (Ratha, 2003) and has led to reducing transient poverty and at times even structural poverty (Kapur, 2004). The two distinct features of remittances are that one part goes towards sustaining of HH consumption expenditure and the other part goes towards sustaining domestic investments. Adams and Cuecuecha (2010) have focused how the receipt of internal remittances and international remittances affect the marginal spending behavior of house hold. They found that, what they received from the remittance, they have spent less at margin on key consumption goods and more at margin on important investment goods. In whatever way migrants' remittance assumes great importance as far as development of a state is concerned.

Remittances have played an important role in the progress of the Goan economy as well. 'Remittance' is a word used to cover cash transfers, savings and superannuation benefits. Goa also received occupational pensions sent for the family members left behind which assured life-long cash income. The trend towards receiving pensions from employment 'out' which commenced earlier in the 20thcentury escalated in the 1960s and 1970s with the return

of those who had been employed in Africa (De Souza, 1999). The importance of emigrants and remittances gained importance in the latter part of the 19th century as can be understood from the events that took place in Goa. Agriculture as the chief means of livelihood in rural economy was completely replaced by flight of remittances of the emigrants. The trade deficit that took place during the early 20th century which was caused due to excessive imports was replenished by remittances of the emigrants (Da Silva Gracias, 2002). The inflow of huge remittances in Goa was due to the earnings of Goans who were employed either in foreign countries or on board the ship. In 1900 a Goan cook could hope to earn between £2 and £3 per month, commanding twice the rate of his African counterpart (Stopford, 1902) and by 1920 Goan clerks were earning between £17 to £30 per month (Tanganyika). Thus even in the year of liberation with a virtual absence of industries, Goan economy was called a 'money order economy' as it depended on the incomes of Goans working out of Goa and can be rightly said that remittances sustained Goan economy for decades.

Remittances without doubt increase HHs disposable incomes which further increases expenditure or investments in the economy. Remittances when spent on consumer goods enhances state level sales tax and when spent on land markets the revenue of the local and state government increases owing to the stamp duty and registration fee.

These in-flows in Goa have had a remarkable effect in the creation of a sizeable middle class population. The conspicuous consumption wave began in Goa with newly constructed houses, modern technologies, fashionable clothing and surplus savings (Larsen, 1998). Much attention was on HH consumption expenditure than on domestic investments. As D'Souza (1987) rightly points out that Goa lost the potential of remittances to the economy as Goans go for increased consumption expenditure, wasteful consumer durables and

unproductive investment. He further added that the savings of migrant HHs were a residue after using remittances on consumer goods and house construction and improvement and that Goa had lower than all-India average figure of the credit-deposit ratio due to lack of demand for investible resources. De Souza(1999) too commented on the new development in the state when he states that emigrant HHs displayed increased consumerism whether through conspicuous consumption (clothing, alcohol, lavish celebration of rituals) or change in diet or concern on health and welfare, and that middle-class Goans enjoyed a reasonable standard of living in Goa. Tumbe (2011) has highlighted the high dependency of Goa on international remittances through figures where the remittance (international) to Net Domestic Product ratio is 21.6 % and foreign deposit to all-deposits ratio was nearly 22% (2007-08).

5.9 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

5.9.1 CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE

Most HH expenditure models assume that HH budget is allocated across expenditure categories in such as way so as to maximize utility which is obtained from the present consumption of goods and services and investments in the future.

In the following section, linear model regression analyses on consumption expenditure for food and non-food items is conducted for EMI, OMI and NOM HHs to derive the determinants of the consumption expenditure function.

5.9.1.1 International Migrants HH's Food Expenditure

The model for international migrant HH's food expenditure is as follows:-

$$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn} + \beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn} + \beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn} + u$$

The results are shown in **Table-5.1**

Table:-5.1 Estimated Regression Model of EMI HH's Food Expenditure

Log food	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	2.878	.0084	342.64	0.000
Family size	-.0002	.0006	-0.41	0.680
Gender of HH head	.0154	.0032	4.76	0.000***
Age of HH head	.0197	.0001	156.75	0.000***
Educational status of HH head	.0001	.0002	0.47	0.642
Activity status of HH head	.0047	.0042	1.13	0.260
R^2	0.97			
Adjusted R^2	0.97			
F statistics	F(5, 921) = 6130.05			
Number of observations	927			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The outcome of the model shown in **Table-5.1** indicates that the explanatory variables account for 97 per cent of the variance in total HH expenditure (R^2= 0.97). Gender of HH head, age of HH head, years of schooling of HH head and activity status of HH head have a positive influence on HH expenditure on food items. HH size has a negative impact on HH expenditure on food items implying that an increase in family size leads to a decrease in HH consumption expenditure. **Gender of HH head and age of HH head are significant at 1 percent**. Many studies have shown that male is mostly the primary migrant. This increases the chances of HHs being headed by males and thus gender of HH head becomes important variable in migrant HHs.

5.9.1.2 Internal Migrants HH's Food Expenditure

The model for internal migrant HH's food expenditure is as follows:-

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1$ (family size)$_{jn}$ + β_2 (age of HH head)$_{jn}$+ β_3 (Gender of HH head)$_{jn}$+β_4 (educational status of HH Head)$_{jn}$+β_5 (activity status of HH head)$_{jn}$ + u

Results of the above are shown in **Table-5.2**

Table:-5.2 Estimated Regression Model of OMI HH's Food Expenditure

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	3075.86	465.21	6.61	0.000
Family size	233.19	37.48	6.22	0.000***
Gender of HH head	-167.49	242.35	-0.69	0.490
Age of HH head	-12.76	6.33	-2.02	0.044
Educational status of HH head	61.64	14.64	4.21	0.000***
Activity status of HH head	-306.62	171.64	-1.79	0.075**
R2	0.10			
Adjusted R2	0.09			
F statistics	10.87			
Number of observations	470			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The results show that the explanatory variables in the above model **(Table-5.2)** accounted for 10 per cent of the variance in total HH food expenditure (R^2= 0.10) of internal migrant HHs. The findings of the research suggest that the regression coefficients of **family size and educational status are positive and highly significant at 1 percent**. The algebraic signs of these variables are in line with theoretical expectation. More specifically, food expenditure is positively related to increases in the number of HH members. Age of HH head have a negative coefficient suggesting that there is an inverse relationship between the age of HH head and consumption expenditure. This may be true because young people usually spend more than old people. In addition to quantitative explanatory variables, the dummy variable used for gender and activity status of HH head has a negative coefficient which means that male HH head and HH head in private sector jobs have a negative impact on consumption expenditure.

It can, therefore, be inferred from the findings of the study that family size and educational status of HH head are significant in the consumption expenditure decision of OMI HHs.

5.9.1.3 Non- Migrants HH's Food Expenditure

The model for non-migrant HH's food expenditure is as follows:-

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1$ (family size)$_{jn}$ + β_2 (age of HH head)$_{jn}$+ β_3 (Gender of HH head)$_{jn}$+β_4 (educational status of HH Head)$_{jn}$+β_5 (activity status of HH head)$_{jn}$ + u

Results are summarized below.

Table:-5.3 Estimated Regression Model of NOM HH's Food Expenditure

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	624..22	142.54	4.38	0.000
Family size	380.52	13.69	27.78	0.000***
Gender of HH head	96.02	69.17	1.39	0.165
Age of HH head	11.55	2.16	5.33	0.000***
Educational status of HH head	93.57	4.88	19.14	0.000***
Activity status of HH head	-157.44	58.83	-2.68	0.007***
R^2	0.205			
Adjusted R^2	0.204			
F statistics	236.86			
Number of observations	4585			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The analysis in **Table- 5.3** shows that 20 per cent of the variance in total HH food expenditure is explained by the model (R^2= 0.20) in non-migrant HHs. The full regression model shown in the above table reveals **family size, age of HH head, educational status of HH head, and activity status of HH head are significant at a 1percent**. The regression coefficients of the explanatory variables family size, age of HH head, educational attainment of HH head are positive. The dummy variable for gender of HH head has a positive coefficient that means if non-migrant HHs are headed by males the consumption expenditure will be more. The negative coefficient of activity status implies that in non-

migrant HHs, if HH heads work in private sector jobs then the HH will incur less consumption expenditure on food. Thus in the above model almost all the estimated parameters i.e., family size, age of HH head, educational attainment of HH head and activity status of HH head are significant in the consumption expenditures of NOM HHs but the degree of impact is higher in case of family size.

5.9.1.4 International Migrants HH's Non- Food Expenditure

The model for international migrant HH's non-food expenditure is as follows:-

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1$ (family size)$_{jn}$ + β_2 (age of HH head)$_{jn}$+ β_3 (Gender of HH head)$_{jn}$+β_4 (educational status of HH Head)$_{jn}$+β_5 (activity status of HH head)$_{jn}$ + u

Outcome of the above model is shown in **Table-5.4**

Table:-5.4 Estimated Regression Model of EMI HH's Non-Food Expenditure

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	1425.08	668.43	-2.13	0.033***
Family size	149.58	52.83	2.83	0.005***
Gender of HH head	575.82	272.69	2.11	0.035***
Age of HH head	38.99	10.14	3.84	0.000***
Educational status of HH head	161.132	22.87	7.05	0.000***
Activity status of HH head	41.97	32.43	1.29	0.196
R^2	0.07			
Adjusted R^2	0.067			
F statistics	14.50			
Number of observation	927			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The analysis shown in **Table-5.4** reports that the co – efficient of determination explains only 0.07 percent of the variance in total EMI HHs non-food expenditure (R^2= 0.07). **All the explanatory variables are statistically significant at 1 percent**. Accordingly the above

estimated model suggests that family size, gender of HH head, age of HH head, education of HH head and activity status of HH head are significant in the consumption expenditure of EMI HHs.

