FINDINGS AND POLICY SUGGESTIONS
CHAPTER - VI

FINDINGS AND POLICY SUGGESTIONS

With the advent of economic development programmes confined to tribal sub-plan sector, innumerable development schemes, protective measures and welfare promotive measures have been taken up by the Government of India and Tamil Nadu. These measures of the Governments provided the socio-economic framework for the transformation of the tribal system which resulted in economic differentiation and social stratification of particular vulnerable group. This assumes significance primarily from the point of their responsiveness to welfare measures. Understanding of the internal organisation in terms of hierarchy of socio-economic status of a particular vulnerable group, assumes significance in the context of analysing the levels of living. The major conclusions drawn on the basis of the present micro level study of Kurumba tribes in the Niligiri District of Tamil Nadu, India, are summarized in this chapter.

The systematic studies on tribal socio-economic characteristics seem potentially quite useful, as they provide important insights into large issue of how different patterns of social behaviour can be attributed to economic differentials. With this in mind, it was decided to study the socio-economic conditions of the Kurumba tribes in the first objective.

6.1. Socio-Economic Conditions

6.1.1. Social Characteristics

1. The infant population was maximum (18.46 per cent) in large scale industrial worker category because of less mortality rate.
2. The working force was the highest in medium farmer category.
3. The female ratio per thousand males was the highest (1100) in small scale industrial worker category and the lowest (834.86) in marginal farmer category.
4. The male female ratio in the sample population was 990.
5. More than 70 per cent of Kurumba tribal sample population in all categories was in 15-59 years age group. It shows that the persons in this group would be a vulnerable group engaged more in reproduction activity.
6. More than 65 per cent of households were in the nuclear family system except in large scale industrial worker category due to socio-cultural transformation.

7. Dependency ratio was the highest (0.67) in large scale industrial worker category.

8. The marginal farmer category households had more than four adults to support a child as these households had less infant population. The adult child ratio was minimum for large scale industrial worker category.

9. The maximum consumer adult equivalent units belonged to landless labourer category.

10. Among the occupational categories, total standard man days (coefficient of work efficiency) was maximum in landless labourer category.

6.1.1. Literacy

1. Kurumba tribes are not educationally backward when compared with other tribals in this area. About 66.28 per cent of the Kurumbas in the sample population were recorded as literates as against 38.21 per cent literacy rate of Scheduled Tribe population in Tamil Nadu.

2. It was observed that Kurumba tribes did not hesitate to send females to school even after puberty.

3. The literacy was cent per cent in government service category as education was the basic requirement to work in this sector. It was the lowest in medium farmer category due to their attachment towards agricultural operations. In large scale industrial worker category, 21.43 percentage of households studied more than higher secondary level.

6.1.2. Economic Factors

6.1.2.1. Buildings

1. The ownership pattern of buildings showed that government servants were provided houses under Tamil Nadu Housing Development Scheme.

2. The large scale industrial workers had own houses as they had permanent sources of income.
3. More than 90 per cent of marginal farmers were provided houses through the Tribal Development Housing Scheme.

4. About 75.47 per cent of the households in other service labourer category (75.47 percentage) kept space in front of their houses for self-employment activities.

6.1.2.2. Assets

1. It was observed that more than 65 percentage of land holding was distributed among farming households.

2. The land holding was concentrated among marginal farmers. The average land holding of marginal farmers was 0.92 acres.

3. Among the non-farm household categories, the government servants owned 16.31 percentage of total land. It might be due to the accessibility to get 'poramboke' land in the form of free patta land.

4. The percentage value of land in the total value of assets accounted more than 80 per cent for all categories as the land value was higher in hilly areas.

5. The value of livestock was evenly distributed among all occupational categories.

6. It was observed that landless labourer category households alone possessed about 3.2 per cent of agricultural implements in their total value of assets compared to other categories since they received the agricultural implements through self employment schemes of the government.

7. The percentage value of utensils was high among the consumer durable possessed by Kurumba tribals. The small scale industrial worker category had 43.58 percentage of utensils in the consumer durable, which was the highest among the occupational categories.

8. The data analysis revealed that there was no considerable difference in the ownership and usage of consumer durable as they were changing their life style slowly.

