

**INTERGENERATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY
AMONG SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN
INDIA: EVIDENCE FROM THE INDIA HUMAN
DEVELOPMENT SURVEY DATA (2011-12)**

*A dissertation submitted to the University of Hyderabad in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of*

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

In

ECONOMICS

By

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DECLARATION

I, Shivashish Shanker, hereby Declare that this Dissertation entitled **“INTERGENERATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA: EVIDENCE FROM THE INDIA HUMAN DEVELOPMENT SURVEY DATA (2011-12)”** submitted by me under the guidance and supervision of Professor K. Laxminarayana, School of Economics, University of Hyderabad, Is a bonafide research work. I also declare that it has not been submitted previously in part or in full to this university or any other University or institution for the award of any degree or diploma.

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Prof. K. Laxminarayana

(Research Supervisor)

Dean of the School

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The dissertation work is a collective effort, tangible and non-tangible of many people. As the journey of research progressed, I was upfront with a tumultuous yet a fascinating voyage which has been more importantly, a learning experience. It has taught me some of the important lessons regarding what to do and what not to do in research. This journey of mine started with the seeds of imagination that my guide and supervisor Prof. K. Laxminarayana planted. His valuable comments, suggestions ensured that I followed the right track all throughout my research work. The entire work would not have been possible without his guidance. I am deeply indebted to him. I would also like to thank my Research Advisory Committee member Prof. G. Sridevi for her valuable inputs.

I would like to thank my family who has been patient enough and supportive all thought my research journey. My mother, who would give me a call everyday in the final days of my work to ask about the progress of my research. My father for his constant help and support.

The great thing about being in a university campus is the peer group and the overall ambience that it provides. I have been grateful to have around me a group of intellectually curious people who constantly pushed me to my optimum. These peer groups are none other than my friends. I would like to thank Venna Vijay Kumar who helped me all through in this process. He has been a constant support not only through his suggestions and data work but also the constant push and the confidence that he showed in me all throughout my work. Aquib Parvez who patiently went through my draft, suggested changes. Kishan Gari, Rajesh Palia Sourav Mohanty, Pooja Goel and Indranil Pramanik Brinto who have been a constant support, cheering me up during the low phases of my research journey.

SHIVASHISH SHANKER

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An ideal society should be mobile, should be full of channels for conveying a change taking place in one part to other parts. In an ideal society there should be many interests consciously communicated and shared. There should be varied and free points of contact with other modes of association. In other words there should be social endosmosis. This is fraternity, which is only another name for democracy. Democracy is not merely a form of Government. It is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience. It is essentially an attitude of respect and reverence towards fellowmen.

- Dr. B. R. Ambedkar

in 'Annihilation of Caste'

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Occupation is one of the important necessities for the human being to survive. When we talk of occupation especially in country like India, its occupational structure is defined by the caste in which a person belongs. The caste system in India is a four –fold classification of the Hindu population. Ambedkar (1987) said that the caste system rests on three factors namely, i) Graded Inequality, Fixity of Occupations and Continuance thereof by Heredity, and Fixation of people within their classes. Graded Inequality, is the fundamental principle of the Hindu social order. The four castes are not based on horizontal planes but rather on a vertical plane, one standing over another. Ambedkar says that classes are everywhere in every society. Even free social order would not be free of classes but the free social order prevents isolation and exclusiveness. Isolation makes people unfriendly towards other classes and institutionalized social life. A free social order should maintain all channels of social endosmosis. This tendency is banned in Hindu Social order through means of ban on intermarriage and inter-dinning.

Thorat and Joshi (2020) have delved into the practices of untouchability among different groups of people. They argue that the strict correlation between caste and occupation has been reduced. They find out what is the prevalence of untouchability among the different social groups. They find that education has a positive effect on the practise of untouchability and the income has a negative effect on the practise of untouchability. With regard to the region, they find that central plains comprising of the states Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh had the highest practise of untouchability. With the process of what Srinivas (1952) termed as Sanskritisation,

Thorat and Joshi have observed that even the scheduled caste households are seen to practise untouchability. This is what even Ambedkar (1987) also pointed that with graded inequality there is a hierarchy even within the castes.

Hence with caste and occupation intertwined historically with religion, it is imperative that with the changes in time, how there has been a change in the access to occupation among the Scheduled Castes is examined in this dissertation.

1.1 The Research problem and Objectives of the Study

The literature reviewed looks into various themes with regard to both occupational and educational mobility but the emphasis would be only on the occupational mobility since caste has a greater association with the occupation that one is engaged in. The existing literature has looked into various aspects of intergenerational mobility. Race, an important aspect of segregation in American societies has been studied by sociologists at large but in India although caste is an important aspect of segregation but very little work has been done to study the intergenerational mobility of the castes. The pioneering work has been done by the political scientists and not until recently that economists have also started to look into it.

The dissertation aims to look at the degree of intergenerational mobility that has been achieved among the Social groups in India and their comparison with each other. The literature has been divided into different themes and every literature has talked about different themes namely region, race, geography etc. The caste factor has been introduced in studies about India but all have used some or the other dataset for their study. The study is different from others in the sense that it has used the classification based on the National Classification of Occupations (NCO) similar to what Kumar et.al (2002) has used. The dataset used by other studies are NSSO,

NFHS and the primary data. Also IHDS 1 data has been used in a study. Hence the study would address the question of intergenerational mobility using the most recent IHDS data (2011-12). It would see how the father-son and Father-Daughter duo has been moving up the mobility ladder in the occupational sphere and whether there has been mobility towards the upper strata of the occupational class.

1.2 Chapterisation

This dissertation is an empirical study organized in 5 connected chapters. The itinerary of the dissertation is as follows.

Chapter 1 introduces the dissertation and talks about the research problem and the objectives of the study.

The chapter 2 discusses the literature reviewed on various themes of intergenerational mobility. It broadly discusses three geographical areas for intergenerational mobility namely in the Western context, Indian context and the Asian Context. It also discusses the various methodologies that are used in arriving at the results.

Chapter 3 discusses the data and the methodology used in arriving at the results. The chapter describes the data in charts and tables and later on discusses the methodology used.

Chapter 4 discusses the empirical results. The results are both in the inflow mobility and the outflow mobility.

Chapter 5 discusses the summary and the policy implications and scopes for further study.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Education and employment are the basic necessities of life. When we talk of education and employment we need to also look into what factors have made the generation educated. What are the reasons behind the rise of a particular social group and what are the factors that inhibit the rise of the other. One of the important concepts regarding this phenomenon is what we call Intergenerational Mobility. “Intergenerational social mobility, or simply “mobility,” refers to the extent of difference (or, conversely, similarity) in social status between parents and offspring.” (Xi Song, 2020)

Social Capital is also one of the factors which affect intergenerational mobility. The pioneering work on social mobility is done by James S. Coleman. Coleman describes social capital as an embodiment in the relations among Sample Individuals. Coleman says “both social capital in the family and social capital in the community play roles in the creation of human capital in the rising generation.” The role of social capital arises in the process of creation of human capital¹. He explains it with an example where the parents, even if less qualified, could teach their children, especially the mothers. This leads to a positive impact on the children’s overall intellectual growth as compared to someone who had not been parented. This he terms as the social capital. It is different as the human capital since the parents who are highly qualified could not have the children who could be intellectually better off if they don’t spend time with the children. Hence the human capital cannot translate into social capital automatically.

¹ Pioneering work on the concept of Human Capital has been done by Gary Becker.

This idea of Social Capital resonates in Ambedkar (1987) when he writes “A man’s power is dependent upon (1) physical heredity, (2) social inheritance or endowment in the form of parental care, education, accumulation of scientific knowledge, everything which enables him to be more efficient than the savage, and finally, (3) on his own efforts.”

2.1 Studies on Intergenerational Mobility outside India:

Voluminous literature on intergenerational mobility exists in the American context. This is due to the fact that race; an essential feature of American society affects the occupational and educational mobility of the American households.

Ferrie (2013) has studied intergenerational occupational mobility in Great Britain and the United States from the 1850s. They have used 10000 nationally representative data of British and US father-son pairs. They wanted to compare mobility in Britain and US in the second half of 19th century. They also compare the occupational mobility of these nations during the 19th century to the mobility in the 1970s. Also explicitly evaluate the change in mobility in the US from the second half of the 19th century to the second half of the 20th century. Britain is seen as the system where family background plays a much more significant role in determining current prospects than the US. For Britain, the Oxford Mobility Study has been used and for the US the Occupational Change in a Generation (1973) has been used. For the 19th century data, the British census and the Federal Census data has been used. The mobility matrix is used for the calculation of the mobility. For the Britain vs. the US in the 20th century, more young men in the 30’s in the US had a different occupation than their fathers when compared to Britain. This means that the mobility factor was stronger in the US than Britain. Comparison between 19th century Britain and the US, the mobility of the US is higher in the sense that inheritance of

fathers' occupation was 2.8 percentage point less in the US. There was a difference in the occupation of the son and the father in the US and Britain and that the magnitude of association was twice as great in Britain than in the US. 81.4 percent of the unskilled British sons were upwardly mobile. 8.7 percent moved into unskilled labour in the US versus 14 percent in Britain which meant that Britain had a higher downward mobility. The US was considerably more mobile than Britain in the 19th century and was roughly similar in mobility in the 20th century. This convergence in mobility occurred because of the declining mobility in the US.

Hout (2006) looks into the intergenerational mobility in the United States and also compares them to the other countries to present a cross-country perspective on the intergenerational mobility. He uses the correlation coefficient to measure the average correlation between occupation of father and child. The occupation is classified into six categories namely, Upper Professional, Lower Professional, Self Employed, Technical Skilled, Farm Sector, Unskilled and Service. He shows that this correlation is between the range of 0.30-0.40 which suggests that most of the variation is independent of the social origins. The author shows that occupational mobility has increased during the 1970s compared with the 1940-60. The correlation of 0 would imply that the person's occupation is completely independent of his parents hence there is perfect mobility and a correlation of 1 imply that person's occupation is perfectly correlated with that of the parents which suggests that there has not been a mobility. The barriers to mobility have weakened substantially for American men from the 1960s through the mid 1980s. Cohort wise almost half of the population who were born in the 1930s were upwardly mobile. International comparisons reveal that mobility rates are lower in countries like Canada, Sweden and Norway but better in West Germany (now Germany), Ireland and Portugal. One of the factors that affect mobility is education financing. Family structure itself affects both occupational and educational

mobility. The author says that educational opportunity promotes social mobility by distributing the human capital and also by loosening the ties between the income and occupational origins and destination among the college graduates.

There are also studies where the effects of social and economic advantages are passed from grandfathers to grandchildren. One such study was done in United Kingdom by Hauser (1997) who have used the regression method to estimate the results. For this study they surveyed 10317 men and women periodically. They find little evidence for significant independent effects of grandparents' social or economic status on grandchildren's outcomes. Another study brings out the cultural aspects of mobility in United States where Laband and Lentz (1983) reject the notion that the relatively high incidence of occupational mobility in certain occupations is due to cultural barriers to entry into other occupations or cultural barriers to exit from one's father's occupation. They note that the intergenerational occupational mobility is restricted among the sons because they voluntarily choose to follow father's occupation.

There is also a geographical aspect of intergenerational mobility i.e., how does the place of residence affects the mobility of an individual. This study has been done by Chetty et. al. (2014). Raj Chetty has thrown some light on intergenerational social mobility among the United States households. Chetty et al. (2014) has done a spatial analysis of the trends in the mobility of United States households. He gathered the federal income tax records which have the data of the income of more than 40 million children. He has identified five factors for spatial variation in intergenerational mobility: residential segregation, income inequality, school quality, social capital, and family structure. He has concluded that the intergenerational mobility is a local problem.

2.2 Studies in Asian Context

Studies other than that of US and Britain have also focussed on the intergenerational mobility. In Asia too some trends have been observed. Like the study by Chetty et. al (2014) done for the United States households, the geographical aspects have an effect on the overall educational attainment levels.

Yuan Cheng (1995) look into the intergenerational mobility in modern China. He states that proponents of industrialisation “regard social mobility as a functional prerequisite and a necessary consequence of capitalist economy.” There are tech based structural transformations in a dynamic industrial economy which cause “continuous differentiation in the division of labour and the work role has greater complexity.” After the 1949 Chinese revolution, the social structure and the level of industrialisation was simultaneously changed. The industrial and commercial forms became state enterprises and agriculture was collectivised into people’s communes. Capitalists were transformed into state employees and landowners into peasants. During the Great Leap Forward, an increase in urban population took place which between 1950-60 was twice the previous levels. Then during the 1960s, there was a reverse migration to ensure there is improvement in agriculture. Using the data from the Social Structure in Modern China Survey conducted by the Institute of Sociology and the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences in the beginning of 1968, they construct a mobility matrix to see the intergenerational persistence and mobility. What they conclude is that the working population is not mobile. During structural transitions, the mobility rates are not constant. They rise during industrial expansion and economic reform and they fall during other times. In agriculture, there is a high level of self recruitment. The upward mobility is dependent on the state intervention as well as the economic needs of the state and rural-urban migration. Important factor in shaping mobility from farm to

manual occupations is the state control on the movement of population. It means that state was responsible in checking the movement of the people from one occupation into another.

Emran and Shilpi (2011) have brought out the intergenerational mobility in the rural economy by comparing the Asian nations of Vietnam and Nepal. In Vietnam there is a higher mobility from agriculture to non-farm activities as compared to Nepal. The authors have analysed the data from the World Bank Living Standards Measurement Survey. Vietnam has strong occupational mobility due to differences in educational attainment, social norms and economic growth. The average level of education among the daughters in Vietnam is 4 times that of Nepal. Overall the intergenerational mobility is lower in both the countries but comparing Vietnam and Nepal they find that among those two, Nepal has the lower mobility.

Aydemir and Yazici (2019) study the empirical relationship between economic development and intergenerational educational mobility. They did the study in Turkey. Authors find that the educational attainments of daughters who grew up in more developed regions depended less on their parents' educational outcomes. They analyse the data from a Nationally Representative Survey conducted during Nov 2014 to February 2015. The education mobility is lower in Turkey than it is in the rest of the countries in his sample. The author did not find any significant relationship between the development and mobility among the males. The place of residence has association with intergenerational mobility. Also the regions that feature high school availability had a low degree of educational inequality.

Dong et al. (2019) have studied the intergenerational transmission of education in rural china. They used the data of the China Rural Development Survey. Using a multi stage stratified cluster sampling procedure, they selected 2026 households from 100 villages. They investigated all the

family members including the extended family up to three generations. Using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method and Family Fixed Effect (FFE) they estimated the achievement gap between the sub-groups before and after the 1980s. They find that the education has a positive effect on individuals who have access to off-farm employment opportunities and improves their health status, productivity and health.

2.3 Brief History of Caste and Untouchability and Its Prevalence in Contemporary India:

Discrimination on the basis of caste, race, class and gender has been there since centuries. Race has always been a subject of discussion in the western world but the discourse on caste discrimination found its way into the literature in a wider aspect only when Dr. B.R. Ambedkar wrote a seminal paper “Castes in India: Their Mechanism, Genesis and Development”², where he talks in detail about how the caste system functions in Indian society. Along with caste discrimination, gender discrimination is a reality in Indian as well as the western society. Similarly the class discrimination of a person in terms of the occupation is also a factor which inhibits the growth of individual and the society. Hence in a broad sense the mobility of an individual in a society is a matter of great importance. This is the only way through which an individual and the society can strive towards equality.

In India, mobility has caste dimensions. As Dr. B.R. Ambedkar in his book *Annihilation of Caste* notes: “A man’s power is dependent upon (1) physical heredity, (2) social inheritance or endowment in the form of parental care, education, accumulation of scientific knowledge, everything which enables him to be more efficient than the savage, and finally, (3) on his own

² CASTES IN INDIA: Their Mechanism, Genesis and Development by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar is a paper presented by him at an Anthropology Seminar at Columbia University on 9th May 1916. Paper can be read online by using the following link: http://www.columbia.edu/itc/meaac/pritchett/00ambedkar/txt_ambedkar_castes.html

efforts. In all these three respects men are undoubtedly unequal. But the question is, shall we treat them as unequal because they are unequal? This is a question which the opponents of equality must answer.”

