Chapter-XI
XI.1 Results and discussions

The main objective of this study is to expound the in-migrants’ socio-economic and demographic profiles, living conditions, migration particulars, nuptial and family status, occupational status, remittance patterns and social implications at Tiruchirappalli city. However, here this study has made an attempt to compare its findings with theories, previous empirical studies and policies, which would reveal that whether its findings have gone coherence with them or has deviated from them.

XI.2 Social and demographic profiles

XI.2.1 Gender of the in-migrants

Several studies indicate that although migration is dominated by males, more women are now migrating for work and not just as accompanying spouses. In South-East Asia, a study of the cities of Ha Noi and Ho Chi Minh estimates that 40-45 per cent of migrants are females (Grace, 2001). In Africa, a study of Addis Ababa found that women migrants outnumber the males (Devereux et al., 2000). But, in India the pattern is still largely male dominated (except for marriage), as a number of studies have established it. Arora notes that the proportions of unemployed females have been constantly higher than the males in the rural area and further women labour is less mobile than the men (Arora, 1979). In India, males’ migration (except for marriage), is higher for other purposes such as work/employment (38.4 per cent for males and 9 per cent for females), business (2.9 per cent for males and 0.8 per cent for females) and education (6.3 per cent for males and 3.8 per cent for females) than the females’ migration (Census of India, 2001). As the present study has preferred to the females, (except for marriage) those who migrated for the other purposes, it also shows the similar trend, in which the proportions of males are
predominant in both rural (93%) and urban (88%) groups than the females (about 7 percent for rural migrants and 12 percent for urban migrants).

**XI.2.2 Age of in-migrants**

Among the in-migrants of Bombay city, 81.05 per cent belonged to the age group of 15-59 (Zachariah, 1961). A study in Ethiopia found that most of the migrants are males under the age of 30 (RESAL, 1999). But, the present study reveals a mixed trend, in which over three-fourths (77%) of rural migrants belong to the group of 16-35. On the other hand, about three-fourths (74%) of urban migrants belong to the age group of 26-45. Further, the mean age is 29.45 for rural migrants and 35.80 for urban migrants. Thus, the nature of rural migrants is highly different from that of urban migrants, in terms of age, due to various socio-economic factors (education, physical work, unemployment etc.).

**XI.2.3 Mother tongue of the in-migrants**

Migrants prefer to go to a place where the social organization is as similar as possible to that in their place of origin (Mangalam, 1968). The language, customs and traditions of the new place may not be liked by the migrants. In such a case, people will not try to migrate to a new place (Ghosh, 1985). India is divided into linguistic provinces. Each of them has unique languages, customs and traditions, which restrain the movement of the people. The present study shows that over four-fifths (82%) of rural and over three-fourths (77%) of urban migrants have had Tamil as their mother tongue. The percentages of other language migrants such as Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, Urdu, Hindi and Rajasthani are very meager. Hence, migrants have preferred to the destination places where their own culture is rife. Further, while new language and culture do not restrain many who migrate to western countries, the present study reveals the fact that there is another group who could not break the barrier of language and culture.
XI.2.4 Birth order of the in-migrants

Parental pressure can discourage the eldest children in large families in order to maintain occupancy of family land and support for the aged (Caldwell, 1969). Among Punjabi farmers, older sons were kept away from school so that they might remain on the family farm while younger sons were given some schooling in preparation for migration (Wyon and Gordan, 1971). In Sri Lanka, younger sons of many farmers had gone to town for acquiring education that would help for getting jobs when the land ran out (ILO Employment Mission, 1971). Even after the three decades, the present study also shows the similar trend, in which about one-fourth (23%) of rural and a little more than one-half (52%) of urban migrants belong to the birth order two and over one-fourth (28%) of rural and a little more than one-fourth (21%) of urban migrants belong to the birth order three. While comparing the birth order one with other birth orders, the percentage of birth order one is very limited in both rural (6%) and urban (11%) groups. This has illustrated that parents have forbidden their first child from budging to the other places.

XI.2.5 Religion of the in-migrants

About 98.5 per cent of the in-migrants of Poona city are Hindus and the rest are Christians (Nair, 1978). In Sindh, Pakistan, a large proportion of the arid-area migrants are people from socially marginalized non-Muslim groups such as Bheels and the Kohlis (Gazdar, 2003). In the five regions of Ethiopia, the percentage of the Orthodox Christians are higher (76 per cent for permanent migrants, 50 per cent for returned migrants and 56.1 per cent for temporary migrants) than the Protestants, Catholics and Muslims (Blessing Uchenna Mberu, 2006). These findings have revealed that migration does not depend on any specific religion. Further, the present study shows that among the in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city, Hindus are rife in both rural (75%) and urban (71%) groups than the Muslims, Christians, Sikhs and Jains.
XI.2.6 Community of the in-migrants

Upper caste men migrants move often from U.P. villages (Eames, 1967). The down trodden people highly migrate from Indian villages (John Connell et al., 1976). Most of the in-migrant workers (51.96%) of Kanpur city belonged to the non-scheduled castes/tribes community (Tiwari, 1997). In West Bengal, lower caste people migrate seasonally from five districts to the rice-growing areas (Rogaly et al., 2002). These findings suggest that migration does not depend on any specific community. Further, the present study shows a mixed trend, in which over two-thirds (69%) of rural migrants belong to the scheduled castes/tribes and most backward castes. On the contrary, over two-thirds (68%) of urban migrants belong to the forward castes and back ward Castes. Hence, it is clear that majority of rural migrants have come from oppressed castes. On the other hand, majority of urban migrants have come from dominant castes.

XI.2.7 Educational attainments of the in-migrants

About 47.10 per cent of in-migrants of Mexico City are incomplete primary. There are no graduates (Emper, 1977). The educational characteristics of in-migrants of Ludhiana city show that in-migrants from urban area had a significantly higher level of education than the rural areas (Oberai and Singh, 1983). The present study shows a mixed pattern, in which above three-fourths (77%) of rural migrants' literacy levels are up to high school level. On the contrary, about three-fourths (72%) of urban migrants' literacy levels are above the high school. Further, the percentages of graduates, post-graduates and professional degree holders are high among urban migrants than the rural migrants. Hence, it could be clearly pointed out that among the in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city, in-migrants from urban areas have had significantly higher level of education than the rural areas.
XI.2.8 Educational attainments of the spouses

In Greater Bombay, the educational attainment of migrant wives, those who came from urban areas, was slightly higher than that of migrant wives, those who came from rural areas (Rele and Tara Kanitkar, 1974). The present study also shows the similar trend, in which above four-fifths (87.13%) of rural migrant’ wives educational levels are up to high school. By contrast above two-thirds (70.13%) of urban migrant’ wives educational levels are above the high school. So, it could be reaffirmed that urban migrant’ wives are more educated than their counterparts.

XI.3 Housing amenities of in-migrants as per rural-urban classification

XI.3.1 Housing status

Only 5.5 per cent of in-migrants of Poona city live in own houses. The rest 94.5 per cent live in rented-houses (Nair, 1978). Of the 134 hill migrants’ household of Delhi city, 62 per cent are rented houses and 15 per cent own houses (Bora, 1998). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which each above one-half (54%) of rural and urban migrants are residing at the rented-homes. However, the percentages of migrants residing at own (30%) and leased-homes (11%) are considerably higher in urban group than the rural group (14 per cent for own homes and 5 per cent for leased-homes).

XI.3.2 Housing status

About 2 lakhs urban poor migrants are living in the huts at Delhi city (Setty Pendakar, 1989). About 44 per cent of migrants are living in huts or semi-pucca houses (mud-walled or rag roofed shanty, junk houses) in Bombay (Shekar Mukherji, 2001). In Tirupur, 18,661 migrants' households, out of 21,362, have tiled roof and 2043 households have concrete roof and only 658 thatched roof (The Hindu, 2006). The present study shows a mixed pattern, in which one-third (32%) of rural migrants’ homes are semi-pucca
homes and over one-fourth (28%) are huts. By contrast, over two-thirds (67%) of urban migrants’ homes are pucca homes and over one-fourth (28%) are semi-pucca homes.

XI.3.3 Kitchen facility

According to city surveys, about 70 per cent of migrants' households have no independent kitchen (Kuppuswamy, 1972). In Chennai city, about 25 per cent of migrant slum dwellers' households have no independent kitchen (Sethuramalingam, 2004). The present study shows a mixed trend, in which over one-half (59%) of rural migrants have no independent kitchens. On the other hand, over three-fourths (77%) of urban migrants have independent kitchens.

XI.3.4 Bedrooms facility

Over four-fifths (83%) of rural and over one-half (56%) urban migrants have not possessed independent bedrooms.

XI.3.5 Bathroom facility

Of the Tzintzuntzan migrants of Mexico City, 43 per cent of homes have private bathroom facility (Robert V.K. Emper, 1977). According to RPC survey, nearly 72 per cent of migrants' households in Bombay (about 65 per cent of the multi-member households and 75 per cent of the single member households) are without bathrooms (Mamoria, 1981). The present study shows that over two-thirds (70%) of rural and over nine-tenths (93%) of urban migrants have possessed the bathrooms. However, about two-thirds (62.86%) of rural migrants have had the common bathrooms. By contrast, a little more than two-thirds (66.66%) of urban migrants have had independent bathrooms.

XI.3.6 Toilet facility

According to RPC survey, in Bombay, Poona and Hubli only 13 per cent have independent latrines and 80 per cent use common latrines (Mamoria, 1981). About 55 per cent of in-migrants of Ludiana city have independent latrines (Oberai and Singh, 1983).
In cities with more than 2 lakh population, only about 30 per cent of the urban dwelling units have independent latrines (Shah, 1985). In Bombay, about 57.5 per cent of migrants' households have no toilet facility (Shekar Mukherji, 2001). The present study shows that about three-fourths (71%) of rural and over nine-tenths (93%) urban migrants have possessed the toilets. However, about two-thirds (61.81%) of rural migrants have had the common toilets. On the contrast, about two-thirds (65.60%) of urban migrants have had the individual toilets.

**XI.3.7 Number of persons sharing a single toilet**

According to RPC surveys, in Calcutta one latrine is shared by as many as 30 to 50 persons and in Bombay between 10 to 50 families (Mamoria, 1981). The present study shows that at the rural migrants' habitations, single toilet is shared by 11-15 persons (33.80%) and 16-20 persons (30.98%). But, at the urban migrants' dwelling places, single toilet is shared by 1-5 persons (59.11%) and 6-10 persons (8.60%). Thus, Tiruchirappalli study shows an improved situation than 1981 study.

**XI.3.8 Potable water**

According to RPC surveys, in Bombay 72 of the households have no independent water tap and in Hubli and Kanpur, this percentage goes up to 87 per cent. In other cities, 54 to 87 per cent of the dwellings are without independent water tap (Mamoria, 1981). In Bombay, 36.1 per cent of migrants' households are denied water facility (Shekhar Mukherji, 2001). Workers, who migrate to the cities for job, live in deplorable conditions. There is no provision of safe drinking water and hygienic sanitation (Rani and Shylendra, 2001). The present study shows that above one-half (53%) and below one-fifth (15%) of rural migrants have obtained potable water from government public faucet and government hand pump respectively. On the other hand, over one-third (39%) of urban migrants have obtained drinking water from house connections and a little more than one-
fourth (26%) have purchased it from private traders. Thus, the form and procuring pattern of drinking water differs between rural and urban migrants.

**XI.3.9 Distance between home and drinking water sources**

According to RPC surveys, in Jamshedpur 42 per cent of the families get water from a distance of 50 feet and longer (Mamoria, 1981). In Chennai, only 27 per cent of the migrant slum dwellers’ households have access to drinking water within the home. 55 per cent have water nearby and the rest have to go more than 500 meters to access it (Sethuramalingam, 2004). The present study shows that except house connections and buying, about one-third (33%) of rural and below one-fifth (15%) urban migrants have acquired drinking water from about 26-50 meters and the rest from 51-100 meters.

