

**A SOCIO-ECONOMIC STUDY OF INTER-  
GENERATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG RURAL  
POPULATION OF 'MAZHA' CULTURAL ZONE  
OF PUNJAB - A LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS**

**Dissertation**

Submitted to the Punjab Agricultural University  
in the partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

in

**SOCIOLOGY**

(Minor Subject : Extension Education)

**DUPLICATE**

By

**Jaspreet Kaur**

(L-2002-BS-49-D)

Department of Human Development and Sociology  
College of Home Science  
**PUNJAB AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY**  
**LUDHIANA-141 004**  
**2005**

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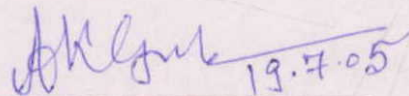
## CERTIFICATE-I

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This is to certify that the dissertation entitled, "A socio-economic study of inter-generational mobility among rural population of 'Mazha' cultural zone of Punjab-A longitudinal analysis" submitted for the degree of Ph.D., in the subject of **Sociology** (Minor subject : **Extension Education**) of Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, is a bonafide research work carried out by **Jaspreet Kaur** (L-2002-BS-49-D) under my supervision and that no part of this thesis has been submitted for any other degree.

The assistance and help received during the course of investigation have been fully acknowledged.

*Thesis*

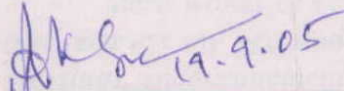
  
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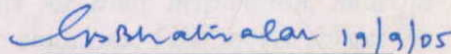
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## CERTIFICATE-II

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled, "A socio-economic study of inter-generational mobility among rural population of 'Mazha' cultural zone of Punjab-A longitudinal analysis" submitted by **Jaspreet Kaur** (L-2002-BS-49-D) to the Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Ph.D., in the subject of **Sociology** (Minor subject : **Extension Education** ) has been approved by the Student's Advisory Committee alongwith Head of the Department after an oral examination on the same.

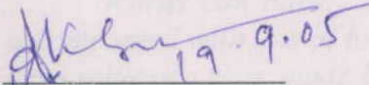
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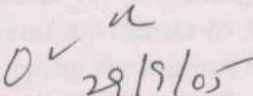
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is difficult to acknowledge so precious a debt as that of learning. First of all I owe to god, the Almighty with whose grace and kind blessings, I have been able to clear another chapter of my life and acknowledge the others.

It is my privilege to express my deep sense of gratitude to my Major Advisor, Dr. A.K. Gupta, Senior Rural Sociologist-cum-Head, Dept. of Human Development and Sociology, for his inspiring and encouraging guidance, prudent cooperation and constructive criticism throughout the tenure of this investigation.

I profoundly thanks the worthy members of my advisory committee Dr. Sukhdev Singh, Associate Professor, Department of Human Development and Sociology, Dr. D.S. Ladhar, Professor of Extension Education, Department of Extension Education, Dr. S.K. Singla, Professor and Head, Department of Business Management and Dr. Harnek Singh, Professor of Sociology (Dean, PGS Nominee) Department of Human Development and Sociology for their valuable suggestions, ever willing help and critical evaluation of the manuscript.

I express my sincere thanks and gratitude to Dr. B.R. Jindal, Professor of Sociology, Department of Human Development and Sociology, Dr. Balbir Kumar, Senior Rural Sociologist (Retd.), Department of Human Development and Sociology and Dr. K.K. Jain, Senior Economist (QM), Department of Economics, for their benevolent help, kindness and valuable suggestions.

Mere words of acknowledgement are not enough to express my indebtedness. I also express my gratitude towards my esteemed parents for their inspiration, heartfelt blessings, encouragement fruitful suggestions and loving emotions. I can never forget the love and inspiration showed by my late Dadi ji.

I can never repay the ever-willing, and whole hearted support of my dearest brothers Gurmukh, Jagmeet and Harman and sisters Jyoti and Sandeep for their enormous love and affection. As without their moral support and active help, it may not have been possible to withstand the rigours of research.

Words can hardly express the constant, untiring and ever-encouraging support accompanied with lots of love from my Bhua Ji and Phuphar Ji. For all the sacrifices that have selflessly been made by them, gives me an immense pleasure to acknowledge them in this manner with veneration and sense of gratitude.

I will remain in debt at each and every step of my life for the unwavering help, selfless support, inspiration and cheerful company given to me by Sonu that kept me bloomed even during ups and downs of my life.

I cherish with appreciation the cheerful and joyful company of my friends with humbleness, I express my heartiest thanks to my friends Loveleen, Mandeep, Parneet and Gursimran Kaur for providing the amicable help, love and heartily inspiration.

I extend my thanks to Mr. Deepak Kumar and Mr. Beer Bahadur (Ekta Computer Centre) for typing the manuscript neatly.

Deep in my heart, I appreciate the help of those whose names, I might have missed.

Jaspreet Kaur  
19/7/05  
(JASPREET KAUR)

Title of the Dissertation : "A socio-economic study of inter-generational mobility among rural population of 'Mazha' cultural zone of Punjab-A longitudinal analysis"

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Major Subject : Sociology

Minor Subject : Extension Education

Degree to be Awarded : Ph.D.

Year of award of degree : 2005

Total pages in Thesis : 149 + Appendices

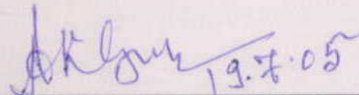
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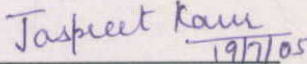
#### ABSTRACT

The present study, "A socio-economic study of intergenerational mobility among rural population of Mazha cultural zone of Punjab – A longitudinal analysis" was undertaken to study mobility from generation-I to generation-II. The sample of 400 respondents i.e. 200 from generation-I and 200 respondents from generation-II from eight villages of two districts had been taken. Only those households were selected where two generations were alive. The sample consisted of 400 respondents viz. 40 landless, 40 marginal, 40 small, 40 medium and 40 large farm households were selected and then two eldest males one each from the two generations were selected for interview. Interview schedule was used as research instrument for collection of data. Statistical tools like averages, mean score, t-test, z-test, chi-square and analysis of variance were used to analyse the data.

The results of the study revealed that in generation-I most of the respondents were illiterate whereas in generation-II about half of the respondents were educated above matric level. In generation-II there was an increase in number of nuclear families. Number of household articles and mechanisation was also increased in generation-II. Indebtedness has been increased now-a-days. There was a great change in land holdings. In generation-I the average size of holdings was 5.42 hec whereas in generation-II it was only 3.85 hec. There was a great change in occupational structure of rural households. Only 14 per cent of generation-I had changed their occupation as compared to 55.00 per cent in generation-II. Major sources of fragmentation were family division. People from higher caste, highly educated, more exposed to mass media were more mobile than their other counterparts. Education change in occupation structure, media exposure, industrialization etc. were the major factors responsible for mobility. There was an increase in income and expenditure pattern in generation-II. There was change in life style of people, social contacts and social development. There was increase in mental tension and stress and strain. People have become more materialistic. From this it was concluded that there was a great change in structure and functions of rural society.

**Key words:** Intergenerational mobility, socio-economic status, Social Institutions, Living standards, Materialistic values

  
Signature of the major advisor

  
Signature of the student

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## INTRODUCTION

Despite the massive attempts since independence to accomplish rapid growth of urban world, India continues to remain predominantly an agrarian society. Indian society has experienced both patterned and recurrent changes but the population of rural area in the country since 1901 remains more or less unaltered, however the trend is reverse in the industrially developed society (Sharma 1997). The rural situation has undergone some changes in recent years. After the independence Indian society had witnessed some type of social change and mobility, confined to certain groups of people, especially drawn from upper castes.

Now a days society is gradually becoming developed and occupationally diversified. The people have started dissociating themselves from their traditional caste based occupations and become more mobile both occupationally and geographically too (Saini 2004). There is a great impact of social and economic changes in post independent India, particularly with reference to industrial growth, expansion of education, technological advancement, expansion of new transport and communication facilities, change in land holdings etc, on occupational diversification and consequent caste mobility in rural area (Srinivas 1980).

The word 'Mobility' is quite often used in our day-to-day conversation. Mobility very broadly refers to movement of some kind or the other. The concept of mobility has two common referents - geographical mobility and social mobility. Geographical mobility refers to movement or change in actual physical space. Social mobility denotes movement or change in social space (Saini 2004). Mobility as the term has come to be used in sociological studies in the simplest term, measurable movement in a time, a space or a social frame work. Sociologists have distinguished between social 'mobility' that is merely an unrealized aspiration and actual change in rank, political power, educational attainment and ritual symbols (Singh 1994).

Social mobility is a wide spread phenomenon bringing a degree of fluidity into the social stratification system of society. It is the movement of the individuals or groups from one social position to another and the circulation of cultural objects. Social mobility is change from one social position to another. This change may be educational, political, economic, social, occupational and in other areas of life of the individuals, families and change in group (Sorokin 1959).

Social mobility is divided into two types namely horizontal and vertical mobility. Horizontal mobility refers to the transition of an individual from one social position to another of the same rank. It is the movement of person without change in his status. Vertical mobility refers

to the transition of an individual from the social position to another of different ranks. It can be upward or downward depending upon the situation. Vertical mobility takes place in the field of 'class', 'occupation' and 'power' of an individual.

Social mobility has been viewed from two angles depending upon the generation factor i.e. the intergenerational and intragenerational mobility. The intergenerational mobility represents the mobility of status between two different generations. It refers to that mobility which occurs due to shift of father's status to son's status in the society. Intragenerational or career mobility refers to mobility of the same person from his first position to another position in the society. It represents the mobility of a person compared within one generation only.

Social mobility is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. There is a dimension of specific direction, specific time sequence, mechanism of mobility and unit of mobility. No society is absolutely without social mobility, that is completely closed. Even within the rigid framework of the Indian caste system, some routes are still open for social and cultural mobility. Both upward and downward mobility are possible even within the apparently looking rigid caste system in India. There are changes in rank position not only by castes as local or regional units, but also by individuals (Beteille 2002). On the other hand, no society is ever completely open, in the sense that every one can move freely up or down in

the stratification system. Two societies are never exactly alike in the stratification system. Indeed not only are societies different in this respect, but individual societies differ over time as their technology and institutions change (Sharma 1991).

Social mobility is any change in social position such as occupational changes where persons move up or down on the occupational scale, or a leap from low economic class to a high one or vice versa. In caste based society, like India where there is no such change in social position, mobility is far less than in a democratic society comprised of independent units free to climb socially or to move about at will on a large social plane. Mobility is a change which brings new social contacts and hence new stimuli, which in turn calls forth new responses and changes in personality. Social mobility may mean personality change, instability and disorganization in the society (Ahuja 1999).

#### **Factors affecting social mobility**

The rate and ramification of mobility have been increasing in the past few decades owing to various processes of industrialization and urbanization. Although these changes have been more in the western society, yet they can also be evident in a developing society like India. Factors like industrial growth, expansion of education, technological advancement, development of transportation and communication, fragmentation of land holdings, have tended to make the caste system less

rigid, people have become more mobile and they can earn money by adopting occupations other than their caste's occupation for their livelihood (Aggarwal 1970).

The relationships between various occupational groups was governed by caste and traditions. However scientific and technological advancement created a number of activities that demanded new skills not acquired through the traditional system of training, so the caste-occupation link becomes loose. With the advent of new technology and mechanisation of agrarian economy, many new occupations come up which are caste free. So it helps in socio-economic upliftment of the people. Advanced agricultural technology has been playing such a vital role that it has changed various social, economic and cultural aspects of human society throughout the world.

Land has continued been the influencing factor in the Indian economy because it is predominant factor of agricultural production. In recent past, the number of marginal and small holdings has increased significantly (Ali 1996). For instance, 15 per cent of land under farming in India belong to marginal farmers with an average size of holdings of 0.4 hectares. Small farm holdings averaging to about 1.5 hectares (Rao 2003). The changes in land utilization pattern and distribution of operational holdings have directly associated with social and economic change in rural areas. It is more characterized in case of agrarian dominant countries like

India (Sharma 1995).

Industrialization, urbanization, education and westernization has opened new opportunities for all. They have brought revolutionary changes in the society. Rural communities merge into industrialized and urban cities. It promotes intensive division of labour in society. Way of life has changed. Housing, furniture, dress patterns in the present generation in comparison to previous generations have changed. Education is considered as a powerful instrument for social change.

There is a revolutionary change in the status of women both directly and indirectly. Women become economically independent. Now they can go outside for work. So all these factors play a very important role in the social change and mobility in the society. Social costs of industrialization are heavy. The existing social geographical boundaries become contested. Income, status and power of various segment of society are readjusted (Gupta 2004).

### **Impact of Social Mobility on Society**

Social mobility is accompanied by migration, tension, breakdown of the old structures and emergence of new ways of life. The impact of modern development is observed in changing social status of an individual person and changing status from father to son. But it has effectively operated in changing the social structure of rural households. The movement of households among different social classes may take

place. As an account of the impact of economic planning the region is undergoing a rapid economic change. Higher level of income and migration from rural to urban areas have played a decisive role in social and economic change of rural households. As a result of this fact, the structure of rural households is undergoing a transition (Singh and Upadhyay 1998). Rural way of life is becoming more urbanised. Social relations are slowly and steadily transformed. Further mechanisation is bound to bring down the demand for labour. Social relations are based on contract rather than on status. Mechanical solidarity is changing to organic solidarity (Gasper 1991).

At the present historical juncture the size of operational land holdings is phenomenally small and the proportion of small and marginal land owners in the agriculture population is very high. Under the impact of institutional, technological and demographic factors, the number of large holdings has declined and the proportion of small and marginal holdings has increased (Pal and Mandol 1994). In Punjab, 72 per cent of the farmers have less than 10 acres of land and 45 per cent of the farms are smaller than 5 acres. The small size of holdings have increased from 38.6 per cent in 1981 to 44.7 per cent in 1991 (Bobby 1998) due to continuous subdivision of land holdings. The fast multiplying population is mainly responsible for the fragmentation of the holdings (Singh 2000). Such land fragments are not economically viable, so it has also forced the people to

get to non-traditional occupations.

Lack of employment opportunities has led to migration of increasing number of people from rural to urban areas and abroad. Urban population in Punjab has increased from 28.00 per cent in 1991 to 33.95 per cent in 2001 (Gupta 2004). The society has to pay heavily when such migration takes place on a large scale as it disintegrates the family and social system as a whole (Grewal *et al* 1990).

Family structure of the pre-industrial time became loose. Familism is replaced by individualism. Extended families are replaced by nuclear families. Parents start living separately from their children and lose day to day interaction with their grand children. Decision making is individualised. Marriage has become a contract between two persons not a sacred bond. The age at marriage goes up and divorce rate increases. Sound and happy home life is rare in cities, respect and faith between families which are conducive to happy family life are also not found in rural areas even, now a days (Gill 1990).

Another aspect of village social organisation is the caste system that has undergone change due to technical transformation in agriculture and other related fields. Caste system is losing its rigidity and is increasingly becoming dynamic to meet the new challenges of change in cultural and ideological spheres. Caste is one of the most important organising principles in rural society, but with new technology and farm

mechanisation caste system in village has transformed its meaning from socio-religious to economic one. The deviation from the traditionally ascribed occupations and the status is higher among the sons and grandsons of lower and middle caste group (Srikanth 1993). Now within the caste group, members have diverse ways of life, norms of conduct and values. They now prefer higher prestige occupations with better economic status than before. Further, the person's achievements have become more important than the ascribed status. Gradually the traditional caste hierarchy is breaking down. Lower caste people have become prosperous, powerful and educated and they now tender their claim to a higher place in caste hierarchy by taking new names and by sanskritising their rituals (Omman 1984). Caste system is almost now overlapping the class structure. Certain aspects such as land ownership, occupation and education are no more dependent upon caste as before.

Education makes the people more independent economically and has enabled them to compete on equal terms with others. After independence there is sharpe increase in the literacy rate of India and Punjab. The literacy rate of Punjab in 2001 was 70.95 as compared to 58.51 in 1991 (Gupta 2004). Women are now getting education and have become more emancipated. Consequently, they contribute to the education and occupational mobility of their family members. Education also brings basic changes in the thinking and behavioural pattern of people. Their life

style and social values have changed. With contraction of agriculture, there are important changes in the shape of the Indian class structure, and all the groups have been affected by these changes and there are new opportunities for social change and mobility (Pundir 1995).

The pattern of social mobility, however, has not been uniform. It varies from region to region because of certain socio-economic factors. Some regions and groups witnessed greater mobility, others are relatively static. The advancement and progressiveness seem to have exerted a great influence on the nature and extent of social mobility (Mehra 1992).

While, a large number of studies have been made in developed countries like USA, which used the achievement criterion to study social mobility. But in India only a few systematic studies have been made that used the ascriptive ritual status as a criterion of mobility.

Since a very few studies have been made in this respect in Punjab, it will be of immense value to probe into inter-generational mobility of rural people in a state which has progressed both in agriculture and industry within the last three decades. In wake of rapid technological and social changes, it would be highly desirable to obtain empirical evidence of this process of change. So it was considered pertinent to conduct a study on socio economic mobility by emphasizing 'achievable' aspects with the specific objectives as follows :

1. To study the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents.

2. To examine the various factors responsible for mobility.
3. To analyse the correlation between intergenerational mobility and the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents; and
4. To study the impact of intergenerational mobility on social institutions.

### **Significance of the study**

Earlier in Indian villages, the rate of mobility was generally low due to social, cultural and religious milieu of the society. The present study is an attempt to throw some light on the magnitude of mobility and changes which are taking place at present in the wake of developmental processes going on in the state and development of industries, urbanization and agricultural technology in the state. Studies conducted on mobility cover relatively open societies where change in one sphere is directly related to change in the others. But in Indian society, change in one aspect does not bring change in other aspects. Therefore in Indian society, a comprehensive understanding of mobility is possible only through examination of cumulative impact with number of dimensions like occupation, income, education etc. which in turn may provide a theoretical understanding. It also attempts to relate mobility and underdeveloped and developed residence with aspiration, change in size of holdings, occupation, income and expenditure pattern. The study has both theoretical and practical implications. It will add to our sociological knowledge by

focusing attention on the mobility pattern and allied aspects in the technological social change taking place in this part of the country. The facts so brought out can be fruitfully utilized by planner and administrators in framing and executing development programmes.

The significance of the study is to identify the change in education, income, expenditure pattern, occupation and change in average size of land holding, factors of mobility and impact of mobility on the social institutions.

#### **Limitations of the study**

Because of limitations of time and other resources at the disposal of the investigator, the study had to be limited to a small area, i.e. in the Majha cultural zone of Punjab only. The inferences derived from the investigation may not, therefore be entirely applicable to the rest of the state and country, on account of socio-economic and physical variations. It is felt that the value of the study could be enhanced further if a sample from a wider region had been taken.

The present study is based on the primary data and the results may be applicable to a wider area yet it is not possible in all the cases. The findings of the study are based on the expressed opinions of the respondents and hence have limited validity.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The word 'Mobility' is quite oftenly used in our day-to-day conversation. Very broadly it refers to movement of some kind or the other. Social mobility denotes movement in social space that is, movement of an individual or a group of individuals from one social position to another. Any such movement from one position to another, which may be upward or downward, is termed as social mobility.

The eminent sociologist, Sorokin (1959 : 202) has offered a comprehensive definition of social mobility with emphasis on transition from one social position to another. He writes, "by social mobility is understood any transition of an individual or social object or value anything that has been created or modified by human activities from one social position to another. Lipset and Bandix (1959 : 266) stated, "Social mobility refers to the forces by which the individuals move from one position to another in society, positions, which by general consent, have been given specific hierarchical value. They further added that in the study of social mobility, the movement of individuals from position possessing a certain rank to position either higher or lower in the system", is being analysed. The consensus that emerges from these definitions is that movement from one social position to another by an individual or a group

constitutes the basis of social mobility in any society.

The veteran sociologist, Max Weber, suggests that power, wealth and prestige are three important parameters of social stratification. Eventually, the amount of accumulated wealth, power, leisure and the kind of life-style etc. are the probable indicators of social mobility for an individual or a group. Further Weber stated that people may be mobile in three ways – by changes in their occupation, by shifts in status and by alterations in political ranking. Weber stated that a person may improve his occupational status or ranking by getting a job which requires greater skill, involves more control and carries with it a higher income without necessarily gaining in status vis-à-vis other status groups. On the other hand he may belong to a high status group while his occupational ranking may be low. Weber gave the concept of culture and mobility by looking at the ways in which cultural values and status situations affected each other and how change in social structure affect the political organisation.

In many ways Gaetano Mosca is more relevant for sociological analysis of social mobility, mainly because he places greater emphasis on environmental and structural factors as influencing the behaviour and culture of people. He has tried to indicate wider social changes in religious beliefs and behaviour, economic structure and scientific knowledge, which brings Mosca's analysis more closer to Weber's though he had a pronounced antipathy to all forms of socialism and materialism. Sorokin

has slightly modified Weber's idea by emphasizing the role of occupation in social stratification. Thus for Sorokin, political and occupational dimensions were more important in determining the process of social mobility (Carlson 1958, Glass 1974).

Occupation is stated as a criterion of measurement as it represents the status of an individual. Duncan (1966) made use of the socio-economic index of occupational status prestige rating obtained from a sizeable sample of the population of US in 1940.

Lipset and Ossowski saw social mobility and the values associated with it as a central issue in explaining industrialization, revolution and reform of political structures. They stated that 'modern life' is characterized by the fact that human beings are no longer born to their place in life, but are free to employ their facilities to achieve a lot which may appear to them as most desirable. More specifically, social mobility has been measured by using a multiple approach suggested by Lipset and Zetterberg theory. This theory has adopted that there is a possibility of a having higher rate of mobility in one dimension and lower in other. Therefore, the more qualified and accurate conclusion about mobility and stratification approach is that in which one has to take all the possible dimensions together. They have suggested two sets of methodological approach to study the social mobility. In the first set, there are comparisons of : (I) the present with the past; (II) one area of country with another; and

(III) one model with another expressing equal opportunity. In the second set, there is the conventional operational method of ascertaining mobility by comparing father's and son's positions. In this method Lipset and Zetterberg have suggested an enquiry into father's earlier occupation along with his last one and son's present as well as earlier occupation.

In the present study we have adopted a multidimensional approach. Lipset and Bendix suggested that subject's status should be compared with that of his father when he was of the same age. Bendix (1959) mechanically matched the two generations by age without any other consideration. A comparison of the occupation of the subject and his father in common age seems more valid.

Social scientists become aware of the differential prestige which different occupations receive from the public. While one of the earliest studies was confined to small sample of students in USA, after world war II, a national sample of respondents was used for this purpose by North and Hatt (1947). Since then there have been replication of North and Hatt. Evidence gathered in the USA between 1925 and 1963 suggested that the prestige hierarchy of occupation remained consistent over nearly four decades. In a recent review of this work indicated that there is no variance in the ranking of occupational tiller : as a result of different instructions to sample of rates, whether ranking were made according to social honour or according to requisite intelligence, or rater's sex, age, region, residence,

education and occupation or because of matching occupational title when comparing occupational hierarchies across countries. Summarising this evidence they remarked stability of the structure of prestige overtime is matched by stability across space. Both in western and non-western countries and in developed and under developed countries, there is apparent variance in the prestige. Tully *et al* (1970) measured mobility by adopting occupational ranks of respondents and their fathers and to obtain the internal scale measure, the occupations were coded into six digits and translated into prestige scores. Studies conducted in India also indicated that infact no variance existed in the occupational rankings by different caste groups. In another study, Krishanan compared data from different 'regions' of India in terms of the ranking occupational titles and stated that 'correlations indicate the closeness of preferences of occupations among the groups compared. Regional differences could be seen on the occupational preferences.

Social mobility study looks at the difference between the statuses of individuals belonging to two populations believed to be separated by a generation period of time. In Blau and Duncon model of status attainment employs variables at the individual level only. In this model father's occupation, father's education and respondents education and first job were considered to be the important antecedent variables which influenced the current occupational attainment of the respondents.