Caste plays an important role in attainment of these attributes. A Hindu society has traditionally been following the division of labourers in the form of caste system. The chaturvarna system divides the society into four fold systems namely Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Shudras. Below the shudras as the ati-shudras or the untouchables. The historical discrimination and the denial of access to education has led to the generational dispossession of human capital. Hence it is important that we look into the mobility aspect of education and occupation among the historically disadvantaged groups. The research attempts to answer the question about the mobility aspect among the scheduled castes. Ambedkar in his book annihilation of caste says that caste is an institution that rests on graded inequality, a system where a group is at the same time an oppressor as well as oppressed. There seems to be discrimination even within castes. The intensity of the caste discrimination however rests on the chaturvrna system as it has been said by Ambedkar in his writing on Hindu Social Order³. He lists three ways in which the caste system is maintained in the Hindu society: i) Graded Inequality ii) Fixity of Occupations and Continuance thereof by Heredity iii) Fixation of people within their classes.

He says:

For the first one ie., Graded Inequality, is the fundamental principle of the Hindu social order. The four castes are not based on horizontal planes but rather on a vertical plane, one standing

³ Hindu Social Order: Its Essential Principles and Hindu Social Order: Its Unique Features is a writing by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar and can be accessed online by the following link:
https://www.mea.gov.in/Images/attach/amb/Volume_03.pdf

over another. Ambedkar says “ in the scheme of Manu, the Brahmin is placed at the first rank. Below him is the Kshatriya. Below the Kshatriya is the Vaishya. Below Vaishya is the Shudra and below Shudra is the Ati-shudra or the Untouchable. This order of precedence among the classes is not merely conventional. It is spiritual, moral and legal. There is no sphere of life which is not regulated by this principle of graded inequality.” (Ambedkar 1987:107)

What Ambedkar has talked about, the theory of caste discrimination, in practice, has found relevance in the present Indian society. This concept of caste discrimination resonates in a recent study by Thorat and Joshi (2020) which has shed some light on the prevalence of untouchability among Indian households. The study examines the practice of untouchability among different groups of people. It argues that over the time, a strict correlation between caste and occupation has been reduced and looks into modern day manifestations of caste. The data for the study comprises 42,152 households and is taken from the India Human Development Survey-II (2011-12)⁴. In rural areas, 30 percent of the households reported practising untouchability, while in urban areas, the corresponding figure was lower at 20 percent. By social group, which were divided into Brahmins, OBC⁵, SC, ST and forward caste, Brahmins have been reported to practise untouchability the highest, i.e., 52 percent, followed by the OBCs (33 percent), forward castes⁶ (24 percent) , SCs 15 percent, STs 22 percent and others 13 percent. The practice of untouchability is observed also among those groups who have been constitutionally protected.

⁴ The India Human Development Survey (IHDS) is a nationally representative, multi-topic panel survey of 41,554 households in 1503 villages and 971 urban neighborhoods across India. IHDS is a collaborative project from the University of Maryland, College Park; the National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER) in Delhi; Indiana University and the University of Michigan.

⁵ Other backward classes (OBC) is a term for the Socially and Educationally Backward communities identified by the Mandal Commission. The group is currently entitled to 27 percent reservation in the government employment and educational institutes.

⁶ Forward Castes here pertains to the upper caste group that is not Brahmin or those two belong to the Kshatriyas and Vaishayas.

This corresponds to what M.N. Srinivas called Sanskritization⁷. The authors have attributed the prevalence of untouchability among the SCs and STs to the phenomenon of graded inequality and said that the sub castes do have a hierarchy within the varnas and hence they too practise untouchability. Education has the negative effect on the practice of untouchability. They observe that there is a “6 percentage point drop in the incidence of the practice of untouchability between households with no education, and those with an adult who has acquired education up to the graduation level or above.” (Thorat and Joshi, 2020) But across all social groups, the incidence of untouchability seems to rise among households with graduation or higher levels of adult education. Income has a negative effect on the practice of untouchability.

Therefore in the above context, the literature review looks at the history of caste and untouchability⁸ in India and a recent study to measure its prevalence. The subsequent studies look into the dimensions of intergenerational mobility in the Indian and Asian context. The studies also include some of the studies done on Asian nations; the literature tries to evaluate the intergenerational mobility that it has had in their societies. Some of the earliest work in intergenerational mobility has been done by the political scientists hence it was necessary to add those studies too.

2.4 Studies on Intergenerational Mobility in Indian Context

The study is focussed on the prevalence of educational and educational mobility from one generation to another i.e., intergenerational mobility with a special focus on the Scheduled Caste Households. The literature that relates to Indian context has been focussed on various themes but

⁷ M.N Srinivas in his 1952 book “Religion and Society among the Coorgs of South India” has used the term Sanskritization for the first time.

⁸ The Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955 has been legislated post independence to give effect to Article 17 of the Indian Constitution.

most of them have specifically focussed on the intergenerational mobility among the SC and ST households and some of them have tried to study the mobility among all social groups so as to present a comparative context. The dimensions of the study vary from urban to rural too.

Study done by Driver (1962) focuses on the caste dimensions of intergenerational mobility. Driver interviewed 1 percent of the population of urban and rural households of Nagpur district. He chose to interview the son and the father. Questions were asked about the religion, caste, main occupation and educational attainment of the respondent and the father. The objective was to understand the degree of caste mobility in urban and rural areas by comparing the specific vocation (work) of the son and his father. Attention is given to the position in caste hierarchy and occupational hierarchy. He finds that the percentage of rural workers who deviate from the father's occupation is 30.1, for urban workers, it is 59.9. Caste-wise within a rural setup, the greatest occupational change is among the Brahmins (54.5) and least among the trading castes (21.9). In the urban area, the greatest occupational change is among the scheduled castes (69.9) and least among the backward castes (50.0). Driver divides the occupation into cultivators, professionals, managerial, commercial, semi skilled and unskilled in the order of hierarchy. The author concludes from the combined data of rural and urban households that intergenerational mobility is restricted to occupations of similar rank.

Nijhawan (1969) observes that there has been a diversification of occupational base under the impact of industrialisation. The author observes that mobility out of parental occupation is dependent on factors such as education, ambition, familial affiliations on one hand and the demand or availability factor on the other. Author uses the Index of Social Mobility developed by Natalie Rogoff. The mobility matrix has been used by the author to depict the extent of mobility. The data for the study was taken from the study of general election of 1967 conducted

during March-May 1967 by the Centre for Study of Developing Societies (CSDS). The individual adult voter was chosen as the unit of study. From fourteen Indian states, 1858 males and 329 female voters were chosen randomly. For the study, 1593 male cases were selected. Nijhawan (1969) classifies the occupations into two broad categories namely, Non-agricultural occupations and Agricultural occupations. Under the head of Non-agricultural occupations there are five categories in the order of class: 1) Professionals, 2) White-collar 3) Business and trade 4) Skilled and semi-skilled 5) Unskilled and under the head of Agricultural occupations; 6) Owner-cultivator and farmers, 7) Tenant-cultivators 8) Agricultural labourers. He looks at the *out-mobility* i.e. movement of sons of fathers coming from one class to other class. This is calculated horizontally. The *in-mobility* which is observed in the mobility matrix vertically or column wise indicates the recruitment into one class from the sons belonging to other occupational class. The author finds that “with respect of out-mobility the sons inheriting non agricultural on an average found it relatively easier to move out of their fathers occupational class.” With respect to in-mobility, the in-mobility into professions and white-collar occupations was relatively more than into other class. Also, the author finds that sons of all origins do not get equal opportunities. For example, the author states that “professionals, business and white-collar occupations considered separately, offered far greater opportunities of admissions to sons of other two classes than to sons of rest of the classes.” The other two classes here refer to the skilled and the unskilled class. The study helps in the classification of the occupation into agricultural and non-agricultural. It provides with the tools to analyse the intergenerational mobility. However the study does not talk about the caste related occupations and how does one’s affiliation to a certain caste enforces intergenerational immobility.

The pioneering study done by Driver (1962) and Nijhawan (1969) was carried forward by Kumar et al. (2002) who looked upon the prevalence of occupational mobility among Indian households and have concluded that there does not seem to be a weakening link between caste and occupation. Though the shape of the class has changed, this hasn't been able to weaken the links between caste and class. The key determinant of an open society is the openness of the job at the top which seems to be relatively closed. Hence, this explains a continuity rather than change in Indian society. The literature on mobility is scarce in India and less work has been done on the mobility aspect in Indian society. The occupational classification is kept the same as Driver (1962).

A different aspect of mobility has been brought out by Munshi (2006) who looks into how the traditional interact with the forces of globalisation to shape the occupational opportunities of the depressed classes in the new economy. The gender aspects in the depressed classes has been talked about. Munshi (2006) did a survey in Mumbai which collected information on schooling choice for 20 cohorts of students who entered the 28 neighbourhood schools (in the first grade) over the 1982–2001 periods. The gender analysis of the households surveyed states that girls from these classes have rapidly been switching to English schools and grabbing the opportunities that have been opened by globalisation. The survey consisted of 4900 households conducted in 2001-02. The returns to English schooling increased in the 1990s. The traditional networks continue to channel boys into traditional occupations despite the fact that returns to the traditional non-occupations have risen substantially during the post 1990 reform period. Girls might surpass the boys in terms of educational and occupational attainments.

Deshpande and Palshikar (2008) using the ideas of Kumar et al. (2002) look into the intergenerational occupational mobility among the different caste groups in an urban setting.

They look into whether an urban setting helps in achieving mobility. What is the rate of mobility across caste groups? They surveyed the 14 out of the 146 wards of the Pune Municipal Corporation. Authors construct a Mobility Index by taking into the occupational history of males and females. They classify mobility into a five point scale namely upward mobility, downward mobility, no mobility, skewed mobility and others. Based on the constructed Mobility Index they find that 45 percent of the families have moved up in the occupational hierarchy in the last four generations and 17 percent have become downwardly mobile. Across gender, 46 percent of women and 54 percent of males have become upward mobile. More than 70 percent of upwardly mobile are either high school or college educated. The net mobility which is the difference between upward and downward mobility is 22 percent for the OBCs, 25 percent for the upper castes, 33 percent for Maratha-Kunbis⁹ and 35 percent for the SCs. The authors note that 75 percent of the adults were in the lowest two occupational groups four generations ago while the upper castes and the Maratha-Kunbis consolidated upon the gains that they made in the 4 generations. Dalits¹⁰ have been trapped in the middle level due to the fact that they started their mobility from the lowest occupational class. The authors conclude that caste is still an important factor in determining upward occupational mobility but not in downward mobility.

The studies of Driver (1962) Kumar et al. (2002) Deshpande and Palshikar (2008) came from the discipline of political science. Kumar et al. (2002) has used National Election Survey data and used the mobility matrix method to arrive at his conclusions. But economists do not talk any

⁹ The term Maratha-Kunbi is not a caste specific term in the sense that there is no caste that is called Maratha-Kunbi. According to (O'HANLON, 1985) the term Kunbis is accorded to anyone who takes up agriculture and Maratha is a generic term for all the Marathi speaking population and according to the Europeans Maratha term was caste neutral. As the time progressed, the Marathas separated themselves as the warrior class or the Kshatriyas but in that process also those well to do Kunbi families could claim themselves as Marathas. Over time this distinction has become blurred. Hence Maratha-Kunbis represent those group of people who are agriculturalists and have Marathi as their language.

¹⁰ The word Dalit comes from the Hindi word *dalan*, meaning oppressed or broken. Dalit is a term used for the Scheduled Castes.

different about the mobility in the Indian society. The discipline has been incorporating the ideas of Caste, Class and Education into its fold hence there is some literature that has been developing in this field too. The data used by them varies from IHDS to National Sample Survey (NSS) and also National Family Health Survey (NFHS).

Jalan and Murgai (2008) look into the educational aspects into achieving mobility i.e., acquisition of human capital which is how parent education impacts the child's education. Jalan and Murgai (2008) have explicitly mentioned the SCs, STs and the OBCs. Jalan and Murgai (2008) have restricted themselves to educational mobility only. They look into whether inequality in human capital in today's generation reflects the very unequal opportunity that individuals inherit from their parents. The authors use the data from the National Family Health Survey (1998-99). They use a multivariate model estimated as OLS. The NFHS survey includes a question about how every person in the household is related to the head of the household. They analyse the individuals born between 1969-73 to those between 1979-83 to examine to what extent the role of parental education has changed over time. They observe that mobility has increased across all groups and most of the mobility happened when the young ones were entering school. Comparing the mobility across gender in urban and rural areas, they found that there was no difference in levels or degree of persistence in education. In the rural context, in the lower levels of education distribution, women suffer a significant disadvantage as compared to males. Across caste, SC/STs have on an average, three and a half years less education than the OBCs and Forward Castes in urban set-up. But in rural areas this disadvantage extends to the OBCs as well. Overall, their results are that educational mobility across generations has increased significantly and consistently. The most striking education gaps are due to class and not due to caste.

Majumdar (2010) looks into the educational and occupational mobility in a comparative perspective among the social classes in India. He uses both methods i.e., the mobility matrix method as used by Kumar et al. (2002) and the regression methods to arrive at the result. The mobility matrix method uses a descriptive approach that does not take into account the impact of the other variables. On the other hand the regression method regresses the child's educational and occupational characteristics on those of their parents with the set of other variables. Mobility method is used when the achievement levels are distinct categories of ordered classes placed hierarchically. For a continuous scale dataset, regression/correlation method is used. He uses the NSSO 50th and 61st rounds data and from the data available, three sets of parents-children cohort is made. He includes those who have completed 20 years of age so that one full educational cycle is completed. The term Advanced Class (AC) is used for the upper castes and Excluded Castes (EC) is used for the SCs, STs and the OBCs together by the author. In terms of educational attainment, he finds that India's educational levels are significantly lower than the international standards. But the children and young people have higher educational levels than their parents and older people. Educational mobility states that 48 percent of the children in 1993 and 56 percent in 2004 have higher educational levels than their parents. Mobility has also improved during the years between 1993-2004 for girls. Occupational mobility is more sticky than educational mobility which means that even though the level of educational attainment of the people of the present generation are greater than their parents, this is not able to translate into jobs of higher levels. Upward mobility is 15-19 percent in 2004. Mobility has improved for all sub groups during the period of 1993-2004. Caste wise, the ACs have a higher mobility among girls than boys. The parental impact of education the author finds that for rural areas, parental education levels have significant impact on children's educational attainment levels. Author

finds that poverty significantly impacts educational attainment levels. Majumdar concludes that there is a bias in terms of educational and occupational attainment levels in favour of ACs but parental influence is much stronger for ECs. The intergenerational mobility is lower for the ACs. Occupational mobility is less than educational mobility. Also, occupational mobility is higher in rural areas whereas educational mobility is higher for urban areas.

The previous works of Jalan and Murgai (2008) and Majumdar (2010) who have used caste classification to bring out the mobility among the different social groups, Hnatkovska (2013) compares the intergenerational mobility rates of the SCs and STs with the rest of the workforce in terms of their education attainment, occupational choices and wages. Hnatkovska (2013) uses the NSS data of the 38th, 43rd, 50th, 55th, and 61st rounds on Employment and Unemployment (Schedule 10) from 1983 to 2004-05. The probit model is used to estimate mobility. For example for education mobility they use the education switch for an individual to depend on the variables the education switch for individual to depend on his individual characteristics, such as age, age squared, belonging to an SC/ST group, and religion (Muslim); household-level characteristics, such as household size (hh-size), his rural location (rural); and the reservation quota for SC/STs in the states that he lives in, and fixed effects of the region that he lives. Similar to Kumar et al. (2002), Hnatkovska (2013) also construct a mobility matrix to account for the degree of mobility that has happened for the SC/ST group and the Non-SC/ST group. They find that the education mobility in terms of education for the SC and ST has increased in the sense that the probability of an SC/ST child changing his level of education attainment relative to the parent was just 42 percent in 1983 but it rose to 67 percent in 2004-05. For Non SC/ST it was 57 percent and 67 percent respectively. They find similar trends of increase in mobility with regard to wages and occupation. Overall, their findings indicate that there has been an upward mobility among the

SC and ST households and this can be attributed to the role of aggregate growth and the role of reservations for SC and ST in higher education and employment. Also the caste based networks, increasing labour market competition and increasing political empowerment has enabled the SC/ST groups to achieve higher mobility.