**XI.3.10 Power connections**

According to the city surveys, 60 per cent of migrants’ households have no electricity (Kuppuswamy, 1972). According to the statistics gathered by “Population Crises Committee”, in Calcutta, which has about 60 per cent of migrants in its total population, only 57 per cent of homes have electricity. The present study shows that above four-fifths (84%) of rural and all (99%) the urban migrants’ homes are electrified. However, a little more than one-half (52%) of rural migrants have had the common power connections. By contrast, a little more than one-half (51%) of urban migrants have had the individual power connections.

**XI.3.11 Drainage facility**

Nearly 30 per cent of the population of Tiruchirappalli city still uses open drainage system. At places where there is no drainage system, sullage is left in the open around the houses or empty plots (Relton and Daisy Caroline, 2004). The present study shows that about three-fourths (74%) of rural and over nine-tenths (94%) of urban migrants’ households have drainage facility.
All told, among the in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city, in-migrants those who came from urban areas have had the better housing amenities than the in-migrants those who came from rural areas.

XI.3.12 Causes for poor and better housing amenities

At Tiruchirappalli city, the migrants have to pay exorbitant rent (Rs.1500/- per month) for hiring a home comprising of a toilet (4x4 sq.ft), a bathroom (4x4 sq.ft), a kitchen (6x4 sq.ft) and a room (10x8 sq.ft). Besides rent, the migrants have to foot electric (from Rs.250/- to Rs.500 per month) and water (from Rs.100/- to Rs.250 per month) charges. As majority of rural migrants are engaged in low-paid jobs, they could not afford this exorbitant rent, which have forced them to settle either at the incommodious tenements or huts. Hence, the rural migrants have had the poor standard of living at Tiruchirappalli city. On the other hand, majority of urban migrants are engaged in highly paid jobs, which enable to them for paying the excessive rent of the aforesaid rented-homes or for taking the homes to lease or for buying the own houses. Hence, they have had a decent standard of living at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.4 Housing amenities according to years in migration

The aforesaid in-migrants’ housing amenities at Tiruchirappalli city has shown that some of the rural and urban migrants have had a descent living standard and some of them are in the poor living condition. Hence, to find out the suffered migrants this study has cross-classified the migrants’ housing status with their duration of staying at Tiruchirappalli city. The significant findings are summarized as follows.

XI.4.1 Housing status

In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, about two-thirds (62.50%) of rural and over four-fifths (84%) of migrants are residing at the rented-homes. On the other hand, in the duration of staying of 16-30 years, majority of rural (50 to 83.33 per cent) and urban
(80 to 100 per cent) migrants are residing at own homes. In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, a little more than two-fifths (41.67%) of rural and above two-fifths (44%) of urban migrants respectively are residing at the semi-pucca homes. Above one-third (36.11%) of rural and about one-tenth (8%) of urban migrants are at huts. By contrast, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, majority of rural (50 to 100 per cent) and urban (70 to 100 per cent) migrants are residing at the pucca-homes.

XI.4.2 Bathroom and toilet

In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, major proportions of rural and urban migrants have utilized common toilets (88.89 per cent for rural migrants and 65.91 per cent for urban migrants) and common bathrooms (90.90 per cent for rural migrants and 63.64 per cent for urban migrants). On the contrary, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years (except 6-10 years clique of rural) majority of rural and urban migrants have utilized independent toilets and bathrooms (each 80 to 100 per cent for rural migrants and each 84.21 to 100 per cent for urban migrants).

XI.4.3 Power connections

In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, about four-fifths (77.58%) of rural and above four-fifths (83.47%) of urban migrants have had the compound power connections. By contrast, in the duration of staying 6-30 years (except 6-10 years clique of rural migrants) major proportions of rural (80 to 85.71 per cent) and urban (60 to 100 per cent) migrants have had the independent power connections.

From the above discussions, the study has arrived at two conclusions (I) Increasing migrants’ duration of staying has increased their housing status as well as housing amenities. (II) Longstanding migrants have had better housing conditions than the initial-period migrants.
XI.4.4 Causes for poor and better housing amenities

In migrants’ housing status depends upon their earning capacity. Migrants, those who earn higher incomes, have had the decent standard of living. On the other hand, migrants, those who eke out for hand and mouth, have had the poor standard of living. The present study has found that majority of rural and urban migrants are engaged in the low-paid jobs in the initial-period of migration (1-5 years). Further, some of them have to send remittances to their families staying back at the places of origin. These complications and obligation have forced the initial-period migrants to settle whatever places are available at such juncture, not minding, available housing amenities. Hence, in the duration of staying of 1-5 years majority of rural and urban migrants are in the impoverished living conditions at Tiruchirappalli city.

In the duration of staying of 6-30 years, majority of rural and urban migrants have received higher earnings through either moving to other occupations or by acquiring skill in their jobs. The burden of sending remittance has also reduced due to shifting the family to the destination places or loosing of dependents. In this situation, as migrants are able to afford the rent of the decent homes, some of them have moved to the decent rented-homes and some of them have acquired the leased or own homes. So, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years majority of rural and urban migrants have had a decent standard of living at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.5 Particulars of migration

XI.5.1 Birthplaces of the respondents

A little more than one-half (52%) of rural migrants’ birthplaces are rural areas of other districts within the state of Tamil Nadu and above one-third (36%) of rural migrants’ birthplaces are other rural areas of Tiruchirappalli district. Further, about one-half (47%) of urban migrants’ birthplaces are urban areas of other districts within the state
of Tamil Nadu and below one-fifth (16%) migrants’ birthplaces are other urban areas at Tiruchirappalli district and about one-fifth (18%) migrants’ birthplaces are rural areas of other districts within the state of Tamil Nadu. In concise, 95 and 91 per cent of rural and urban migrants respectively belong to the state of Tamil Nadu and the remaining migrants pertain to the other states within the Union.

XI.5.2 Causes of leaving the birthplaces

Among the various push factors operating at the place of origin may be included the following: high population growth, moved with earning members, unemployment, to get education, exhaustion of natural resources, natural calamities (such as drought, flood, earth quakes) and social, religious or political conflicts (Lawry Nelson, 1955). The present study shows that above one-third (36%) of rural and about one-third (32%) of urban migrants have moved with their families. A little more than one-fourth (26%) and about one-third (31%) of urban migrants have departed from their birthplaces due to the livelihood purposes. Natural calamities, drought and flood have ousted about one-tenth (9%) of rural and one-tenth (10%) of urban migrants. Due to the social conflict and hard social control 14 and 3 per cent of rural and urban migrants respectively have evacuated from their birthplaces. Education, which is generally believed to be an important reason for migration, accounts for only 3 and 8 per cent in rural and urban group respectively. As the findings of the present study are coherent with the push-pull theory, the push-pull theory is applicable to this study.

XI.5.3 Last residential places of the respondents

Each one-third (36%) of rural migrants’ last residential places are other rural areas within their own districts and rural areas of other districts within their own states respectively. On the other hand, above one-half (57%) of urban migrants’ last residential places are urban areas of other districts within their own states. About one-fourth (24%)
urban migrants' last residential places are other urban areas within their own districts. One-fifth (20%) of rural and about one-tenth (9%) of urban migrants have not possessed any second residential places as they have directly migrated to Tiruchirappalli city from their birthplaces.

XI.5.4 Reasons for leaving the last residential places

Lack of job opportunities was reported as the most important reason to leave their native places by as much as 70.50 per cent of the in-migrants of Poona city (Nair, 1978). The 1981 census of India reveals that “employment” and “family moved” are the main causes for (71.40%) for changing the residence for males (Agarwala, 1985). As per 1991 census of India, the reasons for migration that are as follows: Employment (30.4 per cent for males and 3 per cent for males and 18.6 per cent for females) and education (9 per cent for males and 1.8 per cent for females). Due to the natural calamities about 0.9 and 0.3 per cent of males and females have moved from their last residential places (Census of India, 1991). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which, of the 78 per cent of rural migrants, those who migrated for the livelihood purposes, males account for 89.11 per cent and females 10.89 per cent. Similarly, of the 71 of urban migrants, those who migrated for the livelihood purposes, males account for 84.49 per cent and females 15.51 per cent. The other causes such as lack of educational facilities, to get education, to educated children, natural calamities, man-made problems and personal reasons are found to be very limited.

XI.5.5 Birthplaces and last residential places

Out of the 97.5 million internal migrants (duration of residence 0-9 years) 53.3 million (54.7%) moved within rural areas. About 20.6 million (21.1%) moved from rural areas to urban areas. On the other hand 6.2 million persons (6.4%) moved from urban areas to rural areas and 14 million (14.7%) from urban areas to other urban areas (Census
of India 2001). The present study also shows the similar trend, in which, of the 103 rural
migrants, those who born at rural areas, above three-fourths (71.85%) of migrants have
gone to other rural areas and above one-fourth (28.15%) to urban areas. Further, of the 68
migrants, those who born at urban areas, above nine-tenths (91.18%) of migrants have
gone to other urban areas and above one-tenth (8.82%) to the rural areas. In concise, in
the present study, migration stream is rife from rural to rural and urban to urban.
Similarly, migration stream is higher from rural to urban than urban to rural.

XI.5.6 The laws of Ravenstein

"Females appear to predominate among short journey" (Ravenstein, 1885). The
present study also shows the same trend, in which about over two-thirds (71.43%) of
rural and three-fourths (75%) of urban female migrants respectively have come from the
neighbouring areas of the districts. Only over one-fourth (28.57%) of rural and one-
fourth (25%) of urban females migrants have come form the other districts within the
state. Further, "the migrants move form areas of low economic opportunities to area of
high economic opportunities" (Ravenstain, 1885). The present study also shows the same
pattern, in which a little more than four-fifths (82%) of rural and above three-fourths
(77%) of urban migrants have come from the arid and depleted areas. Hence, the
aforesaid two laws of Ravenstein are applicable to this study.

XI.5.7 Distance

The number of migrants to a place decreases as the distance increases
(Ravenstein, 1885). Desai found that rural in-migrants of Mahuva came more from the
neighbouring areas. On the other hand, urban migrants came from longer distance (Desai,
1964). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which two-fifths (40%) of
rural migrants have come from the neighbouring rural areas of the Tiruchirappalli district
(ranging 20-25 k.m.). A little more than one-half (52%) of rural migrants have come from
the rural areas of adjoining districts (ranging 50-75 k.m.). About one-tenth (8%) of rural migrants have come from the rural areas of the other states within the Union (ranging 500-750 k.m.). On the other hand, a little more than one-fourth (26%) of urban migrants have come from the neighbouring urban areas of the Tiruchirappalli district (ranging 30-61 k.m.). About two-thirds (64%) of urban migrants have come from the urban areas of other districts within the state (ranging 150-300 k.m.). As like the rural migrants, one-tenth (10%) of urban migrants have come from the urban areas of the other states within the Union (ranging 500-750 k.m.). In the present study, as increasing distance has reduced the migration (about one-tenth (8%) of rural and one-tenth (10%) of urban migrants have come from far away stated to Tiruchirappalli city), the law of Ravenstein is applicable to this study.

XI.5.8 Step-migration

About 78 per cent of in-migrants to Bogota, the capital of Colombia, have moved there directly without intermediate steps (Flinn and Cartano, 1970). In Korea, 86 per cent of migrants from two village clusters had only made one move and the rest two or three moves (Seung Gya Moon, 1972). About 89 and 95 per cent of migrant slum dwellers of Chandigarh and Bombay respectively had directly migrated to the cities. People, 8 per cent in Chandigarh and 5 per cent in Bombay, had migrated second time. Only 3 per cent of respondents in Chandigarh had multi migration (Rajesh Gill, 1994). The present study shows that one-fifth (20%) of rural and about one-tenth (9%) urban migrants have directly migrated to Tiruchiappalli city. About two-thirds (65%) of rural and over three-fourths (77%) of urban migrants have made one move and the rest two, three, four and five moves. The trends, direct to city and one move, may be explained that a huge majority of our respondents had some relatives or family members or friends at Tiruchirappalli city, those who motivated them to join with them. The people, who made
multi-migration, did not have such social network. Hence, they have fumbled to settle at one particular place.

