7.1. INTRODUCTION

There has been an increase in the unequal distribution of wealth and income among socio-economic groups which is reflected in the higher incidence of urban poverty in India. Inspite of all the employment planning efforts taken in our country during the past four decades, the presence of vast pool of job-seekers and the growing phenomenon of unemployment indicates that the policies have become relatively ineffective in tackling such problems. Moreover, in the absence of effective manpower planning, the cumulative growth of job-seekers becomes a complex phenomenon.

Given the existence of disparities in wages and other types of labour market rewards between otherwise equally productive individuals in the labour market an appropriate empirical research may go a long way in explaining the presence of such disparities in labour market rewards in India. Hence we feel that it is necessary to find out the difference in the treatment of worker characteristics on mobility between segments and earnings within segments where segments are defined not only in terms of jobs but in terms of types of industries. To explain the phenomenon of poverty, unemployment, income inequality and discrimination in Indian context, it is highly essential to conduct in-depth studies with respect to the functioning of labour market, the factors of earnings determination and the process of income distribution.

The main objectives of our study were: to understand the nature and structure of Coimbatore labour market, to analyse the earnings, mobility, and occupational choice of the industrial workers and their determinants and to investigate whether the Coimbatore labour market was segmented.
To understand the theoretical base and issues involved in these objectives and problems, theoretical and empirical reviews related to the aspects of this study were made. The review provided the necessary insight into the dimensions of the problem under study and requirement to make thorough investigation of the problem. To fulfill the objectives in the absence of availability of dependable secondary data, primary data becomes necessary. Hence, we collected data during the period 1995-1996 from a sample of 346 industrial workers of Coimbatore labour market covering both organised and unorganised sectors from the randomly selected sample of workers from Textile and Engineering industry.

We have analysed the earnings, mobility and occupational choice among workers by applying regression techniques for the earnings function, logit method for occupational choice (SPSS Package) and Tobit method for occupational mobility (SHAZAM package) respectively. Based on the analysis we shall here present the findings of our study and try to relate with other studies. These findings are presented here in three sections. Before analysing these aspects in detail let us have a brief look on the structure of Coimbatore urban labour market.

7.2. STRUCTURE OF COIMBATORE URBAN LABOUR MARKET

For our sample we have covered both the textile and engineering industrial workers, which include organised and unorganised sector as well as permanent and temporary category workers. When the distribution of workers were analysed among the sectors we found that most of the workers in the textile industry belong to the organised sector. The permanent workers in the unorganised sector were considered as regular workers and temporary as casual workers.

Substantial majority of the workers prefer to stay around their working place. About 60 percent of our sample respondents fall below 30 years age group. A majority of
the workers were Tamilians who speak other languages also. Similarly the religious composition of our sample workers revealed that about 94 per cent of them were Hindus, 5.2 per cent were Christians and 0.6 per cent were Muslims. In all the classifications the percentage of workers belonging to Backward Caste community was higher than others. A higher percentage of workers from village and city belong to organised sector. It may be noted that in this case of the percentage of temporary workers was more in all the classification of workers.

About 40 per cent of the sample workers were from adjoining villages of Coimbatore. The number of workers belonging to Coimbatore city was only 31.5 per cent. About 36 per cent of fathers of our sample workers were illiterate.

Among our sample workers about 85 percent had general education 11 per cent had Technical education and 4 per cent were Illiterates. However, relatively more engineering, unorganised and temporary workers had technical education than their counterparts. Data revealed that in average in textile industry the level of educational attainment of workers was less than in engineering industry. Likewise among the workers in unorganised and temporary workers had in average level of education than the organised and permanent workers. A large number of workers who dropped out from school were working in organised sector. In the case of the workers holding permanent/temporary job, the percentage of non-drop outs holding permanent job was higher than in temporary job. In addition to that workers who had discontinued their education were asked about the reasons for the same. We came to know that among all the classification of workers, invariably the single major reason for dropout was family occupation. So it may be interpreted that the opportunity cost of attending school would have been high enough to withdraw from school.
The classification of our workers revealed that a majority of the workers were untrained. Irrespective of the classification, in all the groups, the percentage of workers with no formal qualification was more as compared to workers with other forms of qualification.

7.3. CURRENT JOB PARTICULARS

Here, we shall look into the current job particulars of our sample workers in brief. For the question how our respondents secured their job, the replies of the respondents revealed that two thirds of them earned the job with the help of their friends/relatives. Around twenty per cent of them earned it by contacting the employer directly. Employment exchange and Advertisement had played their role only in about five and three per cent of the respondents cases respectively. Regarding the scale of enterprises, most of the engineering and permanent workers belong to medium size enterprises while a higher percentage of unorganised and temporary workers belong to small size of enterprises.

