A GEOGRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF MIGRANT WOMEN LABOUR-FORCE IN COASTAL AND INLAND AREAS OF GOA: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF SALCETE AND PONDA TALUKAS

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN GEOGRAPHY

IN THE D. D. KOSAMBI SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND BEHAVIOURAL STUDIES

GOA UNIVERSITY

BY

VIJAYA ARJUN NEMIKAL

CLUSTER RESEARCH CENTRE OF GEOGRAPHY
GOVERNMENT COLLEGE OF ARTS, SCIENCE AND COMMERCE
KHANDOLA-MARCELA, GOA

FEBRUARY, 2026

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GOA UNIVERSITY

BY

VIJAYA ARJUN NEMIKAL
GOA UNIVERSITY PERMANENT REGISTRATION NO: 201106796

UNDER THE GUIDANCE OF

PROF. (DR.) PRABIR KUMAR RATH

PROFESSOR & HOD
P. G. DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY
GOVERNMENT COLLEGE OF ARTS, SCIENCE AND COMMERCE
KHANDOLA-MARCELA, GOA

FEBRUARY, 2026

DECLARATION

I, Ms. Vijaya Arjun Nemikal hereby declare that this thesis represents work which has been carried out by me and that it has not been submitted, either in part or full, to any other University or Institution for the award of any research degree.



Place: Taleigao Plateau, Goa

Date: 25.02.2026

Ms. Vijaya Arjun Nemikal

Research Student

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that the above Declaration of the candidate, Ms. Vijaya Arjun Nemikal is true and the work was carried out under my supervision.



Prof. (Dr.) Prabir Kumar Rath

Research Guide

P. G. Department of Geography and Cluster Research Centre in Geography

Government College of Arts, Science and Commerce

Khandola-Marcela, Goa, PIN: 403107

Dated: 25.02.2026

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is my proud privilege to acknowledge the guidance, suggestions and help of all kind hearted people, which I received from various personalities for the preparation of this Thesis. My sincere and heartfelt appreciation goes to all of them.

I owe my sincere gratitude and indebtedness to my guide Prof. (Dr.) Prabir Kumar Rath, Prof. and HOD, PG Department of Geography, at CRC, Govt. College, Khandola, who has been a constant source of inspiration, guidance and encouragement throughout.

I do honestly acknowledge the kind help, guidance and suggestions for improvement at all points from the Hon. VC's nominees Dr. G. Shrinivas and Dr. Bhanumati Pilli.

I am also thankful to the Principal, Govt. College-Khandola, Goa, Prof. (Dr.) Purnakala Samant for providing me the much-needed study leave for the completion of the Ph. D. work leading to submission of this thesis. I am also thankful to all the administrative staff Govt. College, Khandola for the necessary support in all the necessary administrative procedures.

Special thanks are due to fellow Research Scholars coincidentally Colleagues Mr. Sachin Gaonkar, Mr. Santosh Ghadi, Ms. Siddhi Gaonkar, Mr. Amey Sawaiker and Ms. Supriya Gaonkar.

I am grateful to Prof. (Dr.) Seema Rath, Professor of Economics and a family mentor for her constant motivation, guidance and moral support in completion of the research work.

I am also thankful to the teaching and non-teaching fraternity of the College, more particularly the library staff, Mr. Ajit Faras, Ms. Savita, Ms. Siddhi and others and from the P. G. Department of Geography for their concerns and encouragement towards me.

A deep sense of gratitude towards my dear students Ms. Indrani Korde for helping me prepare maps using GIS soft wares, Ms. Shreya Prabhu, Mr. Tarun Malaviya, Mr. Agni Goankar for helping me in classifying and tabulating the collected data and Mr. Harshad Shirodkar, Ms. Jeenisha Khorjuvekar, Ms. Asmita Mhamal, Ms. Mrunali Kaskar, Ms. Nisha Choudhary, Ms. Pranalee Naik, Ms. Smitha Shet, Ms. Livia Crasto, Ms. Pooja Velip, Mr. Saeish Fernandes, Ms. Siddhi Naik, Mr. Dipresh Patekar, Ms. Niyanti Naik, Ms. Arti Gaonkar, Ms. Vedika Dandekar, Mr. Prashant Gaonkar and Mr. Diksham Sawant for their support in assisting me in my field survey.

I am highly indebted to my dear friends Dr. Neethu Naik, Ms. Jeslona Soares, Mr. Gaurish Dessai, Ms. Mahalaxmi Badiger, Ms. Sumata Naik, Ms. Sunayana Haldankar, Ms. Sanam Sawant and Mr. Pundalik Gaonkar for their constant support during the research work.

A heartfelt thank you goes to the staff of the Office of Labour Commissioner, Ponda and the Office of Labour Commissioner, Margao, Goa.

I am also deeply thankful to all the respondents from each ward of the villages and towns of Ponda and Salcete talukas for their cooperation and their honest responses.

I am thankful to all the known and unknown authors, Govt. and Non-Govt. publications whose work I have referred for my research work. I owe an indebtedness to all the authors, whose work I have referred and quoted in this Thesis.

Last but not the least, I am grateful towards my family members for their support, best possible cooperation and constant motivation. My mother Smt. Kamala Nemikal, husband, Mr. Aamir Sheikh, uncle Mr. Sunil Gawandalkar, aunt Mrs. Namrata Gawandalkar, brother Mr. Harsh Gawandalkar and my in-laws. They were the sources of my inspiration and dedication, who have accepted my genuine absences during my outstation duties towards my capacity building as an effective researcher.

Obliged forever to all the above and all others, who have directly or indirectly contributed towards my research journey.

Ms. Vijaya Arjun Nemikal

DEDICATION

To

My Loving Parents, My Husband,

Family Members

and

all the Migrant Women Workers and

their families of

Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Migration is a key feature of today's globalized world. It involves the movement of people across regions or countries in search of better opportunities, safety and improved living standards. One aspect of migration involves the movement of women for work. Women migrant workers are an integral part of the labour force in many countries but their roles and challenges have received limited attention in research and policy making. Women face complex issues during migration and resultant discrimination (Neetha, 2004; Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). In India, women from different parts of the country migrate to work in domestic services, construction, hospitality and other informal sectors in other states including Goa. Their experiences get underrepresented in most of the academic studies (Mehta, 2020; Bhagat, 2017).

This chapter has provided the foundation for the study explaining the major concepts related to migration in general and the labour migration in particular. It has defined the term "migrant women workers" as used in this study. The chapter has provided the review of literature covering global and regional contexts, national and relating to the specific cases of Goa. It has mentioned the research gap, objectives, sources of data, methodology, time frame and the hypotheses of the study. It has also presented the chapterisation of the thesis.

1.1.1 The Definition and Concepts of Migration

Migration is the movement of people away from their usual place of residence to a new place of residence, either across an international border or within a State (International Organization for Migration, 2025). Migration is a complex and fundamental aspect of human history. It has shaped the demographic, economic, social and cultural landscape of the societies all over the world. The migration process involves the movement of individual or groups from one place to another, generally involving a change in residence, culture and social connections (Castles et al., 2014). It has been driven by various factors such as economic opportunities, political persecution, conflict, environmental changes and social ties (King, 2012; Skeldon, 1997). Migration has played a significant role in shaping the course of human societies, fostering cultural exchange and contributing to economic development (Adger, 2011).

The causes of migration are manifold and usually interconnected. Economic factors, such as poverty, unemployment and income disparities drive migrants to seek better opportunities (Todaro & Smith, 2015; De Haas, 2010). Political instability, conflict and persecution also force individuals to flee their homes for safer places for dignified living. Environmental factors like climate change, natural disasters and resource depletion at times contribute to migration. Social factors such as family reunion, urge for education and better healthcare facilities also play a significant role (Bakewell, 2018).

According to the United Nations (2020), there are approximately 272 million international migrants representing 3.5% of the world population (Adger, 2011). The concentration of population in large towns and cities is also related to migration due to a gradual migration from small places to large cities. However, in many developing countries, such as India, rural to rural migration is significant particularly among women who move for marriage or familial reasons (Samarth, et. al., 2022). The psychological cost is also involved as the hidden cost arising out of the adjustment to a new environment at a new place and new set-up (Ghosh, 1987).

Migration gives rise to consequences at the place of origin and place of destinations. The Economic impacts are in labour market, remittance flows and brain drain. Social impacts arise in cultural diversity, integration challenges and changes in community structure. Political impact is seen in voting behaviour, representation and policy-making processes. Environmental impacts are seen in resource consumption, pollution and urban sanitation (Bakewell, 2018; King, 2012).

1.1.2 Types of Migration

Based on existing literature, there are several types of migration which are explained below (Ghosh, 1987; Gire, 2022; Drishti IAS, 2025; National Geographic, 2025; International Organization for Migration, 2025).

a. Internal Migration

Internal migration refers to the movement of people from one state to another within the country. In India, a common form of internal migration is in search of better earning opportunities. For example, people from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Odisha migrating to Metropolitan cities like Delhi, Mumbai and Bengaluru to work in construction sites, service industries or factories. Internal Migration is further divided into four types, such as Rural to

Urban Migration, Urban to Rural Migration, Rural to Rural Migration and Urban to Urban Migration.

b. **International Migration**

International migration involves crossing national territories to settle in another country. Large number of Indians migrate to United Arab Emirates, the United States and Canada.

c. **Emigration**

It refers to the act of leaving one's own country to settle permanently or temporarily in another. In the Indian context, a large number of Indians from Kerala, Punjab and Tamil Nadu emigrate to Gulf countries like the UAE, Saudi Arabia and Qatar for employment or better wages.

d. **Immigration**

It is the process of entering and settling in another country. India is primarily known as a country of emigration but it also receives immigrants mainly from neighbouring countries like Nepal, Bangladesh and Tibet due to economic reasons, political instability and historically proven cultural ties. Large number of Tibetan refugees have settled in Northern States of HP, Uttarakhand, UT of Ladakh, etc. particularly in places like Dharamshala in Himachal Pradesh, while many Bangladeshi immigrants have settled in West Bengal and Assam.

e. **Temporary Migration**

It occurs when people move for a short period for work or education. Seasonal agricultural labourers migrate temporarily from tribal areas of Madhya Pradesh or Chhattisgarh to work on farms in Punjab or Maharashtra during harvest seasons in India. After the season ends, they return to their original homes.

f. **Permanent Migration**

This type of migration involves relocating with the intention to settle at a place. A typical example is some families from Kerala, who have permanently settled in the Gulf countries or Canada over several decades for different reasons like better work, education and living conditions.

g. Voluntary Migration

This type of migration is undertaken by choice, usually for better opportunities. For example, Indian students voluntarily migrating abroad for career prospects or for higher education, especially to countries like Australia, the UK and the USA.

h. Forced Migration

Forced migration occurs when people are compelled to move due to reasons of conflict, occurrences of disaster or persecution. In India, the migration of Kashmiri Pandits from the Kashmir Valley in the 1990s due to insurgency is a classic example of forced migration. Sometimes, people are displaced by floods are forced to move to safer places at least for few days or weeks.

i. Economic Migration

Economic migration is propelled by getting better income or employment. A large number of people from Bihar, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh migrate to Metropolitan cities like Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Pune, Surat etc. to work in construction projects, textile or small manufacturing units.

j. Social Migration

Social type of migration takes place due to family or community ties, e.g. marriage especially for women.

k. Environmental Migration

This type of migration occurs either due to natural disasters or imminent environmental degradation such as people from earthquake prone regions of Uttarakhand, flood prone areas of Sundarbans region of West Bengal and parts of coastal Odisha have been experiencing threats of earthquake, rising sea levels and erosion, leading to the voluntary or precautionary displacement of communities to safer zones sometimes permanently.

1.1.3 Labour Migration

Labour migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that involves the movement of individuals from one country to another for the purpose of employment. This phenomenon has significant implications for both the places of origin and destination. Migrant workers prefer countries with higher wages, better working conditions and improved essential social services such as healthcare and education. The expectation or promise of higher earnings

and better living conditions motivate people to leave their home countries and seek employment in foreign labour markets (Unni, 2000).

Labour migration can be broadly categorized into two types such as low-skilled and high-skilled migration. Low-skilled migration refers to the movement of workers with limited educational and training background, who often work in sectors such as agriculture, construction and services. High-skilled migration on the other hand involves the movement of people with some specialized skills and qualifications who work as personnel in technology, healthcare and finance sectors (Boyd, 2004). Thereby, labour migration has significant economic, social and political implications at both places, i.e. countries of origin and destination. Resultantly, labour migration creates opportunities for economic development, cultural exchange and social cohesion for both places (Shanthi, 2006).

1.1.4 Women Labour Migration

Women labour migration at the global level is a significant phenomenon that has been shaped by various social, economic and political factors. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), women account for approximately 44% of the total number of international migrant workers with many of them moving to other countries in search of better employment opportunities, higher wages and improved living conditions (Bélanger & Rahman, 2013). One of the primary motivators of women's labour migration is the gender pay gap and lack of job opportunities in their home countries. Women often face discrimination and unequal pay in the labour market leading them to seek better prospects abroad. Additionally, many women are forced to migrate due to conflict, political instability or environmental degradation in their home countries (Bélanger & Rahman, 2013).

Women migrant workers contribute significantly to the global economy, particularly in sectors such as healthcare, education and domestic work. They play a vital role (Taylor, 1999) though they face numerous challenges (Bakewell, 2018). The ILO and other international organizations have recognized the importance of protecting the rights of the migrant women workers (MWW) and attempting to promote their empowerment. There have been efforts to establish international labour standards, provide training and capacity-building programs and facilitate access to social services and benefits. However, more needs to be done to address the disparities and inequalities (Bakewell, 2018). Efforts have been made to promote the rights and empowerment of women migrant workers including the adoption of international conventions and agreements such as the ILO's Convention on

Decent Work for Domestic Workers and the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Beauchamp, et. al. 2016).

Despite these efforts, women migrant workers continue to face significant challenges including exploitation, abuse and limited access to social services and benefits. Therefore, it is essential to continue promoting the rights and empowerment of women migrant workers, addressing the gender disparities and inequalities they face and recognizing their valuable contributions to the global economy and society (Beauchamp, et. al. 2016).

Women labour migration in India is a significant phenomenon that has been shaped by various social, economic and cultural factors. Despite India's rapid economic growth and urbanization, women's participation in the labour force remains low and migration is often driven by marriage, family and social obligations rather than economic opportunities (Toksoz, 2023). According to the 2011 census, women account for approximately 70% of India's internal migrant community with the majority moving from rural-to-rural areas. However, only a small proportion of female migrants (around 12%) are engaged in casual labour and even fewer (around 14%) are in self or wage-employed jobs. The remaining three-quarters of female migrants are unemployed highlighting the underutilization of women's labour potential (Mahapatro, 2008).

The reasons for women's labour migration in India are complex and not uniform across the regions. Marriage is the common most reason for female migration accounting for around 81% of female migrants. Employment opportunities come second accounting for only around 2.42% of female migrants (Mahapatro, 2008). Women migrants face numerous challenges in India, viz. social and structural barriers to migrate and also to work. They require permission from family to migrate and face some sort of discrimination in the workplace, e.g. lower pay than men and limited access to smartphones and the internet. These barriers, the stigma associated with women working outside the home at times lead to feeling of isolation and marginalization (Unni, 2000).

1.1.5 Working and Effective Definition of the Migrant Women Worker in the Study

The present study considers the women workers, who have arrived from other states or union territories other than Goa are considered migrant workers for all practical purposes. Those, who are working but hailing from any other part of the State have not been considered as migrant workers since their social and economic status is quite different from that of the inter-state migrant workers (Mawii & Eckstein, 2020). The women workers who have

different place of origin other than Goa are regarded as the target group in this study irrespective of their urban or rural background. The migrant women workers reach Goa either by way of marriage, as other family member or as acquaintance of existing migrant male or female workers working in Goa for a while. However, significant number of workers, both males and females come to Goa through the labour contractors taking supply contract from local firms and entrepreneurs. Here in Goa, they are spread in most of the economically productive rural and urban areas through acquaintances or rehabilitated by the labour contractors immediately after arriving in Goa.

1.2 Motivation for Selection of the Topic

The basis for selection of the topic emerges from the motivation to carry out a research study oriented for this distressed section of the society from personal observation over the years and review of available literature and the gaps found there-in. Many migrants flow in to Goa from various parts of India to seek employment and work in various sectors of its economy since Goa has accepted a cosmopolitan approach to absorption of migrants and one of the economically prosperous states of India. Though male in-migrants outnumber females, the role played by women in-migrants to the State cannot be overlooked. Women have migrated to Goa either with their spouses or independently; they have taken up jobs on various levels of hierarchy from unskilled, casual work to highly paid and highly skilled jobs. It is pertinent to study about the types of occupation of migrant women, types of employers, the income and expenditure pattern of the migrant labour, impact on families and her status in society and autonomy given in the family and societal acceptance of the female migrant labour. However, the available literature review suggests that adequate research on this important social geography area has not been carried out in relation to Goa in a Geographical perspective, more particularly in recent times. Hence, this study aims at providing a research-based data base and knowledge in gender and section specific migration study.

1.3 Review of Literature

Review of literature has been undertaken to develop sound and rational understanding of the present topic and also access the contemporary research work undertaken globally and locally.

In recent years, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of women's labour migration to the global economy and society. Efforts have been made to promote the rights and empowerment of women migrant workers including the adoption of international

conventions and agreements such as the ILO's Convention on Decent Work for Domestic Workers and the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Despite these efforts, women migrant workers continue to face significant challenges including exploitation, abuse and limited access to social services and benefits. Therefore, it is essential to continue promoting the rights and empowerment of women migrant workers, addressing the gender disparities and inequalities they face and recognizing their valuable contributions to the global economy and society (Beauchamp et al, 2016; ILO, 2011; United Nations, 2020).

Labour recruitment of women, particularly for domestic and care work has risen with growing demand in almost every household. Domestic work is often characterized by informal contracting having limited legal protection leaving these workers vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. In this context, the role of social networks and non-governmental organizations become vital in advocating for the rights of domestic workers and improving their working conditions (Boyd, 2004; Anderson, 2001). Migrant women contribute to their home communities not only through remittances but also by transferring skills and engaging in entrepreneurial activities. As women's participation in labour migration continues to grow, their rights and protections have become increasingly important to prevent labour abuses and sexual exploitation. Inclusive policies and programs should aim to enhance women's socioeconomic status, facilitate their participation in decision-making processes and ensure access to essential services (Martin, 2004; UN Women, 2013; Castles et al, 2014).

The women attempt to negotiate restrictive sociocultural environments and do their best within Bangladeshi society asserting both economic independence and social resilience (Bélanger & Rahman, 2013; Kabeer, 1999; Mahler, 2001).

Domestic violence is a challenge for women workers from alcoholic husband, which remains unchanged despite their increased financial input, the cycle of violence gets continued across generations (Calderon et al, 2011). Many women play a central role in "family migration" though they are frequently employed in low-skilled positions despite possessing high levels of education and experience at times. Through migration, these women actively negotiate restrictive sociocultural environments and redefine their roles within Bangladeshi society, asserting both economic independence and social resilience (Bélanger & Rahman, 2013; Kabeer, 1999; Mahler, 2001).

The Covid-19 pandemic has further intensified all these challenges exposing women migrants to health risks limiting their access to affordable healthcare. Job losses have led to

a reduction in earnings and remittances, while travel restrictions and transportation disruptions have affected their participation in labour markets. Addressing these issues requires the provision of comprehensive legal, financial and healthcare support for women migrant workers, which is essential to promote their economic stability and social protection (Okonkwo & Okafor, 2020; IOM, 2020; UN Women, 2020). There is a focus more on women with positive migration experiences, as those with negative outcomes might have returned home or not taken part in studies. There is a focus more on women with positive migration experiences, as those with negative outcomes might have returned home or not taken part in studies. Perspectives from diverse groups has remained underrepresented (Hiller, 2007). Understanding female migration requires a family perspective; this area is emerging and much work is needed to fully understand household situations related to migration (Zlotnik, 2015).

Skilled migrant women are in a better position to challenge gender hierarchies in sectors facing global shortages. However, the extent and nature of this resilience is uncertain and need further investigation (Raghuram, 2004).

Between 1994 and 2001, four women and two men entered New Zealand as skilled migrants. The detailed analysis revealed how these women positioned themselves to the complex challenges to balance their work and private home lives following relocation (Meares, 2010).

Internal migration is a key livelihood means for many Ghanaians accounting for about 90% of all migration towards poverty reduction. Women's remittances are mostly directed towards immediate household needs like food, health and education. Remittances also affect household decision-making power and bridging traditional gender norms. In Ghana, women's remittance has empowered their household decisions (Awumbila, 2015).

Measuring the impact of migration on women's empowerment has many challenges particularly in the context of empowerment and difficulties in its quantitative assessment. A review of existing literature reveals the complexity of this relationship in Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) to develop four broad dimensions for evaluating migrant women's empowerment, viz. educational attainment, labour market participation, occupation and income levels. The study critically examined widely used the Gender Inequality Index (GII) and the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) in calculating the empowerment outcomes of migrant women (Gaye & Jha, 2011).

A detailed examination of international labour migration trends in South Asia highlights several distinct features and pressing challenges faced by the region. Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka exhibit high levels of temporary labour migration to Gulf and Middle Eastern countries involving mostly low and semi-skilled workers. Migrant workers, especially women and those in irregular placements face severe rights violations and limited access to justice as highlighted and calls for regional cooperation through SAARC to develop coherent migration governance mechanisms (Wickramasekara, 2011).

Since the 1980s, female labour migration in East and Southeast Asia has become an integral part of migrant workforce. By the early 2000s, over two million female migrants were employed across the region primarily in informal sectors such as domestic work and entertainment despite the vulnerabilities associated with these occupations with-out any human rights safeguards as highlighted about the complexity and contradictions of female labour migration in Asia (Piper & Keiko, 2005).

Housemaids migrate from rural areas to cities like Islamabad (Pakistan) in search of better living conditions and employment as unskilled labourers. These women lack control over financial and social decisions even within their households. It does not also lead to significant empowerment for themselves. Most of these migrant women are aged 15-34, coming from large families with low monthly incomes and many serve as the primary breadwinners. The key reasons for migration are low labour costs, limited job opportunities and debt bondage. Migrants, particularly from low castes also face exploitation by landlords who offer minimal wages and poor living conditions alongside social discrimination and restricted rights. Other issues such as spousal abuse, lack of family planning and limited social freedoms are common among these women (Shamim, 2014).

Migration of young women from the Philippines often function as a family decision rather than an individual choice of the young girl. The family decide who has to migrate to maximize income and minimize risks considering the migrant's age, education and family characteristics. The complex interplay between the family and migration patterns in the Philippines has been brought out (Lauby & Stark, 1988).

Nepal's governance of women's labour migration is characterized by a dualism in policies restricting females in contrast with more facilitative schemes for male migration. These restrictions have been imposed since the 1990s to protect women from exploitation. Despite these challenges, women's aspirations to work outside the country have grown. Many

women sometimes are turning to illegal and more dangerous migration routes. This shows that sometimes the rigid laws fail to control migration effectively, especially when strong economic motivations exist. It may result in more complex and hazardous migration experiences for women (Pyakurel, 2018).

Women labour migration in India has been shaped by various social, economic and cultural factors. Women's participation in the labour force has remained low and migration has mostly been driven by marriage, family and social obligations rather than economic opportunities (Toksoz, 2023).

The composition of female migrants in the rural-urban migration is associated with the distance involved in migration and the size of the destination city. The larger the city, the less likely are women to migrate (Lingam, 1998; Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). Women account for approximately 70% of India's internal migrant community (Census of India, 2011). However, only a small proportion of female migrants (around 12%) are engaged in casual labour and even fewer (around 14%) are in self or wage-employed jobs (Mahapatro, 2008; Srivastava, 2012; Kundu & Saraswati, 2012).

Low rates of reported economic migration among women may partly reflect a genuine decline in female labour force participation due to rise in income, known as the “withdrawal effect”. Marriage migrants could also be economic migrants in disguise. Indian scenario of female migrant worker’s migration reflects a “vicious cycle,” where the absence of good employment opportunities leading to female employment and further leading to migration for employment through marriage (Rao, 2014; Das & Murmu, 2012).

Sometimes, women are neglected due to their secondary migrant status. Women labour migration is a means through which asymmetrical, intersecting relations pertaining to gender, caste and class are structured in the context of major economic changes, which have implications for the mobility and positions of women (Neetha, 2004; Thapan, 2006; Mazumdar, 2010).

Women’s labour force participation (LFP) increases after migration with a variation by states, with significant increases in Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Maharashtra while Bihar and West Bengal show relatively lower participation even post-migration. Different migrant streams show distinct work patterns, for example, rural-rural migrant women have higher participation particularly as casual labourers and to some extent as own account workers

whereas urban-urban and rural-urban migrants mostly remain confined to domestic duties (Shanthi, 2006).

There is a growing need for ratifying key human rights treaties, particularly the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families. Protecting the rights of women migrant workers involves removing discriminatory bans and restrictions, providing education and awareness programs, establishing effective regulations and monitoring systems and ensuring access to health services and travel documents across countries of origin, transit and destination (Ghosh, 2009).

With increasing urbanisation, India has experienced a substantial rise in domestic migration accompanied by growing remittance flows from migrant workers. In South Indian districts of Kolar and Gulbarga in Karnataka, farming activities are no longer reliable, so many young men move to cities to work in construction, brick kilns or other informal jobs. In some cases, the family members, especially the spouse accompany. Remittances have emerged as an important mechanism linking migration with financial inclusion particularly for poor labour migrants who rely on informal channels for savings and money transfers. The role of the State is critical in creating an enabling environment for inclusive finance through appropriate policies, institutional support and regulatory frameworks (Radderatti & Nayak, 2023).

Goa has emerged as a major destination for internal migrants from different parts of the country due to its rapid economic growth and relative prosperity. High demand for labour, and relatively higher prevailing wage rates in Goa has led to influx of migrants into the casual labour market. The construction sector has absorbed a substantial share of migrant workers providing both short-term and long-term employment opportunities. Migration to the construction sector is mostly shaped by social networks across different stages of the labour requirements. These networks facilitate the flow of labour-demand information, influence entry into employment and play an important role in the allocation of work at construction sites. In addition, social ties among migrant workers support everyday survival by sharing of accommodation, maintenance of social relations and informal credit arrangements helping to meet immediate financial needs among the group members (Fernandes & P. G., 2011; Keyes, 1993).

The state of Goa experiences a significant annual inflow of labour migrants highlighting both the opportunities and limitations of using remittances and digital platforms as pathways to financial inclusion (Goel & Nayak, 2018). There is a significant presence of migrants

from Karnataka (Bailey, 2012). Among them, the Banjara community, also referred to as Lamani or Lambani has been identified as a prominent migrant community in coastal towns and villages. The members of this community are predominantly engaged in seasonal migration between Karnataka and Goa. Each migration cycles typically lasts six to eight months during the peak tourist season. The economic participation among the Banjara community in Goa is closely linked to tourism-related activities. These include the sale of low-cost garments, hippie-style jewellery and handicrafts as well as the commercialisation of ethnic identity through traditional mirrorwork embroidery and antique tribal jewellery. Mostly the women aged between 18 to 46 years from the community are engaged in these activities (Rybus, 2025).

The towns and cities have attracted more migrant workers with the promise of higher wages, steady work, better transport and living facilities. Migrants compare the small and uncertain income from their farming with the more regular income from secondary and tertiary jobs. This pattern is seen among rural migrants from Vijayapur in Karnataka to Goa, where both difficult conditions at home and better opportunities in Goa have driven them to migrate (Radderatti & Nayak, 2023).

In Betim Village of North Goa and in many other migrant hubs, the social networks of migrant women workers serve as necessary survival mechanism. Women network help to explore the job market, gaining information about employment, sharing activation assistance, pooling scant financial resources and accessing informal credit and support systems. These networks, often kin-based or built through shared workspaces such as domestic or industrial units facilitate job entry and help mitigate the precarity of informal labour conditions. Yet, it reflects broader vulnerabilities such as lower wages, informal employment status and exposure to exploitation (Sawant, 2021).

The traditional blue-collar occupations have now been largely undertaken by migrant labourers from Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. These migrants occupy subordinate positions similar to those held by people from local lower castes before two-three decades putting them in the lower socio-economic hierarchy (Moraes, 2025).

The COVID-19 pandemic severely affected informal migrant workers in tourism-dependent regions such as Goa leading to widespread job and income losses (Azeez et al., 2021). Women migrant workers and daily wage earners lost employment during lockdowns, especially those working in informal sectors where chances of reemployment were also

lower than in formal sectors (McAuliffe & Bauloz, 2024). Migrant workers were particularly affected by the lack of social security and difficulties related to reverse migration. These bad experiences highlighted the need for targeted policies for social security cover and alternative options to support informal workers (Manerkar & Chandran, 2025).

The COVID-19 pandemic exposed several weaknesses in democratic governance in India and policy implementation (Paliwal et al., 2021). States with relatively advanced economies like Goa, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Kerala experienced a sudden outflow of migrant workers during the pandemic disrupting the local economies for a while. Goa was adversely affected since the migrant workers formed the backbone of essential manual services, agriculture, fishing and other economic activities. Their absence led to labour shortages and reduced availability of essential commodities prompting renewed attention towards strengthening local production systems (Colvalkar, 2020).

1.4 Research Gap

Although women's migration has increasingly gained scholarly attention, the internal migration of women workers for employment in India remains significantly understudied. Much of the available research have focused on women's migration due to marriage or family reasons. Studies focussing on women who move independently in search of livelihood opportunities are limited. In the case of Goa, academic research has rarely focused on the state as a case of women's labour migration. Existing studies have focused on migrant labours in general and gender-based or skill-based studies on migrants are rare.

Studies in India and Goa have recognised that informal workers often face exploitative working conditions. However, there is limited detailed research on how gender inequality exists within informal workers. Issues such as low wages, long working hours, job insecurity and workplace discrimination are common, yet women's specific experiences are not examined in depth. Problems related to harassment, lack of safety and the absence of grievance mechanisms have received very little systematic scholarly attention, especially in sectors such as domestic work, hospitality and daily-wage labour.

There is also a major research gap in understanding the living conditions of migrant women workers. Most studies focussed on women's participation in paid work but did not assess decision-making power, control over income or improved status within the family and community.

The gender-specific experiences of women migrant workers during COVID-19 crisis have been insufficiently documented. Issues such as loss of income, food insecurity, difficulties in returning to native places, lack of identity documents and exclusion from welfare schemes have not been adequately analysed. This gap is particularly visible in Goa due to lack of awareness and documents.

These gaps created the need for a focused study of women migrant workers in Goa examining their working and living conditions for policy formulation. Covering the full state is not feasible. Hence, two contrasting talukas among the 12 talukas may give a lead to the prevailing conditions in Goa. This is essential for the academic portrayal of Migrant Women Workers in the state of Goa.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the review of literature and the gaps identified, the study seeks to understand the multidimensional experiences of women migrant workers in Goa. The following research questions have been formulated to guide the investigation.

- What is the demographic, socio-economic and occupational characteristics of MWW in Goa and what factors influence their migration from the states of origin?
- To what extent do MWW contribute to household income, expenditure and savings and how do their earnings support and sustain family livelihoods?
- How does employment influence their family life, social status, empowerment and overall well-being of MWW?
- What is the extent of access of MWW to social security documents, government schemes and basic amenities, how resilient were they during the COVID-19 pandemic and how do their living and working conditions relate to selected SDG frameworks?
- What policy measures and interventions can strengthen the livelihood security to provide the dignity of labour among MWW in Goa?

1.6 Aim and Objectives

The aim and objectives of this study outlined the purpose and the specific steps through which the research was conducted. The objectives have been formulated to address the research gaps identified earlier and to ensure a systematic investigation of the working and living conditions, empowerment and wellbeing of women migrant workers in Goa.

Aim: To analyse the socio-economic status of migrant women labour-force in coastal and inland areas of Goa viz. Salcete and Ponda talukas.

Following are the objectives

1. To study the demographic, socio-economic and occupational profile of migrant women workers (MWW) and identify the states of origin along with the factors influencing their migration.
2. To determine their contribution to household income, expenditure and saving patterns and remittance and analyse their role in sustaining family livelihoods.
3. To examine the impact of their employment on the family life, their empowerment and well-being and status in the society.
4. To examine their access to social security documents, government schemes and basic amenities and to analyse their resilience and preparedness during crises such as COVID-19 pandemic as well as the relationship of their living and working conditions with a status analysis of selected Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).
5. To determine the major challenges faced by MWW and suggest policies and programmes for action-oriented measures for enhancing livelihood security and dignity of labour among MWW in Goa.

1.7 Sources of Data

The present study is based on both primary and secondary sources of data. Using both types of data helped to gain a better and a complete understanding of the issues faced by women migrant labourers.

1.7.1 Primary Sources of Data

Primary data was collected directly from respondents of the study. A semi-structured questionnaire was designed and administered to collect data based on the experiences and socio-economic conditions of migrant women labourers. The questionnaire was carefully constructed to cover major aspects relevant to the objectives as below:

• **Personal and Demographic Information:** Questions related to age, marital status, education, family background and place of origin were included to establish the basic profile of each respondent.

• **Employment Profile:** This section captured information about the type of occupation, nature of work, working hours, income levels, expenditure and savings, duration of employment, etc.

• **Migration Motivations and Experiences:** The questionnaire examined the factors that led to migration, such as economic necessity, lack of local employment, family influences or social factors.

• **Economic Contributions:** Information pertaining to the role of migrant women in supporting their families economically, including income generation, savings, remittances and spending patterns. It helped assess their financial independence and household situations.

• **Social Status and Autonomy:** Questions were included to evaluate the degree of social respect, influence in decision-making processes and autonomy enjoyed by migrant women within their households and communities.

• **Impact of COVID-19:** This section focused on understanding how the COVID-19 pandemic affected the lives and work of migrant women, including changes in employment, income, health and social interactions.

• **Access to Resources**: Questions related to the accessibility of government social security documents, welfare schemes, etc. were asked. Personal belongings like vehicles and essential household items were included to assess their access to necessary resources.

The questionnaire included both closed-ended, open-ended questions, dichotomous questions and Likert Scale items. Closed-ended questions helped in collecting quantitative data, while open-ended questions enabled the respondents to express their thoughts, experiences and opinions in their own words. Likert Scale items helped in the measurement of respondents' perceptions and levels of agreement or disagreement on specific statements. The questionnaire was first used for pilot study of 60 migrant women workers which helped in understanding the quality of the questionnaire and enabled the researcher to make necessary changes before starting the main survey.

The field work for the data collection was conducted for a total sample of 730 women migrant workers, comprising 350 respondents from Ponda and 380 from Salcete talukas using a purposive sampling method. Data collection was also carried out through personal observation, focused group discussions and case studies of the migrant women workers to analyse the data.

1.7.2 Secondary Sources of Data

Secondary data were obtained from a variety of sources to complement the primary data. These included government publications and reports, such as the Census of India 2011 migration tables, discussions with the Department of Labour & Employment of both the talukas and the Economic Survey of Goa for the financial years, 2021–22, 2022–23 and 2023–24**.**

Additional secondary information was collected from scholarly books, which provided insights into the social and economic situations of women migrant workers and theoretical perspectives related to gender and work. Academic projects and dissertations conducted on similar themes served as valuable resources offering comparative perspectives and highlighting methodological approaches and gaps.

Web-based documents and online research papers, including articles, working papers and policy reports published by universities, research institutions and international agencies, contributed to understanding current trends and discussions in women's labour migration. International publications and reports from global organizations provided statistical data, case studies and cross-country comparisons, enabling the study to situate Goa's context within a broader international perspective.

Finally, other sources, such as newspapers were also consulted to provide real-world insights, highlight current developments and support the academic literature on women migrant labour.

1.8 Ethical Considerations in Data Collection

The study has been conducted with due regard to ethical principles in research. Participation of the migrant women workers as respondents was entirely voluntary. They were informed about the purpose of the study prior to the initiation of the interview with them leading to elucidation of the information given by them, i.e. primary data collection. Informed consent was obtained from all the participants and their anonymity and confidentiality were maintained and will continue to be maintained. Permission was obtained from government offices viz. Goa Office of the Labour Commissioners of Ponda and Salcete through an official letter issued by the Principal as the Director of the Cluster Research Centre in Geography, Govt. College, Khandola for acquiring secondary data pertaining to the migrant women workers. Informed consents were also obtained from NGOs for discussion related to MWW for additional data.

1.9 Sampling and Validation of Sampling

The sample included women migrant workers employed mainly in construction, domestic work factory and service-related occupations in the two selected talukas of Goa, Ponda and Salcete. A total sample of 730 respondents was finalized for the main survey, with 350 respondents surveyed in Ponda and 380 in Salcete. This sample size was considered adequate to represent the working conditions and socio-economic characteristics of migrant women workers in the selected areas. The matters covered in the questionnaire for the field survey has been depicted in Table 1.1.

To estimate the margin of error for the sample, Cochran's formula (1977) was used. The formula is expressed as:

$$E = Z \times \sqrt{p\frac{(1-p)}{n}}$$

where:

- E = Margin of error
- Z = Value corresponding to the desired confidence level (1.96 for 95% confidence)
- p = Estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population (0.5 used when unknown, assuming maximum variability)
- n = Sample size

For the present study, with a sample size of 730 respondents, at a 95% confidence level (Z = 1.96) and assuming p = 0.5, the calculated margin of error is ±3.62%. This indicated that the sample estimates were expected to differ from the true population parameters by approximately 3.62 percent at a 95% confidence level. The sample provided reasonably accurate and reliable estimates of the characteristics of the population of migrant women workers. According to Cochran (1977), a margin of error of 5% is considered a common and acceptable standard in social research, while a larger margin (up to 10%) may be permissible in exploratory studies. However, for studies that inform critical or policy-related decisions, a smaller margin of error is preferred to ensure higher precision and reliability of findings.

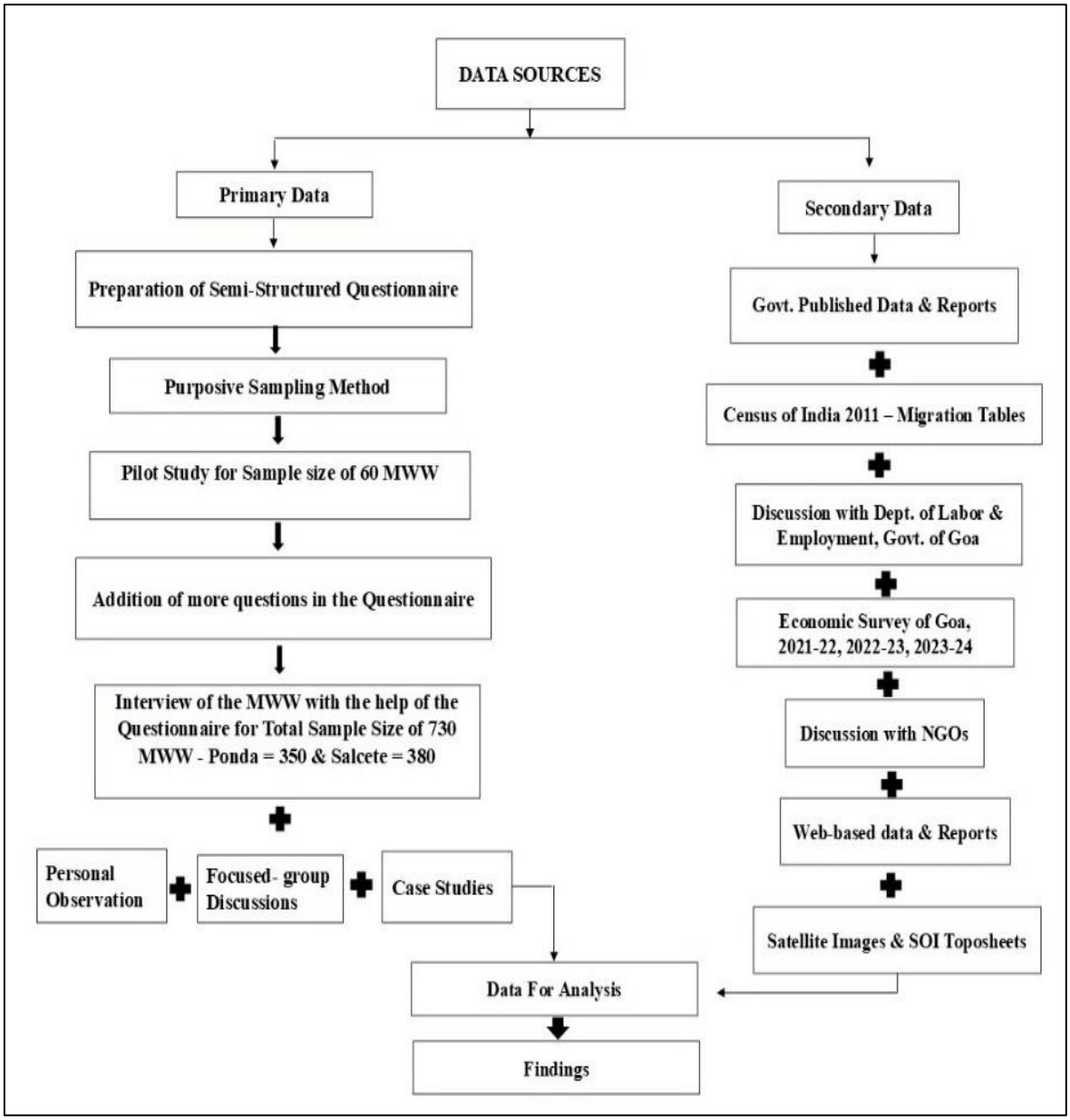


Figure 1.1 Flowchart of Sources of Data

Source: Prepared by Author, 2025

1.10 Methodology

The Prelude, Background, Stages of the work and the Perspective has been explained below since the methodology is explanatory as well as empirical.

The study has a focus on low-skilled and unskilled women migrant workers working in selected employment sectors, namely construction, domestic work, factories and services.

A set of hypotheses was formulated to statistically examine the relationships between important variables associated with women migrant workers in Goa.

A semi-structured questionnaire was developed for collecting primary data for the study. It consisted both close-ended and open-ended questions, dichotomous questions and Likert scale items.

The field work for data collection through household survey of migrant women workers consisted of 730 respondents of which 350 were selected from Ponda taluka and 380 from Salcete taluka. The information was obtained only from the MWW. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews using the prepared schedule and the questions were translated orally into Hindi or Konkani based on their comfort and understanding, whenever the migrant women workers were not comfortable to read and write in English. All the participants were informed about the purpose of the study and their voluntary participation and confidentiality were assured before commencing the interview.

Sampling and Coding: The respondents were selected purposively from different occupations, age groups and income. After the completion of data collection, the responses gathered from the field survey were carefully verified, sorted and classified. The information was later coded systematically to make the analysis process simpler. The classified data was then tabulated using Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics software.

Statistical Techniques: Frequency tables, cross-tabulations and descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data and to understand the relationship between the variables. The analysed data was represented graphically using bar graphs and in the form of frequency tables prepared in MS Excel. Descriptive statistics such as Mean, Mode, Standard Deviation (SD) and Coefficient of Variation (CV) were calculated to understand the averages, dispersions and relationships among the variables which were computed in SPSS. Based on descriptive statistics, further statistical analysis and hypothesis testing was undertaken. The formulas and methods used for descriptive statistics are given below.

Mean = Σfx/n

where f= frequency in each class

x= midpoint of each class

N= totals numbers of data points

$$\text{Mode} = L1 + \frac{[\,(f1-f0)}{(2f1-f0-f2)}\ x\ h$$

Where, L1 = the lower limit of the class in which the mode lies

f_1= the frequency of the class in which the mode lies

f_0 = the frequency of the class preceding the modal class

f_2 = the frequency of the class succeeding the modal class

h = the class interval of the modal class

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma fi\ (xi - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

Where, f = frequency of each group

x = midpoint of each group

$\bar{x}$ = mean (average) of the data

n = total frequency (total number of items)

$$CV = \frac{\sigma}{\bar{x}} \times 100$$

Crosstabulation was used to examine the association between two categorical variables at a time. It helped in identifying patterns and differences among migrant women workers based on their demographic and socio-economic characteristics. Variables such as type of occupation, access to social security, nature of employment, education level and housing conditions and family-related variables were compared to understand how these aspects varied across different groups. The cross-tabulated results were presented in two-way contingency tables, showing the frequency distribution of categories and their percentage contributions. This method allowed the researcher to observe whether variations between groups were statistically meaningful or simply by chance and also served as a basis for Chi-square tests used in hypothesis testing later in the study.

To measure the strength and direction of linear relationships between quantitative variables, **Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r)** was applied. Variables such as age, monthly income, distance to workplace, working hours and duration of employment were included in the analysis.

The formula used for calculating the correlation coefficient was:

$$r = [n(\Sigma xy) - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)] / \sqrt{\{[n\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2] * [n\Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2]\}}$$

Where:

- n = Number of paired data points

- Σxy = Sum of the product of paired scores
- Σx, Σy = Sum of x scores and sum of y scores respectively
- Σx^2, Σy^2 = Sum of squared x scores and sum of squared y scores

The value of r ranges from –1 to +1, where:

- r close to +1 indicates a strong positive relationship
- r close to –1 indicates a strong negative relationship
- r around 0 indicates no linear relationship

The statistical calculations were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics software. The correlations helped determine whether factors such as longer working hours were linked with higher income or whether distance to workplace influenced job stability and duration of employment. This analysis supported broader interpretation of how socio-economic factors shaped the daily lives of migrant women workers.

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used in the study to examine whether there were statistically significant differences in the mean values of continuous variables across different groups of categorical variables. This method was appropriate because the dataset consisted of both numerical variables such as age, monthly income, working hours and distance travelled to the workplace and categorical groupings such as type of occupation, location of employment and work sector. The test compared the variation between groups and within groups to determine whether the group means differed beyond what could occur by chance.

The formula used for the ANOVA test was:

F = [(Σ ni * (Mi - MG) ^2) / (k - 1)] / [Σ (ni - 1) * Si^2 / (N - k)]

Where, f = frequency

x = midpoint

N = total number of items

Σ = sum of

ni = size of a specific group

Mi = mean of a specific group

MG = grand mean (overall average)

Si^2 = variance of a specific group

k = number of groups

A calculated p-value less than 0.05 (95% confidence level) indicated that at least one group mean was significantly different. When significant results were obtained, **Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD)** test was applied as a post-hoc analysis to identify which specific groups differed from one another. The One-Way ANOVA tests were done using IBM SPSS Statistics software. The results helped to assess disparities in wages, working hours and employment duration in various occupational categories to understand inequalities affecting migrant women in the study area.

The test compared all possible pairs of group means while controlling the overall error rate, thus reducing the risk of false positive results (Type-I error).

The formula followed for Tukey's HSD calculation was:

HSD = q * SQRT (MSE / n)

Where, q = Studentized Range Statistic (found in a Q-table using your alpha level, number of groups k and $df_{within.}$

MSE = Mean Square Error (from ANOVA table, often called "Within-Groups Mean Square").

n = Number of observations per group.

A pairwise difference greater than the calculated HSD value was considered statistically significant at a 95% confidence level.

This method was particularly useful for the study because migrant women workers were divided into multiple occupational and employment-related categories. The Tukey test helped pinpoint exactly which categories showed differences in income, working hours or duration of employment.

The Chi-Square test was applied to analyse the association between two variables. This statistical test was suitable for the study because many important aspects related to migrant women workers, such as type of employment, access to social security documents, nature of accommodation, family-related variables and workplace challenges were measured in categorical form.

The test compared the observed frequency in each cell of a contingency table with the expected frequency that would occur if there was no relationship between the variables.

The formula used was:

$\chi^2 = \Sigma [(O - E)^2 / E]$

where:
O = observed frequency in each category
E = expected frequency assuming independence.

If the calculated Chi-Square value resulted in a p-value less than 0.05 at the chosen confidence level, the null hypothesis of no association was rejected. This indicated that the relationship between the variables was statistically significant.

All Chi-Square tests were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics software. The results helped in understanding the inter connection between socio-economic characteristics and labour market experiences, such as whether marital status of the women determined the type of occupation she was engaged in. These findings strengthened the empirical assessment of inequalities within the migrant women workers.

Cluster analysis was used to classify migrant women workers into distinct homogeneous groups based on similarities in their socio-economic and employment characteristics. The **K-Means clustering method** was selected because it is widely used for partitioning large datasets into meaningful and internally homogeneous clusters. K-means is an iterative, centroid-based clustering algorithm that partitions a dataset into similar groups based on the distance between their centroids. The centroid, or cluster centre, is either the mean or median of all the points within the cluster depending on the characteristics of the data. The k-means algorithm is a widely used method in cluster analysis because it is efficient, effective and simple.

K-means clustering is an iterative process to minimize the sum of distances between the data points and their cluster centroids.

The k-means clustering algorithm operates by categorizing data points into clusters by using a mathematical distance measure, usually Euclidean, from the cluster centre. The objective is to minimize the sum of distances between data points and their assigned clusters. Data points that are nearest to a centroid are grouped together within the same category. The conventional k-means clustering algorithm requires a few steps. The first step is to

initialize *k* centroids where *k* is equal to the number of clusters chosen for a specific dataset. This approach uses either random selection or initial centroid sampling methods. The algorithm will categorize the items into "k*k*" groups or clusters of similarity. To calculate that similarity the Euclidean distance as a measurement is used.

The clustering helped in identifying patterns that were not visible through individual variable analysis and contributed to the construction of migrant typologies in the later part of the thesis. It was performed in IBM SPSS software.

The study employed **Lee's Theory of Migration as an analytical tool to examine the role of push–pull forces, intervening obstacles and personal characteristics in shaping migration decisions of women workers in Goa**. Push factors such as lack of employment opportunities, low wages were found to be the main push factors. Pull factors were assessed through employment characteristics, income levels and perceived benefits in Goa. Intervening obstacles including travel distance, financial constraints, documentation issues and family resistance were recorded as part of the migration history section. Personal factors included variables such as age, marital status, education and skill levels. These variables were later analysed with descriptive and inferential statistics to assess the extent to which the collected data could be validated with Lee's migration theory.

Ravenstein's Laws were used as an additional migration theory verification to strengthen the analysis. These laws were linked to economic reasons for migration, gender patterns and the distance travelled by women migrant workers. Information on the migrants' place of origin, their reason for moving and the role of relatives or known persons helped to check whether Ravenstein's ideas still apply today. Migration distances were grouped to understand both short and long-distance movements, while employment and wage details were used to identify economic motivations.

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) Analysis: The extent of fulfilment of SDGs relevant to migrant women workers were chosen for the analysis. Each SDG had a set of indicators which were taken from the primary data variables in line with similar analysis performed in previous studies and with the help of expert's suggestions. These indicators / variables were later used to derive percentages of fulfilled and not fulfilled for the migrant women workers in the study areas. The percentages of fulfilment and non-fulfilment for all the indicators under each SDG theme were then aggregated using simple averaging to derive a composite score for that SDG. Eventually each SDG had its own aggregate percentage

value for fulfilment and non-fulfilment which helped in understanding the ground realities of the state of migrant women workers living and working conditions. The SDG indicators were then represented as bar graphs with the percentage of fulfilment above the x axis in green colour and the percentage of non-fulfilment below the x axis in red colour.

Geospatial mapping has been used for visual representation of residential areas and workplaces of MWW.

Thematic maps have been prepared to provide a broader spatial distribution of MWW.