They indicated in the writings, 'The model is basic only in the sense that it represented the point of departure for the project, the intention of which was to develop extension of it'. This model therefore differed from the intergenerational mobility model of research which looked into the occupational differences between fathers (as reported by their son, the respondents) and sons (the respondents) which accumulated a large body of mobility data over the years. The status attainment model does not focus on the difference of occupation in the two generations. Rather it treats the father's generational characteristics as origin of the respondents and entertains the possibility of their influencing the son's choice of occupation directly or indirectly through the long range of events of the life cycles. Father's generation factors such as father's education, occupation were seen to influence the careers of their sons through such factors as son's education and son's first job. Another assumption is that the status of father determines son's initial status which subsequently determines his later status (Blau & Ducon 1967, and Hwakes 1972). Hwakes (1972) also suggested that mobility should not be considered as a difference between the two statuses. The establishment of the causal link is essential. Father's status causes achievement orientation in son, and son's status is caused by that achievement orientation. But the model suggested by McCann (1977) holds that the increased educational level enhanced the career prospects of the son which subsequently accelerated the rate of upward mobility and

detached him from his father's status and inheritance effect. The career lines are usually marked by employment opportunities and in that regard father's status may not influence son's status.

Social mobility in India in general and among the rural people in particular has to examine the change of status in caste structure besides the class structure. A model of caste mobility through the process of emulation is proposed by M.N. Srinivas (1966) which is popularly known as 'Sanskritization'. This essentially refers to the efforts made by lower castes to emulate or copy the Sanskrit or Brahmin style of life. They stated that hence many dominant castes in different pockets of rural India acted as reference groups for the lower castes to emulate their life style to eventually claim a higher caste status.

Modernization theories can also be used to explain the process of mobility and change in India. According to these theories, the traditional societies require expertise in planning, capital accumulation, skills and patterns of organization. In India development is yet to take off, apart from other, due to traditional ethos and social structural framework. Development process in India is an evolutionary change, not a revolutionary change. It takes generations to complete. People think a sudden shift from traditionality to modernity will cause great negative consequences or anomie. Steady homogenizing process is necessary in India where cultural complexity is very great (Levy 1977). Dube (1990)

strongly argued that traditional thought do not hamper the process of modernity but rather can faster the change process in Indian society for the better.

Social system is not static but dynamic as it continues to change and makes adjustments while maintaining equilibrium. From this theoretical orientation, the socio-economic development of Indian society may be viewed as social change triggered by various plans and programmes. The development efforts made for the mobility became meaningful within this theoretical framework.

The patterns of development also indicate some other significant features besides modernization of the traditional system. During early period of independence, the socialistic pattern of development was emphasized. But in later days, there was a complete shift towards capitalism. Educated people from the weaker sections or economically backward segment of Indian population quickly entered the free market. The plans and programmes of development, land reforms and green revolution mainly helped formation of social classes.

Within the above theoretical framework it is hypothesized that those who adhered to the traditional pattern of life lagged behind while those who were able to get themselves free from the traditional pattern of life moved forward in their socio-economic development.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of related research studies is periodic, perpetual and continuously expanding body of knowledge, that permeates all aspects of research process. It is considered as an important aspect of research work. Any research is planned and executed on the basis of what has already been accomplished in a particular sphere and related areas of study. It helps in understanding specific problems and draw some hypotheses. Keeping this in view, an effort has been made by the investigator in this chapter to get acquaintance with the available literature having a direct or indirect bearing on the present research study. In this chapter a brief review of work done in the past related to the present study has been classified into three parts and discussed under the following headings for the sake of convenience :

- 3.1 Studies related to social mobility and related issues
- 3.2 Studies related to factors affecting social mobility
- 3.3 Studies related to impact of social mobility on the society

### 3.1 STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIAL MOBILITY AND RELATED ISSUES

Dahiwale (1990) conducted a study on occupational mobility of self-employed scheduled castes in Kohlapur city. The study revealed that 57 per cent Mahar respondents had shifted to non-traditional

occupations while the rest 43 per cent still continued with traditional caste occupations. The study further showed that 56.5 per cent respondents were highly educated and had economically sound background. Out of those who have adopted non-traditional occupations, a substantial majority (77.5%) had changed their caste occupation to lowly placed modern occupations. However, 22.5 per cent had been able to improve their socio-economic status by following more esteemed professions like those of doctors, advocates, tax consultants etc. Data also showed that compared with grandfather's generation, the tendency to continue the caste occupation has decreased and the respondents seemed inclined towards adopting non-traditional occupations more than before.

Dak *et al* (1990) conducted a study in rural Haryana. It was concluded from the study that rural artisans were traditional and only one fourth had adopted the modern occupations. Majority were using outmoded tools and technology. Lower castes and scheduled castes were concentrated on traditional industrialization but the majority of non-scheduled castes and lower caste entrepreneurs were pursuing non-traditional crafts.

Gill (1990) conducted a study in two villages i.e. a service city and a manufacturing city. Findings highlighted that there was an uniform flow of change that occurred in the caste and occupational structures. In both the villages greater change had occurred with regard to the shift to non-caste occupations. The change had inter-caste variations, upward

occupational mobility and heterogeneity was also observed among castes. In first generation 90 per cent of respondents were following caste occupation, in 2nd generation 55 per cent and in 3rd generation only 30 per cent of respondents were following caste occupation. While the percentage of high castes following caste occupations has been consistently higher in all the three generations under study.

Jayaram (1990) conducted a study entitled "social mobility v/s status retention : experiences of standards in higher education". The analysis has shed light on the trends in intergenerational mobility in social status. The upward mobility was observed though selective in character. Who moved up from lower categories spared longer distance than those who moved up from the higher categories. Difficulties faced by those who born in occupational group at the lower level of social hierarchy. 96.5 per cent of respondents generation was educated where as in father's generation only 27.8 per cent respondents were educated. In father's generation 80 per cent respondents were living in lower social status but in second generation. Only 15 per cent were from lower social status and 80.9 per cent professionals have the same status as their father's but in business 51 per cent have higher social status as compared to their fathers.

Kaistha (1990) concluded from his study that education and industrialization were the most important factors of mobility. Persons who were more educated were more mobile than their lesser educated

counterparts. Occupation was not based on caste now-a-days. A majority of people (85%) have changed their caste occupation who were educated and were young and were from higher social status. Study showed that 50.1 per cent people were upwardly mobile, 42.2 per cent stagnant and only 7.7 per cent were mobile downwardly. Most of the people from lower social status entered in professions like doctors, engineers, lawyers etc. and have achieved the higher status in the society.

Lobo (1990) concluded from his study that only 8 per cent have gone beyond the 10th standard. The main reason was their poor social-economic background. There was no occupational and social mobility among such people. They worked as maid servants in upper class neighbourhood. Men were class-IV employees as peon, watchman etc. Their housing conditions were also very poor. There was a continuity of the traditional occupation and only spatial mobility was there.

Lata and Punia (1990) concluded that a majority of the Brahmin respondents (80 per cent) had changed their traditional occupation because of poor earnings. Among the agricultural castes, majority i.e. 77.50 per cent was engaged in farming but there was a clear trend of shifting towards more remunerative services, professions, businesses etc. The occupational mobility was the lowest among the business castes. In contrast to this Artisan castes had much more mobility of occupations as well as changes in their rights, duties and obligations. Higher caste people

moved horizontally and vertically and middle castes could move only horizontally. It was asserted that economic relations were changing faster leading to corresponding changes in the agrarian social structure. The untouchables had also changed their caste occupation due to non-availability of traditional jobs, work consciousness, urbanisation and easy job availability under reservation.

Mehra *et al* (1990) conducted a study in rural Haryana, which indicated a deviation from hereditary occupation. The fragmentation of landholdings over the years, desire to supplement family income and to enhance socio-economic status seem to be responsible for leaving caste/traditional occupations. An intergenerational comparison showed that sons were moving more towards the service sector (80.30%) than their fathers (15.70%) and grandfathers (4.00%). On the whole, sons have achieved considerably a greater mobility than did their fathers. It may also be noted that deviation from parental occupation is more pronounced in the present generation because of better education, more technical knowledge and skills for new occupations, better transport and communication facilities, industries and growth of service sector. Data showed that over half of the mobile respondents (52.9%) were engaged in skilled occupations, 22.1 per cent in clerical occupations, 16 per cent in technical professions and 9 per cent in unskilled occupations and majority of the professionals and skilled workers belonged to the upper caste group.

Nadu (1990) conducted a study entitled 'The structure of intergenerational occupational mobility'. The study revealed the effects on son's occupation of the association between father's occupations and son's opportunities to acquire various resources for occupational attainment. The findings indicated that son's generation was more mobile because of higher opportunities available to them. Sons of higher social status were more mobile than from lower social status.

Srivastava (1990) indicated that bulk of the workers have had a rural background and they migrated to other places specifically to seek employment. Very small minority of workers were illiterate. Quite a substantial proportion was matriculate with some vocational education. Pattern of occupational change at intergenerational level was from agriculture to non-agriculture type of occupations. At every subsequent generation, there was an increase in the proportion engaged in job which require some formal education and vocational skills. Entry into industrial occupations had resulted into developing a skilled labour force. With aspirations to have constant upward advancement, mobility and better future they moved upwards to skilled and highly skilled jobs. Artisan castes had better opportunities in industrial occupation and considered it prestigious with secure future.

Benjamin (1991) conducted a study entitled 'social mobility among scheduled castes in Bihar'. The study revealed that majority of

respondents were landless agricultural labourers and only a few (30 per cent) were govt. employees. Some scheduled caste people have had small piece of land. Sixty per cent sons were labourers against 87.5 per cent fathers. All grandfathers were involved in traditional occupations. Upward mobility was taking place among the SC's. To some extent, the rural conflicts were the result of upward social mobility.

Grover and Dak (1991) conducted a study in eighteen villages of the Haryana state. They concluded that half of the industries were non-traditional and were however using power operated machines while the rest were still pursuing hereditary and the traditional approach. The workers of modernised industries were occupationally more mobile than the other workers. The shift from hereditary occupation was found to be influenced by caste, age, education, family type, mass media exposure, and income. The upper caste people were more mobile than the lower caste people because of latter's being less educated and their lesser exposure to mass media.

Ramu and Wieble (1991) expressed in their study that 84.5 per cent per cent respondents who were occupationally mobile were from 30-40 years of age group. Half of the respondents were mobile upwardly as compared to 13.5 per cent of their father's generation. People who were mobile, mainly belonged to higher caste and sound economic background. Majority of the respondents (74%) were working in mining industries, 20.4

per cent self employed or in business. Only 4.3 per cent of the respondents were working in educational institutions and 1.3 per cent in private firms. Educational achievements for sons were higher than those of their fathers.

Shishodia (1991) finds in a village, which has come in the urban agglomeration of Meerut city, in three generations that second generation of schedule caste women were educated and they contributed to education and occupational mobility of the family for the upcoming generation. Increasing education level of the males contributed to all round mobility of the family. She had found that the politico historical and geographical conditions of a particular region play an important role in the upliftment of social mobility of scheduled castes. Study indicated that the process of Sanskritization, westernization, reforms movement and exposure to mass media were the main factors of mobility. Education was observed as a factor enabling them to compete with others for urban jobs. Scheduled castes had improved their educational level, adopted new occupations, entered in white collar jobs had and become more active, conscious and mobile. They had higher income, education standards, exposure to mass media and more cosmopolitaness that had accounted for their assertion and mobility. The dependency on land owning higher castes for employment had also reduced.

Sivaram and Bhaskar (1991) the researchers in this observation found that people were willingly changing their occupation and

taking up other occupation's though they were getting the similar income as they were getting from their own traditional occupation. The educated among the backward castes had completely changed their occupation. Urbanization, westernization industrialization, modern education, migration etc. were factors which played a greater role for bringing changes in the traditional occupations.

Chandrasekaran (1992) concluded that source of differential occupational mobility among the Madigas was the industrialization of Mysore. Thirty per cent of Madigas had entered in industrial sector. The fact that a new avenue of caste free employment had opened up to them. Education was imparted and industrial training given to them. They had got reservation for admission to schools and colleges and in jobs. They became lawyers, doctors, teachers but the figure was very low. Earlier they worked as agricultural labourers and leather workers. Now they work in foodgrain markets and had migrated from rural to urban areas. There was upward mobility for the Madigas. Modern occupations ranked above the traditional occupations.

Chakrapani and Vijaya (1994) had conducted a study in Mahbubnagar district of Andhra Pradesh. They concluded that social mobility was more among backward classes (49.3%) and scheduled castes (34.3%), followed by scheduled tribes (12.7%) and others (3.6%). These people shifted to urban areas due to availability of more employment

opportunities there on account of rapid urbanization and industrialization. The people who moved were in the age group of 16-35 years. A majority (55%) was literate and had high status in the society and 45 per cent were illiterate and poor. They had adopted modern occupations because they were either underemployed or unemployed. A majority i.e. 52.9 per cent had changed their traditional caste based occupations.

Yadava *et al* (1994) concluded that mobility had been from household industry to non-household industry. They concluded that lower caste people like 'nai' 'bhangi' and 'dhobi' had got the govt. and semi-govt. service and agricultural labourers had become agriculturists. This indicated that people were not satisfied with their caste status and occupation and thus wanted to shift to high status occupations.

Bal (1996) had indicated that the traditional association between caste and occupation no longer existed among castes such as Lohar, Sikligram, carpenter etc. Industrialization and urbanization had made the structure of society more flexible. People in Punjab were leaving their caste occupation and taking up occupations of their own choice. There were more opportunities for occupational mobility now than before. The findings of the study showed that 36 per cent Lohars were still doing their traditional occupations whereas 41 per cent Ramgarhias and only 10 per cent Brahmins were still in their traditional occupations.

Sharma (1996) revealed that caste and education were highly

associated with status. An upward mobility was observed as a substantial shift among the scheduled castes was noticed. Those belonging to high caste category and following white collar jobs had hardly changed their occupations. Highly educated people have experienced the intergenerational occupational mobility more as compared to low educated and low status groups.

Panda (2000) conducted a study on "Occupational mobility from the view point of entrepreneurship" in Nagaland. In his investigation 78 first generation entrepreneurs in private sector were selected. Out of these, 41.03 per cent established the units after migrating to other places within the districts. Out of the original 72 farmers all had left their traditional occupations and shifted to some other higher status occupations like govt. jobs, politics, social work etc. He also revealed that in a tribal society which was not caste-ridden the process of occupational mobility was initiated by the introduction of an industrial culture.

Hussaian and Kabir (2001) reported that women who were mobile were in the age group of 20-35 years. Forty eight per cent of mobile women were educated upto secondary standard or more. The information on the land holdings indicated that the mean holding size was about two times higher for the mobile women than the non-mobile. About three-fourth of mobile women were living in nuclear families and were more exposed to modern world due to mass-media such as T.V., newspapers, radio, etc.

Mobility outside the homestead created opportunity for empowerment of women and improved their social status. Newspapers, TV and radio were the important mass media resources to disseminate information and exposure to rural women. With increased occupational mobility, they became economically independent.

Heath *et al* (2002) had explained a sharp shift between the father's and son's occupation. In father's generation, 65.7 per cent were engaged in agricultural activities, but in son's generation this percentage was only 13.7. There were thus signs of greater intergenerational movement in the study area.

Rao (2004) conducted a study in Nellore district of Andhra Pradesh. The study revealed that 60 per cent of higher caste respondents and only 11 per cent scheduled castes were educated upto matric level. A total 15 per cent have studied upto college from this village. The uneducated or lowly educated respondents from scheduled castes were mainly engaged as agricultural labourers, porters or as mine workers. On the other hand, the more educated ones were engaged in business, agriculture or govt. jobs. Educated people were therefore occupationally more mobile than others. Study further explained that people who were more exposed to mass media like TV and radio were more mobile than others.

Saini and Kumar (2004) illustrated that large land holder's

first generation was less literate but the second and third generations were more educated even upto graduation and post-graduation level. They thus have achieved higher educational levels and worked as advocates, doctors, engineers etc.

### **3.2 FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIO - ECONOMIC INTER - GENERATIONAL MOBILITY**

Oza (1990) demonstrated that the education level of working members as well as that of the head of the family helped in increasing the level of family income. By getting educated, the respondents have taken to more prestigious jobs in govt. as well as private sector and had left their traditional occupations. Education play an important role not only in increasing the welfare of present generation but also of the future generation.

Pandey (1990) conducted a study in Varanasi city with 350 respondents. Out of a total sample, 244 respondents (69.71%) were educated upto higher secondary, 106 were degree holders, 37 were professionals. Education had brought socio-economic improvements by getting to higher status occupations leaving behind their caste ridden occupations.

Kamra (1991) showed a clear-cut relationship between urbanization and social change. It indicated that the mean female literacy level and independence increased as the level of urban growth increased.

The proportion of female workers was the highest in the case of service class. It increased consistently with increase in level of urban growth. In trade women employment was the lowest. It was clear from the data that the occupational dissimilarities between the scheduled and non-scheduled castes respondents were least in urban areas. These dissimilarities declined with increase in urbanity. Data indicated that there has been a vertical occupational mobility among scheduled castes. They got entry into different types of occupations. The change in occupation and space entails change in their socio-economic status. Occupational dissimilarities, educational level, female literacy, economic independence of women tend to vary with urban growth. Lower caste people get work in industries and earn more than before. So urban growth helps in overall social and economic mobility.

Lipset (1992) indicated that large cities were more likely to characterise by high rate of social mobility than otherwise. The data suggested that migration from rural area to metropolitan centers was playing the same role in ordering people in the occupational structure. It was clear from the study that the larger the community in which one is brought up, the greater will be his mobility.

Singh (1993) conducted a study in five districts representing different agroclimatic regions in the semi-arid tropical zone of India. Most of the holdings in this zone were small (less than 4 hec) and were unevenly

distributed. During the present generation the mean size of owned holdings of the farmers had reduced to about half. There has been a continuous decline in the size of both the owned and operational holdings. The reduction in size of holdings was mainly due to splitting of families and sale of land alongwith out-migration for employment during the intergenerational transfer of land. Large holdings have reduced and landless have been able to acquire land. This had helped in reducing inequality in land as the most important asset of rural population.

Ainapur (1995) demonstrated that in the process of modernization economic development attains prominence, which leads to several social and cultural changes. Formal education has direct relation with modernization and mobility. Industrialization, urbanization, modernization have influenced the way of living of rural population. Modernization has helped in the process of occupational and spatial mobility. Spatial and occupational mobility are interrelated. Study showed that agricultural labourers migrate to cities and leave their caste based traditional occupations.

Chauhan *et al* (1995) had indicated that people from remote villages, have migrated to cities for employment. With the growth of industrialisation and urbanisation professions were no longer traditional, and it has provided equal opportunities to all. Now the new class based society is gradually appearing. There was increase in intercaste marriages.

Industrialisation and urbanisation brought the revolutionary changes in the status of women. On the other hand there was a lack of family life, high degree of mobility, higher standard of life. Occupational and spatial mobility was very common in urban areas. People were free to adopt any occupation and could move upward through their achievements. In urban areas achieved status had replaced the ascribed status. It was observed that in some cases higher caste people worked under the people of lower castes.

Mahajan (1995) had indicated that the middle castes were more mobile followed by higher and lower castes. Hindus were more mobile than the muslims. Among the Hindus higher castes were more mobile than muslims. But among the muslims middle castes were most mobile followed by higher and lower castes. Study showed that higher the educational level higher the level of mobility. Mobile classes were economically more prosperous than others. Mobile people were exposed to wider contacts and have diversified to modern occupations like dairy, cold storage, poultry etc. Higher caste people maintain their high caste rank vis-a-vis other castes. It was observed that caste and religion were not posing obstacles in the way of modernization and mobility. Educational level and economic property hold the key to mobility of the people

Khan (1997) concluded that there was change in yield levels after the adoption of agricultural technology by the respondent farmers. Before the adoption of technology they generally borrowed credit from

money lenders but now they preferred to procure it from institutions like cooperative and commercial banks. Study further revealed that there was a change in their economic and social status. They have purchased modern household electric gadgets such as radio sets, TV, sofa sets etc. because of increase in their income level. About half of the respondents started dairy, poultry etc. as subsidiary occupations. So there was more occupational mobility after the adoption of advanced technology in Nainital district of Uttranchal state.

Sharda and Raman (1997) concluded that in Himachal Pradesh, the number of marginal and small holdings witnessed a significant increase during the last two decades but this increase was not accompanied by a corresponding increase in their area owned. On the other hand, although the proportion of large holdings to total number has decreased, the average size of holdings decreased. It was lower in case of SC's compared to other categories. The percentage share of marginal holdings in the total number has increased from 58.2 per cent to 64.7 per cent. Marginal and small holdings were operated mainly by the rural poor, accounted for 78.4 per cent to 83.6 per cent of the total operational holdings. But the share of medium and large farmers dropped from 7.5 per cent to 4.9 per cent. The average size of holdings declined from 1.55 hectare to 1.20 hectare during the study period. Due to decrease in average size of holdings many small and marginal farmers started to adopt modern occupations to earn their

living. Study further revealed that there was a strong correlation between the fragmentation of holdings and occupational and social mobility.

Singh *et al* (1997) conducted a study in the Mathura district to examine the agrarian infrastructure. The average size of holding was very small in Uttar Pradesh. It was 0.52, 1.45, 2.87 and 5.05 hec for marginal, small, medium and large farmers respectively. The population growth rate was very high in the state but overall growth rate was very low. Urbanisation, industrialization and education were also low. So the people mainly depended upon agriculture. But now, they have started some other occupations like dairy, poultry, bee keeping etc. to raise their income levels.

Singh and Singh (1998) had examined that the total cultivated land has increased and non-cultivated decreased. The average size of holdings came down from 4 hec to 2.63 hec. Large land holdings were split into marginal, medium and small land holdings due to increase in number of families and splitting of joint families. The number of operational land holdings of scheduled castes changed with a higher pace than others. A significant increase in number of operational landholding of marginal and small farmers was 86.33 per cent and 115.15 per cent, respectively. Medium farmer's operational holdings had been increased with growth of 62.89 per cent. But the number of operational land holdings of large farmers recorded a negative growth.

Tamuli *et al* (1999) found that majority of the mobile and non-mobile farmers used non-institutional sources of information such as neighbourers (85%), contact farmers (90%) and school teachers (80%). Dairy farmers generally used the institutional information sources such as veterinary surgeon and veterinary field assistant, but not even a single farmer had visited the agricultural university. The use of mass media such as radio, TV and newspaper was more frequent among those who changed their occupation and adopted the non-traditional subsidiary occupation. A noticeable number of progressive (85.50%) and only 25.75 per cent of non-progressive farmers used such mass media sources of information. Study explained that more the exposure to mass media and institutional sources more the mobility from traditional occupations.

Singh (2000) had concluded that there was an increase in the number of holdings and decrease in the average size of holding. The average size of operational holding decreased from 3.4 hec to 2.9 hec. The number was increasing in case of marginal and small farmers and decreasing in case of medium and large farmers. The multiplying population was mainly responsible for the fragmentation of land holdings. Splitting families and sale of land alongwith out-migration for employment were mainly responsible for reduction in average size of holding, during the intergenerational transfer of land. Such fragmented land was less economical, so it forced the farmers to get to non-traditional occupations.

background and education of the respondents.

Gill (2004) revealed that the percentage of small and marginal farmers was increasing day by day because of fragmentation of land holdings. The major reason was increase in population and splitting of joint families. The study showed an increase in the number of nuclear families in the sample area. It was also concluded by the study that farmers have changed their traditional occupations and adopted modern occupations to supplement their family income.

Vermani *et al* (2004) conducted a study in Hisar City of Haryana to examine the effect of education on social mobility. The study revealed that 66 per cent of the respondents were between the age group of 20-35 years and 90 per cent were educated upto matriculation level. Analysis indicated that 75 per cent of the respondents were intergenerationally and occupationally mobile i.e. they were pursuing different occupations than their fathers. Four-fifth of the educated respondents were found intergenerationally and occupationally mobile. It was concluded that higher the educational standard, higher the deviation from parental occupation.

### **3.3 IMPACT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC INTERGENERATIONAL MOBILITY**

Gupta (1990) revealed that impact of development has begun to manifest on the traditionality of the Indian family system. The results

showed that there was a decrease in the number of joint families and an increase in the number of nuclear families now than before. The younger generation preferred to shift to urban centres for employment leaving behind their parents.

Reddy (1990) concluded that the second generation population was more educated than their parents and grand parents. Because of education there was a remarkable change in the caste and occupational structure. People have changed their main and subsidiary occupation and there was an increase in their family income. They had improved their socio-economic status. There was an increase in the status of women and their role in the decision making process was much more conspicuous now than before. Second generation preferred to shift to urban areas because of better employment and other facilities like communication, transportation etc.

