

# DOWNLOAD PDF CHANGING OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE OF SCHEDULED TRIBES

## Chapter 1 : Social Mobility: The Meaning, Types and Factors Responsible for Social Mobility

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This article provides information about the meaning, types and factors responsible for social mobility! Meaning of Social Mobility: Mobility stands for shift, change and movement. The change may be of a place or from one position to another. Further, change is value free i. In the social ladder this movement may be upward or downward or it may be inter-generational or intra-generational. In short, social mobility stands for change in the position of an individual or a group of individuals from one status to another. He was of the opinion that there is no society which is closed Caste System in India and no society which is completely open Class System. He further contended that no two societies are exactly same in the amount of movement allowed or discouraged. Further the speed of movement or change may differ from one period of time to another. The rate of change depends upon the level of modernization of a given society. As defined by Barber, social mobility refers to movement, either upward or downward between higher or lower social classes; or more precisely, movement between one relatively full time, functionally significant social role and another that is evaluated as either higher or lower. This movement is to be conceived as a process occurring over time, with individuals moving from one role and social class position to another because of what has happened to them in various kinds of social interaction. Mobility arises in social interaction, as each individual reacts to others in a changing series of social roles. In each case, a change in role between father and son provides the latter with more of the good things of life. The roles of lawyer, doctor and engineer require initiative, training and self- sacrifice. Persons are motivated according to a complex variety of factors to work toward new roles, with their higher status and greater rewards. The good things of life are scarce and individuals must compete, conflict and cooperate with others to gain them. We tend to assume that social mobility is positive rather than a negative value and that an open society is preferable to a closed one. It is, however, not the case. A closed society, in which there is little social mobility, shelters the individual from the frustrations of unsuccessful competition. It does not encourage expectations that cannot be fulfilled. Furthermore, it protects a person from the strain of adjusting to unfamiliar surroundings. The mobile individual must constantly adapt to socially unfamiliar situations a new class, new norms, new values. A member of a closed society spends his life in an environment that is familiar to him. In other words, an open society, with its high degree of mobility, does not guarantee happiness. On the other hand, a closed society, in which there is little social mobility, is not very likely to become a world leader. Heredity does not guarantee that the son of a capable and wise father will be equally capable and wise. A society that does not give talented people from the lower strata an opportunity to advance into positions of leadership will not fare well for long. Mobility may be considered in different senses, such as: Change of social position of an individual or group of individuals takes different forms and shapes. At one period of time there would be one type of mobility and another period of time it can be another type. Each of the following types are not exclusive but they may overlap, it is only for the purpose of convenience and analysis they are given different labels. Under this type of social mobility, a person changes his or her occupation but the overall social standing remains the same. Certain occupations like Doctor, Engineer, and Professor may enjoy the same status but when an engineer changes his occupation from engineer to teaching engineering, he has horizontally moved from one occupational category to another. But no change has taken place in the system of social stratification. In other words, horizontal mobility is the transition of an individual or social object from one social group to another situated on the same level. While explaining horizontal mobility we are mainly referring to movement of individuals from one position to another of more or less equal prestige. Sorokin explains the concept of horizontal mobility still more broadly. The individuals are no more attached to their place of birth. The individuals move from one place to another in

