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# The Covid-19 Lockdown in India: Gender and Caste Dimensions of the First Job Losses

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# The Covid-19 Lockdown in India: Gender and Caste Dimensions of the First Job Losses \*

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## Abstract

Based on national-level panel data from Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (CMIE)'s Consumer Pyramids Household Survey (CPHS) database, this paper investigates the first effects of Covid-19 induced lockdown on employment. Examining the employment status of 37,000 individuals before and after the lockdown, we find that individuals were 12.8 percentage points less likely to be employed post-lockdown. On a pre-lockdown base of 38.9 percent employment, this translates into a 33 percent reduction in the likelihood of being employed. The decline in employment is not gender and caste neutral. Men are more likely to be employed overall, and drop in male employment is greater in absolute terms. However, women who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase were 23.5 percentage points *less* likely to be employed in the post-lockdown phase, compared to men. Male heads of household were 11.3 percentage points more likely to be employed post-lockdown, compared to female heads of household. Caste differences are not as sharp as gender differences, but we find that lockdown affected employment of the disadvantaged caste groups relatively more adversely than the higher ranked group of castes.

JEL Classification Codes: J1, J6, O53

Keywords: Covid-19, Lockdown, Employment, Gender, Caste, India

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# 1 Introduction

India imposed one of the strictest lockdowns in the world to contain the spread of Covid-19 pandemic. According to the Stringency Index, developed by the Blavatnik School of Government at the University of Oxford, by the 22nd of March, 2020, India had already reached the highest possible level of stringency (index value=100)<sup>1</sup>. This involved a near-complete shutdown of all economic activity. What have been the labour market implications of this shutdown? The first order effects are evident in the massive increase in total unemployment. However, is the pandemic and its aftermath a great leveller? Are the labour market implications of the lockdown neutral to social identity?

Globally, it is estimated that in the Covid-19 pandemic, women are likely to be more vulnerable to losing their jobs compared to men<sup>2</sup>. A research note from Citibank estimates that there are 220 million women in sectors that are potentially vulnerable to job cuts. It has been estimated that of the 44 million workers in vulnerable sectors globally, 31 million women face potential job cuts, compared to 13 million men<sup>3</sup>. There are reports from ongoing research for the US which indicates that 1.4 million people became unemployed in March, but women have been hit harder than men, with a 0.9 percent increase in unemployment, compared to 0.7 percent for men<sup>4</sup>.

What would a similar picture for India reveal? Note that between 2004-5 and 2017-18, while gaps between men and women in educational attainment have narrowed considerably, gaps in labour force participation have widened. Female labour force participation rate (FLFPR), stubbornly and persistently low in India over decades, has declined precipitously over the last 15 years. Will the already widening gender gap in work participation and employment widen further due to the lockdown and recession? Are the women who are already in the labour force (a small and declining proportion of working age women) more vulnerable to job losses compared to men? Are the socio-economically disadvantaged caste groups more vulnerable compared to the upper castes? More generally, are the effects of the pandemic-induced lockdown neutral with respect to social identity, or are the outcomes worse for groups that are already disadvantaged?

This paper investigates these questions using data from the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (CMIE)'s Consumer Pyramids Household Survey (CPHS) database, which is a private data provider, collecting weekly data at the national level since January 2016. It is a longitudinal data set covering 174, 405 households (roughly 10,900 households per week, and 43,600 per month). Each household is followed three times per year. Since data from the National Sample Survey are only available for 2017-18, the CMIE CPHS data are currently the only national-level source for assessing changes in employment in real time, especially if we want to assess the immediate effect of the lockdown imposed in the last week of March, 2020.

Most commentaries on the impact of the lockdown on jobs in India are either based on small

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<sup>1</sup><https://covidtracker.bsg.ox.ac.uk/stringency-scatter>

<sup>2</sup>Alan et al, 2020. Ongoing research, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GGGb9zXHH4g>

<sup>3</sup><https://www.bloombergquint.com/global-economics/women-s-job-losses-could-shave-1-trillion-off-global-gdp>, accessed 23 May 2020

<sup>4</sup><https://www.bbc.com/future/article/20200409-why-covid-19-is-different-for-men-and-women>, accessed June 2, 2020

localised surveys (APU, 2020; NDIC, 2020), or on extrapolations combining older national data with smaller surveys (Majid, 2020). While these provide valuable insights which broadly confirm the results of this paper, the attempt here is to go further to examine the national picture. Since the CMIE tracks the same individuals over time, it allows us to compare the post-lockdown employment status of households to their pre-lockdown status and precisely estimate the causal effects of the lockdown.

To the best of my knowledge, this is the first exercise to empirically examine the first effects of the lockdown on total employment as well as gender and caste differentiated labour market outcomes in India. The evidence from India is important for several reasons. It is a large emerging economy with a third of the world's population. It has massive potential for growth, but over the last six-seven years, has been struggling with slowing growth, rising inequality and significant gender and caste gaps. The differentiated effects of aftermath of the pandemic need to be recognised and addressed through evidence-based pro-active policies that actively work towards reversing the widening of gaps. A failure to recognise differential effects will exacerbate the existing challenges, with serious negative consequences for the economic and social health of the economy.