9. The average asset distribution showed that all categories of households concentrated more in the range of Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 35,000 except those in government services.
10. No household had the asset value of more than Rs. 50,000. It was concluded that there was uneven distribution of asset among the different occupational categories as the landless labourers owned the least value of assets and the government servants owned the highest value of assets.

6.1.2.3. Income Earning Pattern

The sources of income were identified as income from land, farm employment, livestock, forestry, organised and unorganised service sectors.

1. It was observed that the income earning pattern varied for each occupational category. All the households, irrespective of occupational categories, earned income from livestock and forestry.

2. It was noted that higher income tribal households, were invariably households with permanent source of income. The percentage of income for all the sample households was 19.88 per cent from land, 15.05 per cent from livestock, 7.15 per cent from farm employment, 6.87 per cent from forestry, 40.98 per cent from organised sector and 10.07 per cent from unorganised sector.

3. The total income from cultivation of land was the highest in medium farmer category.

4. The maximum percentage of households in the landless labourer, marginal farmer and small farmer categories were in the income bracket of Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 17,000.

5. In the medium farmer category, 45.45 per cent of households were in the income group of Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 25,000. About 64 per cent of large scale industrial worker category and 66 per cent government service category households were in the highest income bracket.

6. More than 65 per cent of other service category households had income of more than Rs. 15,000.

7. The distribution of income showed that 47 percentage of total sample households were in the higher income bracket of Rs. 20,000 and above.

8. About 95.78 per cent of landless labourer households, 84.90 per cent of marginal farmers, 91.13 per cent of small farmers, 81.81 per cent of marginal
farmers, 75 per cent of small scale industrial workers and 69.98 per cent of other service household categories had per capita income of less than Rs. 7,500. In other service category, 30.18 per cent of households had per capita income of less than Rs. 2,500.

6.1.2.4. Consumption Expenditure

1. It shows that the percentage of money spent on cereals by various occupational categories ranged from 24.02 per cent to 35.52 per cent. The occupational status did not have any impact on the amount spent on cereals.

2. The percentage of expenditure on milk and milk products to the total expenditure was less than 20 per cent for all categories except small scale industrial household.

3. The pattern of consumption expenditure indicated that cereals, milk, edible oils, meat and fish were the major expenditure of all households. The consumption expenditure on these items was uneven among the different occupational categories.

4. Due to cold climatic conditions, their spending on beverages and tobacco was 10.46 per cent, which was greater than the spending on vegetables.

5. The expenditure on non-food items showed that the Kurumba households spent more on social ceremonies. The percentage share of expenditure on social ceremonies to the total non-food expenditure for all categories was more than 30 per cent.

6. The substantial miscellaneous expenditure reflected the awareness of Kurumba tribes on health, education and recreation facilities.

7. It revealed that 77 percentage of sample households fell under the expenditure group of Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 25,000. About 81.05 per cent of landless labourers, 83.01 of percentage of marginal farmers, 72.73 percentage of medium farmers and 64.15 per cent of other service households spent less than Rs. 20,000 as their average expenditure per household.
8. More than 50 per cent of large scale industrial workers and government servants households categories spent more than Rs. 20,000. About five per cent of households in the government servants category spent more than Rs. 40,000 per household.

9. With regard to per capita consumption expenditure, about 30.53 per cent of landless labourer, and more than 40 per cent of marginal farmers, small scale industrial workers and other service households were in the per capita expenditure group of Rs. 4,500 to Rs. 5,000. But 45.45 per cent of medium farmers were in the expenditure group of Rs. 4,000 to Rs. 4,500. It was a rare feature.

10. About 54 per cent of landless labourers, 44 per cent of marginal farmers, 25 per cent of small scale industrial workers and more than 35 per cent of other service households consumed less than the required calories, whereas more than 90 per cent of small farmers, and cent per cent of medium farmers, large scale industrial workers and government service households consumed more than 2,000 calories per day. Hence it shows there was wide variation in the intake of calories by the households.

6.1.2.5. Clothing

1. More than 60 per cent of large scale industrial workers and government servants and 48 per cent of small farmers purchased more than 25 metres of cloth. In all other categories, only less than 30 per cent of households purchased more than 25 metres of cloth. It shows that most of the households in the low income categories purchased less than 25 metres of cloth during the reference period of the study.

2. The distribution of annual expenditure on clothing shows that about 63, 69, and 72 per cent of households is landless labourer category, marginal farmers and other service labourer category respectively, spent less than Rs. 200 annually.

