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Chapter-II

Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

Tribes were belonging to the poorest and most marginalized sections of Indian society. In India, the tribal population was 8.61 percent of the total population (Census-2011). They had mass illiteracy and extremely poor physical health. Tribes were represented as the people living below the poverty line in India (Ministry of Tribal Affairs, Govt. of India, 2014). There was socio-cultural, historical and political differentiation among different tribal groups as well as regional differentiation in the development indicators of the tribes across the country (Kumar, 2016). In Assam, people of different tribes consist of 12.46 percent of the state population and they were 3.72 percent of the Scheduled Tribes (ST) population of India (Census, 2011). There are 29 different tribal groups in Assam (Ministry of Tribal Affairs, et al.). Bodo is the largest ethnic group belonging to scheduled tribes. Among all tribes, Bodos were 35.06 percent in Assam. In the Chirang district of Assam, about 34.82 percent of people were tribal and out of them, 93.96 percent were Bodo people (Census, 2011). Poverty, poor health and sanitation, illiteracy and other social problems among the tribes downsized the economy as a whole. A review of related literature is very much essential for understanding any aspect of any discipline. Although the study focuses on Bodo people in the Chirang district of Assam, the situations of tribes in many other parts of the country have similarities to a greater or lesser extent. Therefore, a review of the important studies on the socio-economic conditions, poverty, health status and educational status of the tribes in India is relevant for understanding the specifications of the conditions of Bodo people in the study area. This chapter attempts to review the related literature and to present the rationality of this study.

2.2 Literature Related to Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic status (SES) has been conceptualised and measured in various ways since the past. F. W. Taussing (1920) conceptualised SES as the occupational status of the fathers. N. B. Cuff adopted a scorecard in 1934 as a measure of SES which was proposed by V. M. Sims in 1927. A scorecard included questions about items possessed by the home, educational level of parents, occupation of fathers and other relevant information. In earlier studies, the prestige scores of the occupational titles were used as a determinant of the Socio-Economic Index (SEI). Duncan's prestige score-based Socio-Economic Index (SEI) was used most frequently to measure occupational status in different types of social research. After these earlier studies, a more advanced and complicated method such as a factor analysis method for measuring SES had emerged. Researchers calculated SES in different researches considering education, income and occupation by the 1980s. It seems to be a consensus among the researchers that SES should be measured by typically measuring education, income and occupation.

Duncan (1961) estimated socioeconomic index scores by regressing prestige scores on age-standardised occupational levels for 45 categories of occupational titles in *the 1947 North-Hatt prestige study*. He estimated prestige scores for the male occupational incumbents of the *1950 Census of Population*. He showed prestige as a linear combination of two independent variables namely, education and level of income. Duncan used ratings of “Excellent” and “Good” for status gradations of the occupational categories. As the index of education, he measured it by the proportion of males in an occupation with four years of high school or more. Income was measured as the proportion of males with personal incomes of $3,500 or more in 1949. Both of the independent variables were standardized for their respective age distributions.

Blau and Duncan (1967) and Hauser and Featherman (1977) updated the original SEI calculated by Duncan for male occupational incumbents of the *1950 Census of Population* to correspond to the classification scheme of the 1960

Census. They simply matched the 1950 scores into the 1960 occupational codes without recomputing the scores using the 1960 Census data on income and education.

Stevens and Featherman (1981) re-estimated socioeconomic scores for the 1970 census occupational categories using earnings and education data with a modification in the Duncan method. He recommended two sets of indexes, one computed on the characteristics of the male labour force and the other on those of the total labour force. Both used the estimated proportion of "good" and "excellent" ratings as the dependent variable which regressed on the proportion of occupational incumbents with earnings of $10,000 or more in 1969 and the proportion with one or more years of college education in 1970.

Stevens and Cho (1985) revised the socio-economic index for the 1980 census occupational classification scheme due to the major changes in occupational coding in the census classification scheme from 1970 to 1980 in America. They estimated two sets of socioeconomic scores. One was the socio-economic index for total labour force ('TSEI') and another for male-based socioeconomic scale ('MSEI'). TSEI was calculated with the help of the method of regression equation using income and educational attributes of the total labour force of 1970 of America. MSEI was calculated from the income and educational attributes of the male labour force. Another revision in their method was regarding the use of rages and standard deviation in the calculation of TSEI and MSEI for 1980 occupational categories instead of the use of weighted average.