Secondary data sources have been used by Jalan and Murgai (2008), Majumdar (2010) and Hnatkovska (2013). Reddy and Swaminathan (2014) look into intergenerational mobility through primary surveys at the household level. Reddy and Swaminathan (2014) look into occupational mobility among the people residing in ten villages across India. All the ten villages fall into some or the other agro ecological zones. For example, one of the village Ananthavararam from Kollur Tehsil of the Guntur district of Andhra Pradesh falls into East Coast Plains and Hills and the other village called Siresandra of Kolar Tehsil of Kolar District in Karnataka falls into Southern Plateau and Hills. They use the sample of 2500 households. The Scheduled Caste households have also been identified. The data that they used for the study has been classified into three categories: a) the current heads of households and their fathers; b) heads of households and co-resident adult sons; c) both groups combined. Male members have been chosen because most women leave their natal village after marriage. Reddy and Swaminathan (2014) have used the mobility matrix, the method used by Kumar et.al. (2002). They find that there is a high level of immobility among the households including the Scheduled Caste households. They also find that the occupational mobility is higher among manual workers from the Scheduled Castes than among manual workers from other castes. Also the downward mobility was higher among the Scheduled Caste men. Hence they conclude that Dalit men who reside in villages are unable to move out of rural manual labour. Authors cite an urgent need for skilled employment for rural manual workers.

Motiram (2018) looks into intergenerational mobility at a pan India level and divides it into urban and rural mobility. He uses the IHDS 2004-05 data and uses the regression and mobility matrix method to draw his conclusions. Where Majumdar (2010) talks about educational mobility being higher in the urban areas and occupational mobility higher in rural areas, Motiram (2018) observes that mobility is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. For the SC/ST population, the intergenerational persistence i.e., the probability that the son would land at the same occupation as the fathers' is higher in low skilled and low paying jobs and the intergenerational persistence in high status jobs is lower. He makes a case for downward mobility too. Downward mobility is observed in countries like the United States of America and the United Kingdom. SCs/STs are 9.5 percentage points more likely to experience this intergenerational transition from farmers to agricultural labourers, as compared to Non-SCs/STs. Sons of SC/ST farmers are also 7.7 percentage points more likely to become involved in elementary occupations.

“Economic liberalisation, starting in the 1980s, dismantled many parts of India’s post-Independence socialist experiment. Decades of sustained economic growth have resulted in substantial reductions in poverty and the rise of a large middle class” (Sam Asher, 2021). They use the data from the IHDS 2 (2011-12) and find that despite an increase in the average levels of education and income the overall upward mobility has remained constant. There has also been a closing of the mobility gap in the SC and ST households which is close to 50 percent to 30 percent. Across the religion, Muslims have had declining mobility since 1960. Upward mobility is the most common in urban areas (Sam Asher, 2021). This is not surprising since there is a segregation of castes in the form of Mohallas in the village set up. It is important to note that this case is not there in the urban set up but people often hide their castes hence caste barriers. The

author also notes that when a group is added to the SC Category, its chances of upward mobility increases by 7 to 8 rank points. Sam Asher however does not look into occupational mobility of among these caste groups.

2.5 Summary

The review of literature was basically to look into the relevant literature with regard to intergenerational mobility. The review looked at the intergenerational mobility in education and occupation in the Indian context and the international context. From the Indian context, it is evident that the scenario is of continuity rather than change and there is an intergenerational persistence of occupation but in terms of education there has been mobility. In India the concept of caste plays an important role in achieving occupational and educational mobility. The international context has a mixed experience in the sense that in the United States intergenerational mobility has geographical dimensions. In a comparative context with Britain and the US it was found that the mobility in the US has converged with that of Britain. Social capital too plays an important role in the achievement of mobility. Also there are studies among the Asian nations of Vietnam and Nepal which says that Nepal has low mobility as compared to Vietnam. Also in China, state intervention plays an important role in achieving mobility.

Chapter 3

Data and Methodology

3.1 Source of the Data

The study is intended to look into the intergenerational mobility among the Scheduled Caste households and what is the degree of similarities or differences in the occupational and educational attainments of these groups. For the study data from the India Human Development Survey (IHDS, 2011-12) is used. IHDS is a nationally representative multi topic panel survey done on 42,152 households across 1420 villages and 1042 urban neighbourhoods across India. The survey takes place in the same households in rounds. Until now, two rounds of surveys have been done namely in 2004-05 and 2011-12. The study uses the data from the latest survey done in 2011-12. There is 85 percent interview rate between the two surveys. The India Human Development Survey is jointly organised by the researchers from University of Maryland and National Council for Applied Economic Research (NCAER), India.

Table 3.1 Total number of rural and urban sample individuals:

	Sample Individuals	Percent
Metro Urban	14,169	6.93
Other Urban	55,355	27.06
More developed village	61,388	30.01
Less developed village	73,656	36.01
Total	204,568	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

Table 3.2 State-Wise Share of Individuals included in the IHDS sample:

State	No. of Sampled Districts	Rural	Urban	Sample Individuals	Percentage
Jammu & Kashmir	5	2430	1695	4,125	2.02
Himachal Pradesh	9	5271	1341	6,612	3.23
Punjab	14	6003	2444	8,447	4.13
Chandigarh (U.T)		0	358	358	0.18
Uttarakhand	6	1465	875	2,340	1.14
Haryana	14	8047	1521	9,568	4.68
Delhi	8	131	4505	4,636	2.27
Rajasthan	23	9790	4550	14,340	7.01
Uttar Pradesh	43	15278	6268	21,546	10.53
Bihar	17	5876	2619	8,495	4.15
Sikkim		108	395	503	0.25
Arunachal Pradesh		499	169	668	0.33
Nagaland		307	201	508	0.25
Manipur		244	237	481	0.24
Mizoram		232	115	347	0.17
Tripura		726	193	919	0.45

Meghalaya		531	155	686	0.34
Assam	8	3395	1256	4,651	2.27
West Bengal	14	5677	4894	10,571	5.17
Jharkhand	6	2625	1817	4,442	2.17
Orissa	26	7365	2658	10,023	4.9
Chhattisgarh	15	4833	1490	6,323	3.09
Madhya Pradesh	31	12063	3100	15,163	7.41
Gujarat	17	5552	3812	9,364	4.58
Daman & Diu (U.T)		272	0	272	0.13
Dadra+Nagar Haveli (U.T)		227	87	314	0.15
Maharashtra	27	10769	5214	15,984	7.81
Andhra Pradesh (Including Telangana)	19	5475	3629	9,104	4.45
Karnataka	25	12861	5329	18,190	8.89
Goa	2	448	309	757	0.37
Kerala	12	3023	3757	6,780	3.31
Tamil Nadu	21	3355	4279	7,634	3.73
Pondicherry (U.T)		240	178	418	0.2
Total				2,04,569	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

The total number of sample individuals are classified into four categories namely, Metro Urban that drew 6.93 percent (14,169) individuals, Other Urban that drew 27.06 percent (55,355) percent of the sample individuals, More developed village that drew 30.01 percent (61,388) percent of the sample individuals and Less developed village that drew 36.01 percent (73,656) of the sample individuals. For each state, the table also gives the figures for rural and urban distribution of sample individuals.

For state-wise share, in Jammu and Kashmir, five districts are chosen with a total of 4125 individuals, Himachal Pradesh with nine districts with a total of 6612 individuals, fourteen districts of Punjab with 8805 individuals, six districts of Uttarakhand with 2340 individuals, fourteen districts of Haryana with 9568 individuals. eight districts of Delhi with 4636 individuals, twenty three districts of Rajasthan with 14340 individuals, forty three districts of Uttar Pradesh with 21456 individuals, seventeen districts of Bihar with 8495 individuals, Sikkim with 503, Arunachal Pradesh with 668, Nagaland with 508, Manipur with 481, Mizoram with 347, Tripura with 919, Meghalaya with 686 individuals respectively, eight districts of Assam with 4546 individuals, fourteen districts of West Bengal with 10571 individuals, six districts of Jharkhand with 4442 individuals, twenty six districts of Odisha with 10023 individuals, fifteen districts of Chhattisgarh with 6323 individuals, thirty-one districts of Madhya Pradesh with 15163 individuals, seventeen districts of Gujarat with 9364 individuals, Daman and Diu with 272 individuals, Dadra and Nagar Haveli with 314 individuals, twenty seven districts of Maharashtra with 15983 individuals, eight districts of Telangana with 4551 individuals, eleven districts of Andhra Pradesh with 4553 individuals, twenty-five districts of Karnataka with 18190 individuals, two districts of Goa with 757 individuals, twelve districts of Kerala with 6780

individuals, twenty-one districts of Tamil Nadu with 7634 individuals and Pondicherry (now Puducherry) with 418 individuals.

3.2 Description of the Data

The description of the data contains the description of IHDS dataset. It includes the Primary Activity Status of all groups, their educational status. The next few tables include the Primary Activity Status of all groups. After that father son duo and tabulation of the primary activity status is done. For the classification of occupation, IHDS presents a Primary Activity Status which is taken as a proxy for the occupational categories and taking a cue from the National Classification of Occupations, the eight-fold classification of occupations into Professional, Salaried, Organised Business, Small Business, Skilled and Semi Skilled, Unskilled, Farming and Wage labour categories are created.

3.3 Methodology

The study focuses on the intergenerational mobility of all the Social Groups. The IHDS questionnaire's response is coded so as to identify the attributes. For example ID 13 refers to the caste of the person and the caste is coded as 1(Brahmins), 2 (Forward castes except Brahmins), 3 (Other backward classes), 4 (Scheduled Castes) and 5 (Scheduled Tribes). The software STATA is used for the filtering process and obtaining results. For determining the mobility of Scheduled caste population, first task was to filter out the non-scheduled caste population. Secondly, the idea was to use the father-son pairs. It was convenient to use the eldest son so that a one-to-one pairs of father and son is obtained. After which said pairs the occupation status is looked into.

This process is repeated for the other social groups also. For the occupational mobility the eventual sample that was arrived at was 1947 pairs of father and son. Similarly, 230 Father-Daughter Pairs for Occupation is found.¹¹ Hence a mobility matrix is created with both inflow and outflow mobility. Similarly, for Other backward classes (OBC) 3834 pairs of father-son pairs are identified, and 3377 pairs of father-daughter pairs are identified and for the Scheduled Tribes (ST), 834 pairs father-sons and 711 pairs of father-daughter pairs are identified. For the Brahmin Father-Sons, 400 pairs are identified, for father-daughter, 46 pairs, for forward caste father-son, 2210 pairs and for forward caste father-daughters, 191 pairs have been identified. The diagonal of the mobility matrix resembles the intergenerational persistence.

For creating the eight categories occupation, the IHDS code RO7 gives the primary activity status. It has 15 categories namely, cultivation, Allied Agriculture, Agricultural Wage Labour, Non-agricultural wage labour, Artisan/ Independent work, Small Business, Organised Business, Salaried, Profession, Retired, Housework, Student, Unemployed, Too young/Unfit, Others. Here only those activities are chosen which generate income for the individual. Hence, only nine categories are left. For creating occupation Farmer, Cultivation and Allied Agriculture is added, Agriculture Wage Labour is named as Wage Labour, Non –Agricultural wage labour is named Unskilled Labour, Artisan/ Independent work is renamed as skilled and unskilled, small business, organised business, salaried and professionals is kept same as the IHDS Primary activity classification.

¹¹ It is to be noted that the father-son and father-daughter pairs are not from the same households. Therefore any comparison does not entail comparison of the same parent's offspring.

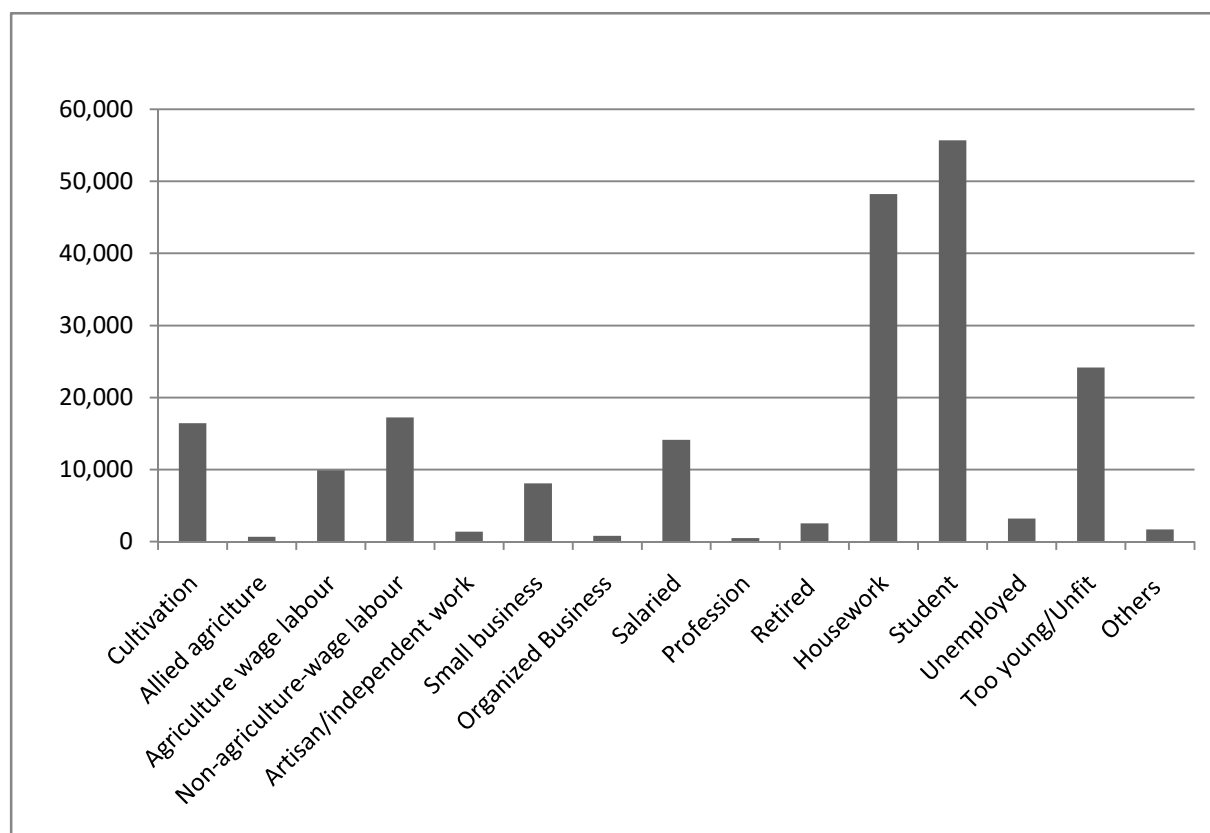
Table 3.3 Primary Activity Status (All Groups)

	Sample Individuals	Percent
Cultivation	16,435	8.03
Allied agriculture	677	0.33
Agriculture wage labour	9,894	4.84
Non-agriculture-wage labour	17,235	8.43
Artisan/independent work	1,392	0.68
Small business	8,073	3.95
Organized Business	787	0.38
Salaried	14,103	6.89
Profession	467	0.23
Retired	2,512	1.23
Housework	48,239	23.58
Student	55,680	27.22
Unemployed	3,215	1.57
Too young/Unfit	24,166	11.81
Others	1,690	0.83
Total	204,565	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12); *Note:: Cultivation means the occupation where the farmers are involved in crop production. Allied Agriculture includes livestock farming and fisheries. Agriculture wage labour includes people engaged in crop and non-crop occupation for a daily wage. Non-Agriculture wage labour includes unskilled labour work in non farm activities. Artisan/Independent work includes skilled labour. Small Business includes unorganised small commodity traders and producers. Organised Business includes organised business sector registered under laws of the state or the centre. Salaried includes anyone who earns monthly income engaged in government and private sector. Professionals include engineers, architects, artists, high level managers etc. Retired includes those who are retired from work. Housework includes those who are engaged in domestic duties which do not earn them income. Student includes school and college going individuals. Unemployed includes those who are out of labour force but looking for work. Too young/ Unfit includes those who are too young to work, minors, physically challenged, old etc. Others includes those who don't fit into any of the above categories.*

The Primary Activity Status (Table 3.1) denotes the activity that the individuals irrespective of all ages, gender and religion are primarily engaged in. The individuals might be engaged in other activities too but most of the time devoted to the activity is considered for the Primary Activity Status. The Sample Individuals denotes the number of people engaged in each activity. In the above table, the share of students is the highest with Sample Individuals of 55, 680 followed by housework (48,239) some were too young/ unfit for work (24,166). Among the activities that can be classified as occupational group, the non agricultural wage labour are highest in concentration (17,235), followed by cultivation (16, 435).