3. It was found that per capita expenditure on cloth increased with the status of occupational category.
6.1.2.6. Housing

1. In the landless labourer category, only 15 per cent of households had straw roof houses and 16.84 per cent of households owned terraced houses.

2. More than 40 per cent of households in other service category lived in straw or asbestos roof houses. In this category, more than 51 per cent of households lived in terraced and modern tiled houses.

3. All the households in small farmer and marginal farmer categories owned either tiled or terraced houses.

4. In general, most of the farm and government service households owned pucca tiled or terraced buildings in the study area.

5. The living area shows that 42 per cent of landless labourers, 40 per cent of marginal farmers, 22 per cent of small farmers, 13 per cent of small scale industrial workers and 23 per cent of other service households had less than 15 square metres of houses.

6. Medium farmers, large scale industrial workers and government service households owned houses with more than 20 square metres.

7. It was also observed that only higher income categories lived in houses with 35 square metres and above.

8. Households in agricultural occupation had their own sources of water. During summer season water scarcity in public sources made most of households rely on private sources like private wells and tanks.

6.1.2.7. Dependency on Forest

1. The tribal households did not have free access to the forest produce due to legal restrictions of the government.

2. Majority of the landless labourer and other service households depended on forest produce for their livelihood even though there has been legal restrictions.

3. Only five to 15 households of non-farm category depended on forest for food.
6.1.3. Other Factors

6.1.3.1. Habitation

1. All small scale and large scale industrial workers were living in rural and remote villages. Nearly 25 per cent of government servants and other service categories lived in very remote areas due to their occupational compulsion.

2. Living in very remote areas for landless category meant they were being totally cut-off from the rest of the society and they led a hand to mouth existence. For them, income came from seasonal collection of minor forest produce and agricultural work in the neighbourhood.

6.1.3.2. Health

1. All the sample households reported occurrence of one or more morbidities of minor duration. Many of the morbidities could be attributed to their inconsistency in food consumption.

2. Other service labourer households suffered mostly from scabies and asthma. Small scale industrial workers and government servants suffered mostly from asthma.

3. It was also observed that health seeking behaviour was very satisfactory in all occupational categories except the landless labourer category. About 84 per cent of landless labourer households did not seek health care, whereas 85 per cent of large scale industrial worker and government service categories sought health care.

6.1.3.3. Transport

1. All the categories of households spent around Rs. 30 per month on transport and communication. The head of the household in government service and other service households travelled a maximum of 30 kms. per day.

2. The other service category households walked any distance only on foot in the hill.

3. Large scale industrial worker and government servant households alone used postal services for sending their letters.
6.1.3.4. Social and Political Activities

1. All the households in the study group, especially, more of landless labourer, marginal farmers, government and other service households participated in the social activities.

2. Only 50 per cent of households participated in the political activities. It was observed that all households except government servants participated more in political activities as they had permanent source of income.

6.2. Inequality of Asset, Income and Consumption Expenditure

The second objective is to study the pattern and extent of inequalities in the distribution of assets, income and consumption expenditure of the households. With a view to explain the extent of inequalities, three steps were followed. In the first step, the degree of inequalities in the distribution of household assets, income and consumption for the sample household are presented with the help of Lorenz curves. This attempt was made to know the extent of inequalities for all the sample households.

1. The Lorenz curves of asset, income and consumption expenditure showed higher concavity indicating the existence of more inequality, especially in asset than income and consumption.

A quantitative estimate of inequality for asset, income and consumption expenditure was worked out and presented in the second step. It was calculated to know the extent of inequality for each occupational category.

2. It shows that landless labourer, large scale industrial worker, government and other service labourer categories had more than 0.3 concentration ratio in the distribution of assets.

3. The Gini ratio for income was more than 0.3 only for large scale industrial workers, government and other service labourer categories.

4. The same for consumption inequality was more than 0.3 for other service labourer category and nearly 0.3 for government servants.
5. The existence of inequality in asset, income and consumption was the least for small farmers and highest for other service category. It was due to the movement of households between agriculture and non-agriculture sectors rather than due to more increased intra-sectoral stratification as would be expected in the Kuznets' process of inequality.