Sharma (1990) 'Dumanas' (a scheduled caste) were untouchables in Punjab. Social mobility among them was more of individual nature rather than caste as a whole. A large number of respondent's kins still lives in the village and carried out some menial jobs. Nevertheless, their educational level and family income have increased overtime. So, they have improved their status in the society. Respondents who were educated and from economically sound background had adopted the modern occupations more and got govt. jobs higher than others.

Singh (1990) explained that occupational mobility was mainly responsible for an increase in the number of nuclear families. Younger generation was living in urban areas because of their occupation. There was an increase in the heterogeneity within the social groups. There was an increase in the social inclusiveness. It was evident from the study that there was change in rural folk also. Rural folk have been presumed to be conscious of their traditional economic and ritual status. Scheduled caste people also move up the ladder in the caste hierarchy by change in occupational and economic status. It was observed from the study that economic incentives more important for children coming from low income families. Lower classes aspire for the occupation of higher prestige level than their parents industrialization and urbanization have caused a great impact on the occupational structure of urban and rural area which witness today is the prevalence of caste free occupation.

Jena (1991) conducted a study in which he revealed that out of all the higher artisan castes, the occupational mobility was less pronounced than among the lower artisan castes. Most of the higher artisan caste respondents had not changed their traditional occupations as they thought it to be more rewarding than the non-traditional ones. On the other hand, the lower artisan had changed their traditional occupations for better income, occupational prestige and social status. Though occupational mobility had taken place on a limited scale, yet change had been noticed in the life style

of people, structure and furniture of houses, interactional pattern had reduced and change in culture of artisans. There was an increase in inter caste and love marriages among the artisans.

Sharma (1991) revealed that mobility breaks down the traditional bondages, shakes value system and articulates new relationships. It brings the revolutionary changes in the whole pattern of social life. There was an increase in rural to urban migration because of occupational mobility. There was an increase in the infrastructural facilities, more education, transportation and communication and increase in employment opportunities because every one was now free to choose occupation of their own choice and calibre. Rural people's status was also improved because of an increase in their family income. Increasing number of nuclear families, intercaste marriages and increasing the demand of dowry were some of the important social effects of mobility.

Chauhan (2001) had revealed that joint family system was breaking down and undergoing a process of nuclearisation. With the increase in socio-economic mobility there was a change felt in various social institutions like caste, religion, family and marriage etc. Education was considered to be the most powerful agent of change. People who were more educated liked to live separately from their parents and they also had unfavourable attitude towards joint family system.

Singh (2003) conducted a study on "socio-economic status of

farming communities in northern India". The study was based on an indepth survey of two thousands rural households selected from twenty villages of five districts of Uttar Pradesh. The analysis revealed that there was a little change in terms of socio-economic conditions in the caste hierarchy. The lower caste people attained education and thus entered into govt. service which led to improvement in their social status, economic well-being and living conditions.

Chaudhary (2004) conducted a study in Bohal city of Madhya Pradesh with 715 respondents. The study had inferred that occupationally mobile scavenger's social status was much higher than their non-mobile counterparts. So far as their physical quality of life such as dress, food, household assets etc. were concerned, a lot of changes had taken place in the positive direction. They married their children with those who had adopted modern occupations. There was a significant change in the attitude, perception, aspirations, standard of living and social status of the mobile scavengers.

### **Conclusion from the various studies**

After going through the results of various studies, it may be concluded that there were changes in the socio-economic status of the rural population due to variety of factors which in turn had a marked effect on the social, economic, physical, cultural, psychological aspects of life of people. The contributing factors like continuous subdivision of land

holdings, increase in industrial and urban growth and more exposure to mass media had changed the structure of rural society.

The literature reviewed further revealed the various socio-economic characteristics like age, education, occupation, income which were responsible for mobility. Due to change in education, income etc. there was a change in family as well as society and structure of houses of rural people. Thus it comes out from the reviewed literature that the various contributing factors and impact of changing structure on social institutions were not studied together in a single study. An effort to do the same has been done in the present study.

#### 4.1. LOCALE OF THE STUDY

The study entitled "A socio-economic study of inter-generational mobility among rural population of 'Majha' cultural zone of Punjab-A longitudinal analysis" was conducted in Majha cultural zone. As the 'Majha' zone of Punjab is composed of two districts viz. Amritsar and Gurdaspur, therefore both these districts were taken for the present investigation.

#### 4.2. SELECTION OF THE DISTRICTS

For the present study, Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts were selected because (i) no such type of study i.e. on different categories of farm families have ever been conducted in rural areas of these districts and (ii) it was convenient for the investigator to visit research area since the

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present study is an attempt to collect empirical evidence of socio-economic mobility in rural Punjab. The most important criterion of judging the value of any scientific study is undoubtedly the methods and procedures followed in investigating the problem. So a systematic procedure was adopted for conducting the present study keeping in view the specific objectives. The present chapter describes the research methodology of this study under the following headings :

### 4.1 LOCALE OF THE STUDY

The study entitled "A socio-economic study of inter-generational mobility among rural population of 'Majha' cultural zone of Punjab-A longitudinal analysis" was conducted in Majha cultural zone. As the 'Majha' zone of Punjab is comprised of two districts viz. Amritsar and Gurdaspur, therefore both these districts were taken for the present investigation.

### 4.2 SELECTION OF THE DISTRICTS 247667

For the present study, Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts were selected because (i) no such type of study i.e. on different categories of farm families have ever been conducted in rural areas of these districts and (ii) it was convenient for the investigator to visit research area since she



belonged to this area.

#### **4.3 SELECTION OF BLOCKS**

To meet the objectives of the study the rural areas of both the districts were divided into semi-urban and rural on the basis of the distance from the city. The villages being 5 kms away from the periphery of the city, were considered as semi-urban locations. Further, the villages 5 km away from this semi-urban locations were considered as the rural locations.

The lists of all the sixteen blocks of Amritsar district and fifteen blocks of Gurdaspur district were made and two blocks viz. Naushehra Pannuan and Majitha were selected from Amritsar district and two blocks viz. Dhariwal and Sri Hargobindpur were selected from Gurdaspur district for the present investigation.

#### **4.4 SELECTION OF VILLAGES**

Following the above mentioned procedure total eight villages were selected from both the study districts i.e. four each from Amritsar and Gurdaspur district. Two villages were selected from each block i.e. one village near the town (within 5 km radius from the city) and another away from the town (i.e. more than 5 km from the town). The list of villages falling in these four blocks was prepared in conference with the concerned Block Development and Panchayat Officers and two villages were then selected from each block at random making a sample of eight villages in all. Four villages were taken from Amristar district which were Nandpur

and Naushehra Pannuan from Naushehra Pannuan Block and Sohian Kalan and Begewal from Majitha block. The remaining four villages which were randomly selected from Gurdaspur district were : Vila Bajju and Kohali from Sri Hargobindpur block and Sohal and Ghuman Kalan from Dhariwal block.

#### **4.5 SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS**

All the inhabitants of the selected villages were categorized as landless agricultural labourers, marginal farmers, small farmers, medium farmers and large farmers, keeping in view the National Classification (Statistical Abstract of Punjab, 2000). On the basis of this, a sample of 25 households from each study village was selected randomly by selecting five households from each category mentioned above, so as to make a total sample of 200 households in all. From each selected household, one eldest male member each from the two different generations was selected for collection of data thereby making a total number of respondents as 400 for the purpose of the present investigation.

#### **4.6 TOOLS OF INVESTIGATION**

The research instrument used in the study was the interview schedule.

#### **4.7 CONSTRUCTION OF SCHEDULE**

The interview schedule which included structured and a few open ended questions was constructed for data collection. The interview

schedule was comprised of two parts. First part dealt with the background information of respondents and their family characteristics viz. age, education, occupation, income, family type, family size etc. The second part of the interview schedule was designed to seek the specific information related to the socio-economic mobility for which both structured as well as open-ended questions were framed related to different factors affecting mobility and its impact on social institutions. The questions were framed in a simple language and arranged in a systematic manner to facilitate smooth conversation and easy collection of data. Due care has been given to avoid overlapping of questions.

#### **4.8 PRETESTING OF THE SCHEDULE**

Before the actual administration of the final schedule, it was pre-tested as to determine its suitability, clarity, relevance, simplicity, reliability and comprehensiveness. For this purpose, ten non-respondents in Naushehra Pannuan block of Amritsar district, which was selected for this study were taken i.e. five from semi-urban and five from rural location area. On the basis of experience gained during pre-testing, necessary modifications were incorporated and the interview schedule was finalized for collection of desired data accordingly.

#### **4.9 COLLECTION OF DATA**

Prior to the data collection sufficient rapport was established with the sample families through village 'sarpanch' or head. Data were

collected from the respondents individually and personally on the structured and pretested interview schedule before actually interviewing the respondents. They were assured that the information rendered by them was exclusively required for a research project and the personal identity of any subject would not be divulged to any one. Five-point-rating-scale was used for questions related to judgement of opinions of the respondents. Ranking procedure was also used where respondents were asked to rank the given options in order of their preference.

#### 4.10 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data was analysed by using appropriate statistical procedures such as frequencies, percentages, mean score, chi-square, t-test, z-test and one way factorial ANOVA (analysis of variance).

##### Mean score

Mean score was calculated by using following formula :

$$\text{Mean score} = \bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

##### Chi-square test

The  $X^2$  test was used to test the association between two variables. The formula used was :

$$X^2 = \frac{\sum (O-E)^2}{E}$$

$$df = (r-1)(C-1)$$

**t-test :** To test the significance of difference between generation-I and

generation-II t-test was used.

$$\frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S.E. \text{ of } (\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)}$$

Where,

$$S.E. = \text{Standard error} = S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}$$

**z-test :** Z-test was used for determining the significance of differences in occupation of both the generations. The following formula was used for this purpose :

$$Z = \frac{|p_1 - p_2|}{S.E.(p_1 - p_2)}$$

$$\text{Where } S.E. = \sqrt{PQ \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$$

$$P = (p_1 n_1 + p_2 n_2) / (n_1 + n_2)$$

$$Q = 1 - P$$

### **Analysis of variance**

Analysis of variance was used to study the variation among generations and impacts on social institutions.

### **OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS**

#### **Age**

It refers to the chronological age of the respondents in terms of completed years at the time of interview.

**Illiterate**

The person who can neither read nor write.

**Joint family**

It is a type of social grouping where parents and their married and unmarried children live under one roof, eat food cooked at one hearth, hold the property in common.

**Nuclear family**

Unit of family organisation, composed of a married couple and their off springs.

**Family size**

It includes the total number of the family members or persons living together, sharing a common kitchen and common purse.

**Total income**

It refers to the approximate annual gross income in terms of rupees from all family sources of the respondents. It includes the earning from all sources including main occupation and subsidiary occupation such as dairy, poultry, bee keeping etc.

**Size of operational holdings**

It refers to the number of acres cultivated by the respondents or operational area of land which includes land owned by them plus land leased in and mortgaged in minus land leased out and mortgaged out.

### **Higher caste**

All those castes which do not fall in any reserve category are named as high caste such as Rajput, Brahmin, Jat etc. (as per Manual of Punjab Govt. Instructions on Reservation For SC's and BC's).

### **Backward castes**

The castes like 'Lohar', 'Tarkhan', 'Ghumar', 'Nai' etc.

### **Occupation**

The term 'occupation' implies as specific activity with a market value which an individual continuously possesses for the purpose of obtaining a steady flow of income to earn a living.

### **Social status**

Social position of an individual with reference to other members of his society as determined by specific attributes, cluster of attributes or the generalized summation of all his attributes is called the status of the individual.

### **Socio-economic status**

It refers to the position of respondents in the society and was determined on the basis of some selected socio-economic variables such as education, occupation, size of land holding and income.

### **Social structure**

A social structure is a systematic arrangement of different parts of a society where small units or components are so united as to give

rise to a large discernible functional unit.

### **Social Mobility**

It is the movement of individuals or group from one social position to another and the circulation of cultural objects.

### **Occupation mobility**

It is the movement of individuals or groups from one occupation to another.

### **Intra-generational mobility**

A person changed from one job to another, shifted from one occupation to another during his or her life time.

### **Horizontal mobility**

Means the transition of an individual or social object from one social group to another situated on the same level.

### **Vertical mobility**

Means the relations involved in a transition of an individual or a social group from one social stratum to another.

### **Social difference**

It is the process by which individuals are assigned to membership in different social categories according to social norms.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is devoted to discuss the results obtained by analyzing the data collected from the field. The results of the study have been presented and discussed under the following headings.

- 5.1 Socio economic characteristics of respondents.
- 5.2 Socio economic and occupational mobility in generation-I and generation-II.
- 5.3 Factors affecting socio-economic mobility
- 5.4 Impact of socio-economic mobility on social institutions

### 5.1 SOCIO ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

As the heading implies this part of the chapter deals with socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The appraisal of socio-economic characteristics is very important to determine the socio-economic status of the individuals in the society. Accordingly, in the forthcoming tables, efforts have been made to spotlight the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in order to highlight the background of the sample under study, i.e. the generation-I and generation-II of the area under study.

#### 5.1.1 Age of the respondents

Table 5.1.1 shows the age of the respondents. Table revealed

Table 5.1.1 Age wise distribution of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I				G-II				Total
	Upto 60 yrs	60-70 yrs	Above 70 yrs	Total	Upto 35 yrs	35-45 yrs	Above 45 yrs	Total	
<b>Under developed</b>									
LL	10(50.00)	4(20.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	6(30.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	
M	8(40.00)	9(45.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	
S	3(15.00)	7(35.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	9(45.00)	4(20.00)	20(100.00)	
M	8(40.00)	6(30.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	9(45.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	
L	5(25.00)	11(55.00)	4(20.00)	20(100.00)	4(20.00)	5(25.00)	11(25.00)	20(100.00)	
Total	34(34.00)	37(37.00)	29(29.00)	100(100.00)	34(34.00)	36(36.00)	30(30.00)	100(100.00)	
<b>Developed</b>									
LL	9(45.00)	6(30.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	7(35.00)	6(36.00)	20(100.00)	
M	9(45.00)	8(40.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	8(40.00)	2(10.00)	20(100.00)	
S	5(25.00)	10(50.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	5(25.00)	7(35.00)	20(100.00)	
M	7(35.00)	11(55.00)	2(4.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	9(45.00)	4(20.00)	20(100.00)	
L	8(40.00)	7(35.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)	3(15.00)	11(55.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	
Total	38(38.00)	42(42.00)	20(20.00)	100(100.00)	35(35.00)	40(40.00)	25(25.00)	100(100.00)	
<b>Overall</b>									
LL	19(47.5)	10(25.00)	11(27.5)	40(100.00)	15(37.50)	13(32.50)	12(30.00)	40(100.00)	
M	17(42.5)	17(42.50)	6(15.00)	40(100.00)	20(50.00)	15(37.50)	5(12.50)	40(100.00)	
S	8(20.00)	17(42.50)	15(37.50)	40(100.00)	15(37.50)	14(35.00)	11(27.50)	40(100.00)	
M	15(37.50)	17(42.50)	8(20.00)	40(100.00)	12(30.00)	18(45.00)	10(25.00)	40(100.00)	
L	13(32.50)	18(45.00)	9(22.50)	40(100.00)	7(17.50)	16(40.00)	17(42.50)	40(100.00)	
Total	72(36.00)	79(39.50)	49(24.50)	200(100.00)	69(34.50)	76(38.00)	55(27.50)	200(100.00)	

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

that 37 per cent of the respondents in generation-I in under developed area and 42 per cent in developed area were from the age group of 60-70 years. As an overall figure, 39.50 per cent of the respondents in generation-I were from the same category. Category wise distribution showed that 20 per cent landless were between the age of 60-70 years, and 42.50 per cent marginal farmers, small and medium farmers were from the same category and 45.00 per cent of the large farmers were from the age of 60-70 years of age. Only 29 per cent in under developed areas and 20 per cent in developed area were above 70 years of age.

In generation-II in the underdeveloped area 36 per cent and 40 per cent in developed area were between 35-45 years of age. In the underdeveloped area among the landless labourers and marginal farmers category, about 40 per cent and 50 per cent respectively were in the age group of upto 35 years, while in the case of small and medium farmers 45 per cent of the respondents were in this age group. In the large size farmers category, 25 per cent were from the age group of 35-45 years. In the developed area among the landless labourers, 35 per cent of the respondents were from the age group of 30-45 years, whereas 50 per cent and 40 per cent of the respondents from marginal and small farmers categories were from the age group of upto 35 years respectively, while in the case of medium and large farmers about 45 per cent and 55 per cent respectively were in the age group of 35-45 years.

On an overall basis 34.50 per cent of the respondents were in the age group of upto 35 years where as in 35-45 years of age group, 38 per cent respondents and 27.50 per cent respondents in above the age of 45 years.

### 5.1.2 Caste

Caste is a very important aspect of the social structure as the Indian society is mainly stratified on the basis of caste. The castes which were not part of any reserved category, such as Rajput, Jat, Khatri, Arora, were put in the category of higher caste. The data on caste distribution of the respondents are shown in Table 5.1.2, which indicates that a majority of the landless labourers i.e. 85 per cent in the under developed area and 100 per cent in the developed area were from scheduled castes in generation one. Whereas 90 per cent and 85 per cent of the marginal farmers from generation one in the under developed and developed area respectively were from the higher castes. In case of the small farmers 95 per cent each in both the areas i.e. underdeveloped as well as developed were from higher caste categories whereas all the medium and large size farmers were from higher caste category.

Table further revealed that 80 per cent and 85 per cent respondents in the landless category were scheduled caste in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively. In the marginal size category, 80 per cent and 75 per cent were from higher caste in

Table 5.1.2 Caste wise distribution of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I				G-II			
	GC	BC	SC	Total	GC	BC	SC	Total
<b>Under developed</b>								
LL	-	3(15.00)	17(85.00)	20(100.00)	-	4(20.00)	16(80.00)	20(100.00)
M	18(90.00)	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)	16(80.00)	4(20.00)	-	20(100.00)
S	19(95.00)	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)	18(90.00)	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)
M	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)
L	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)
Total	77(77.00)	6(6.00)	17(17.00)	100(100.00)	74(74.00)	10(10.00)	16(16.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Developed</b>								
LL	-	-	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	-	3(15.00)	17(85.00)	20(100.00)
M	17(85.00)	3(15.00)	-	20(100.00)	15(75.00)	3(15.00)	2(10.00)	20(100.00)
S	19(95.00)	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)	17(85.00)	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)
M	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)	19(95.00)	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)
L	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	-	-	20(100.00)
Total	76(76.00)	4(4.00)	20(20.00)	100(100.00)	71(71.00)	9(9.00)	20(20.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Overall</b>								
LL	-	3(7.5)	37(92.5)	40(100.00)	-	7(17.50)	33(82.5)	40(100.00)
M	35(87.5)	5(12.5)	-	40(100.00)	31(77.50)	7(17.50)	2(5.00)	40(100.00)
S	38(95.00)	2(5.00)	-	40(100.00)	35(87.50)	4(10.00)	1(2.50)	40(100.00)
M	40(100.00)	-	-	40(100.00)	39(97.05)	1(2.50)	-	40(100.00)
L	40(100.00)	-	-	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	-	-	40(100.00)
Total	153(76.5)	10(5.00)	37(18.5)	200(100.00)	145(72.5)	19(9.50)	36(18.00)	200(100.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

underdeveloped and developed area respectively. The percentages of high caste small farmers were 90 and 85 per cent in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively. In the medium size category all the respondents in under developed area and 95 per cent in the developed area belonged to higher caste. All the large farmers were from high caste category.

### **5.1.3 Education**

The literacy level determines the outlook, attitudes, values of a person. Table 5.1.3 shows the education level of the respondents. It reflects that education level among the respondents had been quite low in generation I. Data indicate that among the landless category about 90 per cent and 75 per cent of the respondents in generation-I in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively were illiterate. Whereas among the marginal and small size farm categories, 75 per cent were illiterate in the underdeveloped area, whereas in the developed area 60 per cent marginal and 65 per cent small farmers were illiterate. In the medium size farm category 65 per cent and 50 per cent respondents in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively were illiterate. In generation one in the under developed area half of the large farmers were illiterate whereas 40 per cent were illiterate in the developed area.

Data further indicated that 75 per cent of the landless labourers in generation-II in the under developed area were illiterate but in

Table 5.1.3 Educational qualifications of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I				G-II			
	Illiterate	Upto matric	Above matric	Total	Illiterate	Upto matric	Above matric	Total
<b>Under developed</b>								
LL	18(90.00)	2(10.0)	-	20(100.00)	15(75.00)	5(25.00)	-	20(100.00)
M	15(75.00)	4(20.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	1(5.00)	14(70.00)	20(100.00)
S	15(75.00)	5(25.00)	-	20(100.00)	3(15.00)	3(15.00)	14(70.00)	20(100.00)
M	13(65.00)	6(30.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)	2(10.00)	6(30.00)	12(60.00)	20(100.00)
L	10(50.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	2(10.00)	6(30.00)	12(60.00)	20(100.00)
Total	71(71.00)	24(24.00)	5(25.00)	100(100.00)	27(27.00)	22(22.00)	51(51.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Developed</b>								
LL	15(75.00)	4(20.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)	4(20.00)	12(60.00)	4(20.00)	20(100.00)
M	12(60.00)	6(30.00)	2(10.00)	20(100.00)	-	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)
S	13(65.00)	5(25.00)	2(10.00)	20(100.00)	-	9(45.00)	11(55.00)	20(100.00)
M	10(50.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	-	7(35.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)
L	8(40.00)	7(35.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)	-	5(25.00)	15(75.00)	20(100.00)
Total	58(58.00)	29(29.00)	13(65.00)	100(100.00)	4(20.00)	53(53.00)	43(43.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Overall</b>								
LL	33(82.5)	6(15.00)	1(2.5)	40(100.00)	19(47.50)	17(42.50)	4(10.00)	40(100.00)
M	27(67.50)	10(25.00)	3(7.5)	40(100.00)	5(12.50)	21(27.50)	24(60.00)	40(100.00)
S	28(70.00)	10(25.00)	2(5.00)	40(100.00)	3(7.50)	12(30.00)	25(62.50)	40(100.00)
M	23(57.50)	13(32.50)	4(10.00)	40(100.00)	2(5.00)	13(32.50)	25(62.50)	40(100.00)
L	18(45.00)	14(35.00)	8(20.00)	40(100.00)	2(5.00)	11(27.50)	27(67.50)	40(100.00)
Total	129(64.5)	53(26.5)	18(9.00)	200(100.00)	31(15.50)	64(32.00)	105(52.50)	200(100.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

the developed area less than one fourth of such respondents (20%) were illiterate. Seventy per cent each of marginal and small farmers were educated upto matric while 60 per cent each of medium and large farmers in the underdeveloped area were educated upto matric level. In the developed area more than half of the respondents (60%) were educated upto matric level in the landless category whereas among the marginal and small size categories, 50 per cent and 55 per cent of the respondents respectively were educated above matric level. Sixty five per cent of the medium and 75 per cent of the large size farmers category in generation two in the developed area were educated above matric level. Table further indicated that in developed area in generation two not even a single respondent in the higher land owning categories was illiterate.

On minutely watching the table, it comes out that the number of educated respondents in both the generations and areas was increasing in the case of higher categories. In generation-I the lesser the educational level, higher the number of respondents and vice versa, but in generation-II in the developed area the higher the educational level higher the number of respondents.