## 1.1 Main Results

Comparing a sample of more than 37,000 Individuals pre- and post-lockdown (April 2020), we find that on average, they were 12.8 percentage points less likely to be employed post-lockdown. On a pre-lockdown base of 38.9, this translates into a 33 percent reduction in the likelihood of being employed. However, individuals who were employed in the pre-lockdown period were 53 percent more likely to be employed in the post-lockdown period compared to those who were not employed earlier.

Examining the gender differences reveals that men are more likely to be employed overall, and drop in male employment is greater than female by 17.6 percentage points. While employment in the pre-lockdown phase is the strongest predictor of post-lockdown employment, this effect varies across men and women. Women who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase were 23.5 percentage points *less* likely to be employed in the post-lockdown phase. Male heads of household were 11.3 percentage points more likely to be employed in post-lockdown phase, compared to female heads of household who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase. The caste differences are not as sharp as the gender differences, but the lockdown affected employment of the disadvantaged caste groups relatively more adversely compared to the higher ranked group of castes.

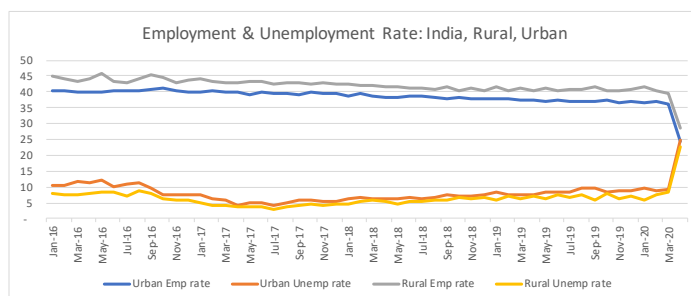
The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides the employment context in which India imposed the Covid-19 induced lockdown. Section 3 provides the estimates for determinants of post-lockdown employment using panel data. Section 4 offers concluding comments.

## 2 The Context: Trends in Employment and Unemployment

It is helpful to examine the lockdown-induced employment effects in the context of the recent trends in employment patterns. Figure 1 plots of the employment and unemployment rates separately for rural and urban India between January 2016 and April 2020 based on CMIE data. The time series shows some monthly fluctuation, but overall reveals a fairly flat line, indicating that the post-lockdown fall in employment is not a seasonal feature that just happened to coincide with the lockdown.

We can see that between March 2020 and April 2020, as a result of the virtual suspension of economic activity, rural and urban unemployment rates shot up and employment rates dropped sharply, in sharp contrast to the trend prior to March 2020.

Figure 1



Note: Author's calculations based on CMIE aggregate data

The average number of employed persons during March 2019-20 were 403,770,566. In April 2020, this number came down to 28,22,03,804, which was a roughly 30 percent drop. Overall, employment in April 2020 was 70 percent of the employment in the preceding year.

The corresponding numbers for the average employment during March 2019-20 were 36,05,21,240 and 4,32,49,326 for men and women, respectively, revealing the large pre-existing gender gaps in employment status. In April 2020, these numbers had declined to 25,60,29,085 for men and 2,61,74,719 for women. In other words, the fall in employment for men was 10,44,92,155, whereas for women it was 1,70,74,607. Contrary to the reported global trends, in absolute numbers more men lost jobs in the first month of the lockdown in India.

However, the gendered dimension of the losses have to be assessed in the context of pre-existing gaps. One way to do this would be to take the ratio of April 2020 employment (absolute numbers) to the average employment in the preceding year (between March 2019 and March 2020). This ratio is 0.61 for women and 0.71 for men, which means that the fall in employment for women (relative to their pre-lockdown level) was greater. Female employment in April 2020 was at 61 percent of the pre-lockdown yearly average, whereas for men, it was 71 percent.

Similarly for caste groups, the ratio of April 2020 employment to previous year average is 0.77 for upper castes, 0.71 for Other Backward Classes (OBC) and intermediate castes, 0.64 for Scheduled Castes (SC) and 0.78 for Scheduled Tribes (ST)<sup>5</sup>. This indicates that the lowest ranked, stigmatised and marginalised Dalits suffered the largest fall in employment.

## 2.1 Rural-Urban Differences

The drop has been higher in urban areas (33 percent) compared to rural (29 percent), i.e. employment figures for April 2020 are 67 and 71 percent of the average employment during the preceding year (March 2019 to March 2020), for urban and rural areas, respectively. This is as expected because sectors that shut down completely included manufacturing and services, which are mostly urban based. What is surprising is why the gap between urban and rural job losses is not larger, given that the CMIE sample is disproportionately urban (Table 1).

