CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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Over the past five decades or so the process of occupational change and social mobility in India has been examined by sociologists, as well as other social scientists. A vast majority of them have shown a keen interest in comprehending the volume of deviation from caste-occupations and their findings are of great importance to social scientists. Census in India has made pioneer attempts in this regard. Especially the 1921 and 1931 census of India collected information on the occupational background of certain castes. The major contention of these investigations is that traditional occupational structure is gradually becoming more and more flexible apart from a certain number of new occupations that have come into existence.

After Independence a few studies have been conducted in rural areas on occupational change and social mobility. Here an attempt is made to review a few such studies. Practice of occupations other than their jathi occupations in rural areas is reported by Mayer (1960), Reddy (1968), Kantowsky (1970), Baum (1974) and many others. Mayer in his investigation of 202 rural house-holds near Indore, Madhya Pradesh, found that on an average 44 per cent of the male workers were...
employed outside their caste occupations (1960:77). Reddy, from his study of a village in Telangana region of Andhra Pradesh inferred that castes in the villages were acquiring new modes of livelihood patterns. He found that of the 36 house-holds belonging to 13 different castes in the village, change of occupations has taken place with 12 heads, belonging to eight different castes, (1968:167-77). Kantowsky's research in a village near Banaras reveals that 60 per cent of the men have deviated from their traditional occupations (1970:43).

To study occupational changes, Baum (1974) selected 784 rural house-holds at random at varying distance from Hyderabad city and his data shows that in 195 of the 784 cases - there had been a switch from traditional caste occupations to another activity. Similar findings were reported by Bettielle (1965) in Tamilnadu and Beals (1955) in Mysore.

There are also some useful studies on inter-generational occupational mobility in India. They reveal the increasing trends of occupational deviation from the caste occupations and from the parent's occupation over the generations. Lakshmanana (1971) in his study of coastal Andhra and Rayalaseema regions of Andhra Pradesh found that the respondents' occupational deviation from the grand father's occupation was slightly more marked than that of their father's occupation.
His data reveals that 246 respondents (25 per cent) out of 986 were not following the occupations of their grand father's and that only 21.3 per cent among the respondents uniformly spread over all caste groups did not follow the occupations of their father. (1971:170-71) Ambastha and Jaiswal (1972) in their investigation of an East Bihar village found that from the first to fourth generations, the number of occupational deviations from caste occupations increased considerably, and that the percentage of families following caste occupation was reduced from 77 per cent (first generation) to only 37 per cent (fourth generation), (1972:202-7). Umamohan's (1976) study of a village in coastal Andhra of Andhra Pradesh reveals that 36.64 per cent of respondents (N=191) and 53.2 per cent of sons of respondents (N=191) have deviated from the occupations of their parents (1976:148). Similar findings also have been reported from the same region by Swarnakumari (1979). Her investigation of a village in the same region points out that the deviation from jati occupations is highest with the generation of the sons of respondents (50 per cent) which is insignificant with other generations and further (45.5 per cent) among the generation of sons of respondents (1979:200).

Sharma's (1974 ) research in six Rajasthan villages shows that the upper castes are shifting to non-caste occu-
pations and have discarded traditional callings more than the other groups. 46 per cent from among the male workers of the upper castes are engaged in non-caste occupations. Further, the lower castes have abandoned their own traditional occupations and have taken over some of the caste occupations of the higher castes. The occupations which they have moved into are cultivation and agricultural labour. It is so with Chamaras, the Naiks and the Nais. He has further pointed out that the intermediate and some of the lower and untouchable castes however, still stick considerably to their traditional caste occupations (1974: 156-8).

Kapadia's (1964) study of rural society in Gujarat revealed that 18 per cent of carpenters shifted to tailoring; 54 per cent of potters deviated to carpentry; 10 per cent of cobblers shifted to tailoring and other non-traditional occupations; less than 25 per cent of cobblers became goat-breeders and nearly 63 per cent were farmers. Similar instances were reported by Bose (1968) and Corwin (1975).

There are also researches which have thrown some light on certain interesting aspects of occupational change. Hitchcock (1959) in his study of a village in Uttar Pradesh wrote that though the high caste Rajputs did not like it
they could do nothing about the local low castes abandoning their traditional 'defiling' occupations. Srivastav's (1973) investigation on Raigans (members of scheduled castes whose caste occupation is cobbler) in Kundapur village near Jaipur shows that 93.8 per cent of the main earners are engaged in occupations other than their caste occupations.