**XI.5.9 Influence of social contacts to potential migrants**

The process of rural-urban migration in the state of Andra Pradesh have been accelerated to a greater extent due to the influence of social contacts with the people who have already migrated from rural areas and settled in urban areas with potential rural out-migrants (Shuka and Roy Chowdhry, 1992). The present study shows a mixed trend, in which a little more than one-half (51%) of rural migrants have reported that some persons have jointed with them after coming to Tiruchirappalli city. By contrast, about three-fourths (71%) of urban migrants did not have such type of joining after migration. Further, 51 rural migrants have pulled 72 new migrants from their respective starting points. Similarly, 29 per cent of urban migrants have pulled 37 new migrants. Sharing Jobs, filling the vacancies of working institutions, assisting in the job, and supporting the family have formed to be the prime causes of alluring the new migrants by the old.

**XI.5.10 Age at the time of coming to Tiruchirappalli city**

Migration is peak at the age group of 15 to 35. Below and above this age group, migration decreases steadily (Ralph Thamilnson, 1965). In U.S.A., in 1971 about 41 per cent of all persons 20 to 29 years old had changed their residence. The lowest proportions of migrants were children (28%) and elders (3%) (David M. Heer, 1978). Migration is rife among the age group of 16-40 years. This is even more the case with poorer, semi-permanent or temporary labour migrants (Srivastava, 1999). But, the present study shows a mixed trend, in which of the 100 rural migrants, over four-fifths (83%) of migrants came to Tiruchirappalli city at the age group of 11-25. But, of the 100 urban migrants, about nine-tenths (89%) of migrants came at the age group of 21-35. Further, the mean age at the time of coming to Tiruchirappalli city is 21.65 years for rural
migrants and 27.25 years for urban migrants. This has revealed that migration takes place at the early age groups among the rural migrants and it takes place at the middle age groups among the urban migrants. The percentages of migrants, those who migrated to Tiruchirappalli city at the age group of 36-60, are very limited. The higher number of migrants in younger age groups at the time of coming to Tiruchirappalli city is due to easy mobility of the search for employment, better job and better income etc. It is due to the absence of all these factors the number of migrants in elder age groups at the time of coming to Tiruchirappalli city is very low.

XI.5.11 Causes for coming to Tiruchirappalli city

According to the findings of RPC survey, the percentages of migration to cities due to unemployment, meager income and insufficient land were 58, 60, 46, 40, 51 and 70 for Bombay, Hyderabad, Jamshedpur, Kanpur, Hubli and Poona respectively. The percentages of migrants, those who moved for education, better employment and attraction of city life, were very limited (Sovani, 1996). Among the in-migrants of Ludhiana city, 81.3 per cent of migrants came in search of better jobs and income opportunities. Education, which is generally believed to be an important reason for migration to towns and cities, accounts for only 2.8 per cent of the total in-migration (Oberai and Singh, 1983). Low income of in-migrants of Kanpur city at their native places was the principal cause for their migration. Next to this was the seeking employment in the city (13.38%). Other factors like family conflict (11.81%) and to educate children (5.91%) were found of secondary importance (Tiwari, 1997). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which about four-fifths (78%) of rural and about three-fourths (71%) of urban migrants have migrated to Tiruchirappalli city on account of occupational related purposes. Other factors such as to get education or to educate children (5 per cent for rural migrants and 4 per cent for urban migrants), to get
medical treatment (4 per cent for rural migrants and 3 per cent for urban migrants) and moved with family (3 per cent for rural migrants and 2 per cent for urban migrants) are found to be secondary importance.

XI.5.12 Reasons for selecting the Tiruchirappalli city

Of the 500 workers, 66.6 per cent had close relatives and 15 per cent had relatives and 17.2 per cent had fellow villagers in Bombay. Hence, they preferred to the Bombay city as their destination place (Patel, 1965). About 86 per cent of the in-migrants of Delhi city preferred to the Delhi as their destination place because of the presence of their own rural household member, relatives and friends (Bora, 1998). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which above nine-tenths (92%) of rural and four-fifths (80%) of urban migrants have migrated to Tiruchirappalli city due to the presence of their family members, relatives, friends, marriage contacts, own-community people and co-villagers. The residuary rural and urban migrants have come on their own risk. However, some variations are found between the rural and urban groups in the social network. The shares of family member, relatives and co-villagers are higher in rural group (13, 39 and 17 per cent respectively) than the urban group (12, 17 and nil per cent respectively). On the other hand, the contributions of friends, marriage contacts and own community people are higher in urban group (28, 12 and 11 per cent respectively) than the rural group (10, 8 and 5 per cent respectively). This has denoted that rural and urban migrants have deposed on their close relationships as well.

XI.5.13 Sources of information

An IDRC study of migration to five urban centers in three continents found that 80 per cent of migrants obtained information form relatives or friends and less than 1 per cent from newspapers or radio (IDRC, 1973). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which above nine-tenths (92%) of rural and above three-fourths (77%) of
urban migrants have obtained the information about Tiruchirappalli city from their family members, relatives, friends, co-villagers, own community people and marriage contacts. Only 3 and 15 percent rural and urban migrants have acquired the information from medias. Moreover, within the sub-group there are not many variations between rural and urban migrants in the family member as an information source (13 per cent for rural migrant and 12 per cent for urban migrants). The proportions of relatives and co-villagers, as information sources, are higher in rural group (39 and 17 per cent respectively than the urban group (17 and nil percent respectively). On the other hand, the shares of friends and own-community people, as information sources, are higher in urban group (28 and 7 per cent respectively) than the rural group (10 and 3 per cent respectively).

**XI.5.14 Reasons for settling at the particular places at Tiruchirappalli city**

City surveys have revealed that people of the same caste, language and religion tend to aggregate in different areas of the city (Kuppuswamy, 1972). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which most of the rural migrants have preferred to the present residential places due to the close proximity of the relatives (28%), co-villagers (11%). Similarly, most of the urban migrants have settled in the present residential places due to the close proximity of their relatives (11%) family members (10%) marriage contacts (another 10%), own-community people (another 10%) and friends (9%). Thus, despite living in the cities rural and urban migrants have closely aggregated with their primary groups.

**XI.5.15 In-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city and Turner theory**

The data on in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city have provided to the present study an opportunity to evaluate the Turner theory, described that rural-urban migrants tend to settle initially in the central city region and then subsequently move to the periphery after a period of adjustment to urban life. More specifically, Turner argues that migrants are
concerned initially with the location of their housing, subsequently with their security of tenure and ultimately with the amenities available in their homes. (John Turner, 1968).

The present study shows that about three-fourths (72%) of rural and above one-half (55%) of urban migrants have settled at the periphery of the city due to the presence of their social networks. Only about one-fourths (25%) of rural and above two-fifths (42%) of urban migrants have settled at the central or nearby city due to the lot of business or job opportunities, sufficient transport facilities and close to the workplace. Further, a large proportion of rural and urban migrants have not made any move. As for the movers, most of them have moved within the area. In nutshell, except social network, as the immigrants of Tiruchirappalli city do not care about their location of housing, security and available housing amenities, Turner theory is not applicable to this study.

XI.6 Family and nuptial status

XI.6.1 Types of family at Tiruchirappalli city

In Madras city about 51 per cent of households were of the nuclear type. The joint family pattern was nearly one-half of the household (Balakrishna, 1951). Of the 157 persons interviewed at Bangalore city, more than one-half were living in nuclear families and 44 in joint families (Aileen Ross, 1961). In Delhi city, joint family system was more prevalent among migrants (Rao and Desai, 1965). In the CASS survey in the seventy cities of China, it was found that 66.4 percent of households were nuclear families. Joint families accounted for more than 2 per cent (Donald T. Rowland, 1992). The present study shows a different pattern, in which about two-fifths (39%) of rural migrants belong to the nuclear families and about one-third (34%) to the truncated families. On the other hand, two-thirds (67%) of urban migrants belong to the nuclear families and one-tenth (10%) to the truncated families. Further, a little more than one-fifth (21%) of rural migrants are still living in the joint families against a little more than one-tenth (11%) of urban migrants.
Thus, truncated family structure gradually tends to replace the joint/nuclear family structure in rural group. On the other hand, nuclear family structure still remains intact in urban group.

**XI.6.2 Marital status**

A large proportion of adult male migrants to cities is married and that they leave their families behind in the rural areas (Ashish Bose, 1965). About 81 per cent of in-migrants of Poona city were married and were living with their families (Nair, 1978). Of the 254 in-migrants of Kanpur city interviewed, about 94 per cent were married (Tiwari, 1997). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which over two-thirds (70%) of rural and over three-fourths (77%) of urban migrants respectively are married persons. Thus, migration takes place only after marriage in more than 70 per cent in both rural and urban groups. Further, about one-fourth (24%) of rural migrants are unmarried persons against over one-tenth (13%) of urban migrants. The percentages of separated persons and widowers are very meager in both rural and urban groups.

**XI.6.3 Number of dependents at Tiruchirappalli city**

The mean size of migrant household in a Maharashtran sugar factory was 8.22 (Pathare, 1972). The mean household size of in-migrants of Mexico City is 5-9 persons (Robert V.K. Emper, 1977). The average size of household of hill in-migrants of Delhi city is 3.7 persons (Bora, 1998). The present study shows a mixed pattern, in which the mean number of dependents (barring nil respondents) at Tiruchirappalli city is 5.77 for rural migrants and 3.90 for urban migrants. Hence, it could be clearly pointed out that the mean number of household of rural migrants is higher than the mean number of household of urban migrants.
XI.6.4 Marriage occurrence

Over two-thirds (70%) of rural migrants’ marriage has occurred before coming to Tiruchirappalli city and over one-fourth (30%) of migrants’ marriage after migration. On the other hand, about two-thirds (61.04%) of urban migrants’ marriage has occurred after coming to Tiruchirappalli city and over one-third (38.96%) of migrants’ marriage before migration. Thus, the delayed marriage pattern is observed in urban-urban migration, in comparison to rural-urban migration.

XI.6.5 Age at marriage of the in-migrants

Among the migrant slum dwellers of Mysore city, most of them marry at an early age, generally the boy at about eighteen and the girl at twelve or fourteen (Venkatarayapa, 1972). The present study shows that of the 70 rural migrants, over nine-tenths (92.85%) of rural migrants have entered into the marital life at the low marriage age group of 14-25. Amid the reasons for low age at marriage, social reasons (65%) are at top and the least is educational (31%). On the other hand, of the 77 urban migrants, three-fourths (75.31%) of migrants have entered into the marital life at the high marriage age group of 26-37. Amid the reasons for high age at marriage, economic reasons are at top (37.92%) followed by social (29.31%), socio-economic (24.14%) and to the least is educational (7%). Thus, the present study presents a picture of delayed marriage not due to education, but other factors. This is quite surprising and contrary to the existing scenario.

XI.6.6 Age at marriage of the in-migrants and legal age at marriage

As per the marriage act, the minimum age at marriage is 18 years for females and 21 years for males. The present study shows that the mean age at marriage is 20.75 years for rural male migrants and 17.73 years for their spouses. So, the present study arrived at a conclusion that rural male migrants and their spouses’ age at marriage are insignificantly lower than the legal age at marriage. By contrast, the mean age at marriage
is 27.40 years for urban male migrants and 23.47 years for their spouses, which is certainly higher than the legal age at marriage. Thus, urban way of life automatically culminated in higher age at marriage.

**XI.6.7 Migrants' reproductive behaviour**

Our society is a patriarchal society in which not only the status of housewives but also the status of working women is very deplorable. Most of the women are devoid of any decisiveness. They have to act in accordance with their husbands' decrees. The milieu is very worst in the reproductive behaviour that is mostly dominated by the husbands or mother in laws and the women have to act as live machines to give birth to children. For instance, just after the wedlock, husbands or mother-in-laws or relatives in the family often devolve tremendous pressure on young wives to have children as soon as possible and thus accomplish the traditional role of motherhood. Taking into the consideration of the role of males on reproductive behaviors, this study has made an attempt to study the reproductive behavior of male migrants as well as their consorts. Human reproduction is unique in a sense that even though it is mostly biological but the performance of which is greatly determined by the socio-economic and demographic factor such as age, religion, community, education, income, occupation and age at marriage. By studying these factors, it could be inferred the diverse behaviour of reproduction. Some of such findings have been highlighted here as well.