#### **5.1.4 Occupational structure**

It is indicative from the Table 5.1.4 that a majority of the respondents (71%) in generation one was engaged in farming. All the respondents in underdeveloped area in marginal and large size of holdings

Table 5.1.4 Occupation of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I					G-II				
	Farming	Business	Govt/ private service	Labour	Total	Farming	Business	Govt/ private service	Labour	Total
<b>Under developed</b>										
LL	-	-	3(15.00)	17(85.00)	20(100.00)	-	4(20.00)	9(35.00)	7(45.00)	20(100.00)
M	20(100.00)	-	-	-	20(100.00)	11(55.00)	4(20.00)	4(20.00)	1(10.00)	20(100.00)
S	18(90.00)	-	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)	12(60.00)	5(25.00)	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)
M	19(95.00)	-	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	5(25.00)	5(25.00)	-	20(100.00)
L	20(100.00)	-	-	-	20(100.00)	13(65.00)	3(15.00)	4(20.00)	-	20(100.00)
Total	77(77.00)	-	6(6.00)	17(17.00)	100(100.00)	46(46.00)	21(21.00)	24(24.00)	9(9.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Developed</b>										
LL	-	2(10.00)	5(25.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)	-	2(10.00)	12(60.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)
M	17(85.00)	-	3(15.00)	-	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	9(45.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)
S	17(85.00)	1(5.00)	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	3(15.00)	9(45.00)	-	20(100.00)
M	16(80.00)	1(5.00)	3(15.00)	-	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	4(20.00)	9(45.00)	-	20(100.00)
L	15(75.00)	2(10.00)	3(15.00)	-	20(100.00)	9(45.00)	5(25.00)	6(30.00)	-	20(100.00)
Total	65(65.00)	6(6.00)	16(16.00)	13(13.00)	100(100.00)	31(31.00)	17(17.00)	45(45.00)	7(7.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Overall</b>										
LL	-	2(5.00)	8(20.00)	30(75.00)	40(100.00)	-	6(15.00)	21(52.5)	13(32.50)	40(100.00)
M	37(92.5)	-	3(7.50)	-	40(100.00)	18(45.00)	7(17.50)	13(32.50)	2(5.00)	40(100.00)
S	35(87.5)	1(2.5)	4(10.00)	-	40(100.00)	20(50.00)	8(20.00)	11(27.50)	1(2.50)	40(100.00)
M	35(87.5)	1(2.5)	4(10.00)	-	40(100.00)	17(42.50)	9(22.50)	14(35.00)	-	40(100.00)
L	35(87.5)	2(5.00)	3(7.50)	-	40(100.00)	22(55.00)	8(20.00)	10(25.00)	-	40(100.00)
Total	142(71.00)	6(3.00)	22(11.00)	30(15.00)	200(100.00)	77(38.50)	38(19.00)	69(34.50)	16(8.00)	200(100.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

were engaged in farming where as 95 per cent medium and 90 per cent of small farm size category respondents were engaged in farming. While the majority of the landless (85%) were working as agricultural labourers. In the developed area 65 per cent landless were working as agricultural labourers and 25 per cent were in govt./private jobs like school teachers, army, CRPF etc. Where as 85 per cent of the marginal and small farmers were engaged in farming. Among the medium and large size farm categories, about 80 per cent and 75 per cent were engaged in farming, 15 per cent of them were working in govt./private jobs and 10 per cent large farmers were engaged in business like commission agents, running schools, factory owner etc.

Table 5.1.4 further reflects that out of the total sample in underdeveloped area of generation II, majority (46%) of the respondents were engaged in farming and 45 per cent of the landless were working as agricultural labourers. Among the marginal and small farmers 55 per cent and 60 per cent respectively were engaged in farming and those of the medium and large farmers 50 per cent and 65 per cent were engaged in farming. In the business 25 per cent in medium and small farmers and 15 per cent of large farm size category were engaged. 35 per cent of landless were in govt./private jobs. Among the medium and large farmers 25 per cent and 20 per cent respectively were inn govt./private jobs. In the developed area only 30 per cent of landless were working as agricultural

labourers where as 60 per cent of them were in govt./private jobs. In the marginal and medium farmers categories, 35 per cent were engaged in farming and 45 per cent in govt./private jobs. Among the small farmers, 40 per cent were in farming and 45 per cent were in govt./private jobs where as 45 per cent of the large farmers were engaged in farming and 30 per cent were in jobs as govt./private employees.

On minutely analysing the table, it comes out that in generation-I majority of the respondents were engaged in their caste based occupations but in generation-II the respondents have changed their caste based occupations and had adopted non traditional occupations. This percentage was quite high in the developed area than in the under developed are.

#### **5.1.5 Landholdings**

Data pertaining to the landholdings of the respondents is presented in Table 5.1.5. The data indicate that in generation-I the average operational holding of the marginal farmers was 1.40 hac, whereas that of small farmers was 2.44 hac. The average land of the medium and large farmers was 6.50 hac. and 12.45 hac. respectively. In the developed area the average size of holdings (owned) was smaller than underdeveloped area. In the developed area average size of land holdings (operational) of marginal, small, medium and large farmers was 1.46, 2.10, 6.65, 10.36 hectares respectively.

Table 5.1.5 Average size of owned and operational holdings of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size categories	G-I		G-II		t-value
	Owned land (hac)	Operational land (hac)	Owned land (hac)	Operational land (hac)	
<b>Under developed</b>					
M	0.96	1.40	0.67	0.65	2.67**
S	1.98	2.44	1.56	1.20	3.26**
M	6.8	6.50	3.60	4.12	2.98**
L	13.00	12.45	10.36	11.36	1.16 <sup>NS</sup>
Average	5.68	5.70	4.04	4.33	1.97**
<b>Developed</b>					
M	0.85	1.46	0.4	0.1	3.69**
S	1.80	2.10	1.05	0.53	4.84***
M	6.50	6.65	3.01	4.03	2.76**
L	10.75	10.36	7.00	8.85	2.95**
Average	4.69	5.14	2.86	3.38	2.07**
<b>Overall</b>					
M	0.90	1.43	0.54	0.38	2.08*
S	1.89	2.27	1.30	0.87	2.05*
M	6.65	6.57	3.30	4.07	2.26**
L	11.87	11.40	8.68	10.10	2.10*
Average	5.33	5.42	3.45	3.86	2.41**

NS - Non significant

\* Significant at 1% level

\*\* Significant at 5% level

\*\*\* Significant at 10% level

In the generation-II the average size of holding in the underdeveloped area was 4.33 hac against 3.38 ha in the developed area. In under developed area 0.65 hec. was the average size of operational holdings in marginal farmers and 1.20 hec for small farmers. Whereas the average size of land holding of medium and large farmers was quite high, and it was 4.12 hac. and 11.36 hac. respectively. In the developed area in generation-II the average size of operational holdings for marginal, small, medium and large farmers was 0.1, 0.53, 4.03 and 8.85 hac. respectively.

The results of the table depict that the average size of land holdings was decreasing day by day. In generation-I the average size of operational holding was 5.70 hac. and 5.14 hac. in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively, whereas in generation-II this was 4.33 and 3.38 hac. respectively.

The results also indicated that in generation-I the medium and large farmers leased out their land and the marginal and small farmers leased in the land but in generation-II the large and medium farmers leased in the land whereas the marginal and small farmers leased out their land. The reason may be uneconomic holdings, lack of machinery (resources) available for farming and change in traditional occupation. But the medium and large farmers had the resources for farming so they leased in the land and used their resources quite economically.

The statistical analysis showed that there was significant

change in the operational size of holdings of marginal, small and medium farmers in the underdeveloped area in generation-I and II, but there was not a significant change in the operational holdings of large farmers. This may be because they leased in the land of others. In the developed area t-value indicated that there was a significant change in the average size of operational holdings in generation-I & II in all the categories. The results of the study were supported by the study conducted by Gill (2004) i.e. medium and large farmers leased in land and marginal and small farmers had leased out their land.

#### **5.1.6 Family type**

Table 5.1.6 reflects the family type of the respondents. Out of the total landless respondents in the underdeveloped and developed areas, a majority (85% and 80% respectively) belonged to joint family in generation I. While 65 per cent and 55 per cent of the marginal farm size category in underdeveloped and developed area respectively were from the joint family system. In the small size categories in both the areas 60 per cent and 50 per cent respectively were living in joint families. In the medium and large size categories 70 per cent and 75 per cent respectively were living in joint family system in the under developed area, whereas in the developed area the percentage of such medium and large farm size category was 60 and 65 per cent respectively.

Table 5.1.6 Family type of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I			G-II		
	Joint	Nuclear	Total	Joint	Nuclear	Total
<b>Under developed</b>						
LL	17(85.00)	3(15.00)	20(100.00)	9(45.00)	11(55.00)	20(100.00)
M	13(65.00)	7(35.00)	20(100.00)	6(30.00)	14(70.00)	20(100.00)
S	12(60.00)	8(40.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	15(75.00)	20(100.00)
M	14(70.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)
L	15(75.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)	15(75.00)	5(25.00)	20(100.00)
Total	71(71.00)	29(29.00)	100(100.00)	45(45.00)	55(55.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Developed</b>						
LL	16(80.00)	4(20.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)
M	11(55.00)	9(45.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	15(75.00)	20(100.00)
S	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	15(75.00)	20(100.00)
M	12(60.00)	8(40.00)	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	12(60.00)	20(100.00)
L	13(65.00)	7(35.00)	20(100.00)	12(60.00)	8(40.00)	20(100.00)
Total	62(62.00)	33(33.00)	100(100.00)	37(37.00)	63(63.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Overall</b>						
LL	33(82.5)	7(17.50)	40(100.00)	16(40.00)	24(60.00)	40(100.00)
M	24(60.00)	16(40.00)	40(100.00)	11(27.50)	29(72.50)	40(100.00)
S	22(55.00)	18(45.00)	40(100.00)	10(25.00)	30(75.00)	40(100.00)
M	26(65.00)	14(35.00)	40(100.00)	18(45.00)	22(55.00)	40(100.00)
L	28(70.00)	12(30.00)	40(100.00)	27(67.50)	13(32.50)	40(100.00)
Total	133(66.50)	67(33.50)	200(100.00)	82(41.00)	118(59.00)	200(100.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

Data further revealed that in generation II, 55 per cent and 65 per cent of the respondents of landless category were living in nuclear families in both the underdeveloped and developed areas respectively while in the case of marginal farm size category in the underdeveloped and developed areas 70 per cent and 75 per cent respectively belonged to the nuclear family. A majority (75 per cent) of the small farm size category in both the areas were having nuclear family. In the medium farm size category in the underdeveloped and developed areas, 50 per cent and 60 per cent respectively were living in nuclear family. But majority of the respondents in the large farm size category in both the underdeveloped and developed area were living in the joint family system. The figures being 75 per cent and 60 per cent respectively.

The results in the table indicated that the tendency of living in the nuclear family has been increasing in rural areas too and this may be due to the effect of various factors such as education, media exposure, spatial mobility, change in life style etc.

Category-wise statistics revealed that in the marginal and small size farm category the percent of nuclear families was the highest followed by the landless and medium sized farm category. Only in the large size farm category the such percentage was the lowest.

#### **5.1.7 Family size**

The average family size of all the rural households of different categories i.e. landless, marginal, small, medium and large farm categories,

selected under this study are presented in the Table 5.1.7. The average family size of landless agricultural labourers was worked out to be 8.1 members in generation I. The family size increased with increase in farm size. For instance, the average family size of marginal and small farm households was worked out as 6.8 and 6.9 members respectively. Those of medium farm households was 7.85 members and those of large households 9.85 members in generation one in under developed area. In the developed area in generation-I the average family size for landless was 8.0 members. The average family size of marginal and small farm size households was worked out as 6.95 and 7.15 members respectively, and those of medium and large households as 7.50 and 8.50 members, respectively.

Data further showed that in the second generation also the average family size increased with increase in farm size. The average family size for landless was worked out as 7.4 and 7.2 members in the underdeveloped and developed area respectively. While in case of marginal and small farm households in the underdeveloped area it was 6.35 and 6.95 respectively, whereas for medium and large farm households it was 7.45 and 9.00 members respectively in the under developed area. In the developed area the average family size of marginal and small farm households was worked out as 5.70 and 6.30 respectively while in the case of the medium and large farm households the average family size was 6.75 and 7.60 members, respectively.

Table 5.1.7 Family size of sample households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Category of households	G-I						G-II					
	No. of persons			Average family size	No. of persons			Average family size				
	Adult		Children		Adult		Children					
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
<b>Under developed</b>												
LL	2.05(25.31)	1.75(21.60)	2.40(29.63)	1.90(23.46)	8.1(100.00)	2.25(30.4)	2.05(27.70)	1.6(21.62)	1.5(20.28)	7.4(100.00)		
M	1.20(17.65)	1.0(14.71)	2.75(40.44)	1.85(27.20)	6.80(100.00)	1.30(20.48)	1.10(17.32)	2.05(32.28)	1.9(29.92)	6.35(100.00)		
S	1.20(15.29)	1.15(14.65)	3.20(40.76)	2.30(29.30)	7.85(100.00)	1.20(17.26)	1.25(17.99)	2.45(35.25)	2.05(29.50)	6.95(100.00)		
M	1.25(18.12)	1.15(16.67)	2.60(37.67)	1.90(27.54)	6.90(100.00)	2.45(32.89)	2.20(29.53)	1.4(18.79)	1.4(18.79)	7.45(100.00)		
L	3.00(30.46)	2.05(29.95)	2.30(23.35)	1.60(16.25)	9.85(100.00)	3.00(33.33)	3.10(34.44)	1.7(18.90)	1.20(13.33)	9.00(100.00)		
Average	1.74(22.03)	1.6(20.25)	2.65(33.54)	1.91(24.18)	7.90(100.00)	2.04(27.46)	1.94(26.11)	1.84(24.76)	1.61(21.67)	7.43(100.00)		
<b>Developed</b>												
LL	1.95(24.37)	1.85(23.13)	2.30(28.75)	1.90(23.75)	8.00(100.00)	1.95(27.09)	1.90(26.39)	1.85(25.69)	1.50(20.83)	7.20(100.00)		
M	1.85(26.62)	1.15(16.55)	2.50(35.97)	1.45(20.86)	6.95(100.00)	1.20(19.04)	1.15(18.25)	2.05(32.54)	1.90(30.17)	5.70(100.00)		
S	1.90(24.84)	1.20(22.22)	2.10(27.45)	1.95(25.49)	20(100.00)	1.10(18.49)	1.10(18.49)	2.00(37.81)	1.50(25.21)	6.30(100.00)		
M	2.00(26.67)	1.80(24.00)	2.00(26.67)	1.70(22.66)	7.50(100.00)	2.25(33.33)	2.00(29.64)	1.60(23.70)	0.90(13.33)	6.75(100.00)		
L	3.00(35.30)	2.05(24.11)	2.00(23.53)	1.45(17.06)	8.50(100.00)	2.35(30.92)	2.20(28.95)	1.55(20.39)	1.50(19.74)	7.60(100.00)		
Average	2.14(27.72)	1.71(22.15)	2.18(28.24)	1.69(21.89)	7.72(100.00)	1.77(26.38)	1.67(24.89)	1.81(26.98)	1.46(21.76)	6.71(100.00)		
<b>Overall</b>												
LL	2.00(24.85)	1.8(22.36)	2.35(29.19)	1.90(23.60)	8.05(100.00)	2.10(28.76)	1.98(27.09)	1.73(23.67)	1.50(20.52)	7.30(100.00)		
M	1.52(20.54)	1.15(15.54)	2.85(38.51)	1.88(25.41)	7.40(100.00)	1.25(19.78)	1.12(17.72)	2.05(32.44)	1.90(30.06)	6.32(100.00)		
S	1.55(21.44)	1.35(18.67)	2.43(33.61)	1.90(26.28)	7.23(100.00)	1.15(18.17)	1.18(18.64)	2.22(35.07)	1.78(28.12)	6.33(100.00)		
M	1.63(22.61)	1.48(20.53)	2.30(31.90)	1.80(24.96)	6.21(100.00)	2.35(33.10)	2.10(29.58)	1.50(21.13)	1.15(16.20)	7.10(100.00)		
L	3.00(32.72)	2.5(27.26)	2.15(23.45)	1.52(16.57)	9.17(100.00)	2.68(32.25)	2.65(31.89)	1.63(19.61)	1.35(16.25)	8.31(100.00)		
Average	1.94(24.81)	1.66(21.23)	2.42(30.95)	1.8(23.01)	7.82(100.00)	1.90(26.87)	1.80(25.47)	1.83(25.88)	1.54(21.78)	7.07(100.00)		

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

Table 5.1.8 Farm family size per holding and per hectare in the two generations

In generation-I the adult-child ratio (2.67:4.73) was lower among the marginal farm size households and higher in other categories, indicating proportionately more number of children in the case of marginal farm households in relation to other categories. The adult-child ratio (2.33:4.00) was lower among small farm households and higher in other categories in generation-II also. In both the generations the male-female ratio with respect to both adults as well as children was almost equal (with marginal differences in some cases) in all the household categories. However, in general, the male ratio was higher to female ratio in both generations and in all the category of the respondent households.

#### 5.1.8 Land-man ratio

Land-man ratio was calculated and presented in Table 5.1.8. Data in the table depicts that the average land-man ratio in generation-I in the underdeveloped and developed areas was 1.38 and 1.50 respectively. On minutely observing the table, it was clear that in the case of marginal farmers, the land-man ratio was 5.61. In case of small and medium farmers, this ratio was 2.79 and 1.06 respectively and for the large farmers it was calculated as 0.79. In the developed area in generation-I this ratio in the case of marginal farmers was 4.76. Whereas among small and medium farmers it was worked out as 3.64 and 1.12 respectively and those of the large farmers as 0.82. In generation-II the land-man ratio was 1.71 and 2.00 in the underdeveloped and developed areas respectively. On an average this ratio was 1.44 in generation-I and 1.84 in generation II.

**Table 5.1.8 Farm family size per holding and per hectare in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Farm Size	G-I			G-II		
	Family member per households	Average farm size	Family member per hectares	Family member per households	Average farm size	Family member per hectares
<b>Under developed</b>						
M	7.85	1.40	5.61	6.35	0.65	9.77
S	6.80	2.44	2.79	6.95	1.20	5.79
M	6.90	6.50	1.06	7.45	4.12	1.80
L	9.85	12.45	0.79	9.00	11.36	0.79
Total	7.90	5.70	1.38	7.43	4.33	1.71
<b>Developed</b>						
M	6.95	1.46	4.76	6.30	0.1	63
S	7.65	2.10	3.64	5.75	0.53	10.84
M	7.50	6.65	1.12	6.75	4.03	1.67
L	8.50	10.36	0.82	7.60	8.85	0.86
Total	7.72	5.14	1.50	7.60	3.38	2.00
<b>Overall</b>						
M	7.40	1.43	5.17	6.32	0.38	17.55
S	7.23	2.27	3.18	6.33	0.87	7.28
M	6.21	6.57	0.94	7.10	4.07	1.74
L	9.17	11.40	0.80	8.31	10.10	0.82
Total	7.82	5.42	1.44	7.07	3.86	1.84

Table also indicate that ingeneration-II the land-man ratio was 9.77, 5.79, 1.80 and 0.79 in case of marginal, small, medium and large farmers respectively in the underdeveloped area whereas in the developed area the land-man ratio for marginal and small farmers was 63 and 10.84 respectively while it was 1.67 and 0.86 respectively for the medium and large farmers.

### **5.1.9 Dependency ratio**

The dependency ratio was calculated by dividing the total number of members in a family by the total number of earners in that family. It is evident from the Table 5.1.9 that on the whole, dependency ratio was higher in generation-I (2.75) than in generation II, where it was 2.29. The dependency ratio was highest in marginal farmers in underdeveloped area (3.11) in generation I, whereas the lowest was among the large farmers i.e. 2.37. In the developed area the dependency ratio was the highest among the landless, where it was 2.90 and the lowest was among the medium farmers (2.54) followed by large farmers (2.57). On the whole, the data indicated that dependency ratio was the highest among the landless (3.00) in generation I.

In the generation-II of under developed area the dependency ratio was the highest among the landless i.e. 2.85 and the lowest among the large farmers i.e. 2.19 (Table 5.1.9) while in the developed area dependency ratio was the highest (2.29) among the marginal farm size

Table 5.1.9 Total earners and dependency ratio in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Farm size category	G-I			G-II		
	Total family members	Total earners	Dependency ratio	Total family members	Total earners	Dependency ratio
<b>Under developed</b>						
LL	162	52	3.11	148	52	2.85
M	157	48	3.27	127	48	2.65
S	136	45	3.02	139	50	2.78
M	138	50	2.76	149	56	2.61
L	197	83	2.37	180	82	2.19
Total	790	278	2.84	743	288	2.58
<b>Developed</b>						
LL	160	55	2.90	144	67	2.15
M	139	52	2.67	126	55	2.29
S	153	57	2.68	115	57	2.01
M	150	59	2.54	135	68	1.98
L	170	66	2.57	152	82	1.85
Total	772	289	2.67	672	329	2.04
<b>Overall</b>						
LL	322	107	3.00	292	119	2.46
M	296	100	2.96	253	103	2.45
S	289	102	2.83	254	107	2.37
M	288	109	2.64	284	124	2.29
L	367	149	2.46	332	164	2.02
Total	1562	567	2.75	1415	617	2.29

category followed by landless agricultural labourers (2.15). It was the lowest among the large farm size category, where it was only 1.85.

On the whole, the statistics revealed that dependency ratio was the highest among the landless agricultural labourers and the lowest among the large farm size category in both the generations. It is evident from the results of Table 5.1.9 that with increase in size of farm the dependency ratio decreases.

#### 5.1.10 Credit

During the data collection, efforts were made to know about the sources of loans taken by the respondents with the purpose of assessing if there is any change in the credit lending system or not in generation-I and II. Data in this regard are presented in Table 5.1.10 which indicate that in case of generation-I most of the respondents were taking loans from the money lenders i.e. 'Arhtiyas' and only a very few respondents were taking loans from the cooperative banks i.e. institutional sources of credit. There was an increase in the amount of credit taken with the increase in farm size in both the study area.

In generation II, a majority (67.00%) and (72.50%) of the marginal, small, medium and large size farm categories were taking loans from cooperatives. But half of the landless agricultural labourer were still taking loan/credit from the money-lenders. The table also indicated that marginal, small, medium and large farm size categories were also taking

Table 5.1.10 Credit behaviour of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I					G-II				
	Money lenders	Friends and relatives	Cooperative banks	Commercial banks	Total	Money lenders	Friends and relatives	Cooperative banks	Commercial banks	Total
<b>Under developed</b>										
LL	-	8(40.00)	-	-	8(8.00)	9(45.00)	7(35.00)	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	19(19.00)
M	14(70.00)	5(25.00)	-	-	19(19.00)	19(60.00)	4(20.00)	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	43(41.00)
S	15(75.00)	7(35.00)	-	-	22(22.00)	17(75.00)	2(5.00)	10(50.00)	11(55.00)	40(42.00)
M	17(85.00)	5(25.00)	3(15.00)	1(5.00)	26(26.00)	15(65.00)	2(10.00)	12(60.00)	8(40.00)	37(38.00)
L	19(95.00)	2(10.00)	2(25.00)	3(15.00)	26(26.00)	11(55.00)	-	20(80.00)	9(45.00)	35(35.00)
<b>Developed</b>										
LL	2(10.00)	9(45.00)	-	-	11(11.00)	10(50.00)	5(25.00)	4(20.00)	2(10.00)	21(21.00)
M	14(70.00)	3(15.00)	1(5.00)	-	18(18.00)	11(55.00)	1(5.00)	16(80.00)	10(50.00)	38(38.00)
S	14(70.00)	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	-	17(17.00)	12(60.00)	-	17(85.00)	11(55.00)	40(40.00)
M	18(90.00)	1(5.00)	2(10.00)	2(10.00)	23(23.00)	11(55.00)	-	15(75.00)	10(50.00)	36(36.00)
L	19(75.00)	9(22.50)	1(2.50)	3(15.00)	26(26.00)	10(50.00)	-	14(70.00)	8(40.00)	32(32.00)
<b>Overall</b>										
LL	2(5.00)	17(42.50)	-	-	19(9.50)	19(47.50)	12(30.00)	6(15.00)	3(7.50)	40(20.00)
M	28(70.00)	8(20.00)	1(2.50)	-	37(18.5)	30(75.00)	5(12.50)	26(65.00)	20(50.00)	81(39.50)
S	29(72.50)	9(2.50)	1(2.50)	-	39(19.50)	29(67.50)	2(5.00)	27(67.50)	22(55.00)	81(41.00)
M	35(87.50)	6(15.00)	5(12.50)	3(7.50)	49(24.50)	26(60.00)	2(5.00)	27(67.50)	18(45.00)	71(36.00)
L	38(95.00)	2(5.00)	6(15.00)	6(15.00)	52(26.00)	20(50.00)	-	34(75.00)	17(42.50)	71(34.50)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

loans from the money-lenders but their per cent is less than the people taking loans from the cooperative banks. In the underdeveloped area, a majority of the respondents was still taking credit from the money lenders where as 65 per cent were taking loans from the cooperative banks. But in the developed area about half of the respondents were taking loans from the money lenders and 77 per cent were taking loans from the cooperative banks because of low rate of interest. In generation-II there was a decrease in the amount of credit taken with increase in the farm size on per unit basis e.g. large and medium farmers were taking less loans as compared to marginal and small farmers.