Coming to the gender division across rural-urban sectors, rural women's employment suffered the largest fall, as it stood at 57 percent of the previous year's average. This ratio was 73 percent for rural men, 69 percent for urban women and 67 percent for urban men. The decline in female LFPRs since 2004-5 has been driven by a decline in LFPRs of rural women. The pandemic-induced suspension of economic activity reveals a similar pattern.

Caste divisions within the urban population reveal the following ratios: 0.64 for urban UC; 0.69 for urban OBC+ intermediate castes; 0.67 for urban SCs and 0.78 for urban STs. Thus, the biggest relative decline in employment has been for urban UCs. The corresponding rural ratios are 0.88, 0.72, 0.64 and 0.78 respectively. Thus, in rural India, upper castes have suffered the least from the fall in employment. The largest relative fall is seen in rural SCs, which is also driving the overall pattern for SCs.

An important point to note is these figures represent the rural-urban division (more or less) before and during the great exodus of internal migrants in the form of reverse migration from cities back to their villages. In April 2020, as the uncertainty over the persistence of the lockdown increased, with no clarity about when (if) economic activity would resume, migrants started their long journey back home under extremely hazardous and precarious conditions, often walking hundreds of kilo meters; several never made it back and died on the way.

The data for April 2020 has to be understood in the context of the flux, as it reflects the rural/urban status of workers based on where they were working at the time of the survey. A later survey would better capture the new rural-urban distribution of workers reflecting reverse migration.

As we noted above, we can probe these aggregate numbers deeper to generate precise estimates of the impact of the lockdown on employment status.

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<sup>5</sup>Castes (jatis) in India are grouped into large administrative categories created for the purpose of affirmative action. Scheduled Castes are the lowest ranked and the most stigmatised. Members of SC castes often use the term Dalit or 'oppressed' as a term of pride. OBCs are a group of intermediate castes and communities

### 3 The Lockdown Effect on Employment

Following a one-day “janata curfew” (people’s curfew) on March 22, 2020 that appeared to be a trial run, India imposed a strict nationwide lockdown on March 25, 2020, which shut down virtually all economic activity barring essential services. The lockdown is being relaxed in phases; however, economic activity remained nearly fully shutdown throughout the month of April. This section presents estimates for the determinants of post-lockdown employment. Since this is a panel on the same set of individuals, any change in employment status can be attributed to the lockdown.

#### 3.1 Data and Variables

The latest wave of CPHS (Wave 19) unit-level data covers the period January- April, 2020, with a subset of households being surveyed each month. This allows us to identify households surveyed during April 2020, i.e. during lockdown. The previous wave (Wave 18), conducted during September-December 2019 allows us to identify the pre-lockdown status of these households. Most households surveyed in April 2020 were last surveyed in December 2019 (although some were surveyed earlier).

I created a pre- and post-lockdown panel (two time periods) of households for whom data was available in both Wave 18 and Wave 19. Even though the post-lockdown period was one of extreme flux and uncertainty, the swift change by the CMIE from face-to-face to phone interviews enabled them maintain the size of their sample. The panel consists of two time periods, with 37,384 individuals per time period.

Most of the variables in the data set are standard and I have used them in the original form. Some variables needed to be consolidated as follows. CMIE data has four categories for employment status. One, is the straightforward “employed” category, referring to individuals who are employed at the time of the survey. The second category, “unemployed, not willing, not looking” refers to the voluntarily unemployed individuals. The third category is “unemployed, willing and looking for a job”, and the fourth is “unemployed, willing and not looking for a job”. The last two categories include the involuntarily unemployed, i.e. they are unemployed and willing to work, with some actively looking for a job, and others not actively looking at the time they were surveyed. I combined the latter two categories into a composite “unemployed” category. Thus, my employment status categories are “employed”, “unemployed” and “out of the labour force (OLF)” (the latter being involuntarily unemployed individuals in the original CMIE data.)

The data has a detailed industry (38 categories) and occupation (21 categories) classification. As there is a large variation in frequencies across these multiple categories, I consolidated industry categories into four broad categories and the occupation categories into nine broad categories. This reclassification makes the analysis more concise and meaningful, yet retains the necessary granularity needed for a nuanced understanding of the effects of the lockdown on employment of different population segments.

I converted in the “age in years” variable into two age group categories: “younger” (between 15 and 35 years) and “older” (older than 35). I also created a category for female heads of household (*femhh*), a dummy variable which takes the value of 1 when the head of household is female, and 0 when the head of is male. The data set had five caste (social group) categories. I combined OBCs and intermediate castes into a consolidated category, which for simplicity I am calling “OBC”, but we need to remember that this category includes other intermediate castes that may legally not be OBCs. I consolidated the religion categories into five: Hindu, Muslim, Sikh, Christian and other religions.