**XI.6.7.1 Religion and Fertility**

According to the cultural lag theory, changes in values and in attitudes towards reproduction would bring down the fertility as well (Gosta Carlesson, 1966). The present study shows that barring Sikhs and Jains, the average number of children ever born is high in Muslim religion in both rural (3.83) and urban (3.66) groups. The average number of children ever born is low in Hindu religion in rural group (3.61) and in
Christian religion (2.08) in urban group. Of all these religions, rural migrants have had higher average number of children than the urban migrants. Further, from the present study, it is found that Hindus have switched over to monogamy from polygamy that remains still intact among Muslims. Further, adoptions of contraceptive methods are rife among Hindus and Christians. By contrast, most of Muslims are reluctant in utilizing contraceptive methods because of sin, against religion and diminishing their religious member in future. The mean age at marriage of Muslims is lower than the Hindus and Christians. In fine, the values of reproductive behavior of Hindus are now changed as well. Such factors may contribute somewhat lower birthrates of Hindus and Christians than Muslims. Further, as changes in values and in attitudes towards reproduction have come down the fertility among Hindus and Christians, cultural lag theory is applicable to the present study.

XI.6.7.2 Community and fertility

According to the social capillarity theory, the rising in the social scale is only possible in a society where the vertical upward movement is simple. In a society ridden by castes where there are strong barriers to individual advancement, the force of social capillarity can not operate vigorously with the result that fertility in such a society is always very high (Nathan keyfitz, 1965). The present study shows that the average number of children ever born is high in SC (4.00 for rural migrants and 4.25 for urban migrants) and ST (3.95 for rural migrants and 3.10 for urban migrants). The average number of children ever born is low in the FC (2.14 for rural migrants and 2.16 for urban migrants) and BC (3.20 for rural migrants and 2.16 for urban migrants). Of all these communities, rural migrants (except ST clique of urban) have had higher average number of children ever born than the urban migrants. Further, from the present study, it is found that about one-half (47.42%) of rural migrants are engaged in the informal sectors and
about one-third (32.05%) of rural migrants have now pursued their low paid traditional occupations, as our inflexible society system does not provide room for them to engage whatever probations they like. Moreover, the age at marriage of SC/ST is low and most of them are illiterates and semi-literates, as a repercussion they have very limited utilization of contraceptive methods. By contrast, about three-fourths (72.44%) of urban migrants are engaged in the formal sectors and over four-fifths (83.64%) of urban migrants have not pursued their traditional occupations now, as our unilateral society provides room to them to engage whatever occupations they like. Further, most of the FC/BC are well-educated persons, which leads to them for high age at marriage and more utilization of contraceptive methods. Hence, these factors might have been contributed somewhat lower fertility among FC/BC than the SC/ST. Further, the applicability of the social capillarity theory is still under question because of the operation of various other factors in fertility like, age at marriage, educational attainments, income, government policies, social movement, legal patronage and privileges, which require another specific study in this regard.

XI.6.7.3 Educational level and fertility

According to the cultural lag theory, attitudes and practices conductive to diminishing fertility have been adopted first by the educated, wealthier and socially more favoured groups of the city population (United Nations, 1965). The present study shows that the average number of children ever born is high among illiterates (3.69 for rural migrants and 4 for urban migrants) and semi literates. On the other hand, the average number of children ever born is low in the higher educational cliques of graduates (2.25 for rural migrants and 1.67 for urban migrants), post-graduates (1.86 for urban migrants only) and professional studies (1.77 for urban migrants only). The same trend is also found between spouses’ educational attainments and fertility. Of all these educational
cliques (except illiterate clique of urban) rural migrants have had higher number of children than the urban migrants. Further, from the present study, it is found that increasing educational level of migrants increases their age at marriage indirectly. Further, educated migrants are more aware of contraceptive methods, benefits of small family, which eggs them on to practice the contraceptive methods. Such factors may explain somewhat lower birthrates of higher educated migrants than the unlettered and semi-literates migrants. As attitudes and practices conductive to diminishing fertility have been highly adopted by the educated and wealthier migrants, cultural lag theory is once again applicable to the present study.

XI.6.7.4 Age at marriage and fertility

According to the change and response theory, increasing age at marriage, one of the multiphase responses, is extremely effective in bringing down fertility (Kingsley Davis, 1963). The present study shows that the average number of children ever born is high in the marriage age groups of 14-17 years (4.00), 18-21 years (3.71), 22-25 years (3.27) in rural group and 18-21 years (3.71), 22-25 years (2.92) in urban group. Further, the average number of children ever born is low in the marriage age groups of 26-29 years (1.75), 30-33 years (2.00) and 30-33 years (2.09) in urban group. The same pattern is also found between spouses' age at marriage and fertility. Hence, as increasing age at marriage of migrants has decreased the fertility, change and response theory is applicable to the present study.

XI.6.7.5 Income and fertility

According to Liebenstein, three types of utilities (1) personal pleasure (2) productive unit (3) old age support and two types of cost (i) direct cost (expenses of bringing up a child) (ii) indirect cost (mother in ability to work) are involved in having an additional child (Harvey Liebenstein, 1957). The present study shows that the average
number of children ever born is high in the income clique of Rs. Up to 5000/- in both rural (3.38) and urban (2.96) groups. The average number of children ever born is low in the higher income clique of Rs.25001-30000/- in both rural (2.00) and urban (another 2.00) groups. Of all these income levels, (barring Rs.30001-35000/- and Rs.25001-30000/-) rural migrants (except Rs.20001-25000/- income clique of urban) have had higher average number of children than the urban migrants. Further, from the present study, it is found that most of the high-income groups have had the contention that to limit their family size owing to avoid mothers' in ability to work and to provide better education to children. On the other hand, most of the low-income groups have thought that children are as old age support, income generating sources and social power. In concise, more children are economically disadvantage for high-income groups and advantage for low-income groups. Hence, such factors may explain somewhat lower fertility in the high-income groups than the low-income groups. Further, as increasing household income of the migrants has decreased the fertility, Liebenstein theory is applicable to this study.

XI.6.7.6 Occupation and fertility

In rural group, employees (3.40) have had higher average number of children ever born than employers (3.10). Among artisans, self-employed artisans (3.0) have had higher average number of children ever born than the salaried artisans (2.50). But, among white and blue collars, salaried white (3.00) and blue collars (3.75) collars have had higher average number of children ever born than the self-employed white (2.00) and blue (3.50) collars. Among low-paid jobs, service workers (4.18) have had higher average number of children even born than the coolies (3.85) and street vendors (3.43). In urban group, employees (2.33) have had higher average number of children ever born than the employers (2.27). Among artisans, self-employed artisans (2.43) have had higher average
number of children ever born than salaried artisans (2.33). Among white and blue collars, salaried white (1.71) and blue (3.67) collars have had higher average number of children ever born than the self-employed white (1.67) and blue (3.00) collars. Among low-paid jobs, coolies (4.00) and service workers (another 4.00) have had higher average number of children ever born than the street vendors (3.00). Thus, the present study reveals the fact that higher/sophisticated occupation presents low fertility and lower/unsophisticated occupation presents high fertility. In short, higher the occupation leads to lower the fertility and lower the occupation leads to the higher the fertility.

XI.6.7.7 Years in migration and fertility

Among the in-migrants of Ludhiana city, recent in-migrants have lower fertility than longstanding in-migrants (Singh and Oberai, 1983). But, the present study shows an anomalous finding, in which initial-period migrants (3.88) have had higher average number of children ever born than the longstanding migrants in rural group. However, in urban group, longstanding migrants (21-25 years) have had higher average number of children ever born (2.60) than the initial-period migrants (2.35). Hence, the present study could not find any order between years in migration and children ever born both in rural and urban groups.

XI.6.7.8 Fertility policy of Indian Government and in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city

The mean number of children ever born is 3.59 for rural migrants and 2.41 for urban migrants. This is certainly high, while comparing the Indian government policy of two children per family. This is so because; rural migrants have followed the rural fertility norms such as son preference, fetish on contraceptive methods, passion over large family size and limited utilization of contraceptives etc. Hence, the fertility is high among rural migrants. By contrast, urban migrants have followed the urban fertility norms such as adoption of small family size, more awareness of contraceptive methods and more
utilization of contraceptives etc. Hence, the fertility is low among urban migrants. So, the government should intensify its family welfare programmes in order to bring down the fertility rate in the migrants’ reproductive behaviour especially aiming at rural migrants.

XI.6.8 Age at marriage

The present study is unable to compile the reviews belonging to the age at marriage. Hence, it only presents its own findings pertaining to age at marriage of the immigrants of Tiruchirappalli city. Some important findings are summarized as follows.

XI.6.8.1 Religion and age at marriage

With regard to religion and age at marriage, (barring Sikhs and Jains) the mean age at marriage is high in Hindu religion in both rural (20.72 years) and urban (28.14 years) groups. On the other hand, the mean age at marriage is low in Christian religion (19.50 years) in rural group and Muslim religion (22.83 years) in urban group. Of all these religions, rural migrants’ age at marriage is lower than the urban migrants’ age at marriage.

XI.6.8.2 Community and age at marriage

As for community and age at marriage, the age at marriage is high in FC (25.50 years for rural migrants and 28 years for urban migrants) and BC (20.76 for rural migrants and 27.73 years for urban migrants) communities. On the other hand, the age at marriage is low in MBC (20.59 years for rural migrants and 27.50 years for urban migrants), SC (19.97 years for rural migrants and 26.92 years for urban migrants) and ST (18.83 years for rural migrants and 22.50 years for urban migrants) communities. Of all these communities, rural migrants’ age at marriage is lower than the urban migrants’ age at marriage.

XI.6.8.3 Educational level and age at marriage

As for educational levels and age at marriage, illiterates (19.50 years for rural migrants and another 19.50 years for urban migrants) and the semi-educated migrants
such as primary (20.07 years for rural migrants and 22.16 years for urban migrants), middle school (19.79 years for rural migrants and 23.50 years for urban migrants), high school (21.18 years for rural migrants and 25.90 years for urban migrants) have had lower age at marriage than the higher educated migrants (27.50 years for rural graduates and 28.50 years for urban graduates). Of all these educational levels, rural migrants' age at marriage is lower than the urban migrants' age at marriage.

XI.6.8.4 Marriage occurrence and age at marriage

With regard to marriage occurrence and age at marriage, the migrants, those who married before coming to Tiruchirappalli city, have had lower age at marriage (19.91 years for rural migrants and 25.63 years for urban migrants) than the migrants, those who married after coming to Tiruchirappalli city (22.74 years for rural migrants and 28.52 years for urban migrants).

XI.6.8.5 Occupations and age at marriage

In the business, employees' age at marriage (20.50 years for rural migrants and 25.50 years for urban migrants) is lower than the employers' age at marriage (22.70 years for rural migrants and 26.97 years for urban migrants). Further, salaried artisans, salaried white-collars and salaried blue-collars both in rural and urban groups have had lower age at marriage than the self-employed artisans, self-employed white-collars and self-employed blue-collars. Similarly, coolies (19.50 years for rural migrants only), street vendors (19.50 years for rural migrants and 21.50 years for urban migrants) and service workers (19.90 years for rural migrants and 19.50 years for urban migrants) have had lower mean age at marriage than the others. Of all these occupational status, rural migrants' age at marriage is lower than the urban migrants' age at marriage.
XI.6.9 Occupations and household income

XI.6.9.1 Present occupations of the in-migrants

Migrants have engaged in different type of activities. As per NSS 55th round, in urban areas regular employment engaged 55.6 per cent of migrant workers while self-employment and casual work engaged in 31.1 and 13.30 per cent respectively (NSS 55th round, 2000). The bulk of migrants seem to create their own employment or family owned enterprises. The self-employed were engaged in street vending, hawking etc. Others find job as drivers, carpenters and barbers etc. (Shahid Sadruddin Nanavati, 2005). The present study shows a different type of pattern, in which two-thirds (67%) of rural migrants are engaged in the low level jobs comprising of service workers, coolies, street vendors, blue collars and employees in business. On the other hand, about two-thirds (64%) of urban migrants are engaged in the highly paid jobs consisting of white-collars, artisans and employers in business.