Chart 1: Primary Activity Status: All Groups



Source: IHDS (2011-12)

Chart 1 presents the data in the histogram format. The highest bars are of the housework and the students followed by the too young/unfit.

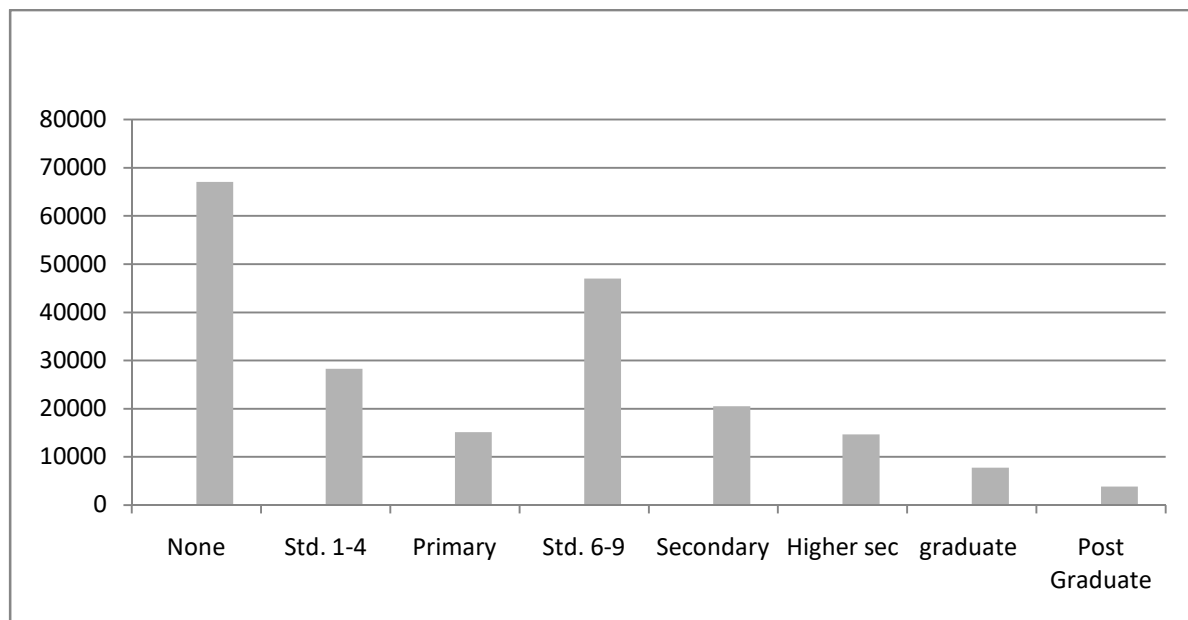
Table 3.4 Education Completed: All Groups

Education Level	Sample Individuals	Percent
None	67,061	32.82
1-4	28,288	13.84
Primary	15,130	7.40
6-9	47,028	23.02
Secondary	20,502	10.03
Higher sec	14,690	7.19
Graduate	7,769	3.80
Post Graduate	3,868	1.89
Total	204,336	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

With respect to the completed education of all groups (Table 3.2), the largest concentration of people are those who have no education at all 32.82 percent, followed by those who are at the classes between 6th to 9th standard 23.02 percent. The share of students who have passed secondary education is 10.03 percent. Similarly, 7.40 percent of people have studied till primary level.

Chart 2: Education Completed: All Groups



Source: IHDS (2011-12)

Chart 2 presents the Education Completed of all the social groups. Here, the x-axis represents the educational level of the individuals who were surveyed and the y-axis represents the number of individuals who were surveyed. Here as it is seen, the highest bar is of the ones who have no education.

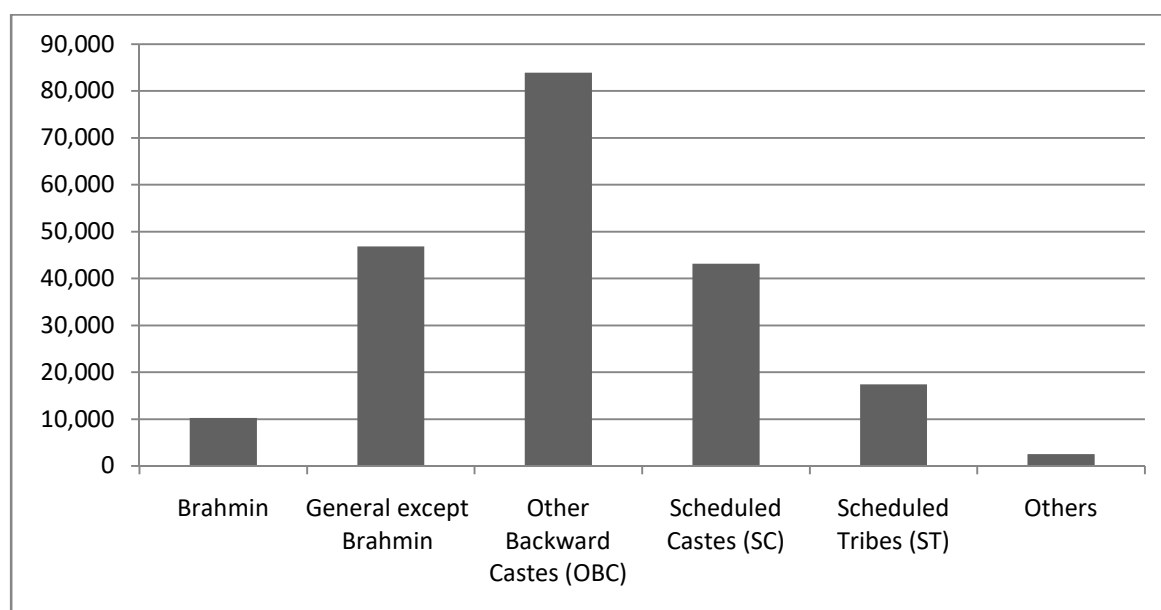
Table 3.5 Caste Category

Caste category	Sample Individuals	Percent
Brahmin	10,253	5.02
Forward/General (except Brahmin)	46,862	22.96
Other backward classes (OBC)	83,929	41.12
Scheduled Castes (SC)	43,137	21.13
Scheduled Tribes (ST)	17,380	8.51
Others	2,553	1.25
Total	204,114	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

With regard to the caste category composition (Table 3.3), the highest representation is for the other backward classes (OBCs) which is 41.12 percent, followed by forward/general 22.96 percent, and scheduled castes 21.13 percent, scheduled tribes 8.51 percent, Brahmins 5.02 percent and others 1.25 percent.

Chart 3: Caste Category



Source: IHDS (2011-12)

Chart 3 presents the data in a bar diagram format. Here, the x-axis represents the caste of the individuals who were surveyed and the y-axis represents the number of individuals who were surveyed. The highest bar is of the Other Backward Classes.

Table 3.6 Primary Activity Status (Father of the Son) Scheduled Caste

Father (SC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	6	0.31
Salaried	320	16.44
Organised Business	11	0.56
Small Business	152	7.81
Skilled and Semi Skilled	30	1.54
Unskilled	605	31.07
Farming	427	21.93
Wage Labour	396	20.34
Total	1,947	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

In the table 3.4, the activities that do not generate income are excluded. Hence occupations are finally classified as professionals, salaried, organised business, small business, skilled and semi skilled, unskilled, farming and wage labour. Therefore the final observations of the dataset have been reduced to 1947 on account of the exclusion of the non income generating activities. Here in the above table it is found that professionals are 0.31 percent (6) , followed by the salaried who are 16.44 percent (320), 0.56 percent of the sample individuals (11) are into organised business, 7.81 percent (152) in small business, 1.54 percent (30) into skilled and semi skilled, 31.07 percent (605) into unskilled, 21.93 percent into (427) into farming, and 20.34 percent (396) into wage labour.

Table 3.7 Primary Activity Status (Son) Scheduled Caste

Son (SC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	6	0.31
Salaried	420	21.57
Organised Business	7	0.36
Small Business	133	6.83
Skilled and Semi Skilled	36	1.85
Unskilled	844	43.35
Farming	204	10.48
Wage Labour	297	15.25
Total	1,947	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

Similarly for sons, it is observed that 0.31 percent (6) are into professional group, 21.57 percent (420) are into salaried class, 0.36 percent (7) are into organised business, 6.83 (133) into small business, 1.85 percent (36) into skilled and semi skilled, 43.35 percent (844) into unskilled, 10.48 percent (204) into farming and 15.25 percent (297) into wage labour. The largest concentration is in the skilled and the semi skilled occupations where almost half of the sons are employed (43.35 percent).

In terms of percentages, the lowest share among SC fathers and sons is into professional and organised business, skilled and semi skilled whereas highest concentration is in unskilled labour.

73 percent of the fathers are into unskilled, farming and wage labour whereas 69.08 percentage of sons are into Unskilled, Farming and Wage Labour.

There is a significant increase in the salaried occupations from the father to son. With respect to the salaried class there is a tendency to choose for more stable occupations. This is also attributed to the states role in the implementing reservation policies and access to education and also spread of awareness about salaried jobs in general. This transfer of knowledge also flows from fathers to sons generation since there has already been a substantial percentage of fathers into the salaried jobs. There is an increase in the Unskilled jobs and a decrease in the wage labour and farming as compared to fathers generation. This can be attributed to a shift from manual and farm to manufacturing activities.

With respect to the Father-Daughter pairs 230 pairs of elder daughter and the corresponding fathers are found. Therefore, primary activity status of father with respect to the daughter is enlisted.

Table 3.8 Primary Activity Status: (Father of the Daughter) SC

Father (SC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	0	0
Salaried	41	17.83
Organised Business	2	0.87
Small Business	15	6.52
Skilled and Semi Skilled	10	4.35
Unskilled	69	30
Farming	58	25.22
Agri. Wage Labour	35	15.22
Total	230	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For father it is seen that there are no daughter from a Scheduled Caste community whose father is a professional. The Sample Individuals of those who belong to the salaried class is 17.83 percent (41) followed by farming, 25.22 percent (58) and 30 percent unskilled (69). Hence, in percentage terms the highest concentration is in the farming ie., 25.22 percent (58)

Table 3.9 Primary Activity Status: Daughter SC

Daughter (SC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	3	1.3
Salaried	77	33.48
Organised Business	2	0.87
Small Business	7	3.04
Skilled and Semi Skilled	7	3.04
Unskilled	48	20.87
Farming	79	34.35
Agriculture Wage Labour	7	3.04
Total	230	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For daughters too, the concentration in the farming class is 34.35 percent (79) and the salaried class is 33.48 percent (77). Also there is a concentration in the unskilled labour which is 20.87 percent (48). It observed that two-thirds of all the occupations of daughters fall into the category of either farming or salaried.

It is observed that as compared to fathers, the daughters have a considerable share in the salaried jobs, this can be attributed again to the preference to salaried jobs, there is also a shift from wage labour to farming in the daughters this shows the shift from manual to farming.

Table 3.10 Primary Activity Status: (Father of the Son) OBC

Father (OBC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	15	0.39
Salaried	491	12.81
Organised Business	50	1.3
Small Business	622	16.22
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	65	1.7
Unskilled	736	19.2
Farming	1,503	39.2
Wage Labour	352	9.18
Total	3,834	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

The number of Other Backward Caste fathers when the income generating activities is filtered out is 3834 out of which 0.39 percent (15) are professionals, 12.81 percent (491) are salaried, 1.3 percent (50) are into organised business, 16.22 percent (622) into small business, 1.7 percent (65) into skilled/semi-skilled, 19.2 percent (736) into unskilled, 39.2 percent (1503) into farming and 9.18 percent (352) into wage labour. Hence the largest concentration of jobs of fathers is into farming.

Table 3.11 Primary Activity Status: Son OBC

Son (OBC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	23	0.6
Salaried	817	21.31
Organised Business	42	1.1
Small Business	556	14.5
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	86	2.24
Unskilled	1,036	27.02
Farming	964	25.14
Wage Labour	310	8.09
Total	3,834	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For OBC sons, 23 are into professional class, 817 into salaried, 42 into organised business, 556 into small business, 86 into skilled and semi skilled, 1036 into unskilled, 964 into farming and 310 into wage labour. Hence, a large fraction of the job concentration is at the lowest in the occupational hierarchy i.e., into unskilled and farming.

For the OBC father-son pairs, it is observed that there is a shift from the farm to skilled and semi skilled, this also shows a shift from the farm to manufacturing sector, also there is a preference for the salaried occupation.

Table 3.12 Primary Activity Status: (Father of the Daughter) OBC

Father (OBC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	49	1.45
Salaried	490	14.51
Organised Business	55	1.63
Small Business	686	20.31
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	95	2.81
Unskilled	735	21.76
Farming	983	29.11
Wage Labour	284	8.41
Total	3,377	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the Father-Daughter pairs of Other Backward Caste community, 3,377 pairs of father and daughter are identified. For the fathers of OBC daughters, maximum concentration is in the farming occupation which constitutes 29.11 percent of the total Sample Individuals, for unskilled this concentration is 21.76 percent, followed by small business which constitutes 20.31 percent. The salaried constitute 14.51 percent.

Table 3.13 Primary Activity Status: Daughter OBC

Daughter (OBC)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	1,190	35.24
Salaried	1,662	49.22
Organised Business	154	4.56
Small Business	104	3.08
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	30	0.89
Unskilled	92	2.72
Farming	50	1.48
Wage Labour	95	2.81
Total	3,377	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For OBC daughters, it is observed that majority of them are into salaried and professional occupation with 49.22 percent of them in salaried occupation and 35.24 percent. Other occupations are minutely represented in the occupations. Organised business (4.56 percent), small business (3.08 percent), skilled and semi-skilled (0.89 percent), unskilled (2.72 percent), farming (1.48 percent) and wage labour (2.81 percent).

For OBC Father-Daughter pairs, a significant increase can be seen in the professionals and salaried occupations, that covers almost 85 percent of the daughters. Looking into the fathers occupation, this shift is seen mostly from the farming and small business. The other backward castes are a heterogeneous group mostly into farm and agriculture sector. This shift shows the feminisation of the labour force¹² since there is also a relative fall in the men's employment.

¹² "Feminisation refers to a rise in the female labour force participation and a relative, if not absolute, fall in men's employment; it also implies feminisation of many jobs traditionally held by men." (Mathew, 2006)

Table 3.14 Primary Activity Status: (Father of the Son) ST

Father (ST)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	1	0.12
Salaried	91	10.91
Organised Business	4	0.48
Small Business	26	3.12
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	7	0.84
Unskilled	154	18.47
Farming	416	49.88
Wage Labour	135	16.19
Total	834	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the Scheduled tribe fathers of the sons, the highest share is in the farming sector where 49.88 people are engaged, next the share of unskilled is 18.47 percent, wage labour consists of 16.19 percent. In the upper classes of occupations, the salaried has the highest number of fathers which consist of 10.91 percent.

Table 3.15 Primary Activity Status: Son ST

Son (ST)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	1	0.12
Salaried	117	14.03
Organised Business	5	0.6
Small Business	36	4.32
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	11	1.32
Unskilled	242	29.02
Farming	251	30.1
Wage Labour	171	20.5
Total	834	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the scheduled tribe sons, major share of their population is towards the bottom classes where 30.1 percent of them are into farming, 29.02 percent of them are into unskilled occupations, 20 percent are wage labour. Towards the upper classes of the occupational category, the salaried have the share of 14.03 percent, the professionals are 0.12 percent, organised business are 0.6

percent, small business 4.32 percent and skilled and semi-skilled, 1.32 percent. Hence, the largest share of scheduled tribe sons are into farming.

With respect to father-son pairs in scheduled tribes it is observed that there is a substantial shift from the farming to unskilled. This can be attributed to the fact that many of the tribal households who are engaged into farming are moving into manufacturing sector. In many of the states traditional handicrafts have become an occupation. For example, in states like Jharkhand, Jharcraft an initiative has been that was started in 2006 for the development of Handloom and Handicrafts. This state led initiatives have been important in shifting of the labour force into manufacturing.