Sharma (1991) viewed that the socio-economic conditions acted as a barrier to the educational attainment of the tribal pupils. The attitude of tribal people towards education was largely influenced by the motive of economic returns and so educational schemes should be immediate job oriented. The size of the family had some influence on the educational level of the family. The communicative factors were the constraints in modernization and the spread of education among tribes in India. He had given importance to the effort to be made to preserve the culture of tribes.

Singh (1994) listed scheduled tribes of India and observed that the characteristics of all the tribal communities were more or less the same in India. They can do hard work in their day to day life. He tried to highlight the socioeconomic status of various tribes of India. Again he expressed that the tribal communities were lagging behind in all aspects of socioeconomic development than other non-tribal in India.

Behera (1994) mentioned that the British government followed a "tribal policy of isolation" or there was a loose administration with very little or no accent on development in the tribal areas. As a result, these areas were backward till independent. He believed that studies relating to the socio-economic development of tribal got importance during the plan period after independence.

Kar (1999) investigatigated socioeconomic characteristics of the women population in North-East India in his research work and found that women were socioeconomically less advanced due to lack of proper education and the existence of traditional social bindings. But particularly in urban areas educated girls wanted to achieve economic independence even before marriage. He found a rising trend of female participation outside the home as an impact of ongoing socio-economic transformation.

Lakshmi (1999) discussed the demographic, geographic, cultural, agricultural and socio-economic characteristics of the different tribal communities. The author emphasized improving the health status of any community, to improve its socioeconomic status. She observed that the nutritional status of any community depended upon food consumption which was influenced by a wide range of factors like agro-climatic differences, foods grown and availability of foods.

Singh (2003) viewed that 93 percent of tribal workers were engaged in agriculture and allied activities in India. They had the land of very poor quality. As a consequence, these agricultural workers had to work additionally to feed their families.

Mondal (2005) observed that socioeconomically better off people enjoyed high nutritional status. Masses of rural people suffered from under nutrition due to the non-availability of work throughout the year. There were health inequalities between indigenous and non-indigenous groups due to the existing socio-economic status gap between these two groups in India.

Maity, Haobijam and Sen (2014) studied socio-economic status for Kuki tribal women. To investigate the socioeconomic status of the Kuki women, they calculated the socio-economic index considering three indices namely, Health Index, Educational Index and Income Index. And finally, a logit regression model was fitted to find out the major factors influencing the socioeconomic status of women. They classified the factors influencing the socio-economic status of Kuki women as social variables, demographic variables and economic variables. The years of schooling of the respondent and health status were considered as social variables. Both of them were found to have a positive influence on socio-economic status. The family size and age of the respondent were two demographic variables. The family size had a negative effect on socio-economic status. Two economic variables namely, the income of the respondent and per-capita consumption expenditure were found a positive effect on the socio-economic status of Kuki women. Out of these six variables, four variables namely the family size, years of schooling, per capita consumption expenditure and income of the respondents were found to be highly influencing the socioeconomic status of Kuki women which was supported by their statistically significant values. They found better socio-economic status for more than half of 80 sample respondents of Kuki tribal women.

Shafiei, et al. (2019) claimed that income, education, occupation, nutrition and social class were the social determinants of the health status of the people in communities. They observed socio-economic status as a complex and multidimensional construct of several socioeconomic domains namely demographic, purchasing ability, employment status, literacy or education, housing or accommodation status, home appliances and personal assets. Introducing comprehended fifteen items were collected under the seven domains

as stated above for socio-economic criteria to calculate the socio-economic status of Iranian households. According to them, the socio-economic status measurement tools were required to be revised and the methodology used for this study provided an on-going basis for updating the SES tools.

2.3 Literature Related to Bodo Community and Socio-Economic Studies

This section reviews literature related to the Bodo community and related socio-economic studies.

Grierson (1903) explained, in the "Linguistic Survey of India", the generic name 'Bodo" which was first applied by Hodgson to mean this sub-section group of the 'Tibeto-Burman Family'. Bodos were called Mesh in Bengal and Baro or Kachari in different parts of Assam. He described the term Bara-fisa linguistically to mean Mesh and Kachari. According to him, Bodo or Bara or Bara-fisa (i.e. Mesh and Kachari) are the same group belonging to the Tibeto-Burman branch of the Sino-Tibetan or Tibeto-Chinese speech family.