To know the length of stay of service for the workers we found that out of our 346 sample workers, 28 per cent of them had put in below 1 year in the present job while 43 per cent of them put in 1 to 6 years and 29 per cent of the rest had the service above 6 years. A more percentage of workers belong to textile industry, permanent category and organised nature had more years of service in the present job.

Based on the number of hours sample workers work per day we found that a substantial majority of the workers have eight hours work only per day. Only a negligible number of workers have more than 8 hours of work per day. Irrespective of the classifications, a majority of the workers have an eight hours work per day. About 95 per cent of them work 6 days per week while rest work all the week days without break. Temporary workers in Textile industry work all the 7 days than in other categories.
Through our survey we tried to find out the spread of trade union membership among various categories of the labour force. It was found that for both the textile and engineering industry, a majority of the workers were not trade union members. In the case of unorganised and temporary workers only around 10 percent were members of trade union throughout all their employment period. In the case of permanent workers membership in trade union by current workers increased around three times that of previous job and more than two times that of first job. So about 77 per cent of workers in present job under permanent category were members of the union.

Workers in our sample were asked whether they were covered by the provision of any labour legislation within enterprises they were employed in. The results showed that about 68 and 55 per cent workers in textile and engineering industry respectively were employed in labour laws protected jobs which was more than double the proportion of workers during previous and first job. So we found that proportion of people covered under labour laws increased as well as more proportion of workers secured the permanent status over years.

We have collected the details of labour market experience, the length of period after our sample workers entered the world of work. We found that about one third of our sample had labour market experience up to 3 years, while 47 per cent of them had more than 7 years of labour market experience. However when we look at the duration of labour market experience of our sample according to category we found that in textile industry and among organised workers about 62 per cent and under permanent category, about 72 per cent had participated in more than 7 years of experience in the labour market. Whereas in engineering, unorganised and temporary worker category, sizable proportion of workers worked less than three years.

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We were interested to know about the additional services and payment received by the workers other than the wage or salaries. The additional allowances received by our sample workers were Bonus, House rent allowances, Lunch allowance, Travel allowance, Medical allowance (ESI) and Loan facilities.

It was also appeared that only permanent category and organised sector workers were paid travel allowances. Even among them not all but much small proportion among them were paid the Travel allowance. About 70 per cent of the workers were out of the net of ESI (Employees State Insurance) benefits. This was so in the case of engineering industry, organised workers, unorganised workers and temporary workers. However, in the case of permanent workers, about 59 percentage of workers received ESI benefits.

Providing loan facilities was an institutional arrangement which were uniform but not all workers were covered. This was evident from the fact that about 37 per cent of our workers had that facility while majority did not have. Among the sample higher proportion of permanent category and organised sector and working in textile industry received such facility over other categories.

We have collected informations regarding the expectations for workers in the present job. It may be noted that the desire of the majority (77%) of the workers was for increased monetary benefits from the current job. Only 14 percent had ambition to get higher social status whereas hardly 9 per cent had motivation to improve his skill.

With the purpose of knowing what proportion of our sample workers have registered for employment exchange was revealed that only 22 per cent had registered with employment exchanges. While vast majority not bothered to do so.
7.4. EARNINGS PROFILE OF WORKERS

Earnings inequality is a special case of the income distribution question as it is exclusively concerned with income derived from the sale of labour services. We have analysed the earnings of the sample workers to know the differences in earnings among the workers. For the mode of payment we found that around three fifth of our sample were paid the salary/wage on monthly basis and one fifths of them on weekly basis and another one fifth of them by daily. Daily and weekly wage payment was more or less equal to monthly wage payment in textile industry. In the case of unorganized, temporary industry workers daily and weekly payments of wages prevailed.

We made an attempt to gain knowledge on what changes were realised by our sample workers on their earnings due to mobility. So we have considered three jobs. Among the different jobs held by them and compared the range of income received and found that over a period of time percentage of workers in the lower range of income declined and correspondingly percentage of workers in the higher range of income increased.

We found that in the current job 49 percentage of workers earned Rs.26 to 50 per day. While in the previous and first job comparatively a higher percentage of workers (56 per cent and 72 percent) earned up to Rs.25 per day. Hence, it was clear that except in the current job, in all the previous jobs, the workers were paid very less amount. It was also clear that workers moved one job to another because of higher earnings. This was evident from the proportion of our samples at lower brackets of income in the previous and first job.