Table 3.16 Primary Activity Status: Father of the Daughter, ST

Father (ST)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	8	1.13
Salaried	125	17.58
Organised Business	7	0.98
Small Business	36	5.06
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	5	0.7
Unskilled	140	19.69
Farming	302	42.48
Wage Labour	88	12.38
Total	711	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the father-daughter pairs of Scheduled Tribe, 711 pairs of father-daughter are identified. For the father-daughter pairs, the fathers of Scheduled Tribe daughters, it is observed that majority of the fathers are engaged in Farming (42.48 percent), 19.69 percent of them are engaged in unskilled jobs, salaried constitute 17.58 percent of the jobs, 12.38 into wage labour, professionals constitute a very miniscule fraction of 1.13 percent.

Table 3.17 Primary Activity Status: Daughter, ST

Daughter (ST)	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professionals	213	29.96
Salaried	285	40.08
Organised Business	56	7.88
Small Business	18	2.53
Skilled/Semi-Skilled	10	1.41
Unskilled	36	5.06
Farming	34	4.78
Wage Labour	59	8.3
Total	711	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the scheduled tribe daughters, it is observed that there is a concentration of scheduled tribe women into the upper classes of jobs. The maximum concentration is in the salaried class which constitute 40 percent of the total occupational class, professionals constitute 29.96 percent of occupational class, followed by organised business 7.88 percent. It is worth noting that there is a

less concentration of occupation in the bottom three classes of occupational category viz. unskilled (5.06 percent), farming (4.78 percent), and wage labour (8.3 percent).

For the father-daughter pairs, there is a substantial shift from the farming and unskilled to the professional occupations. This is also due to the fact that there is a feminisation of labourforce. It shows that tribal community have been shifting to the service sector. One of the important factors has been the reservation policy but also the fact that these groups have been away from the traditional caste system this has also led to a society that has been more progressive and open to gender neutral roles.

Table 3.18 Primary Activity Status: Father (Brahmin)

Father	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	16	4.00
Salaried	144	36.00
Organised Business	7	1.75
Small Business	65	16.25
Skilled and Semi Skilled	12	3.00
Unskilled	21	5.25
Farming	128	32.00
Wage Labour	7	1.75
Total	400	100.00

Source:IHDS (2011-12)

The number of Brahmin Fathers of Sons when the income generating activities was filtered out is 400 out of which 4 percent (16) are professionals, 36 percent (144) are into salaried, 1.75 percent (7) are into organised business, 16.25 (65) are into small business, 3 percent (12) are into skilled and semi skilled, 5.25 percent (21) are into unskilled, 32 percent (128) are into farming, 1.75 percent (7) are into wage labour. Hence, the largest concentration of occupations are in salaried.

Table 3.19 Primary Activity Status: Son (Brahmin)

Son	Sample Individuals	Percentage
Professional	11	2.75
Salaried	158	39.50
Organised Business	10	2.50
Small Business	76	19.00
Skilled and Semi Skilled	8	2.00
Unskilled	34	8.50
Farming	96	24.00
Wage Labour	7	1.75
Total	400	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For Brahmin sons, 2.75 percent (11) are into professionals, 39.50 percent (158) are into salaried, 2.5 percent (10) are into organised business, 19 percent (76) are into small business, 2 percent (8) into skilled and semi skilled, 8.5 percent (34) into unskilled, 24 percent (96) into farming, 1.75 percent (7) into wage labour. Hence, the largest concentration is into salaried. Brahmins have

been historically into the intellectual labour and that can also be seen with a high share in the salaried jobs.

Table 3.20 Primary Activity Status: Father of the Daughter (Brahmin)

father	Sample Individuals	Percentage
Professional	1	2.17
Salaried	23	50.00
Organised Business	1	2.17
Small Business	7	15.22
Skilled and Semi Skilled	1	2.17
Unskilled	2	4.35
Farming	9	19.57
Wage Labour	2	4.35
Total	46	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the fathers of Brahmin daughters, 2.17 percent of fathers (1) are into professionals, 50 percent (23) are into salaried, 15.22 percent (7) are into small business, 2.17 percent (1) are into skilled and semi skilled, 4.35 percent (2) into unskilled, 19.57 percent (9) farming and 4.35 percent (2) into wage labour.

Table 3.21 Primary Activity Status: Daughter (Brahmin)

daughter	Sample Individuals	Percentage
Salaried	34	73.91
Small Business	4	8.7
Skilled and Semi Skilled	2	4.35
Unskilled	3	6.52
Farming	1	2.17
Wage Labour	2	4.35
Total	46	100

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the daughters of Brahmin fathers, there was no one who was into the professional occupation. The largest concentration of occupations are into salaried that has 73.91 percent of the total daughters, rest of the occupations are 8.7 percent (4) into small business, 4.35 percent (2) into skilled and semi skilled, 6.52 percent (3) into unskilled, 2.17 percent (1) into farming and 4.35 percent (2) into wage labour.

Table 3.22 Primary Activity Status: Father (Forward Castes)

Father	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	13	0.59
Salaried	446	20.18
Organised Business	61	2.76
Small Business	397	17.96
Skilled and Semi Skilled	34	1.54
Unskilled	231	10.45
Farming	916	41.45
Wage Labour	112	5.07
Total	2,210	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the fathers in forward castes (except Brahmins), most of the fathers are into farming occupations which is 41.45 percent of the total sample (916), followed by salaried which is 20.18 percent (446), 17.96 percent (397) are into small business, 10.45 percent (231) into unskilled, professionals have the lowest share 0.59 percent (13).

Table 3.23 Primary Activity Status: Son (Forward Castes)

Son	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	19	0.86
Salaried	592	26.79
Organised Business	60	2.71
Small Business	359	16.24
Skilled and Semi Skilled	60	2.71
Unskilled	374	16.92
Farming	619	28.01
Wage Labour	127	5.75
Total	2,210	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the Sons of Forward Castes, the largest share is in the occupation of farming which has 28.01 percent (619) share, followed by salaried which has a 26.79 percent (592) share. Small business and unskilled have 16.24 percent (359) and 16.92 percent (374) respectively. Here too, the lowest share is in the professional whose share is 0.86 percent (19).

Table 3.24 Primary Activity Status: Father of the Daughter (Forward Castes)

father	Sample Individuals	Percent
Professional	2	1.05
Salaried	57	29.84
Organised Business	9	4.71
Small Business	34	17.80
Skilled and Semi Skilled	8	4.19
Unskilled	28	14.66
Farming	44	23.04
Wage Labour	9	4.71
Total	191	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the forward caste daughters, there are 191 pairs of father-daughters found. in the above table, it is seen that 29.84 percent (57) of the forward caste fathers of forward caste daughters are into salaried occupations, 23.04 percent (44) are into farming, 17.80 percent (34) into small business, 14.66 percent (28) into unskilled. 1.05 percent (2) are into professional occupation.

Table 3.25 Primary Activity Status: Daughter (Forward Castes)

daughter	Sample Individuals	Percent
Salaried	106	55.50
Organised Business	3	1.57
Small Business	14	7.33
Skilled and Semi Skilled	10	5.24
Unskilled	22	11.52
Farming	19	9.95
Wage Labour	17	8.90
Total	191	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the daughters of forward caste the highest share is in the professional occupation which is half of all the occupational share. This is again attributed to the historical reasons of social capital access and intellectual labour. This is followed by unskilled which has 11.52 percent (22) share, 9.95 percent (19) in farming, 8.90 percent (17) in wage labour, 7.33 percent (14) into small business and 1.57 percent (3) into organised business. There are no professionals forward caste daughters.

3.4 Summary

The above tables describe the data set that will be used to arrive at the descriptive summary of the study. Here it is observed that the daughters of scheduled tribe fathers have a major portion of the jobs that fall into Professionals and Salaried while if it is compared to the scheduled tribe sons it is observed that majority of them fall under the unskilled and farming occupational category. Similarly for the OBC Daughters, most of them are found to be into Professionals and Salaried class and if it is compared to OBC Sons, it is found that they fall into the unskilled and farming class. This trend is not seen in the daughters of those who belong to the Scheduled Caste category. They are into unskilled and farming. This trend is similar to the sons belonging to the scheduled caste category. The salaried class has a significant share in all the caste groups and irrespective of gender. The next section would delve in to the methodological issues and the empirical results that is expected from the study. There has been a tendency of feminisation of labour force among the OBC and Scheduled Tribe daughters. There is also a shift in the overall primary occupations to manufacturing occupations that includes skilled and semi skilled occupations.

Chapter 4

Analysis of Individual Occupations among the Social Classes

The description of the data gave the preliminary overview of the occupation and the educational and the occupational status of the father and their elder son and fathers and eldest daughters among the OBCs, SCs and the STs. This chapter looks into the mobility matrix where on the left hand side it has the father's occupation and on the right hand side of that of the sons and daughters is used. A higher mobility would mean that in the matrix, the father's occupational rank is lower than that of his son/daughter and similarly a lower mobility would mean that occupational rank of the father is higher than that of his son/daughter. Similarly an intergenerational persistence would mean that both the occupational rank of the father and that of the son/daughter are the same. Hence, the mobility matrix has both mobility factor as well as persistence factor in the sense that there are sons/daughters who have climbed up the occupational ladder but there are also those who have remained where their fathers are.

In this chapter, it will be seen how the mobility matrix looks at the occupational mobility of the father and the son. Here both the Inflow and the Outflow matrix to explain the origins and destinations will be done. The mobility matrix looks into the extent of mobility between the father and the son. This mobility has two aspects: Inflow Mobility and Outflow Mobility. Inflow Mobility deals with the origins of the people i.e., the economic class from where the present generation has come. It is represented in column percentages. Similarly, outflow mobility deals with the destinations of the person i.e., where the present generation goes after coming from a particular class group. It is represented in row percentages. The concept of mobility matrix and the classifications of occupations is similar to what Kumar et.al (2002) has used in their study.

Table 4.1: Inflow Mobility, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Scheduled Caste)

<i>Son</i>									
<i>Father</i>	Professional	Salaried	Organised Business	Small Business	Skilled and Semi Skilled	Unskilled	Farming	Wage Labour	Total
Professional	0	0.24	0	0	0	0.36	0.98	0	0.31
Salaried	0	29.05	57.14	22.56	13.89	15.05	7.84	5.39	16.44
Organised Business	0	1.67	0	0.75	2.78	0.24	0	0	0.56
Small Business	16.67	9.05	14.29	15.79	13.89	7.82	5.39	3.03	7.81
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0	2.38	0	0.75	16.67	1.3	0.49	0.34	1.54
Unskilled	16.67	29.76	14.29	33.08	27.78	39.45	22.06	15.49	31.07
Farming	33.33	12.38	0	16.54	22.22	19.79	42.16	30.3	21.93
Wage Labour	33.33	15.48	14.29	10.53	2.78	16	21.08	45.45	20.34
Total (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

Moving to the mobility matrix, this shows the inflow and the outflow mobility of the group concerned. For the inflow mobility (Table 4.1), depicted in column percentages, the maximum of the professional class sons have their origins in farming and wage labourers (33.33 percent) similarly for salaried class, the maximum of the people have their origins in unskilled class (29.76 percent) followed by the salaried class (29.05 percent). For the organised business the largest numbers of people have their origins in the salaried class (57.14 percent). This trend is similar for the small business too who have their origins in the salaried class. The skilled and semi skilled people have their origins in the unskilled labour (27.78 percent). A phenomenon called intergenerational persistence in the bottom three occupational classes is observed. 39.45 percent of the people who are unskilled have their origins in the unskilled occupations only. Similarly, 42.16 percent of the people who are farmers have their origins in farming and lastly, 45.45 percent of the people who are wage labourers have wage labour origins. This basically explains that the intergenerational persistence among the scheduled caste groups.

Table 4.2: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Son, Scheduled Caste)

<i>Son</i>									
<i>Father</i>	Profession al	Salaried	Organised Business s	Small Business	Skilled and Semi Skilled d	Unskilled	Farming	Wage Labour	Total (%)
Professional	0	16.67	0	0	0	50	33.33	0	100
Salaried	0	38.13	1.25	9.38	1.56	39.69	5	5	100
Organised Business	0	63.64	0	9.09	9.09	18.18	0	0	100
Small Business	0.66	25	0.66	13.82	3.29	43.42	7.24	5.92	100
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0	33.33	0	3.33	20	36.67	3.33	3.33	100
Unskilled	0.17	20.66	0.17	7.27	1.65	55.04	7.44	7.6	100
Farming	0.47	12.18	0	5.15	1.87	39.11	20.14	21.08	100
Wage Labour	0.51	16.41	0.25	3.54	0.25	34.09	10.86	34.09	100
Total	0.31	21.57	0.36	6.83	1.85	43.35	10.48	15.25	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

Similarly for the outflow mobility (Table 4.2), 50 percent of the sons who have professional origins are into the unskilled profession. For the sons having salaried origins, 39.69 percent go into unskilled labour and there is intergenerational persistence in the sense that 38.13 percent of the sons have same destinations of their father's. For organised business, 63.64 percent of their sons go to salaried class. 43.42 of the sons having small business origins have their destinations in unskilled work. 33.33 percent of the sons whose origins are in skilled and semi skilled work are into salaried class. Intergenerational persistence is seen in 55.04 percent of the sons whose origins are in unskilled labour. 39.11 percent of the sons have farming origins and lastly, there is an intergenerational persistence in wage labour i.e., 34.09 percent.

In both the cases i.e., inflow and outflow mobility, an intergenerational persistence in the lower rungs of the occupational class is observed.

Table 4.3: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Daughter, Scheduled Caste)

Daughter									
Father	Professiona l	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skille d and Semi Skille d	Unskille d	Farmin g	Agri. Wage Labou r	Total
Salaried	0	25.97	0	14.29	57.14	8.33	13.92	14.29	17.83
Organised Business	0	2.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.87
Small Business	0	9.09	0	0	14.29	12.5	1.27	0	6.52
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0	7.79	0	0	0	2.08	3.8	0	4.35
Unskilled	0	36.36	50	28.57	28.57	33.33	22.78	28.57	30
Farming	66.67	11.69	0	14.29	0	31.25	37.97	14.29	25.22
Agri. Wage Labour	33.33	6.49	50	42.86	0	12.5	20.25	42.86	15.22
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

The inflow mobility (Table 4.3) which talks about the daughters in the particular column whose origins is from a particular class in which their fathers belonged. Hence it is seen that for daughters who were into professional class only came from farming and Agriculture Wage Labour. Similarly, most of the daughters who belong to the salaried class have their origins in the unskilled class (36.36 percent). For organised business the origin comes from the unskilled and agriculture wage labourer. For small business, the origin is agriculture wage labourer (42.86 percent), the skilled and semi skilled has their origins in the salaried class. Similarly, for the unskilled the majority of the daughters have their origins from unskilled labour only. For farming and agriculture wage labourer too same trend is observed. Hence it can be concluded that there is an intergenerational persistence in the lower rungs of occupational class.

Table 4.4: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Daughter, Scheduled Caste)

<i>daughter</i>									
<i>father</i>	Professiona l	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skille d and Semi Skille d	Unskille d	Farmin g	Agri. Wage Labou r	Tota l
Salaried	0	48.78	0	2.44	9.76	9.76	26.83	2.44	100
Organise d Business	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
Small Business	0	46.67	0	0	6.67	40	6.67	0	100
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0	60	0	0	0	10	30	0	100
Unskilled	0	40.58	1.45	2.9	2.9	23.19	26.09	2.9	100
Farming	3.45	15.52	0	1.72	0	25.86	51.72	1.72	100
Agri. Wage Labour	2.86	14.29	2.86	8.57	0	17.14	45.71	8.57	100
Total	1.3	33.48	0.87	3.04	3.04	20.87	34.35	3.04	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

For outflow mobility of the father daughter duo (Table 4.4), how the daughters from one of the classes have reached the different classes i.e., the destinations is looked into. This means that the row percentages is calculated. Here it is observed that there are no professionals in the fathers' class which means that there was no daughter whose father was a professional. There are 48.78 percent of the fathers whose daughters are salaried, all the fathers who were engaged in organised business, from small business, 46.67 percent of the daughters have gone into salaried class. Similarly, from the skilled and semi-skilled class, 60 percent of the daughters have gone into salaried class. For unskilled too, 40.58 percent have gone into salaried class. the destinations of the farming and agriculture wage labour have been into farming i.e., 51.72 percent and 45.71 percent respectively. Hence a concentration of occupations of the daughters at the lower two occupational classes is seen.