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search of jobs which may be of same prestige. The modern means of transportation have brought in more territorial movement of individuals. The other expression of territorial mobility, according to Sorokin, is greater circulation of social things and values which refer to newspaper news, automobile implements, birth control or money, if social thing is used by more and more people of the same class, regardless of the country or territorial boundaries, then this is an example of horizontal expression. These kinds of intra-occupational circulation or labour turnover, therefore, refer to not only vertical but horizontal intra-occupational mobility. Sorokin further indicates that since territorial, family, intra-occupational mobility of present Western society is intensive it is expected to be accompanied by a considerably horizontal circulation of the individuals from State to State, from one religious group to another, from one political party to another and generally from one ideological group to another. Vertical mobility refers to any change in the occupational, economic or political status of an individual or a group which leads to change of their position. In the words of Sorokin, by vertical social mobility is meant the relations involved in transition of an individual or a social object from one social stratum to another. According to the direction of transition, there are two types of vertical social mobility – ascending and descending or social climbing and social sinking. The ascending currents exist in the two principal forms – as an infiltration of the individuals of a lower stratum into an existing higher one, and as a creation of such a group into a higher stratum instead of, or side by side, with the existing group of this stratum. In simple words, vertical mobility stands for change of social position either upward or downward, which can be labelled as ascending or descending type of mobility. When a big businessman meets with losses in his business and is declared bankrupt, he occupies a low status. On the other hand, if a small businessman with occupational skills of money and manipulation becomes an industrialist he occupies a higher position in the social ladder. Hence his position improves in the hierarchical order. Vertical mobility is intensive in relatively open societies. Sorokin has indicated the following general principles of vertical mobility: When a person or a group of persons move from lower position to upper position it is called Upward Mobility. He may not be able to change his caste but with his economic and political power he may move upward. For example, Yadavs in India stand as a testimony to this fact. For the individuals involved, there are many social and psychic costs of upward mobility. In the course of his upward movement, the mobile man must leave behind many people and places. He must leave the ways of thinking and behaving that characterized many of his earlier associations and he must learn, if he can, new ways of thinking and behaving appropriate to his new status. Downward mobility indicates that one loses his higher position and occupies a lower position. We can take the example of an individual, who is an Engineer and occupies a respectable position in the society because of his occupational position, education and may be caste. If he is caught for accepting bribe or has committed a sin or has done something wrong, he may be sentenced to jail or members of his caste may outcaste him and as a criminal or as an outcaste he may occupy a lower position vis-a-vis position he was occupying earlier. Men who enjoy orderly –and consistent career tend to make a stable personal, family and community adjustment. Men who are unable to do so are more vulnerable to the most extreme form of personal disorganization – namely suicide. The Downward Mobility is an indicator of the extent to which a society institutionalizes the value of equal opportunity through the creation of structure which supports and facilitates it. Lipset and Zetterberg are of the opinion that this type of mobility is due to interchange of ranks. This type of mobility means that one generation changes its social status in contrast to preceding generation. However, this mobility may be upward or downward. With the help of these skills the younger generation may get employment in higher position. If the father is a shoemaker but his son after acquiring education becomes a clerk or a doctor or an engineer, this would be called upward inter-generational mobility. Similarly, a family of Brahmins may be engaged on traditional occupation of teaching and performing rituals but its younger generation is neither intelligent nor follows the family occupation. They become daily wagers then the younger generation has downward inter-generational mobility. With the improvement in economic position, people start changing their style of living by discarding the old practices and adopting the practices of those who are high in social ladder. After two or three generations their new position may be recognized.

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This process of social mobility, according to Srinivas is a process of Sanskritization. Conditions for Inter-generational Mobility: According to Sorokin, the following conditions affect rates of mobility between generations: If a parent occupies an important position requiring high capacity, his children who are less capable are likely to be downward mobile. Conversely, children who are more capable than their parents are likely to be upwardly mobile, especially open-class societies. In developed and developing countries, greater population expansion at the lower than at the higher levels contribute to upward mobility. Overall population growth creates new positions in the upper and middle levels, where growth is not great enough to fill the vacancies. With the changing times many occupations have been upgraded and downgraded because their socially defined importance has changed. Some occupations have moved up or down because of changes in the scarcity of workers willing and able to perform their tasks. Such changes in occupational structure has also effected the rates of mobility between generations. This type of mobility takes place in life span of one generation. This can be further divided into two: A person may start his career as a clerk. He acquires more education and skills. Over a period of time, he becomes an IAS officer or a Professor. In this way he moves up and occupies a higher social position than the one with which he had started his career. His brother may have also started his career as a clerk but did not occupy higher position in his life span and continued to remain at the same position. Hence, within the same generation we find that one brother changes his position and other brother does not. Occupational mobility means change from one occupation to another. These occupations are stratified or hierarchically arranged. When a person or a group of persons move from occupations of lower prestige to occupations of higher prestige, this is called Upward Vertical Mobility. Similarly if an individual or a group of individuals from occupations of higher prestige take up occupations of lower prestige, then this occupational mobility is called Downward Vertical Mobility. From a clerk to an officer is upward vertical occupational mobility; from a clerk to a peon or a smuggler is downward vertical occupational mobility.