1.11 Unit and Period of Analysis

The unit of analysis in this study is the individual female internal migrant worker who is engaged in low-skilled or unskilled labour in the state of Goa working in sectors such as domestic work, construction, hospitality, workers in manufacturing industries and other forms of informal labour. The period of analysis for this study is from March 2021 to May 2025 covering data collection, data analysis and thesis writing.

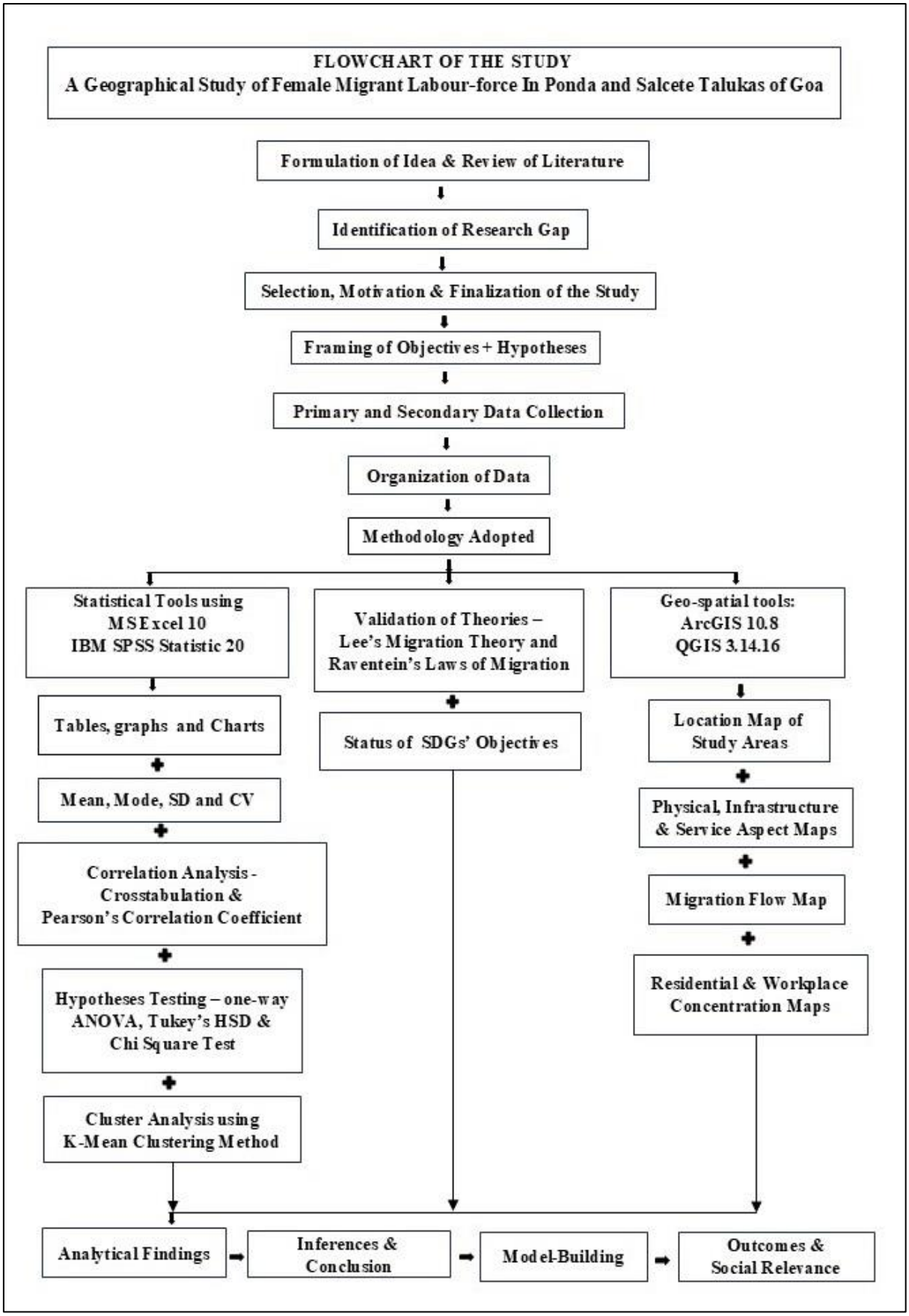


Figure 1.2 Flowchart of the Methodology

Source: Prepared by Author, 2025

1.12 Sample Design for Field Information Collection and Processing of Data

Following is the sample design for field information collection and processing of data.

Table 1.1 Sample Design for Field Information Collection and Processing of Data

Component	Details
Study Area	Ponda and Salcete talukas, Goa
Target Population	Migrant women engaged in semi-skilled, low-skilled and unskilled work
Occupation Categories	Domestic work, construction, street vending, cleaning, caregiving, etc.
Sampling Method	Purposive sampling
Sample Size	[Total number of respondents=730 MWW] (350 from Ponda and 380 from Salcete)
Sampling Units	Individual migrant women workers
Selection Criteria	-Migrant status (interstate migrants) -Female engaged in informal sector jobs - Working/living in Ponda or Salcete
Data Collection Tools	Semi-structured questionnaires, field observations
Data Processing Techniques	Coding and tabulation, statistical analysis
Data Collection Language	Local languages (Konkani, Hindi, Kannada, Marathi, etc., based on respondent)
Data Processing	Coding and Tabulation of Data in MS Excel and SPSS
Data Analysis	Statistical analysis including averages, frequency distribution, crosstabulations, correlation and cluster analysis and hypotheses testing. Validation and application of migration theories, Assessment of fulfilment of SDGs
Preparation of tables and charts	Based on frequency distribution and other analysis tables and charts were prepared.
Preparation of Maps	Different maps were prepared based on the study areas and migrant women concentration of residence and workplace, migration flow map, transport, connectivity and healthcare service maps.
Report Writing	The analysed data was presented as a report containing 6 chapters.

Table 1. 1 Sample Frame

Source: Prepared by the Author

1.13 Hypotheses

The following null and alternative hypotheses have been formulated based on the findings of previous studies on the related fields of research in other states of India and abroad and field experience of the researcher gained from pilot studies undertaken in the related topic.

- **Hypothesis 1**

Null (H_0): There is no association between marital status and occupation of migrant women workers.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between marital status and occupation of migrant women workers.

- **Hypothesis 2**

Null (H_0): There is no association between accommodation type and duration of stay.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between accommodation type and duration of stay.

- **Hypothesis 3**

Null (H_0): There is no association between age of MWW and duration of stay.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between age of MWW and duration of stay.

- **Hypothesis 4**

Null (H_0): There is no significant difference between mean duration of employment of MWW and their working hours.

Alternative (H_1): There is a significant difference between mean duration of employment of MWW and their working hours.

- **Hypothesis 5**

Null (H_0): There is no association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers.

All the above hypotheses have been tested using Chi-Square and ANOVA in the relevant chapters, viz. III and IV.

1.14 Chapterization

The thesis has been organized into six comprehensive chapters. The chapterization addresses the aspects of internal migration, with specific reference to low-skilled and unskilled migrant women workers (MWW) in Goa, particularly in Ponda and Salcete talukas. The structure follows a logical progression from conceptual foundations and regional context to empirical findings, policy-building and action-oriented recommendations.

The gist of chapterization are as follows, which have been elaborated below the gist.

Chapter I: Introduction and Background of the Study.

Chapter II: Study Region and the Govt. Policy Frameworks for the Workers.

Chapter III: Profile of Migrant Women Workers: Demographic, Economic and Migration Characteristics.

Chapter IV: Status of Migrant Women Workers in the Family and the Society and their access to Resources.

Chapter V: Emergency Situation Resilience and Status of Sustainable Development Goals.

Chapter VI: Summary and Conclusion covering Major Findings, Recommendations, Social Relevance, Outcomes and Future Scope.

The first chapter includes the foundation, introduction to the topic of migration, labour migration and features of female labour migration. The research gap, research questions, objectives, sources of data and a detailed methodology have been mentioned providing information about the unit and period of analysis, hypotheses. It has provided the outlines of the thesis.

The second chapter provides the geographic, demographic, economic and cultural characteristics of the study area of Ponda and Salcete talukas of South Goa in the State of Goa covering physical (location, physiography, climate, soil and vegetation), demographic, economic and cultural aspects of both the talukas. The chapter has also reviewed existing policy frameworks at the national and state level supporting workers.

The third chapter presents an empirical profile of the migrant women workers based on field data covering analysis of demographic characteristics, occupational details and migration-related information. It has provided a detailed information of the socio-economic situations of MWW in Goa. The chapter has shown the livelihood aspects such as income, savings,

expenditure, housing conditions and future plans. It has applied Lee's migration theory and Laws of Migration given by Ravenstein to infer the patterns. Correlations between variables have been examined using cross-tabulation and Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and validation of hypotheses is carried out by means of Chi-square test, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference).

The fourth chapter focused on the status of migrant women workers in the family and the society. It has examined the structure and responsibilities within families. It has studied the level of autonomy and decision-making power of migrant women within the households. The societal perception of MWW has been assessed in terms of treatment by locals, employers and community members. It has examined MWW's access to essential schemes and employer-based incentives. Hypothesis testing is carried out using Chi Square test and correlations between variables has been determined using crosstabulations. The chapter has concluded with cluster analysis, categorizing MWW into groups based on common characteristics.

The fifth chapter has contained preparedness and resilience of MWW in emergency situations by studying the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on them. The chapter further analyses the achievement of relevant sustainable goals using the variables of the study. The analysis has been presented with the help of bar graphs where SDG fulfilment and non-fulfilment for each indicator has been shown.

The sixth and final chapter contains the major findings and summaries. It has provided a set of recommendations along with realistic action plans specifying responsible agencies for implementation. The social relevance of the study and study outcomes are presented clearly. The limitations of the study are acknowledged towards the end. It also describes the future scope of the study.

1.15 Overview of the Chapter

The study has examined the socio-economic conditions and migration experiences of low-skilled and unskilled migrant women workers (MWW) in the Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa. The study has addressed a major gap in existing research, as internal migration in India is often studied from a male-centred perspective or limited to selected states. Although Goa attracts a large migrant workforce due to its tourism and construction sectors, the experiences of women migrants working in the informal sector have been undocumented.

This study has therefore focused on women who migrated from other parts of India to work in informal occupations in Goa.

The main objective was to analyse the demographic, occupational, social and economic profiles of migrant women workers. The study also examined their migration motivations, contribution to household income, social status, decision-making autonomy and experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, it assessed their access to government welfare schemes and essential identity documents and proposed policy recommendations to improve their wellbeing and social integration.

The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected through structured questionnaires from 730 migrant women, 350 from Ponda and 380 from Salcete supported by field visits and observations. A purposive sampling method supported by snowball sampling, was used to identify respondents engaged in domestic work, construction, caregiving, cleaning and street vending. Secondary data included books, research articles, government reports and online publications. The study period covered March 2021 to May 2025. Finally, the chapterization of the thesis has been outlined.

CHAPTER 2
STUDY REGION AND THE GOVT. POLICY FRAMEWORKS FOR THE WORKERS

2.1 Introduction

The following chapter has highlighted the geographical, physical, demographic, economic and cultural aspects of the study areas (region) with a geographical perspective pertaining to the two selected Talukas of Goa, namely, Ponda and Salcete Talukas. This is imperative to provide the background information of the region of research. It has also provided a detailed information about the policy and legal frameworks for the workers, especially migrant workers working in semi-skilled and low skilled jobs relating to their statutory protection and welfare measures.

2.2 Geographical Location, Coordinates and Features

Goa is located on the western coast of the Indian Peninsula. In 1987, Goa was conferred statehood and Daman and Diu was made a separate union territory. The state is separated from Maharashtra by the Terekhol River in the north, Karnataka in the south, the Western Ghats in the east and the Arabian sea in the west. Goa lies between the Northern Latitudes of 14°53′54″ and 15°40′00″ and Eastern longitudes of 73°40′33″ and 74°20′13″. Most of Goa is a part of the coastal region known as the Konkan, which is an escarpment rising up to the Western Ghats range of mountains, which separates it from the Deccan Plateau. Sonsogor, with an altitude of 1,167 meters (3,827 feet) is the Highest Point in Goa.

2.2.1 Topography/Physical Feature and Rivers: The State has a coastline of 101 km (Goa IPB, 2024). The state of Goa as a region can be divided into four divisions, viz. the Eastern hilly region comprising areas in the Western Ghats covering the talukas of Sattari, Dharbandora, Ponda, Cancaona and Sanguem; the Northern and Central Valley Lands comprising areas of Pernem, Bicholim, Ponda, Eastern Sanguem and Quepem talukas; the Flood Plains comprising the coastal plains and rolling uplands with areas of Tiswadi, Mormugao, Bardez and Salcete talukas (Goa Forest Department, 2022). The seven major rivers are the Mandovi, Zuari, Terekhol, Chapora, Galgibag, Cumbarjua canal, Talpona and the Sal. The Zuari and the Mandovi are the two most large rivers, interspaced by the Cumbarjua canal, forming a major estuarine complex. These rivers are fed by the Southwest monsoon rain and their basin covers 69% of the state's geographical area. These rivers are some of the busiest in India in terms of river navigation. The state has more than 40 estuarine,

eight marine and about 90 riverine islands. The total navigable length of the rivers is 253 km (157 mi). The state also has more than 300 ancient water tanks built during the rule of the Kadamba dynasty and over 100 medicinal springs (Geological Society of India, 2024).

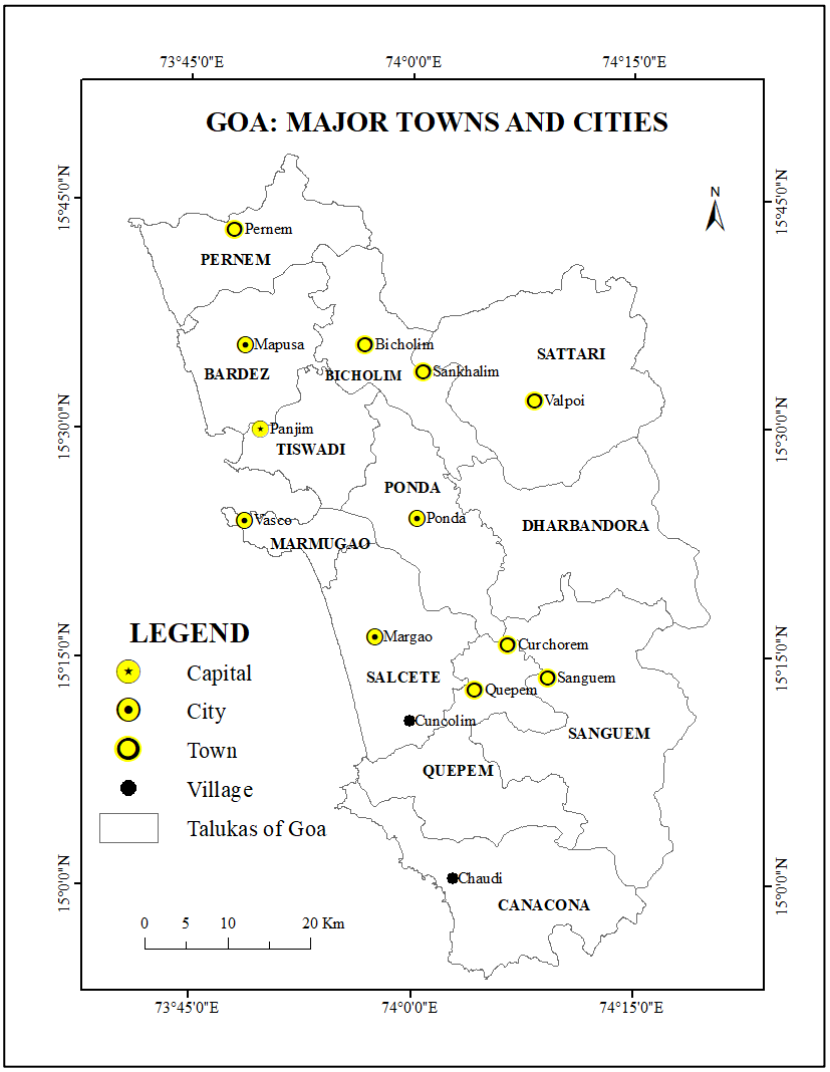


Figure 2.1 Goa - Locational Aspects along with Major Town and Cities

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook of Goa 2011

2.2.2 Climatic Characteristics: The state experiences tropical weather. Temperatures in Goa are moderate and equable with not much seasonal variation. The summer is at its hottest in May while the winter months of January and February are the coldest. Goa receives rainfall from the Southwest monsoon between the months of June to September. July receives the highest rainfall while February is the driest month (Goa Forest Department, 2022).

2.2.3 Soil Composition: The soils of Goa are mostly lateritic (81%). They are sandy loam to silt-loam in texture, well drained and highly acidic (5.5 to 6.5 pH). These soils have moderate organic carbon and are poor in potash. About 11% of the soils located along the

seacoast and estuaries are sandy-to-sandy loams. They include the Ker lands (community forest land) and beach fronts. The remaining 8% of the soils are alluvial in nature. The Khazans (estuarine agricultural land) and adjoining areas have alluvial soil with high water tables and are subject to inundation by saline water. The khazans consists of low- lying areas, often below sea level along the estuaries. This land is used for monsoon paddy crops followed by Rabi Vegetables. In limited areas, pisciculture is also carried out by regulating flow of water (e-krishi, Directorate of Agriculture Goa, 2025).

2.2.4 Vegetation Cover: The forests of Goa display a wide range of vegetation types due to variations in altitude, soil, moisture and terrain. Along the riverbanks, especially near the Mandovi and Zuari rivers, estuarine mangrove forests grow with species like mangroves (e.g. Rhizophora, Avicennia, Bruguiera) that have specialized roots to survive in salty, waterlogged soils. Coastal areas support strand vegetation with trees like coconut, pongamia and screw pine. On the inland plateaus and undulating hills, open scrub forests and moist deciduous forests dominate, with trees like Teak, Sal, Bamboo and Cashew. In hilly regions, semi-evergreen and evergreen forests thrive, particularly in areas like Molem and Amboli, with species such as Jackfruit, wild Mango, Jamun (Black Berry) and Banyan. These forests not only support a wide variety of plant life but also provide crucial habitat for wildlife, helping maintain Goa's ecological balance and natural heritage (Goa Forest Department, 2025).

2.2.5 Cultural Identity and Tourism: Goa is popularly known as "the Pearl of the East' with its churches, age-old ruins, palm-fringed beaches, coconut groves, ferry rides and bubbly folk music. Goa is an important destination in every tourist's itinerary. Sun, sand and sea being the major attractions, often considered a perfect heaven for the ones who need and want relaxation. It is one of India's states seemingly blessed with equable weather, fabulous beaches, delightful people, good food, hill-top forts, little white-washed Churches, soaring Portuguese-era Cathedrals making up as a unique cultural legacy and one of India's prime holiday destinations. Goa is packed with jaded yuppies hoping to switch off and unwind for a few days and sun-starved European soaking up all that glorious sun and food (Goa Forest Department, 2022). The beaches in Goa, like the others along the Konkan coast, are long, straight and fringed with palm trees, but unlike much of the neighbouring coastline (Balasubramanian, 2017). Goa has an impressive infrastructure of hotels and beach resorts, restaurant and bars, which cater to all price ranges, from top-notch 5-star luxury, to hippy flop-shops. Tourist influx started in Goa in the 60s and 70s of 20th century with hippies,

followed by explorers and mass tourist traffic. The State has witnessed a notable 21% growth which promises a very positive trend of tourism in Goa. While domestic tourist footfall increased by 22%, foreign tourist footfall increased by 3%. These statistics indicate a robust growth in Goa's tourism sector, reaffirming its position as a most preferred tourist destination. In the year 2023, Goa received 81.75 lakh domestic tourists and 4.53 lakh foreign tourists, totalling to 86.28 tourists. During the year 2024, Goa welcomed 99.41 lakh domestic tourists and around 4.68 lakh international tourists, bringing the total to 104.09 lakh tourists (Directorate of Planning, Statistics and Evaluation, 2024-25).

2.2.6 Demographic Composition: The population of Goa was 1,457,723 and ranked 25th in the country (Census of India, 2011) with a population density of 394 persons per sq. km. The sex ratio (SR) was 968 females to 1000 males. This ratio was higher than the national average of 940 females to 1000 males. The state had a birth rate of 13.5% per 1000 people per year and a death rate of 6.7%. The State's literacy rate has shown a gradual increase from 82.01% in 2001 to 87.40% in 2011, with male literacy at 92.81% and female at 81.84% (Census of India, 2011). Government of India has recently declared Goa as 100% literate state under ULLAS Scheme also known as the New India Literacy Programme (NILP), Nav Bharat Saksharata Karyakram, 2025. Goa's population is predominantly urban, with 906,814 people residing in urban areas and 551,731 in rural areas (Government of Goa, 2025). The major religions in Goa are Hinduism and Christianity. Around two-thirds of the population are Hindus and about one-third are Christians, primarily Roman Catholics. A smaller percentage follow Islam and other faiths, reflecting Goa's diverse cultural heritage. The official language of Goa is Konkani, written in the Devanagari script. Other commonly spoken languages include Marathi, Hindi and English, with Portuguese still spoken by some, due to Goa's colonial past (Goa Tourism Department, 2025).

2.2.7 Economic Status: Goa is one of the richest states with its GDP per capita two and a half times that of the country as a whole. The State is well endowed with economic mineral deposits, particularly iron and manganese ores. The in-situ reserves of about 967 million tonnes of the haematite, 187 million tonnes of magnetite and 83.1 million tonnes of manganese ore respectively constitute: 8%, 3.08% and 22.4% of the total resources estimated for the country. Because of their proximity to the sea port, they are being mined extensively for export. Besides iron and manganese, a number of deposits of bauxite, silica sand, low grade limestone, clays, low grade chromite and quartzite are also extensively found in Goa. Agriculture is one of the important economic activities in the state. The total

agricultural area is approximately 1400 sq. km. from which 1200 sq. km. is owned by the govt and remaining 200 sq. km. is owned privately. Rice is the main agricultural crop, followed by areca, cashew and coconut. Fishing employs about 40,000 people, though recent official figures indicate a decline in the importance of this sector and also a fall in the catch, due perhaps, to traditional fishing giving way to large-scale mechanised trawling. Medium-scale industries include the manufacturing of pesticides, fertilizers, tires, tubes, footwear, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, wheat products, steel rolling, fruits and fish canning, cashew nuts, textiles, brewery products (Government of Goa, 2025).

2.2.8 Transport Network: Goa has a well-connected transportation system that includes roadways, railways and waterways. Public buses operated by Kadamba Transport Corporation serve major towns and villages. Auto-rickshaws, mini buses and motorbike taxis are popular for short distances. The state is also connected by the Konkan Railway, making train travel convenient. Goa International Airport (Dabolim) and Manohar International Airport, Mopa handle both domestic and international flights, while ferries provide access to riverine islands (Department of Transport Goa, 2025).

2.3 Ponda Taluka: An Introduction to Study Area-Unit I

Ponda Taluka is a subdivision of the South Goa district in the Indian state of Goa. It is situated in the northeastern part of the district. The taluka has the distinction for its rich cultural heritage, historical temples and natural beauty. The administrative sub-region is home to several villages, each with its own unique charm and traditions. The taluka is also famous for its spice farms, cashew plantations and traditional Goan cuisine. The taluka has become a popular tourist destination attracting visitors from around the world having some of the popular attractions, viz. Shri Mangueshi Temple, Shri Mahalsa Temple and the Butterfly Conservatory of Goa (Census of India, 2011).

2.3.1 Physical Aspects

The following discussion provides an insight into the physical aspects of one of the study areas, i.e. Ponda Taluka covering location, physiography, climate, soil and vegetation.

2.3.1.1 Location

The Taluka is situated between latitudes 73°55’0’’ E to 74°6’0” E and longitudes 15°19’30” N to 15°30’30” N, in the north eastern part of South Goa district. The Head Quarter town, Ponda is an important cultural and commercial centre is located about 28 kilometres southeast of Panaji, the state capital and around 25 kilometres northeast of Margao, the

district HQ of South Goa, which is again the commercial hub of Goa. Ponda Taluka is well connected by road, with National Highway 66 and National Highway 748. It is bordered by Tiswadi Taluka to the west and Bicholim Taluka to the north in North Goa. To the east, it shares a boundary with the Dharbandora Taluka and to the south with Quepem Taluka of South Goa district. The taluka attracts tourists and labour forces from neighbouring States as it plays a key role in inter - state regional trade and commerce. Its location provides as a vital link between Goa and the neighbouring state supporting economic development and cultural interaction (Government of Goa, 2024).

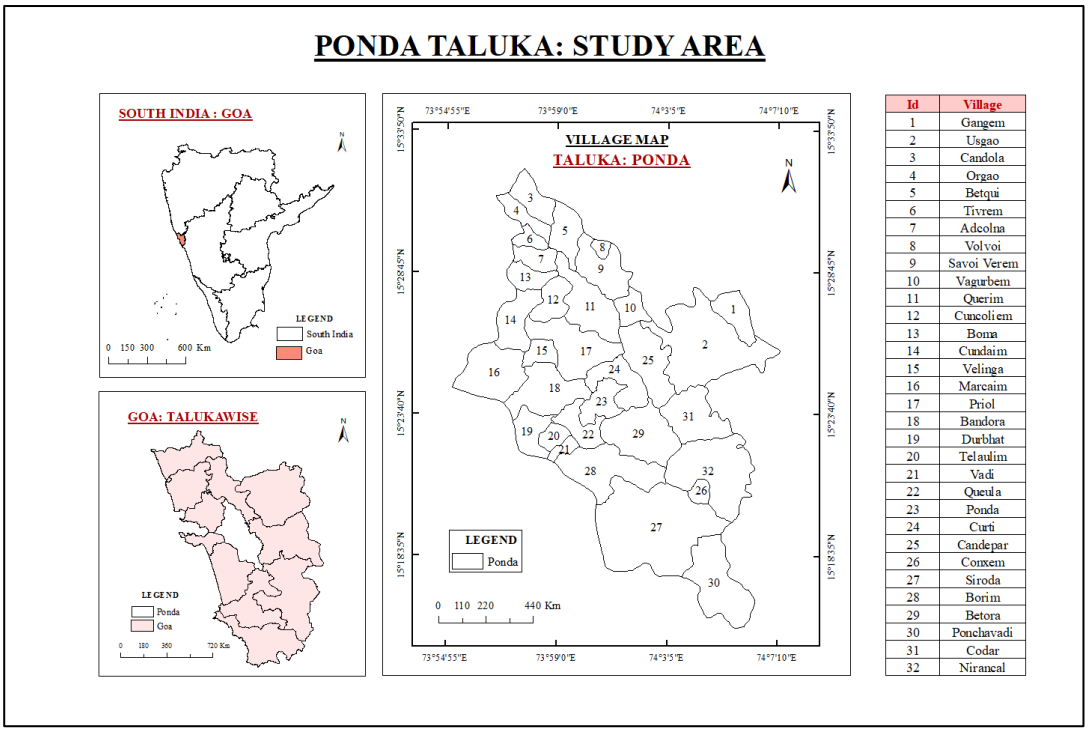


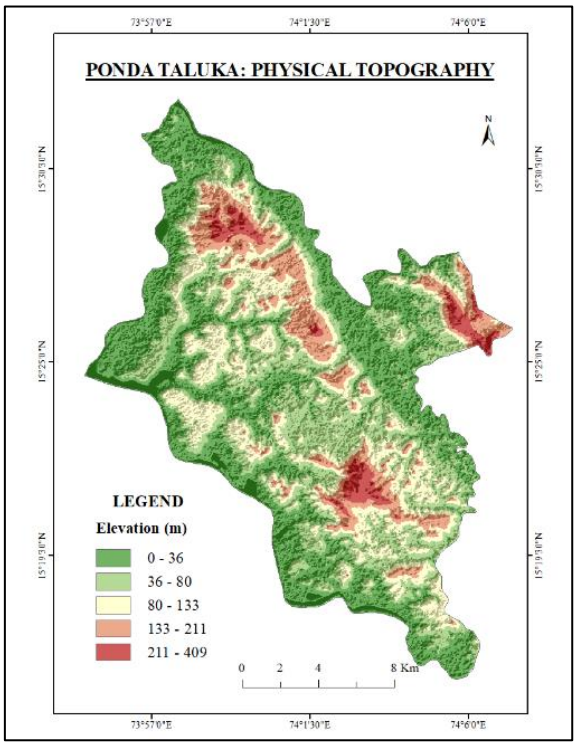
Figure 2.2 Ponda Taluka - Locational Aspects Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook of Goa, 2011

2.3.1.2 Physiography and Rivers

Ponda Taluka is characterized by a varied physiography that includes gently undulating terrain, low hills and river valleys. Located in the central-eastern part of Goa, the taluka lies between the coastal plains of western Goa and the Western Ghats to the east. The landscape is primarily composed of lateritic plateaus interspersed with forested slopes and agricultural valleys. The taluka is drained by several rivers and streams, the most prominent being the Zuari River and its tributaries, which support irrigation and contribute to the region's agricultural productivity. The elevation gradually rises towards the eastern boundary, where the terrain becomes more rugged and hilly, forming part of the lower Western Ghats. This

diverse topography not only supports a range of vegetation types but also influences settlement patterns, land use and local climate conditions (Goa Forest Department, 2025).



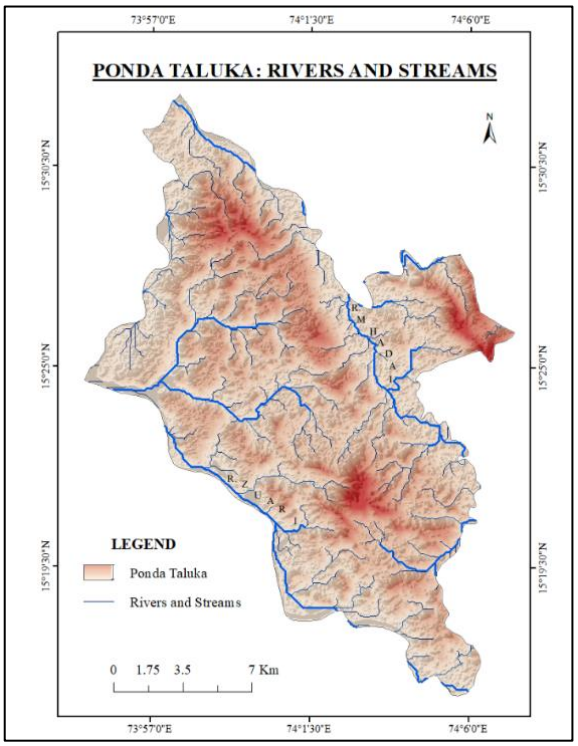


Figure 2.3 Ponda Taluka-Physiography Map **Figure 2.4 Ponda Taluka - Rivers and Streams**
Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS & QGIS using SOI Maps, OSM & ASTER DEM (30m) & USGS

2.3.1.3 Climate

Ponda Taluka experiences a tropical monsoon climate characterized by high temperatures and high humidity throughout the year. The taluka's proximity to the Arabian Sea and its location in the western ghats region significantly influences its climate. The summer months, which last from March to May, are particularly hot and humid, with average temperatures ranging from 30°C to 35°C (86°F to 95°F). During this period, the relative humidity is usually high, making the heat feel more oppressive (Climate Data, 2025).

The summer season is followed by the monsoon season, which lasts from June to September, bringing heavy rainfall and a significant drop in temperature. The monsoon season is characterized by intense rainfall, with an average annual rainfall of around 3,000 mm (118 in), making Ponda Taluka one of the highest rainfall regions in Goa. The rainfall is often accompanied by thunderstorms and strong winds, which can cause flooding and disrupt transportation. The monsoon season is followed by a brief winter season, which lasts from December to February and is characterized by mild and pleasant weather, with average

temperatures ranging from 20°C to 30°C (68°F to 86°F). During this period, the relative humidity is relatively low, making the weather comfortable (Goa Forest Department, 2022).

2.3.1.4 Soil

The soils of Ponda Taluka are primarily lateritic in nature, formed through the weathering of basaltic and other igneous rocks under conditions of high rainfall and temperature. The diversity of soils in the taluka supports a wide range of land uses, viz. forest cover, plantations and seasonal cultivation (e-krishi Directorate of Agriculture Goa, 2025).

2.3.1.5 Natural Vegetation

Ponda Taluka has a diverse vegetation cover shaped by its tropical climate, fertile soils and varied topography. The region has natural forests, agricultural fields, plantations and sacred groves. Dense patches of evergreen and semi-evergreen forests are found in some areas, especially near the foothills and along water sites. These forests are also home to a wide variety of plant species, many animals and birds. Sacred groves, traditionally protected by local communities also preserve native flora having ecological and cultural importance (Goa Forest Department, 2022). In addition to natural vegetation, the Taluka has an agricultural diversity with many fruit-bearing trees and vegetable crops cultivated throughout the year making the landscape almost Green throughout the year.

2.3.2 Demographic Aspects

The following discussion has provided information about the demographic aspects of Ponda Taluka depicting population size and density, sex ratio, literacy rates and rural-urban population, religion and language.

2.3.2.1 Population Size and Density

As per the 2011 Census, Ponda Taluka had a total population of approximately 155,000 people with the population density of 394 persons per square kilometre, reflecting a moderately populated region compared to other parts of Goa. The population distribution shows a predominance of rural residents, with about 75% living in villages and the remaining 25% residing in urban areas (Census of India, 2011).

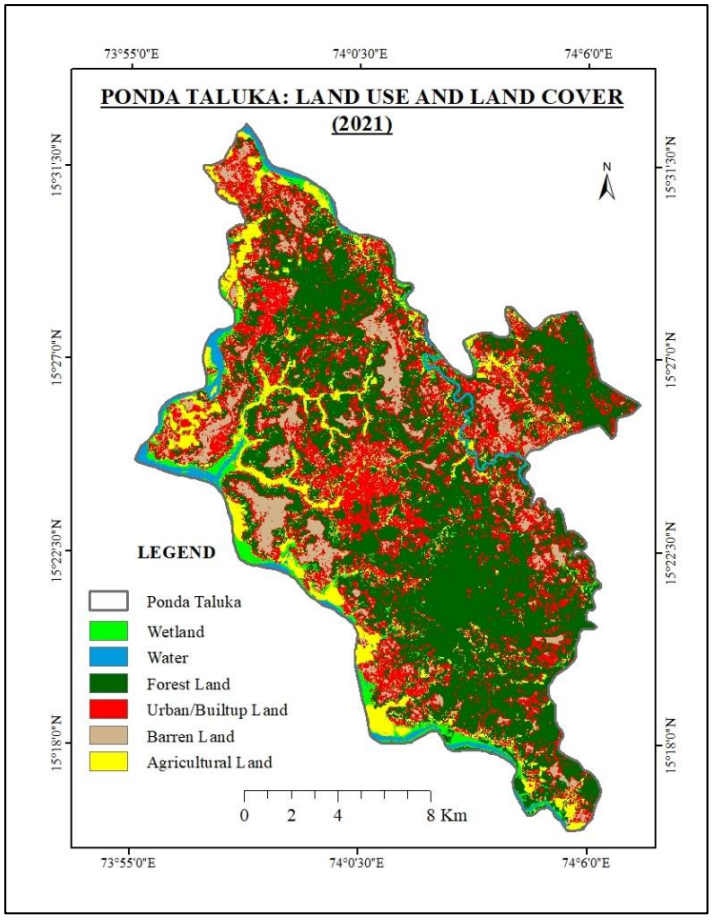
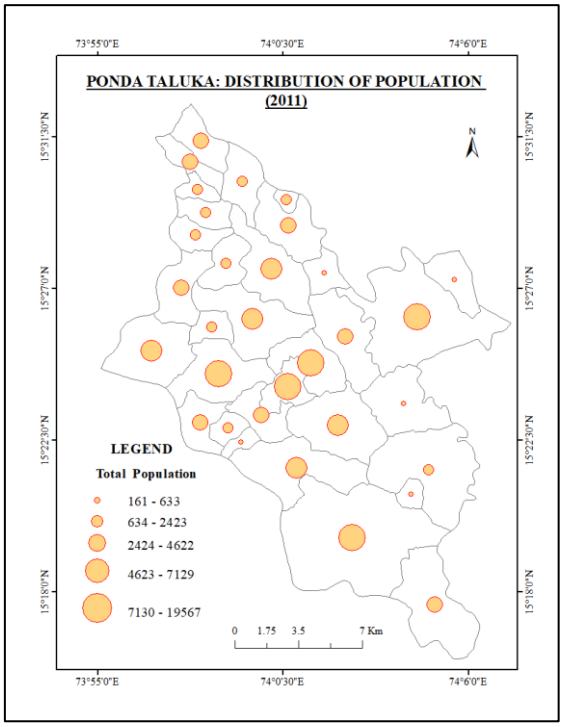


Figure 2.5 Ponda Taluka - Land-Use and Land Cover Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS & ERDAS Imagine using Landsat 2021 satellite imagery



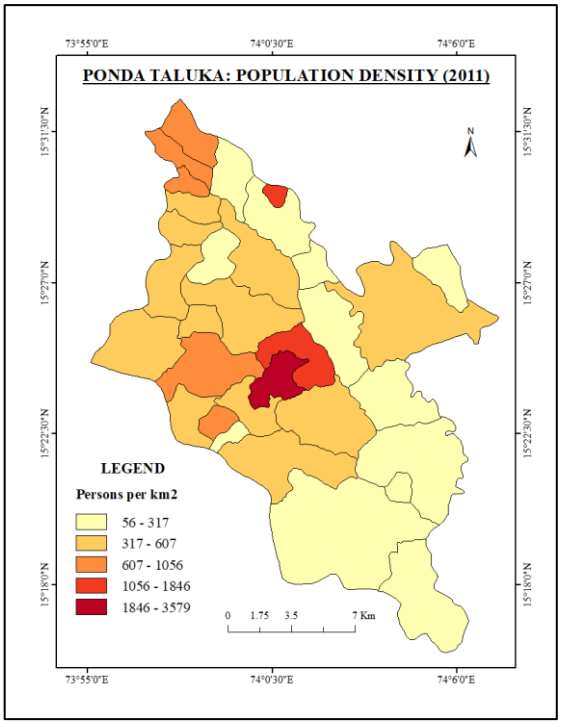


Figure 2.6 Ponda Taluka - Population Distribution Figure 2.7 Ponda Taluka - Population Density

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook *of Goa,* 2011

2.3.2.2 Female: Male (Gender or Sex Ratio)

According to the 2011 Census, the sex ratio of Ponda Taluka was 985 females for every 1000 males. This ratio indicated a slightly higher number of males compared to females, but it is closer to parity. The almost balanced sex ratio indicates importance given to the women in the region in terms of education, health and employment (Census of India, 2011).

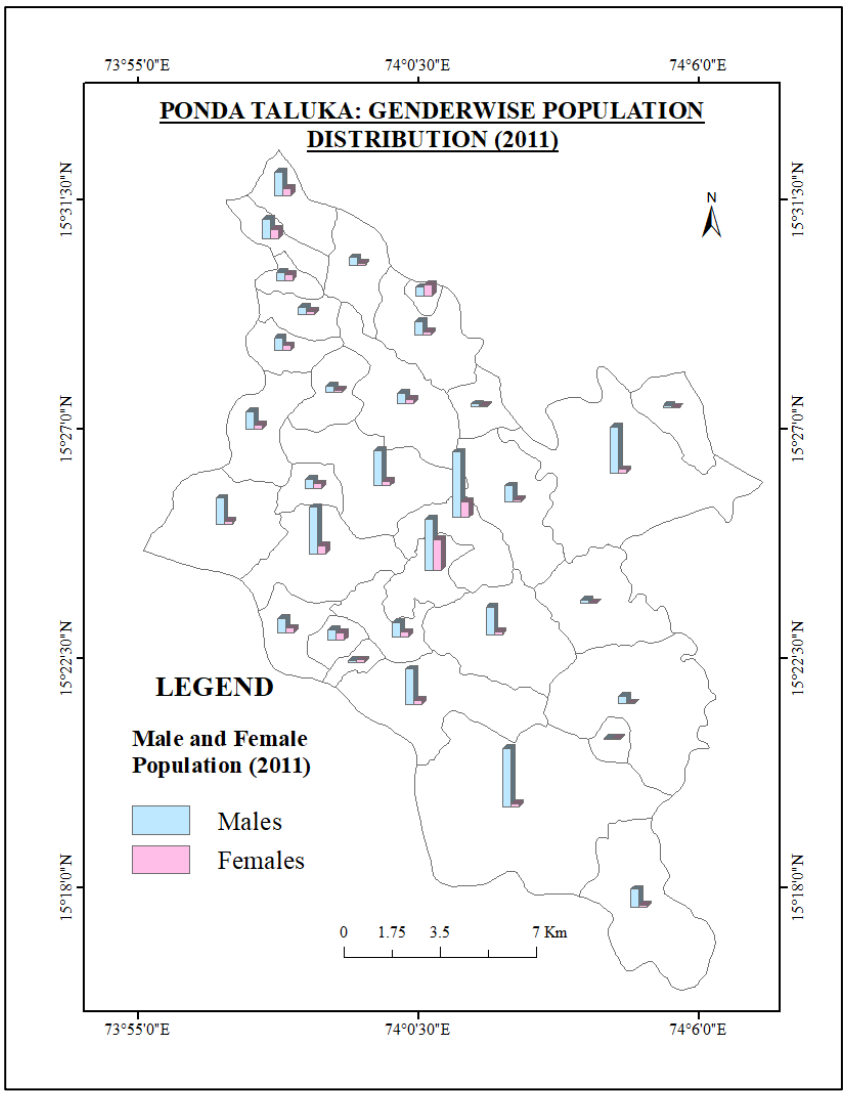


Figure 2.8 Ponda Taluka - Gender-wise Population Distribution Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook of Goa, 2011

2.3.2.3 Literacy Rates

Ponda Taluka demonstrates a relatively high literacy rate, with approximately 88% of its population able to read and write according to the 2011 Census. Male literacy percentage is slightly higher than female literacy proportion. Despite this disparity, the overall literacy levels in Ponda are above the national average, indicating access to schooling (Census of India, 2011).

2.3.2.4 Rural-Urban Population Distribution

The Taluka's population is predominantly rural with approximately 75% of residents living in the villages while the rest reside in urban centres. The rural population have primarily been engaged in farming, horticulture and related activities, while urban areas have served as hubs for trade, commerce, education and other services (Census of India, 2011). Interestingly, there are four industrial estates located in the rural areas of the Taluka.

2.3.2.5 Religion

Ponda Taluka has a diverse religious composition with Hindus, Muslims and Christians, who have been living in harmony with each other for ages. Hindus are in majority (70%) of the population. Christians constitute around 20%, while Muslims and followers of other religions make up the remaining 10% (Goa Tourism, 2025).

2.3.2.6 Language

The primary language spoken in Ponda Taluka is Konkani, which serves as the official language of Goa and is widely used in daily communication, education and administration. Marathi and Kannada are also spoken by some sections of the population due to historical and geographical influences. Additionally, English is commonly used in education, business and government, particularly in urban areas (Goa Tourism, 2025).

2.3.3 Economic Aspects

The following discussion gives a bird's eye view of the economic aspects of Ponda Taluka including agriculture, industry, market, transport and other economic activities.

2.3.3.1 Agriculture

The taluka has a strong agricultural base. There are many fruit-bearing trees and vegetable crops cultivated throughout the year since most of the crop lands have easy access to spring and stream water (locally known as Kulagars). Coconut and cashew groves are a common site in the taluka, which are well adapted to the coastal and inland conditions. Different varieties of Mangoes, other tropical fruits such as jackfruit, chikkoo and guava are also cultivated. Vegetable farming is widespread which include crops like chilies, pumpkins, melons, snake gourd and brinjal playing a role in the rural economy, making it a key contributor to the region's ecology and agricultural landscape (Goa Forest Department, 2022). Rice cultivation, especially in suitable paddy fields is an important agricultural activity of the people. The agricultural activities are mostly labour-intensive in the taluka in

most of the stages such as land preparation, transplanting, weeding, harvesting and processing (Government of Goa, 2024).

Cash crops such as cashew and coconut also play an important economic role in Ponda Taluka. Cashew plantations thrive in the region's climate and require minimal maintenance, with both cashew nuts and apples being processed locally of which, the nuts are sold domestically and internationally while the apples are used to produce 'feni', a traditional Goan spirit. Coconut plantations provide diverse products including coconuts for consumption, copra for oil extraction and coconut husks for coir products. Additionally, in Ponda taluka, cultivation of valuable spices such as black pepper and cardamom, which contribute to the spice trade of Goa is very common. Fruit cultivation of mangoes, jackfruits and bananas further complements the agricultural economy, supplying local consumption and commercial markets (GIDC, 2024).

2.3.3.2 Industry

The Taluka is a hub of industrial activities with a diverse range of industries that have contributed to the region's economic growth. The taluka has mining industry with iron ore and manganese mining sites in the surrounding areas supported by a well-developed infrastructure network of road-railway-port transportation. The industrial estates of Ponda Taluka, namely Kundaim, Betoda, Marcaim, Usgao, Curti are well known for housing the manufacturing and engineering units, which have industries of food processing, pharmaceuticals and chemicals. The food processing units produce varieties of products like fish processing, fruit juices and spices. The pharmaceutical industries have several units manufacturing medicines and healthcare products. There are many small-scale industries like handicrafts, textiles and footwear producing woodcarving items, pottery and weaving cotton fabrics, readymade garments and embroidery (District Industrial Profile of North Goa District, 2017). In addition to the well demarcated industrial estates, the separately located medium industries in the Taluka are MRF Unit, Phinolex Unit, Nestle Unit at Usgao are leading industries in the taluka. All these Industrial Estates and independently located industries are under the administrative control of Goa Industrial Development Corporation (GIDC) proactively supporting the various industrial activities since they help in generating employment opportunities and providing earning avenues to the local as well as the migrant workers contributing immensely to the local economy (GIDC, 2024).

In addition to these industries, Ponda Taluka is also home to a growing tourism industry, with several hotels, resorts and tourist attractions in the region. The taluka's tourism industry is supported by its rich cultural heritage and vibrant cultural festivals (Governement of Goa, 2020).

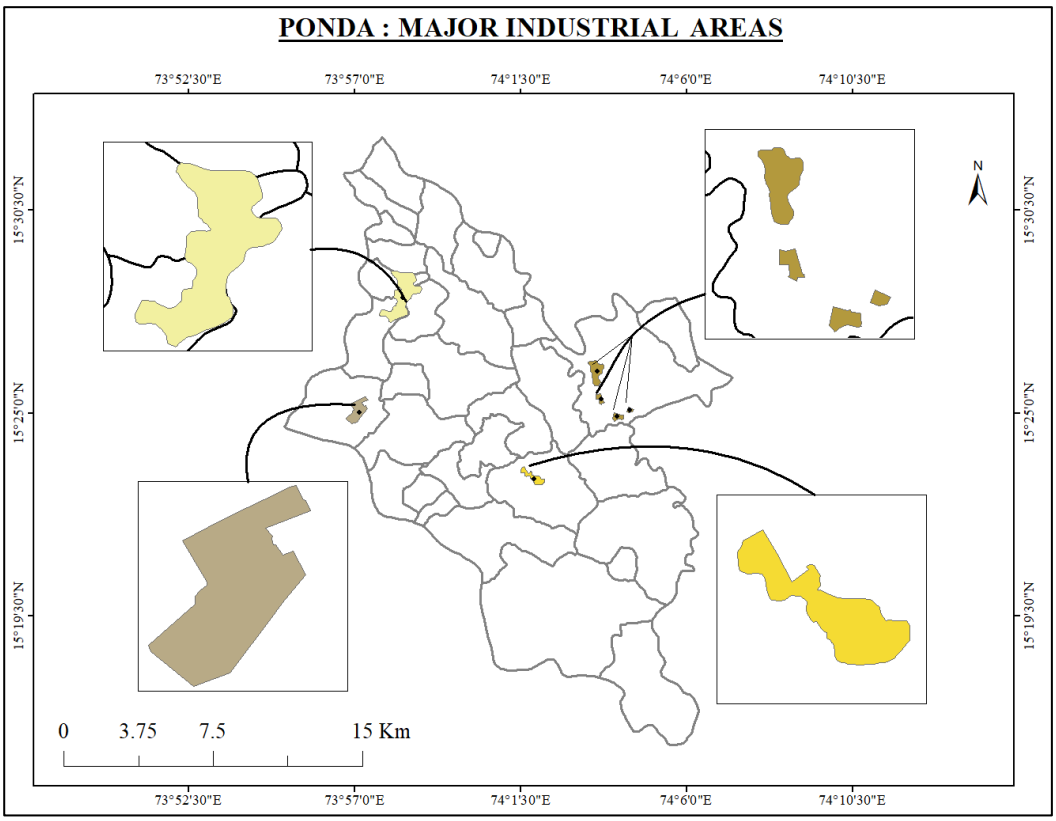


Figure 2.9 Ponda Taluka - Major Industrial Areas
Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS & QGIS using GIDC Data, OSM, Google Earth

2.3.3.3 Market

Ponda Taluka functions as a key commercial hub within the region, with a well-established market system that plays a vital role in supporting both agricultural producers and other local businesses. The taluka's markets offer farmers opportunities to sell a variety of crops including rice, cashew, coconut, spices and fruits. These markets are often local and weekly bazaars where fresh produce is traded directly between growers, retailers and consumers, ensuring a steady supply of goods and fair prices. Additionally, the presence of numerous small-scale shops, wholesalers and traders within Ponda town and surrounding villages contributes to a thriving local economy (Goa IPB, 2024).

The strategic location of Ponda Taluka near larger urban centres such as Panaji and Margao enhances its market significance. Agricultural produce from Ponda is transported to these

cities and beyond, reaching regional, national and even international markets. Processing units and exporters in and around the taluka add value to raw agricultural products, particularly cashew nuts and spices, facilitating access to export markets. This integration with larger supply chains provides local farmers and traders with broader economic opportunities and contributes to the overall development of the taluka. Moreover, the expanding infrastructure, including improved roads and market facilities, continues to strengthen Ponda's role as a vital trade and commercial centre in Goa (Goa IPB, 2024).

2.3.3.4 Transport Network

Ponda Taluka is served by an extensive road system of national highways, state highways and rural roads facilitating smooth connectivity (Government of Goa, 2006). Public transport is supported by the state-owned Kadamba Transport Corporation (KTC) supplemented by private buses, local inter village transport system (Mhaji Bus), operating extensive bus services to various parts of Goa and neighbouring states. In addition, four-wheeler (LMVs) and two-wheeler (Pilot) taxi services provide travel options for the local residents and visitors (Government of Goa, 2020).

The Vasco da Gama and Margao railway stations, located approximately 30 kilometres and 20 Kms respectively from the taluka headquarters, serve as crucial railway service provider linking the taluka with major states of India and to the large cities like Mumbai, Delhi and Bengaluru. Air travel is facilitated by the two International Airports, viz. nearby Dabolim Airport at 40 kilometres and the Manohar International Airport at Mopa at a distance of 55 km. These Airports offer regular flights to different parts of the country and the world (Government of Goa, 2026). The navigational transport is facilitated by ferry services that connect coastal riverine areas and islands with other parts (Goa Tourism, 2024).