Table 4.5: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Other Backward Class)

Son									
Father	Profession	Salari	Organis	Small	Skilled/Se	Unskill	Farmi	Wage	Tot
	als	ed	ed	Busine	mi-Skilled	ed	ng	Labo	al
			Busines	ss				ur	
			s						
Profession	0	0.61	0	0.36	2.33	0.39	0.1	0.32	0.39
als									
Salaried	17.39	22.89	33.33	14.93	13.95	11.68	5.29	6.13	12.8
									1
Organised	0	2.33	7.14	2.16	3.49	0.87	0.31	0.32	1.3
Business									
Small	17.39	20.2	11.9	28.96	18.6	16.31	8.4	6.77	16.2
Business									2
Skilled/Se	0	2.2	2.38	1.26	12.79	1.06	0.93	2.58	1.7
mi-Skilled									
Unskilled	13.04	19.46	21.43	18.88	13.95	28.38	10.79	16.13	19.2
Farming	43.48	24.11	19.05	29.14	24.42	31.85	65.35	46.77	39.2
Wage	8.7	8.2	4.76	4.32	10.47	9.46	8.82	20.97	9.18
Labour									
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

Inflow mobility among the other backward classes which is depicted in column percentages represents the origins of son's professional class. 43.48 percent of the sons have their origins from farming. The salaried and small business comprise equally of 17.39 percent. Also coming to the salaried class, 24.11 percent of the salaried people have their origins in farming. Similarly for small business, small business, and unskilled/ semi skilled, the maximum number of sons have their origins in the salaried (33.33 percent), farming (29.14 percent), and farming (24.42 percent) respectively. However, the maximum number of sons has their origins in farming that comprise of 65.35 percent of the sons. Hence, intergenerational persistence where son has the same occupational category as their father's is observed. Also, 46.77 percent of sons have farming origins.

Table 4.6: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Son, Other Backward Class)

<i>Son</i>									
<i>Father</i>	Profession als	Salarie d	Organis ed Business	Small Busine ss	Skille d/ Semi- Skille d	Unskill ed	Farmi ng	Wage Labo ur	Tot al
Professiona ls	0	33.33	0	13.33	13.33	26.67	6.67	6.67	100
Salaried	0.81	38.09	2.85	16.9	2.44	24.64	10.39	3.87	100
organised business	0	38	6	24	6	18	6	2	100
Small Business	0.64	26.53	0.8	25.88	2.57	27.17	13.02	3.38	100
Skilled/Se mi-Skilled	0	27.69	1.54	10.77	16.92	16.92	13.85	12.31	100
Unskilled	0.41	21.6	1.22	14.27	1.63	39.95	14.13	6.79	100
Farming	0.67	13.11	0.53	10.78	1.4	21.96	41.92	9.65	100
Wage Labour	0.57	19.03	0.57	6.82	2.56	27.84	24.15	18.47	100
Total	0.6	21.31	1.1	14.5	2.24	27.02	25.14	8.09	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

With respect to outflow mobility among the Other Backward Classes which tells about the destinations of the people from a particular class, it is observed that 33.33 percent of the professional fathers sons are in salaried class, followed by 26.67 percent in the unskilled. Similarly for salaried fathers, 38.09 percent of their sons are in salaried class, 38 percent of the fathers' sons have their destinations in the salaried class. Also 26.53 percent of the fathers who were in small business have their sons in the salaried class. There is an intergenerational persistence in the unskilled (39.95 percent) and Farming (41.92 percent) classes.

In both the inflow and outflow mobility, it is observed that there is a concentration of both father and son in the farming class and hence, an intergenerational persistence is seen in this occupation.

Table 4.7: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Daughter, Other Backward Class)

Daughter									
Father	Professiona ls	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skilled/Sem i-Skilled	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Total
Professiona ls	1.51	1.44	1.3	1.92	3.33	2.17	0	0	1.45
Salaried	11.43	17.09	16.88	19.23	3.33	17.39	6	4.21	14.51
Organised Business	1.51	1.99	1.3	0.96	0	0	0	1.05	1.63
Small Business	20.67	20.88	26.62	16.35	26.67	16.3	4	10.53	20.31
Skilled/Sem i-Skilled	1.68	3.25	5.84	2.88	13.33	1.09	6	1.05	2.81
Unskilled	24.96	19.37	24.03	19.23	26.67	28.26	16	17.89	21.76
Farming	30.42	28.16	16.23	29.81	23.33	26.09	58	38.95	29.11
Wage Labour	7.82	7.82	7.79	9.62	3.33	8.7	10	26.32	8.41
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

Inflow mobility among the father-daughter pairs of Other backward classes which is depicted in column percentages represents the origins of daughter's professional class. 30.42 percent of the daughters have their origins from farming. The salaried and small business comprise equally of 11.43 and 20.67 percent respectively. Also coming to the salaried class, 28.16 percent of the salaried people have their origins in farming. Similarly for organised business, small business, and unskilled/ semi skilled, the maximum number of daughters have their origins in the small business (26.62 percent), farming (29.81 percent), and small business and unskilled (26.67 percent) respectively. However, the maximum number of daughters has their origins in farming which comprise of 58 percent, i.e., both father and daughters are into the farming occupation. Hence, it is observed an intergenerational persistence where daughter has the same occupational category as their father's is highest in farming. Additionally, 29.11 percent of daughters in wage labour have farming origins.

Table 4.8: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Daughter, Other Backward Class)

Daughter									
Father	Profession als	Salari ed	Organis ed Busines s	Small Busine ss	Skilled/Se mi-Skilled	Unskill ed	Farmi ng	Wage Labo ur	Total
Profession als	36.73	48.98	4.08	4.08	2.04	4.08	0	0	100
Salaried	27.76	57.96	5.31	4.08	0.2	3.27	0.61	0.82	100
Organised Business	32.73	60	3.64	1.82	0	0	0	1.82	100
Small Business	35.86	50.58	5.98	2.48	1.17	2.19	0.29	1.46	100
Skilled/Se mi-Skilled	21.05	56.84	9.47	3.16	4.21	1.05	3.16	1.05	100
Unskilled	40.41	43.81	5.03	2.72	1.09	3.54	1.09	2.31	100
Farming	36.83	47.61	2.54	3.15	0.71	2.44	2.95	3.76	100
Wage Labour	32.75	45.77	4.23	3.52	0.35	2.82	1.76	8.8	100
Total	35.24	49.22	4.56	3.08	0.89	2.72	1.48	2.81	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

For the Outflow mobility among the father-daughter pairs in OBCs it is seen that majority of the daughters who have professional fathers land into professional class (36.73 percent) and salaried (48.98 percent). The daughters of those who have salaried fathers and organised business almost half of them (57.96 percent and 60 percent) are into salaried class. This trend is same for other class of daughters whose fathers are into other classes where almost half of them are into salaried class.

Table 4.9: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Scheduled Tribes)

Inflow (Scheduled Tribes)									
father	Professiona	Salarie	Organise	Small	Skille	Unskille	Farmin	Wage	Total
	ls	d	d	Busine	d/	d	g	Labou	
			Business	ss	Semi-			r	
					Skille				
					d				
Professiona	0	0	0	2.7	0	0	0	0	0.12
ls									
Salaried	100	22.22	20	18.92	0	11.16	7.17	6.43	10.9
Organised	0	1.71	0	0	0	0	0.8	0	0.48
Business									
Small	0	6.84	0	8.11	9.09	2.89	1.99	1.17	3.11
Business									
Skilled/Se	0	0.85	0	0	9.09	0.41	0.8	1.17	0.84
mi-Skilled									
Unskilled	0	17.09	60	18.92	9.09	30.58	12.75	9.94	18.44
Farming	0	38.46	0	37.84	63.64	43.8	65.74	46.78	49.94
Wage	0	12.82	20	13.51	9.09	11.16	10.76	34.5	16.17
Labour									
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

With respect to the inflow mobility among the scheduled tribe communities, 100 percent of the professionals have their origin from the salaried fathers, whereas 38.46 percent of the salaried sons have their origins in the farming class. 60 percent of the sons having organised business class have their origins in the unskilled class. Similarly, for the small business they have their origins in the farming class comprising of 37.84 percent of the sons. For skilled and semi skilled 63.64 percent of the sons have their origins in the farming class. This trend is similar for the farming and wage labour where 65.74 and 46.78 percent of the sons have their origins in the farming sector.

Tale 4.10: Outflow, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Scheduled Tribes)

Outflow (Scheduled Tribes)									
Son									
Father	Professional s	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skilled / Semi- Skilled	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Tota l
Professional s	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100
Salaried	1.1	28.57	1.1	7.69	0	29.67	19.78	12.09	100
Organised Business	0	50	0	0	0	0	50	0	100
Small Business	0	30.77	0	11.54	3.85	26.92	19.23	7.69	100
Skilled/Semi- i-Skilled	0	14.29	0	0	14.29	14.29	28.57	28.57	100
Unskilled	0	12.99	1.95	4.55	0.65	48.05	20.78	11.04	100
Farming	0	10.79	0	3.36	1.68	25.42	39.57	19.18	100
Wage Labour	0	11.11	0.74	3.7	0.74	20	20	43.7	100
Total	0.12	14.01	0.6	4.43	1.32	28.98	30.06	20.48	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

The outflow mobility that indicates the destinations of the sons from a particular class of the father. The outflow mobility of the Scheduled Tribes, the data reveals that all the sons of professional fathers land into skilled/semi-skilled class. For salaried fathers, 28.57 percent of the of the sons have their destinations in salaried class and 29.67 percent of the sons land into unskilled jobs. For organised business, 50 percent of the sons have destinations in salaried and 50 percent in farming. For small business, the destinations are in salaried class comprising of 30.77 percent. Children of semi skilled parents land into farming and wage labour class. For unskilled, there is an intergenerational persistence (48.05 percent). This intergenerational persistence is seen also for farming class (39.57 percent) and wage labour (43.7 percent).

4.11: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Daughter, Scheduled Tribes)

Daughter									
Father	Professiona ls	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skilled/Sem i-Skilled	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Total
Professiona ls	0	1.05	8.93	0	0	0	0	0	1.13
Salaried	10.33	26.32	16.07	22.22	30	22.22	5.88	3.39	17.58
Organised Business	0	2.11	1.79	0	0	0	0	0	0.98
Small Business	4.69	5.61	3.57	11.11	10	2.78	5.88	3.39	5.06
Skilled/Sem i-Skilled	0.94	0.35	3.57	0	0	0	0	0	0.7
Unskilled	22.54	19.65	16.07	16.67	20	30.56	8.82	13.56	19.69
Farming	46.95	38.25	33.93	33.33	20	36.11	70.59	49.15	42.48
Wage Labour	14.55	6.67	16.07	16.67	20	8.33	8.82	30.51	12.38
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

The inflow mobility among the father-daughter pairs of scheduled tribe it is observed that majority of the professional daughters (46.95 percent) have their origins in the farming class.

This trend is similar for the salaried (38.25 percent), organised (33.93 percent) and skilled/semi-skilled (33.33 percent) where the majority of the daughters have their origins in farming class. 70 percent of the daughters in farming have their origins in farming which represents an intergenerational persistence. Almost 49 percent of the daughters who are into wage labour have their origins into farming.

4.12: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Daughter, Scheduled Tribes)

Daughter									
Father	Profession als	Salarie d	Organis ed Busines s	Small Busine ss	Skilled/Se mi-Skilled	Unskill ed	Farmi ng	Wage Labo ur	Tot al
Profession als	0	37.5	62.5	0	0	0	0	0	100
Salaried	17.6	60	7.2	3.2	2.4	6.4	1.6	1.6	100
Organised Business	0	85.71	14.29	0	0	0	0	0	100
Small Business	27.78	44.44	5.56	5.56	2.78	2.78	5.56	5.56	100
Skilled/Se mi-Skilled	40	20	40	0	0	0	0	0	100
Unskilled	34.29	40	6.43	2.14	1.43	7.86	2.14	5.71	100
Farming	33.11	36.09	6.29	1.99	0.66	4.3	7.95	9.6	100
Wage Labour	35.23	21.59	10.23	3.41	2.27	3.41	3.41	20.45	100
Total	29.96	40.08	7.88	2.53	1.41	5.06	4.78	8.3	100

Source: Calculated from IHDS-2 Data

Outflow mobility which represents the destinations of the daughters from a particular class origins, it is observed that daughters of 62.5 percent professional fathers are into organised business class. The daughters of 60 percent of the salaried fathers are into salaried class, 85.71 percent of the organised business class fathers' daughters are into salaried class. This trend is the same for the daughters of unskilled (40 percent) and farming (36.09 percent).

4.13: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Brahmin)

		son							
Father	Professio nal	Salari ed	Organis ed Busines s	Small Busine ss	Skille d and Semi SKill ed	Unskill ed	Farmi ng	Wage Labo ur	Total
Professio nal	9.09	5.06	0.00	3.95	12.50	0.00	2.08	14.29	4.00
Salaried	36.36	46.20	40.00	39.47	12.50	35.29	19.79	14.29	36.00
Organise d Business	0.00	2.53	0.00	1.32	0.00	2.94	1.04	0.00	1.75
Small Business	27.27	16.46	20.00	19.74	0.00	14.71	13.54	14.29	16.25
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0.00	3.80	0.00	1.32	12.50	2.94	3.13	0.00	3.00
Unskilled	0.00	5.06	0.00	6.58	12.50	0.00	7.29	0.00	5.25
Farming	27.27	20.25	40.00	25.00	37.50	38.24	52.08	57.14	32.00
Wage Labour	0.00	0.63	0.00	2.63	12.50	5.88	1.04	0.00	1.75
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
		0			0			0	0

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For inflow mobility of the Brahmin father-son pair, it is observed that the largest number of professionals have their origins in salaried (36.36 percent) followed by small business and farming (27.27 percent). In the salaried occupation, the sons have the origins in the salaried

occupations only i.e., even the fathers re from salaried occupations (46.20 percent), the sons who are into organised business have their origins in salaried occupations (40 percent), this case is the same with small business too who have their origins in salaried occupation (39.47 percent), the majority of sons who are into skilled and semi skilled have their origins in farming (37.50 percent), this case is the same with unskilled (38.24 percent). However, an intergenerational persistence is seen in the farming occupation where 52.08 percent of the sons have the same occupations as their fathers. 57.14 percent of the wage labour sons have farming origins.

4.14: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Son, Brahmin)

son									
Father	Profession al	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skille d and Semi SKille d	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Total
Professional	6.25	50.00	0.00	18.75	6.25	0.00	12.50	6.25	100.00
Salaried	2.78	50.69	2.78	20.83	0.69	8.33	13.19	0.69	100.00
Organised Business	0.00	57.14	0.00	14.29	0.00	14.29	14.29	0.00	100.00
Small Business	4.62	40.00	3.08	23.08	0.00	7.69	20.00	1.54	100.00
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0.00	50.00	0.00	8.33	8.33	8.33	25.00	0.00	100.00
Unskilled	0.00	38.10	0.00	23.81	4.76	0.00	33.33	0.00	100.00
Farming	2.34	25.00	3.13	14.84	2.34	10.16	39.06	3.13	100.00
Wage Labour	0.00	14.29	0.00	28.57	14.29	28.57	14.29	0.00	100.00
Total	2.75	39.50	2.50	19.00	2.00	8.50	24.00	1.75	100.00

Source:IHDS (2011-12)

The outflow mobility which depicts the destinations of the sons, it is observed that from professionals origins, 50 percent land into salaried occupations, from salaried occupation, 50.69 percent of the sons land into salaried occupations, for the small business, majority of the sons go

into small business, unskilled and farming occupations (14.29 percent). From the skilled and semi skilled, majority of the sons land into salaried occupations, from the unskilled, majority of fathers son land into salaried occupations (38.10 percent), from the farming origins, majority of the sons land into farming hence an intergenerational persistence is observed. From the wage labour, the majority of sons land into small business and unskilled occupations.