## 3.2 Summary Statistics

Tables 1 and 2 show the means and standard deviation of key descriptive statistics in the pre-lockdown time period (N=37384). We see that 47 percent of the sample is female; 53 percent male; 13 percent households had a female head (*femhh*); 45 percent were younger and 54 percent older; roughly 21 percent UC, 48 percent OBC and intermediate castes, 24 percent SC and 7 percent ST. 87 percent of the sample is Hindu, roughly 7 percent Muslim, 2.7 percent Sikh, 1.8 percent Christian. 37 percent of the sample is rural and 63 percent is urban. Compared to the other national surveys, the urban sector is over-represented in the CMIE sample.

Table 2 shows that roughly 23 percent individuals were engaged in agriculture; roughly 2 percent in primary home production; 26 percent in secondary activities (manufacturing, construction and processing) and 49 percent in the service sector. The occupation division shows that 63 percent of the sample was not working (either retired, aged, home makers or students). 10 percent were self employed professionals or in business; 13 percent blue-collar workers; 3.6 percent white-collar workers; 2.3 percent agricultural labourers; 4 percent small farmers; 3 percent big farmers (called organised farmers in the data); 0.9 percent small hawkers and traders and 0.1 percent managers or legislators.

Table 3 shows the changes in employment status across the two rounds. In the pre-lockdown period, 31 percent of individuals were employed, 4 percent were unemployed and 47 percent were out of the labour force (OLF). In the post-lockdown period, the employed proportion declined to 22 and the unemployed proportion rose to 15 percent. There was no change in the OLF category in the first month of the lockdown.

## 3.3 Pre-lockdown Employment by Social Groups

As a first step, we can examine if there were significant differences between social groups in pre-lockdown employment. I ran a linear regression<sup>6</sup> of a binary variable (employment) sequentially on each of the social group variables as follows. This was estimated for individuals age 15 and above, with standard errors clustered at the state level.

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<sup>6</sup>Using STATA’s *areg* command after *xtset*, with state of residence as the absorbed variable

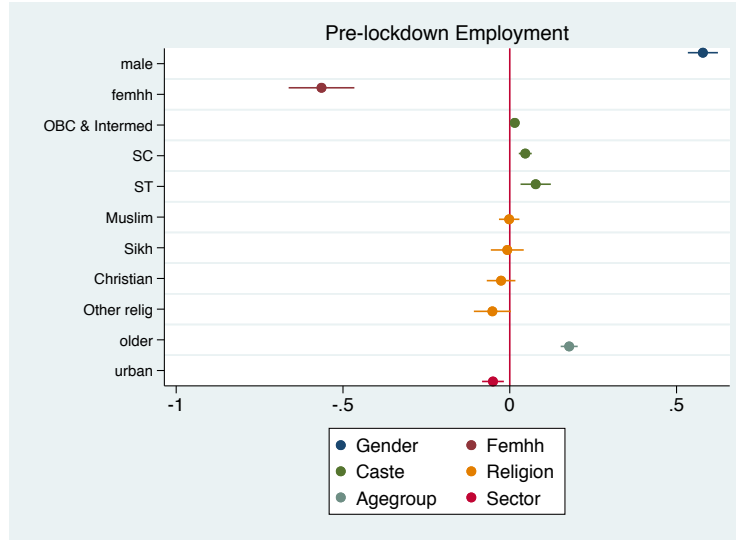


$$Emp_{i0} = \alpha_i + \beta_{ij}X_{ij} + \gamma_{ik}State_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (1)$$

where  $Emp_{i0}$  takes the value 1 if the individual  $i$  is employed in period 0 (pre-lockdown); 0 otherwise.  $X_{ij}$  is the  $j^{th}$  covariate for individual  $i$ . The covariates  $X$  were: gender (base category female), female head of household (base category male head of household), caste (base category upper caste), religion (base category Hindu), sector (base category rural), and agegroup (base category younger).

The results can be seen in Figure 2 and Table 4.

Figure 2



The results show that men were 58 percentage points more likely to be employed in the pre-lockdown phase compared to women. Women heads of household were 56 percentage points less likely to be employed than male heads of household. Interestingly, OBCs, SCs and STs were more likely to be employed compared to UCs by 1.5, 4.7 and 7.8 percentage points, respectively. There were no significant differences between religious groups. Older individuals (older than 35) were 17.8 percentage points more likely to be employed compared to younger and urban individuals were 5 percentage points less likely to be employed compared to rural.

These estimates do not control for any other characteristics, other than state fixed effects; thus, these should be interpreted carefully as associations.

### 3.4 The Lockdown Effect on Employment

How did employment change as a result of the lockdown? What role did social identities play (gender and caste) in shaping post-lockdown employment, i.e. which sections were more likely to be employed in the post lockdown period? We turn to this investigation next.