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### Chapter 2 : Socioeconomic Status of Scheduled Tribes - Munich Personal RePEc Archive

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History[ edit ] Historian K. Lal wrote that persecution by Muslims, not by high-caste Hindus, was responsible for reducing settled agriculturists and feudal lords to the conditions of nomads and forest-dwellers who went on to be categorized as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the modern period. The early 20th century saw a flurry of activity in the British authorities assessing the feasibility of responsible self-government for India. A highly contested issue in the proposed reforms was the reservation of seats for representation of the Depressed Classes in provincial and central legislatures. In , Parliament passed the Government of India Act , designed to give Indian provinces greater self-rule and set up a national federal structure. The reservation of seats for the Depressed Classes was incorporated into the act, which came into force in After independence the Constituent Assembly continued the prevailing definition of Scheduled Castes and Tribes, giving via articles and the president of India and governors of the states a mandate to compile a full listing of castes and tribes with the power to edit it later, as required. The complete list of castes and tribes was made via two orders: Ambedkar as the chair of the drafting committee for the Constitution. Ambedkar was a scheduled caste constitutional lawyer, a member of the low regarded Untouchables. Such measures as are required to enforce equality, to provide punitive measures for transgressions, to eliminate established practices that perpetuate inequities, etc. A number of laws were enacted to implement the provisions in the Constitution. Despite legislation, social discrimination and atrocities against the backward castes continued to persist. Provide positive treatment in allotment of jobs and access to higher education as a means to accelerate the integration of the SCs and STs with mainstream society. Affirmative action is popularly known as reservation. Article 16 of the Constitution states "nothing in this article shall prevent the State from making any provisions for the reservation of appointments or posts in favor of any backward class of citizens, which, in the opinion of the state, is not adequately represented in the services under the State". The Supreme Court upheld the legality of affirmative action and the Mandal Commission a report that recommended that affirmative action not only apply to the Untouchables, but the other backward castes as well. However, the reservations from affirmative action were only allotted in the public sector, not the private. Provide resources and benefits to bridge the socioeconomic gap between the SCs and STs and other communities. Major part played by the Hidayatullah National Law University. Legislation to improve the socioeconomic situation of SCs and STs because twenty-seven percent of SC and thirty-seven percent of ST households lived below the poverty line, compared to the mere eleven percent among other households. Additionally, the backward castes were poorer than other groups in Indian society, and they suffered from higher morbidity and mortality rates.

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### Chapter 3 : Do Employment Quotas Explain the Occupational Choices of Disadvantaged Minorities in India

*Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are the terms of reference used from the colonial period. Terms such as 'depressed classes' and 'backward classes' were also used historically, but these were eventually replaced by the terms scheduled caste and scheduled tribe.*

Ailayah 1 Research Scholar Ph. ABSTRACT This paper attempts to review some of the existing theoretical and empirical studies on occupational diversification and rural-urban migration. In spite of launching of so many programmes for the upliftment of the rural areas, a big chunk of poor landless labourers, artisans, especially from depressed-classes, is still continuously migrating to urban areas in search of remunerative jobs viz. The only way to check this flow of migrants is the revival of village life so that means of livelihood is available in or around the villages only. Theoretically, the changing occupational structure has come to be explained from both the developmental and the distress angles. Empirical studies suggest that forces of development and distress are influencing rural occupational structure simultaneously. However, the extent of their influence is difficult to judge from the available evidence. The paper emphasises the need for a new focus in diversification studies to explain the phenomenon not only in terms of the micro-level dynamics but also from a broader perspective considering various macro processes. As regards rural-urban migration, given its peculiar nature, the phenomenon needs to be understood separately from the general process of diversification. Occupational diversification in an economy is usually considered to be a positive development as it is an important component of growth. The various population censuses and National Sample Survey NSS rounds in India suggest a slow but growing trend of diversification in rural areas in recent decades by way of an increase in the share of rural non-agricultural sector in the total workforce Basant and Kumar, A clear understanding of the phenomenon of occupational diversification can help to address better the following issues: What drives demand for non-agricultural employment by different types of rural households? How are different forms of employment influenced by levels and forms of agricultural development? What are the terms of employment for non-agricultural rural work, and how do these terms relate to social and political relationships within and outside the rural areas? Under what conditions is diversification in rural areas a fundamentally positive factor in the survival of the poorest groups? Koppel and Hawkins, What has been the role of various natural resources like land, forests, and water in supporting and determining the livelihood of different sections of the rural community? How do changes in the natural resource base bring about changes in the occupational structure? In what way and to what extent are interventions for regeneration of natural resources likely to have a positive impact that can strengthen the occupational base? When diversification has a strong urban linkage, studies focussing on the linkage would help address the impact of urbanisation on rural poverty, investment, savings behaviour and labour market development in rural areas. Further, one would also be able to get an insight into the nature of urban informal labour markets, which are dominated by migrant rural workers. The question of bringing about balanced rural-urban growth also depends upon an understanding of such a linkage. What are the directions of impact of policies aimed at bringing about rural diversification and development? What are the best strategies, short-term and long-term, that can bring about balanced and equitable growth particularly in the context of distress rural diversification? Causes of Migration Migration of population from rural to urban areas, however, takes place because of a variety of reasons and necessarily due to poverty alone. Poverty nevertheless has all along been a major factor. Economically better off people migrate for receiving education, for securing white collared jobs, for making investments in profitable ventures and so on. Artisans like weavers, carpenters and blacksmiths move to urban areas with the hope of getting more remunerative jobs in textile mills, workshops, etc. Landless labourers migrate mainly in search of livelihood. Sovani in a survey of migrants from two districts in Bihar found that households with the highest propensity to migrate were in the lowest and highest income groups. Both poor and rich migrants can come from the same village depending upon the re spy roe structure of the village. Sons and to a lesser extent daughters of successful families move