On minutely observing the table, it was noticed that there was a considerable variability as regard to the sources of credit/loan. There was a preponderance of taking loans either from the cooperative banks or the private money lenders. The data indicated that the farmers were not restricted to one source of borrowing only. They took loans from the institutional as well as non-institutional sources both as they wanted to get loans by any means. During the data collection, the respondents in the underdeveloped area informed the investigator that getting loans from non-institutional sources was quite easy without any involvement of paper work. Therefore the traditional money lenders were still providing a major share of farm credit to the people in the underdeveloped area. Some people gave more importance to their social status than their economic capacity

due to which they borrowed money. Purchase of household goods, construction of big house and spending on socio-religious ceremonies like marriage were the main reasons to borrow money in the generation-II as compared to generation I.

Shergill (1997) has also supported this investigation in his study i.e. more than half of the credit is availed from the non-institutional agencies like 'Arhtiyas' or money lenders in the rural areas of Punjab.

#### **5.1.11 Farm power and machinery**

The data given in Table 5.1.11 depict the information regarding the farm power and machinery owned by the respondents. The information given in the table revealed that in generation-I of under developed area 26.25 per cent of the respondents owned oil engines, 36.25 wheat threshers and only 10 per cent were having electric motors. Category-wise, large farmers were having more machinery than other categories. Marginal, small and medium farm size categories were having only oil engines and wheat threshers. But in the case of large farmers they were having tractors (15%), oil engines and wheat threshers (40%). In the developed area also large farmers were having more machinery than other categories. Among the marginal, small, and medium farm size categories 35 per cent and 45 per cent were having oil engine respectively, whereas 15 per cent, 10 per cent and 20 per cent and 35 per cent respectively were having electric motors only. A few also owned tractors. In the case of

large farmers in generation one, 40 per cent were having oil engines, 25 per cent electric motor, 8.75 per cent tractors and 43.75 per cent were having wheat threshers. There was only one combine harvester in generation I.

The results of the table further reflected that in generation II, all the respondents were having electric motors in both the study areas. In the underdeveloped area, in case of marginal farmers 60 per cent were having tractors, 40 per cent trollies and oil engines and 35 per cent were having wheat threshers. In case of small farmers, 90 per cent were having tractors and oil engine was owned by 35 per cent and wheat threshers 20 per cent. All the medium and large farmers in the underdeveloped and developed areas were having tractor trollies. In case of medium farmers of underdeveloped area 60 per cent were having wheat threshers, 30 per cent reapers and only 5 per cent combine harvesters. Among the large farmers, the wheat threshers, reapers and combine harvesters were possessed by 65 per cent, 60 per cent and 15 per cent respondents respectively. In the developed area among the marginal farmers 85 per cent were having tractors, 60 per cent trollies and 50 per cent wheat thresher and 5 per cent having reapers. In case of small farmers 90 per cent were having tractors, trolley (65%), wheat thresher (60%) and reaper (20%). Among the medium and large farmers 40 per cent and 50 per cent were having wheat thresher respectively whereas reaper (50% and 80%) respectively and 10 per cent and 30 per cent having combine harvester respectively.

**Table 5.1.11 Farm-power and machinery and equipments possessed by selected households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Particulars	G-I					G-II					Total	
	M	S	M	L	Total	M	S	M	L	Total		
	(Multiple response)											
<b>Under developed</b>												
Oil Engine	4(20.00)	4(20.00)	5(25.00)	8(40.00)	21(26.25)	8(40.00)	7(35.00)	5(35.00)	3(15.00)	23(28.75)		
Elect. Motor	-	-	3(15.00)	5(25.00)	8(10.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	80(100.00)		
Tractor	-	-	-	3(15.00)	3(3.75)	12(60.00)	18(90.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	70(87.50)		
Trolley	-	-	-	1(5.00)	1(1.25)	8(40.00)	12(60.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	60(75.00)		
Wheat	8(40.00)	5(25.00)	8(40.00)	8(40.00)	29(36.25)	7(35.00)	4(20.00)	12(60.00)	13(65.00)	36(45.00)		
Thresher	-	-	-	-	-	-	3(15.00)	6(30.00)	12(60.00)	21(26.25)		
Reaper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1(5.00)	3(15.00)	4(5.00)		
Combine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Harvester	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
<b>Developed</b>												
Oil Engine	7(35.00)	7(35.00)	9(45.00)	9(45.00)	32(40.00)	5(25.00)	9(45.00)	6(30.00)	8(40.00)	28(35.00)		
Elect. Motor	3(15.00)	2(10.00)	4(20.00)	7(35.00)	16(20.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	80(100.00)		
Tractor	1(5.00)	1(5.00)	2(10.00)	3(15.00)	7(8.75)	17(85.00)	18(90.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	75(93.75)		
Trolley	-	-	-	1(5.00)	1(1.25)	12(60.00)	15(65.00)	20(100.00)	20(100.00)	67(83.75)		
Wheat	9(45.00)	8(40.00)	8(40.00)	10(50.00)	35(43.75)	10(50.00)	12(60.00)	8(40.00)	10(50.00)	40(50.00)		
Thresher	-	-	-	-	-	-	4(20.00)	10(50.00)	16(80.00)	31(38.75)		
Reaper	-	-	-	-	-	1(5.00)	-	2(10.00)	6(30.00)	8(10.00)		
Combine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Harvester	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
<b>Overall</b>												
Oil Engine	11(27.50)	11(27.50)	14(35.00)	17(42.50)	53(33.13)	13(32.50)	16(40.00)	11(27.50)	11(27.50)	51(31.88)		
Elect. Motor	3(7.50)	2(5.00)	7(17.50)	12(30.00)	24(15.00)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	160(100.00)		
Tractor	1(2.50)	1(2.50)	2(5.00)	6(15.00)	10(6.25)	29(72.50)	36(90.00)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	145(90.63)		
Trolley	-	-	-	2(5.00)	2(1.25)	20(50.00)	27(67.50)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	127(79.38)		
Wheat	17(42.50)	13(32.50)	16(40.00)	18(45.00)	64(40.00)	17(42.50)	16(40.00)	20(50.00)	23(57.50)	76(47.50)		
Thresher	-	-	-	-	-	-	7(17.50)	16(40.00)	28(70.00)	52(32.50)		
Reaper	-	-	-	-	-	1(2.50)	-	3(7.50)	9(22.50)	12(7.50)		
Combine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
harvester	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

On the whole the data showed that there was a drastic change in the ownership pattern of farm power and machinery in generation II, and mechanisation also increased with increase in farm size. Agriculture has become more mechanized in generation-II than generation I. During the field work it was found that people purchased machinery not only as per their requirement but also because out of their of social factors. It was surprising to note that even the find marginal farmers possessing less than one hectare of land had owned costly machinery like tractor, trolley etc.

#### **5.1.12 Ownership of domestic/household items**

The distribution of respondents according to their ownership of material possessions has been depicted in Table 5.1.12. It was observed during the course of data collection that even those respondents who were having less income preferred to have certain material possessions like scooter, TV, refrigerator, mobile phones etc. In generation-I in the under developed area 40.00, 50.00, 50.00, 50.00 and 60 per cent of the landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers, respectively had television sets. Only 10 and 20 per cent medium and large farmers had scooters. In the developed area 40 per cent, 60, 50, 60 and 70 per cent of the landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers had television sets whereas only 20 and 45 per cent of medium and large farmers respectively had owned scooters and only 5 per cent landless and 15 per cent large farmers possessed refrigerators in generation I.

**Table 5.1.12 Domestic household items possessed by selected households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Particular	G-I						G-II					
	LL	M	S	M	L	Total	LL	M	S	M	L	Total
<b>Under developed</b>												
LPG	-	-	-	-	-	-	3(15)	4(20)	8(40)	16(80)	18(90)	49(49)
Scooter	-	-	-	2(10)	4(20)	6(6)	-	4(20)	9(45)	20(100)	20(100)	53(53)
TV/Cable	8(40)	10(50)	10(50)	10(50)	12(60)	50(50)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	100(100)
Refrigerator	-	-	-	1(5)	2(10)	3(3)	2(10)	9(45)	16(80)	19(95)	20(100)	66(66)
Telephone/ Mobile	-	-	-	-	-	-	5(25)	16(80)	19(95)	20(100)	20(100)	80(80)
Washing machine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10(50)	11(55)	21(21)
Cooler	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4(20)	16(80)	19(95)	39(39)
<b>Developed</b>												
LPG	-	-	-	-	-	-	6(30)	12(60)	13(65)	20(100)	20(100)	71(71)
Scooter	-	-	-	4(20)	9(45)	13(13)	2(10)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	82(82)
TV/Cable	8(40)	12(60)	10(50)	12(60)	14(70)	56(56)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	100(100)
Refrigerator	1(5)	-	-	-	3(15)	6(6)	5(25)	12(60)	18(90)	20(100)	20(100)	75(75)
Telephone/ Mobile	-	-	-	-	-	-	12(60)	18(90)	20(100)	20(100)	20(100)	90(90)
Washing machine	-	-	-	-	-	-	1(5)	4(20)	3(15)	12(60)	18(90)	38(38)
Cooler	-	-	-	-	-	-	3(15)	5(25)	6(30)	18(90)	20(100)	52(52)
<b>Overall</b>												
LPG	-	-	-	-	-	-	9(22.5)	16(40)	21(52.5)	36(90)	38(95)	120(60)
Scooter	-	-	-	6(15)	13(32.5)	19(9.5)	2(5)	24(60)	29(72.5)	40(100)	40(100)	135(67.5)
TV/Cable	16(40)	22(55)	20(50)	22(55)	26(65)	106(53)	40(100)	40(100)	40(100)	40(100)	40(100)	200(100)
Refrigerator	1(2.50)	-	-	3(7)	5(12.5)	9(4.5)	7(17.5)	21(52.5)	34(85)	39(97.5)	40(100)	141(70.5)
Telephone	-	-	-	-	-	-	17(42.5)	34(85)	39(97.5)	40(100)	40(100)	170(85)
Washing machine	-	-	-	-	-	-	1(2.5)	4(10)	3(7.5)	22(55)	29(72.5)	59(29.5)
Cooler	-	-	-	-	-	-	3(7.5)	5(12.5)	10(25)	34(85)	39(95)	91(45.5)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

The results of the Table 5.1.12 also indicated that there was an increase in the level of material possessions in generation-II in both the study areas. The categorywise analysis showed that larger the size of the farm more the number of material possessions and *vice versa*. In both the under developed and developed areas all the respondents TV, whereas all of the medium and large farmers were having scooter. Data revealed that 15, 20.00, 40.00, 80.00 and 90.00 per cent of landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers respectively had LPG connections. One fifty of marginal and 45 per cent marginal farmers and 45 per cent small farmers had scooter/motorcycles. The refrigerator was possessed by all the larger farmers, whereas it was possessed by 95 per cent medium, 80 per cent small, 45 per cent marginal farmers and only 10 per cent landless category. All the large and medium farmers had telephone connections against 25 per cent landless and 80 and 95 per cent marginal and small farmers respectively. Washing machine was possessed by about half the medium and large farmers. In the developed area the level of material possession was higher than underdeveloped zone in respect of all the household items (Table 5.1.12).

The table also indicated that large and medium farmers owned almost all the household items whereas in the case of other categories some of the respondents were without these items. On the whole data was indicative of the fact that materialistic values were increasing considerably

among the ruralites even.

### 5.1.13 Exposure to mass media

The mass media play a very important role in the social development of people. So it is necessary to study the exposure of the respondents to various mass media sources such as TV, newspapers/magazine, radio etc. The related data has been set of in the Table 5.1.13. On the whole the population in generation-I was less exposed to such mass media sources as compared to generation-II. Also the people in the people in developed area were more exposed than the underdeveloped zone. The table shows that in generation-I in the underdeveloped area the most commonly used mass media sources were the radio and TV whereas in generation-II it was TV and newspapers beside magazines and books. The category wise analysis showed that large and medium farmers were more exposed to such media than other categories. Landless, marginal and small farm size categories were only exposed to radio and TV. Whereas the medium and large farmers were also exposed to cinema and newspapers. Only 10 per cent of the large farmers were exposed to books and magazines in the underdeveloped area.

In the developed area, about 90 per cent of the respondents were exposed to radio and about 55 per cent were exposed to TV. Reading of newspapers was more in the developed area than the underdeveloped zone.

Table 5.1.13 Exposure to mass media in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I					G-II					Total	
	Radio	TV	Cinema	News paper	Magazine & books	Total	Radio	TV	Cinema	News paper		Magazine & books
<b>Under developed</b>												
LL	15(75.00)	8(40.00)	-	-	-	23(23.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)	1(5.00)	3(15.00)	-	37(37.50)
M	16(80.00)	10(50.00)	-	-	-	26(26.00)	14(70.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	9(45.00)	3(15.00)	51(51.00)
S	17(85.00)	10(50.00)	-	-	-	27(27.00)	16(80.00)	20(100.00)	3(15.00)	10(50.00)	4(20.00)	53(53.00)
M	17(85.00)	10(50.00)	1(5.00)	3(15.00)	-	31(31.00)	14(70.00)	20(100.00)	5(25.00)	12(60.00)	7(35.00)	58(58.00)
L	20(100.00)	12(60.00)	2(10.00)	6(30.00)	2(10.00)	42(42.00)	16(60.00)	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	17(85.00)	10(50.00)	67(67.00)
<b>Developed</b>												
LL	18(85.00)	8(40.00)	-	-	-	25(25.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)	3(15.00)	5(25.00)	-	41(41.00)
M	17(85.00)	12(60.00)	-	-	-	29(29.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)	4(20.00)	10(50.00)	5(25.00)	49(49.00)
S	18(90.00)	10(50.00)	1(5.00)	8(40.00)	-	37(37.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	17(85.00)	6(30.00)	60(60.00)
M	19(95.00)	12(60.00)	3(15.00)	9(45.00)	3(15.0)	46(46.00)	8(40.00)	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	18(90.00)	8(40.00)	62(62.00)
L	20(100.00)	14(70.00)	5(25.00)	12(60.00)	5(25.00)	6(54.00)	9(45.00)	20(100.00)	11(55.00)	19(95.00)	12(60.00)	71(71.00)
<b>Overall</b>												
LL	32(80.00)	16(40.00)	-	-	-	48(24.00)	26(65.00)	40(100.00)	40(100.00)	8(20.00)	-	78(39.00)
M	33(82.50)	22(55.00)	-	-	-	55(27.50)	24(60.00)	40(100.00)	9(22.50)	19(47.50)	8(20.00)	100(50.00)
S	35(87.50)	20(50.00)	1(2.5)	8(20.00)	-	64(32.00)	26(65.00)	40(100.00)	10(25.00)	27(67.50)	10(25.00)	113(56.50)
M	36(90.00)	22(55.00)	4(10.00)	12(30.00)	3(7.50)	77(38.50)	22(55.00)	40(100.00)	13(32.50)	30(75.00)	15(37.50)	120(60.00)
L	40(100.00)	26(65.00)	7(17.50)	18(45.00)	7(17.50)	98(49.0)	21(52.50)	40(100.00)	19(47.50)	3690.00	22(55.00)	138(69.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

In generation-II media use was quite high than generation-I. However, all the respondents in both the developed as well as underdeveloped areas were exposed to TV. In the developed area 75 per cent respondents had cable connections against only 30 per cent in the underdeveloped zone. It was interesting to note that some of the large farmers in the developed zone (80%) had also installed dish antennas and DDH services in their homes. Cinema is also becoming popular in the developed area as 55 per cent large farmers, 40 per cent medium, 35 per cent small, 20 per cent marginal and 15 per cent of the landless were in the habit of watching cinema. Books and magazines were also used by the large farmers (60%) and medium farmers (40%), where as 30 per cent of small and 25 per cent of the marginal farmers had the habit of reading books and magazines.

The data of Table 5.1.13 indicated that with increase in farm size there was an increase in mass media exposure. Higher the farm size higher the exposure to mass media sources. This table also shows that social and economic status of the rural population was improving. The results of the study were also supported by Bhatt (2001).

## **5.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY IN GENERATION-I AND GENERATION-II**

### **5.2.1 Change in occupational structure**

The change in occupational structure of all the categories of

respondents viz. landless, marginal, small, medium and large in the underdeveloped and developed areas are presented in Table 5.2.1. The table showed that in the underdeveloped area in generation-I, a majority did not change their traditional caste based occupation. in the developed area however, 22 per cent had changed their occupation.

In generation-II in the underdeveloped area almost 50 per cent of the respondents were occupationally mobile. About 70 per cent of the landless were mobile occupationally where as 65.00 of the marginal and small farmers have changed their occupation at least once during their life time against 60 and 55.00 per cent of the medium and large farmers.

After minutely analysing the data given in the Table 5.2.1 it was observed that the landless were more mobile than other categories. Whereas the medium and large farmers in generation-II were less mobile than the marginal and small farmers. But in generation-I the large and medium farmers were more mobile than marginal and small farmers. The statistical analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between generation-I and generation-II as far as occupational mobility was concerned. In generation-II mobility was higher than in generation one and also in developed area people were more mobile than in the under developed area. Gill (1990) has also supported this investigation in her study i.e. in generation-I, 90 per cent were following caste occupation and in generation-II only 55 per cent were following the caste occupation.

Table 5.2.1 Change in occupational structure in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I		G-II		Z-value
	Traditional	Non-traditional	Traditional	Non-traditional	
<b>Under developed</b>					
LL	17(85.00)	3(15.00)	7(35.00)	13(65.00)	2.22**
M	20(100.00)	-	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	2.41**
S	18(90.00)	2(10.00)	11(55.00)	9(45.00)	2.19**
M	19(95.00)	1(5.00)	10(50.00)	10(50.00)	2.19**
L	20(100.00)	-	13(65.00)	7(35.00)	2.91**
Total	94(94.00)	6(6.00)	53(53.00)	47(47.00)	3.57**
<b>Developed</b>					
LL	13(65.00)	7(35.00)	6(30.00)	14(70.00)	2.22**
M	17(85.00)	3(15.00)	7(35.00)	13(65.00)	2.23**
S	17(85.00)	3(15.00)	8(40.00)	12(60.00)	2.94***
M	16(80.00)	4(20.00)	8(40.00)	12(60.00)	2.40**
L	15(75.00)	5(25.00)	9(45.00)	11(55.00)	1.94*
Total	78(78.00)	22(22.00)	37(37.00)	63(63.00)	2.87***
<b>Overall</b>					
LL	30(75.00)	10(25.00)	13(32.50)	27(67.50)	2.23**
M	37(92.50)	3(7.50)	17(42.50)	23(57.50)	2.40**
S	35(87.50)	5(12.50)	19(47.50)	21(55.00)	2.65***
M	35(87.50)	5(12.50)	18(45.00)	22(55.50)	2.29**
L	35(87.50)	5(12.50)	22(55.00)	18(45.00)	2.32**
Total	172(86.00)	28(14.00)	90(45.00)	110(55.00)	3.27***

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

\*Significant at 1% level

\*\*Significant at 5% level

\*\*\*Significant at 10% level

### 5.2.2 Change in occupation

It was evident from Table 5.2.2 that in generation-I in the underdeveloped area only 15.00 per cent of the landless were working as skilled workers and the rest were labourers. In case of marginal and large farmers not even a single respondent had changed his occupation while five per cent each of small and medium farmers were working in govt. jobs like teachers etc. and the same percentage of the small farmers were working in various private factories as skilled workers. In the developed area among the landless respondents, 65.00, 20.00, 10.00 and 5.00 per cent were working as labourers, skilled workers, govt. servants and in business like petty shopkeepers etc. respectively. In the marginal size category 85.00 were farmers and 5.00 each in govt. jobs, skilled workers and industry labourers. Among the large farmers 10 per cent were in business and 15.00 per cent in govt. jobs.

In generation-II 25.00 per cent of landless were skilled workers, 45 per cent labourers, 20 per cent in business and 10 per cent in govt. jobs. Among the marginal farmers 20.00 each were in business and skilled jobs and 5 per cent in govt. jobs. In case of small farmers 60.00, 25.00 and 15.00 per cent were engaged in farming, business and skilled jobs respectively. In the medium size category 25.00, 15.00 and 10.00 per cent were engaged in business, skilled workers and in govt. jobs respectively. Among the large size category 15 per cent were in business

Table 5.2.2 Occupational structure of respondents in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	Occupations G-I					Occupations G-II						
	Farming	Business	Govt. Job	Skilled workers	Labour	Total	Farming	Business	Govt. Job	Skilled workers	Labour	Total
<b>Under developed</b>												
LL	-	-	-	3(15.00)	17(85.00)	20(100.00)	-	4(20.00)	2(10.00)	5(25.00)	9(45.00)	20(100.00)
M	20(100.00)	-	-	-	-	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	4(20.00)	1(5.00)	5(25.00)	-	20(100.00)
S	18(90.00)	-	1(5.00)	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)	11(55.00)	5(25.00)	-	4(20.00)	-	20(100.00)
M	19(95.00)	-	1(5.00)	-	-	20(100.00)	10(50.00)	5(25.00)	2(10.00)	3(15.00)	-	20(100.00)
L	20(100.00)	-	-	-	-	20(100.00)	13(65.00)	3(15.00)	2(10.00)	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)
Total	77(77.00)	-	2(2.00)	4(4.00)	17(17.00)	100(100.00)	44(44.00)	21(21.00)	7(7.00)	18(18.00)	9(9.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Developed</b>												
LL	-	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	4(20.00)	13(65.00)	20(100.00)	-	2(10.00)	3(15.00)	4(20.00)	10(50.00)	20(100.00)
M	17(85.00)	-	1(5.00)	1(5.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	3(15.00)	5(25.00)	2(10.00)	20(100.00)
S	17(85.00)	1(5.00)	-	2(10.00)	-	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	3(15.00)	4(20.00)	6(30.00)	1(5.00)	20(100.00)
M	16(80.00)	1(5.00)	2(10.00)	1(5.00)	-	20(100.00)	8(40.00)	4(20.00)	3(15.00)	5(25.00)	-	20(100.00)
L	15(75.00)	2(10.00)	3(15.00)	-	-	100(100.00)	9(45.00)	5(25.00)	2(10.00)	4(20.00)	-	100(100.00)
Total	65(65.00)	6(6.00)	7(7.00)	8(8.00)	14(14.00)	100(100.00)	32(32.00)	17(17.00)	15(14.00)	23(23.00)	13(13.00)	100(100.00)
<b>Overall</b>												
LL	-	2(5.00)	1(2.50)	7(17.50)	30(75.00)	40(100.00)	-	6(15.00)	5(12.50)	10(25.00)	19(47.50)	40(100.00)
M	37(92.50)	-	1(2.50)	1(2.50)	1(2.50)	40(100.00)	17(42.50)	7(17.50)	4(10.00)	10(25.00)	2(5.00)	40(100.00)
S	35(87.50)	1(2.50)	1(2.50)	3(7.50)	-	40(100.00)	19(47.50)	8(20.00)	4(10.00)	8(20.00)	1(2.50)	40(100.00)
M	35(87.50)	1(2.50)	3(7.50)	1(2.50)	-	40(100.00)	18(45.00)	9(22.50)	5(12.50)	8(20.00)	-	40(100.00)
L	35(87.50)	2(5.00)	3(7.50)	-	-	40(100.00)	22(55.00)	8(20.00)	4(10.00)	6(15.00)	-	40(100.00)
Total	142(71.00)	6(3.00)	9(4.50)	12(6.00)	31(15.50)	200(100.00)	77(38.50)	38(19.00)	22(11.50)	42(21.00)	22(11.00)	200(100.00)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

and 10.00 per cent each in govt. jobs and skilled workers. In the developed area among the landless 20.00, 15.00 and 10.00 per cent were in skilled jobs, govt. jobs and business respectively.

Table also indicated that large farmers who changed their occupation had mainly shifted to business like commission agents, factory owner etc. but the marginal and small farmers who had shifted from traditional occupation have either joined as skilled workers or had got govt. or private job.

### **5.2.3 Occupational classification of working force**

Data presented in Table 5.2.3 is indicative of the fact that in generation-I in the underdeveloped area 78.85 per cent were engaged in traditional occupations, 15.38 per cent unskilled workers and 5.77 per cent skilled workers. Among the marginal, small, medium and large farmers 93.75, 88.89, 80.00 and 95.18 per cent respectively were engaged in their traditional occupations, where as 4.17 per cent and 2.08 per cent of the marginal farmers were engaged either in govt./private jobs or as skilled workers respectively. In developed area 14.55 per cent of the landless were working in factories as unskilled workers whereas 3.64, 1.82 and 7.27 per cent of the total working force were engaged in business, govt. jobs and skilled workers respectively.