XI.6.9.2 Sectors of employment

Migration supplies far more labour than the formal sector can absorb and labour is absorbed into the informal sector (Hoselitz, 1957). In Ahmedabad city, majority of the migrants were engaged in the informal sectors (Papola, 1981). Because of the limited job opportunities in the formal sectors, most of the in-migrants are compelled to take up the jobs in the informal sectors (Shekar Mukerjee, 2001). The present study shows a mixed pattern, in which about one-half (47.42%) of rural migrants are engaged in the informal sectors and over one-third (38.14%) of migrants in the formal sectors. By contrast, about three-fourths (72.44%) of urban migrants are engaged in the formal sectors and about one-fifth (19.39%) in the informal sectors. Higher level of education, higher employability skills and deviation from traditional occupations might have been contributed for the urban migrants to engage in the formal sectors.
XI.6.9.3 Working hours per day

On an average, a migrant worker of Kanpur city works 11.62 hours per day (Tiwari, 1997). But, the present study shows that on an average, a rural migrant works 11.63 hours per day. On the contrary, an urban migrant works 9.57 hours per day. Hence, it could be concluded that rural migrants are working more hours per day than the urban migrants at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.9.4 Traditional occupations and its changes

In the Modelpur of Punjab, of the 20 Balmikis, the father of most Balmikis had followed their traditional occupations, but their sons, 2 persons only had adopted that. Among the fathers of Ad Daharmis (19 persons) and Ramgarhias (another 19 per sons) 6 and 1 person had followed their traditional occupations against nothing by sons (Satish saberwal, 1976). About 80 per cent of Malabar migrants’ fathers were as cultivators and remaining 20 per cent as casual labourers. But, 14 per cent of sons moved on to other fields, 3 per cent opted teaching, another 3 per cent government services and banking and less than 1 per cent as shopkeepers (Sebastin, 2007). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which even though over three-fourths (78%) of rural and over one-half (55%) of urban migrants have had traditional occupations, of them only about one-third (32.05%) of rural and below one-fifth (16.36%) of urban migrants have pursued that traditional occupations at the time of survey. A little more than two-thirds (67.95%) of rural and over four-fifth (83.64%) of urban migrants have switched over to other occupations due to the poor revenue and low status of the traditional occupations.

XI.6.9.5 Occupational training

According to the city surveys, the large numbers of migrants are unskilled persons (Kuppuswamy, 1972). Among the in-migrants of Poona city, 66.50 per cent did not have any occupation training (Nair, 1978). But, the present study shows that about one-half
(49%) of rural and about two-thirds (66%) of urban migrants have obtained the occupational trainings. Of the trained migrants, each over four-fifths of rural (83.67%) and urban (84.85%) migrants have got the occupational trainings before migration and below each one-fifth of rural (16.33%) and urban (15.15%) migrants after migration. Over one-half (57.14%) of rural migrants have acquired the informal trainings. By contrast, above two-fifths (42.86%) of rural and about three-fifths (59.09%) of urban migrants have received the formal trainings. The average training period is 13.71 months for rural migrants and 12.64 months for urban migrants. Hence, it could be concluded that urban migrants have had higher employability skills than the rural migrants.

**XI.6.9.6 Waiting period for getting first job**

Among the in-migrants of Delhi city, the average period of waiting for the first job was 17 days (Banerjee, 1981). About 90 per cent of in-migrants of Ludhiana city who looked for work could find it within two months of their arrival (Oberai and Singh, 1983). More than half of in-migrants workers of Kanpur city (56%) did not wait at all for getting job in the formal sector. On an average, waiting period for a worker comes to around 3 months (Tiwari, 1997). The present study shows a mixed pattern, in which the average waiting period is 1.65 months for rural migrants and 3.28 months for urban migrants. Hence, it could be concluded that rural migrants have been quickly absorbed by the urban labour market at Tiruchirappalli city. Further, this study has made an attempt to gauge the relationship between waiting period and educational attainments, occupational training and nature of training.

**XI.6.9.7 Educational level and waiting period**

The duration of job search is related to the educational attainment of migrants (Biswaajit Banerjee, 1977). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which majority of illiterates and semi-literates have acquired their jobs within a month in both
rural and urban group. On the other hand, majority of graduates, post-graduates and professional degree holders have obtained their jobs within 4-6 months. This indicates that illiterates and semi-illiterates are absorbed by urban labour market very quickly than the higher educated migrants.

**XI.6.9.8 Occupational training and waiting period**

In rural group, a little more than one-half (51.52%) and about one-tenth (9.09%) of trained migrants have got their first jobs within a month. On the other hand, over three-fourths (77.78%) of untrained migrants have got their first jobs within a month. Similarly, in urban group above one-half (46.67%), below one-fifth (15.56%) and one-fifth (20%) of trained migrants have acquired their first jobs within 1-3 months, 4-6 months and 7-9 months respectively. On the other hand, above one-third (38.48%) and about one-third (30.76%) of migrants have got their first jobs within a month and 1-3 months respectively. This denotes that occupational training has increased the migrants’ waiting period for getting the first job.

**XI.6.9.9 Nature of training and waiting period**

Each about two-thirds (66%) of rural and urban migrants with formal trainings have got their first jobs within 1-3 months and 4-6 months. Similarly, about two-thirds (63.49%) of rural and about three-fifths (58.33%) of urban migrants with informal trainings have obtained their first jobs within 1-3 months and 4-6 months. Hence, the present study arrived at a conclusion that there is no relationship between nature of training and waiting period as well.

**XI.6.9.10 First job**

Since most of the Tzintzuntzenos lacking appropriate experience or credentials for high-level occupations, their first jobs were usually as temporary jobs (Robert V.K. Emper, 1977). The present study shows a different type of pattern, in which about
two-thirds (66.67%) of rural migrants’ first jobs are as temporary jobs and only about one-fourth (23.08%) of migrants’ first jobs are as permanent jobs. By contrast, over one-half (52.11%) of urban migrants’ first jobs are as permanent jobs and only two-fifths (40.85%) of migrants’ first jobs are as temporary jobs.

XI.6.9.11 Source of the first job

The incorporation of workers in the labour market depends upon the migrants’ social network through which most of the migrants have swiftly got their first jobs (Mosse et al., 2000). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which over nine-tenths (94.88%) of rural and over two-thirds (70.43%) of urban migrants have obtained their first jobs through social network. However, most of the rural migrants have acquired their first jobs through the help of family members (10.26%), relatives (35.90%) and co-villagers (19.23%). By contrast, most of the urban migrants have obtained their first jobs through the help of friends (22.54%), own-community people (11.27%) and marriage contacts (11.27%).

XI.6.9.12 Source of food and accommodations

In the Delhi slums, friends and relatives act as social network that provides initial income support, information, accommodation and access to jobs to the migrants. (Mitra and Gupta, 2002). According to the social network theory, the prospect of receiving support when searching for a job and housing diminishes the direct cost of migrants owing to the possibility of living with friends, relatives and acquaintances (Rebecca Budde, 2008). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which social network has provided initial support to almost all the rural (98.72%) and about nine-tenths (88.73%) of urban migrants. However, there are some variations between them. Among rural migrants, relatives and co-villagers have provided food and accommodations to over one-third (35.90%) and about one-fifth (19.23%) of migrants respectively. But, among
urban migrants, friends have provided the food and shelter to over one-fourth (29.58%) of migrants against below one-fifth (16.90%) of relatives. The contribution of own-community people is higher in urban group (14.08%) than the rural group (6.42). Further, as most of the rural and urban migrants have been helped by their social network at the waiting period, the social network theory is applicable to this study.

XI.6.9.13 Occupation before and after migration

There was a marked shift in the occupations of the in-migrants of Delhi city, most of them taking to urban occupations of services, manufacture and transport (Rao and Desai, 1965). During the period of migration, the migrants, those had engaged in agricultural activities at their native places, were turned into gang work on roads (62%) and house construction activities (31%) at Kaira district (Jayaraman, 1985). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which barring 35 rural migrants (2 retired persons 7 students and 26 unemployed persons), of the 65 rural migrants, about two-thirds (61.53%) of migrants have switched over to other occupations (such as agricultural labour to coolies, street vendors and service workers etc., employees in business to employers, self-employed white-collars and street vendors etc., salaried blue-collars to self-employed blue collars etc.) and 38.47 per cent of rural migrants have pursued the same occupations of previous residential places after migration. Similarly, barring 43 urban migrants (2 retired persons 4 students and 37 unemployed persons), of the 57 urban migrants, about three-fourths (57.89%) of migrants have turned into other occupations and over two-fifths (42.11%) have followed the same occupations of previous residential places.

XI.6.9.14 Individual income of in-migrants before and after migration

Migrants on the whole do appear to have increased their private welfare as a result of migration (Carvajal and Geithman, 1974). Among the in-migrants belonging to the seventy cities of China, about 73 per cent said their income was better after migration and
only 5 per cent said it was worse (Donald T. Rowland, 1992). A very small proportion of male migrants achieve economic mobility in the destination area (Haberfeld et al., 1999). The present study shows that barring non-earners at the previous residential places (33 rural migrants), out of 67 rural migrants, about three-fourths (74.62%) of migrants' income has increased and a little more than one-fifth (20.90%) of migrants' income remains intact and only about one-twentieth (4.48%) of migrants' income has come down after migration. Similarly, barring non-earners at the previous residential place (43 urban migrants), of the 57 urban migrants four-fifths (80.70%) of migrants' income has increased and below one-fifth (15.79%) of migrants' income remains intact and below one-twentieth (3.51%) per cent of migrants' income has come down after migration.

XI.6.9.15 Monthly house hold income of the in-migrants

As most of the migrants are as salaried persons and low-paid labours, they have responded well to the query of monthly income rather than the annual income. Hence, the present study has only taken the monthly income rather than the annual income for analyzing. According to the city surveys, about 10 per cent of the migrants earn less than Rs.50/- a month and 55 per cent earn below Rs.75/- per month (Kuppuswamy, 1972). More than 80 per cent of the in-migrants of Poona city have monthly income ranging from Rs.400-1200/- (Nair, 1978). On an average, a migrant worker of Kanpur city earned Rs.313.85/- per month that was 3 times higher than the pre capita income at their native places (Rs.103.71/-) per months (Tiwari, 1997). In Alaska, during 2000-2003 the migrants, those who moved from one rural area to urban area, have had the lower average early income ($ 31,164), than the migrants, those who move from one urban to another ($ 34,468) suggesting that urban to urban migration is more beneficial than rural to urban migration (Nels Tomlinson, 2005). The present study shows that about three-fourths (73%) of rural migrants' monthly total household income is below Rs.5001/-. By contrast,
a little more than two-thirds (68%) of urban migrants’ monthly total household income is Rs.5000 and above. Further, the mean monthly total household income is Rs.5505.19/- per month for rural migrants, which is over 2 times higher than the per capita income of their previous residential places (Rs.2477.19/-) and Rs.11350.50/- per month for urban migrants, which is over 3 times higher than the per capita income of their previous residential places (Rs.3069.72/-). Hence, it is clear that urban migrants’ monthly total income is almost double than the rural migrants’ monthly total household income. Further, this study has tried to understand the association between monthly total household income and socio-economic and demographic factors.

XI.6.10 Socio-economic, demographic factors and monthly total household income

XI.6.10.1 Religion and monthly total household income

Barring Sikhs and Jains, among rural migrants, the average monthly total household income is high in Muslim religion (Rs.8214.09/-), but, among urban migrants it is high in Hindu religion (Rs.11655.43/-). Christian religion has the very low average monthly total household income in both rural (Rs.3929.07/-) and urban (Rs.9853.44/-) group. Hence, this study has failed to find out any significant relationship between religion and monthly total household income. Further, religion-wise (barring Sikhs and Jains) urban migrants have had higher average monthly total household income than the rural migrants.