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to urban areas to secure the education and employment. Sons of labourers families usually more temporarily, as often to the village as to the city to take advantage of shifts in employment opportunities. The process of changing rural occupational structure in developing countries is viewed in the development literature from two perspectives. The first is the development perspective, wherein forces of economic growth such as agricultural modernisation, urbanisation, etc. This growth process, first analysed by Kuznets, is mediated by agricultural transformation, attendant upon the mechanisation of agriculture accompanied by a rise in the productivity of agricultural labour and its surplus. The notion behind the argument is that growth of agricultural production and productivity may create a surplus, which may be invested in non-agricultural enterprises, where an increase in rural incomes due to agricultural prosperity may alter the pattern of demand for goods and services. In the course of development, increase in demand for services from both the primary and secondary sectors leads to growth of the tertiary sector. Alternatively, it is also plausible that such agricultural prosperity crop output per capita of agricultural population will lead to an increase in demand for labour in agriculture, leading to better absorption of labour therein and there would be less spillover of excess labour into non-agricultural employment. This distress diversification has been alternatively put forward as residual sector hypothesis, which occurs when labour is not fully absorbed in the agricultural sector and the non-agricultural sector acts as a sponge for the excess labour. In this context, Bhalla identifies two kinds of distress diversification in which non-agricultural rural activities become residual labour force absorbers. The first is the case of supplementary workers who have no main occupation, but engage in some subsidiary work to supplement household income. The second is the case of persons with a main occupation who also engage in secondary activity. Thus, two types of phenomena contribute to the growth of the non-agricultural sector: Dev have done empirical work supporting the development trajectory. They show that there exists a positive relation between agricultural development and the proportion of rural non-agricultural workers. Their analysis is based on NSS data, and the relationship appears stronger when the share of rural non-agricultural workers is regressed on per hectare agricultural productivity. This evidence supports the hypothesis of Vaidyanathan, who shows a significant positive relationship of the share of rural non-agricultural workers with rural prosperity, by taking agricultural output per capita of agricultural population as an indicator. Further, analysing the rural non-agricultural employment in India based on the NSS and Census data, Basant and Kumar suggest that during the last three decades, the share of the rural non-agricultural sector in the total rural workforce has increased. They show that it is primarily casual workers who shift from agricultural to non-agricultural activities during slack seasons. International Research Journal of Human Resources and Social Sciences IRJHRSS 74 Page involvement of labour in non-agricultural activities occurs countercyclically to the demands of the agricultural calendar and results in labour flows between the rural agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. Jayaraj, using Census data for 1, villages across 11 talukas of Tamilnadu, tries to identify the determinants of the level of non-agricultural employment. The author adopts a broad framework, which includes the development and distress perspectives. The basic focus is on spatial variations in the incidence of non-farm employment, which are both internal and external to the rural economy. The study shows that the phenomenon of non-agricultural employment is as much a function of agrarian prosperity as of agrarian distress, and that prosperity, like distress, could either promote or inhibit the growth of the agricultural sector. Basant and Joshi provide micro-level evidence of diversification of the development kind, where the agriculturists invest their surplus in non-agricultural activities, especially processing and trade, in the agriculturally developed six villages of Kheda district in Gujarat. The study basically establishes the linkage between agricultural prosperity, commercialisation and urbanisation, on the one hand, and growth of rural non-agricultural employment on the other. It is found that the following factors contributed to their migration to the urban area: Recurring famine conditions and consequently non-availability of food in the villages has been the: It may be noted that most of the respondents hail from two villages that come, under the drought prone area of the district. Evidence from various other studies also indicates that migrants to urban areas are generally from poor villages, poor in the sense that the land available per man is inadequate or the resources to generate sufficient income are