7.5. DETERMINANTS OF EARNINGS IN COIMBATORE URBAN LABOUR MARKET

To estimate the determinants of earnings of our sample workers of Coimbatore urban labour market a semi-logarithmic earnings function was fitted. The relation between logarithmic earnings to workers' education, experience, (time spent on labour
market) training (Human Capital Variables) religion, caste, location of the job. (Workers Background Variables) and some industry-specific, job characteristics such as whether or not labour laws apply and sector of employment were attempted.

We have considered for analytical purposes the sample workers in to four ways.

i) All workers as a single group.

ii) According to the type of industry where they were employed - as Textile and Engineering workers.

iii) Based on the sector in which employed as organised and unorganised sector workers.

iv) According to the nature of work they perform -as Permanent and Temporary.

And estimated the determinants of earnings for those four set of classified workers.

a) Determinants of Earnings for all the industrial workers.

b) Determinants of Earnings for Textile and Engineering workers (for each group separately)

c) Determinants of Earnings for organised and unorganised workers. (for each sector of workers separately)

d) Determinants of Earnings for Regular (permanent) and Casual (temporary) workers.

The results shall be discussed in the following section.

a) Determinants of earnings for all the industrial Workers

The results partially support the human capital model of Neo classical labour market (NLM) view that earnings variations were partly explained by variations in workers' human capital such as experience (age as proxy, i.e time spent on labour market) and education (Becker 1964; Mincer, 1974). Our findings are similar to that of the findings of Andrisani (1973), Velloso (1975), Clignet (1976). Meyhew and Rosewell (1979) and McNabb (1981).
Among the workers background variables, castes (FC, BC/MBC) had a negative impact on earnings. Forward caste was significant (for Forward caste) as compared to SC/ST on earnings. The location (rural) of a job was significant on earnings as compared to the urban sector. When father's occupation was agriculture, or worker in manufacturing unit had negative influences on earnings compared to fathers employed in other jobs. In general Trade union membership improved the earnings of industrial workers. Increased earnings may result from the positive feedback of a union, as suggested by Segmented Labour Market (SLM) model. Religion did not influence worker's earnings in the industrial sector.

Based on the results of the industry specific characteristics, the variable textile category of industry has negative relation with earnings. The other variables such as nature of work and scale of enterprises also found having significant. An industry's scale of operation increase worker's earnings in the industrial sector and the earnings may suggest that benefits were more in large scale enterprises. Our findings are similar to that of the findings of Dipak Mazumdar and Misoori, (1978). So among the industry specific variables category of industry, nature of work and size of units had significantly influenced the variables.

b) Determinants of Earnings for Textile and Engineering industrial workers

Experience (age) had significantly influenced the earnings of the textile workers as well as the engineering workers. However, age or experience influenced textile workers positively and engineering workers negatively. This indicates that in Engineering industry younger the age of worker greater the scope of productivity, adaptability to changing needs of firms and thereby higher payments by employers. Unlike textile industry where more experience contribute for increase in a workers efficiency wherein engineering industry mobility among variety of jobs might not have any positive value for experience.
The Education variables did not have significant influence on earnings of both textile and engineering workers. Training improved worker's earnings in the textile industry, whereas it influenced the engineering industry workers negatively but not significant. The results indicate that even after controlling for the effects of job-related and other characteristics, human capital variables other than age and age square had not significantly influenced earnings of both textile and engineering industrial workers.

Caste as one of the worker's background variables had found negative influence on the earnings of both textile and engineering industrial workers but not significant as compared to the reference variable SC/ST. Religion (Hindus) did not influence worker's earnings in both the industry.

The migration status measured the impact of the length of stay in Coimbatore on a worker's earnings. Interestingly Worker's length of stay in Coimbatore had no influence on their earnings. This finding appears consistent with the findings of Brazilian and Columbian data (Yap 1976; Ribe 1979).

Education and occupation of father had not influenced the earnings of engineering workers whereas in the case of textile workers occupation of father influenced negatively the earnings.

Membership in Trade union improved the earnings of the workers in both the textile and the engineering industry. Moreover it was significant at 5 per cent level. Increased earnings may result from the positive feedback of a union, as suggested by SLM model. This finding was consistent with that of Fields, (1980). The industry specific characteristics also influence a worker's earnings. Among them type of work (permanent) had a positive and significant influence on the earnings of both textile and engineering workers. The variable labour law had a positive impact on the earnings of
textile workers than the engineering workers. The unit's scale of operation (in terms of the number of employees) had a positive impact on earnings but not significant in the textile as well as engineering workers.

c) Determinants of Earnings for organised and unorganised sectors

The results indicated that contrary to our expectation education variable failed to emerge significantly. They had a negative influence in organised but positive in unorganised sector. The findings of Liu's (1975) study was consistent with the results of this study. Similarly the study conducted by McNabb (1981) suggest that lower segment (secondary) educational attainment have positive impact on earnings.