XI.6.10.2 Community and monthly total household income

Among the in-migrants of Poona city, caste and income do not show any significant association (Nair, 1978). The present study shows a contrasting pattern, in which the average monthly total household income is high in FC (Rs.7500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.14000.50/- for urban migrants) and BC (Rs.8587.46/- for rural migrants and Rs.11897.50/- for urban migrants) communities. The average monthly total
household income is low in SC (Rs.4219.25/- for rural migrants and Rs.10313.00/- for urban migrants) and ST (Rs.5000.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.6250.50/- for urban migrants) communities. Further, the community-wise urban migrants have had higher average monthly total household income than the rural migrants.

**XI.6.10.3 Educational level and monthly total household income**

The earning capacity of educated migrants in the urban areas of Tanzania was 1.75 times greater than that of uneducated migrants (Sabot, 1972). The present study shows the same pattern, in which the average monthly total household income is high in higher educational cliques of professional studies, post-graduates and graduates (Rs.12500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.12187.98/- for urban migrants). The average monthly total household income is low among illiterates (Rs.3500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.2500.50/- for urban migrants) and the semi-educational cliques of primary (Rs.3289.97/- for rural migrants and Rs.4500.50/- for urban migrants) and high school (Rs.6574.57/- for rural migrants and Rs.3750.50/- for urban migrants). Further, educational level-wise, illiterates and in the educational cliques of high school, diploma and graduates of rural migrants have had higher average monthly total household income than the urban migrants. In the educational cliques of primary, middle, higher secondary and post-graduates urban migrants have had higher average monthly total household income than the rural migrants.

**XI.6.10.4 Present occupation and household income**

Among the in-migrants of Ludhiana city, professional, executive and sales workers have higher earnings than the service and agricultural-related workers (Singh and Oberai, 1983). The present study shows the same pattern, in which employers in business and salaried artisans have had higher average monthly total household income than the employees is business and self-employed artisans in both rural and urban groups. Further
among the white-collars, salaried white-collars (Rs.17000.50/-) belonging to urban group have had average monthly total household income than the salaried white-collars (Rs.4167.17/-) pertaining to rural group. But, self-employed white-collars (Rs.22500.50/-) belonging to rural group have higher earnings than the self-employed white-collars (Rs.18611.61/-) pertaining to urban group. There is not much variation in low-income jobs between rural and urban group.

XI.6.10.5 Years in migration and monthly total household income

The length of stay at the destination plays an important role in income rise. Among the hill in-migrants of Delhi city, the average monthly income per in-migrant worker increased about 13 times from the time of migration to the time of survey (Bora, 1997). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which the average monthly total household income is lower among initial-period migrants (Rs.2778.28/- for rural migrants and Rs.6200.50/- for urban migrants) than the longstanding migrants. Further, duration of staying-wise urban migrants have earned higher average monthly total household income than the rural migrants.

XI.6.10.6 Reasons for poor and better income

A little more than two-thirds (69%) of rural migrants belong to the oppressed castes. A little more than three-fourths (77%) of rural migrants’ education levels are up to high school. About one-half (48%) of rural migrants are devoid of occupational trainings. Of the 49 trained rural migrants, about three-fifths (57.14%) of rural migrants have had the informal trainings. Further, our inflexible society does not provide room to the oppressed castes to take up whatever jobs they like. They have forced to do their traditional occupations, so that about one-third (32.05%) of rural migrants have pursued their traditional occupations. Hence, all these factors lead to the rural migrants to engage
in the low level jobs of the informal sectors where the wage is low. So, the rural migrants’
monthly income is poor at Tiruchirappalli city.

On the other hand, a little more than two-thirds (68%) of urban migrants belong to
the dominant castes. About three-fourths (72%) of urban migrants’ educational levels are
above the high school. About two-thirds (68%) of urban migrants have had occupational
trainings; of them three-fifths (59.09%) have had formal trainings. Further, caste Hindus
are able to take up whatever jobs they like, so that above four-fifths (83.64%) of urban
migrants have not pursued their traditional occupations. All these factors lead to the urban
migrants to engage in the high level job of the formal sector where the wage is high. So,
the urban migrants’ monthly income is better at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.11 Below poverty line and in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city

According to the city surveys, about 25 per cent of the rural migrants are living in
cities below the poverty line, as they earn less than Rs.225/- per annum (Kuppuswamy,
1972). Of the 254 migrant workers of Kanpur city, 32.55 per cent workers are found
living the below poverty line (Tiwari, 1997). As per the Government of India, poverty
line for the urban areas is Rs.296/- per month and for rural areas Rs.276/- per month.
Further, the family, which has the annual income of Rs.18000/- (Rs.1500/- per month), is
below the poverty line (India Watch, 2008). From the present study, it is found that the
average annual income is Rs.66062.28/- for rural migrants and Rs.1,36,206/- for urban
migrants. Hence, it could be clearly pointed out that in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city,
irrespective of their duration of staying, are well above the poverty line.

XI.6.12 Income expectation and fulfillment

Push theorists argue that migration in most cases is a leap into darkness and that
migrants merely believe the conditions are better at urban areas. In general, studies on
expectations support the hypothesis that migrants are generally not successful in fulfilling
their desired employment and income expectations. Among the hill migrants of Delhi city, expectations of income (Rs.310/-) per worker were more than fulfilled by the actual income earned (Rs.557/-) per worker (Bora, 1998). Due to the changing value of money, the present study has only taken the initial-period migrants (1-5 years) for analyzing the expected income. The mean expected income for the rural migrants is Rs.3917.16/- per month and Rs.7615.50/- for urban migrants. But, the average monthly total household income is Rs.2778.28/- for rural migrants and Rs.6200.50/- for urban migrants. So, it is clear that both rural and urban migrants have failed to achieve their expected income at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.13 Changes of jobs at Tiruchirappalli city

The phrase, change of jobs, that does not indicate the migrants job changes that occurred before and after migration, but indicates that how many times the migrants have changed their jobs at Tiruchirappalli city due to the low income or closure of units etc. By studying this, it could be inferred that which migrants have changed their jobs and which not?

XI.6.13.1 Association between socio-economic, demographic factors and number of job changes

As for the association between socio-economic, demographic factors and number of job changes, the present study is unable to find out any pattern or order in the changes of job according to the religion, community, educational attainment and years in migration. But, occupational training has a strong effect on changes of jobs. In other words, most of the trained migrants have not changed their jobs. By contrast, most of the untrained migrants have changed their jobs. Similarly, number of job changes is higher in low-level jobs than the high-level jobs.
XI.6.13.2 Todaro model and in-migrants of Tiruchirappalli city

In the first stage, the migrants arrive in the urban area and in many cases some of them remain unemployed or low earning employed in the tradition sector while hunting for a modern sector job. In the second stage, the migrants often succeed in obtaining modern sector jobs which carry higher earning (Todaro, 1966). From the present study, it is found that over one-half (53%) of rural and about two-thirds (66%) of urban migrants have not changed their jobs. About 44 and 32 per cent of rural and urban migrants respectively changed their jobs at Tiruchirappalli city. Changes of job are generally of horizontal nature i.e., salaried artisan to salaried artisans, salaried artisans to self-employed artisans, employees to employees, salaried blue-collars to salaried blue-collars, salaried blue-collars to salaried blue-collars, salaried blue-collars to self-employed blue-collars, coolies to street vendors and street vendor to coolies, etc. Generally, changes are jobs are done due to the higher wages or hard work or closure of units etc. As majority of rural (53%) and urban (66%) migrants have not changed their jobs at Tiruchirappalli city, Todaro model is not applicable to this study.

XI.6.14 Out-remittances of in-migrants at Tiruchirappalli city

XI.6.14.1 The status of remittance

Out of 1140 males working in Nairobi, about 89 per cent sent back money regularly to their villages. (Johnson and White law, 1972). In the two villages close to Bangkok only about 49 per cent of migrants sent back remittance and about 51 per cent of migrants did not send any remittance (Sakdejayont, 1973). All those who migrated do not remit money even though 78 per cent of the out-migrants from Pauri Garhwal villages remitted regularly (Dobahal (1987). In Cambodia, 3 per cent of the labour force is employed in garment manufacturing units. Most garment workers are migrants and they remit earning home (Sok et al., 2001). The present study shows that over one-half (54%) of rural and urban (58%) have not sent any remittances to their families staying back at
places of origin. Over two-fifths of rural (46%) and urban (42%) migrants have sent remittances to their families.

**XI.6.14.2 Reasons for not remitting**

About 50 per cent of the sample hill migrants in Delhi do not remit any amount at all. Further over 81 per cent, of those not remitting, were living with their families or providing food and shelter to their own village people, friends or relatives. Another 10 per cent not remitting stated having low earnings and thus not being able to save and remit. (Bora, 1998). The present study shows that of the migrants those not remitting over one-half of rural (53.70%) and urban (53.45%) migrants did not sent any money as they are devoid of any dependent at their origin places. Despite having had dependents over two-fifths of rural (46.30%) and urban (46.55%) migrants did not send any money due to the social-economic and personal reasons. Most of the rural migrants did not send any remittance due to the family staying (36%) and low income (32%). On the other hand, most of the urban migrants did not send any remittance because of the enough income at the places of origin (37.04%) and low income (22.23%).

**XI.6.14.3 Frequency of remittance**

In a sample of 650 urban workers in Nigeria, about 60 per cent sent remittance of which half sent money 9 to 12 times a year (Adepoju, 1974). The present study shows that almost all the rural (97.83%) and urban (97.62%) migrants have sent the remittances for each and every month.

**XI.6.14.4 Mode of remittance**

Most remittance had been sent by the migrants either, personally or through the mail (Margin, 1970). In Pauri teshil in Garhwal, during 1979, Rs.26 million worth was received in terms of money orders in the post office (Whittaker, 1988). The present study shows a mixed trend, in which about one-half (47.82%) of rural migrants have handed
over the remittances directly. By contrast, about two-fifths (38.10%) and over one-fourth (28.57%) of urban migrants have sent the remittances through postal and bank services.

**XI.6.14.5 Monthly volume of remittance**

The amount remitted by a migrant varies directly with the family's needs and with the social and economic ties in the rural area (Rampal and Lobdel, 1978). In the Delhi survey notes that the average amount remitted was Rs.69 per month (Banerjee, 1986). The present study shows that the average monthly remittance is Rs.2022.24/- for rural migrants and Rs.1619.55/- for urban migrants. So, it could be affirmed that rural migrants are remitting more money than the urban migrants from Tiruchirappalli city.

**XI.6.14.6 Purposes of remittances**

In the rural and urban areas of Punjab purchase of households goods ranked at the top of total responses (Swarnjit Mehta, 1990). The remittance of Ghanaian migrants, which come in the form of transfers of money and good, provide material support in times of sickness and old age, and for education and funerals (Arhinful, 2001). Remittance is mainly used for purposes like consumption, repayment of loans and meeting other social obligations (Ravi Srivastava and Sasi Kumar, 2003). The present study also shows the similar trend, in which majority of rural migrants have remitted for the purposes of food and clothing (36.96%), constructions of houses (15.22%), purchasing of household goods (8.70%), purchasing of seeds and fertilizer (another 8.70%) and wherewithal (6.53%). By contrast, most of the urban migrants have sent the remittances for the purposes of wherewithal to parents (23.81%), other family members' education (16.67%), food and clothing (11.92%); medical expenses (7.14%), asset formation (another 7.14%) and fulfillment of social obligations (another 7.14%).

**XI.6.14.7 Positive link between consumption of remittance and improving livelihoods**

From the present study, it is found that major proportion of remittances have sent for consumption (78.27 per cent in rural group and 88.10 per cent in urban group, which
raises a query that if remittances are utilized for consumption, there would be very limited scope for the income generating activities. But, Frank Ellis positively argues that “If remittance income is spent on food, then it is compensated for a food deficit, and is associated with achieving food security in borderline circumstance. Some good that are consumer goods in richer societies (bicycles, refrigerators, sewing machines etc.) are producer goods that are used to generate income in poor societies. Housing expenditure by those remittance receiving families that can afford to do this improves their own standards of living, and may (as above) create some spin-offs for others” (Frank Ellis, 2003). However, as the present study did not meet the receivers of the remittances, it is unable to establish or refute the Frank Ellis’s argument.