4.15: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Daghter, Brahmin)

daughter								
father	Salaried	Small	Skilled	and	Unskilled	Farming	Wage	Total
		Business	Semi Skilled				Labour	
Professional	2.94	0.00	0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	2.17
Salaried	55.88	0.00	0.00		66.67	0.00	100.00	50.00
Organised	2.94	0.00	0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	2.17
Business								
Small Business	8.82	100.00	0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	15.22
Skilled and Semi	0.00	0.00	50.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	2.17
Skilled								
Unskilled	5.88	0.00	0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	4.35
Farming	20.59	0.00	0.00		33.33	100.00	0.00	19.57
Wage Labour	2.94	0.00	50.00		0.00	0.00	0.00	4.35
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00		100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

The inflow mobility which talks about the origins of the person, i.e., what the occupations of the father was is observed that most of the salaried daughters have their origins in the salaried class, all of the small business daughters come have their origins in the small business, half of the

skilled and semi skilled daughters have their origins in the same occupation. The daughters in the unskilled occupation (66.67 percent) have their origins in salaried occupations. The farming occupations sees an intergenerational persistence.

4.16: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Daughter, Brahmin)

daughter							
father	Salaried	Small Business	Skilled and Semi Skilled	Unskilled	Farming	Wage Labour	Total
Professional	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Salaried	82.61	0.00	0.00	8.70	0.00	8.70	100.00
Organised Business	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Small Business	42.86	57.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Skilled and Semi Skilled	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Unskilled	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Farming	77.78	0.00	0.00	11.11	11.11	0.00	100.00
Wage Labour	50.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Total	73.91	8.70	4.35	6.52	2.17	4.35	100.00

For the outflow mobility, which gives the destinations of the daughters from a particular occupational origin, it is observed that from the professional occupations, all the daughters land into salaried occupations, an intergenerational persistence is seen in the salaried occupations

(82.61 percent), from the organised business, all of the daughters get into the salaried occupations. There is a 57.14 percent of daughters who show an intergenerational persistence. There is also an intergenerational persistence in the skilled and semi skilled where 100 percent of the daughters have been engaged in that occupation. From unskilled origins of daughters, all of them have engaged into salaried occupations. From farming too, 77.78 percent of the daughters land into salaried jobs.

4.17: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Son, Forward Castes)

son									
Father	Profession al	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skille d and Semi Skille d	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Total
Professional	0.00	0.34	1.67	0.84	1.67	0.80	0.32	0.79	0.59
Salaried	42.11	33.45	26.67	24.51	25.00	15.78	8.72	6.30	20.18
Organised Business	5.26	3.55	23.33	3.90	1.67	1.60	0.48	0.79	2.76
Small Business	10.53	23.82	21.67	31.20	21.67	17.65	6.95	5.51	17.96
Skilled and Semi Skilled	5.26	2.53	0.00	1.39	1.67	1.34	0.81	1.57	1.54
Unskilled	5.26	9.80	10.00	8.91	10.00	22.46	5.49	7.87	10.45
Farming	26.32	25.17	15.00	25.35	33.33	35.83	71.24	52.76	41.45
Wage Labour	5.26	1.35	1.67	3.90	5.00	4.55	5.98	24.41	5.07
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
					0			0	0

In terms of the mobility matrix, the inflow matrix which depicts the origins of the sons, or in other words what their fathers were doing and how many sons in a particular occupational group contribute to the total share in that occupational group this is what Kumar et al. (2002) calls *origins*. Hence in the professional occupation of the sons in the first column it adds up to 100 percent. Hence 42.11 percent of salaried in the second row and its corresponding professional occupation in the column means that 42.11 percent of the sons in the professional occupation come from salaried origins (father was in the salaried occupation). Similarly 33.45 percent for the second column that corresponds to salaried and second row that corresponds to salaried means that 33.45 percent of the sons who are currently employed as salaried have their origins in the salaried occupation(father was salaried), also since the r_{22} means second row and second column it demonstrates an intergenerational persistence. Hence all the values at the diagonal mean intergenerational persistence. In the forward castes, except in the professional occupation, there is an intergenerational persistence in all the occupations.

4.18: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Son, Forward Castes)

son									
Father	Profession al	Salarie d	Organise d Business	Small Busines s	Skille d and Semi SKille d	Unskille d	Farmin g	Wage Labou r	Total
Professional	0.00	15.38	7.69	23.08	7.69	23.08	15.38	7.69	100.0 0
Salaried	1.79	44.39	3.59	19.73	3.36	13.23	12.11	1.79	100.0 0
Organised Business	1.64	34.43	22.95	22.95	1.64	9.84	4.92	1.64	100.0 0
Small Business	0.50	35.52	3.27	28.21	3.27	16.62	10.83	1.76	100.0 0
Skilled and Semi Skilled	2.94	44.12	0.00	14.71	2.94	14.71	14.71	5.88	100.0 0
Unskilled	0.43	25.11	2.60	13.85	2.60	36.36	14.72	4.33	100.0 0
Farming	0.55	16.27	0.98	9.93	2.18	14.63	48.14	7.31	100.0 0
Wage Labour	0.89	7.14	0.89	12.50	2.68	15.18	33.04	27.68	100.0 0
Total	0.86	26.79	2.71	16.24	2.71	16.92	28.01	5.75	100.0 0

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

In the outflow mobility it is basically a demonstration of the fact that how many sons have been going into different occupation from a particular occupational origin (the fathers' occupation).

Hence, in the first row which shows the occupational status of father which is salaried in row 1, the corresponding columns from professionals to wage labour demonstrates how many sons have gone into different occupations whose fathers were salaried. This is what Kumar et al. (2002) calls *destinations* depicted in row percentages. Hence in the first row it is seen that from professional origins, majority of the sons get into small business (23.08 percent) and unskilled (23.08 percent) respectively. For salaried occupations, majority of the sons whose fathers were salaried are into salaried jobs (44.39 percent), for the organised business fathers most of the sons have their destinations into salaried (34.43 percent), for the small business, skilled and semi skilled too majority of the sons get into salaried. There is an intergenerational persistence in the farmer occupations.

4.19: Inflow, Column Percentages (Father-Daughter, Forward Castes)

daughter								
father	Salaried	Organised Business	Small Business	Skilled and Semi Skilled	Unskilled	Farming	Wage Labour	Total
Professional	0.94	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.55	0.00	0.00	1.05
Salaried	38.68	0.00	21.43	40.00	22.73	10.53	11.76	29.84
Organised Business	2.83	33.33	0.00	10.00	9.09	5.26	5.88	4.71
Small Business	21.70	0.00	28.57	0.00	9.09	15.79	11.76	17.80
Skilled and Semi Skilled	7.55	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.19
Unskilled	11.32	0.00	21.43	10.00	22.73	21.05	17.65	14.66
Farming	14.15	66.67	21.43	40.00	18.18	47.37	41.18	23.04
Wage Labour	2.83	0.00	7.14	0.00	13.64	0.00	11.76	4.71
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For inflow mobility, there is an intergenerational persistence in salaried (38.68 percent), organised business (33.33 percent), small business (28.57 percent), unskilled (22.73 percent), farming (47.37 percent) and in the wage labour there is a intergenerational persistence in 11.76 percent of fathers-daughters. For the daughters in the organised business, 66.67 percent have their origins in the farming occupations, 40 percent of the skilled and semi skilled occupation that the daughters have, their origin is from salaried and farming. 22.73 percent of the daughters from unskilled occupation come from salaried and unskilled respectively.

4.20: Outflow, Row Percentages (Father-Daughter, Forward Castes)

daughter								
father	Salaried	Organised Business	Small Business	Skilled and Semi SKilled	Unskilled	Farming	Wage Labour	Total
Professional	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Salaried	71.93	0.00	5.26	7.02	8.77	3.51	3.51	100.00
Organised Business	33.33	11.11	0.00	11.11	22.22	11.11	11.11	100.00
Small Business	67.65	0.00	11.76	0.00	5.88	8.82	5.88	100.00
Skilled and Semi Skilled	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Unskilled	42.86	0.00	10.71	3.57	17.86	14.29	10.71	100.00
Farming	34.09	4.55	6.82	9.09	9.09	20.45	15.91	100.00
Wage Labour	33.33	0.00	11.11	0.00	33.33	0.00	22.22	100.00
Total	55.50	1.57	7.33	5.24	11.52	9.95	8.90	100.00

Source: IHDS (2011-12)

For the outflow mobility, which looks at the destinations from a particular occupation of the father, it is seen that the fathers who were into professional occupations, half of their daughters

are into salaried and half are into unskilled, for salaried fathers, 71.93 percent of the daughters whose father is salaried landed into salaried occupations. For organised business occupations of the father, 33.33 are into salaried occupations, for small business 67.65 percent of the daughters are into salaried occupations, for skilled and semi skilled, all of the daughters are into salaried occupations. This is also true for the unskilled (42.86 percent), farming (34.09 percent) and 33.33 percent for wage labour.

Summary

The chapter looked into the inflow and outflow matrices of both father and son pairs and also father and daughter pairs for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and also for Other backward classes (OBC), Brahmins and Forward Castes. Both the trends have shown that there is a concentration of occupation in the lower rungs of the occupational class. This trend is basically the phenomenon of what is called the intergenerational persistence. This intergenerational persistence tells that both the father and their respective daughters and sons have been engaged in the same occupation. This is a feature that has been there irrespective of gender dimensions of the occupational mobility. However it is found that towards the upper classes of occupation, there is a preference for the salaried type of occupation. One distinctive observation is with respect to the distribution of occupation in the lower rungs where there is a zero percent intergenerational persistence in the unskilled and wage labour occupation among the Brahmin father-son households. Also there is an intergenerational persistence towards the higher classes of jobs of salaried. The father and son having the same occupational category.

Chapter 5

Summary and Conclusions

The dissertation has made an attempt to look into the intergenerational occupational mobility among the social groups and the degree to which they have achieved mobility in terms of their occupational attainments. The occupations are categorised into eight fold classification of occupations.

In Chapter 2, a review of the existing literature is done. The literature was categorised into studies in the context of outside India where the intergenerational mobility among the citizens in the USA, the geographical aspects of Mobility and also some studies on UK in comparison to the US was seen. The next section delved into the studies which were done in India and here multiple approaches to intergenerational mobility was seen. The data sources varied from NSSO to NFHS to primary data and also some studies using the IHDS dataset. The studies largely focussed on both educational and occupational mobility. There were also studies in the Asian context where the studies done in China, Nepal and Vietnam was seen. The chapter elaborately discussed why intergenerational mobility is relevant in the contemporary aspect with respect to India and the relevant literature gap that pertains to the occupational mobility in terms of castes was needed to be addressed.

Later, Chapter 3 looked into the data and methodology used in the dissertation and here the IHDS 2 dataset was used and categorised the samples into different occupations among the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other backward classes. The Father-Son pairs and Father-Daughter pairs were formed and the tables showed the frequencies of the father-son and

father-daughter pairs. The chapter described the primary activity status of all groups along with the scheduled caste, scheduled tribe, other backward caste groups, Brahmins and the forward castes. The occupation is categorised into eight categories according to the National Classification of Occupations (NCO) in a similar way that was used by Kumar et al. (2002)

Chapter 4 discussed the empirical results and uses the mobility matrix to arrive at the results. Mobility matrix as is already seen looks into the occupational attainments from two sides namely the origin side and destination side. Here it is found that there has been a concentration of father and son at the bottom and it reflects the idea that there still has been a very less amount of upward shift in the occupation. For the daughter and father pairs too it is observed that results are quite different in the sense that OBC daughters are more into the upper classes of the occupational group in contrast to the scheduled caste and scheduled tribe group. The observation also revealed that in the upper occupational classes, the largest concentration is into the salariat. This is true for the Brahmins and Forward Castes as well. Except for the fact that the distribution of small business is also more in the Brahmins and forward castes. This can be due to the reason that the capital required to start a business and the social capital for them is larger than the other caste group.

Finally, this chapter on the Summary and Conclusions will draw from the above chapters the relevant conclusions of the dissertation and the policy implications and future scope of the study.

5.1 Policy Implications and Future Scope of the Study

The study focuses on the intergenerational mobility among the scheduled castes in India and their comparison with the Scheduled Tribes and the OBCs. The Scheduled Castes lack social capital and that is a hurdle in the progress of the scheduled castes as a society. As Srinivas

(2000) notes that “in the complex political economy of modern India, caste continues to provide a support base for members, a fact which is particularly important for upwardly mobile villagers who seek salaried jobs in urban bureaucracy, industries, firms and offices. The articulation of kin, caste and patron-client ties are crucial to spatial and social mobility.”

There is still caste discrimination that is faced among the scheduled caste communities in both urban and rural households (Thorat and Joshi 2020). Ambedkar (1987) said; “Caste is not a physical object like a wall of bricks or a line of barbed wire which prevents the Hindus from comingling and which has, therefore, to be pulled down. Caste is a notion, it is a state of the mind. The destruction of Caste does not therefore mean the destruction of a physical barrier. It means a notional change.” This notional change is hard to bring since the social endosmosis that Ambedkar talks about happens only till a level where the caste hierarchy is not threatened. In other words any reform that tends to bring about a fundamental change into the caste system is difficult to achieve. This is precisely what Ambedkar meant when he said; “The real remedy for breaking Caste is inter-marriage. Nothing else will serve as the solvent of Caste.”

The concentration of occupation in the lower rungs of the occupational class makes it relevant to ponder upon the fact that lack of access of opportunities with regard to occupation have led to the concentration of the people in these occupational class. One of the reasons is of course the fact that in the two generations that is studied, there is a tendency to continue with the traditional caste occupation as seen in the mobility of the scheduled caste sons’ inflow mobility where there is a concentration towards the lower end of the occupational class. This is also true for the father-daughter pairs among the scheduled castes. Even with respect to the OBC sons and daughters, there is an intergenerational persistence towards the lower end of the occupational category across the two genders. In the forward castes and brahmin (which is forward castes but a separate

category in the IHDS data it is observed that towards the lower end of the occupational structure, in the farming occupation there is a concentration of these social groups. Hence, all the social groups have a substantial share in the farming occupation. This concentration is due to the fact that it comprises of both small and large farmers. This also in some way reflects from the larger fact that we have substantial share of people who are dependent on agriculture. With respect to the shares in occupational category of the unskilled and wage labour it is observed that the Brahmin and Forward Castes does not see a substantial intergenerational persistence.

The trend is similar even in the case of scheduled tribes. The only difference is the fact that when the upper class occupational category is looked into, there is a intergenerational persistence in the salariat class which tells a lot about these groups' inclination towards stable jobs. Hence, the fact that even distribution among all occupational classes is lacking and also the fact that a large percentage of sons and daughters are found towards the lower classes of occupational category makes it evident that the caste-occupation bond has not loosened. Although the study focusses on the occupational mobility of the scheduled castes, it is evident that the similar trend is observed among the scheduled tribes as well as the other backward classes as well. This shows that the marginalised classes have still not been able to represent themselves in the upper echolones occupational classes.

The study is important in the sense that it quantifies how much mobility has been achieved among the scheduled caste, scheduled tribes and other backward class of communities. The study is important since after seventy five years of independence and nearly thirty years of liberalisation where the economy was opened to the private sector how has this been reflected in the occupational structure of the economy. There can be several other reasons to the immobility like the education access and urban-rural divide. But most importantly, this pertains to the rigid caste

structure that has always been the case. Hence, there has to be a rethink upon how the affirmative action must be made stronger and effective so that it represents all the caste groups in all categories of the occupation class. This persistence in terms of generational flow of social capital is seen in the case of the high concentration of salaried class, small business and farming. This reflects among other things, the tendency to stay in the salaried jobs due to the social capital acquired from the father, intergenerational persistence in farming brings us upon the feminisation of labourforce debate. From the Outflow mobility perspective it is observed that the flow from the salaried fathers into different occupations, most of the brahmin daughters are into salaried jobs. It again signifies the preference for stable jobs by the women. This also has sociological reasons in terms of the fact that patriarchy in the households deter them from taking jobs that are casual in nature. Until the jobs are stable enough for them the family does not allow them to take up jobs.