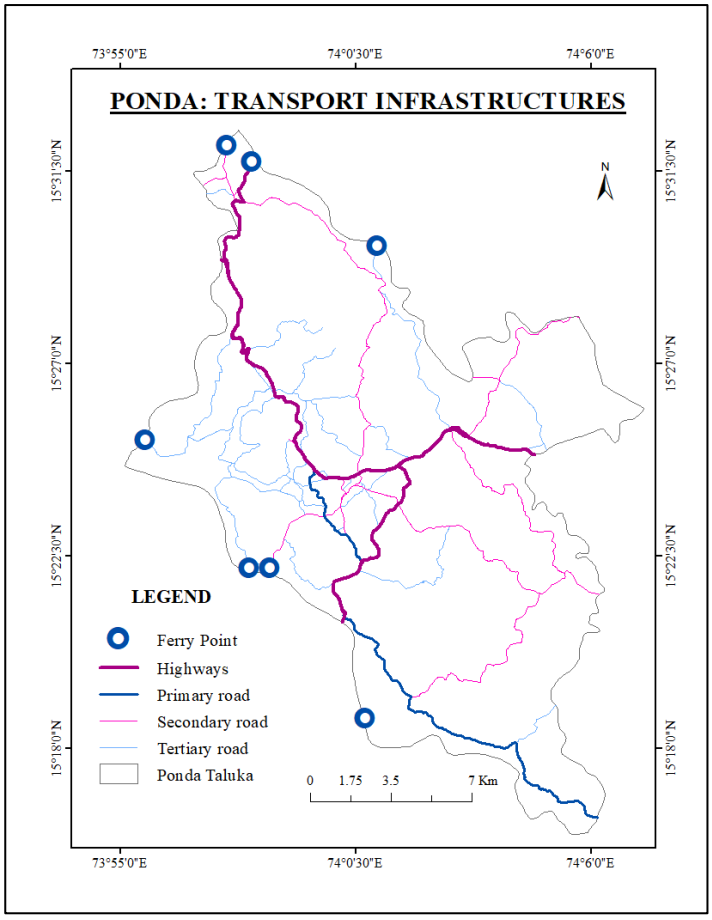


Figure 2.10 Ponda Taluka - Transport Infrastructure Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS & QGIS using OpenStreetMap tool & data from River Navigation Department (RND), Government of Goa & Kadamba Transport Corporation Ltd. (KTCL)

2.3.3.5 Other Economic Activities

Apart from the primary sectors like agriculture and industry, the Taluka's economy is also supported by several other important activities, namely banking and finance, credit facilities and savings, businesses and farmers' cooperative societies. Tourism is another growing contributor, with cultural and natural attractions drawing visitors and supporting hospitality and related services. The services sector, including education, healthcare and retail, provides significant employment opportunities and supports the overall development of the taluka. Small-scale and cottage industries, such as cashew processing and handicrafts, add value to local resources and preserve traditional skills.

2.3.4 Cultural Aspects

The Taluka is renowned for its rich cultural heritage and diverse cultural attributes. The taluka's strategic location has facilitated the confluence of various cultures, including the indigenous Goan culture, Portuguese colonial influences and migrant communities from

across India. The cultural landscape of Ponda Taluka is characterized by a unique blend of traditional and modern practices. The taluka is home to numerous temples, churches and mosques, showcasing the harmonious coexistence of different religious communities. The famous Shri Mangueshi Temple, Shri Mahalsa Temple and the Church of Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception and Safa Masjid are prominent examples of the region's cultural and religious significance (Golden Goa, 2013).

Additionally, the taluka's cultural identity is deeply rooted in its folk music, dance and art forms. The traditional Goan folk songs, known as "Mandos" and the "Dekni" dance form are integral parts of Ponda Taluka's cultural heritage. The region is also famous for its colourful festivals, such as the "Shigmo" festival, which showcases the vibrant cultural traditions of the taluka. Ponda Taluka is also known for its rich culinary heritage, with a unique blend of Goan, Portuguese and Indian cuisine. The taluka is famous for its traditional dishes, such as Fish Curry Rice, Biryani and Sanna which are prepared using locally sourced ingredients and age-old recipes (Golden Goa, 2013). The region is also famous for its traditional Goan dishes like Vindaloo (a spicy curry made with meat or seafood), Xacuti (a rich curry made with meat or vegetables) and Kismur (a dry fish dish). The local cuisine is also influenced by Portuguese flavours, with dishes like bebinca (a layered pudding made with coconut milk and eggs) and Perada (a sweet bread) being popular desserts (Goa Tourism, 2025). The taluka's cultural attributes are also reflected in its traditional occupations, such as agriculture, fishing and craftsmanship. The region is famous for its skilled artisans, who excel in crafts like woodcarving, pottery and weaving (Golden Goa, 2013).

The region experiences celebration of different festivals, with Hindu festivals like Shigmo, Ganesh Chaturthi and Diwali being celebrated with great fervour, alongside Christian festivals like Easter and Christmas. The Muslim community in the region also celebrates Eid-al-Fitr and Eid-al-Adha with great enthusiasm. The religious harmony in Ponda Taluka is a testament to the region's cultural and historical heritage, which has been shaped by the confluence of various religious and cultural influences (Goa Tourism, 2025).

2.3.5 Employment Potentials for the Migrants vis-à-vis Female Workers (MWW)

The above discussion portrayed background builds a strong foundation for potential employment opportunities to the local population and migrant population from all strata: highly qualified, skilled, semi-skilled, unskilled coming from both the genders and from

different economic backgrounds. Migrant workers have become a necessity in the taluka due to ever growing industrial, educational, construction, service, maintenance and supply activities. Female migrant workers also find opportunities in all these sectors either as first time workers or family accompanied workers.

Migrant female workers (MWW) in Ponda Taluka constitute a significant portion of the local labour force, especially in sectors that rely on manual and semi-skilled labour. Their employment patterns are shaped by the demand for labour in various informal and formal industries. Agriculture is one such avenue for employment for the MWW, where women can engage in labour intensive activities such as sowing, transplanting, weeding, harvesting and post-harvest processing related to Paddy cultivation, cashew plantations and coconut farming, particularly during respective seasons (Devi & Sudarshan, 2024).

Domestic work forms another employment opportunities for MWW in Ponda. Many women find work as domestic helpers in urban and semi-urban households to perform tasks such as cleaning, cooking, childcare and elderly care. These works provide flexible working hours in addition to being an assured source of income for migrant women, who often lack formal education or vocational skills.

The expanding tourism sector in and around Ponda has created different types of employment opportunities for migrant female workers, although in low-skilled and entry-level positions. Many migrant women find work in housekeeping jobs in hotels, guesthouses and homestays, where they absorbed for cleaning rooms, laundering linens and maintaining overall premises. In addition to housekeeping, migrant women are employed in various hospitality services such as cooking, food preparation, serving in restaurants and assisting in event management (Devi & Sudarshan, 2024).

Retail related employment is also an avenue, where migrant women work in shops, local markets and souvenir stalls catering to the locals and tourists. Vendor and hawker activities are an integral part of the informal economy providing employment opportunities for migrant female workers. Hence, many migrant women are engaged in street vending, selling a wide range of goods such as fresh fruits, vegetables, flowers and fish and other household items. Hawking is also prevalent among the MWW, where women move around markets, bus stops and residential areas with goods displayed on trays or carts for selling.

Factory work is a major source of employment for migrant female workers in Ponda Taluka. Many of them find jobs in small and medium-scale manufacturing units in jobs such as sorting, packaging, quality control and assembly line work (Mawii & Eckstein, 2020).

Many migrant women take up tailoring due to its flexibility in working hours and the possibility of working within their own communities. The demand for tailoring services remains steady in Ponda due to the local population's need for custom-fitted garments, traditional attire and occasional clothing repairs. Additionally, festive seasons and weddings create increased demand, providing an opportunity for additional income (Mawii & Eckstein, 2020).

Overall, there lies the diverse employment opportunities for migrant female workers but predominantly in informal sectors in Ponda Taluka.

2.4 Introduction to Salcete Taluka, Study Area-Unit II

Salcete Taluka, located in the south western part of Goa, is a vibrant and diverse sub-region that embodies the rich cultural heritage and natural beauty of the state, which is situated in the South Goa district. It is bounded by the Arabian Sea to the west, Quepem Taluka to the east, and Canacona Taluka to the south. With its headquarters in Margao, the commercial capital of Goa, Salcete Taluka is a hub of economic activities, cultural festivities and tourist attractions. The taluka is known for its stunning beaches, historic temples and lively markets, making it a popular destination for tourists and locals alike. It is also home to a diverse population, with a unique blend of Goan, Portuguese and Indian cultures, which is reflected in its language, cuisine and traditions.

2.4.1 Physical Aspects

The following are the physical aspects of Salcete Taluka covering location, physiography, climate, soil and vegetation.

2.4.1.1 Location

Salcete Taluka is located between latitudes 15°08'30" N to 15°19'30" N and longitudes 73°55'0" E to 74°06'0" E, in the southern part of Goa. Topographically, this administrative sub-region is geographically positioned between the Arabian Sea and the foothills of the Western Ghats (Governement of Goa, 2020). The headquarters of Salcete Taluka is Margao, which is also the district HQ of South Goa. The city is located 33 kilometres south of Panaji, the capital of Goa. The city serves as an important administrative, commercial and

transportation hub well-served by road, rail and air. The taluka's location along the Konkan coast makes it a centre for trade, tourism and fishing. Its coastal setting also influences its climate. The climate is typically tropical marked by high humidity and temperatures for most part of the year. During the monsoon season, i.e. from June to September, the taluka receives sufficient rainfall, which supports agriculture and replenishes natural water resources (Census of India, 2001).

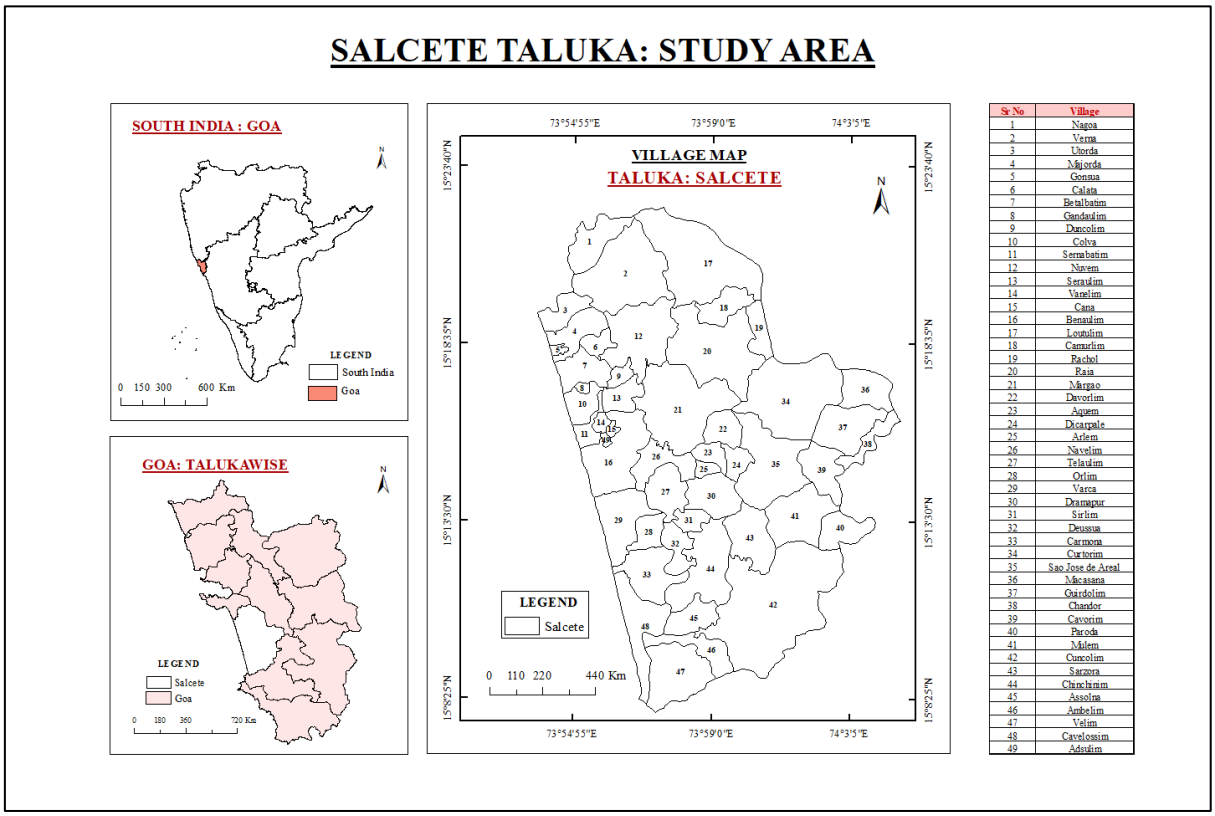
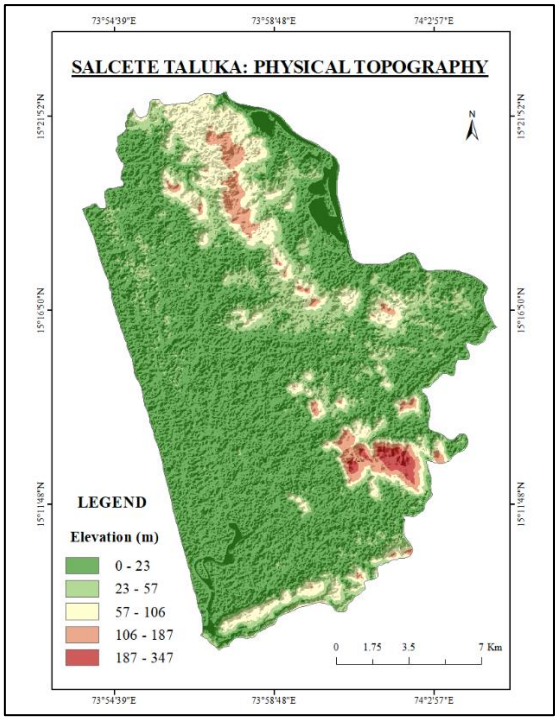


Figure 2.11 Salcete Taluka – Locational Aspects Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using District Census Handbook of Goa, 2011

2.4.1.2 Physiography and Rivers

The Taluka has a varied landscape that includes coastal plains, river valleys and gently rising plateaus. The western part of the taluka lies along the Arabian Sea and is mostly flat with sandy beaches and low-lying areas. Towards the east, the land becomes slightly elevated, with lateritic plateaus and small hills leading to the foothills of the Western Ghats. The region is served by numerous small and medium rivers like the Sal and Zuari, which create fertile land suitable for farming, especially rice cultivation. The coastal and inland features support different land uses such as agriculture, settlements and tourism and also adds to the natural beauty and biodiversity of the area (Geological Society of India, 2024).



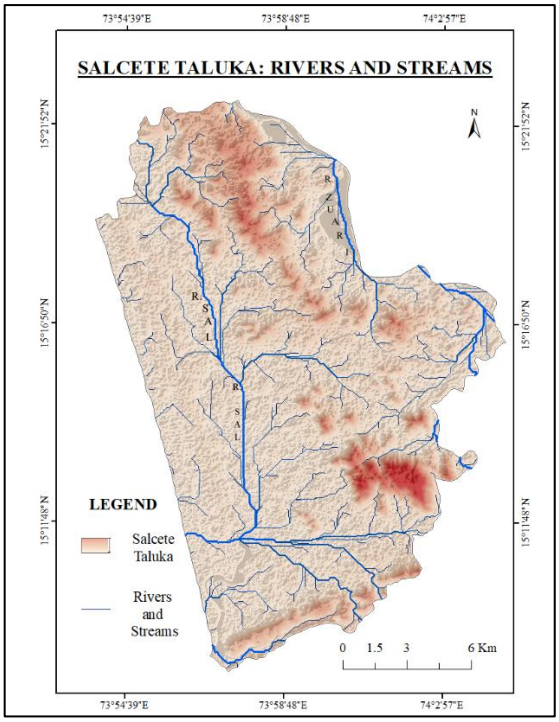


Figure 2.12 Salcete Taluka - Physiography Map Figure 2.13 Salcete Taluka - Rivers and Streams
Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using ASTER DEM (30m) & USGS

2.4.1.3 Climate

This part of Goa experiences a tropical monsoon climate, characterized by high temperatures and high humidity throughout the year. The climate is influenced by its proximity to the Arabian Sea and the Western Ghats, which moderate the temperature and precipitation patterns. During the summer months (March to May), Salcete Taluka experiences hot and humid weather, with average temperatures ranging from 28°C to 35°C (82°F to 95°F). The maximum temperature often reaches 38°C (100°F) during the peak summer months (Climate Data, 2025).

The monsoon season (June to September) brings significant rainfall to the region, with an average annual rainfall of around 3,000 mm (118 in). The monsoon rains are often heavy and frequent, causing flooding and landslides in some areas. The post-monsoon season (October to November) is characterized by a slight decrease in temperature and humidity, making it a more comfortable period. The winter months (December to February) are mild and pleasant, with average temperatures ranging from 20°C to 28°C or 68°F. to 82°F. (Climate Data, 2025).

2.4.1.4 Soil

The soils of Salcete Taluka are mainly lateritic and alluvial in nature. Lateritic soils are found in the slightly elevated areas. These soils are suitable for crops like cashew, coconut and some types of fruits. In the low-lying river valleys of the Sal and Zuari rivers, fertile alluvial soils are found. These soils are ideal for rice cultivation and other seasonal crops (e-krishi Directorate of Agriculture Goa, 2025).

2.4.1.5 Vegetation

The Taluka has rich and diverse vegetation due to its varied landscape and tropical climate. The region's forests include both deciduous and evergreen trees. Common species include teak, Terminalia and bamboo. These forests support a variety of wildlife, including birds, monkeys and reptiles. Along the coastal belt, mangrove forests are found, especially near river mouths. These mangroves are important for preventing coastal erosion and serve as breeding grounds for fish and other marine life (Goa Forest Department, 2022).

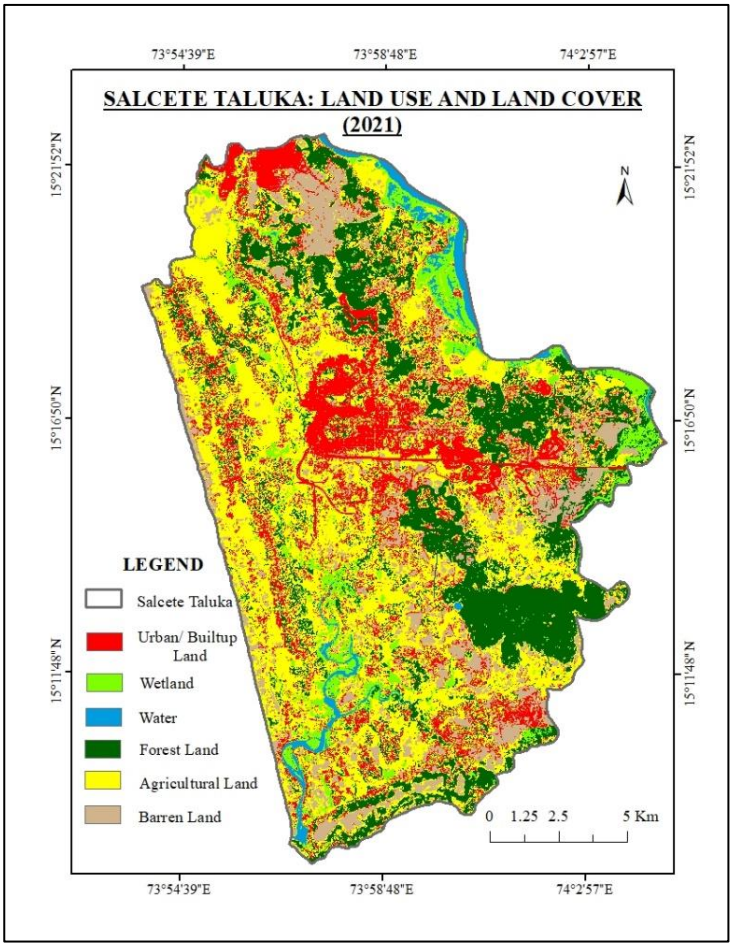


Figure 2.14 Salcete Taluka - Land Use and Land Cover Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS & Erdas Imagine using Landsat 2021 satellite imagery

2.4.2 Demographic Aspects

The following description provides the demographic aspects of Salcete Taluka encompassing population size and density, sex ratio, literacy rates and rural-urban population.

2.4.2.1 Population Size and Density

According to the 2011 Census, Salcete Taluka had a population of 2, 94,504 people, making it one of the most densely populated talukas in South Goa. The population density was around 733 persons per square kilometre, showing the region's urban character, especially around Margao, the taluka headquarters. Margao serves as a major residential, commercial and administrative centre, contributing to higher population concentrations. In contrast, the rural parts of the taluka have lower population densities but still maintain significant settlements due to agriculture and tourism. The overall population size and density of Salcete indicate a balanced mix of urban and rural development.

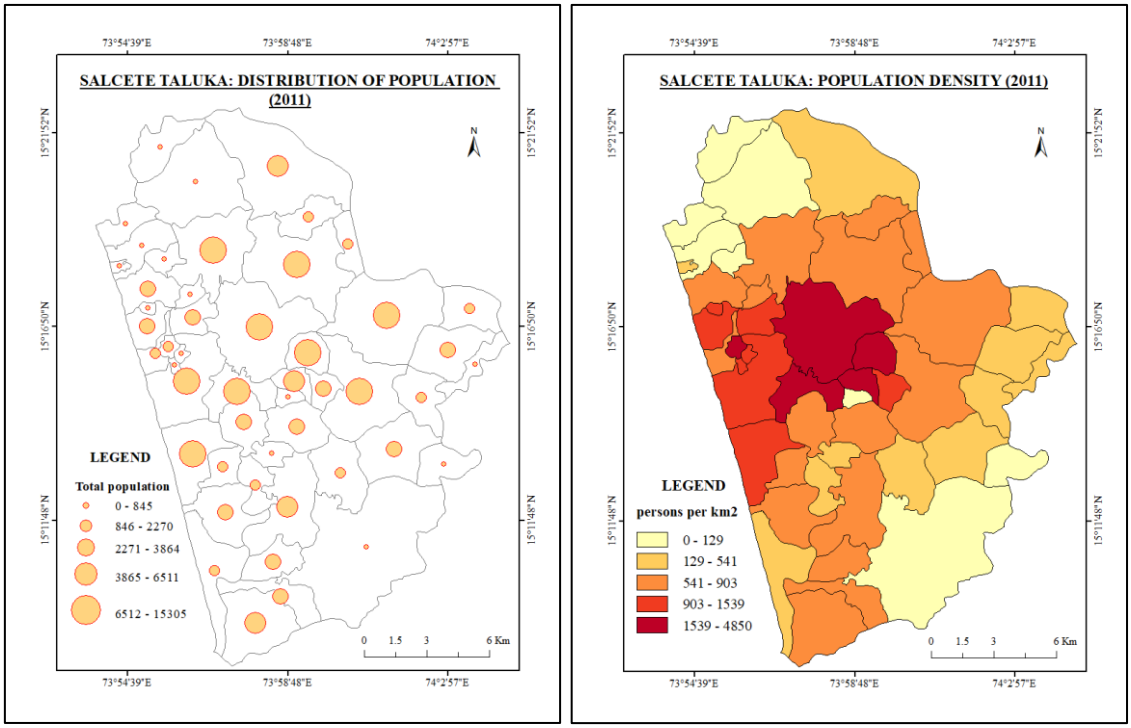


Figure 2.15 Salcete Taluka - Population Distribution Figure 2.16 Salcete Taluka - Population Density
Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook of Goa, 2011

2.4.2.2 Gender or Sex Ratio (Females: Males)

As per the 2011 Census, Salcete Taluka had a sex ratio (SR) of 1,039 females for every 1,000 males, which was higher than the national average and reflects a relatively balanced gender distribution. This positive ratio is attributed to better healthcare, social awareness and

relatively progressive attitudes toward gender in the region. In both urban and rural areas of Salcete, the sex ratio was favourable, though slight variations existed between specific villages and towns.

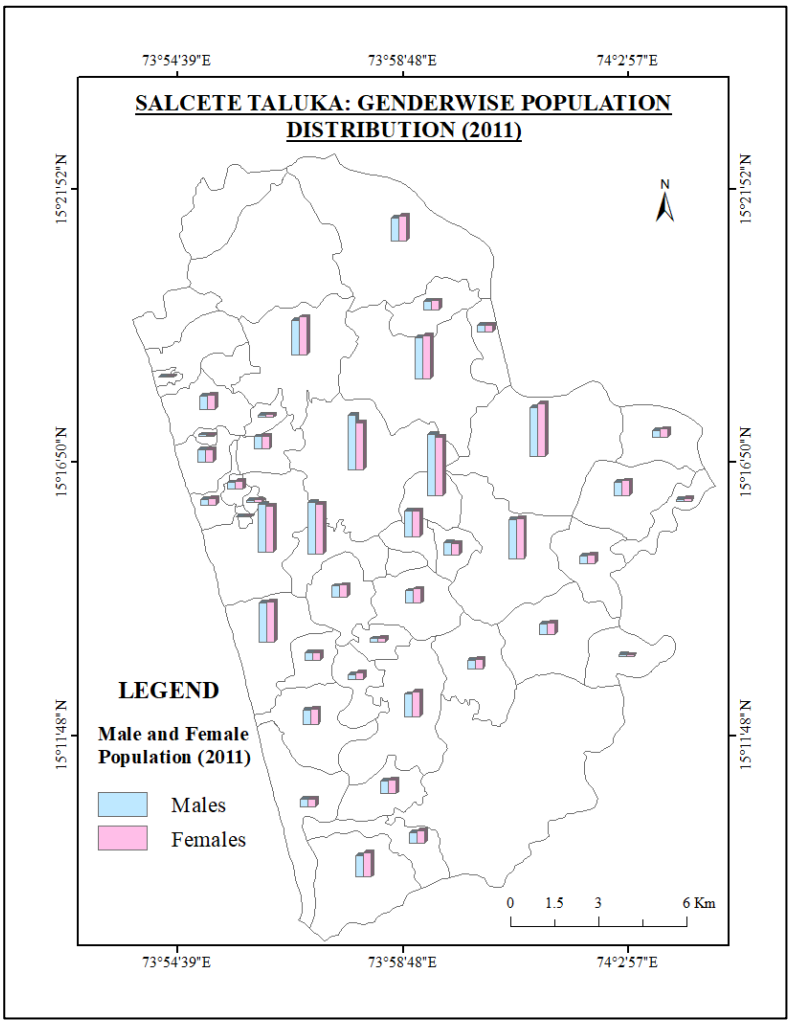


Figure 2.17 Salcete Taluka - Gender-wise Population Distribution Map
Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from District Census Handbook of Goa, 2011

2.4.2.3 Literacy Rates

Salcete Taluka had a high literacy rate, indicating the region's strong emphasis on education and access to schooling. As per the 2011 Census, the literacy rate in the taluka was approximately 88.4%**,** which was higher than the national average. Male literacy stood at around 92%**,** while female literacy was approximately 85%**,** suggesting a gender gap that is smaller than in many other regions.

2.4.2.4 Rural-Urban Composition

In Salcete Taluka, a significant proportion of population are residing in urban areas. According to the 2011 Census, about 62% of the population lived in urban areas, while the

remaining 38% resided in villages. The urban population is concentrated mainly in and around Margao, which is the commercial and administrative hub of the taluka. Rural areas are spread across smaller villages and people there are primarily engaged in agriculture, fishing and traditional occupations. This rural–urban divide reflects the taluka's economic diversity, where urban areas are more service and trade oriented, rural regions are closely tied to land and natural resources.

2.4.2.5 Religion

Salcete Taluka has a diverse religious composition reflecting its rich cultural history. The majority of the population practices Hinduism, which accounted for above 65% of residents. Christianity is also a significant religion in the taluka, with above 20% of the population identifying as Christian, mainly Roman Catholics. Other religions such as Islam and smaller tribal and indigenous faiths made up the remaining 5%. Religious festivals and traditions play an important role in the social and cultural life of the taluka, with many churches, temples and mosques serving as important community centres (Census of India, 2011).

2.4.2.6 Language

The Taluka is linguistically diverse, with several languages spoken by its residents. The primary language is Konkani, which is the official language of Goa and the mother tongue of most people in the taluka. Marathi is also widely spoken, especially in the northern parts of Salcete. It is used in education, media and government by a significant section of the population (Census of India, 2011). Portuguese, introduced during the colonial period, continues to be spoken by some older residents and is present in cultural events and a few educational institutions. English is commonly used in urban areas and among the educated population, serving as a common language for business, tourism and education. Other languages such as Hindi, Kannada and Urdu are spoken by migrant communities (Golden Goa, 2013).

2.4.3 Economic Aspects

The economic aspects of Salcete Taluka comprise of agriculture, industry, market, transport and other. These economic activities are well spread throughout the taluka.

2.4.3.1 Agriculture

Agriculture is a key economic activity of Salcete taluka. Salcete benefits from fertile soil, a suitable climate and sufficient water resources, which support the cultivation of various

crops. Rice is the main crop, with many farmers involved in paddy cultivation. The rice fields receive water through rivers, canals and wells, ensuring consistent irrigation throughout the year. Besides rice, important crops include coconut, cashew, mango and vegetables such as tomatoes, chilies and onions. Coconut plantations are widespread and produce coconuts of high quality, which are used in industries like food processing, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals. Cashew cultivation is also significant and contributes to export earnings. Fruit cultivation includes mangoes, bananas and papayas. Farmers adopt modern farming techniques to improve crop yields and quality. Government programs for irrigation, soil conservation and farmer training have helped increase productivity. Agriculture remains a major source of livelihood and income for many residents of Salcete Taluka (GIDC, 2024).

The taluka is dotted with paddy fields, coconut groves and cashew plantations. During the monsoon season, flooded rice fields become a common sight. Coconut trees are widely grown and provide income for many local families. Sacred groves, known locally as *Devrai*, are small forest patches protected by local communities. These groves are not only culturally significant but also home to rare and medicinal plant species. The type of vegetation in the region is also influenced by the soil, particularly the laterite soil, which supports plant species adapted to its mineral-rich but nutrient-poor conditions (Goa Forest Department, 2022).

2.4.3.2 Industry

The Taluka has a diverse industrial base that plays an important role in the local economy. Its strategic location, good infrastructure and skilled workforce make it an attractive place for various industries. The manufacturing sector is a major part of the taluka's industry and includes food processing, pharmaceuticals and engineering goods. Several food processing units produce items such as spices, sausages and pickles. The pharmaceutical industry is well-established, with multi-national companies manufacturing medicines and healthcare products.

The engineering sector also contributes significantly, producing machinery, tools and automotive parts. Tourism is an important industry in Salcete taluka supported by numerous hotels, resorts and restaurants attracting many tourists to boost the economy (Governement of Goa, 2020). Additionally, the IT sector involved in software development, data processing and other IT services have the presence in the taluka. The government has been supporting

the industrial growth of the taluka through its industrial estates, incentives, tax benefits and infrastructure development (GIDC, 2024).

The Verna Industrial Estate is one of the largest and most developed industrial area in the State within the taluka having a variety of industries such as manufacturing, pharmaceuticals and engineering. Similarly, the Cuncolim Industrial Estate has also been playing a role in fostering industrial activity in providing facilities and support to small and medium-scale enterprises. Both these estates along with the industrial estate of Sao Jose De Areal have been contributing to employment generation and the overall industrial development of Salcete Taluka (GIDC, 2024).

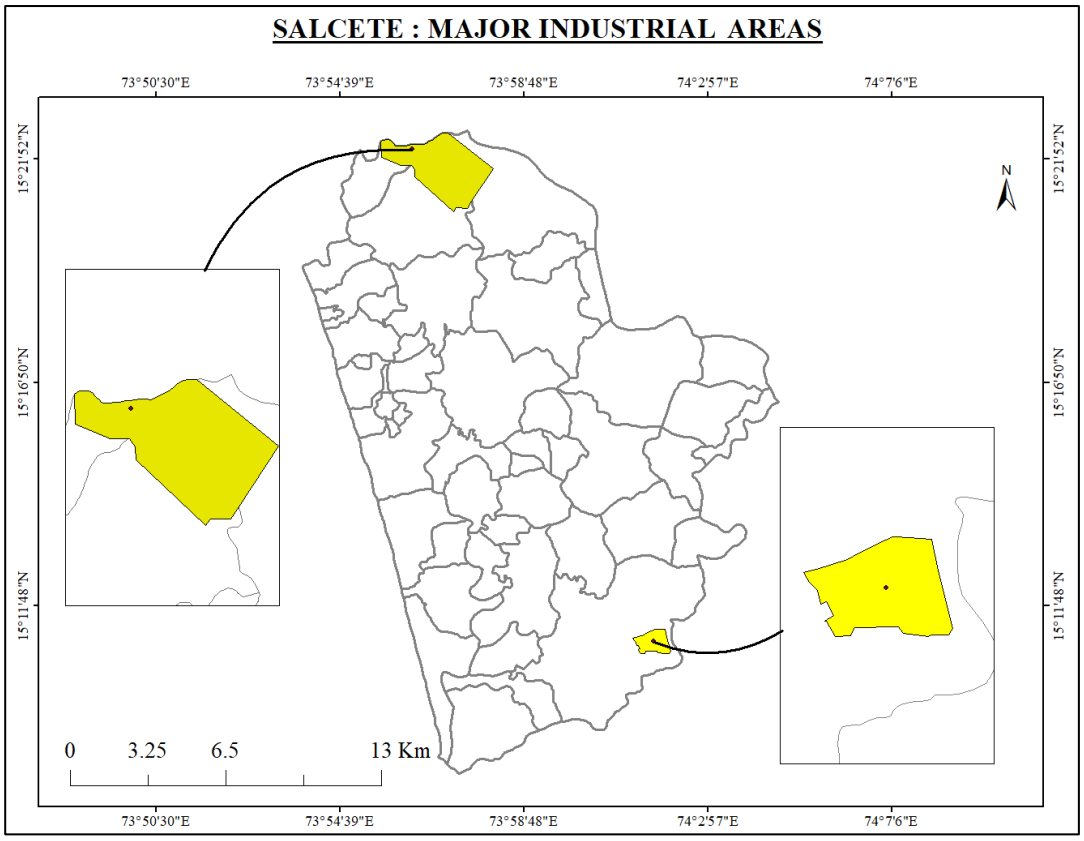


Figure 2.18 Salcete Taluka - Major Industrial Areas

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using data from GIDC, OSM & Google Earth

2.4.3.3 Market

Salcete Taluka has a well-developed market system that supports the local economy and community. The taluka's largest and most prominent market is located in Margao. Apart from this Market, smaller markets and weekly fairs in other small towns like Nuvem, Chinchinim, Cuncolim, Benaulim, Colva also play important roles in ensuring people have easy access to affordable goods. Salcete's markets feature handicrafts, textiles and local food items in addition to agricultural and seafood products. These markets provide opportunities

for small business owners and workers to make a living. Overall, the market system in the Taluka is a key to economic activities, providing employment, supporting local producers and meeting the everyday needs of the population (Goa IPB, 2024).

2.4.3.4 Transport Network

The Taluka has a well-developed transportation network that links it efficiently to different parts of Goa and across India. The taluka is served by an extensive road network having three national highways and plenty of state roads joining the places of the taluka. These roads connect the sub-region to major cities and towns in Goa and the state of Karnataka facilitating smooth travel for work, education and other daily needs. Both government-operated and private bus services provide regular and reliable transport services for the residents and visitors (Governement of Goa, 2020).

The taluka is also well-connected by rail service, airport and sea transport. Several railway stations in Salcete link the region to important cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Mangalore and Bengaluru offering frequent train services operated by Indian Railways and Konkan railway Corporation. The nearest airport is Dabolim International Airport at 30 kilometres from Margao providing domestic flights and international connections, especially to the Middle East and Europe. The taluka has access to sea transport by the nearby Mormugao Port, one of India's major ports handling cargo and passenger vessels. Regular ferry services operate to nearby coastal areas and neighbouring states. Together, these transportation options make the Taluka easily accessible for its economic and social development.

2.4.3.5 Other Economic Activities

Salcete Taluka has several economic activities supporting the local economy and migrant work force. Tourism is a major sector with the beaches, cultural heritage sites and festivals attracting a large number of visitors throughout the year. This supports hotels, restaurants, shops and various service providers creating employment and business opportunities for residents and migrants. Handicrafts and small-scale cottage industries are also common producing traditional Goan goods such as pottery, textiles and woodworking items that are sold in the market and exported outside. Banking and financial services are plenty in the taluka to provide essential support for business and personal finance requirement contributing to the overall economic stability of the region.

Educationally, with numerous schools, colleges and professional institutions located in the taluka, it acts as an educational paradise. These establishments provide employment and contribute to the development of skilled workforce, which benefits various industries and services in the state and elsewhere. Healthcare is another sector with hospitals, clinics and health centres serving the local population and offering jobs (Government of Goa, 2024).

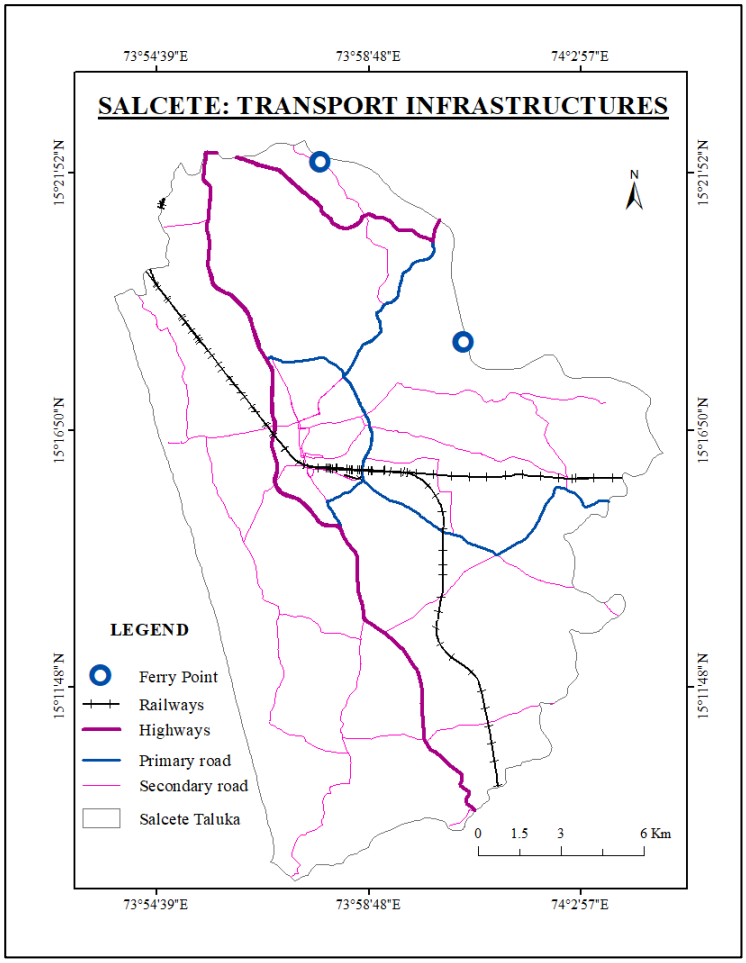


Figure 2.19 Salcete Taluka - Transport Infrastructure Map

Source: Prepared by Author on ArcGIS using OpenStreetMap tool & data from River Navigation Department

2.4.4 Cultural Aspects

The taluka celebrates a wide range of festivals throughout the year, showcasing its rich cultural heritage and traditions. One of the most significant festivals is the Shigmo festival, celebrated in the month of March, which marks the beginning of spring characterized by colourful processions, traditional folk dances and music, showcasing the region's cultural wealth (Golden Goa, 2013). Another important festival is the Ganesh Chaturthi festival, celebrated in the month of September, which honours the birth of Lord Ganesha. The taluka's Christians celebrate the Feast of Our Lady of Assumption, in the month of August with great fervour, showcasing the region's religious diversity. The Taluka also celebrates the Goa

Carnival, a unique festival that showcases the region's cultural and historical heritage, with colourful processions, music and dance (Golden Goa, 2013). In addition, the Taluka also celebrates the Diwali, festival of lights, the Holi- festival of colours and the Eid-al-Fitr festival, showcasing the region's cultural and religious diversity. These festivals not only showcase the taluka's rich cultural heritage but also promote social unity and community bonding (Golden Goa, 2013).

The taluka's beverages are also worth mentioning, which includes coconut water, fresh lime juice and traditional Goan drinks like Urak and Feni. Urak is a fermented drink made from coconut water and Feni is a strong spirit made from fermented cashew apples (Menezes, 2020).

2.4.5 Potential Employment Opportunities for the Migrant Female Workers (MWW)

Migrant female workers in Salcete Taluka find employment in a variety of sectors, many of which are informal and characterized by low wages and job insecurity. The tourism industry is a major source of potential employment for women getting chances in jobs such as housekeeping, hospitality services and retail. Industrial employment is a significant avenue for migrant women in the industrial estates as factory workers at Verna and Cuncolim in activities related to assembly, packaging and quality control, particularly in food processing, pharmaceuticals and chemical industries.

Several migrant women may get chances in informal trade by working as vendors and hawkers. These women sell fruits, vegetables, snacks and household items in local markets and busy street corners. Tailoring is another avenue though the earnings tend to be low and inconsistent (Devi & Sudarshan, 2024).

Domestic work constitutes a significant potential employment for migrant women in Salcete Taluka. They can work as domestic helpers performing tasks of cleaning, cooking, childcare and eldercare in private homes. While domestic work is accessible for women with limited formal education and skill levels with minimal regulation and poor wages. Similarly, some women may work as helpers in shops, offices and small businesses for cleaning and basic support services. Construction labour is another sector where many migrant women can find employment to perform manual tasks of carrying materials, mixing cement and plastering at building sites. Despite harsh working conditions, low pay, women get easy access in construction related jobs (Mawii & Eckstein, 2020).

2.5 Policy Frameworks for the Welfare of Indian Migrant Workers and Their Implementation in the Study Area

Migrant workers, particularly those engaged in low-skilled and unskilled jobs, constitute a vital yet highly vulnerable segment of India's labour force. Among them, migrant women workers (MWW) face complex challenges due to their gender, socio-economic status and informal employment conditions. Despite the existence of several national and state-level policies aimed at protecting and supporting migrant labour, such as the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act of 1979, Unorganised Workers' Social Security Act of 2008 and initiatives like the e-Shram portal, the actual reach and effectiveness of these frameworks has been limited. Many women migrants either lack awareness of these schemes or are excluded due to bureaucratic, legal and practical barriers.

This section of the chapter examines the policies governing migrant labour in India, with a particular focus on how these policies have been implemented in the state of Goa, especially within the study areas of Ponda and Salcete talukas. It aims to assess the extent to which migrant women workers benefit from social security, legal protections and welfare schemes and also for ensuring dignity, equity and improved livelihoods for migrant women in Goa.

2.5.1 Government Policies and Support Systems

A variety of government policies and support mechanisms have been formulated over the years to address the needs and vulnerabilities of migrant workers. However, these are largely fragmented, sector-specific and are rarely planned with women's needs in mind. For low-skilled and unskilled migrant women workers (MWWs), many of whom are employed in domestic work, hospitality, construction, small-scale retail and low-skilled jobs in manufacturing, the gaps in access, awareness and benefit from these schemes are particularly stark.

2.5.2 National-Level Legal Frameworks and Policies

At the national level, several laws and policies aim to safeguard migrant workers.

The Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979 was introduced to regulate employment conditions and ensure fair wages, suitable accommodations and health provisions for interstate migrants. It applies to establishments employing five or more such workers and to contractors employing them (Chief Labour Commissioner (Central), 2025). However, in Goa, the migrant population data is not available which limits the application of this act.

The Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1996 (BOCW) mandates welfare boards to register construction workers, including women, to provide benefits such as maternity assistance, accident insurance and education for children (Chief Labour Commissioner (Central), 2025). However, registration hurdles, lack of documentation and informal employment relationships often prevent women from accessing these privileges.

The Unorganised Workers' Social Security Act, 2008 marked a significant step in recognizing informal sector workers. It was an Act of the Parliament of India enacted to provide for the social security and welfare of the unorganised workers (meaning home-based workers, self-employed workers or daily-wage workers). It envisioned a range of social security benefits through schemes like the National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY) and Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) (Ministry of Labour and Employment, 2025). However, these schemes are poorly targeted toward migrant women and are often inaccessible due to rigid domicile requirements and lack of portability across states.

The Ministry of Labour & Employment, Govt. of India works on improving life and dignity of Labour force of the country to protect and safeguard the interest of workers, promotion of welfare and provide social security to the Labour force both in Organized and Unorganized Sectors by enactment and implementation of various Labour Laws, which regulate the terms and conditions of service and employment of workers. To address portability, the **e-Shram portal was** launched in 2021 by the Ministry to create a centralized database of unorganised workers. The portal promised to link workers to welfare schemes and ensure portability of benefits (Ministry of Labour and Employment, 2025). However, digital illiteracy, lack of awareness and difficulties in registration limit participation among migrant women workers.

2.5.3 State-Level Schemes in Goa

Goa has introduced its own welfare measures for workers through the Goa Labour Welfare Board.

The Goa Labour Welfare Board is a govt. body established under the Goa, Daman & Diu Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1986 to manage and implement welfare schemes for employees in Goa, particularly those working in establishments covered by the Act, which implements housing, education and healthcare schemes (Goa Labour Welfare Board, 2025).

The Goa Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (GBOCWWB) is a body established under the Department of Labour and Employment, Government of Goa to oversee the welfare of construction workers in the state. It provides various social security and welfare schemes for registered workers. It provides benefits to registered workers under the BOCW Act (Ministry of Labour and Employment, 2025). However, low registration rates, lack of outreach and the exclusion of informal work sectors like domestic work or hospitality implying that many migrant women have remained outside the protective net.

The Dayanand Social Security Scheme (DSSS) is a social welfare program in Goa to provide financial assistance to vulnerable sections of the society, viz. senior citizens, single women and disabled individuals. The scheme offers financial security and support to those who are economically disadvantaged (Directorate of Social Welfare, 2025). Here again, the migrant women workers have limited or no access due to the want of required documents.

The Griha Aadhar Scheme is a Government of Goa initiative designed to provide financial assistance to housewives and homemakers from middle, lower-middle and poor sections of the society. This scheme aims to help these families to cope with rising prices and maintain a reasonable standard of living. Under this scheme, monthly assistance of Rs.1500 is provided to applicants whose annual family income is less than 3 lakh. Around 1.5 lakhs beneficiaries are availing the scheme (Directorate of Women and Child Development, 2025). This benefit has not reached to the migrant women workers having less than 15 years domicile in Goa and who have no BPL Cards.

Thus, migrant women workers, especially those without permanent residence or local identification documents face challenges in applying for the above schemes. Though they qualify, lack of clear information and complicated paperwork has made it hard for them to reap the benefit. Further, the COVID-19 pandemic exposed them to acute vulnerabilities. The migrant workers hardly benefitted from the emergency responses like getting food kits, cash transfers and shelter provision under central and state schemes. However, on humanitarian ground, some relief measures which were short-lived and uneven was extended but failed to create long-term security for migrant women, who lost jobs and income for ever.

2.6 Legal Protections and Employment Rights

Legal protections and employment rights form the foundation of labour welfare and dignity. In India, multiple laws have been enacted to protect the interests of workers across sectors.

However, the extent of these protections for low-skilled and unskilled migrant women workers (MWWs), who often remain in the informal and unregulated economy, is limited, both in design and implementation.

2.6.1 The Minimum Wages Act, 1948

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 was enacted to protect workers in vulnerable and low-paid occupations by ensuring the payment of statutory minimum wages fixed by the government. The Act empowers both central and state governments to set minimum wage rates for scheduled employments in order to prevent labour exploitation and ensure a basic standard of living for workers. For women migrant workers engaged in informal sectors such as domestic work, construction, hospitality and tailoring, minimum wage protection is crucial. However, due to the informal nature of employment, lack of written contracts and weak enforcement mechanisms, wage theft and underpayment is widespread, limiting the effective implementation of this Act for migrant women workers (Government of India, 1948).

2.6.2 The Equal Remuneration Act, 1976

The Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 was introduced to eliminate gender-based wage discrimination and ensure equal pay for men and women performing the same or similar work. The Act also prohibits discrimination in recruitment and service conditions, making it an important legal safeguard for women's economic rights. Despite this, women migrant workers often face unequal wages, occupational segregation and discriminatory practices, particularly in informal employment where monitoring is weak. (Government of India, 1976).

2.6.3 The Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979

This act was enacted specifically to safeguard migrant labourers recruited through contractors for employment outside their home states. The Act mandates wage parity with local workers, timely payment of wages, provision of displacement and journey allowances and improved working conditions (Government of India, 1979). For women migrant workers, this legislation is particularly relevant as many migrate for construction and service-based employment under informal contractual arrangements. However, due to poor registration of workers and limited enforcement in the informal sector, migrant women often remain outside the effective protection of this Act.

2.6.4 The Maternity Benefit Act, 1961

The Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 provides social protection to women workers during pregnancy by ensuring paid maternity leave, nursing breaks and protection from dismissal during maternity periods. The Act represents an important step towards supporting women's reproductive health and workplace security (Government of India, 1961). However, it applies mainly to establishments with ten or more employees, leaving the majority of migrant women workers in informal and unregistered employment outside its coverage.

2.6.5 The Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013

This act was enacted to provide a legal framework for protecting women against harassment and ensuring safe working environments. The Act mandates the formation of Internal Complaints Committees and establishes procedures for redressal and prevention (Government of India, 2013). However, migrant women workers employed in private households, small establishments and informal workplaces often lack access to such mechanisms.

2.6.6 The Occupational Safety, Health and Working Conditions Code, 2020

This was introduced as part of India's labour reforms to consolidate multiple laws governing workplace safety, welfare provisions and employment conditions. The Code includes provisions for the registration of inter-state migrant workers, creation of a national database and improved occupational safety standards (Government of India, 2020). While it marks a significant policy shift, its implementation is limited, especially in informal sectors where women migrant workers are concentrated. Moreover, the Code has been critiqued for lacking strong gender-responsive measures and for facing challenges in enforcement at the grassroot level.

2.7 Overview of the Chapter

The chapter has provided a detailed account of the geographical, demographic, economic and cultural characteristics of the two selected talukas, Ponda and Salcete in Goa, India. These talukas have been chosen due to their contribution to informal labour opportunities being located in inland and coastal part of the State.

The next section has focused on demographic characteristics of the two Talukas covering population size and density, sex ratio, literacy rates and the rural-urban population divide. The economic profile of both talukas has been discussed in detail to focus on the employment opportunities available for the migrant female workers in sectors such as tourism, manufacturing, construction, domestic work, vending, tailoring and informal services. The last part has discussed the policy and legal framework for workers in India in general and Goa in particular for inclusive development. The implementation of all that has remained weak and uneven particularly for the low-skilled and unskilled migrant women workers in Goa. These challenges have mostly been due to low registration and exclusion from state schemes due to residency requirements and minimal grievance redressal mechanisms. Consequently, migrant women workers have remained largely outside the ambit of labour laws and welfare measures highlighting a disconnect between policy intent and ground-level realities.