To check for the effect of the lockdown on total employment, I ran two regressions on individuals who were 15 years and older, with state fixed effects (absorbed) and standard errors clustered at the state level.

$$Emp_i = \alpha_i + \beta_1 lockdown + \gamma_{ik} State_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (2)$$

and

$$Emp_i = \alpha_i + \beta_1 lockdown + \beta_2 laggedemployment + \gamma_{ik} State_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (3)$$

where  $Emp_i$  is a binary variable taking a value of 1 if the individual was employed, and zero otherwise. Lockdown is a binary variable with the value 1 for April 2020, and lagged employment is a lagged dependent variable with a value of 1 if the individual was employed pre-lockdown.

Figure 3 and Table 5 show the results for Equations 2 and 3. We see individuals were 12.8 percentage points less likely to be employed post-lockdown. On a pre-lockdown base of 38.9, this translates into a 33 percent reduction in the likelihood of being employed. However, individuals who were employed in the pre-lockdown period were 53 percent more likely to be employed in the post-lockdown period compared to those who were not employed earlier.

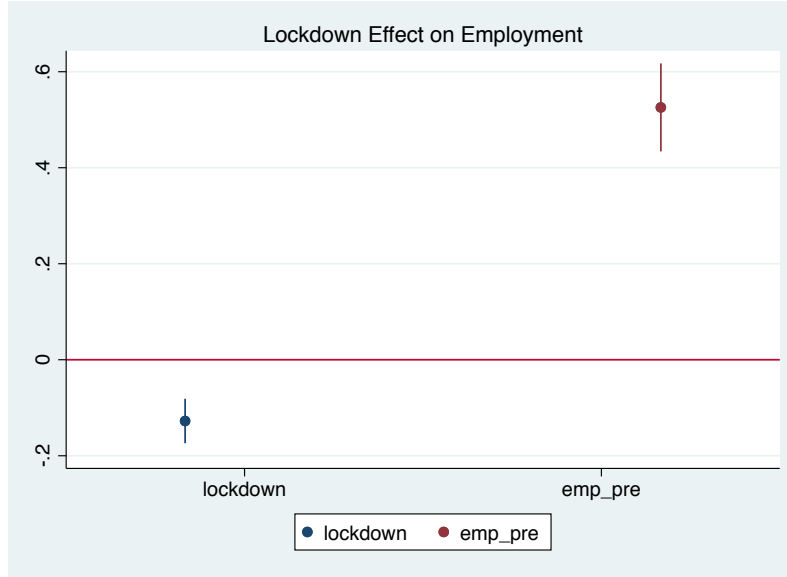
#### 3.4.1 Gender Differentiated Employment Effects

We saw that men were more likely to be employed in the pre-lockdown period than women. How does the effect of lockdown on male and female employment change, conditional on other covariates that also affect employment?

The dependent variable is the binary variable employment (value 1 if individual is employed). I ran three equations, as earlier on individuals who were 15 years and older, with state fixed effects (absorbed) and standard errors clustered at the state level.

$$Emp_i = \alpha_i + \beta_1 gender + \beta_2 lockdown + \beta_3 gender * lockdown + \beta_4 agegroup + \beta_5 sector + \gamma_{ik} State_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (4)$$

Figure 3



$$Emp_i = \alpha_i + \beta_1 gender + \beta_2 lockdown + \beta_3 gender * lockdown + \beta_4 laggedemployment + \beta_5 (laggedemployment) * gender + \beta_6 agegroup + \beta_7 sector + \gamma ik State_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (5)$$

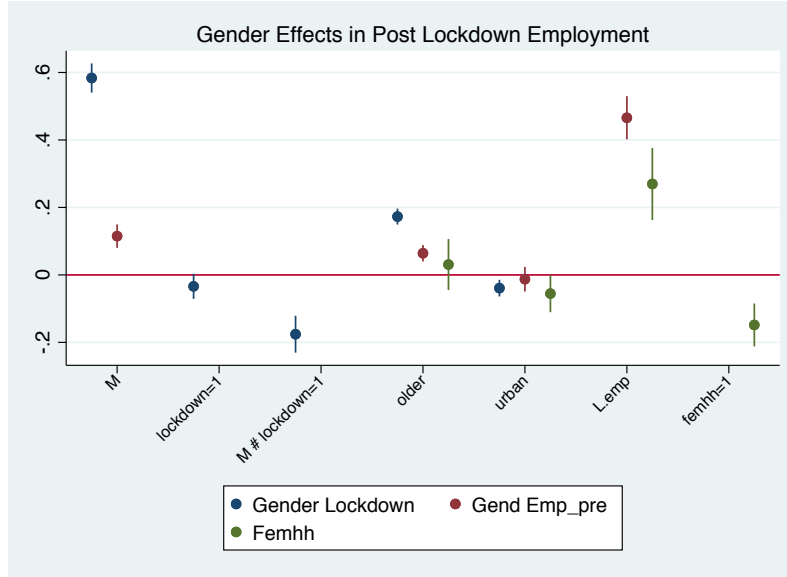
Equation 5 is estimated also with the binary variable female head of household (femhh) in place of gender.