5.9.1.5 Internal Migrants HH's Food Expenditure

The model for internal migrant HH's non-food expenditure is as follows:-

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn} + \beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_4 (\text{educational status of HH Head})_{jn} + \beta_5 (\text{activity status of HH head})_{jn} + u$

The outcome is as follows:-

Table:-5.5 Estimated Regression Model of OMI HH's Non-Food Expenditure

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	2509.19	1293.05	1.94	0.053
Family size	233.91	104.17	2.25	0.025**
Gender of HH head	-530.34	673.62	-0.79	0.432
Age of HH head	-22.59	17.60	-1.28	0.200
Educational status of HH head	285.66	40.69	7.02	0.000***
Activity status of HH head	-1905.65	477.07	-3.99	0.000***
R^2	0.14			
Adjusted R^2	0.13			
F statistics	15.17			
Number of observation	470			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008
* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The analysis shown in **Table-5.5** reports that the co – efficient of determination explains 14 percent of the variance in total HH non-food expenditure (R^2= 0.14). Education of HH heads and activity status of HH head are statistically significant at 1 percent. The regression coefficient of family size is positive and statistically significant at 5 percent that means in internal migrant HHs larger the family size more will be the consumption expenditure on

non-food items. The explanatory variables gender, age of HH head and activity status of HH head are having a negative coefficient. As a result internal migrant HHs with male head will have less consumption expenditure on non-food items and non-migrant HHs with younger HH heads will have more consumption expenditure on non-food items. Accordingly the above estimated model suggests that **education of HH head, activity status of HH head and family size are significant in the consumption expenditure decision of OMI HHs.**

5.9.1.6 Non-Migrants HH's Non-Food Expenditure

The model for non- migrant HH's non-food expenditure is as follows:-

$y_{jn} = \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{family size})_{jn} + \beta_2 (\text{age of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_3 (\text{Gender of HH head})_{jn} + \beta_4$ (educational status of HH Head)$_{jn} + \beta_5$ (activity status of HH head)$_{jn} + u$

Table-5.6 represents the results.

Table-5.6 Estimated Regression Model of NOM HH's Non-Food Expenditure

Log non-food	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-ratio	P-value
Intercept	6.573	.0666	98.62	0.000
Family size	.13334	.0064	20.84	0.000***
Gender of HH head	.01914	.0323	0.59	0.554
Age of HH head	.00515	.0010	5.09	0.000***
Educational status of HH head	.04779	.0022	20.90	0.000***
Activity status of HH head	-.0750	.0275	-2.73	0.006***
R^2	0.16			
Adjusted R^2	0.16			
F statistics	176.15			
Number of observation	4585			

Source: Authors Calculations based on GMS-2008

* Significant at 10 percent, ** significant at 5 percent, *** significant at 1 percent

The findings in **Table- 5.6** illustrates that the explanatory variables accounted for 14 percent of the variance in total HH non-food expenditure ((R^2= 0.14) in non-migrant HHs. Further the study addresses the finding that **family size, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head are the major determinants of non-migrants non-food consumption expenditure being statistically significant at 1 percent**. Almost all the independent variables are positive except activity status of HH head which is negative. It is worth mentioning that the consumption function of internal migrant HHs on food and non-food items is the same and depends on family size, education of HH head and activity status of HH head. Similarity is also observed in the consumption function on food and non-food items of non-migrant HHs and is dependent on family size, age of HH head, education of HH head and activity status of HH head. However the consumption function of EMI HHs on food items depends on gender of HH head and age of the HH head.

The significance of gender in EMI HHs can be attributed to the fact that migration has been associated with male migration, and in the absence of a male as HH head the role of women becomes dominant. Further, although migration is of young people (previous studies), one cannot deny the fact that older in age too have added to the stream of exodus. This development has made other members of the HH to take up the responsibility of HH head.

Internal migration has been associated with rural to urban migration and looking at the factors that are significant in internal migrant HHs one can say that rural areas are characterized by poverty, large family size, illiteracy, lack of jobs, etc., and so these features in rural areas have contributed to the movement of people from rural areas to urban areas. Poverty has been one of the many reasons for large family size. Also in rural areas the eldest in the family who is more often than not the HH head is mostly uneducated and with small jobs. Poverty drives migrants away from the rural areas in search of better prospects.

5.9.2 Gini coefficient analysis

Inequality can be defined as disparities, differences and variations in the allocation of income, wealth, consumption and savings between individuals or groups. Inequality measures the distribution of wealth across HHs. It is a relative comparison of the gap in between HHs across a given region, country or the world and is the benchmark to know the welfare of a society or a country. In other words it is an indicator of how material resources are distributed across society. Income and consumption inequality and their relationships are of current economic issues and can be understood as a spontaneous outcome of wealth or wage inequality.

Numerous factors in combination determine the level of inequality in a given country over a period of time. The macroeconomic policies responsible for the inequality trend can be analyzed as fiscal policy, financial sector reforms, investments-foreign or domestic and trade liberalization. The other causes for inequality are profession, education, and place of residence (Mala and Cervena, 2012) and demographic characteristics of families (Johnson and Shipp, 1997).Inequality moreover if it is increasing will undoubtedly be a matter of concern as it will abrade socio-economic and political tensions and lead to appalling diverse outcomes in the economy.

The ensuing analyses examines and highlights the consumption expenditure inequalities on food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs.

The fundamental socio-economic transformation which has taken place in the world at large, India in general and Goa in specific have had an impact on the consumption patterns of Goans. One can see incredible market development. Today's markets have surpassed the traditional factors influencing the demand and supply of goods and services. What with a notable shift in the food consumption patterns which have moved in favour of value-added

products from the traditional items of consumption coupled with greater freedom and a wider choice in consumption decisions. On an average people in Goa spend more towards non-food items than food-items (NSS 63rd) round and that among cereals rice was the major item being consumed in Goa in both urban and rural areas

Table: - 5.7 Summary Statistics of Food and Non-food Expenditure

	MPC Food Expenditure			Non-Food Expenditure (annual)		
HHs	EMI	OMI	NOM	EMI	OMI	NOM
Observations	928	471	4586	928	471	4586
Mean	3893	3774	3462	3479	3885	3180
Standard deviation	1635	1667	1847	3497	4729	3192
Minimum	645	530	364	282	216	62
Maximum	11190	11940	15185	24783	31633	33266

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

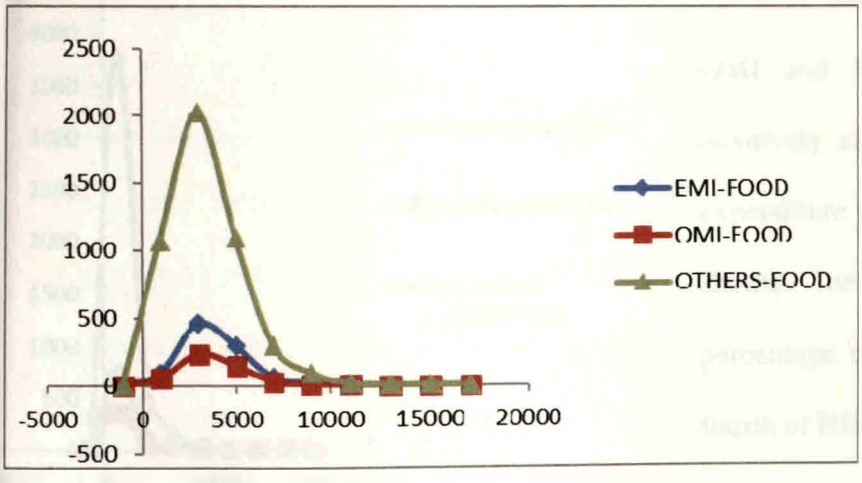
Table- 5.7 reports the summary statistics of food and non-food expenditure of the three groups of HHs. EMI HHs have the Minimum expenditure on food items whereas the maximum MPCE expenditure on food items is the highest in NOM HHs. It is also noticed that amongst the three groups of HHs the minimum annual consumption expenditure on non-food items is the lowest and maximum consumption expenditure on non-food items is highest in NOM HHs. The maximum consumption expenditure on non-food items of EMI HHs is quiet low as compared to the other two types of HHs.

Table:-5.8 Food Expenditure

Consumption expenditure Class Interval	HHs		
	EMI (928)	**OMI 471**	**OTHER 4586**
	Percent	Percent	Percent
0-2000	9.8	10.8	23.3
2000 - 4000	**49.5**	**49.7**	**44.0**
4000 - 6000	31.7	31.0	23.8
6000 - 8000	6.3	6.2	6.4
8000 - 1000	2.2	1.5	2.0
10000 - 12000	0.6	0.8	0.3
12000 - 14000	0	0	0.1
14000-16000	0	0	0.1
Total	100	100.0	100.0

Authors calculations based on 2008 GM

Graph 5.1 Food Expenditure Representation



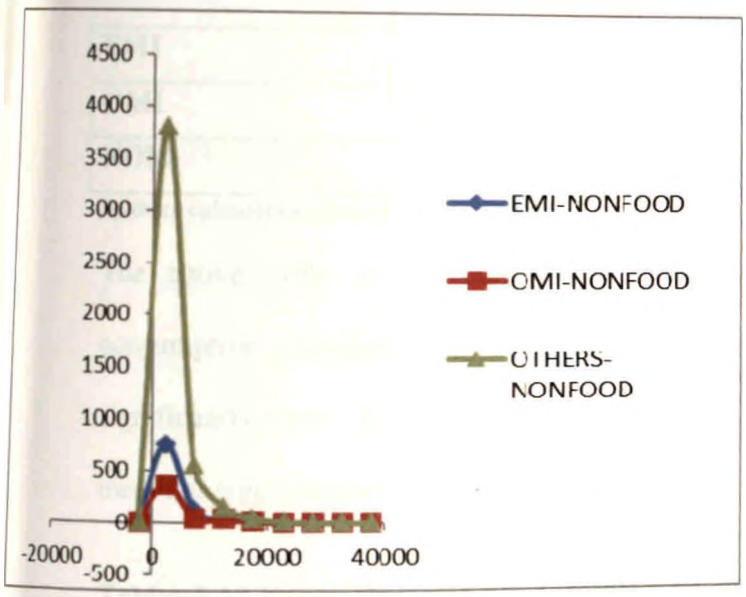
Graph 5.1 represents the frequency curve of food expenditure of international, internal and non-migrant HHs. **Table-5.8** reveals that maximum HHs in all the three groups of HHs incur an MPCE on food which ranges between rupees 2000-4000. Significant number of international and internal migrant HHs has monthly food expenditure ranging between rupees 4000-6000. The frequency curve for food expenditure is positively skewed and is concentrated more towards the rupees 0-6000 range of expenditure in all the three types of HHs.