Chatterji (1951) mentioned that Bodos were the first settler of the entire Brahmaputra valley, North Bengal and North Bihar. He explained the existence of Bodos in his famous word as "..their area of occupation extended to Cachar district (particularly in the North Cachar Hills) and into Sylhet, and from Cachar and Sylhet they moved further to south, to Tripura State where there is still a Bodo-speaking block in the shape of the Tipra tribe which founded the State and from Tripura, they spread into Comilla and possibly also Naokali district and thus they occupied the mouths of the Ganges by the eastern sea. Except the isolated Khasi and Jaintia Hills, the whole of Assam (barring the eastern parts inhabited by the Nagas and the south-eastern parts inhabited by the Kuki-Chins) and North and East Bengal was the country of the great Bodo people".

Waddell (1975) viewed that the proper name of the 'Kachari', the large semi-Hinduised Mongoloid tribe was involved in many obscurities. According to him, the other tribal groups in Assam were closely related to the Bodo- Kachari.

Roy (1989) expressed that the understanding of tribal identity was dynamic in Northeast India and they were found in both hilly and plain areas. He mentioned road connectivity and communications along with market or business transactions in the tribal areas. He observed that one tribal group moved to the nearest one for business transactions. As a result, there was a cultural exchange among tribal groups.

Goyary (1990) explained the physical appearance of Bodo people and compared it with the Nepali people. He observed that Bodo people were certainly not tall or handsome. The Bodo people in appearance have a distinct approximation to what is known as the Mongolian type.

Ghosh (1992) mentioned that the social structure of the Bodo society is primarily patriarchal. The author mentioned that the Bodos were experts in making bamboo products, producing net, baskets and of late furniture too. Bodo women are good weaver. He had found good Bodo potters, blacksmiths and carpenters.

Roy (1995) analysed the Boro movement for a separate homeland for them out of Assam. He stated that Boros or Bodos were the inheritance of extensive areas in Assam and also in some of the neighbouring states. But, their concentration was in the narrow and long strip of land extending east-west direction in between the foot-hills of Bhutan and Arunachal Pradesh in the North and the Brahmaputra River in the South. We come to know from his study that an underground insurgent outfit of the Boro youths styled as "Boro Security Force" was running strong which had stood as a formidable challenge to the state administration of Assam.

Shakladar (2004) stated in his research article “Movement for Homeland” that Bodos had no other alternative instead of demanding separate political identity for their cultural representation and economic deprivation. He mentioned one of the statements of the memorandum submitted by All Bodo Student Union (ABSU) to the President of India in 1987 that a separate political unit is necessary not only for the development of the tribal's but also for the survival of the tribes.

He explained that separate political identity is very essential for the preservation of language, culture and ethnic identity of a tribe.

Devi (2005) mentioned that the conversion of Bodos to other religions had led them to a modern socio-religion environment, where they had lost their cultural moorings and did not attain equality of social status with others in the larger Assamese society. Such a situation, according to him, created conflicts among them and it caused a deeper identity crisis.

Basumatary (2005) stated that both women and men enjoy equal rights in Bodo society. The Bodo women are supervisors, managers, decision-makers, entrepreneurs and producers in their economic activities.

Rabha (2006) studied the social changes of tribal communities in the Kamrup and Goalpara district of Assam. She observed rapid changes in the tribal societies when they come in contact with other ethnic groups. She stated that the cultural contact or acculturation phenomenon is the most sensitive factor which brought social changes among Rabha and Boro societies of Assam.

Basumatary (2007) in his writing "Consequences of Bodoland Movement" stated that the movement had brought great socio-economic changes and recognition at the national as well as international level to Boro people. Moreover, the movement has updated the minds of Boro people in the line of earning through business and commerce as well as setting up small and cottage industries.

Kumar (2007) had given importance to raising the literacy rate with quality in the coming days for the development of Bodo society. He also mentioned the role of education as the backbone of any social change and human development.

Basumatari (2010) found that Bodos are lagging marginally behind the rest of the state in an overall expansion of human capabilities. The author found that this is one of the possible reasons for ongoing social unrest and frustration among Bodos and that is playing a crucial role in triggering the Bodo movement.

Chandran (2012) observed that India had the second largest tribal population in the world after Africa. After independence, the government of India opted for an integrated approach in tribal development which offered the tribal communities the freedom for decision making about their lives rather than forcing them to replicate the lifestyles of the larger society. Despite numerous efforts taken for the welfare of these communities (especially in the form of positive discrimination), even today tribal communities stand at the lowermost end of the socio-economic ladder in the country. Considering the importance of these socio-economic factors in determining the level of social wellbeing, it is obvious that the presently existing wide tribal nontribal differential in the same will prove to be highly unfavourable to meet the long term goals of tribal development.