Figure 4 and Table 6 present the estimates.

We see from Column (1) in Table 6 (and estimates labelled 'gender' in Figure 4, the results of Equation 4) that men are more likely to be employed overall, and drop in male employment is greater than female by 17.6 percentage points. However, we have seen that those employed in the pre-lockdown period are more likely to be employed in the post-lockdown period. We see that again in Column (2). The interaction of female with lagged employment is negative and shows that women who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase were 23.5 percentage points less likely to be employed in the post-lockdown phase (estimates labeled 'Gend Emp\_pre'). Column (3) shows the same results for female heads of household. The interaction term shows that employed male heads of household were 11.3 percentage points more likely to be employed in post-lockdown phase, compared to female heads of household who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase.

Thus, the gender gap in post-lockdown in employment is robust to the addition of controls, and pre-lockdown employment has a stronger positive effect on men's post-lockdown employment than

Figure 4



on women's.

### 3.4.2 Caste Differentiated Employment Effects

What does a similar exercise for caste group reveal? Figure 5 and Table 7 show the estimates for Equations 4 and 5, with the categorical variable caste in place of the binary variable gender.

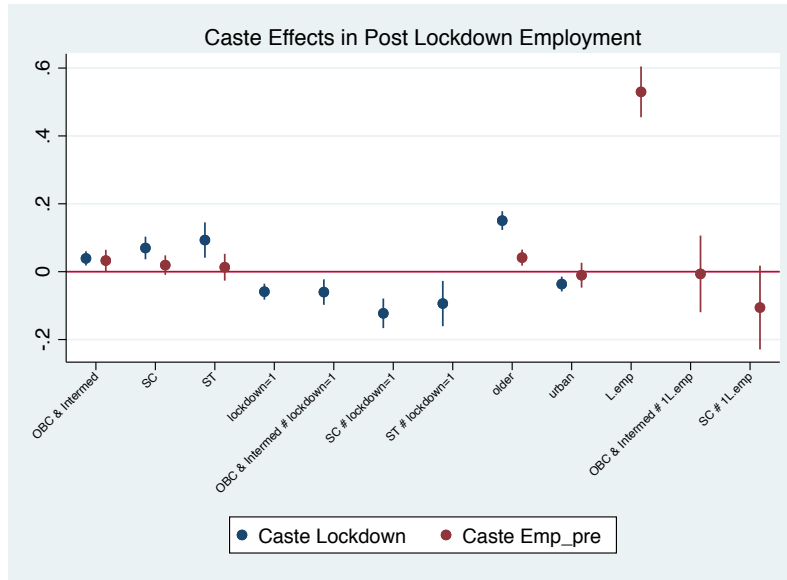
We see that the lockdown had a differential effect on caste groups. It affected the employment status of OBCs, SCs and STs more adversely than it did for upper castes. Employment for these three groups declined by 6, 12.3 and 9.4 percentage points more in the post-lockdown period compared to upper castes. Column (2) of Table 7 shows that pre-lockdown employment made upper castes 12.8 percentage points more likely to retain employment compared to the base category of STs.

The same exercise repeated for religion (Appendix Figure A1 and Table A1) shows that the lockdown did not have a differential effect on main religious groups.

## 4 Concluding Comments

The Covid-19 pandemic has often been described as a great leveller. In several countries, early evidence suggests that regardless of which sections of the population are more vulnerable to the disease, the impact of the lockdown and economic shutdown, which is the key pandemic control strategy everywhere, has been highly uneven, hitting the already vulnerable groups much harder than. In this sense, the pandemic has exposed the many fault lines that lay beneath the surface

Figure 5



across the world.

India, home to a third of the world’s population, is no exception to this global pattern. Using longitudinal national data which has information both pre- and post-lockdown on over 37,000 households, this paper presents estimates for the early differential effects of the lockdown by estimating the probability of being employed in April 2020, the first month of the extremely stringent national lockdown.

The main effect of the lockdown was that in the first month (April 2020) individuals were 12.8 percentage points less likely to be employed, compared to the pre-lockdown period. On a pre-lockdown base of 38.9, this translates into a 33 percent reduction in the likelihood of being employed. However, individuals who were employed in the pre-lockdown period were 53 percent more likely to be employed in the post-lockdown period compared to those who were not employed earlier.

Due to the pre-existing significant and widening gender gaps in labour force participation rates and employment, the absolute number of men who lost employment is larger than the absolute number of women who lost employment in the first month of the lockdown. However, even though pre-lockdown employment was the strongest predictor of post-lockdown employment, its effect was different for men and women. Women who were employed in the pre-lockdown phase were 23.5 percentage points less likely to be employed in the post-lockdown phase.

The lockdown had a differential effect on caste groups as well in that it affected the employment status of OBCs, SCs and STs more adversely than it did for upper castes. However, interestingly, the lockdown did not have a differential impact on employment of the main religious groups.