Table:-5.9 Non-Food Expenditure

Class Interval	EMI 928	OMI 471	OTHER 4586
	Percent	Percent	Percent
0-5000	80.9	77.9	83.1
5000-10000	13.0	8.9	12.3
10000-15000	3.3	8.7	3.3
15000-20000	2.2	3.6	1.0
20000-25000	0.5	0.2	0.3
25000-30000	0	0.4	0
30000-35000	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

Graph 5.2 Non-Food Expenditure Representation



The **Graph 5.2** represents the frequency curve of non-food expenditure of EMI, OMI and NOM HHs. The figure is positively skewed and centered on the expenditure amount of rupees 0-5000. It should be noted that maximum percentage of HHs or more than three-fourth of HHs in all the three groups incur an annual expenditure on non-food items in the group rupees zero to five thousand and very few HHs incur non-food annual expenditure beyond rupees 5,000.

Table:-5.10 Food and Non-Food Expenditure to Total Expenditure (in Percentage)

Migration status	Food	Non-food	Total
EMI	18.26	81.74	100
OMI	9.91	90.09	100
NOM	15.12	84.88	100

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

The above Table-5.10 illustrates food and non-food expenditure to total expenditure. OMI HHs show least expenditure percentage on food items and highest expenditure percentage on non-food items. NOM HHs display a highest percentage on non-food items.

Table:-5.11 Expenditure of certain food items to Total Food Expenditure (in Percentage)

Migration status	Cereals and pulses	Vegetables	Meat/Fish/Egg
EMI	19.41	7.08	12.89
OMI	22.03	7.68	10.94
NOM	19.46	5.35	8.44

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

The above table shows that Goan HHs spend considerably on cereals and pulses consumption although OMI HHs rank first. However the expenditure on vegetables is significantly low. Keeping in mind Goa is a fish eating state the expenditure on meat/fish/egg category is debatably low.

Table:-5.12 Expenditure of Certain Non-Food Items to Total Food Expenditure (in Percentage)

Migration status	Intoxicants	Entertainment	Medical and education	Clothing/footwear/consumer durables
EMI	0.83	0.91	17.38	15.97
OMI	0.47	0.69	12.90	22.36
NOM	0.47	0.60	14.94	14.70

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

The results in **Table 5.12** indicates that the percentage of expenditure on intoxicants and entertainment is quite low beyond expectation. NOM HHs spending on medical and education is lower than the other two groups but on clothing footwear and consumer durables it is much higher compared to the other two groups.

The overall consumption patterns have undergone perceptible changes over the years, moreover during the post-liberalization period. For reasons ranging from demonstration effect to opening up of the economy, individual consumption basket have increased steadily.

5.9.2.1 Food Items

The distribution of consumption expenditure between food and non-food reflects a very important facet of the distribution of economic welfare as consumption expenditure is used as a proxy to determine the HH's economic welfare. Food expenditure is made up of several food and non-food items with diverse distributions and shares. In other words consumption is a main indicator of citizens' wellbeing and food, housing, energy and transport accounting for about half of total HH expenditure. In general it is understood that, poor HHs spend substantially more on food items as against non-food items as can be seen from the study of Grimard (1995) who brings to fore the rural HHs consumption expenditure which is around 69 percent of food budget and is spent on cereals, dairy, edible oils and sugar. The share of expenditure on food items is expected to decline with development and economic prosperity. Cheema and Malik (1985) showed that redistribution of income from rich to the poor HHs will raise the consumption demand for basic necessities like, wheat, pulses, edible oils, clothing and footwear, etc., while the demand for meat, fish and poultry, furniture would decrease. Still one can say that HHs exhibit heterogeneity in consumption-expenditure patterns, and as Pasinetti (1981) notices, "At any given level of per capita income and at any

given price structure, the proportion of income spent by each consumer on any specific commodity may be very different from one commodity to another".

The nature and pattern of food expenditure reflects the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of HHs under deliberation and consumption patterns of HHs depend on factor like assets, level of education, demographic characteristics and occupation. The importance of food consumption lies in the fact that the economic growth and development of both developed and developing countries depends on its (consumption) expenditure and the share of expenditure on food items is expected to decline with development and economic prosperity. Food consumption affects the circular flow of income in the economy due to the various economic activities initiated by this (consumption) activity. Thus it can be said that consumption expenditure has an impact on the macro-economic variables in the economy such as incomes, consumption, savings and investments.

The overall emerging economies have displayed a strong economic and per capita income growth which has led to higher per capita food consumption with changing diets whereby there has been an increase in demand for foods like meat and dairy products at higher prices. In other words with economic and social progression of nations the minimal basket of basic human needs which a society would expect for its citizen is expected to keep on expanding. Rich people derive nutritional energy from meat, fresh vegetables, fruits, eggs, fish and dairy which are considered to be higher-quality diets associated with affluence. Energy-dense diets like refined grains and added fats are nutrient –poor and are preferably consumed by people of lower socio-economic status.

Higher prices even of the basic staples like grains and edible oils is due to rising import bills, rising demand, changing tastes and preferences and conspicuous consumption. Higher food prices affect every section of the society which can be classified as: poor HHs, middle

class HHs, upper class HHs, profit and non-profit organizations and governments. Higher food prices have forced the vulnerable to reduce their nutritional intake and defer expenditure on important items like health and education. Also rising food import bills tend to deflate the country's revenue collection thereby disturbing the fiscal situation in an economy.

Expenditure on different categories of food show different paths of growth in an economy. Significant changes in consumer spending on durable and luxury goods can be an important economic indicator. According to the Engel's Law, the HH budget spent on food decreases as income increases in other words with a rise in income, the proportion of income spent on food declines. Richer community tends to spend lesser proportion of income on food than the poor community. It can also be understood as that a higher propensity of HHs experiencing increasing income spend a bigger proportion of the food budget on a diversified diet. Thus Engel's law states that poorer a family, larger is the budget share on nourishment.

Consequently every human being for sustenance has to consume a balanced diet consisting of carbohydrates, fats, proteins, vitamins, etc. which are derived from various sources of food supply. It is understood that the rich and the poor have a different basket of goods consumed over time, which depends on availability and prices. In other words there are major differences in the combination of the food items that each group (rich and poor) purchase. The rich have a much wider choice in increasing the bundle of durable goods which is purchased over time and so they enjoy a high degree of need satisfaction. The poor on the other hand sometimes struggle even for mere necessities and use a number of economizing practices in their grocery shopping (Leibtag and Kaufman, 2003).

However as incomes rise, consumption expenditure pattern also undergo changes. That is when individuals/HHs move from a very low income level to a lower-middle income level a 'threshold effect' is experienced wherein demand changes very rapidly. The change in demand is apparent in change in diet and bad habits (increase in consumption of alcohol and tobacco), increased spending on housing, health, social protection, insurance, financial services, furnishing and appliances (air conditioners) which in turn increases expenditure on fuel and maintenance of the appliances (Ward and Neumann, 2012).

Amir and Bilal, (2012) found that poor people consume more of necessities and rich people consume more of luxuries as their income increase. To add further consumption expenditure of the poor is affected by the seasonal availability, as some food items rich in certain minerals and vitamins are available seasonally and off-season expensive purchase is beyond a poor man's reach. Ultimately consumption depends on durability of goods purchased and the need it satisfies and accordingly goods are identified and classified.

However cereals in the list of food items constitute the largest share of the HH food basket. Cereals considered to be poor man's diet have a different story in developed country like America. As reported by Rajghatta (2013), "What's cheap food for the poor in India is healthy and expensive nutrition for the rich in the west. India's cheapest grains, ignored, disdained, and disappearing in much of the country, are now much sought after cereals in America. They are priced some 500 times more than what New Delhi will supply its poor under the food security legislation".

Pulses (arhar, urad, moong, gram, kesar, etc.) pulses are a rich source of proteins and constitute a main part in Indian diet only second to cereals. The demand for pulses is due to its nutritive value especially for the rural community to fill up dietary deficiencies. It is also used in animal feeds as a source of protein and starch. The left over after harvest of pulses

provide for various domestic purposes. Thus cereals and pulse production and consumption are important in maintaining food security and prices. Today cereals and pulses are used by the MNCs in the production of breakfast diets like kellogs etc. This can lead to an increase in the prices of pulses and cereals.

Tea is the most important brew for the poor HHs while both Tea and Coffee are main beverages for the richer HHs.

Agbola (2000) indicates that milk and non-foods are luxury goods, while pulses, cereals, edible oil, meats, fruits and vegetables and other foods are necessities in the Indian diet and that any increase in future expenditure the largest percentage will be allocated to non-foods, followed by cereal, other foods, milk, fruits and vegetables, edible oil, pulses and meats, in that order. Radhakrishna and Ravi (1990) on the other hand says that milk and non-foods are luxury products for rural dwellers, while non-food items are a luxury product for urban dwellers. Unlike Kumar et al. (1994) who found that non-food items are luxury product for both rural and urban dwellers.

Fruits contribute substantially to the nutritional requirements of a balanced diet as they are rich sources of carbohydrates, fiber, minerals and vitamins. The determinants of HH expenditure on fruits and vegetables are (1) HH income and age-sex composition (2) region (3) population density or degree of urbanization (4) earner composition (5) education of the HH manager (6) race of the HH head and (7) food stamp participation It is found that lower income HHs consume smaller amounts of fruits and vegetables than higher income HHs and purchase lower quality of fruits and vegetables or even buy processed fruits and vegetables, if they are less expensive. Blisard et al., (2004) in their study indicates that marginal increase in income of low-income HHs does not lead to additional expenditure on fruits and vegetables rather they allocate the additional incomes on other food and non-food items such

as meat, clothing, or housing. In contrast increase in incomes of higher income HHs does increase the expenditure on fruits and vegetables.

The impact of current income movements cause no changes in the total consumption of non-durable goods and services or in several subcategories of consumption (Dejuan and Seater, 1998) and expenditure on food items like on rice, fish and meat was not highly responsive to changes in HHs' incomes (Gheblawi and Sherif, 2007).