The above analysis of inequality tested and proved the first hypothesis that skewed distribution of income was due to skewed distribution of asset holding.

6.2.1. Sources of Inequality

6. Source-wise average income of the households showed that organised employment contributed nearly 41 per cent and all farm sources together contributed 42.08 per cent to total income. A disaggregated view of farm income showed that income from land contributed more to farm income. Farm employment income was the second largest component of farm income, followed by income from livestock.

7. It explains the distributions of households having access to different sources of income. As such 56 and 38 per cent of the households reported having received income from farm employment and unorganised sectors respectively.

8. Rearing of livestock was an important occupation for both farm and non-farm households, as 73.49 per cent of sample households received income from livestock, even though it contributed less income to total income due to rearing poor quality of livestock.

9. The value of the coefficient of variation was more than 100 per cent for all sources of income except income from livestock indicating more variation.

6.2.2. Decomposition of Inequality

In the third step, the extent of inequality by the sources of income and contribution of different sources of income to total income inequality was worked out to know the structure of inequality.
10. The Gini indices by source showed that unorganised sector income was the most unequally distributed with an index value of 0.85.

11. As expected, the contribution of organised sector to total inequality was 0.92. It was because of its maximum contribution to total income and high degree of correlation with total income (R = 0.83).

12. Whether the inequality of a source of income was increasing or decreasing was decided by relative inequality co-efficient. The relative income inequality was the highest for the income from organised sector (2.25) and the least for farm employment income (-1.03).

13. The magnitude and direction of this relationship would give the effect of change in income source on total inequality on the margin. A positive sign would indicate an increase in total inequality on the margin due to an increase in income from that source of income. The relative marginal effect of all sources, except income from organised sector, was negative indicating an improvement in distributional equity.

The second hypothesis, which stated non-farm income or income, especially organised sector was the major contributor of income inequality, is also tested and proved by the higher value of Gini-ratio (0.92) of income from organised sector to total income inequality.

6.3. Poverty Measurement

6.3.1. Extent of Poverty

An attempt was made to assess the extent of poverty of Kurumba tribes in the third objective. The study sought to gauge the intensity of poverty in terms of income, categorizing the households living below the poverty line into four groups, and those living above the poverty line into four groups.

1. The percentage of sample households below the poverty line was 32.27 per cent.
2. Nearly 30 per cent of households belonged to marginally non-poor category. These households could be deemed border line households. They may be shifted to below poverty line at any point of time.
3. About 47.37 per cent of landless labourer households were below the poverty line. In other service category, 49.06 per cent were below the poverty line.

4. In government service category and large scale industrial category, 2.44 per cent and 14.29 per cent of households were below the poverty line.

5. In other service category, nearly four per cent of households were in the destitute category.

6. Nearly 5.66 percentage of marginal farmers and 4.35 percentage of small farmers were in rich category. These farm households, who were living in Kotagiri taluk, had more income, as they had shifted their farm cultivation to horticulture cultivation. But the medium farmers in that area were still engaged in traditional type of cropping pattern. That is why the medium farmers had a low income and did not figure in the rich income category.

The above conclusions proved that there is a difference in the extent of poverty among different occupational groups as stated in the third hypothesis.

6.3.2. Estimation of Poverty

7. The analysis through head-count ratio showed that the percentage of poor households was 36.72 per cent, which was moderate. An occupation-wise analysis of poverty revealed that the percentage of poor in other service category was 60.89 per cent, which was the highest among the occupational categories.

8. The percentage of poor in government service category was 3.51 per cent which was the lowest among the occupational categories.

9. Poverty-gap ratio showed that the intensity of poverty was moderate. The level of poverty in terms of poverty gap ratio for all the sample households was 0.31. It was higher only in three occupational categories. That is, it was 0.40 for other service, 0.39 for marginal farmers and 0.31 for landless labourer households.
10. With the help of Sen's Index, poverty was worked out as 14.31 percentage, which was also moderate. The extent of poverty in other service category was more (30.64 per cent) and relatively low in government service category (5.61 per cent).

11. The FGT Index was employed for the whole sample population to measure poverty. This index takes into account the dimension of inequality, incidence and intensity. It revealed that when \( \lambda \) was 0, the FGT Index was 0.32, when \( \lambda \) was 1 the index was 0.31 and when \( \lambda \) was 2, the index was 0.133. It showed that the intensity of poverty declined with more value of \( \lambda \).