XI.6.15 Association between socio-economic, demographic factors and monthly remittance

XI.6.15.1 Sex and monthly remittance

The present study shows that females have sent higher average monthly remittances in both rural (Rs.3167.16/-) and urban (Rs.3500.50/-) groups than the males (Rs.1942.36/- for rural male migrants and Rs.1421.55 for urban male migrants). This is so because most of the females are spinsters and they are saving for their dotal expenses.

XI.6.15.2 Age and monthly remittance

In Bangladesh among the migrants of garment factory workers younger migrants and recent migrants send more remittances than the older and long-term migrants (Asfar, 2003). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which younger migrants in both rural (Rs.2206.38/- for 21-25 years and Rs.2000.50/- for 26-30 years) and urban (Rs.2611.61/- for 21-25 years and Rs.2318.68/- for 26-30 years) groups have remitted more average monthly remittance than the elder migrants (mostly Rs.500/- for 41 years and above, in both rural and urban groups).
XI.6.15.3 Religion and monthly remittance

As for the religion and monthly average remittance, Christians in both rural (Rs.2500.50/-) and urban (another Rs.2500.50/-) groups have sent more average monthly remittance than the Hindus (Rs.2075.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.1357.65/- for urban migrants) and Muslims (Rs.1500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.1167.16/- for urban migrants). Thus, Christians remit more due to their affinity for religion and religious obligations. The other religions are not more explicit.

XI.6.15.4 Community and monthly remittance

Among the in-migrants of Ludhiana city, high castes are less likely to remit than the low castes (Oberai and Manmohan Singh, 1983). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which SC (Rs.2310.02/- for rural migrants and Rs.2667.16/- for urban migrants) and ST (Rs.2500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.1000.50/- for urban migrants) have sent the higher average monthly remittance than BC (Rs.1357.64/- for rural migrants and Rs.1260.50/- for urban migrants and FC (Rs.1500.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.2167.16/- for urban migrants).

XI.6.15.5 Educational attainment and monthly remittance

With regard to the educational attainments and volume of remittances, illiterates and low educated migrants in both rural and urban group have sent more average monthly remittance than the higher educated migrants.

XI.6.15.6 Years in migration and monthly remittance

As successful migrants, after spending a substantial period at migration, were followed by their family members (or acquired urban families), the numbers of dependents increase in the town. So, the proportion of that income remitted falls sharply (John Connell et al, 1976). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which an inverse relationship has been found between years in migration and the volume of
remittance. The migrants of both groups, those who are residing in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, have sent more average monthly remittance than the migrants, those who are residing in the duration of staying of 6-30 years.

**XI.6.15.7 Types of family and monthly remittance**

The size of remittance was related to the size family (Caplan, 1970). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which truncated (Rs.2379.29/- for rural migrants and Rs.2800.50/- for urban migrants) and extended (Rs.1700.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.2786.21/- for urban migrants) family members have sent higher average monthly remittance than nuclear (Rs.900.50/- for rural migrants and Rs.848.33/- for urban migrants) family members.

**XI.6.15.8 Marital status and monthly remittance**

Among those who were actually remitting, the unmarried, i.e., those without families in Delhi, were remitting larger amounts than the married ones living with families (Bora, 1998). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which unmarried migrants in both rural (Rs.2400.50/-) and urban (Rs.3500.50/-) groups have sent higher average monthly remittance than the married migrants (Rs.1731.27/- for rural migrants and Rs.1446.45/- for urban migrants).

**XI.6.15.9 Occupations and monthly remittance**

Among urban workers in Dares salaam, found that 24 per cent of non-wage-earners sent remittance home as against 54 per cent of wage earners (Bienefeld, 1974). The present study also shows the same pattern, in which salaried persons in both rural and urban group have sent more average monthly remittance than the non-wage earners and self-employed persons.
XI.6.15.10 Income and monthly remittance

Poor migrants tend to remit a higher proportion of their income than the richer migrants. However as the migrants' income levels rise, the amount remitted, on average, levels off and than declines (Clare Waddington, 2003). The present study also shows the similar pattern, in which among rural migrants, low-income group, those who earn below Rs.5001/- per month, have sent higher average monthly remittance (Rs.2230.22/-) than the high-income groups. Among urban migrants, low and middle-income groups, those who earn below Rs.10001/- per month, have sent more average monthly remittance (Rs.1500.50/- for the income clique of Rs. up to 5000/- and Rs.1929.07/- for the income clique of Rs.5001-10000/-) than the higher-income groups.

XI.6.15.11 Reasons for unequal remittance

The analysis of the data points to the conclusion that remittances flow largely from economically, socially and educationally weaker groups, for which there are two main reasons. First, they are more likely to have originated from relatively poorer households, with the result that remittances for them are partly a recompense for loss of labour. And second, the less well off among them need to keep their option of returning open, should an occasion to do so arise. So, for them, remittances are partly a means to facilitate their re-entry into places of origin. The analysis also shows that the decision to remit dependents mainly on the nature and degree of relationship with the remaining members of the household.

XI.6.16 Migrants' Social And Economic Ties With Their Places Of Origin

XI.6.16.1 Frequency of visiting the native places

About 70 per cent of the household visited their native places during the year of survey (Rao and Desai, 1965). The present study shows that in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, rural migrants (31.95 per cent for every month and another 31.95 per cent for once in the months) have visited their places of origin frequently than the urban migrants.
(8 per cent for every month and 14 per cent for once in three months). But, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, thumping percentages of rural and urban migrants have gone to their places of origin only at the time of functions-festivals and every year. Hence, it could be clearly pointed out that migrants’ increasing duration of staying has reduced their contact to places of origin.

**XI.6.16.2 Social interactions with neighbours**

Majority of rural (ranging from 76.38 per cent to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 82 per cent to 100 per cent) migrants irrespective of their duration of staying have had the neighbours of equal economic standard as well. In the duration of staying of 1-5 year, over one-half (58.33%) of rural migrants have gone to their neighbours’ homes frequently. By contrast, over one-half (56%) of urban migrants have visited their neighbours’ homes occasionally. Further, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, all the rural migrants have gone to their neighbours’ homes frequently. On the contrary, majority of the urban migrants (ranging from 42.86 to 92.30 per cent) have gone to their neighbours’ home occasionally. This implies that in all the duration of staying rural migrants have had higher social interactions with their neighbours than the urban migrants. In all the duration of staying of 1-30 years, major proportions of rural migrants (ranging from 54.16 to 100 per cent) have had the rapports with their neighbours. By contrast, majority of urban migrants (ranging from 42.86 to 92.36 per cent) have had some acquaintance with their neighbours. At all, in all the duration of staying rural migrants have had the rapport with their neighbours. But urban migrants have had the acquaintance with their neighbours.

**XI.6.16.3 Friendship circle**

Among the in-migrants of Poona city, the percentages of migrants without any friend are very low. More than half (58%) of the in-migrants have more than five friends.
The highest percentage of the in-migrants has more than 15 friends (Nair, 1978). The present study shows that in all the duration of staying, majority of rural (ranging from 60 to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 60 to 100 per cent) migrants have had very limited number of friends (3 to 9) at Tiruchirappalli city than their previous residential places. This implies that both rural and urban migrants are very reserved persons at Tiruchirappalli city. In all the duration of staying, major proportions of rural and urban migrants have had the friends of their own castes, communities and workplaces. This implies that rural and urban migrants have reposed on their castes and communities as well.

**XI.6.16.4 Psychological problems**

In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, over two-thirds (69.44%) of rural and one-fifth (20%) of urban migrants are suffered from some psychological problems. On the other hand, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, majority of rural (ranging from 75 to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 75 to 100 per cent) have not suffered from any psychological problem. So, it could be clearly pointed out that initial-period migrants of both groups are suffered from some psychological problems than the longstanding migrants. Majority of rural and urban migrants have been affected by the problems of missing wife-children, missing parents, missing brothers-sisters, missing others' support and missing childhood friends as well.

**XI.6.16.5 External problems**

Migrants travel and live in very difficult conditions. They work long hours in harsh conditions. They face harassment, abuse, theft, forcible eviction or the demolition of their dwellings by urban authorities, police, contractors, employers and local political people etc. Factory workers may be fired immediately if they miss a day of work, as others can replace them immediately (Priya Deshingkar and Sven Grimm, 2005). The
present study shows that in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, over four-fifths of rural (87.50%) and about two-fifths (38%) of urban migrants have faced some external problems. But, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, majority of rural (ranging from 75 to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 65 to 100 per cent) migrants did not face any external problem at Tiruchirappalli city. Hence, it could be distinctly pointed out that initial-period rural and urban migrants have faced the external problems than the longstanding migrants. At the time of crises, majority of rural migrants have sought the help from their relatives (26.98%), friends (14.29%) and own community people (another 14.29%). But, majority of urban migrants have sought the help from the local administrations (21.06%), relatives (15.79%) and friends (15.79%). Further, in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, over nine-tenths (95.24%) of rural and about nine-tenths (89.47%) of urban migrants have faced some domination from their opponents at such junctures. Similarly, in the duration of staying 6-30 years, all type of rural and urban migrants have faced some influences from their opponents at the time of crisis. This implies that majority of rural and urban migrants, irrespective of their duration of staying, are suffered from economic, caste, community and political domination from their opponents at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.16.6 Political attitude

Migrants are often disenfranchised: a person who moves during the summer before a fall election is rarely able to vote either in the new area (because he has not resided there long enough) or in his former residence (because he is no longer there). This legal disenfranchisement is often extended by a disinclination to vote until one is accommodated to the new area (Ralph Thomlinson, 1965). The present study shows that in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, a little more than four-fifths (81.95%) of rural and about nine-tenths (88%) of urban migrants did not exercise their suffrage in the last
elections. By contrast, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, major proportions of rural (ranging from 75 to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 80 to 100 per cent) migrants have cast their votes in the last elections. This implies that adequate facilities to cast the votes in the last election have not been provided to the initial-period rural and urban migrants. In all the duration of staying, majority of rural and urban migrants have reported that they are not as members of any political party. Similarly, majority of rural and urban migrants did not participate in the elections. Hence, it could be pointed out that both rural and urban migrants are reluctant for participating in elections as well as political parties at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.16.7 Satisfaction or displeasure about Tiruchirappalli city

Among the migrant slum dwellers of Bombay and Chandigarh, the migrants, those who are in the duration of staying of less than one year (86.1%) and 1 to 10 years (57.1%), have had low level of satisfactions. But, the migrants, those who are in the duration of staying of more than 10 years (86.1%), have had higher level of satisfactions (Rajesh Gill, 1994). The study shows that in the duration of staying of 1-5 years, over four-fifths (84.72%) of rural and over two-thirds (68%) of urban migrants have disclosed satisfaction about their staying at Tiruchirappalli city. Similarly, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, almost all the rural (ranging from 75 to 100 per cent) and urban (ranging from 80 to 100 per cent) have disclosed contention about their staying at Tiruchirappalli city. In the duration of staying of 1-5 years, majority of rural (65.57%) and urban (52.94%) migrants have expressed their satisfactions due to the receiving of sufficient incomes. But, in the duration of staying of 6-30 years, majority of rural and urban migrants expressed their satisfaction due to the available educational and medical facilities. So, it is clear that initial-period rural and urban migrants have found satisfaction
through their primary needs and longstanding migrants have found satisfaction through their secondary needs at Tiruchirappalli city.

XI.6.17 Conclusion

The study on migration is partly demographic and partly sociological in nature. Conventional studies on migration distinguish the push factors from pull factors and simultaneously explain the employment opportunities and income generation. Modern studies go one step further in bringing out the behavioural aspects as a part of social network. In this present study, an effort is made to bring out the social implications in connection to age at marriage, number of children ever born, type of employment, social mode of getting that information, social mode of patronage for accommodation apart from the conventional analysis of rural to urban and urban to urban migration. Special focuses have been given to the economic dimension that is income and remittance with social dimension of purposes of remittance. This has been a least studied aspect of migration which is most clearly made visible in this study.