Table: - 5.13 Gini Co-efficient for Food Items

Food items	EMI HHs	OMI HHs	NON HHs
Cereals and substitutes	0.66	0.66	0.67
Pulses and pulse products	0.74	0.71	0.73
Milk and milk products	0.67	0.69	0.69
Edible oils and vanaspati (coconut oil, gingely oil, ground nut oil, palm oil, soya bean oil, sunflower oil, mustard oil, etc)	0.56	0.55	0.58
Fruits (banana, apple, guava, mango, etc.)	0.61	0.61	0.67
Egg, fish and meat	0.70	0.70	0.72
Condiments and spices (dry chilies, coriander, jeera, pepper, cardamon, turmeric, curry powder, masala powder, salt, sugar, etc	0.72	0.71	0.70
Tea, coffee, bournvita, complain, horlicks, etc	0.71	0.71	0.72
Other food items like bakery products, processed food items and Ready to eat food items like procured from eateries, hotels and restaurants	0.70	0.71	0.74
All food items (all of the above)	0.61	0.61	0.64

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

Tables- 5.13 and 5.14 provide important information on estimates of sub-indices on food and non-food items and the inequality-adjustment factors for the three groups of HHs- international, internal and non-migrant. International migrant HHs are mostly considered as

richer HHs due to the receipt of remittances from abroad. Usually these HHs are placed in the higher level of socio-economic status. The Gini Coefficient results for the international migrant HHs indicate a high consumption inequality for food items like cereals and cereal substitutes, milk and milk products, vegetables and fruits. This is followed by higher inequality in the consumption of food items like pulses and pulse products, egg, fish, meat, condiments and spices, tea, coffee, bournvita, complain, horlicks and for food items like bakery products and processed food items ready to eat food items (i.e., items procured from eateries, hotels and restaurants). Consumption of edible oil and vanaspati show a reasonable equality trend. Interestingly the same tendency in consumption inequality is observed in the other two groups of HHs i.e., internal migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs except for vegetables which have high inequality in non-migrant HHs compared to the other two groups of HHs. Thus comparing food item consumption across the three groups of HHs, equality is observed only on edible oil and vanaspati consumption remaining all the food items in the sub-indices of food show high inequality in consumption. In other words the Gini-coefficient for consumption disparity shows a relative inequality in the distribution of consumption expenditure on food items among HHs in all the three groups of HHs.

5.9.2.2 Non-Food Items

Consumer expenditure on non-food items can be better understood from the point of view of rural-urban divide. In general it is understood than the urban consumers are the potential buyers of variety of goods.

In the fuel item Kerosene oil is a major fuel in the entire rural India as well as for poor HHs even in urban segments and LPG is the major fuel item for richer HHs. Pachauri and Jiang (2008) remarks that the switch from fuel wood or dung to LPG or kerosene is positively correlated to income. But studies by (Vishwanathan and Kumar, 2005; Gundimeda and

Kohlin, 2008; Rao and Reddy, 2007; Pachauri and Jiang, 2008) lists various exogenous variation which affect the supply-side usage of fuels which is beyond the control of individual HHs. They are improved distribution networks and availability of commercial fuels, deforestation, loss of access to common property resources, acquisition of forest land for mining, industrial and infrastructural projects, and changing opportunity costs of women's time due to increased availability of non-farm employment. Using modern energy of fuel is an indication of improved living standard or it can be said that as HHs become richer they tend to switch to more efficient, suitable and cleaner energy sources. However Komives K et.al 2005 found in their study that per capita total energy use is essentially constant across income classes. Further they added that HHs at higher income levels tend to use less lower-efficiency fuels such as wood and charcoal and more of higher-energy value modern fuels such as electricity and Liquefied Petroleum Gas and per capita electricity use among middle-income HHs is double than that of low-income HHs.

The consumption of pan, tobacco and alcohol on the list of non-food depend on the socio-economic background of individuals and the transition to upper- middle class. The NSS 63rd round saw a small portion of population in India using pan and tobacco. Giang et al. (2013) study states that the share of alcohol expenditure in total HH expenditure is substantial, especially among poor HHs and is determined by price and non-price factors which are income, region, education, HH demographics, number of children (18 and below) and age of HH head (Yen and Jensen, 1995). Expenditure on intoxicants is considered by some economists as a problem of low-level poverty trap as low income people do not know how to optimally spend their income and as a result many low-income families spend more on intoxicants than on health and education. As a result the price responses of alcohol demand

are essential in policy implications, in promoting tax revenues and controlling consumption through taxes (Ornstein, 1980).

Health and education are not necessarily public or fully private goods within HHs and HH expenditure on these two non-food items is considered to be an investment in human capital. If health and education services are provided by the respective governments than HH spending on other HH food/non-food items will increase. But even if governments asserts about free education Tilak (2002) asserts that there is nothing like 'free' education and that HHs expenditure on education is sizeable which consists of books, uniforms and fees (examination and other fees). Sen and Sekhar (2007) study finds that on an average a person spends around nine and eight per cent of his/her income on health expenditure from his/her own pocket in rural and urban areas respectively. Studies have shown that income and education have positive influence on health expenditure and as HHs become economically better off, their share of education expenditure gradually rises in the bottom and top HHs. However Sen and Sekhar (2007) indicate that income of the HH has significant influence on health expenditure whereas the effect of education is insignificant. Further the study states that as disposable income of the HH increases, individual takes more care of his life, hence health expenditure increases but at a particular level of income, due to high life risk, health expenditure becomes independent of income and perfectly elastic, which is termed as "High Life Risk Path (HLRP)". The other determinants of HH health expenditure are HH income and the educational level of the head of the HH (more important than the rest), demographic burden of the HH (size of the HH), caste and religion (Tilak, 2002).

According to OECD factbook-2009 recreation and culture which is maintained by government comprises 'Government expenditures which includes administration on sporting, recreational and cultural affairs as well as the maintenance of zoos, botanical

gardens, public beaches and parks; support for broadcasting services and, where present, support for religious, fraternal, civic, youth and other social organizations (including the operation and repair of facilities and payment to clergy and other officers.) Also included are grants to artists and arts companies. Capital outlays such as the construction of sports stadiums, public swimming pools, national theatres, opera houses and museums are included'. In general, percentages of GDP spent on recreation and culture are positively correlated with per capita income - the richer the country, the higher the percentage expenditure on culture and recreation.

Another item on non-food list which have gained importance in recent years have been items of personal care and toilet articles. Consumers have been spending higher levels of disposable income on cosmetics than they had in the past. Although there are some exceptions, generally speaking, for all products higher the HH income, higher has been the spending percentage on these products. In other words generation Y has really entered the job market and has become a big driver of the cosmetic, clothing, footwear and accessories market but the HH expenditure on these items along with income depends on life stage of a person

The knowledge of transport expenditure gains importance when it comes to passenger transport policy formulation which in turn will help in travel conditions and improving social equity. Better public transport reduces the burden of private cars and vehicles.

It is a proven fact that everyone whether poor, middle-class or rich devote a huge chunk of their budget on housing. Ownership of a house in an urban area indicates the economic status of urban population. The money saved on rent can be used for other purposes. And expenditure on miscellaneous goods depends upon other things on the gender of HH heads.

What is the impact of HH expenditure on food and non-food items due tofood security intervention schemes like-The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), Public Distribution System (PDS) and the Mid Day Meal (MDM)? The NSS report No 537(66/10/1) states that 'MGNREGS seems to have contributed to the reduction in food consumption inequity in rural Rajasthan in 2009–10, and has the potential of making a similar contribution with higher level of implementation of this programme in other states'. More and recent research on the role of the MGNREGA has confirmed that the scheme is not only influencing wage rates, but is also creating job opportunities in the non-farm sector in rural areas. The PDS provides sugar, edible oils and kerosene, food-grains, mainly rice and wheat, to the public via a network of Fair Price Shops (FPS) at subsidized rates. The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education or the mid-day meal (MDM) programme was initiated to alleviate social inequalities carried forward through the hierarchical division of society, or "resilience of social structures" (D'Souza, 1990) and it was thought that social inequalities can be reduced through education. It is a much proved fact that as HH wealth decreases child labour increases and enrollment in schools also decreases (Canagarajah and Coulombe, 1997). Therefore the MDM scheme was an incentive to improve the educational base through enrollment and retention and also to increase nutritional needs and reduce child labour which would ultimately cut the cycle of poverty which is other-wise carried on from generations to generations. A positive impact of MDM scheme has been reported by Garg and Mandal (2013) that parents of most of the children belonging to the disadvantaged groups cited that MDM is an important influential factor for their schooling decisions and that they consider MDM as a subsidy for the schooling costs, which they incur to send their children to school regularly. The MDM

scheme has also helped in creating additional source of revenue opportunities to the villagers who contribute in its implementation.

Expenditures on food and non-food items are a result of HH-level decision-making process. Basu and Basole (2014) contends that these decisions take place in the larger context of structural changes in the economy such as loss of access to common property resources, decline in livelihood options in rural areas, increasing informalization of the labour market and changes in the supply of social services by the State, all of which can affect expenditures on healthcare, education, fuel, transportation, and other services. A shift in consumption patterns from food to non-food items as pointed by Sarada (2014) depends on higher social developments, increase in urbanization, breaking up of joint family system, desire for quality food, increase in per capita income, the higher level of education, change in life style and increasing the level of affluence in the middle income and the (NSSO Kerala, 2011) reveals that consumer expenditure has shown a shift from food to non-food items due to number of indigenous and cultural factors. With an increase in HH income consumers devote more towards health, social protection, and insurance. Consumer expenditure on food and non-food items is vital as it reveals the state of a region/country in terms of level of poverty. According to World Development Report (2000/2001), poverty implies lack of adequate food and shelter, deprivations that keep them away from a decent standard of living, i.e. better housing, sanitation, access to safe drinking water and so on. The distribution of consumption expenditure between food and non-food items in a country reveals the economic well-being of its population. In general, poor HHs are likely to spend substantially more on food items compared to non-food items and exhibit a higher income elasticity of demand for food than does the rest of the population (Saul et al., 1975). Low-income countries spend a greater part of their budget/incomes on necessities' than wealthier

countries do. The allocation of HH expenditure on food is 70% in a poor HH in both rural and urban Bangladesh. This indicates the welfare function of HHs and countries. The share of expenditure on food items is expected to decline with economic development and prosperity. State plays a major role in assessing the HH expenditure on food as well as non-food items. The distribution of consumption expenditure between food and non-food items reflects the economic well-being of the population.