In generation-II in the underdeveloped area among the working force of landless category, 28.85, 19.23, 9.62 and 7.69 per cent

Table 5.2.3 Occupational classification of working force in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	G-I					G-II						
	Total working force	Traditional occupation	Business	Govt./ private job	skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Total working force	Traditional occupation	Business	Govt./ private job	skilled workers	Unskilled workers
<b>Under developed</b>												
LL	52	41(78.85)	-	-	3(5.77)	8(15.38)	52	18(34.62)	5(9.62)	4(7.69)	10(19.23)	15(28.85)
M	48	45(93.75)	-	2(4.17)	1(2.08)	-	48	17(35.42)	9(18.75)	3(6.25)	12(25.00)	7(14.58)
S	45	40(88.89)	1(2.22)	2(4.44)	2(4.44)	-	50	15(30.00)	11(22.00)	5(10.00)	13(26.00)	6(12.00)
M	50	40(80.00)	3(6.00)	5(10.00)	2(4.00)	-	56	20(35.71)	12(21.43)	8(14.29)	11(19.64)	5(8.93)
L	83	79(95.18)	1(1.20)	2(2.40)	1(1.20)	-	82	36(43.90)	25(30.49)	5(6.09)	11(13.41)	5(6.09)
Total	278	245(88.13)	5(1.80)	11(3.96)	9(3.23)	8(2.88)	288	106(36.81)	62(21.53)	25(8.68)	57(19.79)	38(13.19)
<b>Developed</b>												
LL	55	40(72.73)	2(3.64)	1(1.82)	4(7.27)	8(14.55)	67	18(26.87)	7(10.45)	5(7.46)	20(29.85)	17(25.37)
M	52	46(88.46)	1(1.92)	2(3.85)	2(3.85)	1(3.85)	55	14(25.45)	10(18.18)	6(10.91)	18(32.73)	7(12.73)
S	57	45(78.95)	1(1.75)	3(5.26)	6(10.71)	2(3.51)	57	16(28.07)	5(8.77)	7(12.28)	18(31.58)	11(19.30)
M	59	48(81.36)	3(5.08)	3(5.08)	5(8.47)	-	68	19(27.94)	20(29.41)	9(13.24)	14(20.59)	6(8.82)
L	66	50(75.76)	2(3.03)	5(7.58)	9(13.64)	-	82	20(24.39)	27(32.43)	7(8.54)	26(31.71)	2(2.44)
Total	289	229(79.24)	9(3.11)	14(4.84)	26(8.99)	11(3.81)	329	87(26.44)	68(20.67)	34(10.33)	97(29.48)	43(13.07)
<b>Overall</b>												
LL	107	81(75.70)	2(1.87)	1(0.93)	7(6.55)	16(14.95)	119	36(30.26)	12(10.08)	9(7.56)	30(25.21)	32(26.89)
M	100	91(91.00)	1(1.00)	4(4.00)	3(3.00)	1(1.00)	103	31(30.10)	19(18.45)	9(8.74)	30(29.13)	14(13.59)
S	102	85(83.33)	2(1.96)	5(4.90)	8(7.85)	2(1.96)	107	31(28.97)	16(14.95)	12(11.22)	31(28.97)	17(15.89)
M	109	88(80.73)	6(5.51)	8(7.34)	7(6.42)	-	124	39(31.45)	32(25.81)	17(13.71)	25(20.16)	11(8.87)
L	149	129(86.58)	3(2.01)	7(4.70)	10(6.71)	-	164	56(34.15)	51(31.10)	12(7.32)	38(23.17)	7(4.27)
Total	567	474(83.60)	14(2.47)	25(4.41)	35(6.17)	19(3.35)	617	193(31.28)	130(21.07)	59(9.56)	154(24.96)	81(13.13)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

were engaged as unskilled workers, skilled workers, business and govt./private jobs and those of the marginal farmers 25.00, 18.75, 14.58 and 6.25 per cent of the work force were working as skilled workers, unskilled workers, business and govt./private jobs respectively. In small farmers' category, 26.00 per cent were skilled workers, 22.00, 12.00 and 10.00 per cent were in business, unskilled workers and govt./private jobs respectively. In case of the medium and large farmers 21.43 and 30.49 per cent of the work force were in business, respectively and 14.29 and 6.09 per cent in govt./private jobs, 19.64 and 13.41 per cent were skilled workers and 8.93 and 6.09 per cent were unskilled workers respectively. In the developed area 29.85 per cent of the landless were skilled workers whereas 25.37 per cent were unskilled workers and 10.45 and 7.46 per cent in business and govt./private jobs respectively. Among the marginal farmers, 32.73, 18.18, 12.73 and 10.91 per cent of the work force were skilled workers, businessmen, unskilled workers and in govt./private jobs respectively.

The data of Table 5.2.3 showed that most of the landless and marginal and small farmers were either unskilled workers or skilled workers, because they shifted to the industries to earn money for their family. On the other hand, most of the medium and large farmers have started their own business like commission agents and factory owners because they could afford to start new ventures to improve their social and

economic status.

#### 5.2.4 Vertical mobility

The number and percentage of the working force now following non traditional occupations were shown in Table 5.2.4. In the present section the status of occupation now followed by those who shifted from traditional occupation is discussed. It is apparent from table that all the 3 respondents of landless agricultural labourers were skilled workers, whereas the 2 respondents of small farmers were in white collar jobs and skilled workers and 1 from the medium farm size category was engaged in white collar job in generation-I in the under developed area. In the developed area 57.15 per cent of non traditional occupants workers while 28.57 per cent in business and 14.28 per cent in white collar jobs. Among the marginal farmers 33.33 per cent each were in white collar jobs and skilled workers. In case of small farmers 66.67 per cent of non traditional occupants were skilled workers and 33.33 per cent were in business, while the 50 per cent of the medium farmers were in white collar jobs and 25 per cent each in business and skilled workers were as 60 per cent of large farmers were engaged in white collar jobs and 40 per cent were in business.

In generation-II in under developed area 38.46 per cent of the landless were skilled workers whereas 30.77 per cent were in business. In case of marginal farmers 44.44 per cent were skilled workers and in business and 11.11 per cent were in white collar jobs. Among the small

Table 5.2.4 Vertical occupational mobility

Size category	G-I					G-II				
	Taken up non traditional occupation	Business	White collar jobs	Skilled workers	Labour	Taken up non traditional occupation	Business	White collar jobs	Skilled workers	Labour
<b>Under developed</b>										
LL	3	-	-	3(100.00)	-	13	4(30.77)	2(15.39)	5(38.46)	2(15.39)
M	-	-	-	-	-	9	4(44.44)	1(11.11)	4(44.44)	-
S	2	-	1(50.00)	1(50.00)	-	8	5(62.5)	-	3(37.5)	-
M	1	-	1(100.00)	-	-	10	5(50.00)	2(20.00)	3(30.00)	-
L	-	-	-	-	-	7	3(42.86)	2(28.57)	2(28.57)	-
Total	6	-	2(33.33)	4(66.67)	-	47	21(44.68)	7(14.90)	17(36.17)	2(4.25)
<b>Developed</b>										
LL	7	2(28.57)	1(14.28)	4(57.15)	-	14	2(14.29)	3(21.43)	4(28.57)	5(35.71)
M	3	-	1(33.33)	1(33.33)	1(33.33)	13	3(23.08)	3(23.08)	5(38.46)	2(15.38)
S	3	1(33.33)	-	2(66.67)	-	12	3(25.00)	2(16.67)	6(50.00)	1(8.33)
M	4	1(25.00)	2(50.00)	1(25.00)	-	13	4(30.77)	4(30.77)	5(38.46)	-
L	5	2(40.00)	3(60.00)	-	-	11	5(45.45)	2(18.18)	4(36.37)	-
Total	22	6(27.57)	7(31.81)	8(36.37)	1(4.55)	63	17(26.98)	14(22.22)	24(38.10)	8(12.70)
<b>Overall</b>										
LL	10	2(20.00)	1(10.00)	7(70.00)	-	27	6(22.22)	5(18.52)	9(33.33)	7(25.93)
M	3	-	1(33.33)	1(33.33)	1(33.33)	22	7(31.82)	4(18.19)	9(40.91)	2(9.09)
S	5	1(20.00)	1(20.00)	3(60.00)	-	20	8(40.00)	2(10.00)	9(45.00)	1(5.00)
M	5	1(20.00)	3(60.00)	1(20.00)	-	23	9(39.13)	6(26.09)	8(34.78)	-
L	5	2(40.00)	3(60.00)	-	-	18	8(44.44)	4(22.22)	6(33.33)	-
Total	28	6(21.43)	9(32.14)	12(42.86)	1(3.57)	110	38(34.55)	21(19.10)	41(37.27)	10(9.10)

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

farmers 62.50 per cent were in business whereas in case of medium farmers 50.00 per cent were in business and 30 per cent were in white collar jobs. In case of large farmers 42.86 per cent were in business and 28.57 per cent were in white collar jobs. In the developed area 28.77 per cent were skilled workers and 21.43 per cent were in white collar jobs in case of landless agricultural labourers. Among the marginal farmers 23.08 per cent were in business and white collar jobs while 50 per cent of the small farmers were skilled workers and 25 per cent were in business. 30.77 per cent of the medium farmers were in business and white collar jobs whereas among the large farmers 45.45 per cent were in business.

In both the generations in under developed and developed area there was change in occupation. 30 per cent landless 33.33 per cent marginal, 40 per cent small, 80 per cent medium and 100 per cent of the large farmers in generation-I took up high status occupation such as business and white collar jobs. In generation-II 42 per cent of landless, 50 per cent marginal and small farmers, 55 per cent medium and 66.66 per cent of the large farmers took up high status occupations. Thus, it is apparent that extent of upward mobility was the highest among the large farmers followed by medium, small and marginal and then followed by landless agricultural labourers. Aggarwal (1980) supported this study.

### **5.2.5 Pull factors for changing occupation**

In the Table 5.2.5 which is given above indicates that most of people of the generation-II had changed their traditional occupation and started some new modern occupation because they aspired to earn more money to support their family and to supplement their family income. The pull factors responsible for such a change were ranked by the respondents and are depicted in the Table 5.2.5. The data indicated that most of the respondents had changed their occupation because of 'job security' with mean score 1.95 with top rank. The second rank was given to 'supplementing family income' with mean score 1.90. 'To enhance social status' was given third rank with score 1.86. In generation-II, the respondents had assigned rank II to social status as the reason for changing their caste based traditional occupation. It showed that respondents of generation-II were more status conscious than generation-I.

### **5.2.6 Push factors for changing occupation**

The data depicted in 5.2.6 were related to the push factors for changing occupation by the respondents. 'Low family income' was the major factor for changing occupation with mean score 1.48 and was ranked at the top. Some kind of financial indebtedness with mean score 1.42 was adjusted the second most important push factor for changing occupation by the respondents. It may be observed that uneconomical size of the land base was the major factor for changing occupation by the marginal, small and medium farmers.

Table 5.2.5 Pull factors for changing occupation in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05  
(Mean scores)

Pull factors	G-I					G-II					Total (Rank)	Grand total (Rank)	
	LL	M	S	M	L	LL	M	S	M	L			
Better employment avenues	1.75	1.6	1.55	1.5	1.5	1.85	1.8	1.7	1.75	1.6	1.58	1.74	1.66
Job security	2.00	1.9	1.9	1.95	1.95	2.0	2.0	1.95	1.95	1.90	1.94	1.96	1.95
Higher social status	1.85	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.85	1.85	1.85	1.90	1.95	20.0	1.82	1.9	1.86
Better career opportunities for children	1.20	1.4	1.75	1.70	1.8	1.45	1.55	1.8	1.8	1.90	1.57	1.70	1.63
Future prospects	1.4	1.45	1.9	1.75	1.8	1.85	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.75	1.66	1.80	1.77
Better income	1.95	1.95	1.90	1.90	1.85	1.9	1.95	1.90	1.9	1.85	1.91	1.90	1.90

Figures in the parentheses are Rank Orders

Table 5.2.6 Push factors for changing occupation in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05  
(Mean score)

Push factors	G-I					G-II					Grand total (Rank)		
	LL	M	S	M	L	Total (Rank)	LL	M	S	M		L	Total (Rank)
Strained family relations	0.75	0.6	0.75	0.6	0.55	0.65 (V)	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.00	1.38 (IV)	1.01 (V)
Inadequate income	1.85	1.2	1.25	1.1	1.00	1.28 (II)	1.8	1.95	1.9	1.5	1.25	1.68 (I)	1.48 (I)
Indebtedness	1.50	1.4	1.25	1.2	1.15	1.30 (I)	1.75	1.9	1.55	1.4	1.1	1.54 (II)	1.42 (II)
Small holdings	-	1.85	1.80	1.20	0.8	1.13 (IV)	-	2.0	1.95	1.8	0.9	1.33 (V)	1.23 (IV)
Lack of employment opportunity	1.60	1.25	1.20	1.00	0.95	1.20 (III)	1.75	1.8	1.8	1.2	0.75	1.46 (III)	1.33 (III)

Figures in the parentheses are Rank Orders

### **5.2.7 Choice of occupation for their children**

The data on occupational aspiration for their children were presented in Table 5.2.7. It was evident that 58.20 per cent of mobile respondents in under developed area in generation-I wished their children to go in for white collar jobs, a large percentage (41.5%) of the non-mobile also aspired for such jobs for their children. While comparing the choice of occupation of mobile and non-mobile categories of developed area, it was noticed that most of the parents wished their children to go for govt. jobs. In generation-II, in under developed area 44 and 49 per cent of the mobile and non mobile respectively were wished their children go for govt. jobs but in developed area 55 per cent of mobile and non-mobile were wished that their children should be professionals. Chi-square value between twice of occupation of children was found significant in both the generation and area.

### **5.2.8 Educational aspiration**

Table 5.2.8 indicate the educational aspiration of respondents for their children. In generation-I, in under developed area 37.20 per cent of mobile wished their children to be educated upto the level of graduation while 42 per cent of the non-mobile wished their children to be educated upto matric. In the developed area 40.75 per cent of the mobile respondents had wished that their children should be educated upto graduation level whereas 29.50 per cent of non mobile wished for matric level. In

Table 5.2.7 Choice of occupation for children by mobile and non mobile respondents

Occupations	G-I				G-II				
	Under developed		Developed		Under developed		Developed		
	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	
Farming	20.70	46.20	18.50	15.25	17.50	20.00	6.00	5.00	
Business	3.86	1.43	6.00	7.50	5.00	9.75	6.00	4.00	
Govt. jobs	58.20	41.57	55.50	66.25	44.00	49.00	34.00	41.00	
Professionals	17.24	10.80	20.00	11.00	33.50	21.25	55.00	50.00	
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	
	X2 = 15.09**				X2 = 4.71NS				X2 = 1.29NS

NS - Non significant

\*\*Significant at 5% level

Table 5.2.8 Educational aspiration of respondent according to mobile and non-mobile

Educational level	G-I				G-II				
	Under developed		Developed		Under developed		Developed		
	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	Mobile %	Non mobile %	
Upto Matric	22.80	42.00	16.25	38.75	7.00	18.00	5.00	7.00	
Graduation	37.20	18.00	40.75	29.50	47.00	42.00	25.25	22.00	
Post graduation	10.00	9.00	10.00	10.50	23.50	20.00	60.75	50.50	
Do not know	30.00	31.00	33.00	21.25	22.50	20.00	9.00	20.50	
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	
	$X^2 = 6.55^{NS}$				$X^2 = 5.55^{NS}$				$X^2 = 5.98^{NS}$

NS - Non significant

generation-II in under developed area 47 and 42 per cent of the mobile and non-mobile respondents respectively wished that their children should be educated upto graduation level whereas in developed area 60.75 and 50.50 per cent of mobile and non-mobile respectively wished that their children should be educated upto post graduate level.

Therefore, does not seems any difference between the underdeveloped and developed area about the education they want to give to their children. Similarly, no difference is found between the mobile and non-mobile categories of respondents in generation-I and II. From the above analysis, it can be analysed that people of both the area i.e. under developed and developed were most interested to give high education to their children.

### **5.2.9 Occupational ranking**

Ranking of different occupations given by all the categories in both the generations has been set out in the Table 5.2.9. The top rank was given to the doctors, second rank to engineers and the third rank to professors. It was however followed by the farming occupation (IV rank) industry owner (V rank) school teacher (VI rank) lawyer (VII rank) and village level workers (VIII rank). There was a difference in the ranking of Priest or 'Granthi' by the respondents of two different generations. The generation-I had given VIII rank to it against 12<sup>th</sup> by the generation-II respondents. It was only above the farm, labourers, but below carpenter and

Table 5.2.9 Ranking of different occupations in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Occupations	G-I					G-II					Average mean	
	LL	M	S	M	L	LL	M	S	M	L		Mean
Doctor	4.65	4.75	4.8	4.8	4.85	4.9	4.90	4.90	4.95	5.00	4.93(1)	4.85(1)
Engineer	4.50	4.75	4.70	4.70	4.80	4.70	4.69(2.5)	4.95	4.90	4.95	4.85(2)	4.77(2)
Professor	4.50	4.7	4.7	4.75	4.80	4.65	4.69(2.5)	4.80	4.90	4.90	4.79(3)	4.74(3)
Industry owner	4.00	3.9	4.15	3.95	4.00	4.60	4.00(6)	4.65	4.80	4.75	4.67(4)	4.34(5)
Farming	4.55	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.75	4.80	4.38(4)	4.45	4.65	4.75	4.58(5)	4.48(4)
School Teacher	4.05	4.15	4.2	4.05	4.05	4.05	4.1(5)	3.9	3.70	4.00	3.92(7)	4.01(6)
Industry Worker	2.65	2.55	2.5	2.45	2.60	3.25	2.55(13)	3.1	2.85	3.55	3.16(9)	2.81(10)
Lawyer	3.70	3.50	3.45	3.50	3.55	4.15	3.54(7)	4.55	4.30	4.25	4.31(6)	3.92(7)
Barber	2.35	2.45	2.40	2.40	2.30	2.75	2.38(10)	2.35	1.95	2.55	2.44(11)	2.41(12)
Carpenter	2.95	2.70	2.65	2.55	2.25	3.30	2.62(12)	3.00	3.05	3.05	3.11(10)	2.86(9)
Sweeper	1.60	1.50	1.45	1.55	1.50	1.05	1.52(15)	1.45	1.45	1.40	1.55(15)	1.53(15)
Leather worker	1.70	1.65	1.50	1.65	1.50	1.80	1.60(14)	1.50	1.55	1.60	1.64(14)	1.62(14)
Village level worker	3.30	3.40	3.25	3.10	3.10	3.45	3.23(9)	3.25	3.75	3.80	3.53(8)	3.38(8)
Priest/'Granthi'	3.15	3.10	3.40	3.35	3.50	2.45	3.30(8)	1.95	2.40	2.00	2.19(12)	2.74(11)
Farm labourers	2.40	2.30	2.35	2.40	2.40	2.20	2.37(11)	1.75	1.70	1.85	1.88(13)	2.12(13)
Mean							3.32				3.44	

F-Ratio CD (5%)  
 2.00  
 21.16 0.5159  
 529.76 0.1410  
 22.04 0.1994

Generations x occupations  
 Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

barbers. It indicated that priest or 'Granthi' had almost the least importance among the rural folks. It was however indicated that there was no change in the rank order of the labourers, sweepers and leather workers over the two generations.

#### **5.2.10 Occupational mobility (Generations-wise)**

Table 5.2.10 reflects the occupational mobility in the two generations. Out of the total sample of generation-I only 6.00 per cent respondents were mobile in the under developed area and 22.00 per cent in developed area. In the underdeveloped area of generation-II only, 47.00 per cent were mobile against 63.00 per cent. As an overall view in generation-I only 14 per cent were mobile, while in generation-II more than half of the respondents (i.e. 55%) were mobile. The statistical analysis showed that there was a significant difference in the level of mobility in the under developed and the developed areas in both the generations.

#### **5.2.11 Occupational mobility (Area-wise)**

Table 5.2.11 showed the occupational mobility in the underdeveloped and developed areas. Table revealed that in the under developed area only 26.50 per cent respondents were mobile. In generation-I only 6.00 per cent were mobile and in generation-II, 47.00 per cent were mobile. In the developed area 42.50 per cent people were mobile in both the generations. On overall basis, only 22 per cent respondents were mobile in generation - I against 63 per cent in second generation. The statistical

Table 5.2.10 Occupational mobility in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Sample population	G-I			G-II			X <sup>2</sup>
	UD	D	Total	UD	D	Total	
Mobile	6(6.00)	22(22.00)	28(14.00)	47(47.00)	63(63.00)	110(55.00)	13.5366*
Non-mobile	94(94.00)	78(78.00)	172(86.00)	53(53.00)	37(37.00)	90(45.00)	

Table 5.2.11 Occupational mobility according to under developed and developed areas in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Sample population	Under developed			Developed			X <sup>2</sup>
	G-I	G-II	Total	G-I	G-II	Total	
Mobile	6(6.00)	47(47.00)	53(26.50)	22(22.00)	63(63.00)	85(42.50)	4.942**
Non-mobile	94(94.00)	53(53.00)	147(73.50)	78(78.00)	37(37.00)	115(57.50)	

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

\*Significant at 1% level

\*\*Significant at 5% level

analysis also showed that there was a significant intergenerational difference in the development and underdeveloped areas with respect to occupational mobility of the respondents

#### **5.2.12 Socio-economic characteristics and intergenerational mobility**

The interrelationship between important socio-economic characteristics and intergenerational mobility has been discussed in two different contexts viz. (1) generation wise (2) area wise as given in the following section.

#### **5.2.12 Socio-economic characteristics and intergenerational mobility (General-wise)**

Table 5.2.12 indicated that the upper caste people were more mobile in both under developed and developed areas in both the generations. Data further showed that 50.0 and 72.34 per cent people of upper castes in generation-I and generation-II respectively were mobile. On overall basis, about three-fourth of the respondents were mobile and they were from upper caste category. The  $\chi^2$  value also showed that caste and mobility were significantly correlated i.e. upper caste people were more mobile as compared to lower castes in both the generations and study areas.

#### **Education and mobility**

Table 5.2.12 showed that education was an important factor in mobility. Data in the table indicated that in the under developed area in generation-I, 50.00 and 33.33 per cent respondents, who were mobile, were

Table 5.2.12 Socio-economic characteristics and intergenerational mobility in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Characteristics	Under developed			Developed			Overall		
	GI	GII	X <sup>2</sup> value	GI	GII	X <sup>2</sup> value	GI	GII	X <sup>2</sup> value
<b>Caste</b>									
Upper	3(50.00)	34(72.34)	3.698**	15(68.18)	47(74.60)	6.4233**	18(64.29)	81(73.64)	5.3190**
Lower	3(50.00)	13(27.66)		7(31.82)	6(25.40)		10(35.71)	29(26.36)	
Total	6(100.00)	47(100.00)		22(100.00)	63(100.00)		28(100.00)	110(100.00)	
<b>Education</b>									
Illiterate	1(16.67)	-		-	-	3.517**	1(3.58)	-	7.874*
Upto matric	3(50.00)	22(46.81)	9.0134*	7(31.82)	18(71.43)		10(35.71)	40(36.36)	
Above matric	2(33.33)	25(53.19)		15(68.18)	45(28.57)		17(60.71)	70(63.64)	
Total	6(100.00)	47(100.00)		22(100.00)	63(100.00)		28(100.00)	110(100.00)	
<b>Family type</b>									
Joint	2(33.33)	12(25.53)	7.532**	5(22.73)	21(33.33)	4.175**	7(25.00)	33(30.00)	6.0031**
Nuclear	4(66.67)	35(74.47)		17(77.27)	42(66.67)		21(75.00)	77(70.00)	
Total	6(100.00)	47(100.00)		22(100.00)	63(100.00)		28(100.00)	110(100.00)	
<b>Exposure to mass media</b>									
More	5(83.33)	25(53.19)	2.291 <sup>NS</sup>	12(54.55)	58(92.06)	7.714**	17(60.71)	83(75.45)	15.929*
Less	1(16.67)	22(46.81)		10(45.45)	5(7.94)		11(39.29)	27(24.55)	
Total	6(100.00)	47(100.00)		22(100.00)	63(100.00)		28(100.00)	110(100.00)	

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

NS - Non significant

\*Significant at 1% level

\*\*Significant at 5% level

educated upto matric and above matric level respectively. Above matric level included the ETT, JBT, graduation, diploma and post graduation. Whereas in generation-I 46.81 and 53.19 per cent of the mobile respondents were educated upto matric and above matric level respectively. In the developed area in generation-I 35.71 and 60.71 per cent of mobile respondents were educated upto matric and above matric level, while in generation-II 36.36 and 63.64 per cent of the respondents, who were mobile, were educated upto matric and above matric level respectively.