CHAPTER 3
PROFILE OF MIGRANT WOMEN WORKERS: DEMOGRAPHIC, ECONOMIC AND MIGRATION CHARACTERISTICS

3.1 Introduction

Women's labour migration in India has emerged as a significant socio-economic process, closely linked to persistent regional inequalities, gendered labour markets and limited livelihood opportunities in source areas. Many migrant women workers are largely drawn from economically and socially marginalised backgrounds, with low levels of education and limited access to productive assets, factors that strongly shape their employment trajectories at destination locations (Deshingkar & Akter, 2009; Neetha, 2012; Mazumdar et al., 2013). Economic distress, unemployment, agrarian instability and household survival strategies at the place of origin act as major drivers of female migration, while better wage prospects, demand for informal labour and existing social networks encourage movement towards urban and tourism-oriented regions (Srivastava, 2011; Keshri & Bhagat, 2012). Women migrants are predominantly absorbed into informal and low-paid sectors such as construction, domestic work, hospitality and allied services, characterised by job insecurity, irregular employment and absence of social protection (Neetha & Palriwala, 2011; ILO, 2017). Migration among women is also shaped by proximity, social ties and safety considerations, resulting in a predominance of short-distance and inter-state movements within neighbouring regions (Deshingkar, 2010; Bhagat, 2016).

This chapter has focussed on the characteristics of migrant women workers (MWW) in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa. It has determined their demographic aspects such as their age, marital status, religion and education to understand their background. It has further studied their occupational background such as the type of work they are engaged in, the duration of their employment, the working hours, mode of travel to work and their income. It has further analysed their behaviour of expenditure and savings (if any). It has also focused on the housing conditions of MWW and has attempted to understand their decision for migration and other migration-related characteristics.

3.2 Demographic Details of MWW

This section has provided the basic demographic details of migrant women workers, viz. their age, marital status, religion and educational attainment.

3.2.1 Age Structure of the MWW

Majority of the MWW belonged to the 35-44 age group in Ponda taluka, which constituted 57.40% of the workforce. This suggested that middle-aged women were actively employed as they were in their economically productive age. The absence of younger women (<=24) in the workforce pointed at the fact that they were new migrants and did not have much knowledge about the locality. There was also lesser number of workers belonging to >55 age group. This indicated that due to old age and health issues, they did not work. In slight contrast, in Salcete Taluka, majority (39.47%) of the MWW were found in 35-44 age group. As compared to Ponda, Salcete had a considerable proportion of women (28.42%) in the younger age group of 25-34 years and also a small percentage (4.74%) in the youngest category (<=24) age group.

In total of both talukas, the 35-44 age group emerged as the largest segment with almost half (48.08%) of the MWW group. There was also a significant portion in the 25-34 age group, which comprised 26.44% of the combined total, highlighting a healthy participation of younger to middle-aged women in the migrant workforce across both talukas. There was limited representation of women above age 55 (2.88%) and those below age 24 (2.47%).

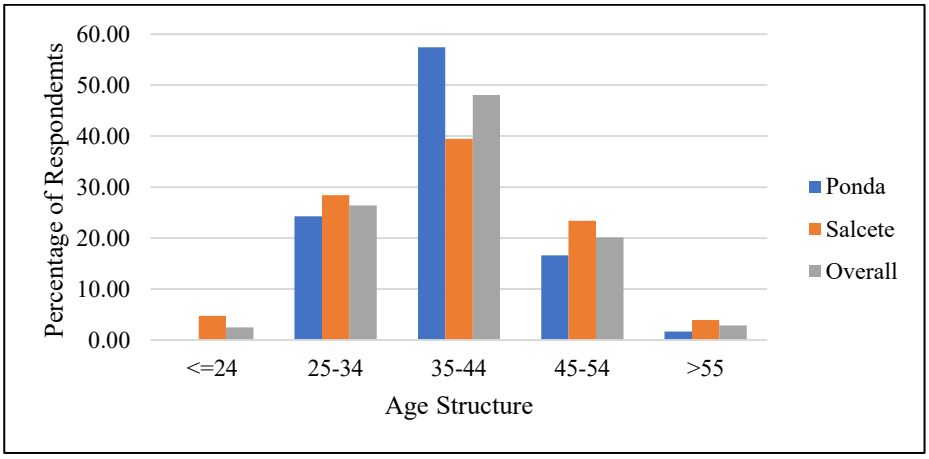


Figure 3.1 Age Structure of the MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.2.2 Marital Status of MWW

In Ponda, 89.1% of female migrant workers were married suggesting that a huge majority of women were balancing family responsibilities along with their jobs. The percentage of unmarried women was relatively low at 6.9 percent, indicating that migration was less common among single women in this area. This indicated that the women migrated along

with their spouses or family as associational or passive migrants. Additionally, the taluka also comprised of a small proportion of widowed (2.9%) and separated (1.1%) women. In Salcete, a similar pattern was observed, with married women comprising 91.6 percent of the migrant workforce. The presence of unmarried women was extremely low (1.6%), which implied that younger women faced social barriers to migration. In comparison to Ponda, Salcete had a small percentage of widowed (6.1%) who were also the main bread-earners of the family.

The overall data of both talukas together revealed that 90.4% of women migrant workers were married. The combined percentage of unmarried women was just 4.1%, with widowed and separated women making up 4.5% and 1.0% respectively.

Table 3.1 Marital Status of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Marital Status	**Ponda**		**Salcete**		**Overall**	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Married	312	89.1	348	91.6	660	90.4
Unmarried	24	6.9	6	1.6	30	4.1
Widow	10	2.9	23	6.1	33	4.5
Separated	4	1.1	3	.8	7	1.0
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.2.3 Religious Distribution of MWW

In Ponda, majority of the MWW (73.1%) were Hindus. Muslim women constituted 24.3% of the workforce, highlighting a prominent representation. The Christian population was very low at 2.6 percent. In Salcete, Hindu women made up 68.2% of the migrant workforce which was lower than in Ponda. However, there was higher percentage of Muslims in this region (31.3%) as compared to Ponda. The Christian population among MWW was even lower (0.5%). Overall, the combined data revealed that 70.5% of women migrant workers identified as Hindus, while Muslims accounted for 27.9% and Christians represented a mere 1.5%.

Table 3.2 Religious Distribution of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Religious Distribution	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Hindu	256	73.1	259	68.2	515	70.5
Muslim	85	24.3	119	31.3	204	27.9
Christian	9	2.6	2	.5	11	1.5
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.2.4 Educational Attainment among MWW

In Ponda, a considerable portion of the MWW (24.3%) had no formal education indicating inherent barriers to education among them. More than one third portion (35.1%) had attained secondary education, which was the highest educational attainment among this group of women with many dropouts. The percentage of women with higher secondary education (HSSC) stood at 18.6 percent, while only 5.1 percent were graduates. It is noteworthy that these graduate women had completed their education in their local languages which were not so important in Goa for availing skilled jobs; hence, they were compelled to work in the informal sector.

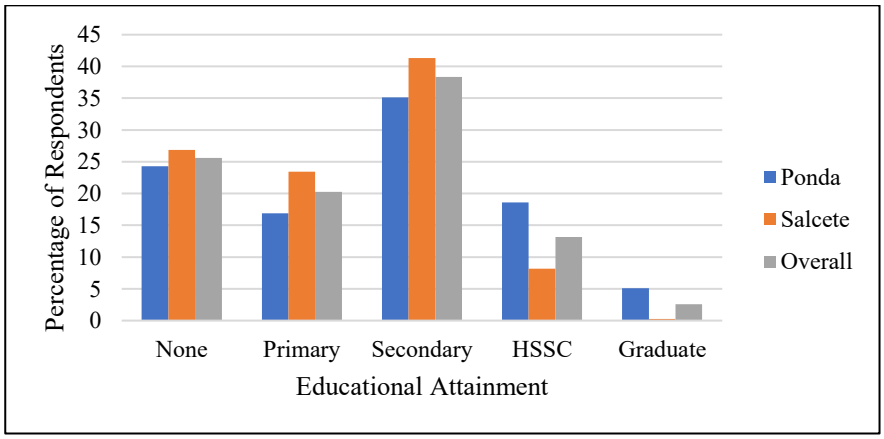


Figure 3.2 Educational Attainment of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

In Salcete, 26.8 percent of women migrant workers had no formal education. The percentage of women completing primary education was 23.4%. The proportion of women having secondary education was high at 41.3 percent. Only a small proportion (8.2%) of women had completed higher secondary education and a mere 0.3% were graduates.

The combined data of both talukas highlighted that 25.6 percent of women migrant workers had no formal education, while 20.3 percent had completed only primary education. The highest level of education was secondary level (38.4%). Only 13.2 percent had completed higher secondary education and a very few (2.6%) were graduates. This implied that the low education level among this group limited their job choices to casual and temporary type of employment.

3.3 Occupational Details of MWW

This section has focused on the work-related aspects of migrant women workers, viz. the occupation type, nature of employment and duration of employment. It has also covered their daily working hours, mode of commute and monthly income. These details have helped in understanding their work conditions and economic stability.

3.3.1 Occupational Structure of MWW

In Ponda, majority of the migrant women labourers (36.6%) were housemaids. This indicated that there is a huge demand for domestic workers in the region. Factory workers were also in significant number, with 31.1 percent engaged in this sector, suggesting that industrial opportunities were accessible. This is due to the presence of three major industrial estates namely, Betora, Kundaim and Marcaim Industrial estates which offered low skilled and unskilled factory jobs to these women. Other occupations, such as helper (10.6%) and tailor (7.1%) indicated a diverse range of employment.

In Salcete, the housemaids made up 47.4 percent of the workforce. The helpers accounted for 18.2 percent, while the factory workers were only 3.4 percent. This suggested that Salcete offered fewer industrial job opportunities for women compared to Ponda, leading to a higher dependence on domestic and service-oriented jobs. Salcete taluka is a coastal taluka and is home for many tourist-based hotels and related services and also the Margao town is the commercial hub of the state of Goa. Migrant women worked as helpers in these hotels and other tourist related activities and in the market area. Additionally, occupations such as vendor (11.1%) and tailoring (8.7%) indicated that some women were engaged in informal jobs and small-scale businesses.

In the both the talukas, housemaid was the dominant occupation, constituting 42.2 percent of women migrant workers. Factory workers were lesser, accounting for only 16.7 percent. Other jobs such as helper (14.5%) and vendor (8.2%) were also seen in the region but were relatively less prominent.

Table 3.3 Occupational Structure of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Occupational Structure	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Housemaid	128	36.6	180	47.4	308	42.2
Helper	37	10.6	69	18.2	106	14.5
Vendor	18	5.1	42	11.1	60	8.2
Factory Worker	109	31.1	13	3.4	122	16.7
Labourer	20	5.7	16	4.2	36	4.9
Saleswoman	5	1.4	8	2.1	13	1.8
Sweeper	3	0.9	2	.5	5	.7
Housekeeping	5	1.4	14	3.7	19	2.6
Tailor	25	7.1	33	8.7	58	7.9
Garbage Collector	0	0	3	.8	3	.4
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.3.2 Nature of Employment of MWW

In Ponda, more than half (53.7%) of the MWW worked in temporary jobs such as factory workers suggesting many women faced job insecurity and lack of consistent employment benefits although they worked a full 8 standard work hours. Casual work was also significant, comprising 35.7 percent of the workforce, which indicated dependence on informal employment. Only 4.9 percent of workers held permanent positions highlighting that it was difficult for MWW to secure stable, long-term employment in the region. Salcete presented a different picture regarding the nature of work. Here, 57.6% of women migrant workers were engaged in casual employment, suggesting a strong dependence on informal job opportunities. The percentage of women in temporary work was considerably lower at 28.9%. The presence of daily wage workers at 11.6% also indicated a notable dependence on short-term employment, while only 1.8% of the workforce held permanent positions. This pattern emphasized the lack of stability and security that many women face in their work environments in Salcete. The combined data revealed that casual work constituted 47.1% of the overall workforce, highlighting a significant dependence on informal employment among women migrant workers. Temporary positions accounted for 40.8%. The presence of only 3.3% in permanent positions highlighted a critical gap in stable employment opportunities.

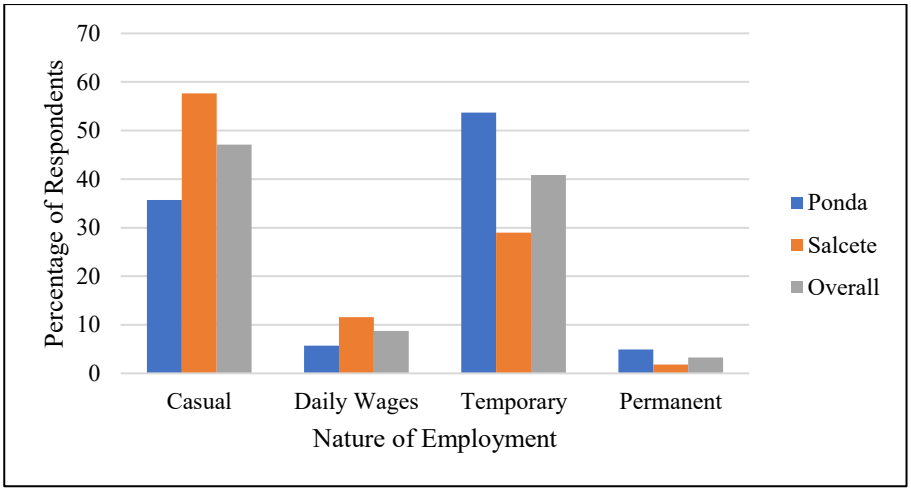


Figure 3.3 Nature of Employment of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.3.3 Duration of Employment of MWW

In Ponda, majority of women migrant workers have been in their current employment for less than 2 years accounting for 33.1%. This suggested that many women were relatively new to the workforce. Additionally, 23.1% of women have been employed for over 8 years, indicating that a noteworthy segment has managed to maintain long-term employment. The middle categories of 2-4 years (22.6%) and 4-6 years (12.9%) showed moderate levels of employment duration. The duration of employment can also be correlated to the duration of stay at the place of destination. Longer durations of stay indicated longer work durations as well. In Salcete, the duration of employment pattern differed, with a smaller percentage (12.6%) of women working for less than 2 years. A considerable 28.2% have been employed for over 8 years, indicating that long-term employment was more prevalent in this taluka. The distribution also showed 24.2% of women working for 2-4 years and 20.3% for 4-6 years, suggesting that many women in Salcete have been working for considerable duration.

Combining the data from both Ponda and Salcete, 22.5% of women migrant workers have been in their jobs for less than 2 years while 25.8% have worked for over 8 years. The distribution also indicated that 23.4% have been employed for 2-4 years and 16.7% for 4-6 years. This overall pattern suggested a mixed experience level among women migrants, with a notable portion of new entrants in the workforce alongside those who have been in long-term employment.

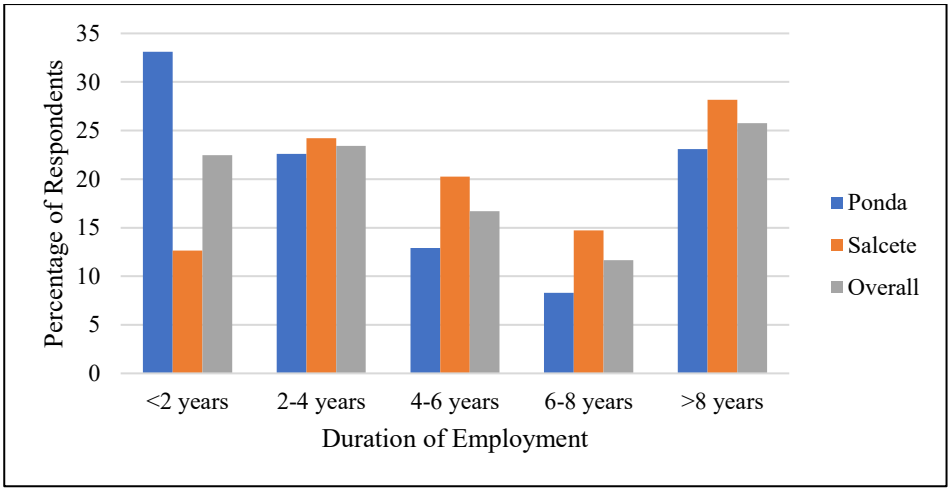


Figure 3.4 Duration of Employment of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.3.4 Working Hours of MWW

In Ponda, 66% of MWW have been working between 6 to 8 hours per day, indicating a standard full-time work. These form majorly the factory workers who work for standard 8 hours' time. This suggested that many women were engaged in consistent employment. Additionally, 19.4% of workers have been working between 3 to 5 hours, reflecting engagement in casual jobs such as housemaids, hawkers selling fish, fruits and vegetables and also tailors who worked from home. Conversely, only a small fraction has been working less than 3 hours (1.7%) constituting housemaids, who work in one or two houses only or more than 10 hours (1.1%) including factory workers, saleswoman and helpers who have been working for more hours depending on the demand. In Salcete, 46.3% of women have been working between 3 to 5 hours which constituted housemaids, hawkers and tailors. However, 35% of workers have been engaged in 6 to 8 hours of work, indicating that full-time positions do exist but were less prevalent compared to Ponda including majorly helpers and saleswomen. A small portion of 11.7% of women have been working between 8 to 10 hours while those who have been working over 10 hours were minimal (1.1%).

Overall, the combined data illustrated a diverse range of working hours, with 49.9% working between 6 to 8 hours, making it the most common category. However, the significant percentage of women in the 3-to-5-hour category (33.4%) suggested a significant presence of MWW in casual employment across both talukas. The presence of those working over 8 hours (14.8%) indicated that some women are committed to longer working hours, while only a small number worked less than 2 hours (1.4%) or more than 10 hours (0.5%).

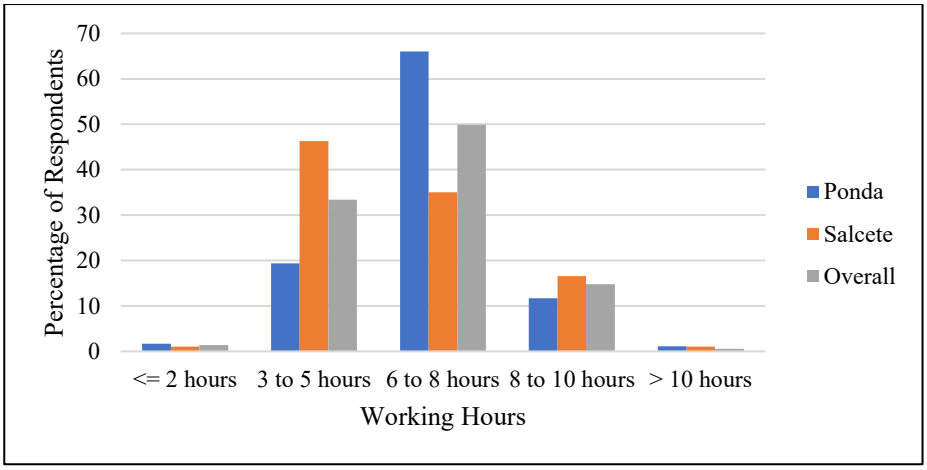


Figure 3.5 Working Hours of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.3.5 Distance Covered for Work by MWW

In Ponda, the majority of women migrant workers (56.9%) covered a distance of 2-5 km for work, indicating that many had access to relatively nearby employment opportunities in cases of housemaids, hawkers, vendors and tailors. Additionally, 29.7% of women worked within 1 km of their homes, emphasizing the accessibility of local jobs. A small fraction (2.9%) worked from home, indicating the convenience of earning an income from working remotely at home constituting tailors. The distances covered for work beyond 5 km were minimal, with only 10% traveling between 6-10 km and an even smaller percentage (0.6%) exceeding 10 km, suggesting a preference or necessity for proximity in their employment choices including factory workers and helpers. In Salcete, the pattern was similar as that of Ponda, with 54.2% of women covering a distance of 2-5 km for work, showcasing a similar reliance on nearby employment. However, a higher percentage (38.9%) worked within 1 km, indicating that access to local jobs was even more pronounced in this taluka. Women with small children preferred to work in shorter distances so as to reach home early to take care of their children. The proportion of women working from home was low at 3.2%. The study showed fewer women traveling longer distances, with only 2.4% covering 6-10 km and 1.3% exceeding 10 km.

Overall, the study indicated that a significant 55.5% of women migrant workers travelled 2-5 km to their workplaces, with 34.5% working within 1 km, emphasizing the accessibility of local employment opportunities across both talukas. The low percentages of women working from home (3.0%) and traveling beyond 5 km (7.0% combined for 6-10 km and above 10 km) highlighted a clear trend toward proximity in work locations. The reliance on nearby jobs suggested the need for the women to take care of their households and children.

Table 3.4 Distance Covered for Work by MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Distance Covered for Work	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Work from home	10	2.9	12	3.2	22	3.0
Within 1km	104	29.7	148	38.9	252	34.5
2-5km	199	56.9	206	54.2	405	55.5
6-10km	35	10	9	2.4	44	6.0
Above 10km	2	0.6	5	1.3	7	1.0
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.3.6 Previous Employment Details of MWW

Out of the total 730 migrant women workers, only 118 (16.2%) were employed in a different job prior to their current work, indicating that the majority either entered the workforce after migrating or remained in the same type of work.

Table 3.5 Previous Employment among MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Previous Employment	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	**Percent**	**Number**	**Percent**	**Number**	**Percent**
Housemaid	10	21.74	27	37.50	37	31.36
Helper	8	17.39	32	44.44	40	33.90
Vendor	3	6.52	0	0.00	3	2.54
Factoryworker	18	39.13	1	1.39	19	16.10
Labourer	3	6.52	7	9.72	10	8.47
Saleswoman	1	2.17	1	1.39	2	1.69
Sweeper	2	4.35	0	0.00	2	1.69
Housekeeping	1	2.17	4	5.56	5	4.24
Total	46	100.00	72	100.00	118	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In Ponda Taluka, the most common previous occupation was factory work (39.13%), followed by housemaids (21.74%) and helpers (17.39%). This suggested that many women came with industrial work experience linked to employment zones in or near Ponda. In Salcete Taluka, the dominant previous occupations were helpers (33.90%) and housemaids (31.36%), reflecting a tendency towards domestic and informal service jobs. Overall, the

most common prior jobs were helpers (33.90%), housemaids (31.36%) and factory workers (16.10%). These figures showed that migrant women mainly came from low-wage, informal sectors and that prior work experience was limited.

3.3.7 Workplace Concentration of MWW

Women migrant workers were mostly concentrated in and around Ponda town, which is a major hub and market centre (Fig.3.6). The concentration was very high in Ponda being the main centre and Kundaim due to its industrial estate. Moderate concentrations were found in nearby areas like Orgao, Savoi Verem, Cuncali, Priol, Candepar, Usgao, Siroda, Quela, Betora and Borim. Many of these places were located close to the industrial areas of Kundaim, Madkai, Betora and Usgao. The remaining villages and towns showed a low presence of women migrant workers.

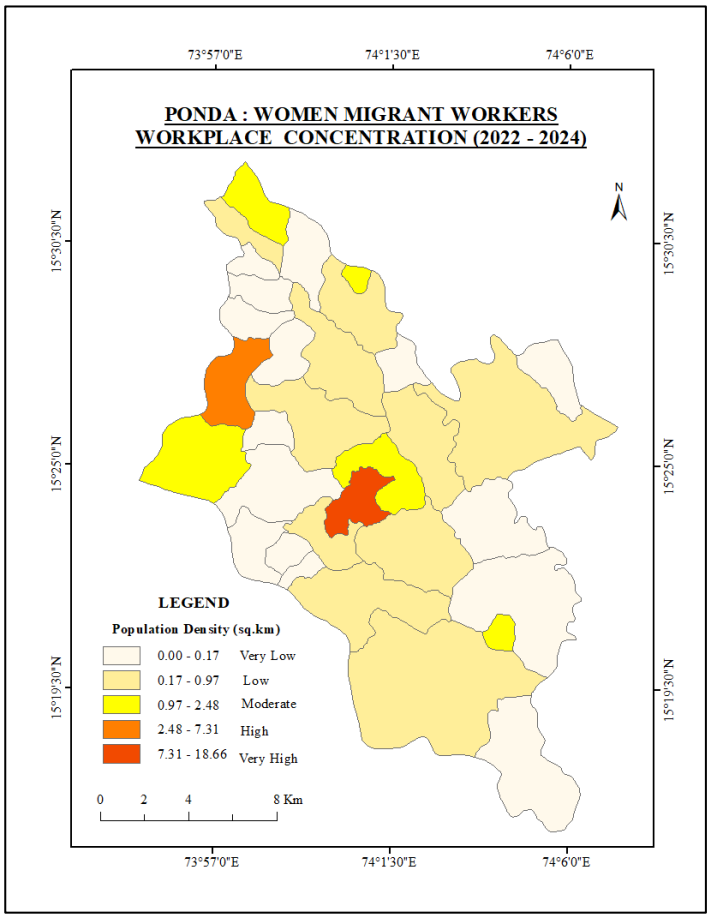


Figure 3.6 Ponda Taluka - Workplace Concentration of MWW

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Salcete taluka has shown a very high concentration of women migrant workers in and around Margao, which is a district Head Quarter, major urban and commercial centre offering a wide range of employment opportunities. Surrounding areas such as Davorlim, Navelim and

Raia have also recorded very high numbers due to their proximity to Margao and the availability of jobs in sectors like retail, domestic work, hospitality and services. A high concentration of women migrant workers has also been observed in several coastal villages, where tourism-related activities provided seasonal and regular employment. Additionally, eastern villages such as Chandor, Paroda, Mulem, Sarzora, and Cuncolim town have shown significant levels of migrant women workers, reflecting the spread of opportunities beyond the central urban core. These areas offered jobs in small-scale industries, households and informal sectors.

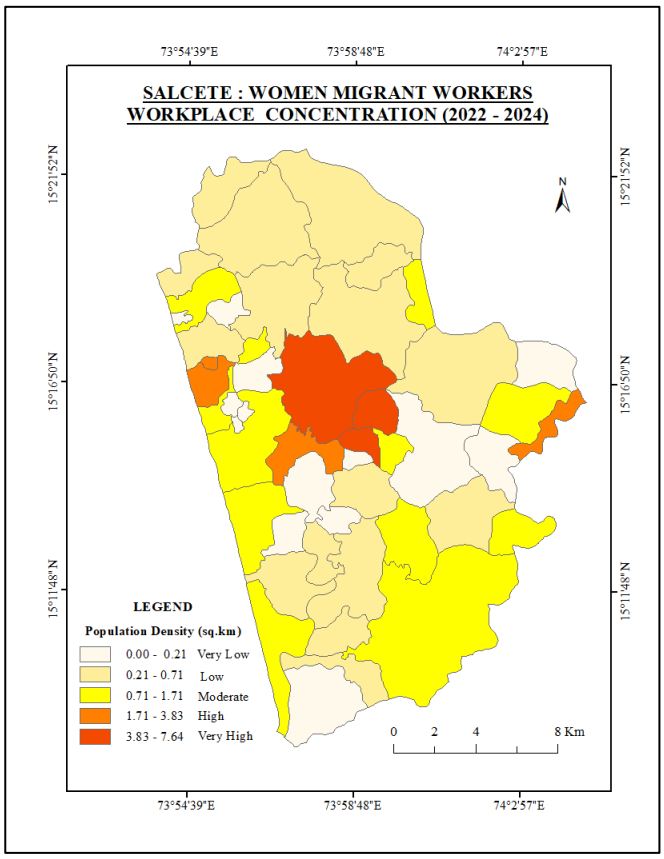


Figure 3.7 Salcete Taluka - Workplace Concentration of MWW
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Overall, it has been found that in Ponda Taluka, the MWW are spread throughout the taluka but lager concentration is around the Taluka and Sub-Divisional HQ of Ponda and around the industrial estates due to work opportunity and ease of commuting. In Salcete, majority of MWW are concentrated in and around Margao as it is the commercial hub and its fringe areas. A large concentration is also seen the villages in the eastern part due to emerging commercial activities and easy access to Curchorem-Cacora in the neighbouring Quepem Taluka, which is another employment guaranteeing twin town.

3.4 Migration related Details of MWW

The section has focused on the migration experiences of migrant women workers, their reasons for migration, place of origin and duration of stay in Goa. It has also looked at how they found jobs and their future plans regarding settling at the place of destination or to return to their native places.

3.4.1 Place of Origin of MWW

In Ponda Taluka, nearly half of the migrant women workers (49.14%) have migrated from Karnataka, making it the most significant source state due to its proximity and trade-labour exchange scenario. This is followed by Uttar Pradesh at 16%, which has been mostly due to accompanying migration with spouse or relatives in the region. Maharashtra has contributed 9.71% and Madhya Pradesh accounted for 6.29%. Other states like Bihar (5.43%), Jharkhand (5.14%) and West Bengal (2.57%) have contributed to a smaller proportion of migrants, which have also been of associated type of migration.

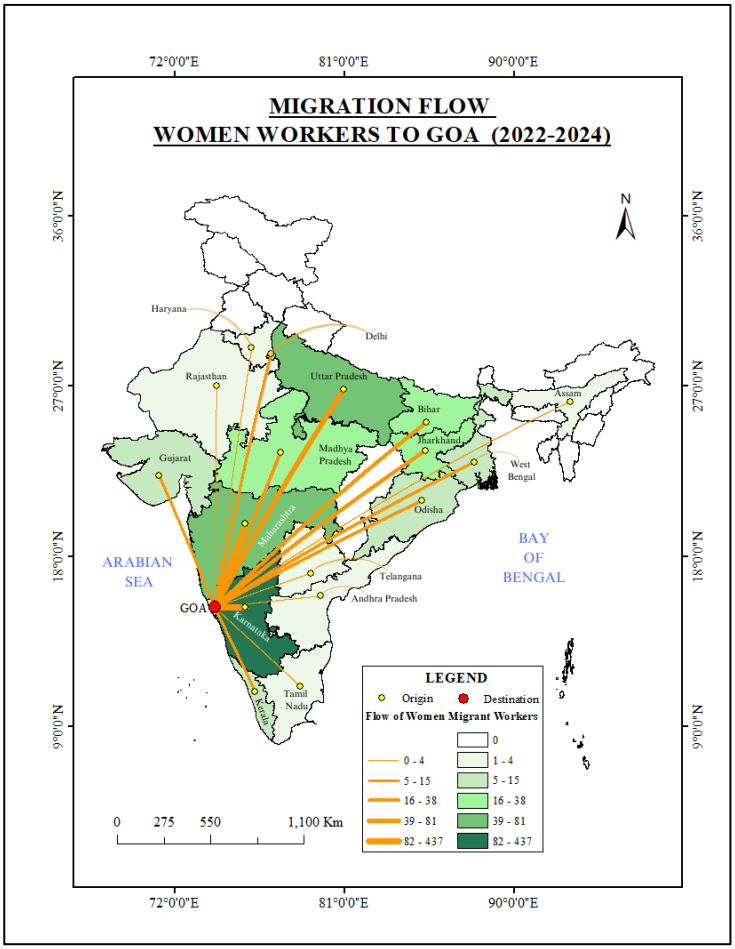


Figure 3.8 Internal Migration to Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Table 3.6 Place of Origin of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Place of Origin	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Karnataka	172	49.14	265	69.74	437	59.86
Maharashtra	34	9.71	38	10.00	72	9.86
Andhra Pradesh	0	0.00	4	1.05	4	0.55
Telangana	0	0.00	2	0.53	2	0.27
Bihar	19	5.43	19	5.00	38	5.21
Uttar Pradesh	56	16.00	29	7.63	85	11.64
Jharkhand	18	5.14	4	1.05	22	3.01
Kerala	5	1.43	1	0.26	6	0.82
Delhi	2	0.57	4	1.05	6	0.82
Odisha	8	2.29	4	1.05	12	1.64
Tamil Nadu	0	0.00	1	0.26	1	0.14
West Bengal	9	2.57	2	0.53	11	1.51
Madhya Pradesh	22	6.29	0	0.00	22	3.01
Rajasthan	2	0.57	2	0.53	4	0.55
Gujarat	1	0.29	5	1.32	6	0.82
Haryana	1	0.29	0	0.00	1	0.14
Assam	1	0.29	0	0.00	1	0.14
Total	N=350	100.00	N=380	100.00	N=730	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In Salcete Taluka, the dominance of Karnataka was even more pronounced, with 69.74% of migrant women workers hailing from there due to easy road and rail transport and proximity to the State. Maharashtra ranked second, though with a lower share (10%) compared to Ponda. Uttar Pradesh has contributed 7.63%, while Bihar (5%), Gujarat (1.32%) and a few other states like Andhra Pradesh, Delhi, Odisha and Jharkhand, Telangana and Tamil Nadu (Saraswati et al., 2015).

Considering both talukas combined, Karnataka has been the dominant source of migrant women workers at 59.86%, highlighting it as the primary origin state for this group in the region. Maharashtra (9.86%) and Uttar Pradesh (11.64%) have also contributed considerably to the overall migrant female workforce. Other states like Bihar (5.21%), Jharkhand and Madhya Pradesh (both at 3.01%) and West Bengal (1.51%) have represented smaller shares. The rest of the states collectively formed less than 1% each, indicating a limited contribution.

Overall, while Karnataka has stood out as the major contributor, the study has reflected a varied distribution of migrant women workers from multiple Indian states and regions.

3.4.2 MWW's Reasons for Migration

In Ponda, 40.57% of migrant women have moved due to marriage, making it the most common reason for migration in the region. Better wages have accounted for 34.29%, while 20.29% have migrated because of a lack of job opportunities in their native place. A small proportion has migrated for children's education (4%) or were drawn by a relative's call (0.86%). It is important to note that many women who have cited economic reasons such as better wages or job scarcity were also married, indicating that migration is often a family-based decision involving both social and economic motives.

In Salcete, 58.2% of migrant women have moved due to marriage, which is significantly higher than in Ponda where women have migrated to join husbands or extended families. Lack of job opportunities at the native place has followed at 29.2%, while 10.8% have migrated for children's education. Only 1.1% moved for better wages.

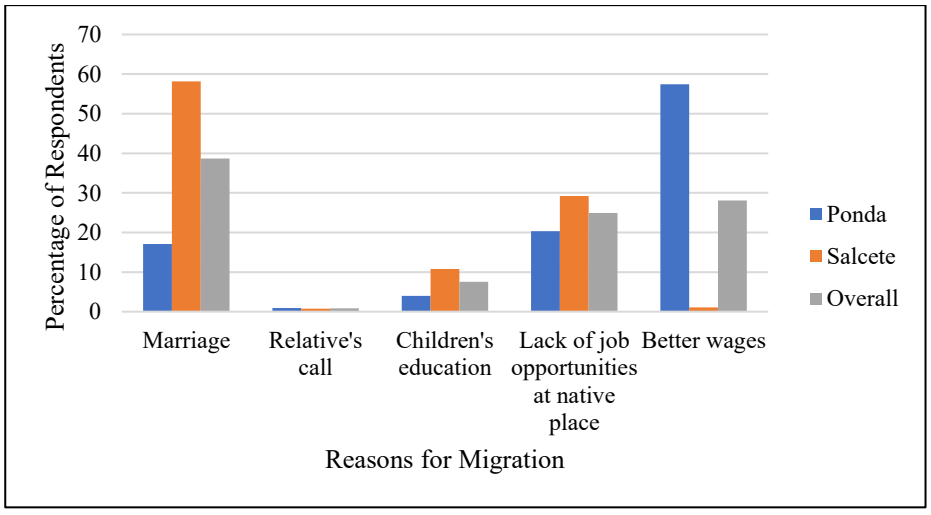


Figure 3.9 Reasons for Migration in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Across both talukas, marriage has been the leading cause of migration (38.63%), followed by better wages (28.08%) and lack of opportunities at the native place (24.93%). Children's education has accounted for 7.53% and relatives' call was only 0.82%. A notable observation is that a large number of women who have moved for economic reasons were also married. This indicated that these migrants have migrated as associational migrants.

3.4.3. MWW's Duration of Stay

In Ponda Taluka, 33.4% of migrant women workers have been staying for more than 20 years showing the long-term settlement due to stable employment, strong social ties and longer years of employment for other family members and education of children. At the same time, 31.1% of women have been in Ponda for less than 5 years. This showed that new migrants have been still arriving. So, Ponda has both older migrant communities and newly arrived migrants. The number of women staying for 5 to 10 years (13.7%), 10 to 15 years (8.6%) and 15 to 20 years (13.1%) was lower. This has suggested that some women have either left Goa after a while or have stayed for much longer periods.

In Salcete Taluka long-term settlement was common. Here, 34.7% of migrant women have been living for more than 20 years, which was slightly higher than in Ponda. Another group (25.3%) has lived in Salcete for 5 to 10 years. Only 10.8% have stayed for less than 5 years. This has suggested that recent migration has been less frequent in Salcete compared to Ponda. The proportion of women having lived for 10 to 15 years (16.1%) and 15 to 20 years (13.2%) has also shown that many women have steadily made Salcete their home. The study has shown that Salcete has become a permanent home for many migrant workers. The people of Salcete do not accept a stranger very easily. Hence, there have been lesser number of new migrants. The industrial employers, however, do not distinguish between the older and newer migrants since they have relied on the duration of the contractor rather than the individual workers.

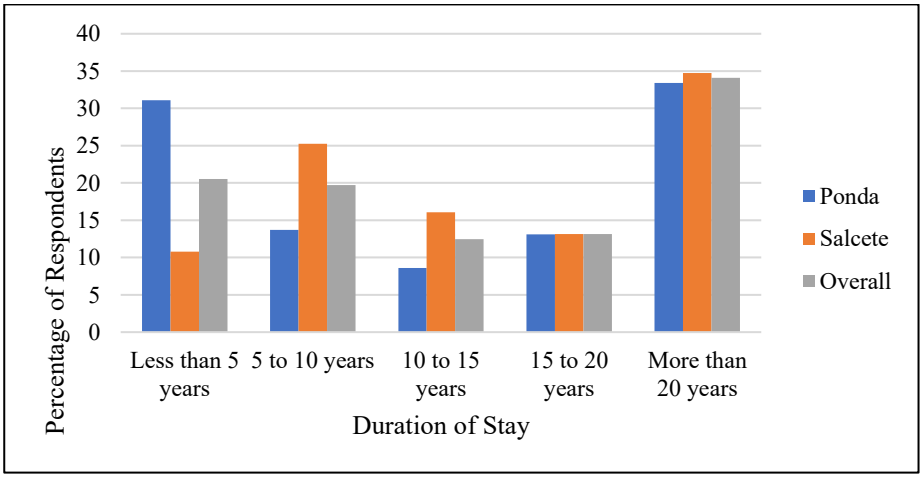


Figure 3.10 Duration of Stay in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Overall, around 34.1% of women have lived in these areas for more than 20 years indicating that migration has led to permanent settlement for many women. A small proportion (20.5%)

have migrated in the last 5 years, showing that new movement has continued, especially in places like Ponda. There was a small portion in 5 to 10-year group (19.7%) while durations of 10 to 15 years (12.5%) and 15 to 20 years (13.2%) have also pointed to a stable presence of migrant women who have made Goa their home.

3.4.4 Residential Concentration of MWW

The figure 3.11 shows residential concentration of migrant women workers in Ponda Taluka. The highest concentration has been found in Ponda town itself and its surrounding areas, including Priol, Kundaim, Bhoma and Orgao. These locations have offered better access to employment opportunities, infrastructure and transportation, making them more attractive for migrant population. Areas in the northern and western parts of the taluka have showed a high to moderate presence of migrant women workers, suggesting a gradual spread influenced by proximity to economic hubs. In contrast, the eastern part of Ponda Taluka has shown a low concentration, due to its forest cover, Orchard farming areas and fewer employment options except in Usgao, where the nearby industrial and mining units have provided employment to MWW in low skilled jobs.

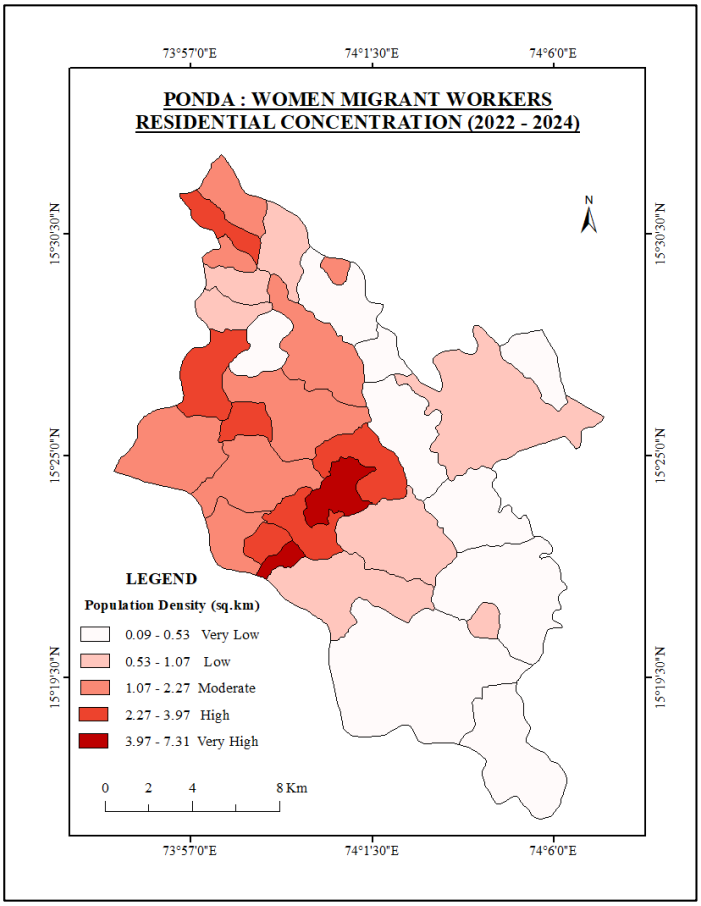


Figure 3.11 Ponda Taluka - Residential Concentration of MWW

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

In Salcete Taluka, the major concentration of migrant women workers has been observed in Margao town, which has served as a key urban and commercial hub in the region. Surrounding towns and villages such as Davorlim, Aquem and Navelim have also shown significant residential presence due to their proximity to Margao and availability of employment in nearby markets and service sectors. Additionally, the coastal belt of Salcete attracted a notable number of migrant women workers, due to opportunities in tourism and hospitality. Other areas with a considerable presence included Chandor, Curtorim, Paroda and Cuncolim, showing a wider distribution influenced by both economic opportunities and easy connectivity within the taluka.

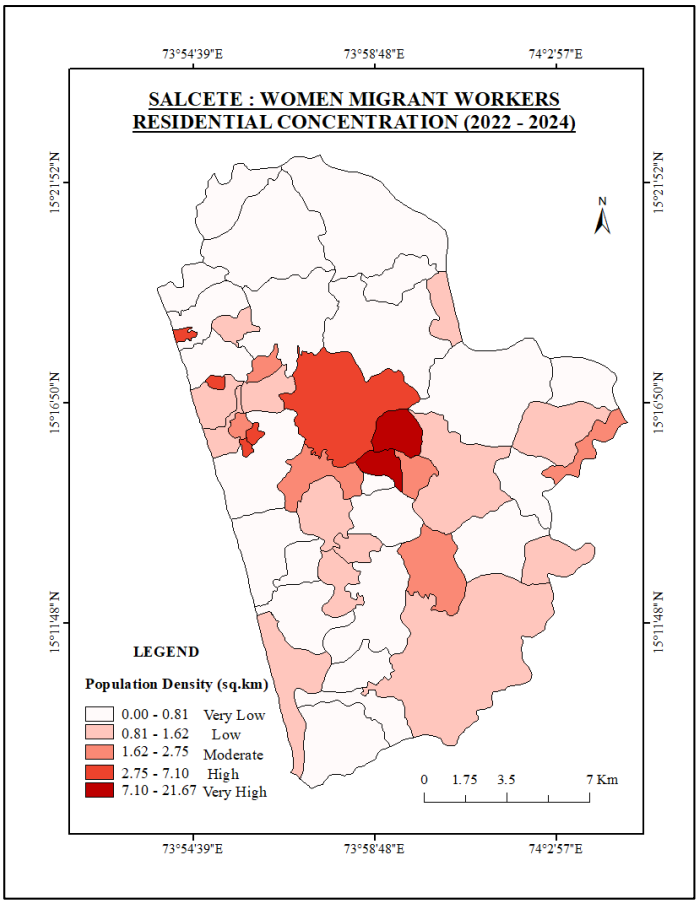


Figure 3.12 Salcete Taluka - Residential Concentration of MWW

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Overall, in Ponda taluka, highest concentration of MWW is found in and around Ponda town and the villages in the northern part of the taluka due to the presence of employable sector, market and industries. In Salcete taluka, major concentration of MWW is found in the central part of the taluka and the neighbouring villages and towns. A significant concentration is also seen in the eastern villages due to emerging commercial activities.

3.4.5 Source of Finding Job

In Ponda Taluka, most migrant women workers have found jobs through informal social networks. About two-third (65.7%) got work through friends showing the role of important personal connections in helping women find jobs. Another 19.1% of women have found jobs through contractors. This means that labour intermediaries played a big role, especially in areas like construction, domestic work and hospitality where contractors are common. Only 2% of the women have found work through newspaper ads. Interestingly, 13.1% of women have found jobs on their own, without help from friends or agents. This has shown that MWW were self-reliant and independent and wanted to contribute to the family expenses.

In Salcete Taluka, a higher number (70.5%) of migrant women said they got jobs through friends highlighting the peer support playing a major role in helping women join the workforce as many women migrate to Salcete through family connections, making it easier to use personal networks to find work. Unlike Ponda, only 1.8% of women in Salcete have got jobs through contractors. A notable finding is that 27.6% of women have found jobs on their own. It has suggested that women in Salcete were familiar with the local job market.

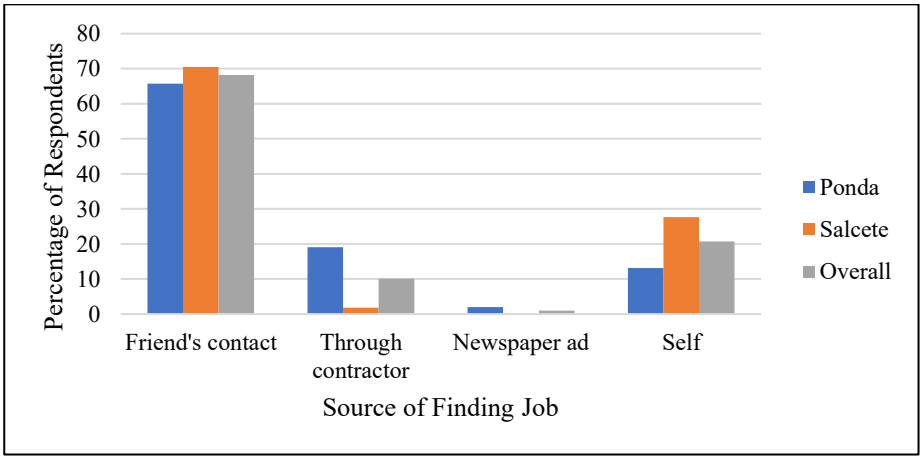


Figure 3.13 Source of Finding Job in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Across both the Talukas, the main way migrant women have found jobs is through personal networks since 68.2% of women found work through friends (Lingam, 1998). This shows that social connections and community support are crucial for getting jobs. A small number (10.1%) got jobs through contractors showing recruitment through intermediaries but mostly limited to certain sectors requiring group of workers. Only 1% of women used newspaper ads to find work, showing that formal job ads are not very helpful for this group of women. However, 20.7% of women found jobs through their own efforts by personally exploring the

job opportunities with likely employers. While social networks are still the main way to find jobs, there is an emerging trend of women becoming more independent in their job search.

3.5 Livelihood Details of MWW

The part has examined the livelihood conditions of migrant women workers, focusing on their income, expenditure, savings and financial stability. It has also looked at their ability to save and manage living expenses. These details have shed light on the economic challenges and financial flexibility of migrant women workers in Goa.

3.5.1 Type of Payment Received by MWW

In Ponda, the payment structure for women migrant workers has been predominantly monthly, with 79.7% receiving their wages on a monthly basis. Only 20.3% of workers have been paid daily wages. In Salcete, 37.1% of women have been receiving daily wages, compared to only 20.3% in Ponda. This higher percentage has indicated a greater prevalence of informal work such as construction labourers in this taluka. Meanwhile, 62.9% of women have been receiving monthly payments. Overall, the study has highlighted that 71.0% of women migrant workers across both Ponda and Salcete have been receiving monthly payments, emphasizing the importance of stable income for their economic well-being. However, 29.0% women workers have been working as daily wage workers such as construction labourers, factory workers, hawkers and vendors and tailors.

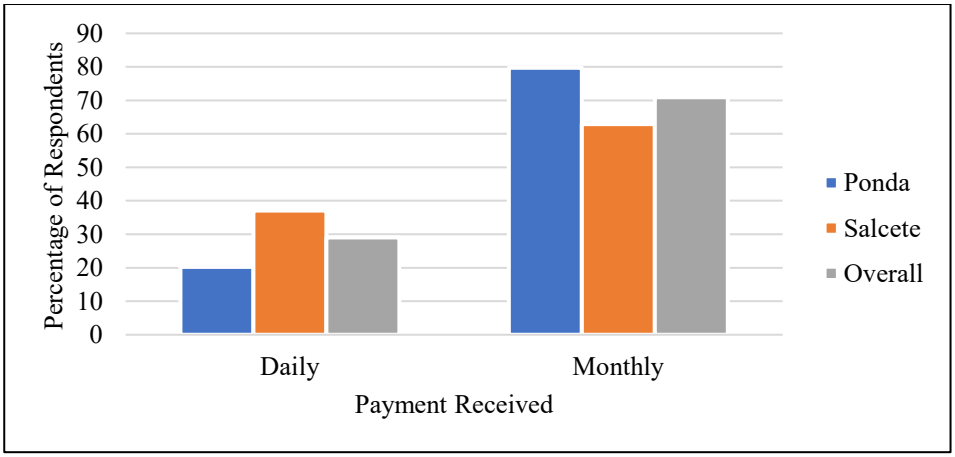


Figure 3.14 Payment Received by MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.2 Monthly Income of MWW

In Ponda, a majority of migrant women workers (59.43%) have been earning above Rs. 6000 per month, indicating relatively higher income levels due to the availability of jobs in manufacturing sector, especially in industrial estates. Around 30.86% have been receiving

salary between Rs. 3000 to 6000, suggesting a strong middle-income group comprising housemaids and tailors. A smaller portion (9.71%) has been earning less than Rs. 3000, highlighting a smaller group working in part-time employment.

In Salcete, almost half of the migrant women (47.9%) have been earning Rs. 3000 to 6000 monthly suggesting that most women have been employed in moderately paying jobs in domestic work and services. About 46.1% have been earning above Rs. 6,000, suggesting a few high-paying opportunities. Only 6.1% of women have been earning below Rs. 3,000, showing that the lowest income group was relatively small in this taluka.

While considering both talukas together, more than half of the migrant women workers (52.5%) have been earning above Rs. 6000 per month, which reflected that there have been no exploitation and ensured minimum economic stability. However, nearly forty percent (39.7%) have been earning in the Rs. 3000 to 6000 range, indicating that a large number have been managing with hopes for the future. Only 7.8% have been receiving a smaller income of Rs. 3000 representing the recent most workers under observation in unorganised sector exposing them as economically vulnerable group.