The limitation of the study pertains to the fact that the study does not look into the education mobility among these groups. It cannot be said conclusively how much of the occupational change can be attributed to the educational access to these groups. Hence it would be of interest to look into this aspect as well. Also what could be of further interest is the fact that how the rural-urban divide has influenced the intergenerational mobility because it is asserted that a rapid urbanisation would make caste irrelevant. This is important in the context of the liberalisation process and the emergence of cities and the central government's ambitious project of smart cities. There can also be a study on the intergenerational mobility among the sub-caste groups. What is called as graded inequality, this phenomenon can be tested on all the caste groups including the scheduled castes. This is important because there have been states that have gone for the sub-categorization of the caste groups. Also another limitation is with regard to the

dataset. The dataset used for the study is India Human Development Survey (IHDS). The study can also be done using the National Sample Survey (NSSO) Data and National Family Health Survey (NFHS) Data as some of the studies in the review of literature chapter also revealed. Hence, the limitations pertain to education, the rural-urban divide and the data source constraint.

The study of the intergenerational occupational mobility among the Scheduled Castes would also help in adding to the discourse of the extent of occupational mobility. Caste has been a neglected discipline in the field of economics and seldom is it thought of as a variable that can influence the economic outcomes like occupational choices and determining poverty levels but recent literature and the above study tries to add to the discourse of how it still has a major influence. Studies in the Indian and the American context have also noted that wherever there is a social discrimination in the name of caste and race, studies like that of the intergenerational mobility become important. Hence, it is important that in the matters of public policy, studies like intergenerational mobility can be of great help.

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Annexure

District and State-Wise Sample Individuals

State	District	Sample Individuals	Percentage
Jammu and Kashmir	1. Baramula	1,083	0.53
	2. Srinagar	628	0.31
	3. Pulwama	760	0.37
	4. Rajauri	441	0.22
	5. Jammu	1,213	0.59
Himachal Pradesh	1. Chamba	573	0.28
	2. Kangra	1,156	0.57
	3. Kullu	643	0.31
	4. Mandi	1,270	0.62
	5. Hamirpur	644	0.31
	6. Bilaspur	755	0.37
	7. Solan	148	0.07
	8. Sirmaur	626	0.31
	9. Shimla	797	0.39
Punjab	1. Gurdaspur	1,082	0.53
	2. Amritsar	683	0.33

	3. Kapurthala	552	0.27
	4. Jalandhar	505	0.25
	5. Hoshiarpur	466	0.23
	6. Nawanshahr	39	0.02
	7. Rupnagar	699	0.34
	8. Fatehgarh	39	0.02
	9. Ludhiana	921	0.45
	10. Moga	234	0.11
	11. Firozpur	2,021	0.99
	12. Sangrur	1,017	0.5
	13. Patiala	189	0.09
	14. Chandigarh	358	0.18
Uttarakhand	1. Dehradun	322	0.16
	2. Bageshwar	135	0.07
	3. Almora	417	0.2
	4. Nainital	493	0.24
	5. Udham	259	0.13

	Singh Nagar		
	6. Hardwar	714	0.35
Haryana	1. Panchkula	212	0.1
	2. Ambala	1,161	0.57
	3. Yamunan agar	204	0.1
	4. Kurukshet ra	560	0.27
	5. Kaithal	945	0.46
	6. Karnal	334	0.16
	7. Sonipat	1,293	0.63
	8. Jind	672	0.33
	10. Fatehabad	299	0.15
	11. Hissar	674	0.33
	12. Bhiwani	489	0.24
	13. Rewari	711	0.35
	14. Gurgaon	1,156	0.57
	15. Faridabad	858	0.42
Delhi	1. Delhi	2,801	1.37
	2. Delhi North West	779	0.38
	3. Delhi	131	0.06

	North		
	4. Delhi North East	135	0.07
	5. Delhi East	116	0.06
	6. Delhi West	305	0.15
	7. Delhi South West	105	0.05
	8. Delhi South	264	0.13
Rajasthan	1. Bikaner	217	0.11
	2. Churu	1,082	0.53
	3. Jhunjhunu	856	0.42
	4. Alwar	1,071	0.52
	5. Bharatpur	825	0.4
	6. Dhaulpur	776	0.38
	7. Karauli	298	0.15
	8. Sawai Madhopur	240	0.12
	9. Dausa	125	0.06
	10. Jaipur	653	0.32
	11. Sikar	887	0.43
	12. Nagaur	517	0.25

	13. Jodhpur	1,441	0.7
	14. Jalor	254	0.12
	15. Pali	970	0.47
	16. Ajmer	220	0.11
	17. Bhilwara	1,144	0.56
	18. Rajsaman d	289	0.14
	19. Udaipur	687	0.34
	20. Chittaurga rh	416	0.2
	21. Kota	196	0.1
	22. Baran	192	0.09
	23. Jhalawar	984	0.48
Uttar Pradesh	1. Saharanpu r	534	0.26
	2. Muzaffarn agar	442	0.22
	3. Bijnor	731	0.36
	4. Moradaba d	1,439	0.7
	5. Rampur	446	0.22
	6. Jyotiva Phule Nagar	214	0.1

	7. Meerut	233	0.11
	8. Ghaziabad	474	0.23
	9. Gautam Buddha Nagar	382	0.19
	10. Hathras	42	0.02
	11. Mathura	720	0.35
	12. Agra	489	0.24
	13. Budaun	231	0.11
	14. Bareilly	199	0.1
	15. Kheri	810	0.4
	16. Sitapur	868	0.42
	17. Lucknow	210	0.1
	18. Farrukaba d	688	0.34
	19. Kannauj	263	0.13
	20. Kanpur Dehat	246	0.12
	21. Kanpur Nagar	654	0.32
	22. Jhansi	385	0.19
	23. Banda	258	0.13
	24. Chitrakoot	125	0.06
	25. Fatehpur	400	0.2

	26. Kaushambi	196	0.1
	27. Allahabad	793	0.39
	28. Barabanki	232	0.11
	29. Faizabad	543	0.27
	30. Ambedkar Nagar	396	0.19
	31. Sultanpur	845	0.41
	32. Bahraich	362	0.18
	33. Sharawasti	327	0.16
	34. Siddharthnagar	1,030	0.5
	35. Gorakhpur	253	0.12
	36. Kushinagar	791	0.39
	37. Deoria	161	0.08
	38. Mau	324	0.16
	39. Baliya	253	0.12
	40. Ghazipur	1,330	0.65
	41. Chandauli	606	0.3
	42. Varanasi	694	0.34

	43. Sant Ravidas Nagar	927	0.45
Bihar	1. Purbi Champara n	849	0.42
	2. Madhuban i	823	0.4
	3. Supaul	203	0.1
	4. Purnia	214	0.1
	5. Saharsa	326	0.16
	6. Muzaffar Pur	854	0.42
	7. Siwan	770	0.38
	8. Saran	278	0.14
	9. Bhagal Pur	594	0.29
	10. Banka	109	0.05
	11. Sheikhpur a	203	0.1
	12. Nalanda	875	0.43
	13. Patna	432	0.21
	14. Buxar	266	0.13
	15. Kaimur	272	0.13

	(Bhabua)		
	16. Rohtas	1,159	0.57
	17. Gaya	268	0.13
Sikkim		503	0.25
Arunachal		668	0.33
Nagaland		508	0.25
Manipur		481	0.24
Mizoram		347	0.17
Tripura		919	0.45
Meghalaya		686	0.34
Assam	1. Dhubri	1,046	0.51
	2. Goalpara	182	0.09
	3. Kamrup	1,259	0.62
	4. Marigaon	673	0.33
	5. Tinsukia	188	0.09
	6. Jorhat	884	0.43
	7. Karbi Amglong	133	0.07
	8. Cachar	181	0.09
West Bengal	1. Darjiling	586	0.29
	2. Jalapiguri	777	0.38
	3. Uttar Dinajpur	186	0.09
	4. Maldah	1,022	0.5

	5. Murshidabad	784	0.38
	6. Birbhum	812	0.4
	7. Bardhaman	1,847	0.9
	8. Nadia	845	0.41
	9. North 24 Parganas	1,232	0.6
	10. Hugli	528	0.26
	11. Bankura	179	0.09
	12. Haora	579	0.28
	13. Kolkata	819	0.4
	14. South 24 Parganas	375	0.18
Jharkhand	1. Palamu	568	0.28
	2. Dhanbad	1,297	0.63
	3. Bokaro	678	0.33
	4. Ranchi	1,100	0.54
	5. Pashchimi Singhbhum	442	0.22
	6. Purbi Singhbhum	357	0.17
Odisha	1. Bargarh	318	0.16

	2. Jharsuguda	357	0.17
	3. Sambalpur	242	0.12
	4. Sundargarh	787	0.38
	5. Kendujhar	523	0.26
	6. Mayurbhanj	450	0.22
	7. Baleshwar	1,179	0.58
	8. Bhadrak	627	0.31
	9. Cuttack	314	0.15
	10. Jajapur	224	0.11
	11. Dhenkani	152	0.07
	12. Anugul	656	0.32
	13. Nayagarh	273	0.13
	14. Khordha	375	0.18
	15. Puri	713	0.35
	16. Ganjam	470	0.23
	17. Gajapati	168	0.08
	18. Kandhamal	303	0.15
	19. Boudh	145	0.07

	20. Sonapur	324	0.16
	21. Balangir	523	0.26
	22. Kalahandi	181	0.09
	23. Rayagada	199	0.1
	24. Nabarang apur	123	0.06
	25. Koraput	368	0.18
	26. Malkangir i	29	0.01
Chhattisgarh	1. Koriya	311	0.15
	2. Sarguja	800	0.39
	3. Jashpur	154	0.08
	4. Raigarh	574	0.28
	5. Korba	98	0.05
	6. Janjgir	196	0.1
	7. Bilas Pur	301	0.15
	8. Kawardha	250	0.12
	9. Rajnandga on	800	0.39
	10. Durg	1,335	0.65
	11. Raipur	557	0.27
	12. Mahasam und	91	0.04
	13. Dhamtari	296	0.14

	14. Kanker	197	0.1
	15. Bastar	363	0.18
Madhya Pradesh	1. Sheopur	167	0.08
	2. Morena	582	0.28
	3. Gwalior	210	0.1
	4. Datia	1,059	0.52
	5. Tikamgarh	799	0.39
	6. Chhatarpur	626	0.31
	7. Panna	455	0.22
	8. Damoh	973	0.48
	9. Satna	657	0.32
	10. Umaria	118	0.06
	11. Shahdol	447	0.22
	12. Sidhi	368	0.18
	13. Ratlam	701	0.34
	14. Ujjain	768	0.38
	15. Shajapur	276	0.13
	16. Dewas	1,098	0.54
	17. Dhar	894	0.44
	18. Indore	424	0.21
	19. West Nimar	527	0.26

	20. Barwani	267	0.13
	21. East Nimar	250	0.12
	22. Rajgarh	285	0.14
	23. Bhopal	197	0.1
	24. Betul	813	0.4
	25. Harda	407	0.2
	26. Hoshanga bad	507	0.25
	27. Katni	196	0.1
	28. Jabalpur	150	0.07
	29. Dindori	226	0.11
	30. Mandla	298	0.15
	31. Seoni	418	0.2
Gujarat	1. Kachchh	397	0.19
	2. Patan	87	0.04
	3. Mahesana	301	0.15
	4. Gandhina gar	666	0.33
	5. Ahmedab ad	1,369	0.67
	6. Surendran agar	801	0.39
	7. Rajkot	189	0.09

	8. Jamnagar	630	0.31
	9. Junagadh	1,020	0.5
	10. Amreli	156	0.08
	11. Bhavnagar	209	0.1
	12. Anand	671	0.33
	13. Kheda	188	0.09
	14. Vadodara	986	0.48
	15. Narmada	575	0.28
	16. Bharuch	566	0.28
	17. Surat	553	0.27
Daman & Diu		272	0.13
Fatherra & Nagar Haveli		314	0.15
Maharastra	1. Nandurbar	376	0.18
	2. Dhule	357	0.17
	3. Jalgaon	728	0.36
	4. Akola	450	0.22
	5. Washim	382	0.19
	6. Amarawti	1,075	0.53
	7. Wardha	235	0.11
	8. Nagpur	223	0.11
	9. Bhandara	234	0.11
	10. Gondiya	173	0.08

	11. Chandrap ur	653	0.32
	12. Yavatmal	480	0.23
	13. Nanded	258	0.13
	14. Hingoli	254	0.12
	15. Parbhani	486	0.24
	16. Jalna	659	0.32
	17. Nasik	672	0.33
	18. Thane	887	0.43
	19. Mumbai (suburban)	1,460	0.71
	20. Pune	1,268	0.62
	21. Ahmadna gar	696	0.34
	22. Bid	645	0.32
	23. Osmanaba d	231	0.11
	24. Solapur	1,308	0.64
	25. Satara	1,164	0.57
	26. Ratnagiri	388	0.19
	27. Kolhapur	241	0.12
Telangana	1. Adilabad	511	0.25
	2. Nizamaba	702	0.34

	d		
	3. Karimnagar	800	0.39
	4. Medak	1,004	0.49
	5. Hyderabad	590	0.29
	6. Rangaredi	391	0.19
	7. Mahbubnagar	157	0.08
	8. Khammam	396	0.19
Andhra Pradesh	1. Visakhapatnam	461	0.23
	2. East Godavari	160	0.08
	3. West Godavari	624	0.31
	4. Krishna	625	0.31
	5. Guntur	122	0.06
	6. Prakasam	337	0.16
	7. Nellore	157	0.08
	8. Cuddapah	614	0.3
	9. Kurnool	440	0.22

	10. Anantapur	538	0.26
	11. Chittoor	475	0.23
Karnataka	1. Belgaum	344	0.17
	2. Bagalkot	853	0.42
	3. Bijapur	507	0.25
	4. Bidar	1,185	0.58
	5. Raichur	330	0.16
	6. Koppal	645	0.32
	7. Gadag	366	0.18
	8. Dharwad	365	0.18
	9. Uttar Kannad	475	0.23
	10. Haveri	417	0.2
	11. Bellary	1,256	0.61
	12. Chitradur ga	590	0.29
	13. Davanage re	231	0.11
	14. Shimoga	786	0.38
	15. Udupi	645	0.32
	16. Chikmaga lur	761	0.37
	17. Tumkur	960	0.47
	18. Kolar	1,551	0.76

	19. Bangalore	1,537	0.75
	20. Bangalore Rural	639	0.31
	21. Mandya	185	0.09
	22. Dakshin Kannada	913	0.45
	23. Kodagu	875	0.43
	24. Mysore	1,159	0.57
	25. Chamaraj anagar	615	0.3
Goa	1. North Goa	607	0.3
	2. South Goa	150	0.07
Kerala	1. Kannur	421	0.21
	2. Kozhikod e	403	0.2
	3. Malappur am	1,095	0.54
	4. Palakkad	396	0.19
	5. Thrissur	782	0.38
	6. Ernakula m	696	0.34
	7. Idukki	251	0.12
	8. Kottayam	651	0.32
	9. Alappuzh	900	0.44

	a		
	10. Pathanamthitta	478	0.23
	11. Kollam	170	0.08
	12. Thiruvananthapuram	537	0.26
Tamil Nadu	1. Thiruvallur	263	0.13
	2. Chennai	671	0.33
	3. Kancheepuram	166	0.08
	4. Vellore	286	0.14
	5. Dharampur	479	0.23
	6. Tiruvannamalai	166	0.08
	7. Namakkal	202	0.1
	8. Erode	564	0.28
	9. Coimbatore	943	0.46
	10. Dindigul	165	0.08
	11. Karur	126	0.06
	12. Tiruchchirappalli	808	0.4

	13. Perambalur	185	0.09
	14. Ariyalur	300	0.15
	15. Sivaganga	437	0.21
	16. Madurai	346	0.17
	17. Theni	135	0.07
	18. Ramanathapuram	171	0.08
	19. Thoothukudi	180	0.09
	20. Tirunelveli	570	0.28
	21. Kanniyakumari	471	0.23
Pondicherry	Pondicherry	418	0.2
	Total	2,04,463	100

INTERGENERATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA: EVIDENCE FROM THE INDIA HUMAN DEVELOPMENT SURVEY DATA (2011-12)

by Shivashish Shanker

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This is to certify that **Mr. Shivashish Shanker**, Research Scholar, University of **Hyderabad** has participated in two day International Conference and presented the paper titled **Intergenerational Occupational Mobility among the Scheduled Caste Groups in India: Evidence from India Human Development Survey Data**.

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