Maity and Kachari (2015) investigated factors influencing the socio-economic Bodo people in Udalguri district. They identified five factors namely-family size, the number of family members in between the age group of 15-59, literacy, operational landholding and distance of villages from town.

2.4 Literature Related to the Human Development Index

Sen (1980, 1992, 1999, 2002) formulated the normative framework of the evaluation of individual well-being and its social arrangements in his fundamental work on the capability approach. The key idea of the capability approach is that the social arrangement should aim at expanding individuals' capabilities so that he can earn more freedom to select the kinds of life he enjoys and has reason to value. Capability is a set of alternative combinations of the functioning of valuable activities that expand the well-being of the individuals (Sen, 1999). The notion of capability is closely related to Sen's conception of freedom, which he defines as 'the real opportunity that we have to accomplish what we value' (1992). He (Sen) distinguishes this opportunity aspect of freedom from the process aspect which is 'the freedom involved in the process itself' (2002). But regarding the selection of valuable capabilities, he recognizes that 'there is no escape from the problem of evaluation in selecting a class of functionings and in the corresponding description of capabilities, (1992). That is why the capability

approach is fundamentally incomplete which Sen calls the 'fundamental and pragmatic reasons' (1992).

Sen (1985a) applied the idea of capability approach himself for the first time to study the relationship between GNP per-capita and performance in life expectancy, infant mortality and the child death rate for the period from 1980 to 1982 of Brazil, Mexico, India, China and Sri Lanka. It is found that GNP per-capita of Brazil and Mexico are higher by over 7 times than that of the other three countries, but the performance of selected functionings like the life expectancy, infant mortality and child death rate are best in Sri Lanka, and better in China compared to India, and Mexico compared to Brazil. It states that the ranking of countries based on GDP per-capita differs from the ranking based on the selected functioning. On the other hand, the direction of the growth of GDP per capita and living standard may not coincide.

In another application based on sex in India, Sen (1985a) found gender bias perception of health conditions. And for the cases of achievements of certain functioning like age-specified mortality rates, malnutrition and morbidity, females are more deprived than the male.

Nassbaum (1988) tried to eliminate the pluralistic and incompleteness views of Sen on the capability approach by giving importance to the evaluation space of the capability approach for public policies. She noted that 'just as people can be taught not to want or miss the things their culture has taught them they should not or could not have so that they can be taught not to value certain functioning as constituents of their good living'. For policies' concentration, she introduced a list of ten central human capabilities namely, (i) life, (ii) bodily health, (iii) bodily integrity, (iv) senses, imagination and thought, (v) emotions (vi) practical reason, (vii) affiliation (viii) other species, (ix) play and (x) control over one’s environment (Nassbaum, 2000).

Haq (1990) introduced the concept of the Human Development Index (HDI) in the UNDP report of 1990 to measure human development. Since then, a series of index numbers have been constituted from time to time which includes

human freedom index (1991), gender-disparity-adjusted HDI (1993), gender-related development index (1995), gender empowerment measure (1995) and human poverty index (UNDP 1990-2003). All of these indices use three sub-indexes as a proxy for many functionings they are - life expectancy at birth, education (measured by adult literacy and educational enrolment rates) and adjusted real GDP. Using a few functionings, to some extent in a crude way, probably the application of capability approach has the largest impact on policymaking (Robeyns, 2003).

Ellman (1994) found a severe negative impact on mortality and morbidity over the period 1987-1993 in his study on a sharp decline in living standards after the collapse of the USSR and he argued the fallacy of a welfare analysis concentrating on price, income and consumption data. In conclusion, he wrote that his study "more generally supports the usefulness of the capability approach to the measurement of welfare".

Robeyns (2007) argued that the methods to identify relevant domains, capabilities or functionings should be made transparent and open to an ongoing public discussion. He proposes five procedural criteria for the identification procedure. They consist of:

(i) "Explicit formulation" meaning that the selection should be explicit, discussed and defended.

(ii) "Methodological justification" including clarifying and scrutinizing the method used to establish the list.

(iii) Sensitivity to Context: The level of abstraction should be appropriate in a given context to use the language of the debate that may be different in philosophical, political, or economic discussions, also depending on the generality of the issue.

(iv) Different levels of generality: The selection process should at least include a two-stage process. The first stage may involve an ideal list, unconstrained by any data, measurement, socio-economic or political limitations. In the second stage, a more pragmatic list can be established, taking into account the constraints and feasibility.