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insufficient. Deshmukh<sup>5</sup> in his study establishes perfect correlation between, unemployment rates and emigration rates in the villages around Delhi. All together respondents selected i. The sample households have been selected on random basis. Only 12 respondents are from the Upper castes. Most of the migrants belong to only three Mandals of Mahabubnagar district. These three mandals are continuously drought prone for the past decade. In the sample, more than 11 per cent families are from tribals, 31 per cent from scheduled castes and more than 54 per cent from other weaker sections backward castes and 4 per cent from other castes. The economic status of most of the respondents pertains to the lowest rung of the economic structure, belonging to landless or near landless category. The occupational background of the migrants in their rural areas reveals that they were engaged in agriculture, services and village artisanship such as cobbler, weaver, carpenter, blacksmith, potter, etc. A recent trend observed in the country side is the migration of landless labourers and artisans especially from the depressed classes to urban areas. This trend appears to be on the increase. An attempt was made in this paper to enquire in to the nature and causes of migration from rural to urban areas, besides studying the nature of earnings and living conditions of the migrants. For this purpose, information is gathered by interviewing families that have migrated from rural areas of Mahabubnagar district of Telangana State. The Distribution of Migrant respondents by Caste: For any sociological study the Caste is also one of the important components. Therefore, it is intended to find out in our study to caste of respondents belongs to analyse the caste wise respondents into four castes in Table 1. Caste Wise Distribution Migrant Respondents The above table presents that out of respondents, there are 36 There are 54 There are 58 Among all categories in 3 mandals, there are higher percentage Occupational diversification, given its potential for alleviating rural poverty and unemployment, has thus been examined in the literature quite extensively in terms of its nature and magnitude, causal factors and impact on the household economy. The phenomenon in rural India at the macro level is characterised by an increase in the share of non-agricultural workforce engaged mainly in the tertiary sector and having casual status. Theoretically, the changing occupational structure has come to be explained from two perspectives. First, from a developmental angle, the changing workforce composition is attributed to factors like agricultural prosperity and growing urbanisation with their attendant positive linkages, enabling the labour force to diversify in order to tap new income and employment opportunities. Particular groups of communities are generally associated with certain occupations regarded as hereditary. The fourfold Varna system forms such a functional division of labour. Each of these Varnas is further divided into a number of sub-divisions or jatis, many of which have names indicative of their main economic activities. It is a common presumption that the groups generally associated with certain occupations at some time are the main source of their livelihood. Field Study, figures in brackets indicating Percentages 60 Agriculture 50 Ag. Labour 40 Business 30 Caste Occu. Distribution of Respondents by Occupation at Native Place The above table describes that out of respondents by occupation at their native place in three mandals, there are The table clearly shows that highest We may understand from this data is that our India is mainly depend on agriculture as means of our livelihood. The highest number of 46 In the Makthal mandal the highest number of 41 In Kalwakurthy mandal, the highest number of 45 The overall observation is in three mandals the highest income level is are

### Chapter 4 : Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes - Wikipedia

*Using various rounds of census as well as unit-level NSS data, the current position of the Scheduled Tribes in the employment and occupational hierarchy is analysed. Keywords Displacement, labour market, employment, marginalisation, tribal population.*