The statistical analysis showed that education and mobility were correlated significantly which meant that as the education level increased, the mobility was also increased Jayaram (1990) also supported the results a this study.

#### **Family type and mobility**

The family is a basic unit of society. If there is any change in family it will effect the society also. The data in Table 5.2.12 indicated that out of the total mobile respondents, 66.67 per cent were living in nuclear families in generation-I and 74.47 per cent in generation-II. In the developed area, 77.27 and 66.67 per cent of the mobile population in generation-I and II respectively were living in nuclear families. On the whole, in generation-I, three-fourth of the respondents, who were mobile, were living in nuclear families against 70 per cent in generation-II.

The  $\chi^2$  value indicated that family type and mobility were significantly correlated. The respondents living in nuclear families were

more mobile as compared to who live in a joint family. The reason may be that the farmers lived more independently and were free to take any decision at their own, whereas in a joint family system decisions were taken collectively mainly by the senior family members.

### **Exposure to mass media and mobility**

Mass media play a significant role in the development of mankind. It has a great impact on the human society. Data in the Table 5.2.9 showed that out of the total mobile respondents, 83.33 per cent of generation-I in the under developed area were more exposed to media than those of generation-II. The statistical analysis revealed that in the under developed area there was no significant correlation between the mass-media exposure and mobility in both the generations. But in the developed area the respondents had more exposure to such mass media sources and there was a significant correlation between the media exposure and mobility Grover and Dak (1991) also supported the results of the study as mass media exposure plays an important role in mobility.

### **5.2.13 Socio-economic characteristics and mobility (area wise)**

#### **Age and mobility**

The data in Table 5.2.13 are indicated that in generation-I statistical analysis was not applied on age and mobility because of insufficient number, but in generation-II the younger people were more mobile as compared to others both in developed and under developed area.

**Table 5.2.13 Socio-economic characteristics and area wise mobility in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Characteristics	G-I		Characteristics	G-II	
	UD	D		UD	D
<b>Age (yrs)</b>					
Upto 60	4(66.67)	13(59.09)	Upto 35	22(46.81)	38(60.32)
61-70	2(33.33)	9(40.91)	36-45	15(31.91)	14(22.22)
>70	-	-	>45	10(21.28)	11(17.46)
Total	6(100.00)	22(100.00)	Total	47(100.00)	63(100.00)
	$X^2 = 1.11^{NS}$			$X^2 = 4.07^{**}$	
<b>Caste</b>					
Upper	3(50.00)	15(68.18)	Upper	34(72.34)	47(74.60)
Lower	3(50.00)	7(31.82)	Lower	13(27.66)	16(25.40)
Total	6(100.00)	22(100.00)	Total	47(100.00)	63(100.00)
	$X^2 = 2.95^{**}$			$X^2 = 3.57^{**}$	
<b>Education</b>					
Illiterate	1(16.67)	-	Illiterate	-	-
Upto matric	3(50.00)	7(31.82)	Upto matric	22(46.81)	18(28.57)
Above matric	2(33.33)	15(68.18)	Above matric	25(53.19)	45(71.43)
Total	6(100.00)	22(100.00)	Total	47(100.00)	63(100.00)
	$X^2 = 2.40^{NS}$			$X^2 = 3.87^{**}$	
<b>Family type</b>					
Joint	2(33.33)	5(22.73)	Joint	12(25.53)	21(33.33)
Nuclear	4(66.67)	17(77.27)	Nuclear	35(74.47)	42(66.67)
Total	6(100.00)	22(100.00)	Total	47(100.00)	63(100.00)
	$X^2 = 6.29^{**}$			$X^2 = 6.78^{**}$	
<b>Exposure to mass media</b>					
More	5(83.33)	12(54.55)	More	25(53.19)	58(92.06)
Less	1(16.67)	10(45.45)	Less	22(46.81)	5(7.94)
Total	6(100.00)	22(100.00)	Total	47(100.00)	63(100.00)
	$X^2 = 3.04^{**}$			$X^2 = 21.96^{**}$	

NS – Non Significant

\*\*Significant at 5% level

Figures in the parentheses are percentages

### **Caste and mobility**

In the underdeveloped area, in generation-I, half the mobile population belonged to upper caste and in developed area 68.18 per cent of the mobile population was from upper caste category. In generation-II, in the under developed area, 72.34 of respondents, who were mobile belonged to upper castes whereas in the developed area 74.60 per cent of the mobile respondents were from the upper caste group. The statistical analysis showed that there was a significant correlation between the caste and mobility in both the generations of developed as well as underdeveloped area.

### **Education and mobility**

Education of the respondents was a very important factor in their spatial and occupational mobility Table 5.2.13 indicated that in generation-I in both the underdeveloped and developed area, there was no significant correlation between education and mobility, may be because of low education level in generation-I. But in generation-II, there was a significant correlation between the education and mobility in both developed and underdeveloped area. In the underdeveloped area in generation-II, 53.19 per cent of the respondents, who were mobile, were educated above matric level whereas this percentage was 71.43 for the developed area (Table 5.2.13). The analysis revealed that higher the educational level higher the mobility and vice versa.

### **Family type and mobility**

Table 5.2.13 reflects the correlation of mobility with socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. Table indicated that in generation-I, 66.67 per cent of mobile respondents underdeveloped area and 77.27 per cent in developed area were living in nuclear families. In the generation-II the percentages of mobile respondents living in nuclear families in underdeveloped and developed area were 74.47 and 66.67 per cent respectively. The value of  $\chi^2$  indicated that family type and mobility were significantly correlated i.e. people living in nuclear families were more mobile than others.

### **Exposure to mass media and mobility**

The respondents who were more exposed to mass media sources were more mobile. In generation-I, in underdeveloped area, 83.33 per cent of the mobile respondents had more mass media exposure than others (Table 5.2.13). In developed area, 54.44 per cent of the mobile respondents had more media exposure. In generation-II media, exposure had increased. In developed area people were more exposed to such media as compared to underdeveloped areas. The  $\chi^2$  value indicated that people who were more exposed to mass media were more mobile than others. The reason may be that the people come to know about new occupations through such media like TV, newspapers etc.

#### 5.2.14 Land purchased and sold

Most of the holdings i.e. about 75.00 per cent were small (less than 2 hac) and unevenly distributed. The proportion of smaller holdings has substantially increased whereas larger holdings declined over generations in India.

At the aggregate level, during the previous generation 30.00 per cent of the respondents had purchased landholdings whereas in generation-II only 14 per cent did so (Table 5.2.14). The purchase of land, on an average, was also considerably higher (12.93 hac) during the previous generation as compared to the present generation (4.15 hac). The purchase of land was more in developed than underdeveloped area in generation-I. In the under developed area, generation-I had purchased lesser land as compared to developed area. In generation-II, in the under developed area the purchase of land was more than developed area. A few of the landowning households (17.00%) had reduced their landholdings during their father's life time against 41.50 per cent during their son's life-time. The reduction in the size of landholdings through its selling out was also higher in generation-II (5.83 hac) as compared to generation-I (1.7 hac). In contrast, the medium and large farmers had sold out lesser land as compared to marginal and small farmers in generation-I. In the generation-II 7 per cent large farmers and 9.00 medium farmers had the land whereas

**Table 5.2.14 Per household average land purchased and sold (ha) during father's and respondents life time in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Categories	Land purchased (ha)		Land sold (ha)	
	G-I	G-II	G-I	G-II
<b>Underdeveloped</b>				
M	1.4(3.00)	0.9(2.00)	1.0(7.00)	2.9(12.00)
S	1.7(4.00)	1.1(3.00)	0.9(3.00)	3.1(13.00)
M	8.5(10.00)	2.4(4.00)	0.9(7.00)	2.8(9.00)
L	12.4(13.00)	5.3(5.00)	0.3(2.00)	2.7(5.00)
Average	6.0(30.00)	2.43(14.00)	0.78(19.00)	2.87(39.00)
<b>Developed</b>				
M	2.6(3.00)	0.6(2.00)	0.9(5.00)	2.8(12.00)
S	2.3(5.00)	1.3(4.00)	1.2(4)	2.0(14.00)
M	9.5(10.00)	2.1(3.00)	1.0(3.00)	2.1(9.00)
L	13.3(12.00)	2.9(5.00)	0.5(3.00)	2.9(9.00)
Average	6.93(30.00)	1.72(14.00)	0.93(15.00)	2.95(44.00)
<b>Overall</b>				
M	2.0(6.00)	0.75(4)	0.95(12.00)	3.35(24.00)
S	2.0(9.00)	1.2(7.00)	1.05(7.00)	3.05(27.00)
M	9.0(20.00)	2.25(7.00)	0.50(10.00)	2.95(18.00)
L	12.85 (25.00)	4.1(10.00)	0.40(5.00)	2.80(14.00)
Average	6.47(60.00)	2.07 (28.00)	0.85(34.00)	2.92(83.00)

Figures in the parentheses are number of households

14.00 and 13.50 per cent of the marginal and small farmers respectively had sold their land. The average land sold out in generation-I was 1.7 hac against 5.83 hac. in generation-II. The results of the study were also supported by Singh (1993).

#### **5.2.15 Reasons of land sale**

It becomes clear from Table 5.2.15 that the reduction in the size of landholdings was mainly due to splitting of families which alone contributed for 62.5 and 72.13 per cent of such reduction cases in the study area. The smaller holdings were the important factor which influenced the sale of land by the respondents. At the aggregate level, family division had accounted for 62.5 per cent of the total sale of land during previous generation against 72.13 per cent in the present generation. In contrast, reduction in land size due to its sale was more (36.00%) during present generation than in the previous generation (22.00).

The analysis of data set out in Table 5.2.15 indicate that the reduction in land size due to family division was less in the large and medium farmers as compared to the marginal and small farmers. Sale of land was also less in vogue in case of medium and large farmers as compared to the marginal and small farmers. The reasons may be that the marginal and small size of holdings were uneconomical and not able to generate sufficient resources because of which their selling out was a compulsion for such farmers. The results of the study were also supported by Singh (1993).

Table 5.2.15 Major sources of reduction in owned land in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Category	Family division		Sale of land		For repaying back loans		Gifts*	
	G-I	G-II	G-I	G-II	G-I	G-II	G-I	G-II
<b>Underdeveloped</b>					%age of total area			
M	79	85	8	12	3	29	1	9
S	63	77	10	15	4	27	-	8
M	56	65	12	16	3	18	1	5
L	44	53	4	3	-	6	-	-
Average	60.5	70.0	8.5	11.5	2.5	20.00	0.5	5.5
<b>Developed</b>								
M	78	91	12	27	2	15	1	4
S	73	76	13	31	3	11	-	2
M	56	67	16	23	2	7	-	1
L	49	63	13	17	-	1	-	-
Average	64.00	74.25	13.50	24.50	1.75	8.50	0.25	1.75
<b>Overall</b>								
M	78.5	88.0	10.00	19.50	2.50	22.00	1.00	6.50
S	68.0	76.5	11.50	23.00	3.50	19.00	-	5.00
M	56.0	66.0	14.00	19.50	2.50	12.50	0.50	3.00
L	46.5	58.0	8.50	10.00	-	3.50	-	-
Average	62.5	72.13	11.00	18.00	2.13	14.25	0.38	3.63

\*Dowry etc.

### 5.2.16 Average family income

The average family income of landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers has been given in Table 5.2.16. The average family income of generation-II was deflated with the consumer price index of 1975. The constant factor taken was 0.348. The table indicated that in both the study areas i.e. under developed and developed, the average income has increased in the later generation than the former one.

**Table 5.2.16** Average family income of selected households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	Average family income (Rs./Annum)					t-value
	G-I		G-II		Per cent Change	
	Average family income	Per capita income	Average family income	Per capita income		
<b>Under developed</b>						
LL	7439.41	34.45	17988.32	121.54	31.80	29.86**
M	9706.37	25.52	79623.80	622.95	32.52	16.34**
S	14669.96	172.57	99827.79	718.18	40.48	14.67**
M	39053.80	202.85	175977.47	1181.11	50.60	17.89**
L	59909.88	357.71	218619.94	1214.56	64.91	15.61**
<b>Developed</b>						
LL	10002.10	45.01	22780.80	158.20	27.76	14.01**
M	19457.88	71.92	92468.18	733.88	35.22	13.80**
S	18786.74	214.94	101537.86	882.93	50.47	12.53**
M	35947.97	272.98	215856.13	1598.93	56.82	9.91**
L	69769.43	304.52	259195.19	1705.24	61.50	10.43**

The statistical analysis showed that there was a significant change in income levels of all the categories of respondents. The income has increased with proportionate increase in farm size in both the areas. It is obvious from the table that maximum change was occurred in case of large farm families i.e. 64.91 and 61.50 per cent respectively in under developed and developed area. The results of the study are also supported by Kumari (2003).

### 5.2.17 Expenditure pattern

In table 5.2.17 (a & B) efforts have been made to calculate the total average expenditure pattern of landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers for the years 1975 and 2005, and change (%) in both the expenditure pattern was also calculated. The data presented in Table 5.2.17 on the pattern of total expenditure of respondents on different household items indicated that in generation-I the maximum expenditure was on food items and the minimum on socio-religious ceremonies and education in both the developed and under developed areas in all the categories. Table also indicated that in generation-II the expenditure on food items was decreasing with increase in farm size but it was increasing on education and medical in both the study areas. The results are supported by Kumari (2003) in her study.

Table 5.2.17(a) Expenditure pattern of selected households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Size category	Average family expenditure (per/annum)									
	G-I					G-II				
	Food	Clothing	Education	Medical	Socio Religious	Food	Clothing	Education	Medical	Socio Religious
<b>Under developed</b>										
LL	3726.14	860.45	95.55	247.05	94.66	7459.24	2222.45	1256.70	577.4	1256.18
M	4141.74	973.91	173.91	330.30	95.52	27624.8	6633.5	3061.15	3505.18	2369.9
S	5611.43	1339.71	194.29	361.76	162.71	34366.79	9451.33	5696.19	5826.7	3768.5
M	6268.52	1466.67	294.44	377.78	197.59	52494.07	14186.10	9699.21	10382.3	6976.3
L	10633.33	2200	633.33	1466.67	266.00	62856.91	18295.14	12114.17	15618.73	10087.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>30381.16</b>	<b>6840.74</b>	<b>1390.52</b>	<b>2783.56</b>	<b>817.48</b>	<b>184801.81</b>	<b>50788.52</b>	<b>31827.42</b>	<b>35910.28</b>	<b>24458.38</b>
<b>Developed</b>										
LL	2824.20	963.93	104.20	228	81.38	8560.25	4257.1	2556.89	678.7	1368.1
M	4626.96	1082.61	189.13	253.48	88.04	29465.14	9834.7	5879.18	3675.14	2179.1
S	5950.00	1500.00	238.26	304.35	149.91	27855.20	8691.05	8979.18	5519.3	3859.53
M	8263.41	1790.24	465.12	1416.28	185.12	60982.35	12565.30	10987.13	9726.5	7051.28
L	1173.89	2260.56	680.56	1744.61	259.72	71967.80	15754.36	18734.36	18197.14	11805.16
<b>Total</b>	<b>33403.46</b>	<b>7597.34</b>	<b>1677.27</b>	<b>3946.72</b>	<b>764.17</b>	<b>208820.74</b>	<b>51102.51</b>	<b>47136.75</b>	<b>37796.78</b>	<b>26263.17</b>

**Table 5.2.17(b) Change in expenditure pattern of selected households in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Items	Generation-I	Generation-II	Per cent Change	T-value
<b>Food</b>				
Under developed	6026.23	12853.44	11.53	6.54**
Developed	6680.71	14523.90	17.40	5.39***
Overall	6378.47	13688.62	14.60	5.91**
<b>Clothing</b>				
Under developed	1368.15	3532.44	48.19	3.64**
Developed	1519.47	3554.28	33.92	4.03**
Overall	1443.81	3543.36	35.42	4.71***
<b>Education</b>				
Under developed	278.10	2213.66	65.99	16.84**
Developed	335.45	3278.46	67.34	18.65**
Overall	306.78	2746.06	66.67	15.49**
<b>Medical</b>				
Under developed	556.71	2497.63	48.64	21.16**
Developed	789.33	2628.84	33.04	18.34**
Overall	673.03	2563.24	40.34	20.06**
<b>Socio-religious</b>				
Under developed	163.50	3237.43	68.00	29.63**
Developed	152.85	1826.66	55.06	22.39**
Overall	158.17	2532.04	56.53	26.40**
<b>Total</b>				
Under developed	8442.69	24334.50	68.23	16.65**
Developed	9744.82	25812.13	62.34	17.31***
Overall	8960.26	25073.32	65.34	16.84**

\*\*Significant at 5% level

\*\*\*Significant at 10% level

### 5.3 FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIO-ECONOMIC MOBILITY

#### 5.3.1 Factors affecting mobility

Factors like education, industrialization urbanisation, technological advancement, small size of holdings etc. played a very important role in mobility (Table 5.3.1). The data in the table indicated that education was the most important factor of mobility with mean score 2.55 in generation-I. In the second generation, rank one was given to change in traditional occupations with mean score of 25.80 which indicated that now-a-days all people were free to adopt any occupation. Rank 3 was given to unemployment, as it was considered a major social problem and thus the people were helpless to take up any occupation to earn money. Exposure to mass media and industrialization were given 4th and 5th rank with mean scores 2.20 and 2.05 respectively.

In generation-II, rank 3rd was given to industrialization and fourth given to technological advancement. It was also evident from the table that marginal and small farmers had changed their traditional occupation because of uneconomical size of holdings. Table showed that encouragement by parents and role of women in decision making did not play any important role in socio-economic mobility and were given 14th and 15th rank respectively. The analysis of the table indicated that there was a significant difference between factors of two generations and also between the factors themselves. Vermani *et al* (2004) also supported that education plays an important role in mobility.

Table 5.3.1 Factors affecting mobility in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Factors	G-I										G-II					Average mean
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean				
1. Education	2.0	2.50	2.50	2.75	3.0	2.55(1)	2.50	3.00	2.75	3.00	3.00	2.75(2)	2.65(1)			
2. Exposure to mass media	1.0	2.00	2.00	2.50	2.75	2.05(4)	1.75	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.35(6)	2.20(4)			
3. Industrialization	2.75	2.25	2.00	1.00	0.50	1.70(6.5)	2.75	2.25	2.50	2.25	2.00	2.40(3)	2.05(5)			
4. Urbanisation	2.50	1.00	1.00	1.75	2.00	1.65(8)	2.50	2.00	1.50	2.00	2.50	2.05(8)	1.85(9)			
5. Westernization	0.00	0.50	0.50	1.00	1.75	0.75(15)	0.75	2.00	1.75	2.00	2.25	1.55(12)	1.35(12)			
6. Economic independence of women	0.00	0.50	1.25	1.50	1.00	0.85(13)	0.50	1.50	2.50	1.50	1.75	1.80(10)	1.32(13)			
7. Small size of holdings	0.00	2.75	2.50	2.00	2.00	1.85(5)	0.00	2.50	2.75	2.50	2.75	2.20(7)	2.02(6)			
8. Level of social development	0.50	2.25	1.25	2.00	2.50	1.59(10)	0.75	2.00	1.25	1.50	2.00	1.35(14)	1.52(10)			
9. Unemployment	2.50	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.00	2.25(3)	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.00	2.00	2.40(4.5)	2.33(3)			
10. Technological advancement	0.75	1.25	1.50	2.00	2.50	1.60(9)	1.75	2.00	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.40(4.5)	2.00(7)			
11. Change in work culture	1.25	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.25	1.30(11)	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.50	1.65(11)	1.47(11)			
12. Economic hardships	2.75	2.00	1.50	1.25	2.00	1.70(6.5)	2.50	1.75	2.00	1.75	1.50	2.00(9)	1.95(8)			
13. Change in traditional occupation	2.75	2.50	2.25	2.00	2.00	2.30(2)	3.00	2.75	2.75	3.00	2.50	2.80(1)	2.55(2)			
14. Encouragement by parents and relatives	0.25	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.80(14)	0.50	1.00	1.00	1.75	2.00	1.25(15)	1.12(14)			
15. Role of women in decision making	0.00	0.75	0.75	1.50	1.25	0.90(12)	0.25	1.00	1.75	2.00	2.00	1.40(13)	1.1(15)			
Mean						1.65						2.02				

F-Ratio CD (5%)

Between categories

Between generations

Between factors

Generations x factors

NS - Non significant,

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

4.06

15.12

6.95

0.70

0.1905

0.5219

NS

## **5.4 IMPACT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC MOBILITY ON SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS**

### **5.4.1 Impact of mobility on family and marriage**

Due to mobility there was disintegration of joint family system with mean score of 38.2 and rank I (Table 5.4.1), due to their outside employment and living in urban areas. Respect of elders was also declining now-a-days. There was an increase in women participation in decision making process and less control of parents over their children. Children have become more confident and independent, so they do not agree with the decisions taken by their parents. Family spend less time together at home because of their busy schedule and fast life.

Now-a-days people become have self centred and do not like going outside. Due to increase in expenditure and prices people allow their women to work outside. So we can say that with increase in the level of education, women employment, women emancipation, there is an increase in the number of nuclear families and people have become more materialistic and self-centred.

### **5.4.2 Impact of mobility on economic institution**

Table 5.4.2 depicts the impact of mobility on economic institutions. Data indicated that there was an increase in the family expenditure pattern on different household items. There was an increase in expenditure on education, clothing, health and social ceremonies etc.

Table 5.4.1 Impact of mobility on family and marriage in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I					G-II					Average mean		
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M		L	Mean
1. Family interaction reduced	24	34	26	30	22	27.2(7)	28	36	34	28	20	29.2(5)	28.2(7)
2. Less control over children	36	32	36	30	24	31.6(3)	32	28	30	24	32	28.8(7)	30.2(4)
3. More independent children	24	36	30	28	24	28.4(6)	30	36	32	28	20	29.2(5)	28.8(6)
4. Spend less time together	34	30	32	28	26	30.0(4)	30	36	30	26	24	29.2(5)	29.6(5)
5. Less worries and quarrels in family	24	20	18	22	24	21.6(12)	20	30	24	22	20	23.2(14)	22.4(13)
6. Disintegration of joint family	28	32	34	34	36	32.8(1)	30	32	34	36	36	33.6(1)	33.2(1)
7. Increased women participation in decision making	28	28	30	28	32	29.9(5)	26	30	32	32	34	30.8(3)	30.3(3)
8. Respect of elders is declining	36	34	30	32	30	32.4(2)	34	32	30	32	32	32.0(2)	32.2(2)
9. Reduction in informal visits	18	28	32	24	18	24.0(9.5)	20	30	26	24	20	24.0(13)	24.0(11)
10. More scientific attitude	20	24	28	26	30	25.6(8)	24	28	26	30	32	28.0(9)	26.8(8)
11. Less expenditure on social obligations	14	16	14	18	18	16.0(15)	20	24	22	26	30	24.4(12)	20.2(15)
12. Increase in love marriages	16	18	22	20	28	20.8(14)	16	20	24	24	28	22.4(15)	21.6(14)
13. Divorce rate is increasing	10	20	24	22	30	21.2(13)	12	24	28	28	32	24.8(11)	23.0(12)
14. Women employment	20	32	26	22	20	24.0(9.5)	24	34	30	30	24	28.4(8)	26.2(9)
15. Live peaceful life	24	20	18	22	26	22.0(11)	26	32	28	22	26	26.8(10)	24.4(10)
Mean						25.7						27.6	

F-Ratio CD (5%)

Between categories 4.51

Between generations 7.67

Between impact 9.39

Generations x impact 1.06

1.3376

3.6634

NS

NS – Non significant

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

Table 5.4.2 Impact of mobility on economic institution in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I						G-II						Average mean
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	
1. Increase in family income	20	20	18	30	34	24.4(7)	20	18	14	28	36	23.2(9.5)	23.8(7)
2. Agriculture production has increased	-	28	30	36	38	26.4(4)	-	24	20	34	38	23.2(9.5)	24.8(6)
3. Increased family expenditure	30	30	17	30	28	30.4(2)	28	32	30	34	34	31.6(1)	31.0(1)
4. Rise in standard of living	-	16	24	28	34	20.4(9.5)	8	10	24	32	38	23.6(7)	22.0(10.5)
5. Tendency to purchase luxurious items has increased	6	20	22	36	38	22.4(8)	10	18	18	30	36	22.4(11)	22.4(9)
6. Fragmentation of land holdings	-	34	36	36	36	27.6(3)	-	38	38	34	32	28.4(3)	28.0(3)
7. Materialistic values/consumerism	20	24	24	26	30	24.8(6)	24	26	26	30	32	27.6(5.5)	26.2(5)
8. Indebtedness increased	24	32	36	34	28	30.8(1)	28	34	36	28	28	30.8(2)	30.8(2)
9. Improved economic status of people	16	22	20	28	36	20.4(9.5)	18	20	20	24	36	23.6(8)	22.0(10.5)
10. Own more immovable property	-	8	8	24	34	14.8(12)	4	12	20	30	38	20.8(12)	17.8(12)
11. More mechanization in agriculture	-	26	30	36	38	26.0(5)	-	34	30	36	40	28.0(4)	27.0(4)
12. Economic inequality increased	8	14	20	24	22	17.6(11)	18	22	28	34	36	27.6(5.5)	22.6(8)
Mean						23.8						25.9	

F-Ratio CD (5%)

Between categories 33.83

Between generations 4.63

Between impact 3.13

Generations x impact 0.61

NS - Non significant

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

Due to the increase in expenditure pattern the rural indebtedness has also increased. In the rural areas there was fragmentation of landholdings because of the splitting of joint family system. So individual land holdings became uneconomic especially in the case of marginal and small farmers. There was an increase in the number of small and marginal farmers. Buying behaviour of people has changed. They have become more materialistic and consumerist. They buy more luxurious items than before like cars, scooters, sofa set, mobile phones etc. Economic inequality has increased. The rich have become richer and the poor have income but the poorer.