Confronting both lists may enable one to advocate for more and better data.

(v) "Exhaustion and non-reduction": The list should include all important elements and these should not be reducible to other elements. A certain overlap may be acceptable, e.g. when a subset is supposed to be of such high importance that it requires being entirely considered, independent of the fill list.

Krishnakumar (2007) applied the ‘principal components, factor analysis and multiple indicators and multiple causes (MIMIC) models’ to develop an operational framework of the capability approach. His general mixed simultaneous equation model was used for this purpose assuming that 'the capabilities are unobservable latent variable observed through a set of indicators'. He formulated a path-Figure of the operational framework of the capability approach in which he introduced all kinds of variables governing capabilities. He used a general mixed (latent and observed) simultaneous equation model to make operational, the conceptual framework of human capabilities.

Alkire (2007) categorizes five methods that researchers use to identify relevant capabilities and functionings. These methods consist firstly of a selection by convention and relying on existing data or, secondly on a selection based on assumptions about what people do or should value. Thirdly, the selection of relevant capabilities may be based on the legitimacy of a public consensus, fourthly on ongoing deliberative participatory processes that clarify stakeholder’s value and perspective and fifth, on the use of empirical data to select dimensions.

Boehnke (2008) uses the capability approach as a framework to assess the social embeddedness of life chances as, according to her, the capability approach makes the importance of political decisions and institutional frameworks more explicit and emphasizes the role of social settings for well-being. Using the European Quality of Life survey for enlarged Europe and in Turkey, she attempts to empirically assess the interplay of individual living conditions and their societal embeddedness. She finds that people realize that institutional and cultural arrangements determine their opportunities and restriction. Citizens' perception of

life chances – all over Europe – is not only determined by "objective" access to resources but also by how people view their societal circumstances. Life satisfaction is shown to be negatively influenced by people's distrust in political institutions, doubts in the reliability of the welfare system, when people do not trust their fellow men and when they perceive a tension between social groups.

Comim (2008) points out the measurement issues of the capability approach. The assessment of functionings and capabilities requires a good deal of framework which transfer theories into objects of practical value. The process of transferring the theoretical value of a theory into real practice may be summarised, perhaps in three-four stages. They are (i) specification of the theoretical framework, (ii) methodological issues to the theoretical arguments, (iii) extensive inquiry about different functionings along with their components operating in real practice, and (iv) applications of the required statistical tools to identify causal factors in contrast to mere correlations.

Bhattacharya and Banerjee (2012) adopted the structural equation model (MIMIC) to estimate capabilities and the empowerment index for the women of West Bengal (India) based on the scores of health, knowledge and autonomy. They observed that while high autonomy along with high attainment in other capabilities improves the empowerment index, considerable empowerment attainment may be observed even with low autonomy but with higher achievements in other capabilities.

2.5 Literature Related to Multidimensional Poverty Index

Sen (1976, 1985, 1992, 1995) investigated and proved that well-being and poverty are multidimensional phenomena. He rejected the means-based approach of well-being and developed end-based philosophy of well-being. Income is the mean only for it. Opportunities should be judge within actual availability space at the individual level for his well-being. The well-being of an individual depends not only on income but also on several capability dimensions or such as health, education, empowerment, etc. Poverty is viewed as capability deprivation at the individual level. Again, capability deprivation is multidimensional.

Alkire (2010) had studied the multidimensional aspects of poverty estimation. With the association with Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), she developed the new international measure of poverty – the Multidimensional Poverty Index. As a measure of poverty, the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is designed to capture the multiple deprivations that each poor person faces at the same time concerning education, health and other aspects of living standards. The MPI reflects the intensity of multidimensional poverty. The incidence is the proportion of multidimensionally poor people in a population and intensity is the average number of deprivations each poor person experiences at the same time. It can be used to create a comprehensive picture of people living in poverty, and permits comparisons both across countries, regions and the world, and within countries by ethnic group, urban/rural location, as well as other key household and community characteristics (OPHI). Replacing the traditional focus on income, the innovation of MPI reflects the multiple deprivations that a poor person faces concerning Education, Health and Living standard.

Human Development Report 2010 introduced a new measure of poverty viz. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) in place of Human Poverty Index HPI). It goes beyond income measure of poverty by considering Health, Education and Living standards. The MPI was more suited to the developing counties of the world. The MPI of different countries were calculated and compared with their income poverty. This HDR explains the methodological procedure for the calculation of household as well as village-level MPI. According to this procedure, a household is nearly multidimensional poor if its multiple deprivations are 20 percent or less than 33.3 percent. Multiple deprivations of 33.3 percent or less than 50 percent indicate multidimensional poor. On the other hand, severe multidimensional poor indicated by 50 percent or more multiple deprivations.