While women and Dalits have suffered disproportionately more job losses, risky, hazardous and stigmatized jobs are exclusively their preserve. All frontline health workers (ASHA, or Accredited Social Health Activists) are women; manual scavengers are exclusively Dalit. Thus, for several women and Dalits, the choice seems to be between unemployment and jobs that put them at risk of disease and infection and make them targets of vicious stigma.

India's economy has "suffered even more than most" as a result of the lockdown (Economist, 2020). Additionally, India's growth rate has been faltering over the last six years, decelerating each year since 2016, to reach 3.1 percent in the first quarter of 2020 (January to March), just before the Covid-19 pandemic hit India. The lockdown is likely to push the economy into a deep recession with the very real possibility of massive job losses.

As I was writing this, the first set of figures released by the CMIE for May 2020 (not yet available to researchers) revealed that in the month of May 2020, with a gradual re-opening of the economy, 21 million jobs got added to the low base of April 2020. This is a hopeful sign. However, despite this the April unemployment rate remained at a high rate of 23.5 percent<sup>7</sup>.

This indicates that the unemployment challenge is massive. To sustain this momentum in the coming months, we need to see strong policies to provide employment and boost demand, in the absence of which job losses might mount, worsening the employment crisis. The results of this paper indicate that in addition to overall unemployment, pre-existing inequalities along gender and caste lines are likely to get reinforced, unless the specific contours of disadvantage are recognised and addressed.

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<sup>7</sup>[https://www.business-standard.com/article/opinion/21-million-jobs-added-in-may-120060101674\\_1.html](https://www.business-standard.com/article/opinion/21-million-jobs-added-in-may-120060101674_1.html)

## 6 Tables

Table 1

	(1)
	<b>Demographic Summary</b>
	mean/sd
female	.4713514
	.4991853
male	.5286486
	.4991853
femhh	.1311224
	.3375486
younger	.4540601
	.4978918
older	.5459399
	.4978918
UC	.2086187
	.4063266
OBC	.475551
	.4994086
SC	.236438
	.4248999
ST	.0712337
	.2572182
Hindu	.8742243
	.3316009
Muslim	.0717954
	.2581523
Sikh	.0265622
	.1608021
Christian	.0185641
	.1349813
rural	.3684731
	.482397
urban	.6315269
	.482397
<i>N</i>	37384

Table 2

	(1)
	Occupation Summary
	mean/sd
agri	.2284368
	.4198402
primhome	.0181511
	.1335025
secondary	.2606585
	.4390093
services	.4927536
	.4999651
managerlegislator	.0016044
	.0400227
SEprofbusiness	.1015636
	.3020776
whitecollar	.0361387
	.1866377
bluecollar	.1325901
	.3391358
agrilab	.0229232
	.1496607
smallfarmer	.0395649
	.1949374
bigfarmer	.0299116
	.1703458
smalltraderhawker	.009327
	.0961262
retiredhome	.6263766
	.483772
<i>N</i>	37365



Table 3

	(1)
	<b>Emp Status</b>
	mean/sd
<b>Pre-Lockdown</b>	
employed	.3190877
	.4661283
unemployed	.0399946
	.1959488
OLF	.4743401
	.4993467
<b>Post-Lockdown</b>	
employed	.215601
	.4112432
unemployed	.146491
	.3536017
OLF	.4738719
	.4993224
<b>Total</b>	
employed	.2673444
	.442576
unemployed	.0932428
	.290774
OLF	.474106
	.4993318
<i>N</i>	89712

**Table 4**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Femhh</b>	<b>Caste</b>	<b>Religion</b>	<b>AgeGroup</b>	<b>Sector</b>
M	0.579*** (26.42)					
femhh		-0.564*** (-11.78)				
OBC & Intermed			0.0150* (2.63)			
SC			0.0465*** (4.92)			
ST			0.0778** (3.52)			
Muslim				-0.00174 (-0.12)		
Sikh				-0.00745 (-0.31)		
Christian				-0.0260 (-1.25)		
Other				-0.0520 (-1.92)		
older					0.178*** (14.36)	
urban						-0.0503** (-3.16)
Constant	0.0857*** (7.45)	0.847*** (135.58)	0.366*** (76.98)	0.391*** (395.59)	0.291*** (43.01)	0.408*** (72.68)
Observations	37384	11760	37079	37384	36711	37384

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

Table 5

	(1)	(2)
	<b>Lockdown</b>	<b>Lag Emp</b>
lockdown=1	-0.128*** (-5.67)	
emp_pre		0.526*** (11.80)
Constant	0.389*** (26.12)	0.0565** (3.27)
Observations	74882	37498