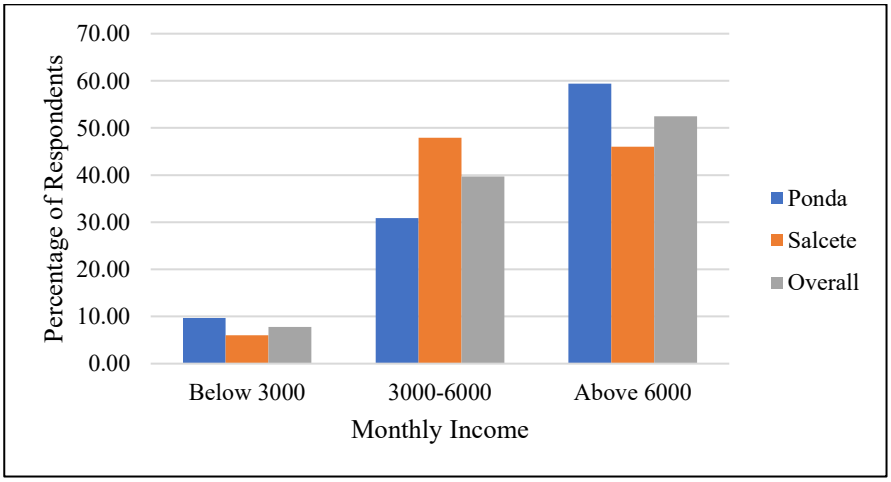


Figure 3.15 Monthly Income of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.3 Monthly Expenditure

In Ponda Taluka, about 45.7% have been spending between Rs. 3000 and 6000 monthly, reflecting moderate earnings and a balanced cost of living. Nearly one-third, 34.6% spent over Rs. 6000, suggesting larger families and increased living costs such as rent, education, medical expenses, etc. On the other hand, 19.7% have been spending under Rs. 3000 due to lower earnings or fewer dependents. Overall, Ponda has shown a mix of moderate-to-high

expenditure, where some women have been spending higher amount due to large family size or added responsibilities.

In Salcete Taluka, 52.6% of migrant women workers have been spending between Rs. 3000 and 6000 monthly, slightly higher than in Ponda, showing a greater concentration of mid-range spenders. This has suggested that most women have been managing their finances within a limited budget. More than a quarter (27.4%) have been spending above Rs. 6000 which is lower than in Ponda, indicating more lesser spending or lower earnings. One fifth (20%) have been spending under Rs. 3000 similar to Ponda.

Together, about half (49.3%) of the women have been spending between Rs. 3000 and 6000 per month suggesting that the most common group has been of the moderate spenders due to moderate income levels and higher cost-of-living faced by the average female migrant in Goa. Little above thirty (30.8%) of MWW have been spending over Rs. 6000 monthly, indicating that nearly one-third of migrant women have been managing larger households or coping with higher living responsibilities. Conversely, 19.9% of women have monthly expenditures below Rs. 3000, who have either been receiving support from other working family members or had no money to spend.

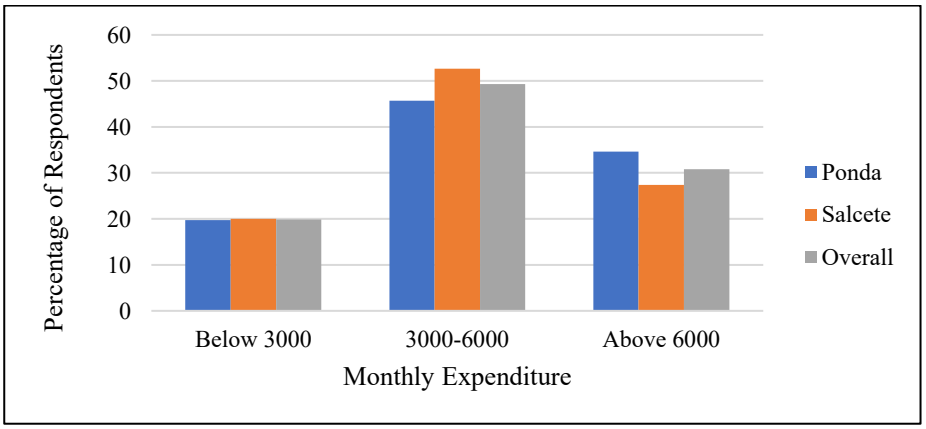


Figure 3.16 Monthly Expenditure in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.4 Monthly Savings

In Ponda Taluka, majority of the migrant women workers (68.3%) have reported no monthly savings. Remaining 31.7% of women have been able to save some portion of their income. This has highlighted that a large majority were not able to put aside savings for future needs or emergencies. In Salcete Taluka too, only 34.2% of MWW have saved money each month. The overall picture is that, only 33% of migrant women workers have saved a portion of

their income each month reflecting that the majority of migrant women were either struggling to meet their basic expenses or not fore seeing the future needs.

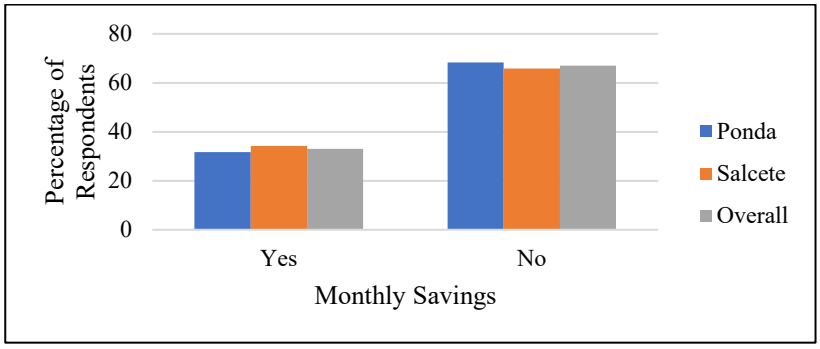


Figure 3.17 Monthly Savings in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.5 Means of Commute to work

In Ponda, nearly 60 percent (58.3%) of the migrant women workers commuted on foot indicating that walking is the most accessible option due to proximity to their workplaces. Nearly one-third, 31.4% used buses by those working farther distances. Very few (4.9%) used their own vehicles suggesting their affluence or affordability to move at own wills. A small proportion of 2% benefitted from the employer-provided pick-and-drop services.

Table 3.7 Means of Commute to Work in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Means of Commute to work	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Work from Home	12	3.4	23	6.1	35	4.8
On Foot	204	58.3	219	57.6	423	57.9
By Bus	110	31.4	74	19.5	184	25.2
Employer provides pick and drop	7	2	42	11.1	49	6.7
Own vehicle	17	4.9	22	5.8	39	5.3
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In Salcete, 57.6% of women also walked to work. A small proportion (19.5%) of workers commuted by buses, which was found to be lower percentage than in Ponda, suggesting fewer women relied on public transportation. Another 11.1% of women in Salcete benefitted from employer-provided pick-and-drop which was higher than Ponda. The use of own vehicles was also slightly higher at 5.8%, yet represented a small portion of the overall

commuting patterns. Across both talukas, nearly 60 percent (57.9%) of migrant women workers commuted on foot, showing a strong reliance on walking; 25.2% used buses. Employer-provided pick-and-drop services were utilized by 6.7% and own vehicles were used by 5.3%, reflecting that both personal transportation and employer support were less common.

3.5.6 Type of Accommodation

In Ponda Taluka, the vast majority of migrant women workers (88.3%) have been residing in rented accommodation. Only 11.7% of the women in Ponda owned their homes, which represented more established migrant workers who have settled long-term in the region. In Salcete Taluka, 19.5% of migrant women owned their homes, which was almost double the proportion seen in Ponda. This higher rate of homeownership has indicated a greater degree of financial stability or a longer period of residence in the area among migrant women. However, the majority of women in Salcete taluka too (78.2%) lived in rented accommodation. Notably, 2.4% of women lived in accommodation provided by their employer. Across both Ponda and Salcete talukas, 83% of MWW lived in rented accommodation, which has reflected the temporary nature of their migration and financial limitations that prevent homeownership. Only 15.8% owned their homes. A small 1.2% lived in employer-provided housing, showing availability of such arrangements though rare. Overall, renting was the dominant and most practical housing available for migrant women in Goa.

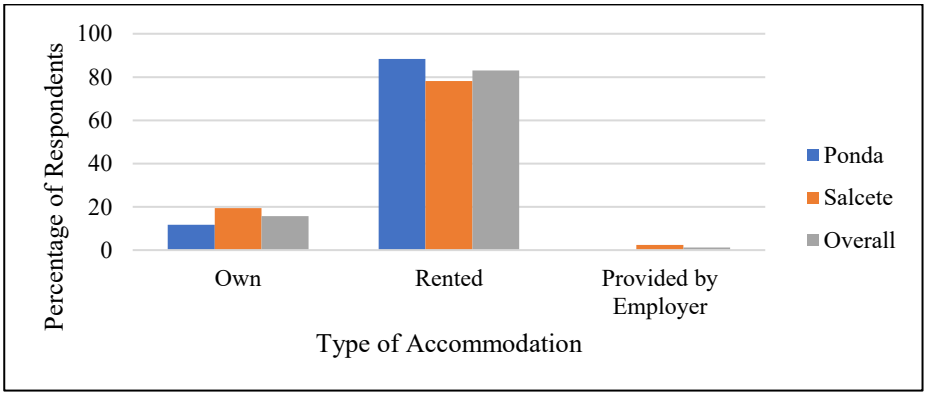


Figure 3.18 Type of Accommodation in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.7 Rent Paid

In Ponda Taluka, the majority of migrant women workers (65.05%) paid a monthly rent between Rs. 3000 and 6000. This has suggested that most women in this region were living in rented accommodation that fell within a moderate price range. A sizable proportion,

(30.42%) paid less than Rs. 3000 suggesting more affordable house options but not very spacious and with shared toilets and water facilities. Only 4.53 % of women paid rent above Rs. 6000. This group included those who opted for more spacious accommodations and who had family support to pay higher rent.

In Salcete Taluka, the largest group, (54.9%) paid rent between Rs. 3000 and Rs. 6000. A significant 39.4% of women paid less than Rs. 3000 in rent, which was a higher proportion than in Ponda. This has suggested that a notable segment of women in Salcete was able to find more affordable housing options. A smaller group of 5.7%, with bigger families and who seek space and comfort, paid rent above Rs. 6000.



Figure 3.19 Rent Paid in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Across both Ponda and Salcete talukas, half of the migrant women workers (49.9%) paid rent between Rs. 3000 and Rs. 6000 per month which was the most common rent structure. A considerable proportion (28.9%) paid less than Rs. 3000 in rent, indicating that affordable housing options were available to a significant portion of the migrant worker population. Only 4.2% paid rent above Rs. 6,000, pointing to the fact that high rent was not widespread among migrant women workers in Goa.

3.5.8 Nature of House

In Ponda Taluka, the overwhelming majority of migrant women workers (91.1%) lived in houses with asbestos, steel or tinned roofs. This has suggested that the most common housing structure in this region is temporary or semi-permanent, constructed with inexpensive and readily available materials. The predominance of such housing also highlighted the financial limitations of migrant women workers, who did not have the resources to secure more permanent or high-quality housing. Additionally, 8.6% of women in Ponda resided in flats, which represented a relatively small proportion.

In Salcete Taluka, the housing situation was somewhat similar but with a notable difference in the prevalence of flats. As with Ponda, a large majority (78.9%) of women lived in houses with asbestos, steel or tinned roofs. A larger proportion of women in Salcete (18.9%) lived in flats compared to Ponda.

Across both Ponda and Salcete talukas, the dominant housing type was one with asbestos, steel or tinned roofs as 84.8% of migrant women workers lived in such houses. This has suggested that most migrant women lived in rental housing that is affordable but not high-quality. A relatively small proportion (14%) of migrant women across both talukas lived in flats, indicating that access to more formal housing was limited but present among a minority of migrant workers.

Table 3.8 Nature of House in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Nature of house	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Coconut roof	1	0.3	8	1.1	9	1.2
Asbestos roof/steel or tinned roof	319	91.1	300	78.9	619	84.8
Flat	30	8.6	72	18.9	102	14.0
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.5.9 No. of Rooms

In Ponda Taluka, the majority of migrant women workers (71.7%) lived in homes with 1 to 2 rooms. This was common among low-income migrant populations. A smaller proportion of women in Ponda (24.9%) lived in houses with 2 to 4 rooms, which suggested that only a few MWW have access to spacious houses. Only 3.4% of women in Ponda lived in homes with more than 4 rooms, suggesting that larger, more spacious housing options were quite rare and out of reach for most migrant women in this area.

In Salcete Taluka, 67.6% lived in homes with 1 to 2 rooms. A larger proportion of women in Salcete (29.7%) lived in homes with 2 to 4 rooms compared to Ponda. Only 2.6% of women lived in homes with more than 4 rooms, similar to Ponda.

Across both Ponda and Salcete talukas, the overall trend has indicated that the majority of migrant women workers (69.6%) lived in homes with 1 to 2 rooms. A smaller proportion (27.4%) lived in homes with 2 to 4 rooms, suggesting that a minority of women had access

to slightly more spacious living conditions, though still within modest limits. Only 3% of women across both talukas lived in homes with more than 4 rooms, emphasizing the limitedness of larger housing options for migrant women workers.

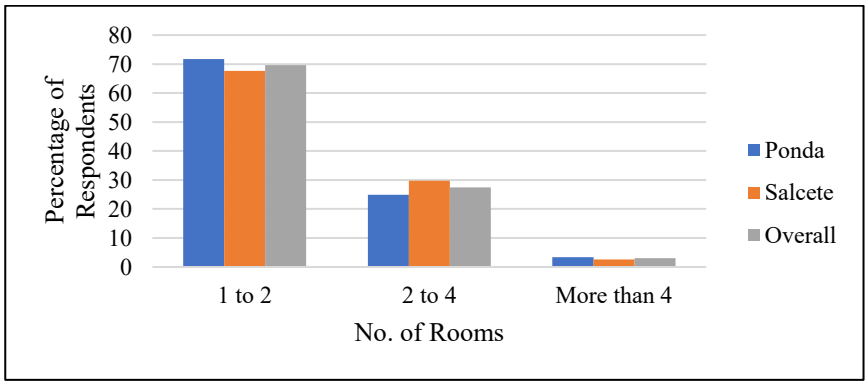


Figure 3.20 No. of Rooms in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

3.5.10 Toilet Facilities

There is a link between housing conditions, home ownership, amount of rent paid and access to toilet facilities among migrant women workers. Women who resided in their own houses or in houses paying higher rent had access to separate toilets built inside the house, offering greater privacy, hygiene and convenience. In contrast, those living in rental houses with low to moderate rent relied on common toilets located outside the house, typically shared by multiple families within the same compound or chawl. Using common or shared toilets posed challenges in terms of sanitation, safety and ease of use.

3.5.11 Overall condition of the House

In Ponda Taluka, it is observed that 58.3% of the homes were in satisfactory condition, while 37.1% appeared to be in good condition. This suggested that 95.4% of the housing in the area were in adequate condition. Only a small portion showed signs of poor conditions, (3.4%) were noted as bad, 0.9% as miserable and 0.3% as dilapidated. These low figures suggested that the majority reside in liveable environments, though not necessarily comfortable or spacious.

In Salcete Taluka, housing conditions showed a different picture, with a stronger tilt toward better quality dwellings. Around 49.2% of homes were observed to be in good condition, a higher proportion than in Ponda. However, only 39.7% were seen as satisfactory, pointing to a prevalence of basic but affordable housing. On the negative side, 8.4% of homes were found to be in bad condition, 2.1% in dilapidated state and 0.5% in miserable condition. This

has indicated that a small but significant number of migrant women were living in visibly deteriorated housing environments.

Table 3.9 Overall condition of the House in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Overall condition of the House	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Miserable	3	0.9	2	.5	5	.7
Dilapidated	1	0.3	8	2.1	9	1.2
Bad	12	3.4	32	8.4	44	6.0
Satisfactory	204	58.3	151	39.7	355	48.6
Good	130	37.1	187	49.2	317	43.4
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In both talukas together, observations showed that almost half (48.6%) of homes were in satisfactory condition**,** while 43.4% appeared to be in good condition**.** This meant that more than 90% of migrant women lived in acceptable or better housing**,** despite staying in asbestos-roofed houses or small rented rooms. However, 6% of housing was found to be bad and 1.9% either miserable or dilapidated**,** revealing that a vulnerable minority faced serious housing quality issues**.**

3.6 Future plans of MWW

In Ponda, almost half (45.1%) of migrant women workers planned to continue working long-term, suggesting a sense of stability and integration. This was due to permanency at the place of destination and satisfaction with their jobs. Another 42.3% said they would stay until a better opportunity arises. This showed a flexible approach indicating that many women were open to moving if better jobs or conditions came up within the state. Only 6.9% intended to quit the job soon, due to old age or job dissatisfaction. A small 5.1% planned to return to their native place eventually and just 0.6% said they would return only after retirement.

In Salcete, almost half (49.7%) of migrant women intended to stay long-term, slightly higher than in Ponda. About 34.5% said they would stay until a better opportunity comes, indicating a similar opportunity-driven mindset. A higher 11.1% planned to leave soon due to old age-related health issues. Meanwhile, 4.2% planned to return to their native places and just 0.5% planned to return to their native places only after retirement.

Table 3.10 Future plans of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas in Goa

Future plans	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Continue till better opportunity	148	42.3	131	34.5	279	38.22
Continue for long time	158	45.1	189	49.7	347	47.53
Will quit soon	24	6.9	42	11.1	66	9.04
Will return back to native place after sometime	18	5.1	16	4.2	34	4.66
Will return to native place at old age/retirement	2	0.6	2	.5	4	0.55
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

The overall data from both talukas has shown that 47.53% of women planned to stay long-term and 38.22% wanted to stay until better opportunities arose. Together, this meant that more than 85% were not planning to leave soon. Only 9.04% planned to quit shortly, suggesting some were facing challenges and old age-related health issues. A small 4.66% aimed to return home after some time as they did not have permanent residency in Goa and just 0.55% wished to go back after retirement age.

3.7 Validation and Application of Migration Theories

The study has validated and tested the application of two well-known migration theories respectively which are the Everett Lee's Theory of Migration and E. G. Ravenstein's Laws of Migration to understand the migration patterns of women workers and to give insight into the reasons for their movement and other migration characteristics. These theories have offered explanations for why people migrate and the patterns of their movements. Attempt has been made to compare the ideas in these theories with the actual data from the study to see how well they fit the experiences of migrant women workers.

3.7.1 Validation of Lee's Theory of Migration

According to Lee's model, migration occurs when individuals are pushed out of their origin region by negative factors and pulled into a destination by positive ones. These movements are influenced by personal characteristics and various obstacles that may intervene during the migration process.

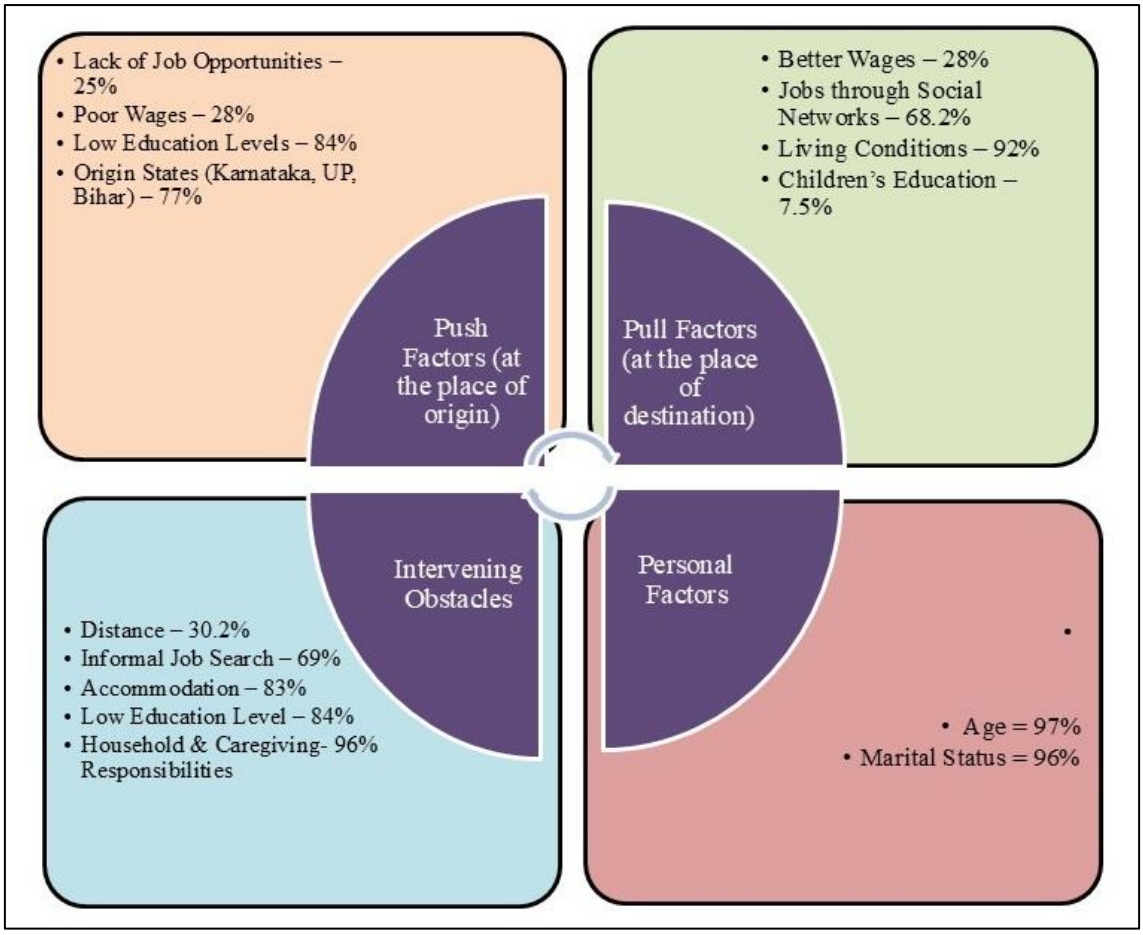


Figure 3.21 Diagram showing Validation of Lee's Theory of Migration

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

A. Push Factors (At Place of Origin)

1. Lack of Job Opportunities

About one-fourth (24.93%) of women migrated due to the absence of employment opportunities in their native areas. There were limited opportunities for women at their place of origin. Therefore, they migrated to Goa where different employment opportunities were available to them.

2. Poor Wages

More than one-fourth (28.08 per cent) of the women experienced low wages for their working in their native areas. As a result, it was difficult to meet family's basic needs. This wage disparity reduced the attractiveness of staying at the origin. Due to this, migration was seen as a better option to earn more and support the family.

3. Low Education Levels

Two-thirds (70%) of the migrant women workers had low level of schooling while some did not have any formal schooling. Therefore, it was difficult for them to get stable jobs with better income. This led to their migration to Goa.

4. Origin States

A majority of the MWW came from Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. These states had very few employment opportunities for the women either due to low sectoral development or family restrictions to work. These states experienced economic hardships and limited employment opportunities particularly for women. Such unfavourable conditions at the place of origin increased the pressure to migrate. Therefore, these women migrated to the place of destination to find jobs or better opportunities.

B. Pull Factors (At Destination – Goa)

1. Better Wages

More than a quarter (28.08%) of the women migrated in search of higher earnings. Compared to their native regions, Goa offered relatively better-paying employment opportunities. An average daily wage earner would receive Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 in other states. But in Goa, they would earn Rs. 500 to Rs. 700 per day. This wage differential increased the attractiveness of the destination.

2. Children's Education

About 7.53% of women moved to support their children's education. Goa's schooling facilities were seen as better than those in their home states. Another major advantage in Goa is that secondary schools use English as the medium of instruction. In other states, the women would have to pay high amount of fees as instruction in English is found only in private schools. This motivated migration for education.

3. Job Acquisition Through Social Networks

About three-fourth (68%) of the migrants secured jobs through friends or acquaintances. Pre-existing community networks from the same region facilitated information flow and job placement. These networks reduced uncertainties and risks associated with migration. As a result, social connections eased the transition into the destination labour market.

4. Living Conditions

A vast majority (91.9%) of the women rated their housing as satisfactory or good. Basic comfort and safety in Goa encouraged settlement. Better living conditions acted as a strong pull.

C. Intervening Obstacles

1. Distance

Migrants from states like Bihar and Uttar Pradesh faced long travel distances. The journey involved both financial and logistical challenges. Despite this, many still chose to migrate.

2. Informal Job Search

Only 1% found jobs through formal channels like ads or contractors. Most relied on informal contacts. This limited their access to wider employment options.

3. Accommodation

A vast majority (83%) of migrants lived in rented housing. Only 1.2% received employer-provided housing. Finding affordable housing was an initial hurdle.

4. Language and Cultural Barriers

At the initial stage of migration, many women faced difficulties due to unfamiliarity with the local language and customs. This created communication issues in daily life and at work. Adapting to a different cultural environment was an early hurdle for many. The migrant women also faced issues with availability of food. They found it difficult to find the kind of food items that they consumed at their native places.

5. Social Isolation

Social isolation was another common obstacle, particularly among women who had been in Goa for less than 10 years. These migrants typically lived within their own communities or alongside others from similar backgrounds. Their interaction with locals was often limited to workplace needs, with little social or cultural integration.

D. Personal Factors

1. Age

About three-fourth (74.5%) of migrants were aged between 25 and 44. This is the prime age group for work and family responsibilities. This indicated that the economically productive aged women were more mobile.

2. Marital Status

A vast majority (90.4%) of the migrants were married. For 38.6%, marriage itself was the reason for migration. This showed the importance of social ties in women's mobility.

4. Education

Most women had only basic education. Limited schooling restricted job options in their home states. Migration became a way to find alternative livelihoods.

Thus, the Theory of Migration propounded by Everett Lee is highly relevant and accepted in terms of the study. It has validated the data pertaining to the study.

3.7.2 Extent of Application of E. G. Ravenstein's Laws of Migration

In the late 19th century, E. G. Ravenstein propounded the Laws of Migration which described the general patterns and trends in human migration. Following are the major laws and their extent of application to women migrant workers of the study.

- **Most migrants move only a short distance.**

More than half (60%) of the migrant women workers belonged to neighbouring states such of Karnataka and Maharashtra, as well as the nearby state of Andhra Pradesh. Migration from distant states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand and West Bengal was comparatively low. This indicated a distance decay effect, where the volume of migration decreased with increasing distance.

- **Migration occurs in steps (step migration).**

Although detailed rural–urban origin data were limited, the movement into semi-urban areas such as Ponda and Salcete from smaller towns or villages suggested migration in stages. Instead of moving directly to major metropolitan centres, migrants initially settled in smaller urban destinations in the study area. Goa served as an intermediate or transitional destination. This indicated that migration occurred in steps.

- **Long-distance migrants go to centres of commerce and industry.**

Both Ponda and Salcete talukas have major commercial and industrial centres in Goa providing better wages (28.08%) and job opportunities (24.93%) to the migrant women workers. The tourism and construction industries have thus attracted female labour from multiple states, especially Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, even though they're far away.

- **Every Migration Stream Creates a Counter-Stream.**

About 13.7% of women indicated they would either quit soon or return to their native place. This has indicated that migration was not permanent for all the women as some women planned to go back to their native places once their goals of earning were met or after retirement from the present job.

- **Rural People are more Migratory than Urban People.**

Many women migrants came from rural states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Jharkhand. These women had no low formal schooling (25.6%). It suggested that many of these women came from rural backgrounds where educational and job opportunities were limited.

- **Urban areas attract more migrants than rural areas.**

Within the talukas, majority of the migrant women workers were found employed in urban areas like Ponda town and its neighbouring places and in Salcete, in Margao town and its periphery and Cuncolim town.

- **Women are more migratory than men over short distances.**

The data has focused exclusively on women migrants, with the majority coming from neighbouring states like Karnataka and Maharashtra, indicating short-distance movement. Additionally, around 40% of the women have migrated due to marriage as associational migrants with their spouses.

- **Most Migrants are Adults.**

A large majority of the women migrants (74.5%) were between the ages of 25 and 44, which represented the prime working and reproductive years. Very few were below 25 or above 55 of age, highlighting that migration was most common among young adults.

- **Economic Factors Dominate Migration.**

More than half (53%) of women migrants cited economic reasons such as better wages and lack of job opportunities as their primary motivation. Their migration was facilitated by their

friends and relatives who were already working at the place of destination. Almost two-thirds (68%) of women migrants found jobs through friends and relatives.

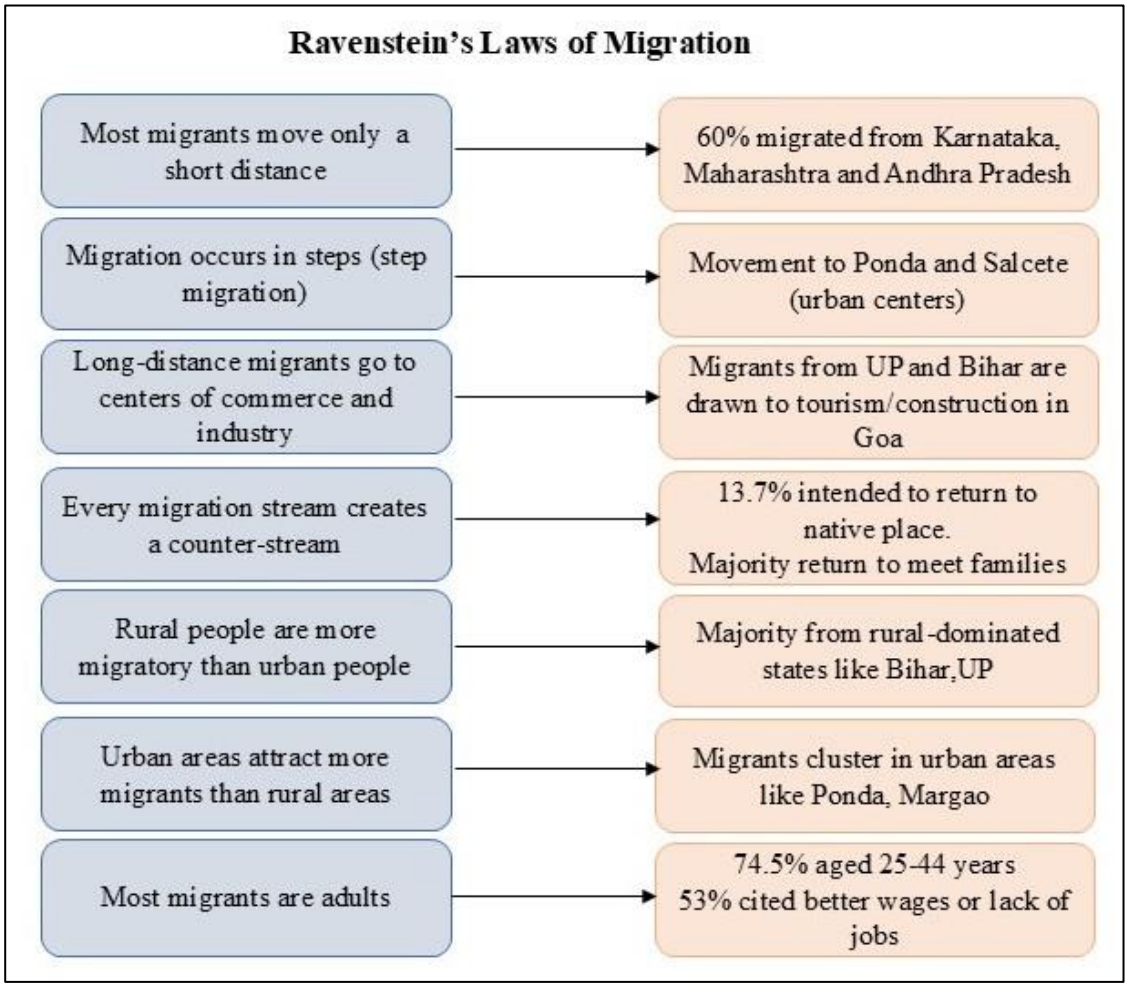


Figure 3.22 Diagram showing Application of Ravenstein's Laws of Migration
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Thus, the Laws of Migration as propounded by E. G. Raveinstein found applicable to the study area based upon the available data pertaining to the study area.

3.8 Crosstabulations of Selected Variables

The section has provided crosstabulations of key variables to analyse patterns and relationships within the data related to migrant women workers. By comparing two variables at a time, it has become possible to identify trends, correlations and differences among groups. These comparisons have helped to understand how demographic, economic and socio-cultural factors are connected in shaping the experiences of migrant women workers.

3.8.1 Age and Education

There was a strong generational gap in educational attainment among migrant women workers. Younger women (aged 15–24) were significantly better educated, with none being illiterate and most having completed at least secondary education due to improved access to schooling. In contrast, older age groups, above age 45 showed high levels of illiteracy. Out of these, 85.71% of women above age 55 lacked formal education highlighting the limited opportunities available to them during their growing years. Across all age groups, secondary education was the most common level, suggesting that while basic education has become more accessible, advancement beyond this point was limited which was contributed by the factors such as economic pressures, early marriage and inadequate access to higher education. Overall, the study has reflected progress in educational access for younger migrant women, but has also highlighted strong barriers to higher education and also the lack of opportunities to education among older generations due to inequalities placed by the society.

3.8.2 Age and Duration of Employment

The study has implied that younger migrant women (15–24) have limited work experience, with many just starting out as they have not explored the opportunities outside and they are also faced by barriers such as local language, the job demands and skills. The relatively short work durations have also suggested that they were still exploring their career paths. For women aged 25–34, the status of employment duration indicated a transitional phase, where they were gaining more experience but still hadn't settled into long-term careers. As age increased, especially in the 35–44 and 45–54 age groups, the work experience increased due to longer working periods at the same place of work. The sharp increase in women with more than 8 years of experience in the women above age 45 has pointed to job stability and long-term participation in the workforce. Overall, the study has shown that work experience generally increased with age, but it also suggested that older women faced limited career growth opportunities, while younger women faced challenges in establishing stable, long-term employment.

3.8.3 Age and Working Hours

The study revealed a strong link between age and daily working hours among migrant women workers, showing that older women worked longer hours than younger ones. Most women in the 15–24 age group worked relatively short shifts, with around two-thirds

working only 3 to 5 hours a day, indicating casual type of jobs due to their recent entry into the workforce coupled with caregiving responsibilities at home. In contrast, women in the 25–34 and 35–44 age groups increasingly shifted toward full-time work, with the majority working 6 to 8 hours and a growing share working more than 8 hours a day. This pattern became more pronounced in the 45–54 and 55+ age groups, where a significant number of women, up to 28.6% in the oldest group, reported working more than 8 hours daily. The study suggested that as women age, they took on longer working hours due to greater financial responsibilities, family needs or stability in employment. Overall, the study has implied that older migrant women were more likely to engage in full-time or extended-hour work, while younger women were more commonly found in shorter hour or part-time jobs.

3.8.4 Age and Distance Covered for Work

The study has suggested that younger migrant women (15–24) worked closer to home or worked from home as they were new to the place and were not accustomed with the job opportunities, language and modes of transport. Younger women were more in informal or part-time work, which didn't require long commutes. Older migrant women were familiar with the place hence; they travelled farther distances for work. Women between age group of 34-45 travelled between 2-5 km for work due to increased job stability and better paying jobs. Some women above 55 age travelled long distances (more than 10 km) due to lack of better paying jobs and job stability.

3.8.5 Age and Future Plans

The study suggested that younger migrant women (15–24) saw their current jobs as temporary and were hoping for better opportunities. This meant that they were likely more open to change and were better educated, but they did not have many good job options at present. Their lack of plans to return home or quit soon showed that they're still building their lives and careers. Women in the middle age groups (25–44) wanted to stay in their jobs for a long time, which implied that they had grown comfortable in their current jobs and were happy with the pay. As women aged, especially those above 45, more of them started planning to leave their jobs or return to their hometown due to older age and related health issues.

3.8.6 Age and Income

The data has implied that younger migrant women (15–24) earned significantly lower wages, with most earning between Rs. 3,000 and 6,000. This indicated that younger women

were in informal and part time jobs offering lower pay. As women aged, particularly in the 25–34 age group and beyond, the income distribution became more balanced, with a growing proportion earning above Rs. 6,000. This suggested that as women gain more experience, they were able to secure higher-paying, stable jobs with better wages. More than half (57%) of women in the 35 plus age groups earned above Rs. 6,000 suggesting that older workers worked longer hours and took up greater responsibilities. The study has pointed to greater economic stability with age and work experience, suggesting that older migrant women had access to better-paying opportunities, but younger women faced challenges in securing high-paying jobs early in their careers.

Table 3.11 Crosstabulation of Age of MWW and their income

Age	Income in Rs.						Total	Percent
	Below 3000		3000-6000		Above 6000			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
15-24	1	5.56	15	83.33	2	11.11	18	100
25-34	11	5.7	88	45.64	94	48.69	193	100
35-44	33	9.4	120	34.17	198	56.43	351	100
45-54	11	7.48	59	40.14	77	52.38	147	100
>55	1	4.76	8	38.1	12	57.14	21	100
Total	57	7.8	290	39.73	383	52.46	730	100

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

3.8.7 Occupation and Income

The study has implied that migrant women working in certain occupations, such as factory workers, helpers and saleswomen, earned higher wages (above Rs. 6,000), indicating that these jobs required more specialized skills and were a part of formal sectors. In contrast, housemaids and tailors earned between Rs. 3,000 and 6,000 and some housemaids earned below Rs. 3,000, pointing to lower pay and informal or low-skilled work. Jobs like tailors and garbage collectors, had even lower earnings due to the irregular nature of work. Meanwhile, sweepers earned above Rs. 6,000, as it was a formal sector job. Overall, the study has highlighted that occupation type plays a key role in determining earnings, with formal, skill-based jobs generally offering higher and more stable wages, while informal, lower-skilled jobs offered lower incomes.

3.8.8 Occupation and Commute to Work

Majority of the women engaged in informal work such as housemaids, labourers and vendors walked to their jobs as the distance that they covered was shorter. Conversely, factory workers and saleswomen mainly commuted by buses as they covered relatively longer distances and were employed in more formal job structures that required transportation to industrial or commercial work environments. Majority of the tailors worked from home as they were self-employed. Only a few women used employer-provided transportation consisting factory workers and helpers. Use of personal vehicle (two-wheeler) was not widespread and only a few women used two-wheeler to commute especially, saleswomen.

3.8.9 Age and Duration of Stay

The study has implied that duration of stay was strongly correlated with age, with older migrant women workers typically having longer stays in Goa. Younger women (15–24) had much shorter stays, indicating that they were still in the early stages of their migration. As women grow older, especially in the 45–54 and 55 plus age groups, the duration of stay increased significantly, suggesting that long-term stability became more common as women settled into their work and life situations.

3.8.10 Duration of Stay and Accommodation Type

The study has suggested that there was a strong correlation between accommodation type and duration of stay. Women who have stayed for a shorter period (less than 5 years) have been living in rented accommodation. As women stayed longer (5-10 years), there was a slight shift toward homeownership, but renting remained the most common option. Furthermore, for those who have stayed for more than 20 years, homeownership became much more common, indicating that long-term residence often led to greater financial stability and the ability to invest in property. Only a few women lived in employer-provided housing across all groups, especially those working as construction labourers.

3.8.11 Duration of Stay and Duration of Employment

The study has indicated that the duration of employment of migrant women workers was closely related to the duration of stay. Most of the women who have stayed for less than 5 years were relatively new to the workforce, with a large portion employed for less than 2 years. This suggested that new migrants had shorter job tenures. As the duration of stay increased (5-10 years or more), the proportion of women with longer employment durations

rose. This suggested that as migrant women become more settled in their communities, they had more stable and longer employment tenures.

3.9 Hypotheses Testing

Following hypotheses were tested using relevant statistical tests.

3.9.1 Hypothesis 1

Null (H_0): There is no association between marital status and occupation of migrant women workers.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between marital status and occupation of migrant women workers.

Statistic	Value	df	p-value
Pearson Chi-Square	42.899	4	<.001
Number of valid cases: 730			

Result: Rejected null hypothesis as there is a highly significant association between the variables and accepted alternative hypothesis.

Conclusion: Since the result is X^2=42.899, p<.001, the Chi-Square test is statistically significant, with $p < .001$, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicated that there was a significant association between marital status and current occupation. Married women mostly took up jobs in domestic sector while unmarried women were mostly found in industrial and retail sector. In domestic sector, the women had flexibility of working hours and young mother chose to work lesser hours to care for their families and looked after household responsibilities. While unmarried women worked for standard 6 to 8 hours.

3.9.2 Hypothesis 2

Null (H_0): There is no association between accommodation type and duration of stay.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between accommodation type and duration of stay.

Statistic	Value	df	p-value
Pearson Chi-Square	75.033	8	<.001
Number of valid cases: 730			

Result: Rejected null hypothesis as there is a highly significant association between the variables and accepted alternative hypothesis.

Conclusion: The test revealed a statistically significant relationship, **X^2=75.03, p<.001**, indicating that the distribution of duration of stay differed across accommodation types. It indicated that women migrant workers who have lived for longer durations have lived in owned accommodation in comparison to those who have lived lesser years.

3.9.3 Hypothesis 3

Null (H_0): There is no association between age of MWW and duration of stay.

Alternative (H_1): There is an association between age of MWW and duration of stay.

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	330.282	4	82.570	40.588	<.001
Within Groups	1474.896	725	2.034		
Total	1805.178	729			

A one-way ANOVA was conducted for continuous data to assess whether the duration of stay differed significantly across the five groups. The analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in the mean duration of stay across the different age groups, **F= 40.59, p < .001**. This meant that age was associated with how long MWW stay, with some age groups staying longer than others. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as there is a highly significant association between the variables and accepted alternative hypothesis.

To further determine which groups had significant relationships, a post hoc test was conducted using Tukey HSD.

Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's HSD test revealed that the duration of stay significantly differed between several age groups. Individuals in the younger age groups (19.5 and 29.5 years) had significantly shorter stays compared to those in the older age groups (especially 49.5 and 59.5 years). For instance, the mean difference in stay between the 19.5 and 59.5 age groups was -2.29 months ($p < .001$), with a 95% confidence interval from -3.55 to -1.04 months. However, there was no significant difference in duration of stay between the 49.5 and 59.5 age groups ($p = .905$). These results suggested that older individuals stayed longer compared to younger ones.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Duration of Stay: Tukey HSD

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
19.5	29.5	-.1937	.3515	.982	-1.155	.768
	39.5	-.8476	.3447	.101	-1.790	.095
	49.5	-2.0011*	.3562	.000	-2.975	-1.027
	59.5	-2.2937*	.4581	.000	-3.547	-1.041
29.5	19.5	.1937	.3515	.982	-.768	1.155
	39.5	-.6539*	.1278	.000	-1.003	-.304
	49.5	-1.8074*	.1561	.000	-2.234	-1.380
	59.5	-2.0999*	.3277	.000	-2.996	-1.204
39.5	19.5	.8476	.3447	.101	-.095	1.790
	29.5	.6539*	.1278	.000	.304	1.003
	49.5	-1.1536*	.1401	.000	-1.537	-.770
	59.5	-1.4461*	.3204	.000	-2.322	-.570
49.5	19.5	2.0011*	.3562	.000	1.027	2.975
	29.5	1.8074*	.1561	.000	1.380	2.234
	39.5	1.1536*	.1401	.000	.770	1.537
	59.5	-.2925	.3327	.905	-1.202	.617
59.5	19.5	2.2937*	.4581	.000	1.041	3.547
	29.5	2.0999*	.3277	.000	1.204	2.996
	39.5	1.4461*	.3204	.000	.570	2.322
	49.5	.2925	.3327	.905	-.617	1.202

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.9.4 Hypothesis 4

Null (H_0): There is no significant difference between mean duration of employment of MWW and their working hours.

Alternative (H_1): There is a significant difference between mean duration of employment of MWW and their working hours.

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	81.869	4	20.467	9.391	<.001
Within Groups	1580.153	725	2.180		
Total	1662.122	729			

A one-way ANOVA was conducted for continuous data to assess whether the duration of employment differed significantly across the five groups. The analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in the mean duration of stay across the different age groups, **F= 9.391, p < .001**. This meant that duration of employment was associated with the working hours of MWW per day. MWW who have been working for longer duration worked longer hours per day compared to those who have worked for short duration. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as there is a highly significant association between the variables and accepted alternative hypothesis.

To further determine which specific groups were associated, a post hoc test using Tukey HSD was undertaken.

The Tukey HSD post-hoc analysis revealed a clear and statistically significant trend showing that as working hours increased, the mean duration of employment also increased. For example, employees in working hour group 5 (>=55 age) had a significantly longer mean employment duration than those in group 1 (15-24 age), with a mean difference of 4.8 years. All other pairwise comparisons between groups also showed significant differences, indicating that higher working hours were associated with longer employment periods. This showed a positive relationship between working hours and duration of employment.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Duration of Stay: Tukey HSD

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-1.200	0.476	0.010	-2.15	-0.25
1	3	-2.400	0.473	<.001	-3.35	-1.45
1	4	-3.500	0.488	<.001	-4.46	-2.54
1	5	-4.800	0.873	<.001	-6.52	-3.08
2	1	1.200	0.476	0.010	0.25	2.15
2	3	-1.200	0.122	0.000	-1.65	-0.75
2	4	-2.300	0.171	0.000	-2.90	-1.70
2	5	-3.600	0.744	0.005	-6.05	-1.15
3	1	2.400	0.473	<.001	1.45	3.35
3	2	1.200	0.122	0.000	0.75	1.65
3	4	-1.100	0.162	0.003	-1.72	-0.48
3	5	-2.400	0.742	0.001	-4.45	-0.35
4	1	3.500	0.488	<.001	2.54	4.46
4	2	2.300	0.171	0.000	1.70	2.90
4	3	1.100	0.162	0.003	0.48	1.72
4	5	-1.300	0.752	0.005	-2.68	-0.24
5	1	4.800	0.873	<.001	3.08	6.52
5	2	3.600	0.744	0.005	1.15	6.05
5	3	2.400	0.742	0.001	0.35	4.45
5	4	1.300	0.752	0.005	0.24	2.68

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.10 Correlation Analysis

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to compute the degree of correlations between selected variables. The results have been discussed below.

3.10.1 Age and Income

The Pearson's correlation coefficient between age and income among migrant women workers was 0.42, which showed a moderate positive relationship between the two variables. This meant that as the age of the workers increased, their income also increased. This increase could be linked to more years of work experience, better understanding of their job and longer work duration at the current employment. The result highlighted that older migrant women workers earned more compared to younger workers in similar jobs. However, the strength of this relationship was moderate, suggesting that while age was associated with income, other factors like job type, education level, employer behaviour and company rules also influenced income levels.

3.10.2 Income and Working Hours

The Pearson's correlation coefficient between income and working hours among migrant women workers was 0.717, indicating a strong positive relationship between the two variables. This meant that as the number of hours worked increased, the income earned also increased. Workers who put in more hours received higher earnings, showing a clear link between time spent working and financial gain.

3.10.3 Nature of Employment and Income

The Pearson's correlation coefficient between nature of work and income among migrant women workers in Goa was 0.40, indicating a positive relationship between the type of work and the income earned. This meant that workers in different types of jobs received different income levels, with those in semi-skilled work earning more than those in low-skilled or unskilled jobs. The result showed that the nature of the job played a role in determining income, highlighting that skill level and job responsibilities were linked to earnings.

3.10.4 Age and Duration of Employment

The Pearson's correlation coefficient between age and duration of employment among migrant women workers was 0.54, indicating a positive relationship between the two variables. This meant that as age increased, the duration of employment also increased.

Older workers generally had longer periods of continuous employment due to accumulated work experience and job stability.

3.11 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter presented a comprehensive profile of Migrant Women Workers (MWW) focusing on their demographic attributes, economic situations, migration patterns and living and housing conditions. The chapter provided an in-depth information about their demographic characteristics and discussed the occupational details of MWW. Majority of MWW were engaged in casual or temporary type of jobs such as housemaids, helpers, vendors, factory workers, labourers, garbage collectors, tailors and saleswomen. They worked a standard 6-8 hours. Most of them commuted to work on foot while some others commuted by bus. A few women have worked in other jobs prior to joining their current jobs.

The chapter also brough to light the with migration-related characteristics such as the places of origin, reasons for migration, duration of stay and job search methods. It also studied the livelihood details such as types of payments received, income levels, expenditures, savings, modes of commute and housing conditions. The major reason for migration was marriage followed by lack of jobs in native place. Majority of them have migrated from neighbouring states of Karnataka and Maharashtra along with migrants from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and other north Indian states and a few from South India as well. They found jobs through their friends and relatives who have been working in Goa.

The applicability of classic migration theories, such as Lee's Theory of Migration and Ravenstein's Laws of Migration to the findings of the study were tested. It was observed that the MWW have migrated due to push factors like lack of opportunities at place of origin and better wages and employment options as pull factors at the place of destination. They have migrated from rural areas to urban areas in search of better jobs and better wages.

To determine interrelationships among variables, a series of crosstabulations, hypotheses testing and correlation analysis were presented in the chapter.

To summarise, this chapter provided a detailed picture of migrant women workers by analysing different aspects of their lives.

CHAPTER 4
STATUS OF MIGRANT WOMEN WORKERS IN THE FAMILY AND THE SOCIETY AND THEIR ACCESS TO RESOURCES

4.1 Introduction

The status of migrant women workers within the family and society is shaped by intersecting hierarchies of gender, class, migration and informal employment, which collectively influence their access to resources and decision-making power. Women have been taking up employment and contributing to their families but that does not guarantee them an enhanced social status within the family (Neetha, 2012; Sundari, 2005; Kabeer, 1999). Migrant women take care of the children and elders within the family and take up all the household responsibilities of domestic work suggesting that their responsibilities multiply both outside and at home. (Chant & McIlwaine, 2016; Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). Apart from performing domestic work and taking care of the household, they have limited access to resources such as land, housing, credit, banking, social security and welfare schemes which further aggravate their situations. (Srivastava, 2011; Desai & Banerji, 2008; Rogaly & Rafique, 2003; Agarwal, 1997). Migrant women face multiple problems at the place of destination due to weak social networks, lack of documentation and their employment in informal jobs which make them vulnerable to social exclusion and exploitation (ILO, 2018; Bhagat, 2016).

The chapter has focused on the impact of working on the family, autonomy and social perception on the lives of migrant women workers. It aimed to provide some insight into the challenges and opportunities migrant women faced in the family, work and society.

4.2 Family Details and Household Responsibilities

The family structure and household responsibilities of migrant women workers have been analysed. Many of these women were the primary breadwinners for their families, balancing work outside the home with domestic duties. It has determined who in the family shared the responsibility for household chores and caregiving and how these duties were distributed among family members. Additionally, it has examined how family structure impacted their ability to manage both work and home responsibilities.

4.2.1 Family Size and Structure

In Ponda, a majority of migrant women workers came from medium-sized families. Specifically, 61.43% of MWW had 4–5 family members, indicating a strong prevalence of medium family structures. Another 18.29% lived in families of 6–7 members, suggesting that extended family system still formed a considerable segment of the population although it was very rare. On the other hand, 15.14% of MWW had 2–3 family members, which indicated that there were young families having one or two children and nucleated in nature. Only 5.14% had more than 8 family members, making large joint family setups relatively rare among migrant women workers in this taluka. A similar pattern was observed in Salcete, where an even higher percentage (67.11%) of migrant women workers had family sizes of 4–5 members indicating medium or nuclear family system. The proportion of MWW living in 2–3 member households was 15.26%, very close to that of Ponda, suggesting consistent patterns in smaller family sizes across regions. However, Salcete showed a slightly lower percentage of large families, with only 3.42% having more than 8 family members and 14.21% having 6–7 members.