Table-5.14 Gini - Coefficient for Non-Food Items

Non-food items	EMI HHs	OMI HHs	NOM HHs
Pan, tobacco, cigarettes, bidi, etc.	0.68	0.63	0.71
Intoxicants (liquor, country liquor, arrack, fenny, beer, rum and similar products)	0.64	0.62	0.63
Personal care and toilet articles (toothpaste, brush, powder, soap, hair oil, shampoo, deodorants	0.70	0.72	0.73
Consumer services (include domestic servant, grinding charges, tailoring charging, ironing services and other similar expenses	0.80	0.77	0.78
Entertainment(cinema, picnic, sports, video, cable charges, etc)	0.65	0.65	0.67
Sundry items (spectacles, umbrella, torch, lighter, etc)	0.68	0.71	0.71
Travel and conveyance (train/bus fare, petrol/diesel expenses, taxi/auto hiring charges)	0.67	0.68	0.69
News-paper, books and periodicals	0.70	0.72	0.73
Fuel (firewood, charcoal, gas, kerosene, etc.)	0.75	0.78	0.77
Light (electricity, kerosene, etc.)	0.67	0.70	0.72
Rent and taxes (house rent, telephone rent, consumer services, taxes, water charges, mobile prepaid/ post-paid coupons, property tax, etc.)	0.77	0.82	0.73
Medical expenses (cost of medicines, doctors fee, diagnostic tests, hospitalization expenses, etc.)	0.83	0.76	0.84
Education expenses (tuition fee, books, school bags, private tuition, hostel fees and all other related expenses)	0.75	0.80	0.78
Clothing and foot wear	0.80	0.80	0.79
Consumer durables (expenses for purchase of utensils, fan, mixie, cooker, furniture items and similar HH durables)	0.84	0.77	0.82
other non-food expenses (pocket money, internet browsing charges)	0.64	0.63	0.68
All non-food expenses	0.72	0.54	0.72

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

Table-5.14 explores the disparity in equivalent consumption expenditure and provides estimated values of Gini-coefficient for non-food consumption expenditure in the three groups of HHs. A quick glance at the table discloses that almost all items on the non-food item list show a high inequality trend. EMI HHs exhibit high inequality (0.8) for more non-food item followed by OMI and then by NOM HHs. Inequality is highest for medical expenses, clothing and foot wear, consumer durables, consumer services, education, rent and taxes, fuel, newspaper, personal care and toilet articles in EMI HHs. Non-food items like pan, intoxicants, entertainment, sundry items, travel and conveyance, light and other non-food expenditure also show inequality of more than 0.5 units. OMI HHs show highest inequality in non-food items like rent, education and clothing and footwear followed by personal care, light, consumer services, newspaper, sundry items, fuel, medical expenses and consumer durables. Pan, intoxicants, entertainment, travel and conveyance and other non-food expenses show relatively less inequality. NOM HHs has the highest inequality for medical expenses and consumer durables. Personal care, pan, light, consumer services, newspaper, sundry items, fuel, rent, education and clothing and footwear have slightly lower inequality compared to the above. Intoxicants, entertainment, travel and conveyance and other non-food expenses have around 0.6 units of inequality. The above analysis shows that there is inequality within the three groups of HHs.

5.9.3 LORENZ CURVE ANALYSIS

To examine as to what proportion of wealth is owned by the poor, middle class and affluent population, Lorenz curve have been derived for food and non-food items for the three groups of HHs. The Lorenz curve is used to measure income/expenditure inequality and represents income distribution graphically. It looks into the income distribution and compares this to a state of perfect income equality. As a result the present study looks into

the monthly per capita consumption expenditure on food items and yearly per capita consumption expenditure on non-food items as a measure of living standard in Goa. The Lorenz curve shows for the bottom 100x% of HHs, what percentage 100y% of the total monthly per capita consumption expenditure they incur. A perfectly equivalent income/expenditure distribution in a society would be the one in which every person has an equal share in income/expenditure. That is to say that the bottom 100N% of society has 100N% of the income/expenditure. Thus a perfectly equal distribution of income/expenditure can be shown by the straight line y = x; which is called the line of perfect equality or the 45° line.

Mathematically, a Lorenz curve is a method for graphically representing the cumulative distribution function. For any distribution, the Lorenz curve $L_{(p)}$ for bottom x proportion of population is defined as:-

$$L(x) = \int_0^x Q(z)\, d(z) \Big/ \int_0^1 Q(z)\, d(z)$$

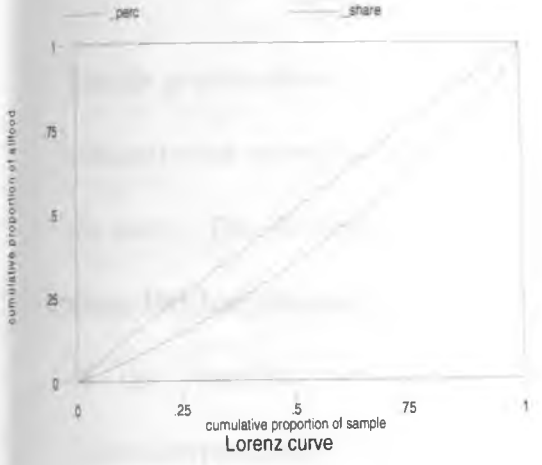
$$= \frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x Q(z) d(z)$$

The numerator $\int_0^x Q(z) d(z)$ sums the incomes/expenditures of the bottom x proportion (the poorest 100x %) of the population and the denominator sums the incomes/expenditures of all. Since population size is normalized to 1, the denominator gives average income μ. L(x) thus indicates the cumulative percentage of total income/ expenditure held by a cumulative proportion x of the population, when individuals are ordered in increasing values of their income/expenditure. For instance, if L (0.5) = 0.3, then we know that the 50% poorest individuals hold 30% of the total income in a population. For population with more evenly distributed income the Lorenz curve is closer to the income/expenditure equality curve and vice-versa.

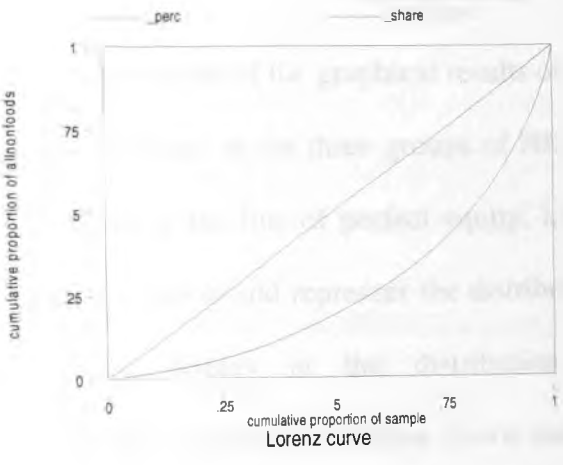
Graphical Representation of Lorenz Curve of Total Food and Total Non –Food Expenditure of the Three Groups of HHs

The ensuing Lorenz curves explains the inequalities in food and non-food expenditure in the three groups of HHs in Goa

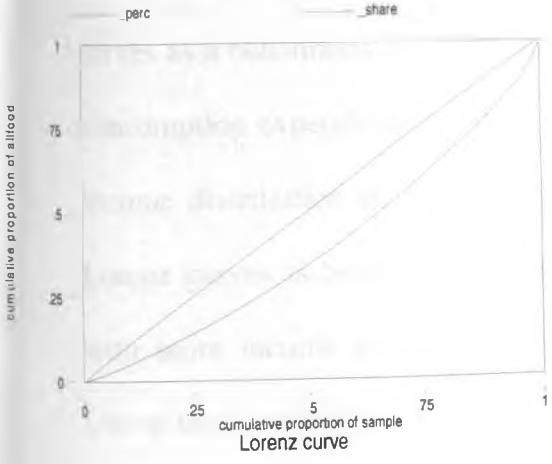
Graph 5.3 LC of EMI HHs Food Expenditure



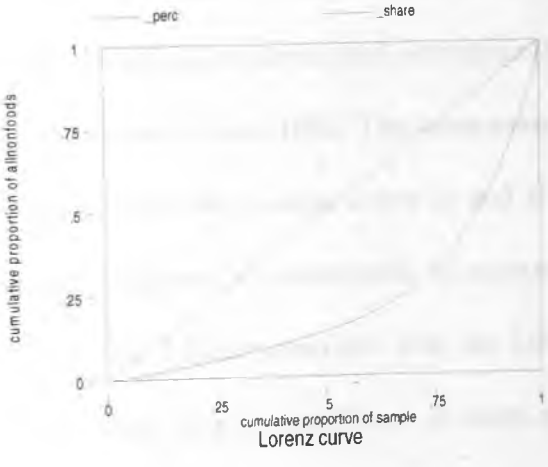
Graph 5.4 LC of EMI HHs Non- Food Expenditure



Graph 5.5 LC of OMI HHs Food Expenditure



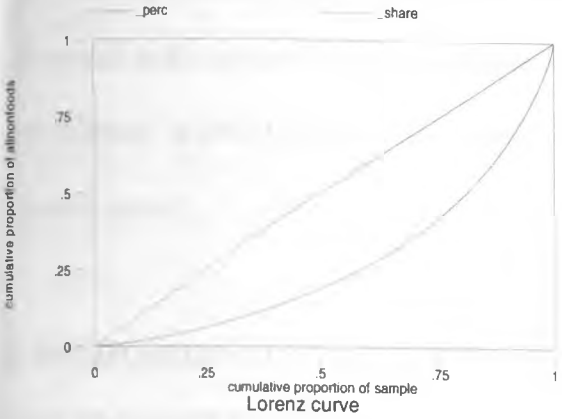
Graph 5.6 LC of OMI HHs Non- Food Expenditure