So it revealed that in organised sector other factors might have dominated in influencing earnings and many workers would have entered the service with less education and on the job training would have played its role. Whereas in unorganised sector education had the positive association but not significant in both the sector.

The workers background variables, such as forward Caste, Backward Caste/Most Backward Caste in organised sector had a positive role (as evidenced by Harriss, Kannan and Rodgers,(1989) on workers job and earnings than the unorganised sector workers. However they were not significant. Religion was found to have contrary sign in organised sector. It had positive impact on earnings in the unorganised sector but not significant in both the sectors with reference to non Hindus.

Trade union membership was found to have significant influence on the earnings in the organised sector but not in unorganised sector. Alternatively, higher wages would have followed with union pressure and fight as contemplated by NLM model. So our findings support the NLM model.
An industry's scale increase workers earnings in the organised sector (this is in conformity with the results of Dipak Mazumdar and Masoori, 1978) but not in the unorganised sector. Labour law had positive influence on earnings and significant in the organised sector and negative influence on earnings and significant in the unorganised sector.

The results indicated that the wage-setting process differed among the segments. In the unorganised labour market, earnings seemed to depend more on the amount of time worked, as expressed by the unemployed and weekly hours variables. An interesting aspect we observe in the equations was the differences in magnitude between the two sectors. There was a substantial difference in the explanatory power of the two equations, a fact which emphasized that the industry-job-specific variables better explain wage-setting practices in the organised than in the unorganised.

d. Determinants of earnings of Permanent and Temporary workers

Age had positive influence on earnings in the permanent worker and negative impact on temporary workers but significant (Lobo, 1977). Education found positively influencing the earnings of both permanent and temporary workers but of course not significant as compared to illiterates.

The importance of human capital varied by type of employment. Schooling had positively influenced on the earnings of the permanent and temporary workers. (McNabb 1981) The returns to training were also positive but not significant. Carnoy, Giriling and Rumberger (1976) found that training on the secondary jobs had no significant effect on their earnings.

Based on the results it was found that the cast had a negative influence but significant on the earnings for the temporary workers. In the case of forward community when compared to SC/ST group it had a negative association with temporary workers.
However the variable had the same sign but not significant statistically for the permanent workers. Religion did negatively influenced the earnings of permanent while positively influenced the earnings of temporary workers. However the variable was not significant.

The migration status produced negative influence on temporary workers earnings. So a migrant temporary worker was discriminated against in the urban labour market. Whereas in the case of permanent workers migration variable had positive sign but not a significant one. Another important background variable was father's occupations which had negative impact on workers earnings and in the case of temporary workers they were significant.

Trade union membership had played a positive role on the earnings of permanent worker and it was also significant. The results indicated that as the unions have played a major role on the earnings of permanent workers. They were protected under social security contribution. But the union had not influenced the earnings of temporary workers significantly, perhaps nature of category had over weighed than the unions role. Analyses revealed that the type of industry had negative influence on earnings in the case of both permanent and temporary workers. But only in the temporary workers this variable was significant. With respect to size of unit in the case of temporary workers it was significant. For the reasons noted, the findings of this study on the earnings strongly support the segmented market theory. For example, as per the human capital model organised sector and permanent worker variable explained while have little explanatory power for workers in the unorganised and temporary labour market.

7.6. MOBILITY AMONG THE WORKERS

In this section determinants of mobility, migration, occupational choice among sample industrial workers in Coimbatore Urban labour market can be discussed.
In order to trace the mobility of workers the study collected the relevant data on the present job as well as two immediate preceding jobs held by workers in the labour market. Questions were directed towards their employment history, job type, earnings, reasons for job change, job acquisition methods etc., with a view to construct the pattern as well as to study the determinants of mobility.

The sample workers were asked whether they ever changed the job. Based on the responses we came to know that about two thirds of the workers had changed their jobs, indicating a high mobility among our sample workers. However for the rest of 34 per cent workers current job was the first job.

During the survey respondents were asked about the reasons for job change among our sample workers. Among the reasons cited the dominant factor influenced their mobility happened to be economic viz., 45 per cent had changed their previous job for earning reasonable income. Followed by it 22 per cent of workers reported that for good working conditions they had changed their jobs. Third major (15%) reason was social status.

The pattern of mobility revealed that 34 per cent of our sample had not changed their job. Perhaps it includes workers who have less years of service and first job category. Still it constituted one third of our sample. So two thirds of our sample workers changed job in the career. If we consider those who changed job three times they constituted 30 per cent of workers. Between five and 9 times 22 per cent of workers changed the job. Between textile and engineering workers textile workers changed their job more than the engineering workers. Much difference was not observed between permanent and temporary workers.
The analysis about the mobility of workers between textile and engineering industries of previous job and the first job revealed that 206 respondents were in textile industry and 140 workers in engineering industry in the current job which constituted 59.5 and 40.5 per cent respectively.