Table 4.1 Family Size and Structure of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Family Size and Structure	Ponda		Salcete		Total of Both Talukas	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
2-3	53	15.14	58	15.26	111	15.21
4-5	215	61.43	255	67.11	470	64.38
6-7	64	18.29	54	14.21	118	16.16
>8	18	5.14	13	3.42	31	4.25
Total	350	100.00	380	100.00	730	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Together in both talukas, 64.38% of MWW had a family size of 4–5-members per family. There was also a group of 15.21% MWW having smaller families (2–3 members) pointing to the portion of migrants who were recently married. Meanwhile, 16.16% of the MWW had 6–7-members and only 4.25% had more than 8 family members, suggesting that large joint families were not common among migrant workers in Goa. This implied that migrant workers came to Goa with immediate families, leaving other family members behind as they were trying to adapt to the new culture and society and searching for jobs.

4.2.2 Children in the Household

Among the migrant women workers in Ponda having children, (n = 316), 42.72% of MWW had an average of two children indicating at nuclear family system among them as they came here with their spouses as associational migrants in search of better job opportunities and better livelihood. Additionally, 29.43% of women had three children, indicating that moderately larger families still represented a considerable portion of the population. Furthermore, 22.15% of the MWW had only one child. Large families were rare, with just 0.63% of women having five or more children.

In Salcete (n = 368), the majority (47.28%) of migrant women workers had two children, while 26.36% had three children, again showing that slightly larger families remained common. A smaller section of women in Salcete had one child (16.30%). The share of women with five or more children was quite less (1.09%), highlighting the reduced prevalence of large families among migrant population in this taluka as well.

Table 4.2 Children in the Household of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Children in the Household	Ponda		Salcete		Total of Both Talukas	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0	10	3.07	6	1.60	16	2.29
1	70	21.47	60	16.04	130	18.57
2	135	41.41	174	46.52	309	44.14
3	93	28.53	97	25.94	190	27.14
4	16	4.91	33	8.82	49	7.00
>=5	2	0.61	4	1.07	6	0.86
Total	326	100.00	374	100.00	700	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Across both talukas (n = 684), the highest proportion (45.18%) had two children, indicating at smaller family system. This was followed by 27.78% who had three children, suggesting that a significant segment still had slightly larger family sizes. Notably, 19.01% of MWW had only one child and very large families (five or more children) accounted for just 0.88%.

4.2.3 Elderly Members in the Household

In Ponda taluka, out of the total population, 30% of the migrant women households had elderly members with an average of two elderly members per family. In Salcete taluka, out of the total population of MWW, only 15.26% households had elderly members in their family which was far less than Ponda. The average elderly members in Salcete were two. Overall, 22.32% of MWW households had elderly members in their households indicating that these were nuclear families and therefore had very few elderly members.

4.2.4 Primary Caregiver or Care Taker at home

In Ponda, 62.86% of the households of migrant women, someone took care of their children or elderly in their absence. The most common caregivers were daughters (37.27%) followed by spouses (32.73%) and in-laws (16.82%). This suggested that while a majority did have some form of caregiving support, more than one-third (37.14%) of MWW did not have anyone. This showed that there were children and elderly family members who were left alone or not properly looked after. It also indicated at the pressure on MWW who had to juggle between work and house responsibilities in terms of taking care of children and elderly along with the household chores. In Salcete, a higher proportion of women (73.16%) had someone to care for dependents in their absence, which was higher than in Ponda. The major caregivers were daughters (48.92%) but the involvement of spouse and in-laws was very less compared to Ponda. Only 19.42% of spouses helped with caring for the dependents while in-laws help was even lower (11.15%).

Table 4.3 Primary Caregiver in Absence of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Primary Caregiver in Absence of MWW	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Spouse	72	32.73	54	19.42	126	25.30
In laws	37	16.82	31	11.15	68	13.65
Daughter	82	37.27	136	48.92	218	43.78
Son	23	10.45	22	7.91	45	9.04
Mom	6	2.73	35	12.59	41	8.23
Total	220	100.00	278	100.00	498	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Across both talukas, 68.22% of migrant women workers had someone who took care of children or elderly family members during their absence. The combined effect was that the majority of caregiving responsibility was handled by daughters (43.78%), followed by spouses (25.30%). This showed a pattern where caregiving was mostly done by young girls and women.

4.2.5 Assistance with Household Tasks

In Ponda, 50.3% of migrant women workers said someone did household chores in their absence, while 49.7% said no one did. This showed a nearly equal divide between those who got help at home and those who didn't. For half of the women, support came from family members like husbands, children or in-laws. This support reduced stress and helped them balance work and home better. However, the other half did not receive such help leading to extra burden when they returned home. In Salcete, 49.2% of the women said someone did the chores when they were away, but for others, no one did. Even though they worked outside to earn money, their household duties were not shared.

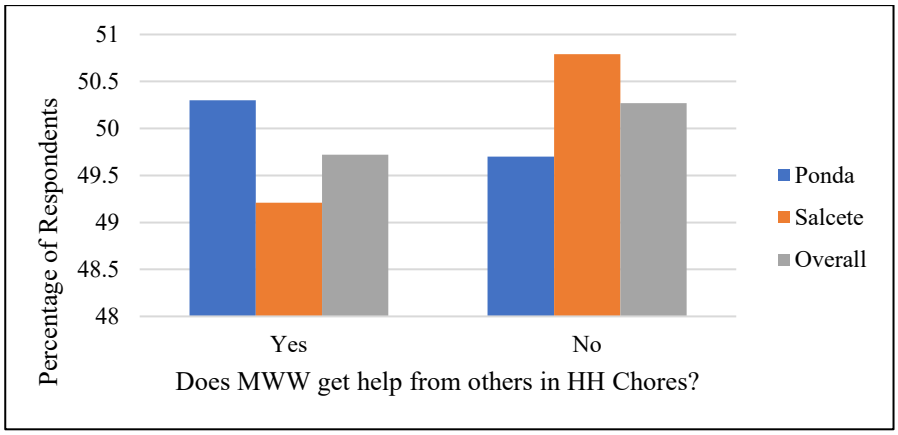


Figure 4.1 Assistance with Household Tasks of MWW in Ponda & Salcete Talukas of Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Looking at both talukas together, 49.7% of migrant women workers got help with chores in their absence, while rest did not get such assistance. Nearly half of the women carried the full burden of housework. The rest had some support, which helped to ease their workload.

In Ponda, majority of migrant women workers (51.14%) had their daughters to shoulder household chores in their absence showing reliance on young girls for managing domestic tasks. Mother-in-laws were the next most common helpers (15.91%), followed by mothers (13.64%) and spouses (13.07%). Although some husbands participated, their involvement remained low in domestic work. The participation of other family members, such as sons (2.27%), daughter-in-law (2.84%) and sisters-in-law (1.14%) was even lower. These

findings showed that household chores were mostly done by women, with girls and women from different generations taking on most of the work. In Salcete, the situation was even more prominent with 71.7% of migrant women workers having their daughters handle the household chores in their absence suggesting that daughters were taking burdens at a young age, at the cost of their education or personal development. Other family members who helped included mothers (5.3%), mothers-in-law (3.7%) and sisters-in-law (6.4%), though their involvement was relatively small. Only 1.1% of women stated that their spouses did the household chores suggesting male involvement in domestic tasks was almost negligible.

Table 4. 4 Household Chores Taken over by Family Members of MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Household Chores Taken over by Family Members	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Spouse	23	13.07	2	1.1	25	6.89
Daughter	90	51.14	134	71.7	224	61.71
Son	4	2.27	11	5.9	15	4.13
Mother	24	13.64	10	5.3	34	9.37
Mother-in-Law	28	15.91	7	3.7	35	9.64
Daughter-in-Law	5	2.84	11	5.9	16	4.41
Sister-in-Law	2	1.14	12	6.4	14	3.86
Total	176	100	187	100.0	363	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In both regions together, the study showed that 61.71% of migrant women workers had their daughters doing household chores in their absence. This consistent pattern highlighted a heavy reliance on young girls to manage the home when adult women were away for work. The next most involved family members were mothers-in-law (9.64%), mothers (9.37%) and spouses (6.89%). While older women provided some support, husbands were rarely involved which pointed to the fact that the spouses were also working at the same time.

4.2.6 Negative Impact of Employment of MWW on Children

In Ponda, 44.84% of migrant women workers with children believed that their job had a negative impact on their children, while 55.16% believed it did not. A large number of

MWW felt that their employment did not harm their children. The concern from others (nearly 45%) were related to issues such as lack of time, emotional distance and reduced supervision at home due to their work commitments. In Salcete, 49.36% of women believed their employment negatively affected their children, which was slightly higher than in Ponda. Almost half of the working mothers with young children in Salcete experienced guilt or worry about the impact of their absence. On the other hand, 50.64% felt no negative impact on their children.

In both regions, almost half (47.22%) of migrant women workers with children felt that their job negatively impacted their children, while majority (52.78%) felt it did not. A majority believed their work had no negative impact due to financial benefits.

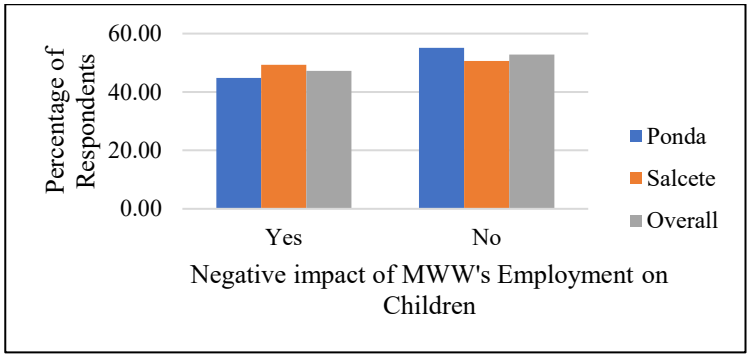


Figure 4.2 Impact of MWW's Employment on Children in Ponda & Salcete Talukas
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

4.2.7 Household Elders' Behaviour Toward Employed Female Migrants

In Ponda, 96.84% of elders were happy with the woman's job, while only 3.16% were not showing strong support from the older generation in most households recognizing the economic benefits that women's employment brought to the family, especially in homes where the extra income helped meet basic needs or supported children's education. However, the small percentage of elders who were not happy had concerns related to household responsibilities being neglected or traditional gender-based responsibilities being disrupted. In Salcete, 100% of elders were happy with the woman's employment. Elders in these families recognized the income contributed to household stability, children's future and even their own care and comfort.

Combining both talukas, 98.19% of elders were happy with the woman's job, while only 1.81% were not. This overwhelming support showed a shift in attitudes among the older generation, suggesting that they valued the contribution of women to the household income and stability.

Table 4.5 Household Elders' Behaviour Toward MWW in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Elders Happy with job	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Yes	92	96.84	71	100.00	163	98.19
No	3	3.16	0	0.00	3	1.81
Total	95	100.00	71	100.00	166	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

4.2.8 Remittances Sent by Migrant Women Workers to Families

In Ponda, 20.6% of migrant women workers sent remittances, while 79.4% did not. This meant that some women were financially supporting other family members outside their immediate household at their native places. Although the number was lower, these women had left behind dependents such as parents, in laws and other relatives in their native villages and continued to contribute towards their wellbeing. Those who did not send remittances suggested that they had limited surplus income for taking care of immediate family in their current place of residence. In Salcete, only 3.7% of women sent remittances and overwhelming 96.3% did not. This very low rate indicated that most migrant women in Goa were either living with their full families or were unable to send money back due to limited earnings or high living costs.

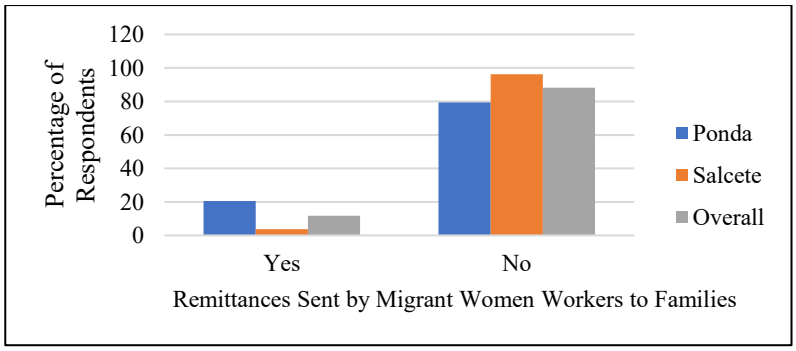


Figure 4.3 Remittances Sent by MWW of Ponda and Salcete Talukas to Families

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

When looking at both talukas together, only 11.8% of migrant women workers sent remittances showing that most women used their earnings to support the families they lived with, rather than sending money to relatives at their villages. The study highlighted that remittances were not a widespread practice among the migrant women worker, pointing to the financial constraints they lived under and also the emergence of nuclear families.

4.3 Autonomy in the Family

This section analysed the level of autonomy migrant women workers had within their families. Many of these women faced traditional expectations that limited their freedom to make choices independently. The analysis also considered whether their employment empowered them to have more say in family matters or if it created conflicts within the family.

4.3.1 Migrant women's Decision-Making Role in Household Finances

In Ponda, nearly half of the migrant women workers (49.4%) considered their role in household decision-making to be very important and another 48.9% felt they were somewhat important. Only 1.7% believed they had no importance in such matters. This suggested that most women in Ponda felt recognized in family decisions, though many still perceived their influence as partial. In Salcete, a substantial majority (72.1%) of women played a very important role in household decisions. Only 2.1% felt neglected even at home. This indicated a more empowered position for migrant women workers linked to their employment status and contribution in household expenses.

Table 4.6 Decision Making Role of MWW in Household Affairs in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Decision Making in Household	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No importance	6	1.7	8	2.1	14	1.9
Somewhat important	171	48.9	98	25.8	269	36.8
Very important	173	49.4	274	72.1	447	61.2
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Looking at both talukas together, 61.2% of migrant women workers saw their decision-making role as very important, while 36.8% felt it was somewhat important and only 1.9% believed they had no role. This indicated that a majority of working women perceived themselves as having a meaningful say in household matters suggesting that employment

enhanced women's status and voice in the home and in decision-making, which was a positive sign of shifting gender norms in migrant households.

4.3.2 Women's Autonomy in Family Decisions

The study showed that migrant women workers were becoming more involved in making decisions in their families. Many women, especially in Salcete, felt they played a very important role in household decisions. Overall, more than 60% of women said they were strongly involved in decision-making, which suggested that their role in the family was being recognized and respected, especially because they were earning and contributing financially. Most elders in the family (98%) were also happy with the woman's job, showing strong support from older family members.

4.4 Status in the Society

The social status of migrant women workers within their communities was analysed. These women were often respected for their hard work and sometimes judged due to traditional out dated gender bias or their status as migrants. It dealt also with how local communities treated these women, whether with respect, suspicion or indifference and how this affected their sense of self-worth and social integration.

4.4.1 Treatment by Locals

In Ponda, the majority of migrant women workers felt positive about how they were treated by locals. More than half (54.3%) experienced good treatment and 33.1% experienced very good treatment from the locals. This meant a vast majority (87%) of women had a positive experience. Only a small number (0.6% each) experienced bad or very bad treatment, while 11.4% felt the treatment was just satisfactory. In Salcete, responses were also largely positive as 60.8% of women experienced good treatment by locals and 17.1% experienced very good treatment. A little less than one-third (21.6%) of women migrants experienced satisfactory treatment and just 0.5% experienced bad treatment.

In both regions, more than half (57.7%) of MWW experienced good treatment by locals and 24.8% experienced very good treatment. Only 0.5% experienced bad treatment and 0.3% said it was very bad, while 16.7% felt the treatment was satisfactory. These results showed that most migrant women workers felt accepted in their local communities.

Table 4.7 Treatment of MWW by Local People in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Treatment by Locals	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Very bad	2	0.6	0	0.0	2	0.3
Bad	2	0.6	2	.5	4	0.5
Satisfactory	40	11.4	82	21.6	122	16.7
Good	190	54.3	231	60.8	421	57.7
Very good	116	33.1	65	17.1	181	24.8
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.0

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

4.4.2 Treatment in the Locality

In Ponda, the treatment of migrant women workers in their localities was mostly positive. 44.57% of women said they were treated with love and care and 34.29% said they were treated with dignity and respect. Together, it came to nearly 79% who felt valued in their communities. Meanwhile, 18.86% felt there was no interference, denoting they were left alone without much engagement. Only 2.29% of women reported no respect and neglect, which was a small minority. These responses suggested that migrant women in Ponda mostly felt welcomed and respected by their neighbours. A strong sense of care and dignity from the local population contributed to their sense of belonging and emotional well-being, helping them better manage their responsibilities both at work and at home. In Salcete, the largest group (46.3%) stated being treated with love and care, followed by 27.6% who said they were treated with dignity and respect. Additionally, 25.5% stated that there was no interference suggesting more neutral social interactions. Only 0.5% of women said that there was no respect and were neglected, showing that direct mistreatment is extremely rare. The higher rate of “no interference” meant that while people are not unkind, they may also not engage much with the women, leading to limited social connection. Still, the strong levels of love and care show that the environment remains largely positive, with many women feeling emotionally supported in their communities.

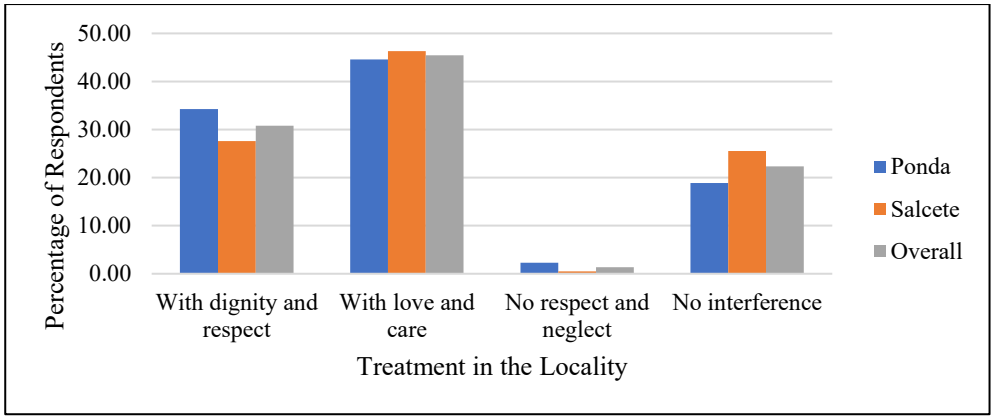


Figure 4.4 Treatment of MWW in the Locality in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Across both regions, most migrant women experienced positive treatment in their localities. 45.48% said they were treated with love and care and 30.82% felt they were treated with dignity and respect. Only 1.37% reported neglect or lack of respect, which was very low. Meanwhile, 22.33% experienced no interference, indicating at a more neutral form of coexistence.

4.4.3 Treatment by Colleagues

In Ponda, two-third (66.9%) of the migrant women workers felt they were treated as equals by their colleagues positively reflecting workplace equality and mutual respect. A very small percentage (1.1%) felt treated as inferior and just 0.3% felt treated as suspect, showing that negative treatment was rare. Almost one-third (31.7%) of women reported having no colleagues suggesting that a significant portion worked in isolated jobs especially housemaids and tailors with little social interaction. In Salcete, 59.5% of women also felt they were treated as equals by their colleagues, although this was a slightly lower percentage compared to Ponda. However, there were no women in Salcete who reported being treated as inferior or as suspect, which was a positive sign of respect and acceptance in the workplace. Similarly, 40.5% of women in Salcete reported having no colleagues, which was a higher percentage than in Ponda, indicating a more isolated or independent work environment for many.

Combining both regions, 63.01% of migrant women workers reported being treated as equals by their colleagues, which showed that workplace equality was a common experience across both Ponda and Salcete talukas. Only 0.54% felt treated as inferior and 0.13% felt treated as suspect, both of which were very low percentages. More than one-third (36.3%) of women had no colleagues, indicating that they have worked in isolated jobs.

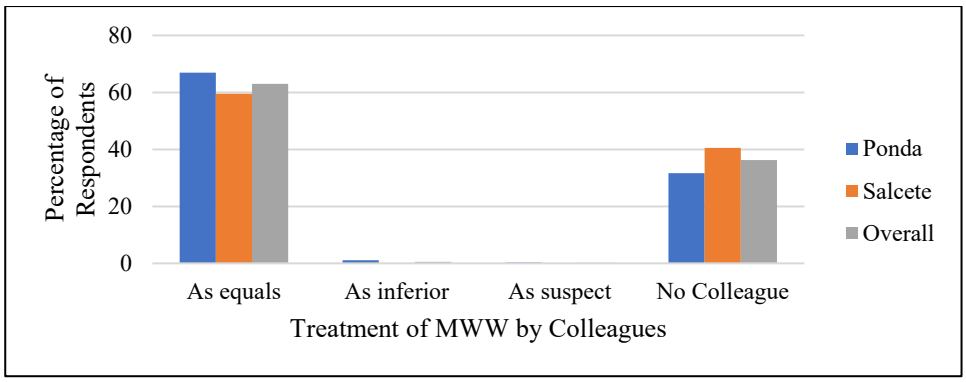


Figure 4.5 Treatment of MWW by Colleagues in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

4.4.4 Treatment by Employer

In Ponda, nearly half of women (49.7%) revealed being treated with dignity and respect by their employers, indicating a positive and professional relationship. Additionally, 24% said their employers were very professional and 20.9% experienced their treatment with love and care. This showed that many women felt valued in the workplace. There were different types of employer interactions, ranging from strictly professional to more personal care. Only 0.6% felt treated with suspicion as a stealer or cheat, a very small percentage indicating that mistreatment was rare. In Salcete, 37.1% of women stated being treated very professionally indicating that many employers maintained a formal, work-focused relationship. Nearly one-third (32.9%) stated being treated with love and care, a more personal and supportive interaction. Others (27.6%) said they were treated with dignity and respect, which is slightly lower compared to Ponda. A very small percentage (0.8%) felt treated with suspicion as a stealer or cheat, suggesting that negative treatment is rare.

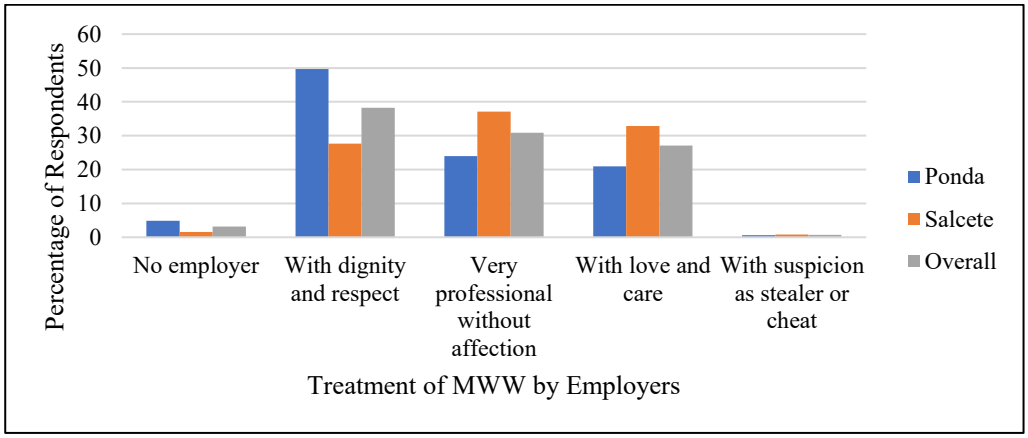


Figure 4.6 Treatment of MWW by Employer in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Across both talukas, 38.22% of women stated being treated with dignity and respect, which was a positive reflection of employers' behaviour in Goa. About thirty (30.82%) said they were treated very professionally and 27.12% experienced treatment with love and care, indicating that employers often combined professionalism with a caring attitude. Only 0.68% of women revealed being treated with suspicion as a stealer or cheat, which was rare but such evil existed in the society. Overall, most migrant women workers stated that their employers treated them well, with a strong majority experiencing professional and respectful behaviour. These findings suggested that employers were largely supportive and valued their employees, contributing to a positive work environment for migrant women.

4.4.5 Teasing by Locals

In Ponda, almost all (99.4%) of migrant women did not experience any teasing by the locals showing a very low rate of harassment. Only 0.6% of women said they had been teased. This suggested that majority of women in Ponda felt safe and free from unwanted attention or harassment from the local population. In Salcete, a slightly higher percentage of 5% of women experienced teasing by locals, while 95% did not. In both regions, 97.12% of migrant women workers did not experience any teasing by the locals. This showed that, overall, the vast majority of women felt safe and respected in their communities.

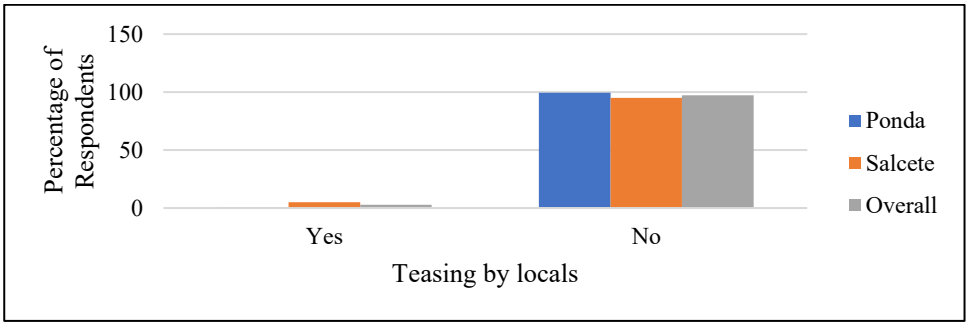


Figure 4.7 Teasing of MWW by Locals in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

4.4.6 Incentive by Employer

In Ponda, the majority of women (58.9%) did not receive any incentives from their employers. Only a small section (17.7%) of MWW received gifts during festivals. Another smaller portion of women received bonuses (11.7%) and 5.4% that their pay was not deducted for absence from work. Very few women migrants received transport allowance (2.3%), medicines and essentials (2.9%) or advance salary and loans (1.1). In Salcete, a large majority (87.4%) of MWW did not receive any incentives from their employers. However, a smaller number received some occasional benefits; 10% received gifts during festivals and

0.3% received bonuses. Other benefits such as transport allowances or medicines and essentials, were extremely rare (1.6% and 0%, respectively).

Table 4.8 Incentives to MWW by Employers in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa

Incentives by Employer	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
None	206	58.9	332	87.4	538	73.70
Gifts during festivals	62	17.7	38	10.0	100	13.70
Transport allowance	8	2.3	6	1.6	14	1.92
No deduction of pay	19	5.4	0	0.0	19	2.60
Advance salary & loans	4	1.1	3	.8	7	0.96
Medicines and other essentials	10	2.9	0	0.0	10	1.37
Bonuses	41	11.7	1	.3	42	5.75
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.00

Source: Compiled from Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In both talukas, more than two-thirds (73.7%) of migrant women workers did not receive any incentives from their employers. Only a few MWW received benefits; 13.7% received gifts during festivals, 5.75% got bonuses and 2.6% benefited from no pay deductions.

4.5 Access to Insurance and Government Social Security Documents

In Ponda, only 14.3% of MWW had life insurance, while a significant 85.7% did not possess any coverage. This has indicated a low level of financial security among the population.

The situation was even more pronounced in Salcete, where just 4.2% of MWW had their life insured. An overwhelming 95.8% did not have any coverage due to low income and lack of awareness about the benefits of such policies.

Overall, only 9.0% of MWW across both regions had life insurance, while an astounding 91% did not. This has implied a widespread absence of life insurance coverage, suggesting that many families faced significant financial risks without adequate protection in place.

4.5.1 Access to Adhar Card, Ration Card, BPL Card, Govt. Schemes, etc.

In Ponda, an overwhelming 97.1% of migrant women workers did not receive any form of government assistance, while only 2.9% had access to the govt. schemes provided for women. In Salcete, 95% of this group of women did not receive any government aid and a

very small portion (5%) of MWW has access to social welfare schemes. In both talukas, a huge majority (96%) of migrant women workers did not have access to government schemes, while a very small group of MWW (4%) had access to welfare schemes.

Table 4.9 Access to Essential Schemes and Documents

Access to Essential Schemes and Documents			Insurance	Govt. Social Security Documents	BPL Card	Govt. Schemes
Ponda	Yes	Number	50	109	80	10
		Percent	14.3	31.1	22.9	2.9
	No	Number	300	241	270	340
		Percent	85.7	68.9	77.1	97.1
Salcete	Yes	Number	16	137	28	19
		Percent	4.2	36.1	7.4	5
	No	Number	364	243	352	361
		Percent	95.8	63.9	92.6	95
Overall	Yes	Number	66	246	108	29
		Percent	10	33.7	14.8	4
	No	Number	664	484	622	701
		Percent	91	66.3	85.2	96

Source: Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Access to essential social security documents, such as ration cards was also limited. In Ponda, only 31.1% of migrant women workers possessed a ration card, while a notable 68.9% lacked access. The situation in Salcete was marginally better with 36.1% women holding a ration card while a significant majority (63.9%) did not possess one. In both regions, only 33.7% of migrant households possessed this ration card, while 66.3% did not have access.

Access to Below Poverty Line (BPL) card was also low. In Ponda, only 22.9% of migrant women had a BPL card, while a huge majority (77.1%) did not possess it. In Salcete, only 7.4% of MWW had this card and a vast majority (92.6%) of MWW did not have access to

it. In both regions, only 14.8% of households possessed a BPL card, while 85.2% did not possess this card.

Furthermore, the lack of identification documents such as Aadhaar and voter ID cards has aggravated these issues. Without these, migrant women workers were not only unable to access essential government schemes, but were also unable to exercise democratic rights.

4.6 Access to Household Resources

This section examined the availability of basic household assets and amenities among migrant women workers (MWW) in the study areas. The analysis focused on ownership of vehicles, access to mobile phones and essential utilities such as water and electricity.

4.6.1 Vehicles

In Ponda, a little less than two-thirds (63.1%) of households of migrant women workers did not possess a two-wheeler. The migrant women and their family members relied on alternative modes of transportation such as walking or public transport. Only 36.9% of the households owned a two-wheeler. A very less portion (1.4%) of the MWW's households owned a four-wheeler. In Salcete, a large majority (80.0%) of MWW households had access to a vehicle and only 20.0% did not have any access. In terms of four-wheeler, 16.1% of MWW's households owned a four-wheeler which was comparatively higher than in Ponda. In both talukas, more than half (59.32%) of MWW households across both regions owned a two-wheeler, while 40.68% did not. Only 9.04% of households owned a four-wheeler.

4.6.2 Mobile phones

The study revealed full mobile phone ownership among MWW in both Ponda and Salcete, indicating 100% access to mobiles across the two regions. This has highlighted a high level of digital connectivity among migrant women workers and their households. The average number of mobile phones per household was 3.

4.6.3 Water and Electricity

The study revealed that 62.28% of MWW's households in Ponda had access to tap water connection inside their houses while 37.1% had water connection outside the house which was a common connection for a group of households within the chawl or rented housing system. In Salcete more than half (54.5%) of MWW's households had tap connection inside the house, while 45.5% did not. In both talukas together, 58.2% of this group of women

across both regions had tap connections inside the houses, while a huge percentage of 41.7% of women used a common tap outside the house shared by other households.

The study showed that all the MWW in both the talukas had access to an electricity connection. Out of these some of the houses had a private metre while the others had a shared metre. The electricity bills were then divided among the tenant households and paid to the landlord.

4.6.4 Household Appliances

In Ponda, 44.9% of households of migrant women workers owned a refrigerator, while the majority (55.1%) did not. In Salcete, almost two-thirds (69.5%) of MWW's households owned a refrigerator which was higher than in Ponda. In both regions, majority (57.67%) of households had a refrigerator, while 42.33% did not. In Ponda, more than half of the MWW households (59.4%) owned a television, while 40.5% did not. In Salcete, a vast majority (80.5%) of households had a television. In both regions, 70.41% of households owned a television while 29.59% did not.

Table 4.10 Access to Resources (Household assets, Connections, Amenities)

Access to Resources			Vehicle	Mob. Phone	Tap Connection	Electricity	Refrigerator	Television
Ponda	Yes	N	129	350	343	350	157	208
		%	36.9	0	98	0	44.9	59.4
	No	N	221	100	7	100	193	142
		%	63.1	0	2	0	55.1	40.5
Salcete	Yes	N	304	380	207	380	264	306
		%	80	0	54.5	0	69.5	80.5
	No	N	76	100	173	100	116	74
		%	20	0	45.5	0	30.5	19.5
Overall	Yes	N	433	730	550	730	421	514
		%	59.32	0	75.34	0	57.67	70.41
	No	N	297	100	180	100	309	216
		%	40.68	0	24.66	0	42.33	29.59

Source: Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

4.7 Access to Healthcare Services and Transport Infrastructure

Access to public healthcare services and transport facilities play an important role in the lives of migrant women workers. The health of women migrant workers and their families is managed by the local public healthcare services. MWW and their families mostly commute by buses within the destination state. Efficient transport helped them to commute to workplaces, markets and access essential services. Affordable healthcare services helped them to maintain a good health and overall well-being.

Both Ponda and Salcete talukas have well developed public healthcare infrastructure; therefore, migrant women workers and their families do not face any problem in accessing such services. The major healthcare service in Ponda is the sub-district hospital located in the Ponda town, which provides advanced treatment facilities for all types of ailments. Ponda taluka also has an Ayurvedic hospital in Shiroda village, which has been accessed by those who opted for ayurvedic treatment. This hospital also has a number of facilities for majority of the ailments. In almost all the villages and towns of Ponda, there is at least one Primary Health Centres providing free medical services. There are also a number of private clinics and health centres which have been accessed by MWW.

In Salcete, there is a sub-district hospital situated in Margao which has served as the major healthcare centre for the entire taluka. It has provided treatment for majority of the MWW. The other public and private health centres in the taluka were also accessible to the migrant women workers. Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 show the healthcare infrastructure used by MWW.

The main bus stand located at Ponda town has served as a major transport provider for the MWW. There are also a number of bus stops in all the villages and towns, which have made public transport easily accessible to MWW. In Salcete taluka, the main bus stand is in Margao providing public transport to the MWW there. There are also a number of bus stops in all the villages and towns of the taluka making the commuting easy for MWW. The bus fares are also reasonable and affordable, which enable the migrant women workers to commute regularly and conveniently. Figure 4.10 and Figure 4.11 show the transport infrastructure used by MWW.

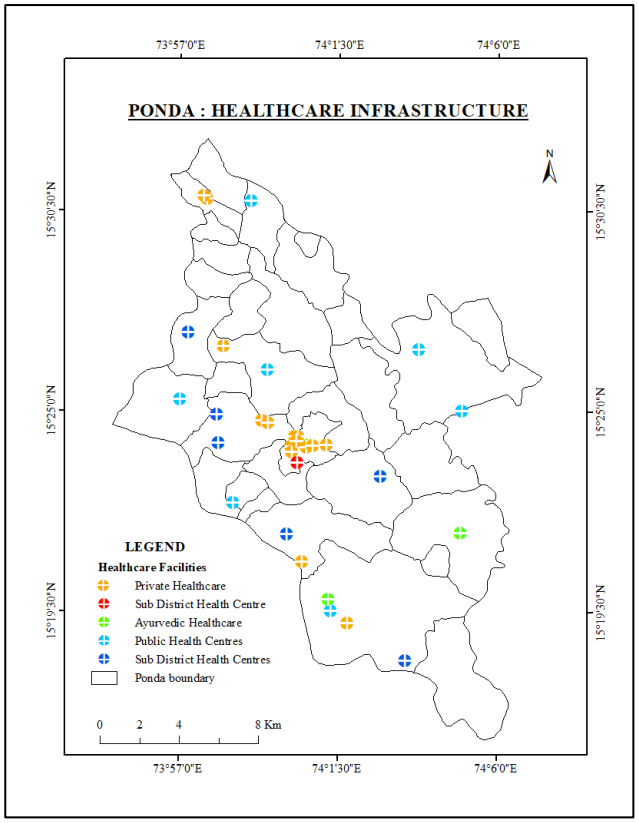


Figure 4.8 Healthcare Infrastructure in Ponda Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

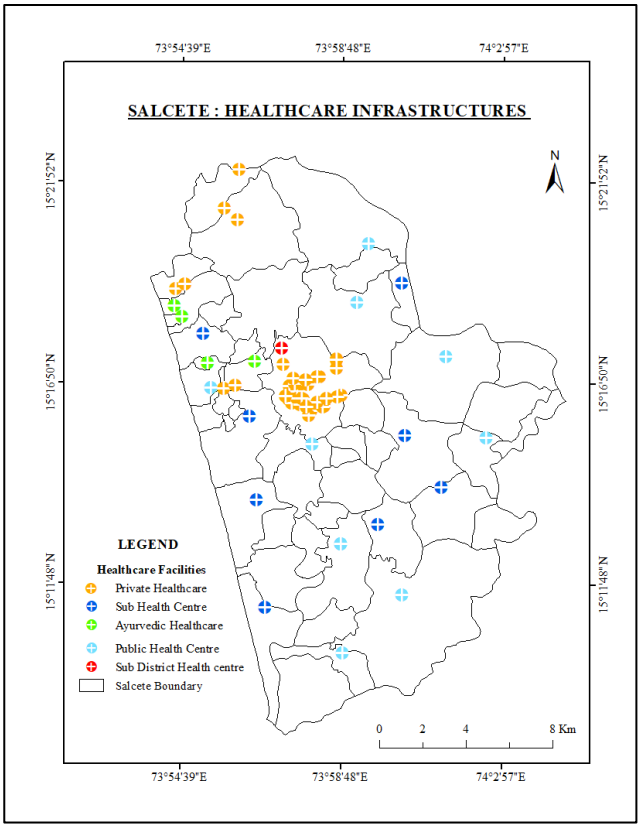


Figure 4.9 Healthcare Infrastructure in Salcete Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

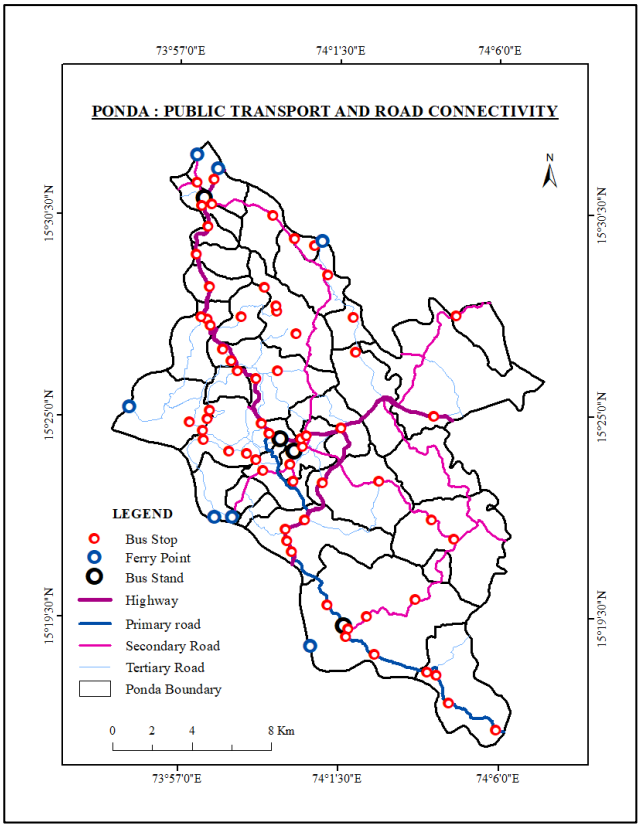


Figure 4.10 Transport Accessibility in Ponda Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

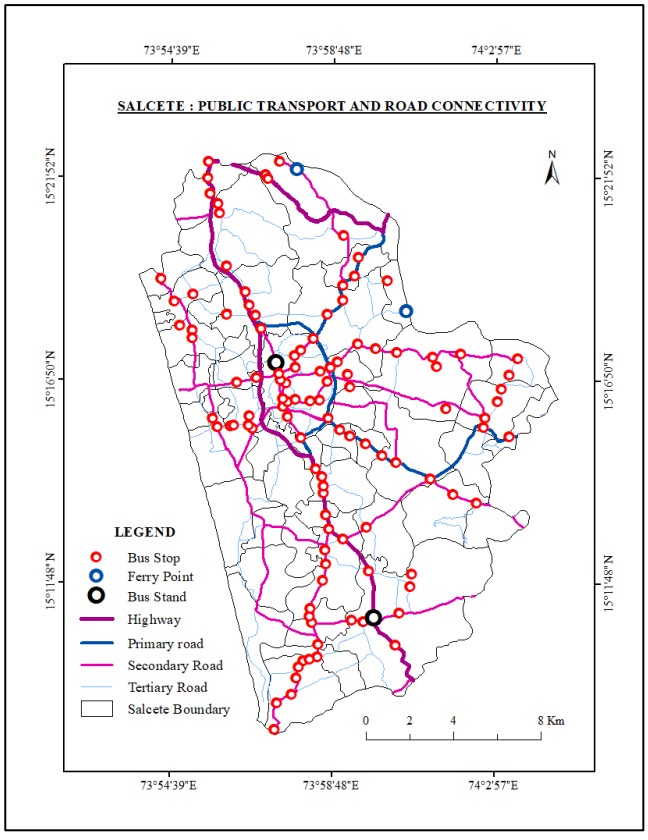


Figure 4.11 Transport Accessibility in Salcete Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

A buffer analysis has been undertaken to evaluate how easily healthcare facilities have been reachable across Ponda and Salcete talukas. The findings have shown that health centres are located in close proximity to all villages and towns. There is no settlement lying beyond a 3 km distance. In most cases, facilities have been situated even nearer, within about 2 km. This has indicated that healthcare infrastructure is easily accessible in the study area.

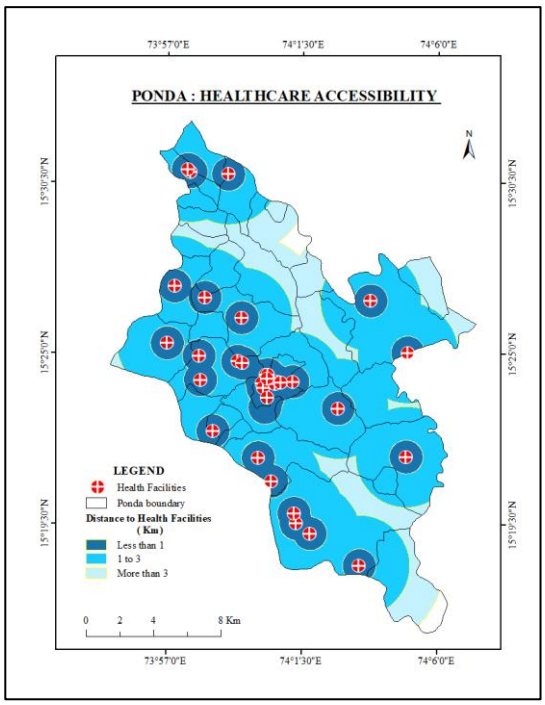


Figure 4.12 Healthcare Accessibility in Ponda Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

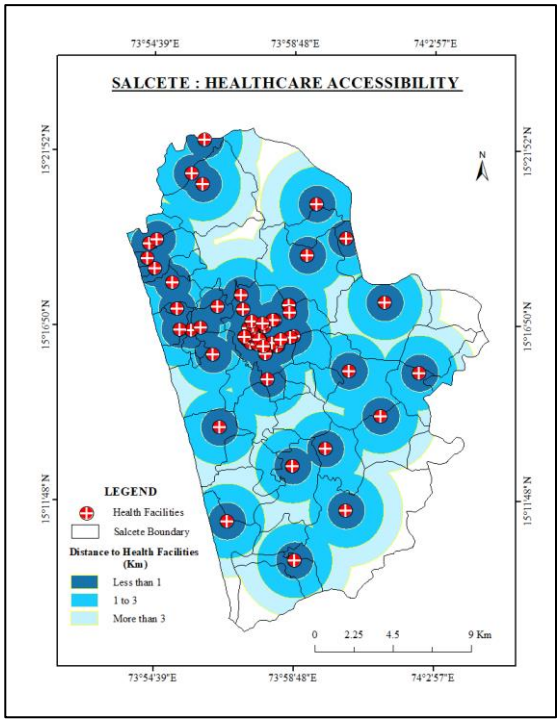


Figure 4.13 Healthcare Accessibility in Salcete Taluka
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

4.8 Major problems faced by MWW

In Ponda, the predominant concern among residents was financial problems, conveyed by 47.1% of the migrant women workers. This indicated a significant struggle with economic stability. Additionally, 30.3% of individuals expressed issues related to not owning a house, emphasizing housing insecurity as a critical challenge. Access to government social security documents was another concern for 4% of respondents, while 9.4% expressed problem related to job instability and income. Only a small percentage, 1.4%, mentioned improper living conditions and family issues were cited by just 0.9%. Notably, 6.9% stated that they faced no major problems indicating that they were content with their current jobs and living conditions.

In Salcete, 25.5% of respondents highlighted financial issues as their main problem though to a lesser extent than in Ponda. A similar percentage, 29.2%, indicated that not owning a house was a significant issue. Only 1.3% mentioned a lack of access to social security documents and 5% highlighted the instability of their jobs and income. Improper living conditions and family issues were reported by a minimal number of individuals. Moreover, a notable 35.8% stated that they did not face any major problems, which indicated a sense of stability compared to Ponda.

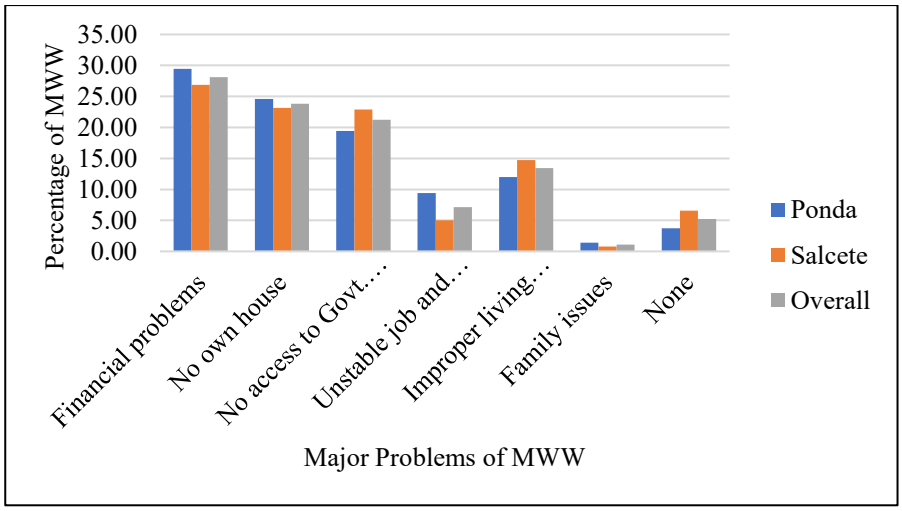


Figure 4.14 Major Problems faced by MWW
Source: Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

Overall, financial problems emerged as the most significant issue, affecting 35.89% of migrant women labour force across both regions. This was followed by the issue of not owning a house which was stated by 29.73% of this vulnerable group. Job instability affected 7.12% of the respondents, while living conditions and family issues were cited by very few.

A significant 21.92% of MWW indicated that they did not face major problems, reflecting sense of stability and security.

4.9 Expectation from Employer and State Government

In Ponda, 29.7% of women labourers highlighted hike in pay as their primary expectation from employers. Additionally, 15.4% of MWW desired better working conditions. However, a significant portion, (46%) indicated that they have no specific expectations from their employer, suggesting contentment or lack of friendly relation with employers. A very few women (1.7%) expected a permanent job, while other expectations included maintaining good behaviour and giving bonuses.

In Salcete, 67.1% of MWW emphasised on better working conditions, while 27.6% expected a hike in pay. Only a small fraction of women expressed interest in making their jobs permanent (5.3%) or receiving bonuses.

Across both regions, the data showed that 28.63% of MWW prioritized a hike in pay, while 42.33% emphasized the need for better working conditions. A significant 22.05% indicated that they had no specific expectations from their employers, indicating job satisfaction.

Table 4.11 MWW's Expectation from Employer

Expectation from Employer	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Hike in Pay	104	29.7	105	27.6	209	28.63
Better Working Conditions	54	15.4	255	67.1	309	42.33
Make Job Permanent	6	1.7	20	5.3	26	3.56
Maintain Good Behaviour	4	1.1	0	0.0	4	0.55
Give Bonuses	8	2.3	0	0.0	8	1.10
No Pay Deduction	9	2.6	0	0.0	9	1.23
Pay on Time	4	1.1	0	0.0	4	0.55
None	161	46	0	0.0	161	22.05
Total	350	100	380	100.0	730	100.00

Source: Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In Ponda, expectations of migrant women labourers from the state government were diverse but specifically emphasized the need for better job security and housing. A significant 29.7%

of women expressed a desire for proper housing to enhance their living conditions. Additionally, 16.9% expressed their desire for permanent jobs as there was a prevalence of these women in casual and temporary types of jobs which did not guarantee stability. A considerable portion of them (25.1%) expected access to welfare schemes. However, a smaller portion (16.3%) had no specific expectations from the government, suggesting scepticism about government support.

Table 4.12 MWW's Expectations from the State Government

Expectations from the State Govt.	Ponda		Salcete		Overall	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Provide permanent jobs	59	16.9	103	27.11	162	22.19
Provide good schemes	88	25.1	95	25.00	183	25.07
Ensure good working conditions	4	1.1	0	0.00	4	0.55
Assist in business start ups	6	1.7	8	2.11	14	1.92
Provide access to social security documents	10	2.9	5	1.32	15	2.05
Provide proper housing	104	29.7	17	4.47	121	16.58
Provide food & essentials at affordable rates	10	2.9	3	0.79	13	1.78
Scholarship for children's education	0	0	10	2.63	10	1.37
Provide toilet facilities	12	3.4	0	0.00	12	1.64
None	57	16.3	139	36.58	196	26.85
Total	350	100	380	100.00	730	100.00

Source: Primary Data collected by Author, 2022-24

In Salcete, 27.11% of the women expected the state government to provide them with permanent jobs while 25% of individuals desired good government schemes for their welfare and overall development. However, only a small fraction (4.47%), mentioned the need for proper housing. A notable 36.58% stated that they had no specific expectations from the state government, reflecting a significant level of scepticism regarding governmental assistance.

Overall, the data revealed that a combined 22.19% of MWW across both regions expected the state government to provide permanent jobs, while 25.07% prioritized access to good welfare schemes. Housing was also a major concern, with 16.58% indicating a need for

proper accommodation. Moreover, a considerable 26.85% expressed that they had no expectations from the government, suggesting a lack of faith or scepticism in governmental initiatives. The low percentages for other needs, such as social security access or educational scholarships, indicated that the primary focus was employment and housing stability.

4.10 Relationship among the Variables collected from Field (Crosstabulation of selected variables)

This section has provided crosstabulations of key variables to analyse patterns and relationships related to migrant women workers to identify trends, correlations and differences among groups. They also helped to understand the inter-connection between economic and socio-cultural factors that shaped the life of migrant women workers at the place of destination.

4.10.1 Occupation and Incentives by Employer

In terms of occupation-wise distribution of incentives, housemaids stood out as the group receiving the largest share accounting for 41.15% of the total incentives. They received in the form of festival gifts and bonuses. Factory workers came next, with 21.35% of the incentives, benefiting from a slightly more formal work environment. Helpers made up 17.71% of the total, mostly receiving gifts. On the other hand, tailors, vendors and labourers received much less, each under 6%. The lowest levels of support went to saleswomen, sweepers and housekeeping staff, each accounting for less than 2% of incentives. These can be attributed to self-employment or having heard-hearted employers. The differences showed that employers did not support all types of migrant women workers equally.