The in-migrants living conditions in Tiruchirappalli city reflects that urban migrants inhabit dwellings with more comforts and conveniences than their village counterparts enjoy. The data on kitchen, bathroom and latrine facilities show that in each case, longstanding rural and urban migrants have the facilities for exclusive use, but initial-period rural and urban migrants having the facility is much smaller. As regards household commodities, food, housing and clothing eat up a major chunk of the initial-period rural and urban migrants' wages, so that little remains for the purchase of major consumer goods. In contrast, longstanding rural and urban migrants spend only 60-70 per cent of higher incomes on food, housing, clothing and education. This leaves a substantial surplus for buying the expensive consumer goods. So, the longstanding migrants' houses are filled with abundant household articles.
Internal migration is an activity undertaken by mostly young adults. The present study found that the mean age at the time of migration is 21.65 years for rural migrants and 27.25 years for urban migrants. The higher number of migrants in younger age groups is due to easy mobility of the search for employment, better job and better income etc. It is due to the absence of all these causes that the number of migrants in upper age groups is very low. Further, distance plays an important role in the migration process. It is clear in this study, when the distance increases the rate of migration decreases and vice versa.

In the present study about three in four rural and urban migrants have migrated to Tiruchirappalli city on account of occupational related purposes. Other factors such as to get education, to educate children, to get the urban facilities are found to be secondary importance. Thus, the findings run contrary to the concept of “bright city lights”.

While comparing the legal age at marriage of 21 years for males, the age at marriage is very low for the rural migrants that is 20.73 years whereas the number of children ever born is family high that is 3.59. On the other hand, the age at marriage is high for the urban migrants, that is 27.40 years whereas the number of children ever born is low that is 2.41.

The number of children ever born is certainly high (3.59 for rural migrants and 2.41 for urban migrants) as compared to the Indian government fertility policy that is 2 children per family. This is so because, rural migrants have followed the rural fertility norms, on the contrary urban migrants have practiced the urban fertility norms which in turn brought down the fertility level for some extent.

Two-thirds of rural migrants are engaged in the low-paid jobs. By contrast, about two-thirds of urban migrants are engaged in highly-paid jobs. The data on the sector of employment show that a relatively higher proportion of urban migrants are working in the
formal sector as compared to the rural migrants. About two in three rural migrants switched over to other occupations from traditional occupations whereas the remaining one in three sticks on to the traditional occupations. Similarly, four in five urban migrants switched over to other occupations, which is the clear evidence of social mobility.

Both in rural and urban migrants, the source for getting the first job is not through the modern communication networks, but only through the primary social network, by and large their relatives who are already settled in the place of migration. The same social network also helped them for food and accommodation at the time of migration for job. Later, they make use of other communication systems and urban social network. The chain migration, being an important social interaction, is very strong among rural migrants than the urban migrants as 51 rural migrants have pulled 72 new migrants from their respective starting points, on the other hand 29 urban migrants have only pulled 37 new migrants. Although the causes like sharing Jobs, filling the vacancies of working institutions, assisting in the job and supporting the family etc. are similar in both rural and urban groups, there are some variations between the turned up persons those who are relatives and co-villagers in former group and brothers, brother in-laws and friends in the later group.

While comparing the total household income of migrants, urban migrants’ total household income (Rs.11350.50) is two times higher than the rural migrants’ total household income (Rs.5505.19). However, the rural migrants’ individual income has raised three fold than their income of previous residential places (from Rs.1569.72 to Rs.4819.50). On the other hand, urban migrants are able to increase their individual income only 2 fold (Rs.3069.72 to Rs.7059.50). Though one in third rural migrants pursued the same occupation before and after migration, they are able to increase their
income one fold more than the urban migrants. This is so because of the existing rural and urban wage differentials.

Though the income increased for many it has not increased up to their expectation. For instance, initial-period rural migrants’ average expectation is Rs.3917.16/- whereas the average income is Rs.2778.28/- The difference is Rs.1138.88/- (30%) which could not be made because already they have extended their duration of work up to 12 hours per day. Initial-period urban migrants are slightly better. The average expectation is Rs.7615.50/- whereas the average income is Rs.6250.50/- The difference is Rs.1365.00 which is 17.92 per cent of their expectation, whose average working hours is 9.57 hours per day. Thus, the possibility of increasing income for urban migrants is easier than rural migrants. In other words, though the process is similar for both rural and urban migrants, the hardship is not similar. Rural migrants work more time for less wages. Thus, this migration process brings out the social fact that rural migrants (4 hours extra with stipulated 8 hours) are more exploited than the urban migrants (2 hours extra with stipulated 8 hours).

Over two-fifths of rural and urban migrants have sent remittances to their families. About one-half of rural migrants have directly handed over the remittances. By contrast, about two-fifths and over one-fourth of urban migrants have sent the remittances through postal and bank services respectively. Both rural and urban migrants are found to have similar behaviour in cause and duration of remittance. They remit every month due to the consumptive cause for the people at the places of origin. They send once in three or six months for productive causes like purchase of property and other luxurious expenditure etc.

The sexwise analysis of remittance brings out an interesting finding that females of both groups have sent more remittances as compared to males. This may be due to that
females are accruing for their total expenses. Further, the familywise analysis of remittance amount brings out various findings which are interesting but requires further research. The remittance amount of joint family migrants is same for rural migrants and urban migrants (Rs.500/-). The remittance amount for nuclear family migrants is slightly more for rural migrants (Rs.900/-) and less for urban migrants (Rs.849/-). The situation takes change in the case of truncated family where the migrant stays single. In this case the remittance amount of urban migrants is more in absolute terms (Rs.2786/-) than the rural migrants (Rs.2379/-). When the migrants stays as an extension of some other family, the remittance amount is further increases for urban migrants (Rs.2800/-) and further reduces for rural migrants (Rs.1700/-).

There is an inverse relationship between the duration of stay and remittance amount in both rural and urban groups. When the duration of stay increases the average monthly remittance decreases as well. Further, the higher income migrants have sent about 1.5 percent of their incomes; on the contrary, low income migrants have sent about 30-40 percent of their incomes as remittances. Thus, this study paves the way for further research into the logics of remittance for which research could not be preplanned.

The behaviour for rural and urban migrants is similar with regard to the frequency of visiting their places of origin. In the initial five years, both groups visit very frequently. The reasons are said to be repayment of loan, nostalgic feeling and maintenance of house and other properties. The frequency is diminishing when the duration of stay increases. This is due to the increasing social commitment in the place of migration rather than the place of origin. The process of disowning starts after five years. However, what happens after 30 years is yet to be studied.

In terms of rapport formation with neighbours rural migrants found to be more close in having thick friendship, exchange love and affection in comparison to urban
migrants. This is because urban migrants maintain a distance in relationship as they have some thing to loose in the process whereas rural migrants have nothing to loose except their labour power. How ever, both have close friendship with same caste people. This brings out the loyalty between the same caste people. This is more visible at the time of facing problems. The rural migrants seek the help of same caste friends who in turn help them. Whereas urban migrants seek the help of administrative bosses, colleagues, or police as and when necessary. Thus, the social behaviour of the rural migrants differs from the urban migrants.

XII.6.18 Recommendations and suggestions

The present study has empirically found that existing manifold shortcomings in the process of migration, negligence in the development works pursuant to the increasing population trend especially by migration, racial with linguistics, political discrimination of the government during planning and poor allocations, which have egged on us to disclose some recommendations and suggestions to shun that flaws as well as to make a migration successful.

XII.6.18.1 To restrain migration flow

The average monthly income is Rs.2778.28/- for initial-period rural migrants and Rs.6200.50/- for initial-period urban migrants against their expected income of Rs.3917.16/- and Rs.7615.50/- per month respectively. Thus, migration is not economically beneficial to the migrants. Further, in the duration of stay of 1-5 years majority of rural and urban migrants are in the impoverished living conditions at Tiruchirappalli city. Hence, the migration must be checked to avoid such unnecessary complications. To restrain rural-rural flow the following tow suggestions and the last one to restrain urban-urban stream would be appropriate.
XI.6.18.1.1 Land improvement

About three in four rural migrants (78%) have displaced from their rural areas for livelihood purposes as very limited lands, in rural areas, are being cultivated and other remaining as barren and uncultivable lands. If these unused lands are properly distributed for farming through welfare schemes, it would not only increase the rural people’s income but also divert the potential migrants to use these lands. By this way, it would be possible to reduce the rural-urban migration stream.

XI.6.18.1.2 Rural developments

About three in five rural migrants have migrated to Tiruchirappalli city for the job-related causes especially to get job, to get better job and to get better income. To restrain these migrants, it is inevitable to increase the income and employment generating activities in the depleted rural area. Aiming this, although the government has implemented many rural development programmes, their impact on restraining rural-urban migration has not perceptible. So, the government should intensify the rural development programmes which in turn would strengthen the position of the poor who resort to survival migration.

XI.6.18.1.3 Developing small urban areas

About one in four rural migrants (26%) have migrated to the Tiruchirappalli city from the semi-urban areas of the same district. Similarly, four in five urban migrants (81.25%) have come to the Tiruchirappalli city from semi-urban areas of other districts within the state of Tamil Nadu. To shun this urban-urban flow, the government has to develop the existing small urban areas by providing with basic urban services. This move would restrain the potential migrants pertaining to small urban areas to migrate to the big or metropolitan cities.
XI.6.18.2 Migrants' Welfare Board

About two-thirds of rural migrants (67%) and about one-third of urban migrants (28%) have encountered some problems with their house owners, colleagues and native people. Further, three in five (59%) initial-period rural migrants and about two in five (44%) initial-period urban migrants have not cast their votes in the last election as they were left out of the poll process. This implies that migrants seem to be more vulnerable at their destination places. So, the government should create Migrants' Welfare Board in each and every district, which would have to focus its attention only migrants’ issues such as to protect the migrants from vulnerability, providing legal aid and redressing their problems etc.

XI.6.18.3 Vocational Training

About one in two rural migrants (48%) and one in three urban migrants (32%) are devoid of vocational training which has forced them to settle in the low-paid jobs. Keeping this in mind, the government, should launch various job oriented training programmes to the untrained migrants so that they would get the well-paid jobs in the course of time.

XI.6.18.4 Development of industrial and service sectors

About one in three rural migrants (36%) and about one in two urban migrants (54%) have become salaried persons after migration. Realizing this, the government should create lot of industries and service sectors at urban areas for providing jobs to the in-coming migrants.

XI.6.18.5 Development efforts through budget

In all the budget periods, the percentage share of outlays and expenditures has been very low for Tiruchirappalli city when compared with other cities such as Chennai, Madurai and Coimbatore. Typically, Tiruchirappalli city is still not able to get the fund of
1000 crores from the central government scheme of Jawahar Urban Renewal Mission. As a result of such neglect, the city is now becoming a most backward city in the state which makes huge negative impact on the migrants' life. So, such discriminatory policies must be avoided in the near future, which in turn would bring out prosperous in the native and migrants' life.

**XI.6.19 Issues for further research**

The present study has tried to reveal the lives of in-migrants at Tiruchirappalli city. However, due to numerous constraints the present study is not able to cover the in-migration completely, which has forced us to disclose the following suggestions for the future researches. First, the present study has averted the migrant government employees. Hence, a comparative study between migrant government employees and ordinary migrants that may bring out some interesting findings. Second, in the present study males' migration is more prevalent. In the case of male-only migration the impact on family relations on women and elderly left behind can be quite significant. Hence, a specific study, on male absent families, could result in a better understanding of the changing role and status of women under condition of out-migration. Third, in the present study, about 90 percent of remittances have sent for consumption purposes. Hence, a specific study, on the positive link between consumption of remittances and improving livelihood, covering the receivers of remittance would be very useful to understand the socio-economic upward mobility of the receiving families. Fourth, the present study is unable to collect the data about the temporary migrants, those who are temporarily residing at the in-migrants' homes at the time of survey in Tiruchirappalli city. Hence, an exclusive study, on temporary migrants, must be conducted in ensuing days at Tiruchirappalli city, as it would yield some novel findings and would also provide a starting point to the further research.