We have already seen that out of our sample who were currently employed (346) only 228 were in previous job and 135 had a job previous to previous job which we called first job. To assess the mobility of workers across the industries we called data from our respondents about the first job, previous job and current job. As explained above only for 135 of our sample of 346 have all the three job experience and minimum two stage mobility. Hence, we have analysed their mobility (category wise) such as industry, sector and type of job. It revealed that out of 135 workers 79 workers were currently in textile industry. Among those in textile industry, 68.4 per cent (55) were previously in textile industry. And 65.8 per cent of them had service in textile industry as first job. Likewise, mobility took place over years between industries. Here we can say that from first and previous job workers moved from engineering and other industries to textile industry. A marginal fall in the percentage of engineering and other unit workers have taken place from first job to previous job. Above facts revealed that in our study mobility between industry, from engineering to textile and textile to engineering have taken place with different degrees.

The mobility of workers between industry have the sectoral consideration namely from unorganised to organised and vice-versa. We found that over the years mobility from first, previous and current job under this category led to increase in number of workers in organised, textile sector while fall in number of workers under organised, engineering industry. Similarly, number of workers in unorganised textile sector have
declined while number of workers in unorganised engineering sector increased from previous to current job. So, while relatively proportion of workers under organised textile sector had gone up, in unorganised sector declined.

When these mobility were viewed from the type of job (temporary and permanent) it revealed that in textile industry number of workers in permanent cadre had gone up over a period from first, previous and current job. But in engineering industry there was a marginal decline in the number of workers over a period under permanent (regular) job. In the case of temporary job over the years in engineering industry not much change was observed. But whereas in textile industry workers under temporary category increased due to mobility of workers from the same type of job in other industry to textile.

We have attempted to estimate the mobility of those 135 workers of our sample between different scale of units within the broad industrial groups of textile and engineering. We found that over a period of years workers mobility in textile had taken place from first to previous (next) and current job towards large units. Whereas in the case of engineering industry proportion of workers in medium scale have gone up, the proportion under the small and large scale declined. So different trends prevailed between textile and engineering as far as mobility in sector wise is concerned.

In the engineering industry, two third of workers were in the small scale enterprises when they serve for first and previous job. But in the current job the percentage of workers in medium industry was higher than during other two periods while less percentage of workers were in small scale units. However with respect to proportion of workers in large size units in current job was higher than in first job. Over years proportion of workers in medium and large units increased and in small units it declined.
Regarding mode of getting job, we found that in average about 65 percent of our workers secured their present job through their friends, both in textile and engineering industry. Next major source was direct visit to the units or employer and the third important mode was employment exchange. Very small percent of (2.6) workers secured employment through advertisements.

The analysis about length of Stay in all the Jobs revealed that over years in both the industries in current job more proportion of workers stayed for longer period than in the previous and first job.

7.6.1. Migration Particulars

Facts provided by the sample revealed that one third of our respondents were migrants. Even if we classify them according to industrial or permanent or temporary category, in each category the composition of migrants were more or less same. We found that the percentage of workers who have migrated from a distance below 100 km was high and based on the age at which these workers migrated we found about 60 per cent have migrated between 16-20 years of age. The nature of migration of that about 56.3 per cent of our sample (346) migrated with family; 33.6 per cent migrated alone and the rest (10 per cent) migrated initially alone and subsequently brought in their family also.

Substantial proportion of migration of our sample workers took place for securing employment. The percentage of workers who migrated because of family and marriage was higher in the case of textile workers than in the case engineering workers. On the other hand, the percentage of workers who migrated to get training was higher with engineering workers than textile workers. Before migration among the sample workers about 13.4 per cent were engaged in agriculture; 16.8 per cent were carrying on business; 1.7 per cent were landless laborers; 19.3 per cent were non-agricultural laborers; 20.2 per cent were students; 10.1 per cent were unemployed and the rest, 18.5 per cent, were doing others jobs.
7.7. DETERMINANTS OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY:

Under this section the findings on the estimates made on the determinants of occupational mobility would be discussed. Here tobit method was used.

a) For all workers

All the Education, training and experience (time spent on labour market) variables have important positive influence on occupational mobility by our sample workers and it was significant. Similar results evidenced by Andrisani, (1973); Mayhew and Rosewell, (1979) and Khandker, (1992).