Graph 5.7 LC of NOM HHs

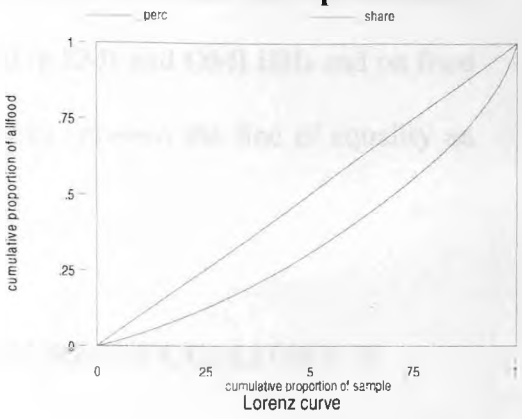
HHs

Food Expenditure



Graph 5.8 LC of NOM

Non- Food Expenditure



The six graphs above provide a guideline for interpretation of the graphical results of the concentration curve analysis of food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs in the study. The 45 degree line in the above figures is the line of perfect equity, i.e. if every HH had identical income or expenditure this line would represent the distribution of the variable across the population. Any display in the distribution of income/expenditure would result in the cumulative income/distribution curve caving downwards from the 45-degree line. The curve titled "cumulative expenditure" represents the cumulative expenditure curve as in the case in this particular study. This serves as a benchmark for comparing different concentration curves and determining the consumption expenditure on food and non-food items in Goan HHs. The more even the income distribution is, the closer to a 45-degree line the Lorenz curve is and if the Lorenz curves is bowed further away from this diagonal, it corresponds to economies with more income inequality. Graphs 5.3, 5.5 and 5.8 demonstrates that the Lorenz Curve tends towards the equi-distribution line. This implies that there is more even distribution of consumption expenditure on food items in international and internal migrant HHs and on non-food items in non-migrant HHs. In other words the above stated graphs can also be understood that incomes are less dispersed or there is little variability in incomes.

The Lorenz curve however is more away from the line of equality in figures 5.4, 5.6 and 5.7 showing that there is consumption expenditure inequality or that incomes are more dispersed as far as non-food expenditure is concerned in EMI and OMI HHs and on food expenditure in NOM HHs. (Gini coefficient is the area between the line of equality an Lorenz curve)

5.10 HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE INEQUALITIES: A DECOMPOSITION ANALYSIS

The objective of this section is to decompose the inequality in HH consumption expenditure in Goa in order to measure the contribution of inequality within the three groups of HHs in the State.

Table:-5.15 Percentile Ratio

Migration status	FOOD				NON-FOOD			
decile dispersion ratio	P90/p10	P90/p50	P10/p50	P75/p25	P90/p10	P90/p50	P10/p50	P75/p25
EMI	3.15	1.67	0.53	1.77	10.02	4.26	0.42	3.38
OMI	3.35	1.70	0.50	1.79	35.36	16.00	0.45	4.99
NOM	4.59	1.97	0.43	2.14	13.25	5.45	0.41	3.08

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

Table -5.16 Generalized Entrophy Indices

Migration status	FOOD			NON-FOOD		
	GE(0) Theil's (L)	GE(1) Theil's (T)	Gini coefficient	GE(0) Theil's (L)	GE(1) Theil's (T)	Gini coefficient
EMI	0.79	2.77	0.61	1.23	3.04	0.78
OMI	0.79	2.43	0.62	1.74	2.89	0.85
NOM	0.84	3.59	0.64	1.26	3.84	0.78

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

The α value of Theil's (T) index in **Table-5.16** for food as well as non-food expenditure is high meaning high levels of inequality in all the three types of HHs. Theil (L), Theil

(T) and Gini coefficient indicate highest inequality in NOM HHs, followed by OMI HHs and then by EMI HHs for food expenditure. In non-food expenditure highest inequality is seen in OMI and NOM HHs followed by EMI HHs.

Table -5.17 Atkinson Indices

Migration status	FOOD			NON-FOOD		
	A(0.5)	A(1)	A(2)	A(0.5)	A(1)	A(2)
EMI	0.49	0.54	0.66	0.60	0.70	0.81
OMI	0.48	0.55	0.77	0.68	0.82	0.91
NOM	0.52	0.57	0.65	0.61	0.71	0.82

Authors calculations based on 2008 GMS

In the above **Table- 5.17** the overall Atkinson Indices are shown as quiet high in all the three groups of HHs for both food and non-food consumption expenditure. But they appear to be the highest and therefore more sensitive to inequalities for NOM HHs and EMI HHs are concerned for food expenditure and non-food expenditure respectively. EMI HHs show lower value and thus less sensitive to inequalities for both food and non-food expenditures compared to the other two groups of HHs.

5.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter provides a detail theoretical background on the consumption function and the determinants of consumption expenditure and seeks to understand their role in determining the consumption expenditure function on food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs. The variables analyzed are HH family size, gender of HH head, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head which are found to influence consumption expenditure on food and non-food items in EMI, OMI and NOM HHs in different proportion.

Goa is India's richest state with a Gross Domestic Product per capita two and a half times that of the country as a whole. Several explanations qualify for the excellent performance of the State which are as follows:-

⇒ Most families in Goa have become dual-income families due to the entry of women in labour force,

⇒ The development of cities like Bangalore, Bombay, Hyderabad, etc., with high paying jobs and free movement of people have induced many to look forward in making a productive career in other states and

⇒ The ease in going abroad has increased the purchasing power and has made it a consumer driven economy.

One cannot ignore the impact of colossal international migration and remittances on Goan economy which have made many Goans conspicuous buyers. The effect of which is seen on the inflation rate which is high compared to neighboring States. In other words Goa has experienced a superior performance of private consumption and wage growth. To add further an analysis of the 2011 population census revealed that Goa topped the country in HH quality of life index at 16.2. This index is defined by a combination of basic amenities, quality of housing and ownership of assets. The census established Goans as being India's biggest electricity consumers (96.9 per cent), LPG users (89.9 per cent) and computer owners (31.1 per cent).

Further the above analysis also shows a high level of inequality in the respective HHs group in all the three categories. For example high inequality exists in EMI HHs as far as food expenditure is concerned. Likewise it is seen in all the other groups of HHs for both food and non-food expenditure. The earning capacity of any migrant in destination country depends on his/her education and level of skills. Out-migration of Goans has been of highly educated, highly skilled, to illiterate, semi-skilled and low/or with no skills. Accordingly the gains from migration have been profiteering many and at the same time have sustained others for mere subsistence.

Non-migrant HHs too experiences a disparity in their earning capacity again depending upon number of years of attainment of education and type of job. Many upper-class

Goans during the Portuguese regime were exposed to educational facilities, which facilitated in human resource development and enabled them to secure white –collar jobs in the State. However even today there exists few HHs in Goa whose members are first generation learners'. Thus it is evident that there is income inequality in non-migrant HHs as well.

Although high level of income inequality affects social stability and macroeconomic growth, the social infrastructure (like educational, health facilities, etc., and different schemes[1] for vulnerable Goans) available in Goa, to some extent compensates for the loss of incomes.

To conclude in any society food is the major item of expenditure. Consequently the food security bill becomes important when it comes to overall HH expenditure, if the food security bill, Public Distribution System and mid-day schemes are implemented appropriately it will free up resources to benefit the people particularly the poor to spend on other essential goods and services especially on nutritious food, health and education.

Notes

1. Government of Goa department of social welfare (Schemes)
   - Schemes For Schedule Caste And Other Backward Community
   - Schemes For Dhangar Community
   - Schemes Under Social Defense
   - Schemes For Senior Citizens
   - Schemes For Differently Abled Persons and
   - Schemes -General

CHAPTER- 6

SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER-SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTERS AND MAIN FINDINGS

The study was intended to explore the convolutions of migration- internal as well as international, the factors responsible for migration and the consumption expenditure inequalities in Goan HHs. It sought to know whether migration can result in effective elevation of HHs to a better standard of living, the differences in expenditures on different items (food as well as non-food) of everyday consumption and consumption expenditure inequalities if any in the three groups of HHs observed in Goa. In other words the study has tried to answer three important questions regarding Goa, moreover w.r.t the three types of HHs identified by the GMS-2008 vis-à-vis migration from the state.

a. Which have been the factors that have affected migration from the state?
b. Is there any difference in the HH characteristics between the three groups (EMI, OMI and NOM) of HHs? and
c. What are the determinants of consumption expenditure (food as well as non-food) and whether there are any inequalities in the consumption expenditure amongst the three groups of HHs, and if there exists, to what extent.

The study is based on secondary data which is cross-sectional and titled 'Goa Migration Study -2008'. The all-inclusive study is organized in six chapters, the summarization of which is as follows:-

Introductory chapter deals with the specifics on migration concepts -like the types of migration, reasons for migration, push-pull factors and consequence of migration. It presents a brief history on migration trajectories of Goa and confers upon the basic

requirements of the chapter like the statement of the research problem, objectives, scope, relevance, limitations of the study, data and methodology.

The **Second chapter** evaluates the vast literature on the topic of migration. As the research is based on internal as well as international migration, literature is reviewed distinctly on the determinants of internal as well as international migration. The effects of internal and international migration are appraised under one topic as there are lots of similarities in the consequences in the two (internal and international) types of migration. The factors leading to the choice between internal or international migration has also been an important aspect in the assessment.

Further, the chapter deals with consumption expenditure and assesses the impact of remittances on consumption expenditure patterns of migrant and non-migrant HHs. Finally the observations of the entire literature review are noted point-wise and the difference between present research with respect to other studies is perceived specifically.

Chapter three titled 'Factors Affecting International Migration of Goans' traces a fleeting history on factors that have affected Goan Migration. The individual characteristics like age, gender, educational status, activity status, marital status and relationship with the head of Goans as determinants/factors affecting internal as well as international migration are explored in detail. The multinomial logistic regression which has been used in the study has tried to examine the log likelihood of the above mentioned factors in affecting internal as well as international migration of Goans. The model has classified every Goan as internal migrants, international migrants and non-migrants based on the Goa Migration Study-2008.

'An Analysis of HH Characteristics of Migrant and Non-Migrant Goan HHs' is the title of **chapter four.** The HH characteristics analyzed are HH size, number of males above eighteen, number of females above eighteen and number of children between zero to seventeen years and the HH head characteristics investigated are age, gender, educational attainment and activity status of HH head. The study attempted to understand if there is any association between migration status (EMI, OMI and NOM HHs) and all the above mentioned HH and HH head characteristics. Comprehensive statistical tools like anova, post hoc and chi-square tests are applied to test the hypotheses related to HH characteristics and HH head characteristics respectively.