4.10.2 Duration of Employment and Decision-Making Role in the Family

The study showed a clear link between duration of employment and the decision-making role of migrant women workers (MWW) at home. Women with more than 8 years of work experience had the highest share of very important roles (18.90%) suggesting that longer employment strengthened household decisional influence. This trend across all groups suggested that as migrant women continued working and contributing financially, their authority within the family grew. Overall, the findings implied that stable, long-term employment not only improved economic security but also enhanced women's decision-making power at home.

Table 4.13 Crosstabulation of Duration of Employment & Decision-Making of MWW

Duration of Employment	Decision-Making Status at Home							
	Not Important		Somewhat Important		Very Important		Total	Percent
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
<2 years	8	1.1	91	12.47	65	8.9	164	22.47
2-4 years	1	0.14	81	11.1	89	12.19	171	23.42
4-6 years	5	0.68	30	4.11	87	11.92	122	16.71
6-8 years	0	0	17	2.33	68	9.32	85	11.64
>8 years	0	0	50	6.85	138	18.9	188	25.75
Total	14	1.92	269	36.85	447	61.23	730	100

Source: Prepared by Author using SPSS based on primary data

4.10.3 Age of MWW and Impact on Children

The study revealed that 47.23% of migrant women workers (MWW) perceived a negative impact of their employment on their children. This concern was most prominent among women aged 35–44, who formed the largest segment of the MWW population. The negative impacts pertained to children's health, education and emotional well-being. Women aged 25–34 also faced challenges, as many cared for young children needing constant attention, which was difficult to provide with long or irregular working hours. A few women in the age group of 45–54 also faced caregiving pressures due to responsibilities for older children and elderly family members, while the youngest group (15–24) reported fewer negative impacts, as they had less caregiving responsibilities.

4.10.4 Working Hours of MWW and negative impact on children

The study revealed a strong link between the number of hours worked by migrant women and the negative impact of their employment on their children. In the largest group of women (47.89%) who worked 6 to 8 hours per day, 25.29% stated that their jobs had negative impacts on children. Additionally, women working more than 8 hours, more than half of them (9.61%) stated that their job had negative impacts, suggesting that extended work hours placed great strain on their childcare. In contrast, those working 3 to 5 hours (34.9%) had few negative effects. It implied that shorter working hours has helped women manage both roles effectively. Few women (1.69%), who worked for 2 hours or less per day (1.52%)

reported no negative impact at home. Overall, the long working hours had the negative effects on their children.

4.10.5 Occupation and Behaviour of Employer

As per occupation, housemaids made up the largest group and indicated a relatively balanced mix of treatment, with 14.71% being treated with dignity and respect, 13.15% very professionally and 14.43% with love and care. Majority of factory workers revealed a positive experience, though a very small number (0.14%) felt suspicion. Helpers and vendors mostly indicated positive treatment, while occupations with fewer workers, such as saleswomen and garbage collectors, also indicated respectful and professional employer behaviour. Overall, this study suggested that migrant women workers generally received fair treatment from employers, although the extent and type of positive interactions varied slightly by occupation.

4.11 Testing of Hypotheses

Some of the following hypotheses, which were formulated in chapter I have been tested using Chi Square test to determine the relationship between the selected variables.

4.11.1 Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis (H_0): There is no association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): There is an association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers.

Chi-Square Test			
Test	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	81.135	8	.001
No. of Valid Cases	730		

Result: Null hypothesis was rejected and alternative hypothesis was accepted as there was significant association between duration of employment and decision-making power at home among migrant women workers as evident from the table.

Conclusion: The Chi-Square test results indicated a significant association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers.

4.12 Categorization of MWW based on Cluster Analysis of Selected Variables

To understand the diversity among migrant women workers, K-means cluster analysis was used to group migrant woman workers based on shared characteristics. K-means cluster analysis was carried out in SPSS to identify distinct groups of migrant women workers based on selected socio-economic and work-related variables. The variables used for clustering were age, marital status, education, occupation, monthly income, distance to workplace, working hours, duration of employment, type of accommodation and overall conditions of the house. These variables were originally collected in categorical ranges and were subsequently coded into numerical values (e.g., 1, 2, 3…) to represent ordered categories. All variables were coded in the same numerical direction, where higher values indicated higher levels of the characteristic. The K-means algorithm was then applied to group respondents with similar characteristics. The number of clusters was determined based on meaningful interpretation and clarity of the resulting group profiles. Cluster centres and group memberships were examined to describe the socio-economic patterns observed among the migrant women workers.

The table 4.14 represented three clusters of individuals, all women aged 35–54, married and living in rented accommodations. Apart from these commonalities, the clusters differed across several socio-economic characteristics which indicated varying living and working conditions.

Cluster 1 consisted of migrant women with primary-level education who were mainly engaged in sales and retail work. This included vendors, hawkers and saleswomen who worked within local neighbourhoods. Most of whom were self-employed. These women had five to eight years of work experience and worked less than five hours per day. They travelled short distances between two and five kilometres on foot. Their monthly income was more than Rs. 6000 and they had lived in their current location for ten to fifteen years.

The main reason for migration in this group was the search for better wages indicating that their movement was driven primarily by economic factors. Their housing conditions were satisfactory. Their major motive to work was family responsibilities. The women in this cluster had achieved occupational and residential stability.

Cluster 2 consisted of women with low levels of education, most of whom were engaged in domestic and cleaning work such as housemaids, helpers, housekeeping staff and garbage collectors. They had inadequate work experience between zero and four years. They used

public buses for commuting. They earned less than Rs. 6000 per month. Unlike Cluster 1, migration among these women was mainly associated with marriage rather than employment. Their duration of stay in the current location ranged from five to ten years, which was shorter than in the other clusters and suggested more recent settlement.

Table 4.14 Output of Cluster Analysis of Migrant Women Workers in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa, 2025

Variable	Clusters		
	1	2	3
Age	35-54	35-54	35-54
Marital Status	Married	Married	Married
Education	Primary	Secondary	Primary
Occupation	Sales and Retail	Domestic and Cleaning	Domestic and Cleaning
Duration of Employment	5 to 8 years	0 to 4 years	5 to 8 years
Working hours	<5 hours	<5 hours	<5 hours
Distance covered for work	2 to 5 kms	2 to 5 kms	2 to 5 kms
Income	More than Rs 6000	Less than Rs. 6000	More than Rs 6000
Commute to work	On Foot	By Bus	By Bus
Accommodation Type	Rented	Rented	Rented
Overall condition of the house	Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Good
Period of Stay	10-15 years	5-10 years	>20 years
Reason for Migration	Better wages	Marriage	Marriage
Expenditure	Rs 3000-6000	Rs 3000-6000	Rs 3000-6000
Reason for working	To support family	To support family	To become self sufficient

Source: Prepared by Author using SPSS based on primary data, 2022-24

Overall, this cluster represented a group of women who had limited economic stability and were dependent on informal work. Their shorter employment duration, lower income and

the status of associational migrants indicated that they were still establishing themselves both occupationally and residentially.

Cluster 3 consisted of women who had attained primary education but were engaged in domestic and cleaning work. They had a total work experience of 5 to 8 years earned more than Rs. 6000 per month. Their mode of travel to work was by bus and they travelled farther greater distances for work. The main reason for working was to achieve self-sufficiency. They had lived in the current location for more than 20 years which pointed to a well-established settlement. Moreover, their housing conditions were reported as "good," indicating improved living standards and greater residential security.

Cluster 3 thus represented a more empowered subgroup of migrant women workers who, despite being engaged in low-paying and informal jobs, demonstrated signs of upward social mobility, personal aspiration and a more stable and secure livelihood.

The cluster analysis identified three distinct groups of migrant women workers, each reflecting different levels of stability, motivation and socio-economic conditions. Cluster 1 included women with primary education working in sales and retail, who built modest but stable livelihoods over 5–8 years, driven by family support. Cluster 2 comprised less educated domestic and cleaning workers with shorter job experience, lower income and recent migration due to marriage, indicating economic vulnerability and limited stability. In contrast, Cluster 3 also included women in domestic work but with longer residence, better income and a focus towards becoming more independent, showing a stronger sense of control over their own life and a desire for a more stable, goal-oriented lifestyle.

4.13 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter highlighted both the positive and challenging aspects of the lives of migrant women workers (MWW) in Ponda and Salcete talukas. Majority of the migrant women workers experienced good treatment in their communities and workplaces but only a few women received incentives from their employers. These women did not experience any eve teasing or harassment from the locals. Their long working hours negatively impacted children's health, education and emotional support, particularly among women with who had small children. MWW who had been working for longer durations had greater household decision-making power. All the MWW's households had access to water and electricity. But they faced issues of shared toilet facilities and poor garbage dumping sites increasing health

risks. Cluster analysis identified three subgroups of MWW based on their differing occupation, education and family circumstances and income. All the MWW had proper access to healthcare facilities and transport. Public health centres and sub-district hospitals provided free healthcare and a buffer analysis indicated that all villages and towns were within 3 km of a facility, most within 2 km. Major bus stands in Ponda and Margao talukas along with village-level bus stops helped them to commute easily at affordable fares.

There were significant gaps in financial security and access to government schemes. Access to government social security schemes was also similarly limited to MWW. Lack of authorised and desired identification documents restricted access to welfare schemes.

CHAPTER 5
EMERGENCY SITUATION RESILIENCE AND STATUS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS (SDGS)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter studied migrant women workers' resilience in the time of emergency situation like COVID 19 pandemic and the status of relevant Sustainable Development Goals fulfilment in terms of living and working conditions of migrant women workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa. 'Resilience' refers to the capacity of individuals and communities to anticipate, prepare for, respond to, recover from and adapt to adverse events, particularly disasters (Kelly et al., 2024). Migrants and women were affected more by disasters as they experience negative consequences due to vulnerability, exposure and capacity compared to the general population. They were also most negatively impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic globally. Due to their migrant status, they had limited access to care, faced discrimination and were forced to take up unstable jobs. As women, they were restricted to a limited range of female oriented jobs and were also burdened with childcare and domestic responsibilities. They also faced gender-based violence (Trentin et al., 2023,2025). The lockdown and the social distancing norms that came into effect due to the COVID-19 pandemic, made many migrant women jobless. This had a severe and direct impact on their economic, social and psychological wellbeing (Arora, 2021).

Covid-19 pandemic and the resultant lockdown had a distressing impact on informal workers and workers from economically weaker sections of society. The sudden implementation of the lockdown put these workers at higher risk as they lost their jobs and income for an unknown period as factories and construction sites were closed and the tourist industry came to a standstill. The lockdown was poorly planned and left workers in severe distress with few alternatives (Mawii, 2020).

As work opportunities and the savings dried up due to the lockdown and uncertainty set in about the nature and duration of the lockdown, migrants wanted to travel back to their hometowns and villages. In the absence of any public transportation available till May 2020, many started walking back home, hundreds of kilometres away from their destination cities. Migrant workers suffered from uncertainty about the future, fear of being abandoned by their employers, substance use issues and concerns about other health issues. They were vulnerable due to their socio-economic status, poor living conditions and chronic

malnutrition, absence of family support, absence of effective laws for the unorganised sector and barriers in accessing psychiatric help. This caused psychological distress for internal migrant workers (Duggal, 2021; Kundu, 2021).

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also known as the Global Goals, were adopted by the United Nations in 2015 as a universal call to action to end poverty, protect the planet and ensure that by 2030 all people enjoy peace and prosperity. The 17 SDGs are integrated and they recognize that action in one area will affect outcomes in others and that development must balance social, economic and environmental sustainability. Countries have committed to prioritize progress for those who're furthest behind at the lowest level of the echelons. The SDGs were set to end poverty, hunger, AIDS and discrimination against women and girls (UNDP). There are a total of 17 goals and 169 targets under them. The 17 goals are No poverty (SDG 1), Zero hunger (SDG 2), Good health and well-being (SDG 3), Quality education (SDG 4), Gender equality (SDG 5), Clean water and sanitation (SDG 6), Affordable and clean energy (SDG 7), Decent work and economic growth (SDG 8), Industry, innovation and infrastructure (SDG 9), Reduced inequalities (SDG 10), Sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11), Responsible consumption and production (SDG 12), Climate action (SDG 13), Life below water (SDG 14), Life on land (SDG 15), Peace, justice, and strong institutions (SDG 16), and Partnerships for the goals (SDG 17).

The Government of India has framed pivotal developmental strategies as envisaged in the ‘‘Strategy for New India @ 75 rooted in age-old Indian ethos, to which SDGs are aligned. The Indian development motto ‘Sabka Saath, Sabka Vikas, Sabka Vishwas, Sabka Prayas’ (together with all, development for all, the trust of all, the efforts of all) is in line with the Indian ethos as reflected in the principle of leaving no one behind in the 2030 Agenda. The implementation of SDGs is closely monitored at the national and sub-national, i.e. State level. At the national level, two agencies are involved in monitoring the SDGs, viz. Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MoSPI) and NITI Aayog. The MoSPI tracks the SDG progress based on 286 national indicators (June, 2022) evolved by the Ministry, and brings out a publication titled ‘Sustainable Development Goals National Indicator Framework Progress Report’, while NITI Aayog brings out SDG monitoring report based on a sub-set of national indicators (or its proxies), titled ‘SDG India Index Report’. This Report ranks the States/UTs in accordance with SDG performance with a view to promote healthy competition among them (Kumar et al., 2023).

The SDGs were adopted in the State of Goa in line with the Central Government agenda towards its implementation. The Government of Goa notified Directorate of Planning, Statistics & Evaluation as the State Nodal Department for implementation & Monitoring of 'Sustainable Development Goals' at the State level and also appointed various Departments concerned against each SDG as Nodal Departments. The State of Goa has developed its own Indicator framework under each SDG in consultation with all the Nodal Departments for proper monitoring of SDGs. The State has prepared & published Goa-State Indicator Framework G-SIF (Version 1.0) in the year 2022 which consists of 16 goals, 132 targets and 280 indicators. Further, the State has prepared G-SIF (Version 2.0) in the year 2023 which consists of 16 goals, 132 targets and 272 indicators. As per SDG India Index 2020-21, the State of Goa has emerged to secure 4th position by securing composite index score of 72 (Department of Planning, Statistics & Evaluation, 2023).

Migrant women have faced multiple challenges because of their poor economic background and for their migrant status. These factors made it difficult for them to access services like healthcare, housing and social security. Many government schemes have been designed to support vulnerable groups and are linked to the global Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). However, in practice, not all migrant women are able to benefit from them equally.

5.2 Resilience to Disasters: COVID-19 Pandemic Scenario

The COVID-19 pandemic caused widespread disruption across India, with significant impacts on vulnerable groups such as women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa, who faced unique challenges due to their informal employment and limited access to social protections. The section studies how the pandemic affected their jobs, health and economic well-being, as well as the added pressures at home such as increased domestic work. The section also focuses on the support they received from families, communities and institutions during the COVID-19 period. Furthermore, it aims to understand how these women coped with the crisis and suggests measures to improve their resilience in future emergencies.

5.2.1 COVID-19 and Employment Disruptions

The outbreak of COVID-19 led to sudden and severe disruptions in the labour market, affecting labourers across the country particularly on the employment of women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa. Due to lockdowns, business closures and reduced economic activity, many women lost their jobs or faced salary cuts. Since these

women were employed in informal employment, working in casual, temporary or daily wage work, they faced job insecurity or lacked social protection during the crisis. These disruptions not only caused immediate financial hardship but also created long-term uncertainty about reemployment prospects. Many women struggled to find work after the lockdowns eased, facing competition, reduced demand and ongoing economic instability (Mawii & Eckstein, 2020).

5.2.2 Effects of COVID-19 on Employment Status of MWW

In Ponda taluka, a significant proportion of women migrant workers experienced job termination during the COVID-19 lockdown. Specifically, 56% of MWW lost their jobs, indicating a major disruption in employment for more than half of the workforce. Although 41.4% remained employed during this period, some of them faced either salary cuts and also commute to work became difficult. They also were prone to contracting the virus due to their movement. The study also consisted of some women (2.6%) who were not engaged in jobs before the lockdown began. In Salcete taluka, nearly 44% of women migrant workers faced job termination during the lockdown, which was lower than in Ponda. Additionally, 32.1% of MWW continued to have jobs during this time. A notable 10% were not working during this period and 13.95% women's businesses such as vendors and hawkers were shut, contributing to employment instability.

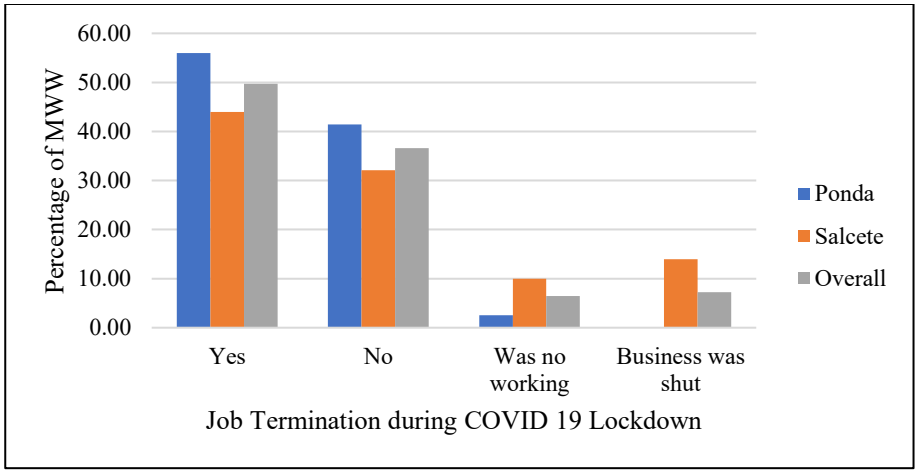


Figure 5.1 Job Termination during COVID-19 Lockdown
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

Overall, almost half (49.7%) of the women migrant workers were terminated from their jobs during the COVID-19 lockdown. About 36.6% retained their employment, while others either had no work during the period (6.4%) or experienced business closures (7.3%). This

overall picture has highlighted the severe impact of the pandemic on women migrant workers' employment and the overall financial crises they faced during the pandemic.

5.2.3 Salary Reduction during the Pandemic

In Ponda taluka, a vast majority (67.6%) of women migrant workers who remained employed during the COVID-19 lockdown experienced a reduction in their salaries highlighting the financial strain faced by them during this period. In Salcete taluka, 57.4% of employed women experienced a salary cut during the lockdown. Although slightly lower than Ponda, this still represented more than half of the workforce facing financial problems. Across both talukas, nearly 63% of women migrant workers who continued working saw their salaries lowered during the lockdown, while 37% continued receiving their usual income. This implied the widespread economic impact of the pandemic, which not only led to job losses but also to reduced wages for many workers.

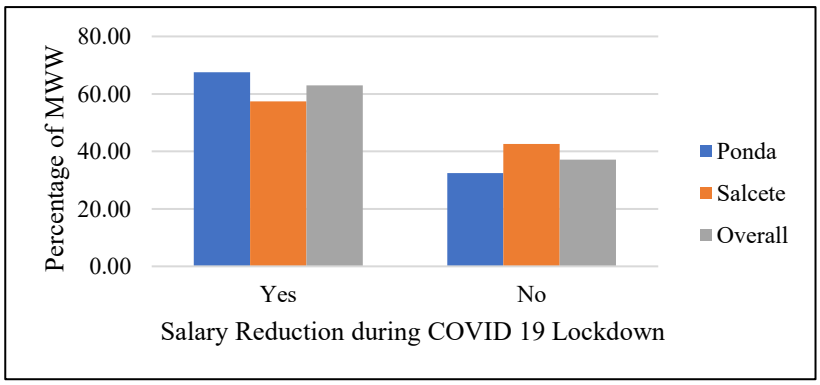


Figure 5.2 Salary Reduction during COVID 19 Lockdown
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.2.4 Sources of Financial Support During the Crisis

In Ponda, majority of migrant women coped with financial difficulties through borrowing money, with nearly half (44.59%) relying on loans to manage their expenses during the pandemic. Savings were another important source of support, with 41.40% of women using whatever savings they had. However, since many had limited savings, these were often used up quickly, forcing them to borrow. Only a small number of women (6.37%) depended on earnings from other family members, which suggested that most households had few or no additional income earners to help. Some women (5.10%) received some help from their employers, such as partial payments or temporary financial support, but this was not common. Help from neighbours or the local community was the least common form of support, with only 2.55% of women relying on it during the crisis. This has shown that even informal community networks were not strong enough to provide widespread assistance.

In Salcete, migrant women also coped with the financial challenges caused by the pandemic through loans, with 46.39% depending on loans as their primary means of support. Savings played a significant role as well, with 40.30% using their saved money to manage expenses. A higher percentage of women in Salcete (9.13%) depended on other family members' earnings compared to Ponda, indicating that some households had more family members contributing financially. However, employer assistance was very limited, with only 0.76% of women receiving any help, showing that formal employer support was rare. Community support was slightly more common than in Ponda, with 3.42% of women getting help from neighbours or local groups, highlighting a small but important role for community solidarity during the pandemic.

When looking at both Ponda and Salcete combined, the study showed that migrant women workers mostly managed the economic impact of the pandemic by borrowing money (45.71%) and using their savings (40.71%). A smaller group (8.10%) relied on income from other family members, reflecting some degree of household financial support. Employer help was very limited overall, assisting only 2.38% of women, which suggested that formal employment-based aid was rare. Help from neighbours or community groups was also minimal, benefiting just 3.10% of women. These findings have revealed that most migrant women had to depend heavily on their own resources or loans to get through the crisis, with very little help from employers or the community. This situation has highlighted the financial vulnerability of migrant women workers and the urgent need for stronger support systems during times of crisis.

5.2.5 Challenges Faced in Reemployment Post-Pandemic

After the easing of lockdown restrictions, many women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas faced significant challenges in returning to work. Although some were able to regain employment, others struggled due to reduced job availability, lower wages and increased competition for limited positions. Employers often cut back on staff or offered fewer working hours, making it harder for women to earn a stable income. In some cases, women were unable to return to their previous jobs because the businesses they worked for had permanently shut down. Moreover, the informal nature of their work meant that most did not have formal contracts or job security, which made rehiring uncertain. Fear of infection and ongoing health concerns also contributed to women delaying their return to the workforce.

5.2.6 Social Stigma

In addition to economic and job-related challenges, many women migrant workers also faced social stigma upon resuming work after the lockdown. In Ponda, more than half of the MWW (52.6%) were perceived as potential carriers of the virus. This fear and suspicion from employers, colleagues and community members added to their stress and made returning to work emotionally difficult. In Salcete, this perception was lower (37.4%) and a majority (62.6%) of women were seen positively, as contributors to family and community stability during a stressful time. Overall, 44.7% of MWW across both talukas experienced some degree of stigma, while 55.3% were appreciated for their role in managing the crisis. This implied the public perception and problem of reintegration of MWW with the community.

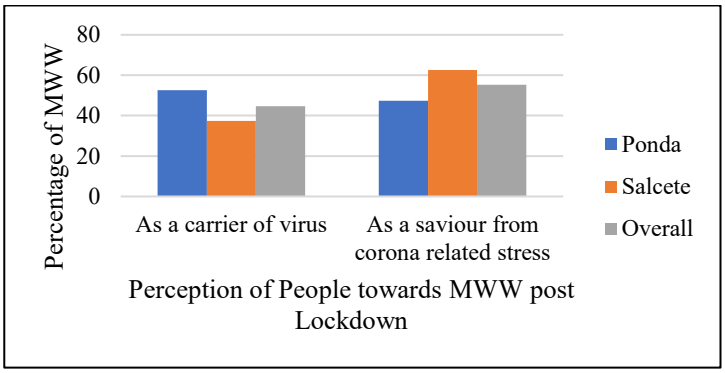


Figure 5.3 Perception of People towards MWW post Lockdown
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.2.7 Prevalence and Experiences of Migrant Women

Perceptions of the severity of COVID-19 varied noticeably between women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas. In Salcete, a large majority (78.4%) viewed the virus as severely dangerous, compared to only 21.7% in Ponda. Conversely, nearly half of the women migrant workers in Ponda (46.9%) considered it simply dangerous but not severe. Notably, 24.3% of women in Ponda stated that they were not bothered by the virus at all, whereas this view was held by just 1.3% in Salcete. A small portion from both areas (4.38% overall) gave no comment, stemming from lack of awareness. Overall, more than half of the MWW (51.2%) across both regions saw COVID-19 as a severely dangerous threat, showing a high level of concern among migrant women, especially in Salcete. These differences in perception were influenced by access to information, local health information and community experiences during the pandemic.

In Ponda taluka, 7.7% of the women migrant workers had contracted COVID-19 during the pandemic. The majority of women (92.3%) did not get infected, indicating limited exposure due to lockdown. In Salcete, a similar scenario was experienced with around same 7% of migrant women workers contracting the virus whereas 93% of women who were not infected. This may possibly due to staying indoors during lockdown and taking vaccination as a precaution. Across both talukas, only 4.97% of women migrant workers reported having contracted COVID-19. Nevertheless, the study has indicated that most women were not officially infected during the pandemic, although the psychological, social and economic impacts of the crisis were still deeply felt, regardless of direct exposure to the virus.

5.2.8 Vaccination Status

Out of 730 women surveyed in the two sub-regions of Goa, 96.58% were vaccinated. In Ponda, 97.4% of the respondents were vaccinated, while in Salcete the number was slightly lower at 95.8%. This showed that the majority of the women had access to the vaccine due to government health campaigns. The few women who were not vaccinated (only 3.42% overall) were mostly older and reported health-related issues as the reason for not taking the vaccine.

5.2.9 Impact of the Pandemic on Physical and Mental Health

The COVID-19 pandemic affected not only the employment and income of migrant women workers but also their physical and mental well-being. Many women experienced stress and anxiety due to sudden job loss, financial insecurity and uncertainty about the future. The fear of getting infected, especially when returning to work, added to their emotional burden. In Ponda and Salcete, while only a small percentage of women (about 5%) stated actually getting infected with the virus, the mental strain was rampant. Many women had limited access to healthcare facilities and were worried about falling sick without proper support. The stress of managing household responsibilities without regular income, along with the social stigma faced by some women who returned to work, made their situation even more difficult. In Ponda, over half of the women (52.6%) faced discrimination or were treated with suspicion, while in Salcete this was lower (37.4%). This fear and mistrust added emotional pressure to an already challenging situation. The pandemic created a heavy psychological impact on many migrant women workers, even if they were not directly infected, indicating that the pandemic affected their daily lives drastically.

5.2.10 Economic Impact of the Pandemic on Migrant Women's Households

The economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic was strongly felt in the households of migrant women workers. As many women lost their jobs or faced salary cuts during the lockdown, their family income reduced and it was difficult for them to meet even basic needs. In Ponda, more than half (56%) of the migrant women faced job termination and in Salcete, 44% of them faced the same fate. The MWW who continued working faced salary reductions, 67.6% in Ponda and 57.4% in Salcete. This led to difficulties in managing daily expenses such as food, rent, children's education and healthcare. Many women shared that they had to borrow money, cut down on household needs or depend on people's support to survive.

5.2.11 Reduction in Household Income and Savings

During the COVID-19 pandemic, most migrant women workers and their families experienced a sharp decline in household income. As the lockdowns continued and work remained uncertain, most households were unable to save anything and were forced to depend on loans, credit from shops or help from relatives and neighbours. Some women mentioned that they had to stop sending money back to their villages or cut down on important expenses like education or medical care. Overall, the reduction in income not only affected daily living but also left households unprepared for future emergencies, deepening their financial vulnerability.

5.2.12 Community and Local Support during the Pandemic

During the COVID-19 pandemic, community and local support played an important role in helping migrant women workers and their families cope with the crisis. Women who lost their jobs or faced salary cuts depended on help from neighbours, local organisations and NGOs. In both Ponda and Salcete, some women received ration kits, cooked meals or small financial assistance during the lockdowns. A few also mentioned that their landlords allowed delayed rent payments or reduced the amount temporarily.

5.2.13 Increased Unpaid Domestic Labour During Lockdowns

During the COVID-19 lockdowns, migrant women workers experienced a significant increase in unpaid domestic labour. With family members staying at home throughout the day, women were responsible for more cooking, cleaning, childcare and taking care of the elderly or sick. This additional workload came on top of the stress caused by job losses or reduced income. Many women reported spending long hours managing household chores

without any break, which affected their physical and mental well-being. Unlike paid work, this unpaid labour often went unrecognized and added to the burden women already carried. The lockdown made it clear that women's unpaid work at home increased significantly, further limiting their time and energy to seek new employment.

5.2.14 Psychological and Emotional Strain during the Pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic caused significant psychological and emotional strain among migrant women workers. Many faced anxiety and stress due to job losses, income issues and uncertainty about the duration of lifting of the lockdown restrictions. MWW had to manage household regular expenditures adding more stress. Women had also dealt with social stigma and isolation, especially those who returned to work after the lockdown. These factors led to feelings of vulnerability, fear and emotional exhaustion.

5.3 Achievements or Fulfilment of the Objectives of SDGs w.e.f. MWW

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) relevant to migrant women workers were converted into quantifiable indicators based on literature support and alignment with field realities. To evaluate the living and working conditions of migrant women workers in relation to selected Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), a set of relevant indicators was identified from the primary survey (Kenny, 2019). For each indicator, the proportion of respondents who reported fulfilment was calculated in percentage form. The percentages of fulfilled conditions under each SDG theme were then aggregated using simple averaging to derive a composite score for that theme. This composite score provided an overall representation of progress toward the respective SDG outcomes among the surveyed women migrant workers. The SDG indicators have been represented as bar graphs with fulfilments shown in green bars as positives (+) and unfulfillment shown in red bars as negatives (-). All the SDGs along with the fulfilment and non-fulfilment of the indicators have been presented in annexure table 1.

5.3.1 SDG 1: No Poverty

Sustainable Development Goal 1 focuses on ending poverty in all its forms. The study suggests that many women migrants continued to face economic hardship, even after taking up employment. Women migrant workers faced problems of access to stable jobs, better income and improved housing which limit their ability to save or support their families thus leading to poor living conditions. In terms of income, while over half of the migrant women workers (52%) earned more than Rs. 6000 per month, which is the highest range in this

study but it is not sufficient in real life as the money is spent towards meeting the household needs. A large portion (48%) earned less than Rs. 6000 per month and 7.8% earned below Rs. 3000. This indicates that many women remained close to the poverty line and struggled to meet basic living costs. Many of these women were also the sole earners in their households which made it difficult for them to make ends meet with such low income.

Occupation is also an important factor. The most common jobs among MWW were housemaids (42.2%), factory workers (16.7%), helpers (14.5%) and tailors (7.9%). These are typically informal and low-paying jobs, with little job security or benefits. Such employment limited their ability to move out of poverty. Only 3 per cent of the respondents were engaged in permanent jobs and 97 per cent were employed in casual or temporary jobs. Job continuity was there only for 26 per cent of the respondents. In contrast, 74 per cent experienced irregular or seasonal work highlighting widespread employment insecurity and income instability.

More than half (59%) of MWW were burdened with debts which added to their economic vulnerability.

Only 34 per cent of them had access to ration cards, Public Distribution System (PDS) and welfare schemes. Two-thirds of the MWW (70%) had bank accounts. But only 33 % of them could save some money from their income. The remaining 66 percent of MWW could not save money due to high living cost.

Only 9 percent of the MWW had insurance coverage and a large majority of 91 percent of MWW were not having insurance coverage which increased financial risks during emergencies.

Almost half (43%) of the MWW had better housing quality and 57 per cent resided in poor-quality housing with shared water connections and toilets.

All the migrant women workers' households had access to safe drinking water indicating universal availability of water.

More than half (59%) of MWW owned some household assets like vehicles, mobile phones, television, refrigerators, etc.

SDG 1 – No Poverty	
1	Income
2	Nature of employment
3	Job continuity
4	Debt burden
5	Access to ration card/PDS/Schemes
6	Bank account
7	Savings
8	Insurance
9	Housing quality
10	Sanitation
11	Safe drinking water
12	Ownership of assets

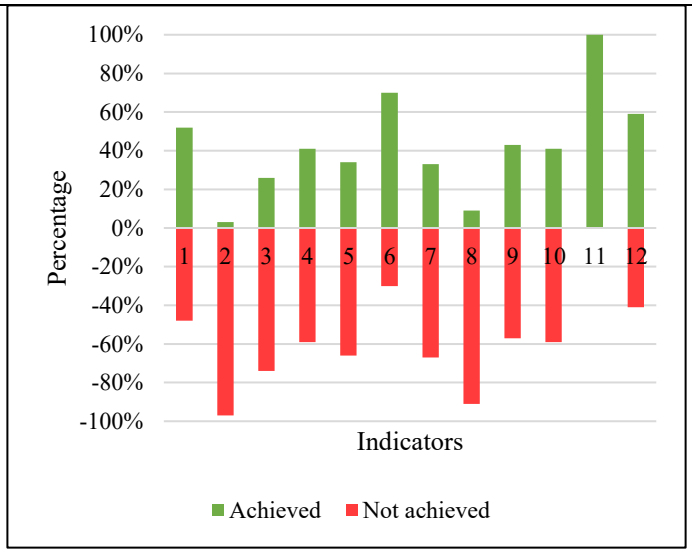


Figure 5.4 SDG 1 Achievement and Gaps, 2025

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.2 SDG 4: Quality Education

The findings have indicated moderate educational attainment but extremely limited access to skill development. Slightly more than half of the respondents (54%) had achieved a basic level of educational attainment. This has suggested that a considerable proportion of women migrant workers entered the labour market with limited formal education, which restricted their employment options. Access to adult skill or vocational training has been found to be critically low. Only 4 per cent of the respondents participated in any form of skill development or vocational training, whereas an overwhelming 96 per cent had no access to such opportunities. Overall, the SDG 4 analysis has revealed that while basic education is present among a section of women migrant workers, the near absence of adult skill and vocational training has severely limited upward mobility.

SDG 4 – Quality Education	
1	Educational attainment
2	Access to adult skill/vocational training

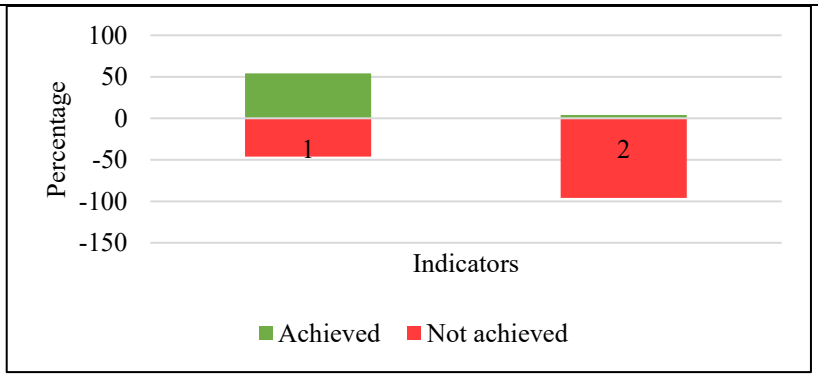


Figure 5.5 SDG 4 Achievement and Gaps, 2025

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.3 SDG 5: Gender Equality

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 5 (Gender Equality) was undertaken to examine the extent of empowerment, agency and gender-based equality experienced by women migrant workers in the study area.

More than half (61%) of migrant women workers had good decision-making power in their households. Only 33 per cent of MWW had control over their earnings but the remaining 67 per cent of MWW's earnings were controlled by their spouses or other family members.

Almost 60 percent (59%) of MWW received support from other family members with household chores and taking care of the children and elderly members in the family. Less than a quarter (20%) of the MWW had equal pay as that of men for similar work and a majority (80%) faced wage disparities.

In terms of exposure to harassment or discrimination, 64 per cent of the respondents reported no such experiences, indicating fulfilment of this indicator.

Membership in self-help groups (SHGs) was not fulfilled for any of the respondents, with 100 per cent reporting no association with SHGs or similar collective platforms. This reflected limited opportunities for collective empowerment, financial cooperation and social support among women migrant workers.

Similarly, political and community participation was entirely not fulfilled, as none of the respondents reported active involvement in political processes, community organisations or local governance structures. This indicated their social and political marginalisation.

Access to healthcare services was fulfilled for all respondents (100 per cent), suggesting universal availability of basic healthcare facilities in the study area.

Finally, access to proper sanitation and hygiene was fulfilled for only 41 per cent of the respondents. The remaining 59 per cent lacked adequate sanitation and hygiene facilities, which disproportionately affected women's health, safety and dignity, thereby limiting the achievement of gender equality.

SDG 5 – Gender Equality

1 Decision-making in household
2 Control over personal earnings
3 Support with household chores and caregiving
4 Wage parity with men
5 Exposure to harassment/discrimination
6 Membership in self-help groups (SHGs)
7 Political/community participation
8 Access to Healthcare
9 Access to proper sanitation and hygiene

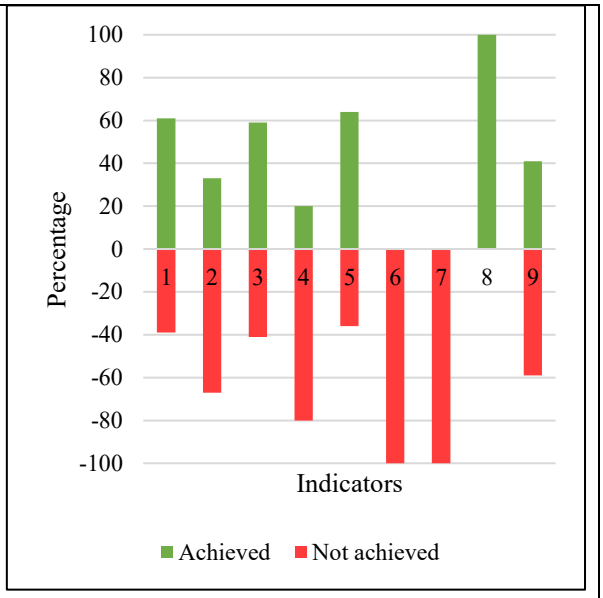


Figure 5.6 SDG 5 Achievement and Gaps, 2025

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.4 SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 6 (Clean Water and Sanitation) focused on access to safe water, sanitation infrastructure and environmental hygiene among women migrant workers in the study area.

The availability of safe drinking water was fulfilled for all respondents (100 per cent), indicating universal access to safe water in the study area. This suggested that basic drinking water needs were adequately met for women migrant workers. Similarly, the regularity of water supply was also fulfilled for 100 per cent of the respondents. This indicated that water was available on a consistent basis, reducing the daily burden of water collection and ensuring reliability in meeting household needs. Less than half (42%) of them had own water connection inside the house and remaining depended on shared water taps outside the house.

Almost half of the MWW (46%) had access to toilet facilities, including own or shared toilets. The remaining depended on open defecation, indicating serious sanitation, health and safety concerns. Only a few MWW households (10%) had access to safe waste disposal systems. A vast majority (90 per cent) did not have access to proper waste disposal resulting in unhygienic living conditions and exposure to health problems. There was also a risk of water-borne diseases as more than half (60%) of MWW households did not have proper drainage systems.

SDG 6 – Clean Water & Sanitation	
1	Availability of safe drinking water
2	Source type
3	Regularity of supply
4	Toilet facility (own/shared/open defecation
5	Household waste disposal
6	Drainage facilities

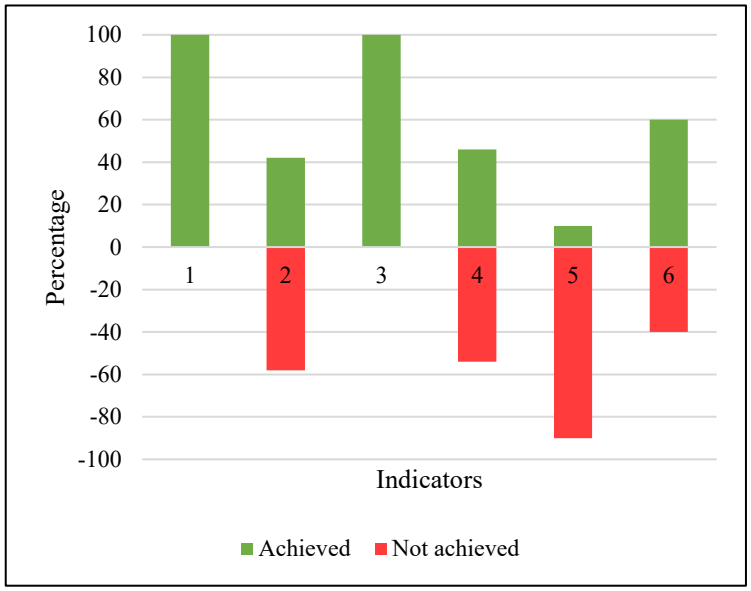


Figure 5.7 SDG 6 Achievement and Gaps, 2025

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.5 SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) examined the nature and quality of employment, wage conditions, workplace safety and opportunities for skill development among women migrant workers in the study area.

The indicator related to the type of work was fulfilled for only 3 per cent of the respondents, who were engaged in relatively secure or skilled employment. The remaining 97 per cent of MWW worked in low-skilled, informal jobs. More than half of the respondents were satisfied with their income. The remaining 43 per cent of them were not paid properly for the work they did. More than two-thirds of MWW received their salaries on time every month. A large majority (84%) of the MWW were content with their working hours as they found it manageable.

A very less proportion (8%) of MWW experienced occupational safety but a large majority, (92%) did not have proper safety measures or safe working conditions which exposed them to health risks. Since majority of the MWW worked in informal, temporary jobs, they did not experience any promotion prospects.

SDG 8 – Decent Work & Economic Growth	
1	Type of work
2	Regularity of job
3	Fair wage vs. exploitative pay
4	Timely payment
5	Working hours
6	Occupational safety
7	Access to skill training
8	Promotion prospects

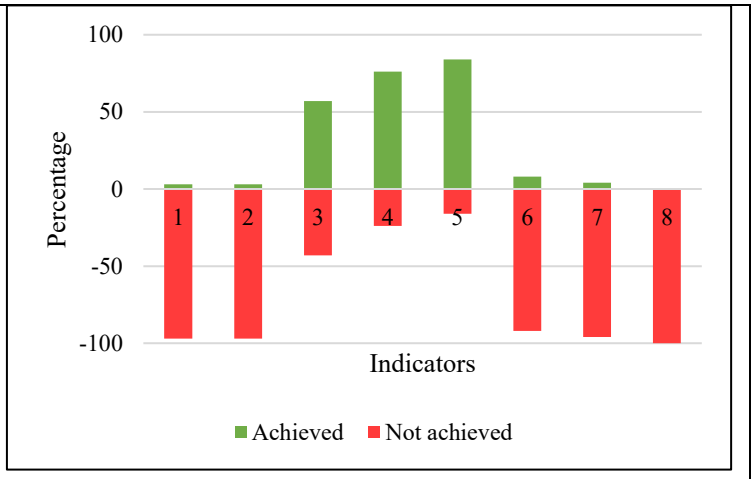


Figure 5.8 SDG 8 Achievement and Gaps, 2025
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.6 SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 10 (Reduced Inequalities) focused on structural and social inequalities faced by women migrant workers, particularly in relation to access to benefits, discrimination, legal identity and freedom of movement.

Half of the MWW (50%) did not experience discrimination due to their migrant status. The remaining 50 per cent faced discrimination in workplaces, housing or public spaces.

A very low (4 percent) of MWW had access to government welfare schemes. The remaining 96 per cent were excluded due to factors such as lack of documentation, place-based eligibility criteria, limited awareness and administrative problems.

Almost two-thirds (65%) of MWW did not experience any restrictions on movement within the destination area and could move freely for work and other purposes.

SDG 10 – Reduced Inequalities	
1	Unequal access to benefits
2	Discrimination due to migrant status
3	Barriers in accessing government schemes
4	Healthcare
5	Restrictions on movement
6	Lack of legal IDs

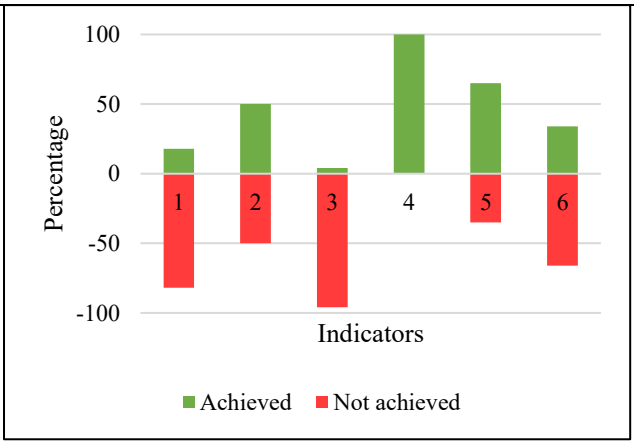


Figure 5.9 SDG 10 Achievement and Gaps, 2025
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.7 SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) examined housing conditions, access to basic urban services, mobility, safety and resilience to environmental risks among women migrant workers in the study area.

A very small proportion (16%) of MWW lived in the house they owned. In terms of the number of rooms, 30 per cent of the respondents had adequate living space with an average of 2 rooms per household.

Access to electricity and water was universal and all the migrant women workers (100 per cent), had access to these resources in the study area.

Only 20 per cent of the MWW had access to regular waste collection services. The remaining 80 per cent of them dumped waste in the open, increasing health risk and poor environmental hygiene.

Almost two-thirds (66%) of the MWW resided close to their places of work which allowed them to walk to their work daily. The remaining 34 per cent commuted by bus. Two-thirds (70%) of MWW had access to affordable public transport with reasonable fares.

A vast proportion (97%) of MWW felt safe in their residential neighbourhoods. Only 3 per cent expressed concerns related to safety, crime or harassment.

Almost half (42%) of MWW were prepared for disasters due to proper housing and safe living environments. The remaining 58 per cent lacked adequate preparedness or protection against disasters such as flooding, heavy rainfall or housing-related risks.

SDG 11 – Sustainable Cities & Communities

1 Type of house (pucca/kutcha, rented/owned)
2 No. of rooms
3 Access to electricity
4 Tap water
5 Waste disposal
6 Proximity to workplace
7 Access to affordable transport
8 Neighbourhood safety
9 Disaster resilience

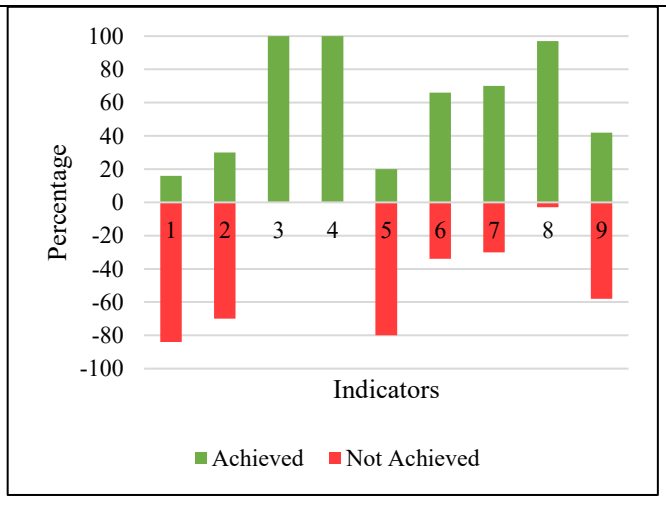


Figure 5.10 SDG 11 Achievement and Gaps, 2025
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.8 SDG 17: Partnerships for the Goals

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goal 17 (Partnerships for the Goals) focused on the role of institutional, community and social partnerships in supporting women migrant workers in the study area.

A very small proportion (5%) of MWW received support from NGOs and religious or community-based organisations, such as church or temple groups indicating weak institutional support for women migrant workers at the destination.

Only 4 percent of MWW participated in training programmes or workshops. The remaining 96 per cent did not participate in any form of skill-building, awareness or capacity-development activities due to lack of awareness.

Almost two-thirds (65%) of the MWW relied on informal networks such as friends, relatives, co-workers or fellow migrants for information related to job availability and help during crises.

SDG 17 – Partnerships for the Goals

1 Support from NGOs, CSOs, church/temple groups
2 Participation in training/workshops
3 Social networks for job information, crisis support

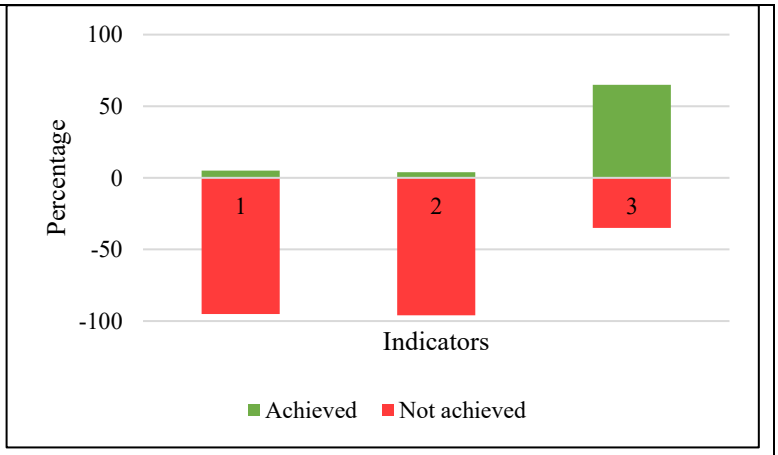


Figure 5.11 SDG 17 Achievement and Gaps, 2025
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.3.9 Aggregate Performance of SDGs for Women Migrant Workers

To understand the overall level of progress across different dimensions of wellbeing, aggregate percentages of fulfilled and not fulfilled indicators were computed for each selected SDG.

SDG 6 (Clean Water and Sanitation) and SDG 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) had the highest levels of fulfilment as 60 per cent of indicators for these goals were fulfilled. This has suggested better access to basic civic services such as water supply, electricity,

transport and neighbourhood safety. But there are significant gaps in these SDGs pertaining to sanitation, waste management, housing quality and disaster resilience.

SDG 10 (Reduced Inequalities) and SDG 1 (No Poverty) have moderate levels of fulfilment. Almsost half (45%) of indicators within these SDGs were fulfilled suggesting persistent inequalities related to migrant status, legal identity and access to welfare schemes. SDG 1 has recorded 43 per cent fulfilment and 57 per cent non-fulfilment due to economic vulnerability in terms of informal employment, unstable nature of jobs and low income.

There is limited progress in SDG 5 (Gender equality) as only 42 per cent of indicators were fulfilled and 58 per cent were unfulfilled.

SDG 4 (Quality Education) and SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth), have shown the lowest levels of fulfilment as only 29 per cent of indicators have been fulfilled and 71 per cent have not been fulfilled. These findings have highlighted serious gaps in access to skill development, employment security, occupational safety and career advancement, highlighting the organizational informality of women migrant workers' livelihoods. The most critical deficit was observed under SDG 17 (Partnerships for the Goals), where only 25 per cent of indicators have been fulfilled and 75 per cent have been unfulfilled. This has reflected weak institutional support, minimal NGO engagement and limited participation in training or capacity-building programmes, placing a heavy reliance on informal social networks.