Within the background variables compared to SC/ST workers, variables such as workers belonging to Forward Caste, BC Caste, father's occupation had negatively influenced the mobility. The migrant character had positive influence on job mobility and significant. Trade union also had positive impact on worker's job mobility but not significant. It may be treated that trade union did not influence on worker's job mobility in our study. In the industry, job specific variables namely type of industry, Sector of employment, and scale of operation had positive influence on workers job mobility among industrial workers.

b. Determinants of Occupational Mobility of Textile and Engineering Workers

The variable age square had positive influence on occupational mobility of textile and engineering industry workers. Education and experience play significant role in the determination of occupational mobility on textile workers than the engineering workers. Studies by Carnoy, Rumberger (1976), Carnoy, Girling and Rumberger (1977) showed similar results. All the education variables had positive sign and they emerged significant in the textile industry but had a negative sign for the engineering workers in comparison with illiterate reference category. The training variable had positive influence for mobility in textile industry (this is in conformity with the study made by Rosenberg, 1975) but not in engineering workers.
The workers background variables such as forward caste, backward caste and religion have negatively influenced the occupational mobility. This aspect is similar with the study of Hariss, Kannan and Rodgers' study (1989). The migration status measure the impact of the length of stay in Coimbatore on a worker's occupational mobility. Interestingly, worker's migration found to have positive influence on occupational mobility in textile industry but it was not significant in engineering industry. The Trade union variable had negative impact on worker's job mobility in engineering industry.

So among the background variables in textile industry caste and region negatively and migrant variable positively influenced the job mobility. However, in engineering industry religion (Hindu) and membership in trade union negatively influenced the occupational mobility of workers. The workers background variables influenced the workers in engineering and textile industry differently.

Among the job specific variables sector of employment had positive influence on job mobility in both the textile and engineering industries. The variable nature of job category of workers had negative sign in textile and positive influence on engineering workers. Size of units as well as protected job influenced on job mobility differently on textile and engineering workers. But the role of labour law was not significant in workers job mobility.

So except organised sector employment, among the job specific variables, all other variables had not influenced the occupational mobility. When all the variables were taken together we found that between textile and engineering workers different variables influenced the mobility differently. While almost all human capital variables influenced textile and engineering workers no such impact except the age square variable influenced the mobility in other category approach. Among the workers background variable caste, region and migrant variable influenced the textile workers. Only religion and trade union
variables influenced the engineering workers. So two different set of variables in two industries played their role. However, in the case of job specific variables on both set of workers sector of employment variable was significant and all others were not noteworthy.

c. Determinants of Occupational Mobility of Organised and Unorganised sector workers

Education and experience (time spent on labour market) of workers had an influence on worker's occupational mobility among organised sector workers. but not in unorganised sector. In contrast, training did not help job mobility for unorganised workers. This result supports the findings of the study made by Rosenberg (1975).

The workers background variables such as Caste, religion, father's education and father's occupation did not have much influence on job mobility as evidenced by the study made by Hariss et.al (1989). Workers who were born in Coimbatore were more mobile than men who were born in areas outside of Coimbatore. The Trade union had positive impact on worker's job mobility but not significant on both the organised and unorganised workers.

With respect to job specific variables such as type of job had negative influence on workers job mobility in both textile and engineering industry. Scale of operation had positive influence on workers job mobility in both organised and unorganised workers. The protected job had a negative impact on the mobility of the industrial workers.

d. Determinants of Occupational Mobility of Permanent (regular) and Temporary (casual) workers

All the human capital variables had positively influenced the occupational mobility on the temporary workers. Whereas for permanent workers compared to illiteracy level, all level of education other than secondary level were positively associated for occupational mobility.
If temporary workers employed in organised sector, he was positively influenced for job mobility by the sector of his employment. While scale of enterprise was positively influenced the temporary workers, protected job had negative impact on the mobility of the industrial workers.

In total for the determination of occupational mobility of temporary workers, we find that, all the human capital variables including experience had influenced the mobility. Among the workers background variables castes, religion, and region have negatively influenced the mobility. The job specific variables in organised sector influenced the mobility at of temporary workers.

In the case of permanent workers among all the three groups of variables few variables have significantly influenced occupational mobility. They were age square, primary education, post secondary and ITI/Diploma in human capital category. The Caste, migration in background category and scale of enterprises in job specific category have influenced the occupational mobility.

The workers background variables such as caste, religion, father's education and father's occupation did not have much influence on job mobility. But migration variables had positive influence in temporary job category. The Trade union variable had positive impact on worker's job mobility on both the permanent and temporary workers.