Retention of traditional caste occupations as subsidiary occupation by the occupationally deviant members has been reported by Reddy (1966) in Rayalaseema Region of Andhra Pradesh; Jaiswal and Ambastha (1972) in East Bihar; Sarkar (1973) in Mysore and a few others.

Mandlebaum's study (1972) revealed how occupational mobility might take place when favourable economic opportunities were open, which would secure not only greater economic benefits but also the social benefits. During the last part of the 19th century some Noniyas in Uttar Pradesh prospered greatly. The traditional caste occupation was that of extraction of salt from saline soils. When better salt was made available, they turned to other kinds of work with earth, some took to agriculture and others to build wells, tanks, roads and to making bricks and tiles. Some Noniyas became contractors to Government and became rich (1972: 434).
Proximity to urban setting and easy accessibility to the urban and industrial settings due to better communication facilities such as roads and transport often encourage occupational mobility. Kapadia (1964) in his study of rural subjects in Gujarat found that occupational mobility started among the artisans on account of increased communication with the urban centres. Sharma (1969) in his study of six Rajasthan villages concluded that the proximity to the town encouraged migration and education and consequently to occupational mobility.

Among the several prominent forces which have brought radical social changes in India in the last five decades or so, land reforms aimed at the abolition of zamindari, Jagirdari, gramdari land systems, various tenancy reforms and the recent ceilings on land holdings. These reforms have to some extent succeeded in bringing structural change and have influenced occupational mobility trends in modern India. Sarma (1974) in his research on Rajasthan villages writes that: the abolition of Jagirdari and Inamdari systems have affected the traditional structure of occupations. The ex-Zamindars and Jagirdars today in most cases are peasants; some have taken to white collar jobs and some have become
manual labourers, some who were poor ex-peasants are now owners of land they cultivated as they have also taken to white collar occupations (1974:152).

A few studies have brought to the light the instance of planned development programmes' influence on occupational mobility. (Reddy, 1966; Bhownic, 1968). Reddy writes that the community development programmes have accelerated the shift from non-agricultural to agricultural operations. In his study of a village in Rayalaseema region of Andhra Pradesh, Reddy observed that the people knew that the financial assistance and other incentives given to agriculture by the community development programmes was by far larger than they can hope for other non-agricultural occupations. Hence, we find in the village the population engaged in non-agricultural operations shifting towards agriculture either as their main occupation or as subsidiary occupation (1966:128).

Keeping in view the preceding discussion on occupational change and mobility in India, an attempt is made in the present study to examine occupational change in the two selected villages in Anantapur district of Andhra Pradesh.

METHODOLOGY

The present study is an attempt made to examine the occupational change in two selected hamlet villages in Anantapur
district located in Rayalaseema Region a drought prone area of Andhra Pradesh.

Objectives of the study:

1. To study the socio-economic characteristics of rural people.
2. To study the changes in occupational structure as a result of developmental inputs.

Universe:

Anantapur district in Rayalaseema of Andhra Pradesh has been selected for the study. Rayalaseema region consists of four districts namely, Anantapur, Chittoor, Cuddapah, and Kurnool. The present study is concerned with the impact of developmental inputs on occupational change in the two selected villages of Anantapur district.

Sample:

For the purpose of the study two villages have been selected in Singanamala block of Anantapur district. Of these two villages Pasulur is an experimental village and Olikantipalli a control village. Further to facilitate the study convenient, Pasuluru is named as village 'A' and Olikantipalli is named as village 'B'. The selection of the villages is based on the criteria of presence and absence of develop-
mental inputs in the two villages selected for the study.

Random sampling method is adopted for the purpose of data collection. In village 'A' 50 respondents are selected. In village 'B' another 50 respondents are selected. The data collection is carried out in 1985.

Tools of Data collection:

A schedule is administered to the respondents to elicit the required information in the two villages under study. Interview schedule is the tool of data collection employed in the present study.

Analysis:

Occupational change in two villages is measured by comparing the situation in the experimental village 'A' with that in the control village 'B'. By the very nature of the study, it is not possible to collect information at two points of time to observe occupational change. Hence, the information is collected at one point of time. However, the information is sought from the respondents about change took place over a long period of time. Information on occupational change that occurred over a period of three generations is obtained and analysed.
Scheme of presentation:
The first chapter gives a brief review of related studies. It also presents methodology of the study. The second chapter gives a profile of the two villages under study. The third chapter gives a brief account of Rural Development programmes in Anantapur district. The fourth chapter deals with socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the two villages under study. The fifth chapter deals with occupational changes that are taking place in the two villages. The sixth chapter summarises the discussions and the findings of this study.
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