#### **5.4.3 Impact of mobility on religious and caste system**

It was evident from data that the intercaste relations have improved (Table 5.4.3). Due to the occupational mobility, people of different caste groups now interact more freely as they work at the same place. People have become more materialistic now-a-days than before and less superstitious. There was an increase in the number of intercaste marriages. In the villages there was a change taking place in caste hierarchy. Earlier the brahmins were on the top, but now people give preference to economic status of the family and not the caste status.

#### **5.4.4 Impact of mobility on education**

Table 5.4.4 indicated the impact of mobility on education. As we know education is one of the most important factors in mobility. Data in table revealed that there was an increase in the occupational opportunities.

**Table 5.4.3 Impact of mobility on religious and caste system in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05**

Impacts	G-I				G-II				Average mean		
	LL	M	S	L	LL	M	S	L			
1. Worship time decreased	28	30	30	28	30	16	10	18	20	15.6(11)	22.4(7)
2. Respect for other religions increased	26	20	16	22	16	24	20	16	26	20.4(9)	20.2(9.5)
3. People became less superstitious	8	12	18	20	24	20	30	34	36	27.6(7)	22.0(8)
4. Antagonistic feelings among people of different religions and castes decreased	18	6	12	10	10	8	12	6	8	8.8(12)	10.0(12)
5. People became more materialistic	24	28	30	36	36	26	32	30	34	28.4(6)	29.6(4.5)
6. Discrimination of lower castes has decreased	24	28	26	26	32	28	36	32	34	32.0(3)	29.6(4.5)
7. Caste rigidity is declined	20	22	24	30	36	30	32	34	28	30.8(5)	28.6(6)
8. Caste occupation changed	20	30	34	36	32	28	32	34	36	32.8(1)	31.6(2)
9. Increase in inter-caste marriage	16	20	20	22	20	18	22	20	28	20.8(8)	20.2(9.5)
10. Inter-caste relations have improved	22	30	28	32	38	34	36	40	38	31.8(4)	33.4(1)
11. Change in caste hierarchy	50	18	20	14	18	16	20	18	14	16.4(10)	16.2(11)
12. No importance of caste 'Panchayat'	24	26	28	30	38	34	30	32	38	32.4(2)	30.8(3)
Mean						21.3					22.2

F-Ratio CD (5%)

5.24

4.61

54.93

4.84

3.97451

3.6693

5.1892

Between categories

Between generations

Between impact

Generations x impact

NS - Non significant,

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

Table 5.4.4 Impact of mobility on education in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I						G-II						Average mean
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	
1. More awareness of new educational institutions	8	17	20	24	34	20.0(4)	14	24	30	34	38	28.0(2.5)	24.0(4)
2. More awareness of new vocational courses	6	10	16	14	16	12.4(6)	8	16	24	30	34	22.4(5)	17.4(6)
3. Knowledge level of people improved	8	20	22	28	38	23.2(2.5)	16	26	30	32	36	28.0(2.5)	25.6(2)
4. More educational opportunities	0	2	4	10	18	6.8(7)	4	10	12	20	26	14.4(7)	10.6(7)
5. More occupational opportunities	20	28	30	34	38	30.0(1)	30	36	36	40	40	36.4(1)	33.2(1)
6. Educational level of children improved	10	20	24	28	34	23.2(2.5)	10	24	34	32	38	27.6(4)	25.4(3)
7. More scientific attitude	4	16	18	24	28	18.0(5)	8	16	20	24	30	19.6(6)	18.8(5)
Mean						19.08						25.2	

F-Ratio CD (5%)  
 114.88  
 80.26 1.3701  
 64.44 2.5632  
 2.35 3.6249

Generations x impact  
 Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

Knowledge level of the people has increased because they have more mass media exposure now than before. Educational level has also increased because people have now become more aware of new educational institutions and have realised the importance of education. People have become more scientific. They have more educational opportunities now than before. There was an increase in the number of educational institutions too.

#### **5.4.5 Impact of mobility on political institutions**

The lower caste people have reservation in elections. Even in one of the study villages the 'sarpanch' was scheduled caste and other caste members were educated and were ex-servicemen. Caste based 'panchayat' system has also changed and equal rights are given to all the people. There was reservation for women also. These changes may be because of improved awareness level of the people about their rights and duties. The educational level has also increased. People who were more mobile had more outside exposure and even more exposed to mass media.

#### **5.4.6 Positive effects of socio-economic mobility on society**

Every thing has its good and bad points also. The data depicted in Table 5.4.6 shows the positive effects of mobility. Table indicated that there was a change in the interaction pattern of higher and lower castes. There was an increase in the educational level and more specialization was there in society in every field.

Table 5.4.5 Impact of mobility on political institution in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I					G-II					Average mean	
	LL	M	S	M	L	LL	M	S	M	L		Mean
1. Caste based panchayat system has changed	24	26	28	30	38	28	34	30	32	38	32.4(3)	30.8(2)
2. Reservation of lower caste in politics/ elections	20	30	32	32	32	30	36	34	34	36	34.0(1)	31.6(1)
3. Reservation for women	16	24	28	26	32	24	30	30	34	38	31.2(4)	28.2(4)
4. Equal rights	20	26	30	28	34	30	32	32	34	36	32.8(2)	30.2(3)
5. Change in caste hierarchy	10	18	20	14	18	14	16	20	18	16	16.8(5)	16.4(5)
Mean	25.44											29.44

F-Ratio CD (5%)  
 21.92  
 32.07 1.4318  
 63.62 2.2639  
 1.70 NS

Between categories  
 Between generations  
 Between impact  
 Generations x impact  
 NS - Non significant,  
 Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

Table 5.4.6 Positive effects of mobility on society in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I					G-II					Average mean		
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M		L	Mean
1. Eradication of social evils	12	14	20	24	28	19.6(3)	20	24	32	18	18	24.4(6)	21.0(5)
2. Encourages healthy competition	8	10	24	22	9	16.4(5)	16	24	30	34	36	28.0(4)	22.2(4)
3. Helps in social advancement	6	6	14	16	20	12.4(9)	18	14	14	30	32	21.6(9)	17.0(9)
4. Cultural transmission	-	8	6	10	8	6.4(10)	12	20	18	24	28	20.4(10)	13.4(10)
5. Social contacts between higher and lower castes	24	28	26	30	38	29.2(1)	36	34	38	38	38	36.8(1)	33.0(1)
6. Emancipation of women	-	6	14	24	26	14.0(8)	10	24	26	30	28	23.6(7)	18.8(8)
7. Life style has changed	8	14	14	20	22	15.6(6)	18	22	36	34	36	29.2(3)	22.4(3)
8. Higher education and specialization	14	18	22	30	34	23.6(2)	20	36	38	40	40	34.8(2)	29.2(2)
9. People more prosperous and uplifted socially	4	10	16	18	24	14.4(7)	14	20	30	34	34	26.4(5)	20.4(6)
10. Family feels more pleasure and comforts	16	8	10	20	30	16.8(4)	22	16	20	26	30	22.8(8)	19.8(7)
Mean						16.14						26.32	

F-Ratio CD (5%)

Between categories 41.76

Between generations 145.85

Between impact 16.15

Generations x impact 1.67

NS - Non significant,

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

1.6771

3.934

NS

Due to mobility there was an increase in the healthy competition between people with respect to education, income, social status etc. Due to mobility there was a gradual eradication of some social evils like untouchability etc. Social mobility has also helped in social advancement and change in the life style of people. They have been uplifted socially and economically too. Data have further indicated that social mobility also helped in cultural transmission to some extent. The people of different cultures and caste background come closer and borrow the culture traits of each other's culture.

#### **5.4.7 Negative impacts of social mobility on society**

The data in Table 5.4.7 indicated the negative impacts of mobility on society. As the change is always in positive direction and it cannot be stopped, still it had some negative impacts on society. Table showed that there was an increase in mental tensions and stress and strains. There was an increase in family disorganisations and increase the number of nuclear families. Respect of elders is gradually declining and people have become more aggressive. The crime rate has also increased to some extent. The population has become more materialistic and individualistic. The interpersonal relations have become more materialistic. So at the end we can say that change is always for the good but it still has some negative impacts on the society.

Table 5.4.7 Negative impacts of mobility on society in the two generations in Amritsar and Gurdaspur districts, 2004-05

Impacts	G-I						G-II						Average mean
	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	LL	M	S	M	L	Mean	
1. Crime rate increased	20	28	30	34	36	29.6(6)	22	26	34	32	32	29.2(4)	29.4(5)
2. Individualism increases	24	36	30	32	34	32.2(4)	16	28	26	30	24	25.6(6.5)	28.4(6)
3. Personal and family disorganization	26	26	24	22	14	23.2(7)	20	26	22	24	18	22.0(9)	22.6(8)
4. Mental strain and tension increased	24	32	36	38	34	32.8(2)	20	36	32	34	38	32.0(1)	32.4(1)
5. Social problems like unemployment, poverty increases	20	28	24	20	18	22.0(8)	28	26	24	28	22	25.6(6.5)	23.8(7)
6. Respect of elders is not there	34	36	36	34	36	35.2(1)	32	28	30	24	30	28.8(5)	32.0(2.5)
7. Increase in slums	16	18	22	20	24	20.0(9)	26	24	22	20	26	23.6(8)	21.8(9)
8. People become more aggressive	22	28	34	30	36	30.0(5)	24	30	28	30	36	29.6(3)	29.8(4)
Mean						21.24						26.48	

F-Ratio CD (5%)

4.60

Between categories

0.92

Between generations

18.57

Between impact

1.69

Generations x impact

NS

NS - Non significant,

Figures in the parentheses are Rank orders

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Mobility as the term has come to be used in sociological studies, in the simplest term, is the measurable movement in a time, a space or a social frame work. It is a wide spread phenomenon bringing a degree of fluidity into the social stratification system of society. Social mobility is the movement of the individuals or groups from one social position to another.

Social mobility has been viewed from two angles i.e. intergenerational and intragenerational. The intergenerational mobility refers to that mobility which occurs due to shift in father's or son's status in the society. The intragenerational mobility or career mobility refers to mobility of the same person from his first social position to another position in his/her life time. Social mobility refers to change in education, income, expenditure, social relations and occupation.

The rate of social mobility has been increasing in the past few decades owing to increase in education, industrialization, urbanization etc. Although these changes had been more conspicuous in the western society, yet they are also evident in the Indian society of late.

The present study entitled "A socio-economic study of intergenerational mobility among rural population of Majha Cultural Zone

of Punjab – A Longitudinal Analysis” was undertaken with the following specific objectives :-

1. To study the socio-economic characteristics of respondents.
2. To examine the various factors responsible for mobility.
3. To analyse the correlation between inter-generational mobility and socio-economic characteristics of respondents, and
4. To study the impact of intergenerational mobility on social institutions.

The study was conducted in Majha Cultural Zone of Punjab which was comprised of two districts i.e. Amritsar and Gurdaspur. Two blocks from each study district were then selected at random i.e. one from the remote region and one suburban or developed, thus making a total sample of four blocks. Two villages were then selected from each study block i.e. one village near the town and another away from the town or city making a sample of eight villages. Then a list of all the inhabitants of selected villages was made and categorized as landless agricultural labourers, marginal farmers, small farmers, medium farmers and large farmers keeping in view the national classification. On the basis of this list, a sample of 25 households from each study village were selected randomly by selecting five households from each category mentioned above, to make a total sample of 200 households in all. From each selected household, one eldest male member each from the two different generations was selected

for data collection thereby making a total sample of 400 respondents. Personal-interview-method was used for data collection.

### **Main findings**

1. Most of the farmer respondents in both the generations were from higher caste whereas most of the agricultural labourers were from scheduled castes.
2. In generation-I the educational level of the respondents was low. A majority (64.50%) of the total respondents were illiterate in generation-I whereas in generation-II, 47 per cent were educated upto matric and 37.5 per cent above matric level.
3. Majority of the respondents from generation-I were living in joint families whereas 59.00 per cent of the respondents in generation-II were living in nuclear families.
4. Dependency ratio was higher in generation-I (2.75) as compared to generation-II (2.29), and it was higher among landless agricultural labourers and less in case of large farmers.
5. Majority of the respondents in generation-II had owned various household items like TV, scooter, LPG, mobile phone, cooler etc. But it was less in generation-I. Mechanisation of farm had also increased in generation-II as compared to generation-I. There was also an increase in the volume of credit taken by the respondents of generation-II. It indicated that rural indebtedness has increased now

than before.

6. The average size of holding was 5.70 hac in the underdeveloped area and 5.14 hac in the developed area in generation-I and decreased to 4.33 hac and 3.38 hac respectively in generation-II.
7. There was a change in the occupational structure of rural households. Only 14 per cent of the respondents in generation-I had changed their occupation as compared to 55.00 per cent in generation-II. People who changed their caste occupation have shifted to other non-traditional occupation such as skilled workers, govt./private jobs and private business etc. The landless agricultural labourers, marginal and small farmers had shifted to industry and worked as skilled as well as unskilled workers there. On the contrary, most of the mobile medium and large farmers had shifted toward some private business such as commission agents, industry owner etc. They have changed their occupation only because of job security, to supplement family income and to improve their social status. The financial indebtedness uneconomical land holdings were the main reasons for such a change.
8. The ranking of different occupations by the respondents showed that they preferred the medical profession the most, being followed by engineers, professors and the farming. The private service was given the lowest rank.

9. Caste, age, education and mass media exposure have had a significant correlation with mobility. People from higher caste, younger in age more educated, living in nuclear families and having more exposure to mass media were more mobile than otherwise.
10. There was more fragmentation of land holdings in generation-II as compared to generation-I. Major reasons for such a land reduction were family division and selling out of land. In generation-II the sale of land was more whereas in generation-I, the opposite was more true.
11. Education, change in traditional caste based occupation, unemployment, mass media exposure, industrialization, small size of holdings were the major factors of inter-generational occupational mobility in the study area.
12. There was an increase in the number of nuclear families over time. There was also an increase in the average family expenditure pattern.
13. There was a change noticed in life style of people, increased social contacts, more specialization and social advancement. However, there were some negative effects also of inter-generational occupational mobility which were reported by the respondents. These were : increased mental tension, stress, strain and depression. The people had also become more materialistic and individualistic now than before.

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## APPENDIX- I

### A Socio-Economic Study of Inter-Generational Mobility Among Rural Population of 'Majha' Cultural Zone of Punjab - A Longitudinal Analysis

Village

Block

1

- |                                |                         |                 |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| a) Name of the respondent      | j) Age                  |                 |
| b) Sex                         | k) Caste category       |                 |
| c) Religion                    | l) Housing type (P/K/M) |                 |
| d) Educational qualification   | m) Occupation (Main)    |                 |
| e) Operational holding (acres) |                         |                 |
| I) Owned                       | II) Leased in           | III) Leased out |
| IV) Mortgaged in               | V) Mortgaged out        |                 |
| f) Total family income         |                         |                 |
| g) Marital Status              | M/UM/Any other          |                 |
| h) Family type                 | Joint/Nuclear           |                 |

i) Family data or background information

S.No.	Name	Relation to the respondent	Sex (M/F)	Age (yrs.)	Education	Marital Status		Occupation	Annual income
						M	UM		

Working force and total number of family member and earners in the family

n) Expenditure pattern

Items	Rs./Month	
	Generation-I	Generation-II
Food		
Clothing		
Education		
Transportation		
Medical		
Health		
Sanitation		
Social Ceremonies		
Recreation		

- o) Exposure to mass media
- i) Do you receive the newspaper daily Y/N
  - ii) Do you receive any magazine Y/N
  - iii) Do you go to cinema Y/N
  - iv) Do you keep contacts with locality and other cosmopolite sources of information? Y/N

p) Farm power and machinery owned

Sr. No.	Items	Generation-I	Generation-II
1	Tractor		
2	Trolley		
3	Generator		
4	Bullock cart		
5	Thresher		
6	Chaffcutter		
7	Sprayer		
8	Combine harvest		
9	Reaper		
10	Tractor shed		
11	Tubewell (electric motor/diesel engine)		
12	Pumping set		
13	Seed cum fertilizer drill/puddler		
14	Winnower		
15	Leveller		
16	Any other (Please specify)		

Do you possess the following domestic items

Sr. No.	Items	Generation-I	Generation-II
1	LPG		
2	Gobar gasplant		
3	Toaster		
4	Scooter/motor cycle		
5	Car		
6	Television		

7	Tape recorder		
8	VCR/VCD/VCP		
9	Water purifiers		
10	Mixer grinder		
11	Food processor		
12	Cooler		
13	Ac/Geyser		
14	Washing machine		
15	Refrigerator		
16	Inverter		
17	Cable/Dish		
18	Computer		
19	Any other (Please specify)		

q) Credit behaviour of the respondents before and after the adoption of new agricultural technology

r) Farming practices before and after the adoption of new technology in agriculture

S. No.	Items	Credit	
		Before	After
1	Professional money lender		
2	Relative/friend neighbour		
3	Cooperatives		
4.	Commercial banks		

s)

a. What do you want your children to be?

b. In what type of school you have studied?

c. In what type of school your children are studying?

If no, give reasons

d. Do you want your child to follow your caste occupation? Y/N

Give reasons for both.

e. How much satisfied you are with your present occupation? Y/N

Very much satisfied / Satisfied / Not satisfied

f. Are you satisfied with your present income ? Y/No

- g. What was the occupation you most aspired for in your young age?
- h. Which occupation would you like most for your sons and why.
- i. What is the highest educational level would your like to give to yours sons.
- j. Why you have changed your caste occupation.
- k. What are the reasons for linking the present job?
- l. What are the reasons for disliking the present job?
- t Please, give prestige ranks to the following occupations

Name of occupation	Excellent	Good	Average	Below average	Poor	Rank
Farming						
Industrial labour						
Industry owner						
School teacher						
Village level worker						
Carpenter						
'Priest'/'granthi'						
Doctor						
Engineer						
Professor						
Barber						
Leather worker						
Sweeper						
Lawyer						
Any other (Please specify)						

- u. What are the main motivating and compelling factors responsible for mobility.

Pull factors	Agree	Natural	Disagree
New economic effort unities			
Better employment			
Job security			
Regular employment			
More pleasant living			

- To enhance status
- For carver of children
- Future prospect
- To raise income
- Any other (Please specify)

Pull factors	Agree	Natural	Disagree
Strained family relations			
Low wages			
Left village because of quarrel			
Indebtedness			
Small size of holdings			
Lack of employment			
Any other (Please specify)			

v. a. Change in owned operational land holdings from that of their fathers

Sr. No.	Category	Landless	Operational holdings (acres)				Net
			Father's	Son's	Purchase (Added)	Sold	

b. Major sources of loss in owned land over generation category

Category	Loss of owned land through											
	Family division		Sale		Repayment of loans		Unable to manage		Gifts (dowry)		Others	
	Fs	Ss	Fs	Ss	Fs	Ss	Fs	Ss	Fs	Ss	Fs	Ss

w. Factors affecting social and economic mobility.

Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
Education					
Exposure to mass-media					
Industrialization					
Urbanisation					

- Economic independence of women
- Westernisation
- Aspirational level
- Small size of holding
- Level of social development
- Change in caste and traditional occupation
- Unemployment
- Lower social status
- Emancipation of women
- Change in work culture
- Technological advancement
- Encouragement by parents and relatives
- Economic hardships
- Arousal of self interest in particular job
- Role of women in decision making
- Give reasons how these factors affecting intergenerational mobility

- x Impact of mobility on social institutions
- a. Impact on family and marriage institution

Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
Family interaction reduced					
Respect of elders is declining					
Elders are getting neglected					
Disintegration of joint family					
Spend less time together at home					
Reduction in informal visits					
No interaction pattern outside home.					
Increased aspiration level of people					
Less worries and quarrels in the family					
Live peaceful life					
Scientific attitude of family members					
Avoid heavy expenditure on social obligations					
Importance of nuclear family increased					

Disparity among family members

Allow women to work

Generation gap increasing more in present days

Family is a chief agent of socialization of children

Increased women participation indecision making process

Divorce rate is increasing

Irritated behaviour of family members

More independent children

Less control over their children

Increase in love marriages

Any other (Please specify)

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b. Impact of mobility on education of people

Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
---------	----	---	---------	----	-----

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People become more aware of new educational institutions

Become more aware of new vocational courses

More educational opportunities in India and abroad

Knowledge level of people increased

More scientific attitude of people

Educational level of children increased

Occupational opportunities are more

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Any other (Please specify)

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c. Impact on religious life and caste

Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
---------	----	---	---------	----	-----

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Worship time of people decreased

Respect for other religions has increased

People become less superstitious

Less importance is given to the religions

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Antagonistic feelings among people of different religion and caste

People become more materialistic

Promise offerings to god forgetting your wish done

Consider some days a suspicious/bad

Believe in omen's

Discrimination of lower castes has decreased

Inter dining of people of different caste has affected

Rigidity of caste is going away

Caste occupation has changed

Everyone can get a high job

Increase in inter caste marriages

Inter caste relations have been improved

Change in caste hierarchy

No importance of caste Panchayat

Any other (Please specify)

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d. Impact on economic institutions

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Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
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Income of family has increased

Agriculture production has increased

Increased family expenditure

Tendency to purchase luxurious items has increased

Rise in standard of living

Small size of holdings

Buying behaviours of people has increased

Own more immovable property

Own more luxurious items now than before

Indebtedness has been reduced

Improved economic status of people

More mechanisation in the agriculture

Any other (Please specify)

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e. Impact on political institution

Factors	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
Caste based panchayat system has changed					
Reservation of lower caste has been given in politics/election					
Jagmani system has been changed					
Change in caste hierarchy					
Reservation for women					
Equal rights are given to all people for every aspect of life.					
Any other (Please specify)					

f. Effect of socio-economic mobility on society

Positive impact	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
Eradication of social evils					
Better transportation and communication facilities					
Social obligations easier and frequent					
Encourages competition					
Helps in social advancement					
Cultural transmission					
Social contact with higher castes					
Emancipation of women					
Reduce narrow mindedness					
Inequality has decreased					
Facilitate inventions and discoveries					
High education and specialization					
People more prosperous and uplifted socially					
Family feels more pleasure and comforts					
Any other (Please specify)					

Negative impact	SA	A	Neutral	DA	SDA
Crime rate increases					
Individualism increases					
Personal and family and disorganization of					

society

Increase mental strain and diseases

Wastage of human energy

Increase loneliness and psychological and social isolation

Disintegration of morals

Increases social problems like unemployment, poverty urbanisation etc.

Respect of elder is not there

Increase in slums

Lack of accommodation

Juvenile delinquency increases

Any other (Please specify)

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