Alkire and Suman (2013) studied the change in multidimensional poverty in India between 1999 and 2006 using National Family and Health Surveys. They found that although growth in Gross National Income (GNI) has been much higher than most of her neighbouring countries, like China and Bangladesh,

growth has not been as inclusive as these neighbouring countries – either in terms of reducing the proportion of income poor or in terms of improving many of the key social indicators.

Kumar and Sonu (2015) viewed that MPI complements traditional income-based poverty measures by capturing the severe deprivations that each person faces at the same time with respect to education, health and living standard. MPI illuminates a different set of deprivation and reflects the deprivation in very rudimentary services and core human functioning for people. It shows the number of multidimensionally poor people and the number of deprivation with which poor households typically content. So, the MPI is the most important measure of poverty because of its multi-dimensions and multi indicators which provide the reason behind the causes and effect of poverty and the solution to how to prevent poverty.

Bagli (2015) studied multidimensional poverty in North-East India using secondary data collected from the Census of India 2011. He observed that Meghalaya is the most deprived state in North-East India while Mizoram, Tripura were in a relatively better-off position among the North-Eastern states. This study had explored that the Kurung Kumey district belonging to Arunachal Pradesh was the poorest district among the 86 districts in North-East India. However, among the ten most deprived districts eight were not located in Meghalaya. None of the districts in Mizoram, Tripura and Sikkim came in the ten most multi-dimensionally poor districts. On the other hand, the Aizawl district of Mizoram was the least deprived among the districts in North-East India. Meghalaya did not have any one of the ten least multidimensionally poor districts. The disparities among the states and the districts in terms of the indicators under consideration had also been revealed. Moreover, there was no straightforward relation between the MPI of the states and the percentage of the population live below the poverty line income.

Roy and Haldar (2018) tried to explore the determinants of MPI applying logistic regression for the rural households of West Bengal. The researchers found

that the risk of being multidimensionally poor was significantly higher among the households having no pucca road. Due to lack of proper approach road, sometimes rural health workers are found to be reluctant to provide services to those households living in remote and inaccessible areas; the problem aggravates during the rainy season. Households living in rural, remote areas without having any access to pucca (or motorable road) do not find any motivation to send their children to school; they face problems when they need emergency healthcare services. Similarly, the increase in distance between residence to (1) nearest government health centre and (2) the most adjacent market place also augments the probability of being multidimensionally poor significantly. These empirical findings suggest that socially backward classes like SC and ST are more vulnerable and are at higher risk of falling in multidimensionally poor compared to General caste.

Maity (2018) examined the multidimensional poverty status and also detects the factors influencing multidimensional poverty of Bodo households of Udalguri district, Assam. The study was primary data based. Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) method was applied for constructing household level Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). Again, step-wise logistic regression was used to identify the factors influencing the multidimensional poverty status of the study area. She observed that the Udalguri district was moderately poor with no self-sufficient or surplus block. All the eleven blocks of the district were identified as moderately poor, containing more than 80 percent population as moderately poor. For the Udalguri district as a whole, the MPI value was found as 0.369 with 80 percent sample households were poor. There were lots of scopes for the central, state as well as local governments for improving the present status by initiating a non-interrupted development process in the study area. She viewed that the BTAD Council had to work in association with state and central government for the upliftment of the people of the district.

2.6 Research Gaps

From this review work, we have realised that different research works concentrated on the construction of the Socio-Economic Index (SEI), calculation of the Human Development Index (HDI) and the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). And at the same time, several works concentrated on Bodo studies as well as on identifying factors influencing the socio-economic status of the tribal community. Several research works were done by researchers to construct the human development index and multidimensional poverty index for identifying causes of backwardness of tribal communities in India. But we fail to find a single study that combines all these aspects in a single jargon. In that sense, this research work is a new attempt to put all the matters together. Moreover, this is the first study to the study area related to the measurement of socio-economic status, human development index and multidimensional poverty index for the people of the Bodo community at a time. Thus, area-wise, objective wise and methodology wise this study is the first attempt in this field. On February 13, 2002, the state cabinet formally approved the formation of Bodoland Territorial Council (BTC) under the modified sixth schedule of the constitution of India. Under such circumstances, it is prudent to undertake such type of research work and that is what exactly is considered by the researchers.

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