Fifth chapter deals with the consumption expenditure and inequality analysis in migrant and non-migrant HHs in Goa. The determinants of consumption expenditure on food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs are investigated in detail. The factors analyzed as determinants of consumption expenditure are family size, gender of HH head, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head.

In addition, inequality considerations are looked into through analyzing the consumption expenditure on various food and non-food items in the three different groups of HHs. A simple linear regression model is used to define the consumption expenditure equation for the three groups of HHs, for food and non-food consumption expenditure also decomposition analysis is done and an interlinked equivalent-Lorenz Curve and the Gini Coefficient is used to understand the welfare of the Goan society.

Chapter six is the last chapter in the analysis and includes summary, findings and conclusions of all the chapters. It also states the importance of the study, recommendations and proposes wide scope for future research.

The expansive chapter-wise outcome that has resulted from the study is as follows:

I) The analysis on factors affecting migration reveals that-

1. Age decreases the likelihood of being an international as well as internal migrant and is significant at one percent in both the cases.
2. As far as gender is concerned females compared to males decrease the odds of being an international as well as internal migrant and is significant at one percent in both the types of migration.
3. Increase in the number of schooling years (educational level) increases the log likelihood of being and international as well as an internal migrant. And all levels of schooling are significant at one percent in both the internal as well as international migration.
4. As for activity status all the categories of employment i.e., regular private jobs, self-employed, casual workers, unemployed and not in labour force increases the odds of international migration and is significant at one percent.
5. However occupational status like being in regular private jobs, self-employed and unemployed increase the probability of internal migration whereas casual workers and not in labour force decreases the odds of internal migration. Regular private jobs and self-employed is significant at one percent, not in labour force is significant at five percent, and casual and unemployed is not significant in case of internal migration.
6. In marital status variable unmarried and divorced Goans decreases the odds of international migration, whereas widowed and separated increases the odds of international migration. Here unmarried are significant at one percent, widowed at five percent and the last two categories of divorced and separated are not significant at all.

7. Unmarried, widowed, divorced and separated i.e., all categories of marital status increase the probability of internal migration. Widowed is significant at one percent, unmarried and separated are significant at five percent, divorced is not significant at all.

8. Unmarried children and grandchildren decrease the odds of international migration. Husband/wife, married children, sister-in–law/daughter-in-law and father-in-law/mother-in-law increase the log likelihood of international migration and all the important categories except servant and others are significant at one percent.

9. Husband/wife, unmarried children, married children, sister-in–law/daughter-in-law, grandchildren and even servant decreases the log likelihood of internal migration compared to non-migrants and only father-in-law/mother-in-law increases the log likelihood of internal migration. Unmarried children, married children, grand-children and others are significant at one percent. Sister-in–law/daughter-in-law and father-in-law/mother-in-law are significant at five percent. Servant category is not significant at all

10. Although majority of HH heads in all the three groups of HHs belong to the age group of 45-60 years, HH heads are also found in the youngest age group of 17-30 years moreover in NOM HHs.

II) The Goans HH characteristics and HH head characteristics are as follows-

11. HH heads of 60 years and above is a noteworthy figure with internal migrant HHs (OMI) having the highest number of HH heads in this age group.

12. Educational attainment of HH heads shows that HH heads with high school level are in majority in international and internal migrant HHs.

13. Non-migrant HHs have illiterate HH heads in majority. Illiterate HH heads is also an important figure in the other two types of HHs.

14. A small number of HH heads in Goa who have attained post-graduation.

15. Most of the HH heads in all the three types of HHs are either employed in private sector, or are self-employed or pensioners or too old to work.

16. Maximum number of HH heads in international migrants HHs performs HH work (economic activity). It is even higher when compared to the other two types of HHs.

17. The study is in conformity with the conventional belief that male is the HH head, though female headed HHs is a significant figure in international migrant HHs.

18. The different tests (anova, chi-square and post hoc) conducted show that there is significant difference in most of the HH and HH head characteristic mostly at one percent level of significance

19. P-value is significant at five percent for number of adult females in OMI and NOM groups and number of children and EMI and OMI group (post hoc test).

20. There is no significant difference between the means in age of HH head and the groups international migrant HH (EMI) and internal migrant HH (OMI) (pos hoc test) and

21. Internal migrant HHs head age and sex ratio are significant at five per cent level of significance (chi-square test).

III) Significant factors with respect to consumption expenditure are as follows-

22. The determinants of consumption expenditure or the explanatory variables that are significant for ***food*** expenditure in the three groups of HHs are as follows:-

- Gender of HH head and age of HH head in EMI HHs.
- Family size and educational status and activity status in OMI HHs and.

- Family size, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head in NOM HHs.

23. The determinants of consumption expenditure or the explanatory variables that are significant for ***non-food*** expenditure in the three groups of HHs are as follows:-

- Family size, gender of HH head, age of HH head and educational status of HH head in EMI HHs.
- Family size, Educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head in OMI HHs and.
- Family size, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head in NOM HHs.

24. The determinants of food and non-food expenditure for NOM HHs are the same i.e. they are family size, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head

25. The inequality investigation shows that there is high inequality in consumption expenditure as far as food and non-food items are concerned in all the three different groups of HHs. The Gini- coefficient in all the three groups of HH is above 0.5 for all the commodities (food as well as non-food).

26. A very high inequality is observed specially in case of consumption of non-food items in all the three groups of HHs.

27. In international migrant HHs the Gini coefficient is quite high in case of consumer services (include domestic servant, grinding charges, tailoring charging, ironing services and other similar expenses), medical expenses (cost of medicines, doctors fee, diagnostic tests, hospitalization expenses, etc), clothing and footwear, and consumer durables (expenses for purchase of utensils, fan, mixie, cooker, furniture items and similar HH durables).

28. In internal migrant HHs the coefficient is high as far as consumption expenditure on rent and taxes (house rent, telephone rent, consumer services, taxes, water charges, mobile prepaid/ postpaid coupons, property tax, etc.,), education expenses (tuition fee, books, school bags, private tuition, hostel fees and all other related expenses) and clothing and footwear is concerned.

29. Non-migrant HHs exhibit high Gini coefficient in medical expenses (cost of medicines, doctors fee, diagnostic tests, hospitalization expenses, etc), and in consumer durables (expenses for purchase of utensils, fan, mixie, cooker, furniture items and similar HH durables).

30. The area between egalitarian line and Lorenz curve is small for food expenditure in international migrant, internal migrant and non-migrant HHs implying that there is less inequality on consumption expenditure in the three groups of HHs. In other words national income is enjoyed by a larger percentage of population.

31. The area between egalitarian line and Lorenz curve is large for non-food expenditure in international migrant, internal migrant and non-migrant HHs implying that there is more inequality on consumption expenditure in the three groups of HHs. That is small portion of the HHs are holding large portion of National Income.

32. Theil (L), Theil (T) and gini coefficient indicate highest inequality in non-migrant HHs, followed by internal migrant HHs and then by international migrant HHs for food expenditure. In non-food expenditure highest inequality is seen in internal and non-migrant HHs followed by international migrant HHs.

6.2 CONCLUSION

Literature on Goan migration unfolds an interesting veracity that Goans since the 16th century migrated not because it was a labour surplus state but because of the stagnant

nature of its economy. Factors like age, educational qualification, gender, marital status and activity status were of minimal importance, as the prime motive in the decision to migrate was to earn a basic livelihood. In addition factors like political persecution and a quest to attain higher education also contributed to the over-all wave of out-migration.

Present scenario is such that migration is become an integral part of the Goan economy, the impact of which can be estimated from the volume of remittances the state receives. The Goa Migration Study- 2008 found that "Remittances (from emigrants) to Goa estimated at Rs 700 crores have a significant effect on the state's economy. They are equivalent to 6.3 per cent of SDP or 33 per cent of the revenue receipt or 6 per cent of the government expenditure of Government of Goa"

The study confirms that demographic, societal and other factors lead to migration and that migration from Goa is an on-going process better agreed upon as a phenomenon, the horizons of which have extended the length and breadth of the world. In recent years however Goan migration is significantly steered by youth migration (age) coupled with getting quick benefits for investments in education. The rampant exodus of young Goan population can be well understood from the ensuing news articles. Herald Review 2015 reports an anxiety of a parish priest of a city church in south Goa, who says that 'the most productive and vibrant section of the population in the age group 20-40 have left'. A principal of a village school in south Goa expresses her concern about the future of her students when she says that children do not even wait to complete their tenth standard and that several students are not even interested in studying. It is even apparent that Goan students accomplish a certain level of education, which will give larger benefits within a short period of time and move out of Goa in search of enhanced greener pastures. For example hospitality industry is blooming, as a result any course/diploma/degree in that direction has many takers, which can even be after

attaining ten years of schooling. This ultimately results in the outflow of Goan youth to places where they are paid two/three times their elders or their counterparts back home.

Goa has also perceived migration of women for centuries and although the stated hypotheses does not agree with the findings, literature on Goan women and migration reveals that women from this small state have migrated as caretakers, as wives to soldiers of colonial rulers, or were in compulsion in order to supplement family income (in case of widows or drunkard husbands) over the past years and in present times Goan women migrate as a part of family migration.

If figures and interviews of activists and principals of well-known schools are to be believed, family migration is gaining unprecedented prominence in current times. A parish priest of a village church in south Goa states that "a census of the catholic population done in the year 2000 indicated a population of 2000. Today the catholic population in Agassaim is not more than 300" (Herald Review, 2015). Hence currently the relevant question is 'will any of the above discussed variables in the study affect migration in the future?' Or the euphoria of doing well, getting quick returns and owning the latest sophisticated assets govern the decision to migrate.

The international scenario like the immigration policies of the host country has an important bearing on factors determining migration. For example the independence of the African colonies left Goans with few opportunities in Africa. Though they enjoyed a high standard of living and generally did not think of returning to Goa, the new political scenario forced them to seek asylum in other countries.