Table 5.1 Aggregate percentages of SDGs' fulfilment and non-fulfilment

Sr. No.	SDG	% Fulfilled	% Not Fulfilled
1	SDG 1	43	57
2	SDG 4	29	71
3	SDG 5	42	58
4	SDG 6	60	40
5	SDG 8	29	71
6	SDG 10	45	55
7	SDG 11	60	40
8	SDG 17	25	75

Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

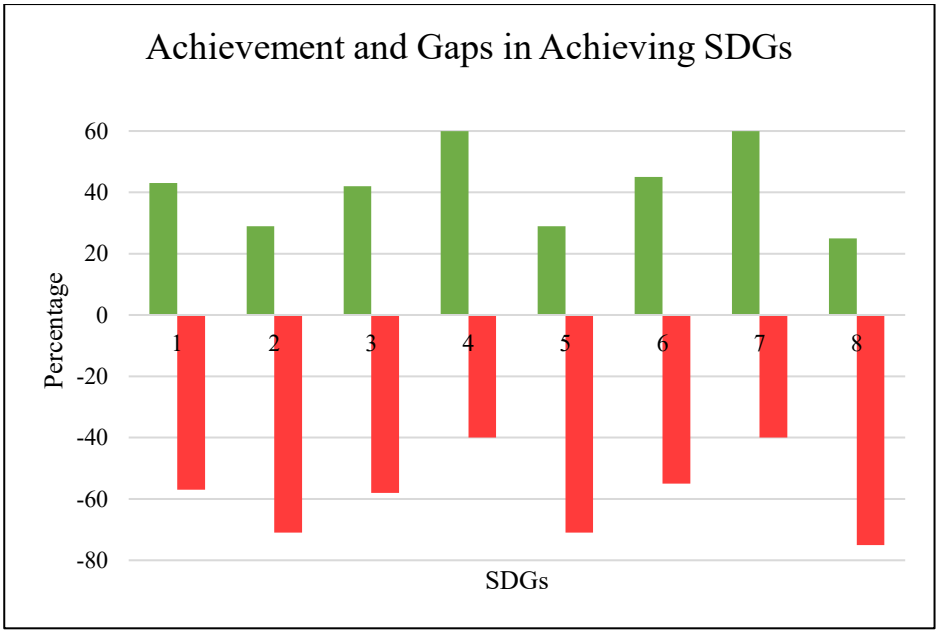


Figure 5.12 SDGs Aggregate Achievement and Gaps, 2025
Source: Prepared by Author using Primary Data, 2022-24

5.4 Overview of the chapter

The MWW were vulnerable to emergency and disastrous situations like COVID-19 but had the short- term resilience in Ponda and Salcete Talukas of Goa. In terms of health resilience, the MWW were strong but could not sustain their socio-economic loss for long. The link between the findings of the study and the objectives of the sustainable development goals (SDG) framework has been portrayed. There is uneven progress across the SDGs. Better performance has been observed in SDGs related to basic services and infrastructure (SDG 6 and SDG 11). Severe shortfalls have been observed in SDGs associated with education, decent work and institutional support for the MWW (SDG 4, SDG 8 and SDG 17). There is deficit in SDG 1. Gender inequality has been a concern (SDG 5). Migration-related inequalities have also shown exclusion (SDG 10). Hence, there is a long way achieving the SDGs in an inclusive and sustainable manner.

CHAPTER 6
MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, SOCIAL RELEVANCE, OUTCOMES AND FUTURE SCOPE

6.1 Introduction

This chapter has brought together the major findings of the study on women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa. It has summarised the major insights related to migration patterns, employment conditions and socio-economic wellbeing. It has also highlighted the social relevance and outcomes of the study. It has reflected the broader implications of the findings for policy and planning. Finally, it has outlined the scope for future interventions aimed at improving the lives of women migrant workers and admitted the limitations of the study.

6.2 Major Findings

Following are the major findings of the study.

Origin of Migrants with reasons and Characteristics

1. Karnataka was the dominant source state of migrant women workers (59.86%), followed by Uttar Pradesh (11.64%), Maharashtra (9.86%), Bihar (5.21%), Jharkhand and Madhya Pradesh (3.01% each) and West Bengal (1.51%), while other states contributed less than 1% each.
2. Marriage was the main reason for migration (38.63%), followed by better wages (28.08%) and lack of opportunities at the native place (24.93%). Children's education accounted for 7.53% and relatives' call for 0.82%.
3. Married women were mainly engaged in domestic and caregiving work, which allowed flexible working hours to manage household duties.
4. In contrast, unmarried women were more concentrated in industrial, retail and service sector jobs involving longer working hours.
5. Most women were Hindus (70.5%), followed by Muslims (27.9%) and Christians (1.5%).
6. About 34.1% of women had lived in Goa for more than 20 years, while 20.5% migrated in the last 5 years. Around 19.7% stayed for 5–10 years, 12.5% for 10–15 years and 13.2% for 15–20 years, indicating long-term settlement.
7. In Ponda, migrant women were concentrated around Ponda town, sub-divisional headquarters and industrial estates. In Salcete, most were concentrated in Margao,

central areas and eastern villages due to commercial growth and access to Curchorem-Cacora commercial centre.

8. Nearly half (47.53%) planned to stay long term and 38.22% intended to stay until better opportunities arose. Only 9.04% planned to quit soon, 4.66% aimed to return later and 0.55% wished to return after retirement.
9. Majority of the women were engaged in casual work which accounted for 47.1% and temporary work which accounted for 40.8%, while only 3.3% had permanent jobs.
10. Less than a quarter (22.5%) had less than 2 years of experience, 23.4% had 2–4 years, 16.7% had 4–6 years and 25.8% had more than 8 years, showing mixed work experience.
11. Nearly half (49.9%) worked 6–8 hours daily, 33.4% worked 3–5 hours and 14.8% worked more than 8 hours. Only 1.4% worked less than 2 hours and 0.5% worked more than 10 hours.
12. More than half of MWW (55.5%) travelled 2–5 km to work, while 34.5% worked within 1 km. Only 3.0% worked from home and 7.0% travelled beyond 5 km.
13. Personal networks were the main source of employment, with 68.2% finding jobs through friends. About 20.7% found work on their own, 10.1% through contractors and only 1% through newspapers.
14. The major occupation among the MWW was that of housemaids (42.2%), followed by factory workers (16.7%), helpers (14.5%) and vendors (8.2%).

Demographic Characteristics

1. The largest age group among the MWW was 35–44 years (48.08%), followed by 25–34 years (26.44%) indicating that majority were in economically productive age group. Only 2.88% were above 55 and 2.47% were below 24.
2. A vast majority (90.4%) were married, while 4.1% were unmarried, 4.5% widowed and 1.0% separated.
3. About 25.6% had no formal education and 20.3% had only primary education. Secondary education was completed by 38.4%, higher secondary by 13.2% and only 2.6% were graduates, restricting most women to informal employment.

Economic Characteristics

1. Monthly wages were received by 71.0%, while 29.0% worked as daily wage earners. More than half (52.5%) earned above Rs. 6000, 39.7% earned Rs. 3000–6000 and 7.8% earned below Rs. 3000.
2. Nearly half (49.3%) spent Rs. 3000–6000 monthly, 30.8% spent above Rs. 6000 and 19.9% spent below Rs. 3000. Only 33% were able to save regularly and just 11.8% sent remittances.
3. Most women commuted on foot (57.9%) or by bus (25.2%). Employer transport was used by 6.7% and own vehicles by 5.3%.
4. Life insurance coverage was very low at 9% and 96% were excluded from government schemes. Only 33.7% had ration cards and 14.8% had BPL cards.
5. Most employers (73.7%) provided no incentives. Some received festival gifts (13.7%) or bonuses (5.75%), but other benefits were rare.
6. The main expectation from employers was better working conditions (42.33%) and pay hike (28.63%). From the government, women expected welfare schemes (25.07%), permanent jobs (22.19%) and housing (16.58%), while 26.85% had no expectations.
7. Financial problems (35.89%) and lack of house ownership (29.73%) were major issues, though 21.92% reported no major problems.

Social Conditions

1. More than half (57.7%) of the MWW felt that the treatment from locals was good or very good (24.8%) based on 5-point Likert Scale. Only 0.5% reported bad treatment and 0.3% very bad treatment.
2. Around 45.48% felt treated with love and care in the locality and 30.82% with dignity. Only 1.37% experienced neglect.
3. At workplaces, 63.01% felt treated as equals, while very few felt inferior (0.54%) or suspected (0.13%).
4. Employer behaviour was largely respectful, with 38.22% reporting dignity, 30.82% professionalism and 27.12% care. Teasing by locals was rare (2.88%).

Household Characteristics

1. More than half (64.38%) of the MWW's families had 4–5 members The average number of children per family was 2. Almost half (45.18%) families had 2 children while 27.78% had 3 children.
2. Most women lived in rented houses (83%). Around 69.6% lived in 1–2 room houses, mainly with asbestos or tin roofs (84.8%). Water and electricity access was universal, though many shared these facilities.
3. All the MWW households had access to mobile phones. More than half of the households (59.32%) owned two-wheelers and only 9.04% owned four-wheelers. Refrigerator ownership was 57.67% and television ownership was 70.41%.
4. About 68.22% had someone caring for children or elders during their absence, mainly daughters (43.78%) and spouses (25.30%). However, 50.3% received no help in household chores.
5. Almost half (47.22%) of the MWW felt their work negatively affected children.
6. Almost all (98.19%) the elders in the MWW's families were supportive of their employment.
7. A majority (61.2%) felt they played a very important role in household decision-making and 36.8% felt somewhat important, indicating increased empowerment.

Impact of COVID-19

1. Almost half (49.7%) of the MWW had lost their jobs during the lockdown. Of those who retained their jobs, more than half (63%) faced salary deductions.
2. Almost half (45.71%) of MWW managed their family expense by taking loans from people while 40.71% used up their savings. Employer help (2.38%) and community help (3.10%) were rare.
3. About 44.7% faced social stigma as carrier of virus after their reemployment while 55.3% were appreciated for their contribution in such difficult times.
4. Only 4.97% contracted COVID-19, but 51.2% considered it a severe threat. Vaccination coverage was high at 96.58% (Ponda 97.4%, Salcete 95.8%).
5. The pandemic caused severe financial stress, job insecurity, reduced savings and increased household responsibilities, deeply affecting women's economic and mental well-being.

Validation of Lee's Theory of Migration

1. Migration was mainly driven by economic reasons, as 28.08% of women experienced poor wages and 24.93% cited lack of job opportunities at the place of origin, while Goa attracted them with higher daily wages (Rs. 500–700 compared to Rs. 200–300 in home states).
2. More than two-thirds (70%) of women had low education levels which limited opportunities at origin, 7.53% migrated for children's education and 38.6% migrated due to marriage, showing that both economic and family factors influenced mobility.
3. Around 68% secured jobs through friends or acquaintances. Most (91.9%) rated their housing in Goa as satisfactory or good indicating that networks and acceptable living conditions supported migration and settlement.
4. Despite barriers such as long-distance travel, language and cultural difficulties, informal job search and social isolation, a majority of the MWW were in the economically active age group of 25–44 (74.5%) and 90.4% were married, indicating strong economic and social motivations behind migration.

Extent of Application of Ravenstein's Laws of Migration

1. The findings supported Ravenstein's view that most migrants moved short distances and were adults as more than half (60%) women came from neighbouring states and 74.5% were in the prime working age group.
2. Migration took place for economic reasons as more than half (53%) migrated for better wages (28.08%) and due to lack of job opportunities (24.93%) at the place of origin and settled in urban centres like Ponda and Margao where tourism, construction and services created demand for labour.
3. Migration occurred through step-like movement from villages to towns and 68% of women secured employment through social networks, showing the importance of informal support systems in facilitating migration.
4. The study highlighted counter-migration streams, as 13.7% planned to return home, after retirement.

Interrelationship among the Characteristics

Age and Education: The study showed a strong generational gap in education as none of the women aged 15–24 were illiterate while 85.71% of women aged 55 and above had no formal education.

Age and Duration of Employment: Work experience increased with age since most women aged 15–24 had less than two years of experience, while there was a sharp increase seen among women above 45 with more than eight years of employment.

Age and Working Hours: Around two-thirds of women aged 15–24 worked only for 3–5 hours per day whereas 28.6% of women aged 55 and above worked for more than eight hours daily.

Age and Distance Covered for Work: Younger women mostly worked near or from home while older women travelled 2–5 km for work and women aged above 55 travelled more than 10 km.

Age and Income: Majority of the women aged 15–24 earned between Rs. 3,000 and 6,000, while 57% of women aged 35 and above earned more than Rs. 6,000, showing higher income with age and experience.

Occupation and Income: A larger proportion of factory workers, helpers and saleswomen earned above Rs. 6,000, while many housemaids and tailors earned between Rs. 3,000 and 6,000 and some housemaids earned below Rs. 3,000.

Occupation and Commute to Work: The majority of housemaids, labourers and vendors walked to work, while most factory workers and saleswomen travelled by bus and only a small proportion, mostly labourers used employer-provided transport and a few saleswomen used personal two-wheelers.

Age and Duration of Stay: Younger women (15–24) mainly had short durations of stay of less than five years, while women aged 45 and above showed a much higher proportion of long-term residence.

Duration of Stay and Accommodation Type: Women who had stayed for less than five years lived in rented houses, while most of those who had stayed for more than 20 years owned their houses.

Duration of Stay and Duration of Employment: A large share of women staying less than five years had employment duration below two years, whereas longer stays (5–10 years and above) were linked to longer job tenure.

Occupation and Incentives by Employer: Incentives were mostly received by housemaids (41.15%), followed by factory workers (21.35%) and helpers (17.71%), while saleswomen, sweepers and housekeeping staff each accounted for less than 2%.

Age of MWW and Impact on Children: Almost half (47.23%) of women felt that their jobs had a negative impact on children, mostly among women aged 35–44.

Working Hours and Negative Impact on Children: Among women working 6–8 hours (47.89%), 25.29% felt that their jobs had a negative impact on children, while more than half of those working over eight hours (9.61%) reported similar concerns.

Occupation and Behaviour of Employer: Among housemaids, 14.71% experienced respectful treatment, 13.15% professional behaviour and 14.43% love and care, while only 0.14% of factory workers reported feeling suspicion from employers

Cluster Analysis of selected variables

Three distinct groups of women migrant workers emerged from cluster analysis.

1. Cluster 1 consisted of relatively stable workers engaged mainly in sales and retail, with moderate income, stable residence and family-oriented reasons for migration.
2. Cluster 2 included newly settled domestic workers with low income, weak employment security and migration driven largely by social reasons such as marriage or family support. Cluster 3 represented a comparatively empowered group of domestic workers who had higher income, longer duration of stay and greater self-reliance.
3. These clusters clearly showed that women migrant workers were not a homogenous group and that their level of vulnerability or stability varied based on education, work experience, duration of stay and type of employment.

Hypothesis Testing

1. There was a significant association between marital status and current occupation. Married women mostly took up jobs in domestic sector while unmarried women were mostly found in industrial and retail sector. In domestic sector, the women had flexibility of working hours and young mother chose to work lesser hours to care for

their families and looked after household responsibilities. While unmarried women worked for standard 6 to 8 hours.

2. There was an association between accommodation type and duration of stay. Women migrant workers who have lived for longer durations have lived in owned accommodation in comparison to those who have lived lesser years.
3. Age was associated with how long MWW stay, with some age groups staying longer than others. Individuals in the younger age groups (19.5 and 29.5 years) had significantly shorter stays compared to those in the older age groups (especially 49.5 and 59.5 years).
4. Duration of employment was associated with the working hours of MWW per day. MWW who have been working for longer duration worked longer hours per day compared to those who have worked for short duration.
5. There was a significant association between the duration of employment and the decision-making role at home among migrant women workers. Women working for longer duration had better say in household decisions.

Assessment of Fulfilment and Gaps in selected SDGs

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goals provided a broader picture of women migrant workers' wellbeing.

1. Overall SDG performance showed uneven progress within the applicable SDGs related to MWW.
2. SDG 6 (Clean Water and Sanitation) and SDG 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) recorded the highest level of fulfilment at 60%, mainly due to universal access to drinking water, electricity and partial access to transport and neighbourhood safety.
3. Moderate achievement was seen in SDG 10 (Reduced Inequalities) at 45% and SDG 1 (No Poverty) at 43%, reflecting ongoing challenges related to income insecurity, lack of social protection, limited housing quality and weak access to welfare schemes.
4. SDG 5 (Gender Equality) showed 42% fulfilment, indicating some participation in household decision-making and access to healthcare, but persistent issues related to wage inequality, lack of financial independence and absence from collective platforms.

5. The lowest fulfilment was observed in SDG 4 (Quality Education), SDG 8 (Decent Work) and SDG 17 (Partnerships), all below 30%, pointing to serious gaps in education, skill development, job security, career advancement and institutional support.

6.3 Summary and Conclusion

The present study has examined the socio-economic conditions, migration patterns and living experiences of women migrant workers in Goa.

Large proportion of women migrated over short distances from nearby states of Karnataka and Maharashtra followed by Andhra Pradesh. Urban areas attracted more women migrant workers. Marriage was as an important reason for migration alongside economic motivations. Married women were mainly employed in domestic work. Unmarried women were mostly in industrial, retail and service sector jobs involving longer working hours. Younger women in the age group of 15–24 years generally earned lower incomes, had shorter work experience and worked closer to home, often in part-time or informal jobs. Older women had higher income, longer employment and relatively better economic stability. Women's economic contribution improved their family decisions. Women migrant workers maintained a balance between earning and fulfilling family responsibilities. Three different groups of women migrant workers were identified from the cluster analysis showing that women migrant workers were not a homogenous group.

The assessment of Sustainable Development Goals provided a broader picture of women migrant workers' wellbeing, though the SDG performance showed uneven progress. SDG 6 (Clean Water and Sanitation) and SDG 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) recorded the highest level of fulfilment. Moderate achievement was seen in SDG 10 (Reduced Inequalities) and SDG 1 (No Poverty). SDG 5 (Gender Equality) showed partial fulfilment. The lowest fulfilment was observed in SDG 4 (Quality Education), SDG 8 (Decent Work) and SDG 17 (Partnerships) pointing to serious gaps in education, skill development, job security, career advancement and institutional support.

Employment conditions and employer incentives highlighted inequalities within the informal sector. Domestic workers received relatively more incentives. Employer's behaviour was generally respectful within informal employment.

Statistical tests supported the findings. Pearson correlation analysis revealed positive relationships between age, income, working hours and employment duration, indicating that

experience and job continuity were important for economic stability. The results strengthened the overall findings and validated the links between women's age, work conditions and decision-making power.

In conclusion, the women migrant workers in Goa are an integral part in Goa but were socially and economically vulnerable. While basic services such as water, electricity and neighbourhood safety were largely accessible to them, major challenges persisted in the areas of income security, education, progression in working opportunity, housing and social protection. Heavy dependence on informal social networks for employment highlighted the weakness of formal institutional support systems. Gender-based inequalities in wages, workload, occupational opportunities and decision-making in the family continued to limit women's empowerment.

The study has important policy implications. Improving the conditions of women migrant workers requires an integrated approach that includes stronger legal protection, access to social security, skill development programmes, gender-sensitive labour practices and inclusive regional planning. Enhancing institutional support, expanding affordable housing and sanitation facilities, etc. are essential for improving their economic and social wellbeing. Thus, the findings suggest the need for targeted policy interventions, improved institutional mechanisms and community-based empowerment initiatives to ensure that migration leads to improvements in the livelihoods and wellbeing of women migrant workers at destinations.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proposed for four main stakeholders: Policy Makers and State Government, NGOs and NPOs, Employers, and Researchers. These recommendations aim to improve the welfare, social security, and empowerment of women migrant workers (MWW) in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa, while providing insights applicable to other regions with similar migration patterns.

1. Policy Makers and State Government

- **Insurance Cover:** Only 9% of women reported having any form of insurance. Hence, comprehensive insurance schemes should be introduced to cover health, maternity, and accidental risks, providing protection against financial shocks.
- **Skill Development and Vocational Training:** While only 4% of women had access to skill or vocational training. Community-based adult education and short-term vocational training centres should be established in high-density migrant areas,

focusing on skills demanded in Goa's tourism, hospitality and domestic sectors, including housekeeping, tailoring, cooking and digital literacy.

- **Entrepreneurship and Financial Inclusion:** Micro-scale programs such as small home-based businesses or catering services should be promoted. Access to government schemes, including the MUDRA program, should be extended to MWW. With 67% unable to save due to low wages and irregular work, financial literacy programs should train women to manage multiple income sources effectively.
- **Housing and Sanitation:** Housing is inadequate for many with 57% living in poor-quality dwellings and 59% lacking proper sanitation. Affordable and safe housing clusters near workplaces should be developed with access to individual water connections, toilets and proper waste disposal facilities to enhance health and hygiene.
- **Social Protection and Participation:** Only 34% of women had access to ration cards or welfare schemes indicating major gaps. Social security documents should be provided to long-term residents. Participation in local self-help groups, cooperatives and governance forums should be encouraged to enhance empowerment and social recognition.

2. NGOs and Non-Profit Organisations

- **Awareness and Advocacy:** NGOs and NPOs should highlight visible and hidden disparities like wage gaps, unsafe working conditions and limited access to benefits. With 80% of women experiencing wage disparities and 92% lacking workplace safety, advocacy for fair wages and protective measures is necessary.
- **Orientation Programs:** Periodic awareness sessions should be conducted for the MWW on government schemes, labour rights, skill development and financial management. Training programs should target women who are currently excluded from skill-building opportunities (96%) and provide guidance on legal rights, social protection and employment-related benefits.
- **Support Networks:** NGOs should facilitate the creation of support networks for job information and crisis assistance. Though 65% currently rely on informal networks, the remaining 35% lack such support making them helpless during emergencies.

3. Employers

- **Employment Security and Contracts:** Many women are employed in informal work, with only 3% engaged in relatively stable jobs. Hence, employers should provide written contracts, regular payment schedules and formal recognition of work hours.
- **Fair Wages and Workplace Safety:** Wage parity initiatives should be implemented to reduce the 80% wage disparity among women. Only 8% reported adequate safety measures; thus, employers must ensure protective measures, proper rest spaces and sanitation facilities.
- **Supportive Practices:** Incentives like festival gifts and bonuses currently favour only certain occupations (e.g., housemaids received 41% of all incentives). Employers should adopt more inclusive support practices across all occupations to ensure equitable treatment, recognition and morale-boosting measures.

4. Researchers

- **Longitudinal Studies:** Further research should track changes in economic security, empowerment and social integration over time. This would help evaluate whether interventions such as skill development, housing support or insurance programs are effective.
- **Comparative Studies:** Studies should compare migrant women workers across different states, sectors and urban/rural areas to identify regional patterns and contextual challenges. Such research will aid in creating tailored, evidence-based policies.
- **Data Accessibility:** Given the limited availability of official data on migrant women in Goa, researchers should prioritize documenting employment, income, migration patterns and access to welfare services, supporting future policy formulation and program evaluation.

6.5 Social Relevance of the Study

This study on women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa holds strong social relevance as it focused on a group that is economically important yet socially vulnerable and often neglected in research and policy discussions. These MWW played a crucial role in sectors such as domestic work, cleaning, retail, small factories and service-

related activities. Their labour supported local households, businesses and the everyday functioning of these talukas. By documenting their migration patterns, work conditions and socio-economic status, the study brought visibility to their living experiences and highlighted issues that require policy and social attention. These findings are socially significant as they revealed the hidden costs of migration, especially its impact on family life and children's wellbeing. This study highlights the need for stronger government and community-level mechanisms such as employment facilitation centres, skill training programmes and awareness of labour rights. Improving these systems can reduce dependence on informal networks and improve working conditions.

The study's use of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) added further social relevance. The SDG-based assessment identified major gaps in education, decent work, gender equality, reduced inequalities and institutional support. Although access to basic services like water and electricity has improved, progress in job security, skill development and social protection was limited. These findings provide a clear framework for planners, policymakers and NGOs to identify priority areas for intervention. Linking local realities with SDGs helps connect women migrant workers' everyday struggles with broader development goals.

The focus on Ponda and Salcete talukas strengthened the study's relevance. These areas represent a mix of urban and rural settings with a high demand for migrant labour. The issues identified here reflect wider migration trends in Goa and many other parts of India. The findings are therefore applicable to similar regions where women migrant workers form a major part of the informal workforce. Information related to access to banking, healthcare, housing, sanitation and transport can guide policy responses in other states facing similar challenges.

To sum up, the study has contributed towards the need for improving the livelihoods, promoting social inclusion and enhancing the overall wellbeing of women migrant workers.

6.6 Outcomes of the Study

The study on women migrant workers in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa has brought out important outcomes highlighting both the economic contribution of women migrant workers and the multiple vulnerabilities they faced in everyday life. The outcomes are locally relevant and applicable to other regions with similar migration pattern. The cluster analysis identified three distinct groups of women migrant workers. The SDG-based assessment revealed uneven levels of wellbeing. It has provided useful inputs for policymakers, NGOs

and local authorities to design policies towards social security and family support systems for MWW.

6.7 Limitations

The scope of the study is specific and limited since the analysis was primarily based on responses collected from the target group. Consequently, the findings reflect the experiences of those who were available and willing to participate during the fieldwork, which may not fully represent the entire population of women migrant workers in the study area. Additionally, some responses were found to be inconsistent or difficult to verify. While efforts were made to establish rapport and ensure confidentiality, the reliability of some self-reported data might have influenced the findings. The study also faced limitations in secondary and official data sources. Finally, the study's geographical focus on Ponda and Salcete talukas limits the generalization of the findings in Goa or other states in India or other countries.

6.8 Future Scope of the Study

Despite the above- mentioned limitations, the study has provided an in-depth exploration of the literature, methodology and outcome of the policies that are available for the targeted section of the females. The challenges, coping strategies and well-being of women migrant workers in the selected areas have been highlighted. The present study is limited to women migrant workers residing and / or working in Ponda and Salcete talukas of Goa exclusively covering the women who have migrated from other states to Goa to be included in the study. The future scope of the study lies to analyse the migration experiences, employment conditions and socio-economic wellbeing of all women migrant workers in these two talukas or other talukas of the state or any other defined geographical boundaries elsewhere.

Hence, the study and its findings offer a foundation for further research and programmatic efforts to support this vulnerable section of population in India.

---------- END OF MAIN TEXT----------

LIST OF PHOTOPLATES



Ph. 1 MWW in Roadside Construction Work at Dhavali



Ph. 2 MWW in Roadside Construction Work at Colva



Ph. 3 MWW in Roadside Construction Work in Margao



Ph. 4 MWW as saleswoman at Colva Stall



Ph. 5 Saleswoman selling clothes at Ponda



Ph. 6 MWW selling vegetables at Margao



Ph. 7 Vendor selling vegetables at Shiroda



Ph. 8 MWW selling vegetables at Ponda



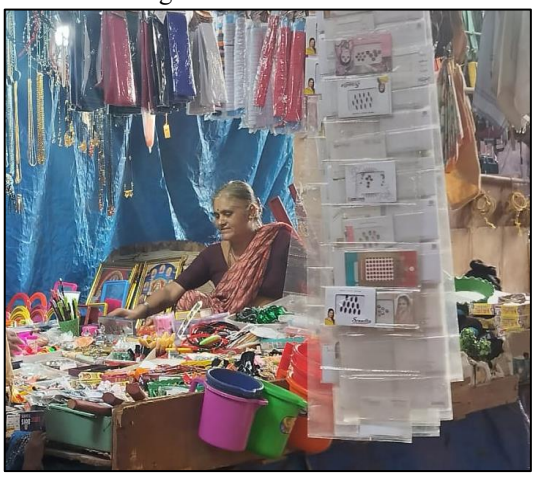
Ph. 9 Fruit Vendor at Margao Market



Ph. 10 Vegetable Vendor at Ponda Market



Ph. 11 MWW selling accessories at Banastari



Ph. 12 MWW selling accessories at Margao



Ph. 13 Street Vendor at Davorlim



Ph. 14 Vendors selling Kitchenware at Margao



Ph. 15 MWW collecting plastic waste for Scrap



Ph. 16 Living Conditions of MWW at Azadnagar slum, Margao



Ph. 17 Housing Conditions of MWW



Ph. 18 Housing Conditions of MWW in Ponda



Ph. 19 MWW living in Chawls in Rumdamol



Ph. 20 Meeting with the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Ponda



Ph. 21 A visit to the Office of Labour Commissioner, Margao



Ph. 22 Interviewing MWW at Margao



Ph. 23 A picture with MWW in Ponda during interview



Ph. 24 Interviewing a saleswoman at Cavelossim

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ANNEXURE I

Annexure Table 1 Achievement and Gaps in Achieving Sustainable Development Goals

SDG	Goal	Themes	Indicators	Achieved	Not Achieved	Total % Achieved	Total % Not Achieved
SDG 1 – No Poverty	End poverty in all its forms everywhere	Economic Security, Social Protection & Finance, Basic Needs	Income	52	48	43	57
			Nature of employment	3	97		
			Job continuity	26	74		
			Debt burden	41	59		
			Access to ration card/PDS, Schemes	34	66		
			Bank account	70	30		
			Savings	33	67		
			Insurance	9	91		
			Housing quality	43	57		
			Sanitation	41	59		
			Safe drinking water	100	0		
			Ownership of assets	59	41		
SDG 4 – Quality Education	Ensure broad and just quality education	Personal Education, Skill Development, Children's Education, Barriers	Educational attainment	54	46	29	71
			Access to adult skill/vocational training	4	96		
SDG 5 – Gender Equality	Achieve gender equality & empower all women and girls	Household Level, Workplace, Community Level, Health & Safety	Decision-making in household	61	39	42	58
			Control over personal earnings	33	67		
			Support with household chores and caregiving	59	41		
			Wage parity with men	20	80		
			Exposure to harassment/discrimination	64	36		
			Membership in self-help groups (SHGs)	0	100		
			Political/community participation	0	100		
			Access to Healthcare	100	0		
			Access to proper sanitation and hygiene	41	59		

SDG	Goal	Themes	Indicators	Achieved	Not Achieved	Total % Achieved	Total % Not Achieved
SDG 6 – Clean Water & Sanitation	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation	Water Access, Sanitation, Waste & Hygiene	Availability of safe drinking water	100	0	60	40
			Source type	42	58		
			Regularity of supply	100	0		
			Toilet facility (own/shared/open defecation	46	54		
			Household waste disposal	10	90		
			Drainage facilities	60	40		
SDG 8 – Decent Work & Economic Growth	Promote inclusive & sustainable economic growth, employment & decent work	Employment, Wages, Work Conditions, Opportunities	Type of work	3	97	29	71
			Regularity of job	3	97		
			Fair wage vs. exploitative pay	57	43		
			Timely payment	76	24		
			Working hours	84	16		
			Occupational safety	8	92		
			Access to skill training	4	96		
			Promotion prospects	0	100		
SDG 10 – Reduced Inequalities	Reduce inequality within and among countries	Economic Inequality, Social Inequality, Access Inequality, Mobility	Unequal access to benefits	18	82	45	55
			Discrimination due to migrant status	50	50		
			Barriers in accessing government schemes	4	96		
			Healthcare	100	0		
			Restrictions on movement	65	35		
			Lack of legal IDs	34	66		
SDG 11 – Sustainable Cities & Communities	Make cities inclusive, safe, resilient & sustainable	Housing, Basic Services, Urban Infrastructure, Safety & Resilience	Type of house (pucca/kutcha, rented/owned)	16	84	60	40
			No. of rooms	30	70		
			Access to electricity	100	0		
			Tap water	100	0		
			Waste disposal	20	80		
			Proximity to workplace	66	34		
			Access to affordable transport	70	30		
			Neighbourhood safety	97	3		
			Disaster resilience	42	58		
SDG 17 – Partnerships for the Goals	Strengthen partnerships for sustainable development	Institutional Support, Government-NGO Linkages, Networks, Information Access	Support from NGOs, church/temple groups	5	95	25	75
			Participation in training/workshops	4	96		
			Social networks for job information, crisis support	65	35		

ANNEXTURE II

Questionnaire

CLUSTER RESEARCH CENTRE IN GEOGRAPHY
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Affiliated to Goa University, accredited by NAAC with 'A+' Grade
Email: gcasck@rediffmail.com www.khandolacollege.edu.in

Goa University Registration No. 201106796

Topic A Geographical Analysis of Socio-Economic Status of Migrant Women Labour-Force in Coastal and Inland Areas of Goa: An Empirical Study of Salcete and Ponda Talukas.

Respected Informed Choice Respondents

This is to our honour to inform you that we have taken up a Ph. D. Research topic as above and embarking upon understanding various aspects of migrant female Labour Force in Goa, which will help us to propose some policy measures to the Govt. of Goa for recognising their contribution to the development of Goa and requesting the Govt. for safeguarding the interest of the female migrant labour force so that they enjoy the dignity of labour.

Towards this end, we shall expect your kind cooperation in responding the present questionnaire in an honest and fearless ways because we shall use the informed responses only for our academic purposes and shall not share any of the individual responses to anybody and for any other purpose. Looking forward to your kind help in this matter. Regards,

Research Scholar: Ms. Vijaya Nemikal
Email: vnemikal@gmail.com
Mob. 9284426712

Guide: Dr. Prabir Kumar Rath
Email:prathgcasck@gmail.com
Mob.8668307829

PILOT FIELD WORK QUESTIONNAIRE CUM RESPONSE SCHEDULE

1. **A. Respondent's Profile**

Sr. No.	Respondents Profile	
1	Name (Optional)	
2	Date of birth / Age	
3	Address	
4	Mobile No.	
5	Email Id (If any)	
6	Marital Status	Married
		Unmarried
7	Religion	Hindu
		Muslim
		Christian
		Other
8	Education Level	Primary
		Secondary
		HSSC
		Graduate
		Diploma
		Other
11	Languages Known	

1. **B. Current Occupational Details**

1. **Nature of work:**

Permanent	Temporary	Casual	Daily Wage Basis

2. **Place of work:**

3. **Period of work:**

< 2 Years	2 years – 4 years	4 years – 6 years	6 years – 8 years	> 8 years

4. **Working hours (timing):**

5. **Distance Covered for work:**

6. **Payment received:**

Daily	Monthly

If Daily, what is the amount received?

Below Rs 200	Rs 200 - Rs 500	Above Rs 500

7. **If Monthly, what is the amount received?**

Below Rs 3000	Rs 3000 - Rs 6000	Above Rs 6000

1. **C. Previous Employment Occupational Details (if any)**

1. **Nature of work:**

Permanent	Temporary	Casual	Daily Wage Basis

2. **Place of work:**

3. **Period of work:**

< 2 Years	2 years – 4 years	4 years – 6 years	6 years – 8 years	> 8 years

4. **Working hours (timing):**

5. **Distance Covered for work:**

6. **Payment received:**

Daily	Monthly

7. **If Daily, What was the amount received?**

Below Rs 200	Rs 200 - Rs 500	Above Rs 500

8. **If Monthly, what was the amount received?**

Below Rs 3000	Rs 3000 - Rs 6000	Above Rs 6000

9. **Why did you leave the previous job?** _____

10. **What is the distance covered to work?** _____

11. **How do you commute to work?**

Bus	Own Vehicle	By walk	Employer provide pick and drop	Any Other, Specify

2. **Present type of accommodation:**

Own	Rented

3. **What is the monthly rent amount paid by you?**

Below Rs 3000	Rs 3000 – Rs 6000	Above Rs 6000

4. **Had you paid any deposit money? Please specify: _____**
5. **Nature of the house:**

Flat	Thatched House	Coconut Roof House	Asbestos Roof/ Steel or tinned roof house

6. **How many rooms are available?**

1 - 2	2-4	More than 4

7. **Overall condition of the house as per researcher's observation:**

Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Dilapidated	Miserable

8. **How did you get the job?**

Newspaper Ad	Friend's contact	Through Contractor	Through NGO	Any other, Specify

9. **Which is your place of origin? (Mention the name of the State):**
10. **Since when are you living in Goa?**

< 5 years	5 -10 years	10-15 years	15-20 years	> 20 years

11. **What was the reason for your migration to Goa?**

Marriage	Education	Relative's Call	Better Wages	Lack of job opportunities at native place	Any Other, Specify

<u>Pattern of Expenditure and Saving</u>

12. **What is your total household expenditure from your salary in a month?**

Below Rs 3000	Rs 3000-Rs 6000	Above Rs 6000

13. **Are you able to save some amount from your earning every day or every month?**

Yes	No

If yes, around how much daily?

Below Rs 100	Rs 100 – Rs 200	Rs 200 – Rs 500	Above Rs 500

14. **Do you have a bank account?**

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>

15. **In which bank do you have an account?**

Nationalised	Local

16. **Do you send any remittance back to your native place?**

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>

17. **Due to your job, are you able to give enough time to your family especially children?**

Yes	No

If No, how is the children's behaviour towards you?

Angry	Sad	Don't Listen to you anymore	Good	No Change

18. **Are the elders in your household happy with your job?**

Yes	No

If No why?

19. **How do the elders treat you as a result of your job?**

Good	Bad	No Change

20. **Who takes care of the children and / or the elderly in your absence?**

Spouse	In laws	Any Other, Specify

21. **Do you think that your job has a negative impact on your children with respect to health and education?**

Yes	No

If Yes, What kind of Impact? _____

22. **In your absence, do the other house members carry out your household work like cooking, washing, sweeping, swabbing, etc. or have to do after coming back?**

Yes	No

If yes, who does? _____

23. **How is your status in the family as a decision-maker for expenditure, education, other?**

Very important decision-maker	Somewhat important	No importance

24. **How do people treat you when you visit native place?**

Treat you with respect	Treat Badly	No Change

25. **How do the locals behave with you?**

Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Very Bad

26. **How do people consider you in this locality?**

With dignity and respect	With love and care	No respect and neglect	No interference

27. **How do your colleagues treat you?**

As equals	As inferior	As suspect	Any other

28. **How does the employer treat you?**

With dignity and respect	Very professional without affection	With love and care	With suspicion as stealer or cheat

29. **Does anybody tease you while commuting to work?**

Yes	No

30. **What are the incentives the employer gives other than salary?**

Gifts during festivals	Transport allowance	No deduction of pay	Advance Salary & Loans	Medicines and other essentials	Bonuses

31. **What is the medium of communication with the employer and colleagues?**

English	Hindi	Konkani	Marathi	Combination of Languages

32. **What are your future plans related to the present employment?**

Continue for a long time	Continue till better opportunity	Will quit soon	Will return back to native place after sometime	Will return to native place at old age / retirement

Covid 19 related questions

33. **How do you perceive Covid 19?**

Severely dangerous	Dangerous	Not bothered	No Comment

34. **Have you contracted Covid 19?**

Yes	No

If yes, when? _____

35. **Have you taken vaccination?**

Yes	No

If no, Why? _____

36. **Did the employer terminate your job during the lockdown?**

Yes	No

If Yes, How did you cope with the situation?

37. **Did the employer lower your salary during the lockdown?**

Yes	No

If Yes, How did you manage the expenses?

38. **After resumption to work, how do the people treat you?**

As carrier of virus	As a saviour from corona related Stress

39. **Is there any future threat to your job due to Covid 19?**

Yes	No

40. **What are your expectations from the employer?**

---

41. **What are your expectations from the local government?**

---

42. **What are your major problems?**

---

43. **Do you have any suggestions for the welfare of the female migrant workers?**

---

44. **Miscellaneous Questions**

a. **Do you get any govt assistance? (Allowance)**

Yes	No

b. **Do you have ration card?**

Yes	No

c. **Do you have BPL card?**

Yes	No

d. **Do you have any personal insurance for financial safety?**

Yes	No

e. **Do you give any chanda/ hafta/ donation to any local politician leader or authority or society?**

Yes	No

45. Visible Assets and Appliances

Decent House	**Yes**	**No**		
Vehicles	Yes	No	Two-Wheeler (Nos)	Four-Wheeler (Nos)
Refrigerator	Yes	No		
Television	Yes	No	LED	Normal
Mobile Phone	Yes	No	Android	Manual
Furniture	Yes	No		
Tap water connection inside the house	Yes	No		
Electrical fittings and appliances	Yes	No	AC	Lights

46. Reason(s) for Working:

By Choice	To pass time	To support family	Safety during loneliness	To become self sufficient	For respect and value in family and society

Sr. No	Name	Age	Relationship with respondent	Education Level	Occupation	Marital Status	Languages Known

Ms. Vijaya Nemikal

ANNEXTURE III

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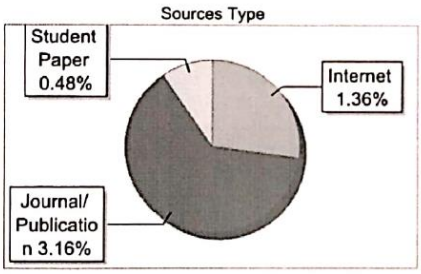
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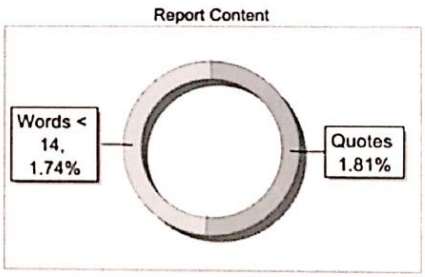
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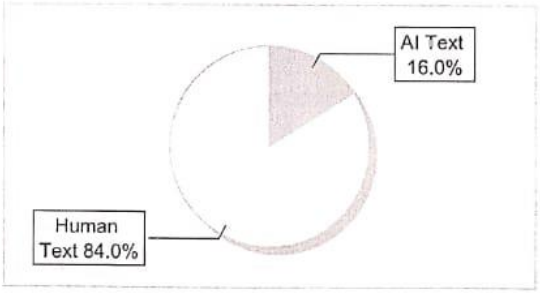
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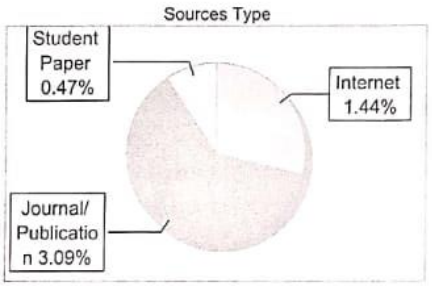
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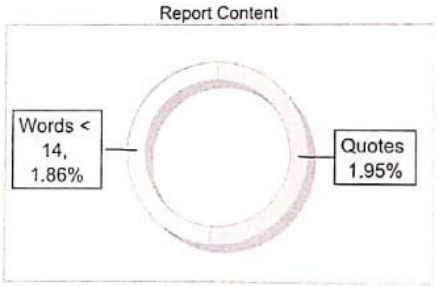
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P. G. Dept. & Cluster Research Centre
Govt. College, Khandola
Marcela - Goa, PIN: 403107

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ANNEXTURE IV

Index of Published Research Papers during the course of the Ph. D. Work

Sr. No.	Year	Title of the Research Paper	Journal/Publisher	Type	ISSN/ISBN
1	2025	Socio-Economic Profile, Work Environment and Concerns of Inter-State Migrant Women Workers in Ponda Taluka of Goa"	Demography India	UGC CARE listed Journal	0970-454X
2	2024	Gender, Migration and Informal Employment: A Study of Migrant Women in Salcete Taluka, Goa	Anvesak	UGC-CARE listed	0378 4568
3	2024	Women Migrant Workers in Urban Areas of Ponda Taluka, Goa: An Empirical Study	Sanshodhak	UGC CARE Listed Journal	2394-5990
4	2020	A Geographical Study of Female Migrant Domestic Workers in Margao-Goa	Akshar Wangmay, International Research Journal	UGC-CARE Listed, Peer Reviewed Journal	2229-4929
5	2024	A Reflection of Female Migrant Workers in Ponda Taluka of Goa	KHOJ, An International Peer Reviewed Journal of Geography	Peer Reviewed Journal	2350-1359
6	2023	A Geographical Study of Women Migrant Workers of Salcete and Ponda Talukas	The Konkan Geographer	Interdisciplinary Peer Reviewed Refereed National Research Journal	2277-4858
7	2025	Socio-Economic Condition of Women Migrant Workers in Selected Towns and Villages of Salcete Taluka in	Conference proceedings of People, Environment and Sustainable Development	GVYT College, Durg, Chhattisgarh	978-31-982115-7-6

		Goa: An Empirical Study			
8	2025	Interstate Women Migrant Workers' Socio-Economic Status and Occupational Justice: A Study of Salcete Taluka of Goa"	International Journal of Contemporary Research in Multidisciplinary	Peer Reviewed Journal	2583-7397
9	2025	Contributions of Migrant Women Workers in Tourism Activities of Goa	Tourism Potential in India and Viksit Bharat	Conference Proceedings	978-81-990406-8-7
9	2020	Socio-Economic Status of Migrant Women Labour Force in Goa: A Literature based analysis	International Review of Business and Economics	Peer Reviewed Journal	2474-5138
10	2020	Women Emigration and its impact on their Families in Goa: A Case Study of Usgao Village	Geographical Analysis	Peer Reviewed Journal	2319-5371

ANNEXTURE V

Index of Research Papers Presented during the course of the Ph. D. Work

Sr. No.	Date	Title of the Research Paper	Conference/ Seminar	Organizer
1	21st February 2020	Employment among Female Migrants: a study of Female Migrant Workers in Margao-Goa	the 3rd International Geography Conference, Goa	Department of Geography & Research Centre, Government College, Khandola-Goa
2	July 2020	Socio-Economic Status of Migrant Women Labour Force in Goa: A Literature based Analysis	Online International Conference	IRBE Publications, Denver, USA
3	December 2020	A Geographical Study of Female Migrant Domestic Workers in Margao-Goa	One Day Multidisciplinary International	Shree Mallikarjun & Shri. Chetan Manju Desai College, Delem, Canacona, Goa
4	July 29 to 31, 2021	Impact of COVID-19 Waves on Female Migrant Domestic Workers in Margao-Goa	95th IGS Annual Conference	Online
5	11-12th March 2023	A Geographical Study of Women Migrant Workers of Salcete and Ponda Talukas	16th National Conference, Konkan Geographers' Association of India	P. G. Department of Geography, Govt. College, Khandola-Marcela, Goa
6	17th April 2023	Implications of Female Migrants' Employment on the Children and Family: An Empirical Study of Salcete and Ponda Talukas in Goa	One Day National Seminar	PES's Ravi S. Naik College of Arts and Science, Farmagudi, Goa
7	14th to 16th December 2023	Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of Migrant Labours in Hospitality Industry of Coastal Villages of Pernem Taluka in Goa	45th Indian Geography Congress, International Conference	SPPU, Pune
8	29th to 31st July 2024	Understanding the Life of Migrant Women Labour Force using Geospatial Technologies: A Case Study of Ponda Taluka, Goa	DST, Govt. of India, New Delhi Sponsored Geo Innovation Challenge	Department of Geography, Sophia Girl's College (Autonomous), Ajmer, Rajasthan
9	October 04-05, 2024	Interstate Women Migrant Workers' Socio-Economic Status and Occupational	International Conference	Desert Research Association (DRA), Jodhpur

		Justice: A Study of Salcete Taluka of Goa		
10	18 to 19th October 2024	Socio-Economic Condition of Women Migrant Workers in Selected Towns and Villages of Salcete Taluka in Goa: An Empirical Study	National Seminar	GYVT College, Durg, Chhatisgarh
11	November 15th – 16th, 2024	Migrant Women Labourers and the Sustainable Development Goals: Analyzing their Working and Living Conditions in Salcete Taluka of Goa	International Conference	Shaheed Bhagat Singh College, University of Delhi
12	23rd December 2024	Gender, Migration and Informal Employment: A Study of Migrant Women in Salcete Taluka, Goa	National Conference	Anjuman Arts, Science, Commerce College & P.G. Studies, on
13	27th to 29th December 2024	A Study of the Living and Working Conditions of Migrant Women Factory Workers in the Industrial Estates of Kundaim and Marcaim Villages of Ponda Taluka in Goa	46th Indian Geography Congress (NAGI)	Osmania University, Hyderabad
14	22 and 23 January 2025	Gendered Migration: The Experiences of Female Migrant Laborers in Ponda Taluka, Goa	XXIII Bhopal Seminar	Online
15	11th March 2025	Contributions of Migrant Women Workers in Tourism of Goa	One Day National Seminar	Appasaheb Jedhe Arts, Commerce & Science College, Pune
16	12th to 13th March 2025	A Geospatial Study of The Living and Working Conditions of Migrant Women in Two Villages Near Industrial Estates of Ponda Taluka in Goa	Two Day National Conference	Parvatibai Chowgule College of Arts and Science (Autonomous
17	17th March 2025	Resilience and Preparedness of Migrant Women Workers in Negotiating Precarious Situations in Ponda Taluka of Goa: A COVID-19 Pandemic Reflection	International Conference	KVSM Govt. College Nedumangad & Govt. College, Sanquelim-Goa
18	19-20 December 2025	Women Migrant Workers in Goa and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Study of their Socio-Economic Status, Living Situations and Working Conditions	International Conference, "GeoVision 2025"	Department of Geography and Geoinformatics, Bangalore University

ANNEXTURE VI

Index of Research Methodology / Capacity Building Courses attended during the course of the Ph. D. Work

Sr. No.	Course Title	Organizing Institution	Duration	Mode	Date
1	Certificate Course in GIS	Department of Geography, Govt. College Khandola, Marcela - Goa			19th March to 9th June 2022
2	ICSSR Sponsored "12 days Capacity Building Programme on Research Methodology for Faculty in Social Sciences"	IGNOU Regional Centre Panaji, Goa and Goa State Research Foundation (GSRF	12 days	Physical	08th to 19th September 2025
3	One Day State Level Workshop on "Research Paper Structure and Typesetting Tools (LATEX)	Cluster Research Centre in Economics, Govt. College, Sanquelim in collaboration with Goa State Research Foundation (GSRF)	One Day	Physical	27th March 2025
4	Research Grant Writing Workshop	Goa State Higher Education Council, Goa State Research Foundation and Directorate of Higher Education	One Day	Physical	9th September 2023

5	One Day State Level Workshop on "Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Pascal Statistical Procedures Package (PSPP)"	Department of Mathematics, Govt. College, Khandola – Goa	One Day	Physical	6th January 2024
6	Faculty Development Programme on 'Participatory Methods in Research & Education'	MIT School of Government in association with Government College, Sanquelim	One Day	Physical	23rd August 2022
7	Virtual Research Methodology Course	SIWS College, Wadala, Mumbai	5 Days	Virtual	October 2021

ANNEXTURE VII

KEY WORDS

1. Associational Migration
2. Autonomy
3. Better Employment
4. Casual employment
5. Casual Labour
6. Collective Participation
7. Cosmopolitan
8. Counter Streams
9. COVID 19 Pandemic
10. Credit system
11. Decision-Making Role
12. Discrimination
13. Displacement
14. Domestic Work
15. Economic Opportunities
16. Education
17. Empowerment
18. Entrepreneurship
19. Exploitation
20. Feminization
21. Gender Disparities
22. Globalised
23. Grievance Mechanisms
24. Harassment
25. Healthcare Facilities
26. Hospitality
27. Household Responsibilities
28. Informal Sectors
29. International Labour Organization (ILO)
30. International Organization for Migration (IOM)

31. Job Insecurity
32. Labour Migration
33. Legal Protection
34. Lower Wages
35. Low-skilled Labour
36. Marginalization
37. Occupational Segregation
38. Pandemic
39. Persecution
40. Personal Networks
41. Place of Destination
42. Place of Origin
43. Remittance
44. Rented Accommodations
45. Resilience
46. Salary Reductions
47. Shared Facilities
48. Social Barriers
49. Social Discrimination
50. Social Inclusion
51. Social Isolation
52. Socio-Economic Status
53. Structural Barriers
54. Sustainable Development Goals
55. Trafficking
56. Underrepresented
57. United Nations (UN)
58. Unskilled-Labour
59. Vulnerability
60. Wage Parity