With respect to the industry, job specific variables namely Sector of employment, and scale of operation (number of workers) had positive influence on workers job mobility on permanent and temporary workers. The protected job had a negative impact on the mobility of the industrial workers. It may be interpreted that protected job did not help to improve a worker's job security and income.
7.8. SELECTION OF JOB IN COIMBATORE URBAN LABOUR MARKET

We have used the Logit models to explain the workers job selection. We have estimated the job selection under all the three category of job. We have analysed them one after the other in the order of job selection in Textile, Engineering, Organised and unorganised and regular (permanent) and casual (temporary) jobs. We predict that workers selection of the job was based on their human capital, workers background and job-specific variables.

a. Probability of selecting job in Textile Industry

According to logit estimates, schooling (all category) as compared to illiterate workers had negative influence on selection of the job. In addition to those variables training variables had emerged significantly with negative coefficient. However, experience (time spent in labour market) variable had positive association with the dependent variable and was not significant. So all but two levels of education were significant in this model in the choice of textile industry.

Among the worker's background variables like caste (BC, MBC), religion and region had positive association with the worker's job choice and influenced the worker's probability of selection of their job in Textile industry. Migration and education of father, trade union membership had negative influence on selection of the job in textile or engineering industry. But among them migrant status, education of father's literacy variable emerged significant. Likewise father's occupation (agriculture, employed in manufacturing sector) had positive feedback for the selection of the job in both the industries.

The result supported the segmented labour market view that probability of occupational choice partly explained by workers background variable which are social institutions in character.
All the four job specific characteristics have influenced workers probability of selection of job in textile industry. The sector of employment had positive and protection of job had negative impact on the job selection.

b. Probability of Selecting Job in Organised Sector

Among all the human capital variables except training other variables had positive influence on selection of the job in organised sector. Experience was positively significant the worker's probability of being in the organised sector. But father's occupation (fathers employed in manufacturing industry) when compared to the other job had a positive effect for the selection of the job in organised industries. The result supported the segmented labour market model view that probability of occupational choice partly explained by workers background variables.

The industry specific characteristics also had influence on workers probability for selection of a job in organised sector. Scale of enterprises had significant impact on the workers selection of job in organised sector.

c. Probability of Choosing a Permanent Job by a Worker

Among the human capital variables only age square was significant in choosing a permanent job. Among worker's background variables caste, (FC) religion, and region had negative sign and worker's probability of the selecting a permanent job was significant. Fathers occupation characteristics had helped the selection of the permanent job. Trade union membership also played a significant role in workers probability of selection of permanent job. The result supported the segmented labour market model view that probability of occupational choice partly explained by workers background variables.

The industry specific characteristics also had much influence on workers probability for selection of permanent job. Among the industry specific variables textile
industry had negatively associated with the selection of job choice and it was highly significant. Other variables such as sector of employment and labour laws did not influence on worker's job selection.

7.9. EXISTENCE OF LABOUR MARKET SEGMENTATION

We have reviewed few available empirical studies on labour Market segmentation in India (viz., Deshpande, 1979, Mazumdar 1979, 1983; Hariss, 1986; Papola, 1986; Hariss, Kannan and Rodgers, 1989; Khandkar, 1992). Most of the labour economists agree that the Indian labour market is segmented.

We made an attempt to assess whether Coimbatore labour market was segmented or otherwise by taking the characteristics considered by the three major approaches to urban labour market which preferred to call the labour market as segmented when there exists primary/secondary and organised/unorganised and formal/informal labour market conditions.

Various researchers have described the labour market dualism, as formal and informal, protected and unprotected and organised and unorganised. In all these classifications characteristics attributed to primary, organised, formal and protected labour market are more or less same. Similarly the features attributed to secondary, unorganised, informal and unprotected market are common.

Hence, we have applied organised and unorganised labour market classification of the labour market and attempted to test the nature of Coimbatore labour market. Most of the Indian researchers have used such classification and more particularly the other important study on Coimbatore labour market done by Harriss, Rodgers and Kannan also followed the same classifications. The widely accepted characteristics of organised sector are: high wages, job stability (permanence), good working conditions, seniority rights (scope for promotion) and benefits, and high degree of unionisation.
And the characteristics for unorganised sector are: low wages, job instability (impermanence), poor working condition, no seniority rights and benefits, low or non unionised, scale of enterprises. Hence, to assess the labour market segmentation a discussion of characteristics of mobility, earnings and occupation choice were necessary.

We have considered the features of organised and unorganised segments in our earlier analysis on mobility, earnings and occupational choice. Using those explanations or results of analysis and additional informations collected from the respondents, we have verified the nature of Coimbatore urban labour market from the organised and unorganised point of view in the following lines.