Gulf war in the early 90's brought many Goans back home and reduced the rate of migration of Goans to the Gulf. In recent years increasing international migratory flow of Goans is a visible manifestation of globalization process. The flow cannot be deterred as Goans equate happiness with migration. But needless to say the state needs a basic

institutional framework to allow a better governance of international migration. Knowing very well that states and policies shape migration processes, and with countries migration policies undergoing obvious changes over years with large number of laws, states must deploy measures and regulations to regulate immigration and emigration along the categories that are based on gender, age, educational status, occupational status and marital status. Migration policies should take into account the above mentioned factors that affect migration flow. On broader scale immigration policies of destination as well as sending countries must change over time in response to the changing economic conditions and the relative bargaining strength of those who gain from in or out-migration. The task of formulating a workable global approach to the management of international migration remains a formidable challenge and one that will require both time and effort over the coming years. Globalization has added impetus to the growing mobility of labour force across borders. While many countries have raised barriers for low-skilled workforce and asylum seekers, many countries have welcomed family migration and high-skill workers migration

It can therefore be concluded that movement of people from Goa is emerging as an unabated reality, oblivious to any particular factor/s or characteristic/s cited by several studies in this area that have been reviewed.

The second objective tried to investigate if there is any effect of migration on the HH characteristics in the three groups of HHs (EMI, OMI and NOM) recognized in Goa. The study found that there is significant difference in the means of HH size, number of males above 18, number of females above 18, number of children, HH head age, HH head gender, HH head education status and HH head activity status in all the three groups of HHs, except in few cases.

Accordingly it can be said that the three types of HHs are different in Goa. Several studies have proved that HHs having international migrants are recipients of foreign remittances which make them better-off, resulting in positive impact on the overall development of the family/HH in terms of high consumption expenditure (on food and non-food items like education, health, etc.) and generally good HH characteristics. The differences in HH characteristic can be further affirmed by the fact that migrant HHs are characterized by absenteeism of member/s in the HHs, which has further led to the difference in HH characteristics. An international migrant is not an active member in the HH for a longer period compared to internal migrant due to many factors one of which being high travelling costs. This has a bearing on the marital issues and HH fertility directly affecting the family size and HH composition.

The third objective has been to assess the determinants of consumption expenditure on food and non-food items in the three groups of HHs. The factors analyzed are family size, gender of HH head, age of HH head, educational status of HH head and activity status of HH head.

The results specify that not a single factor studied, is significant in all the three groups of HHs in determining the food expenditure. However family size and educational status is found to be significant in all the three groups of HHs in determining the non-food expenditure. Interesting observation is in the case of EMI HHs where gender and age of HH head is found to be significant in determining food expenditure. Census 2011 have found that Goa ranks 4th with female headed HHs. The reason for such a situation is widowhood, separation, migration of male member for longer periods, etc. Also Goa has a high literacy rate (88.70% as per 2011 census) and therefore as one of the human development indicators -educational attainment becomes significant in the decision of consumption expenditure

Fourth objective deals with consumption expenditure inequalities. The results shows that there is high inequality in consumption expenditure as far as food and non-food items are concerned in all the three different groups of HHs. The Gini- coefficient in all the three groups of HH is above 0.5 for almost all the commodities in food as well as non-food items. It can be said that the earning capacity of a migrant (international as well as internal) in the host country/state, besides several other factors depends largely on his/her educational level, skill level and development level of the destination country/state. Goans with different educational attainment (illiterate to highly educated) and varied skills have migrated to well-developed places with lucrative salaries as much as to emerging economies with average incomes. This development has consequently influenced the economic status of Goans back home. This is also an indication of the state's satisfactory economic performance.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Migration continues to loom as a subject of interest very much even in the 21st century. As a result of rapidly increasing economic, political, and social significance, migration issues have become the focus of many forums. In the UN General Assembly High Level Dialogue on international migration and development held in New York in September 2006, and the Global Forum on Migration and Development held in Brussels in July 2007, participants were in general, disposed to agree that migration holds considerable potential for economic and social development.

Family and HH themes have not been in focus much before the mid-20th century, due to focus on larger problems of historical change and cultural-ecological adaptation. The challenges and wider living environments of the 21st century have put HH economics or better known as Home economics at a crucial point due to its importance at the HH, local and global level. Home economics in the present century encapsulates a diverse range of

factors in terms of education, business, spirituality, technology and demography, which has influenced HH characteristics. Thus, we can say that social sciences like economics, sociology and anthropology have long recognized the importance of families and HH analysis of the characteristics is important in development economics, demography literature, resource allocation, decision making process, gender division of labour and income earning mechanisms of a HH.

Further-more the study of HH becomes unavoidable due to HHs responses to market wage rate, HH demand for commodities and public services. HHs plays a dual role as a producer and a consumer, and makes labor allocation, production and consumption decisions that may be interdependent upon one another.

Consumer expenditure will provide insights into the inequalities, changes in living standards and overall welfare. The study on inequality can be used by egalitarian economists in quantifying the relative contributions of different factors causing inequality and this would facilitate amenable and effective policy treatment. The determinants, patterns and disparities of HH expenditures appears interesting as it will provides insights into broad consumption behavior as a key source of human well-being.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the study raises important questions which needs to be addressed to Goans: - How persistent and how varied are the earning methods that individuals and HHs face in destination countries? How well secured are HHs against loss of jobs? And very importantly how insured are Goan HHs against changes in international/internal economic environment and income shocks.

Goa government plays an active role in the economy as is evident from its increasing expenditure as a percentage of State Domestic Product. As such there is a need to improve the various sectors in the state and generate lucrative employment opportunities

so that people maintain a certain standard of living alike its counterparts of a migrant HH and make the state recompensing as far as job opportunities are concerned. Such openings could come in the areas of:-

A. Untapped Irrigation Potential

B. Non-viable agricultural sector needs to be boosted through increased credit flow and increased credit-deposit ratio. Horticulture development especially in case of principal cash-crops like betelnut, coconut, cashew, jackfruit and mango which are in great demand. Equally important is promoting vegetable cultivation in the state. As according to the Managing Director of Goa state Horticulture Corporation limited, there are around 575 outlets operational till 2015, selling around 200 tonnes vegetables at wholesale rate every day. The cost to the government of in procuring vegetables from neighbouring state is around rupees 6-7 crore per month.

C. Training youth in areas like saw mills, carpentry, breweries, auto repairs, construction and maintenance of roads, tile and brick making, building operations like stone crushing and breaking, handicrafts, tailoring, masons, culinary art, electrician, plumbers, sports and culture.

D. Improving the education system in the state with good professional colleges and different skill based courses which can help Goans to be gainfully employed and earn a status in the society in Goa and anywhere in the world. As in some richer countries low-skill workers and culturally distinct people are treated with contempt and alleged as a problem which needs to be controlled.

E. Having more sustainable development of healthy industries.

F. Besides also having holistic development which encompasses material wellbeing, cultural, environmental and social development of the state

G. Besides beach and architectural tourism, tourists should be attracted to Goa for its waterfalls, bird/butterfly watching, sublime villages, rain tourism, etc. There is also an urgent need to provide safe and essential facilities (like toilets and changing room, etc.) near beaches and waterfalls. So also the licenses of beach shacks owners should be issued on time so that it enables them to take advantage of the flourishing business during the peak tourist season.

H. Migration of young generation may mean that the migrated people possibly will be willing to live in the host countries, invest in them and thereby stimulate economic development of that destination country. Today, labour markets are versatile and techno-savvy, demanding young, highly qualified employees to boost firm's productivity, therefore government in partnership with educational institutions and employers should invest in youth, in training and employing them in targeted sectors.

I. As far as education and youth are concerned there is an urgent need to shift the focus from short-term courses for quick returns, to increasing years of schooling for long-term human resource development. In other words for continuing economic prosperity of the state, there is a need to augment human capital keeping in mind the strengths, weakness, opportunities and challenges.

J. It is also essential to involve youth in processes and policy discussions, programme designing and implementation.

K. Right from Portuguese era, economic activity was associated with the caste/status of Goans. Certain sector jobs were considered just for people belonging to a particular caste. Marriage market too was and is still based on the caste and jobs performed. The stigma connected to jobs still persists and therefore many Goans (any caste) execute menial jobs considered dirty, dehumanizing, dangerous and moreover below dignity abroad much to their reluctance to do them in their own

State. The motivating factor is surely the high remunerations offered for such jobs abroad compared to home country. Hence it is imperative that some sought of awareness should be created amongst the people of Goa in the direction of dignity of labour.

L. A distressing issue faced by the State is the migration of many educated Goans having secure well-paid jobs, and in-spite of the fact that Goa has the best quality of life. Besides educated people with huge potential are not absorbed in the right manner (maybe due to corruption, etc.,) in the State and are forced to migrate to advanced countries where they get due recognition for their talent. Hence there is an urgent need to understand this situation an appropriate measures to be undertaken taken in that direction.

M. Finally in all eventualities there is a need to make emigration an orderly economic affair. The essentiality lies in redefining the scope of regulations, modernizing the legal framework and redesigning the migration process enshrined in the Emigration Act, of 1983. In doing so legal, documented migration will be facilitated, which will ultimately protect and empower the migrants and result in their welfare.

6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Besides the six individual aspects explored in the present study, additional characteristics such as years of experience and community characteristics can be included in future studies.

Goan history on migration has adequately failed to address gender-specific migration process. Goan women have been a part of exodus for centuries, but there has been very little concerted effort to incorporate the role of women in migration flow and to know how non-migrant women sustain the migration streams. Fertility ambiguities too can be

analyzed moreover in cases where a male member migrates within few days/months of marriage, and in situations such as late marriages.

Another question that should interest researchers is whether consumption expenditure patterns change differently for HHs that participate in migration, and if so, why.

Migration and social protection can be deliberated giving importance to attendance of teens at school and male schooling attendance.

Goa is experiencing demographic transition on an alarming scale. The trend has been of out-migration of Goans and in-migration of non-Goans, not only from neighboring places, but also from far off states in the north and north-east India. The unorganized sector jobs, traditionally carried on by the so called *'niz Goankar'* (true Goan) are today performed with great ease and proficiency by non-Goans. Also evident fact is in the usage of the language Konkani, which is less used today by Goans and very quickly learnt and used by the non-Goans. As a result there is a great scope to explore the population dynamics, cultural transition and connectivity between people of the states.

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