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

Table 6

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Gender Lockdown	Gender Emp_pre	Fem_hh
M	0.584*** (27.81)	0.115*** (6.80)	
lockdown	-0.0339 (-1.87)		
M × lockdown=1	-0.176*** (-6.61)		
older	0.173*** (15.03)	0.0642*** (5.43)	0.0308 (0.84)
urban	-0.0391** (-3.26)	-0.0126 (-0.71)	-0.0554* (-2.07)
L.emp		0.466*** (14.93)	0.270*** (5.18)
F × 1L.emp		-0.235*** (-11.46)	
femhh			-0.148*** (-4.80)
femhh=0 × 1L.emp			0.113* (2.62)
Constant	-0.00158 (-0.06)	-0.00281 (-0.12)	0.243*** (6.45)
Observations	73545	36834	11631

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

Table 7

	(1)	(2)
	Caste lockdown	Caste Emp_pre
OBC & Intermed	0.0391*** (3.84)	0.0327* (2.12)
SC	0.0698*** (4.29)	0.0193 (1.38)
ST	0.0932** (3.68)	0.0131 (0.68)
lockdown=1	-0.0589*** (-5.16)	
OBC & Intermed $\times$ lockdown=1	-0.0601** (-3.29)	
SC $\times$ lockdown=1	-0.123*** (-5.78)	
ST $\times$ lockdown=1	-0.0940** (-2.89)	
older	0.150*** (11.19)	0.0414** (3.60)
urban	-0.0365** (-3.44)	-0.0104 (-0.58)
L.emp		0.530*** (14.55)
Upper Caste $\times$ 1L.emp		0.128** (3.64)
OBC & Intermed $\times$ 1L.emp		-0.00653 (-0.12)
SC $\times$ 1L.emp		-0.106 (-1.76)
Constant	0.275*** (17.73)	0.0186 (1.60)
Observations	72934	36524

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

## 7 Appendix

Figure A1

Figure 6

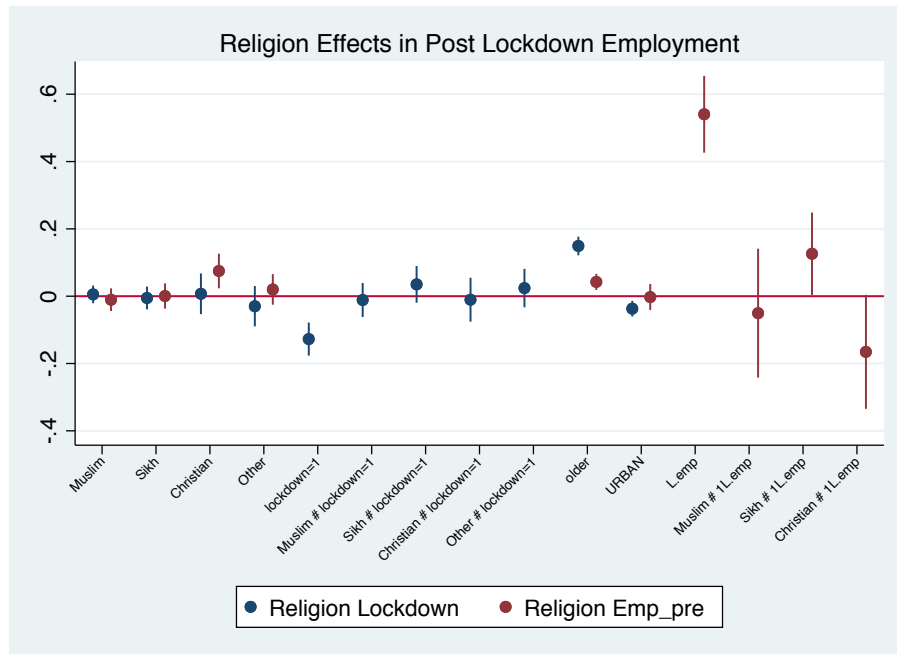


Table A1

	(1)	(2)
	Religion lockdown	Religion Emp pre
Muslim	0.00536 (0.42)	-0.0104 (-0.64)
Sikh	-0.00526 (-0.32)	0.000574 (0.03)
Christian	0.00711 (0.24)	0.0749** (2.99)
Other	-0.0297 (-1.02)	0.0201 (0.91)
lockdown=1	-0.127*** (-5.32)	
Muslim × lockdown=1	-0.0113 (-0.46)	
Sikh × lockdown=1	0.0352 (1.33)	
Christian × lockdown=1	-0.0104 (-0.33)	
Other × lockdown=1	0.0241 (0.87)	
older	0.149*** (11.10)	0.0425** (3.65)
urban	-0.0370** (-3.26)	-0.00249 (-0.13)
L.emp		0.540*** (9.74)
Hindu × 1L.emp		-0.0234 (-0.33)
Muslim × 1L.emp		-0.0504 (-0.54)
Sikh × 1L.emp		0.126* (2.12)
Christian × 1L.emp		-0.165 (-2.01)
Constant	0.318*** (15.10)	0.0351 (1.73)
Observations	73544	36833

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$