When per day earnings of our respondents were we found that higher proportion of unorganised workers and lower proportion of organised workers were in the same wage bracket (Rs.50 per day). Alternatively it can be said that wages in unorganised sector was low while the average wages in organised sector was high. Regarding the scope for promotion we found workers in organised sector had rare or no chance for promotion, while in unorganised sector 87 per cent had such rare or no scope for promotion. So here again relatively more percentage of our workers belonging to unorganised sector had no scope for promotion.

When we look at the workers category we came to know that four fifths of the permanent workers (80.4%) belong to organised sector while 56 per cent of the were workers belong to the unorganised sector. This revealed that higher proportion of permanent workers in organised sector and majority of temporary workers were in unorganised sector.

Based on the working conditions of our sample respondents we have evidence that among the organised sector workers more number of them (72%) were satisfied with
their present job. Whereas in the unorganised sector relatively lesser proportion of workers (68%) had reported that they were satisfied with their present job. The details about trade union membership among the organised and unorganised sector revealed that 59 per cent of workers were in union while in the unorganised sector only 14 per cent of the workers were members of trade union.

When the size of units (scale of enterprises) were considered, a higher percentage of workers were in (62) small units under unorganised and higher percentage of workers (46%) in large units in organised sector.

When the age composition of our sample workers were considered, in organised sector about 44 per cent of workers were below the age of 30 years. While 84 per cent out of the total unorganised sector workers were in the similar age group. In our sample more proportion of young workers were in unorganised sector and more proportion of senior workers in organised sector.

When attempt was made to collect the information from the respondents about the waiting period for job, it was revealed that out of the total of 346 respondents 10.4 per cent of them were unemployed during the last 365 days. Of which 89 per cent of workers waited up to three months, 11 per cent for 4 to 12 months to secure job. Hence, the unemployment or waiting period cannot be considered as so long in the Indian context. Further they revealed that the waiting period for first and present job was one year for 93.5 per cent. So over years the waiting period came down in the textile and engineering sector at Coimbatore.

After verifying we found that Coimbatore labour market satisfies all the features that are necessary in organised and unorganised sector to call the market a segmented one. It is logically proper to say that Coimbatore labour market was segmented.
7.10. INFLUENCE OF HUMAN CAPITAL, INSTITUTIONAL AND JOB SPECIFIC VARIABLES ON EARNINGS, MOBILITY AND SELECTION OF JOB

During the course of our study we felt that it was necessary to find out the difference in the treatment of worker characteristics on mobility between segments and earnings within segments and occupational choice where segments were defined not only in terms of jobs but in terms of types of industries.

We made an attempt to identify the influence of human capital as well as non-human capital variables on earnings, mobility and occupational choice. And we have discussed the effects of the three sets of variables, viz., Human Capital Variables, Workers background variables and Industry-job specific variables on the three aspects of Coimbatore labour market viz., earnings, mobility and occupational choice.

i) Effect of three sets of variables on Earnings

Among the three sets of variables, human capital variables were not significant while positively and negatively both workers background and job specific variables were significant. Especially in workers background variables institutional factors such as caste, membership in trade union, regional factors have played their role significantly on the earnings of workers. Added to that the job specific influencing earnings also support that the institutional variables and job specific variables variables explained the variation in earnings of workers in Coimbatore labour market.

ii) Effect of three sets of variables on Mobility

So far mobility of workers in Coimbatore labour market was concerned human capital variables were significant. Besides, we found that institutional or workers background variables such as caste of workers, migrant, religion, education and occupation of father were significant in influencing the mobility of workers. Similarly among the job specific variables, scale of enterprises, category of workers (permanent)
and legal protection for job were significant in mobility. Hence, these aspects revealed that human capital as well as workers background variables and job specific variables were significant in explaining the mobility in Coimbatore labour market.

iii). Effect of three set of variables on the Selection of Job: (Organised Sector)

We found that for job selection, human capital variables (education and experience) as well as workers background variables, (caste, Trade union membership, occupation of father and job specific variables,) (work in textile industry and scale of enterprises) had explained the variations in job selection.

7.11. SUMMARY

We attempted to verify the nature of Coimbatore labour market by considering the characteristics attributed to segmented labour market by approaching the market on the basis of organised and unorganised. In addition we made an attempt assess the nature of Coimbatore labour market on the basis of the role of variables such as set of human capital, workers background and job specific variables on earnings, mobility and occupational choice. The first approach revealed that all the widely accepted features of segmented labour market prevailed at Coimbatore during the period of our study. The second approach also proved that in the determinants of earnings of workers human capital variables were not significant, but other two set of variables were significant. While for mobility and occupational choice all the three sets of variables played their role. As the role of institutional variables like, caste, religion, trade union, region, occupation of father as well as job specific variables were significant in all the aspects of labour market, it is reasonable to conclude that Coimbatore labour market was segmented.