### 6.4. Construction of Tribal Quality Life Index

The fourth objective of the study is to construct tribal quality life index (TQLI). A set of qualitative and quantitative indicators were identified as the indicators of tribal life to analyse the level of poverty on the basis of tribal quality life index.

1. Break-even analysis was used to relate the poverty index with the poverty line income at the household level. The cut-off index value was 30.64 to classify the households into poor and non-poor households. That is, the households which had the value of less than 30.64 were classified as poor households.

The break-even index values covered the different poverty line incomes. That is, 0, 8.64, 20.16 and 30.64 represented destitutes, very very poor, very poor and poor households respectively.

2. It was found that there was statistically significant positive relationship between the index (TQLI) and per capita income.

3. The TQLI explained 70 per cent of variation in per capita income.

4. The classification of households into four levels of poverty showed that 2.31 per cent, 15.56 per cent and 14.41 per cent were classified as very very poor, very poor and poor respectively. About 67.72 per cent of households were classified as non-poor.

The second part of this objective was to know the discriminating power of the variables, which divided the households into poor and non-poor.
5. This analysis provided the relative importance of different variables in order of merit, based on their discriminating power among the sample households being compared.

6. It was identified that value of cloth per person annual expenditure on cloth per person, type of housing and per capita income were the major discriminative variables. It was found from the classification matrix, the discriminant function predicted 94.6 per cent in the poor and 97.4 per cent in the non poor and 96.54 per cent of cases on the whole were correctly classified.

6.5. Indebtedness

An attempt was made to analyse the extent and magnitude of indebtedness and utilisation of borrowed amount in the fifth objective.

6.5.1. Extent of Indebtedness

1. It was found that out of 347 households, 313 households (90.20 per cent) were found indebted.

2. It was also noticed that out of eight occupational categories, the incidence of indebtedness was cent per cent in the medium farmer and large scale industrial worker categories. In the remaining six occupational categories, except other service category, 80 per cent of households were found to be in indebtedness.

3. The average debt per household was more than Rs.2,000 for all the categories of households except those of landless labourers and marginal farmers. These two categories had less than Rs.1,000 of loan per household. It was the maximum for large scale industrial workers and the minimum for landless labourers. The households of all categories except landless labourers and marginal farmers had more than Rs.500 as borrowed loan per adult equivalent. These two categories had less than Rs.300 of loan per person. It was the maximum for large scale industrial workers and the minimum for landless labourers.

The above inferences proved the fourth hypothesis that size and magnitude of indebtedness varied with different occupational categories in the sample households.
6.5.2. Sources of Indebtedness

4. More than 75 per cent of indebted households in small farmer, medium farmer, small scale industrial worker, large scale industrial worker and government service categories received assistance from institutional (societies and banks) agencies. It is worth mentioning that medium farmers and small scale industrial workers had cent per cent financial assistance only from institutional agencies. Hence, it is learnt that those households which were endowed with more landbase and permanent sources of income were able to get more credit from institutional agencies.

6.5.3. Utilisation of Loan

5. The productive purposes included expenditure on land development, technology development and livestock rearing. The unproductive purposes contained the expenditure on social ceremonies and household expenditure. From the data analysis, it was found that less than 40 percentage of loans were utilized for productive purposes by all sample households. Small and medium farmers and other service categories utilised 30 per cent to 40 per cent for productive purposes. All other categories utilised less than 25 per cent for productive purposes.

6. It also revealed that all the occupational categories utilised the borrowed amount towards livestock rearing. Small farmers and medium farmers utilised the borrowed amount for land development and technology development also.

7. All the estimated F-ratio values in the analysis of variance are statistically significant at one per cent level. It means that there was significant variation between different occupational categories on the utilisation of borrowed amount towards land development, technology development, livestock rearing, social expenditure and household expenditure.

8. The purpose of utilisation is generally believed to be followed by certain socio-economic parameters such as culture, land ownership, source of income and its distribution. The same parameters determined the utilisation of loans in the sample households also.
9. Further, the inequality in the distribution of assets and their socio-cultural compulsion contributed for more variation in the utilisation of borrowed amount for different unproductive purposes.

The above inferences confirmed the fifth hypothesis that the pattern of utilisation of borrowed amount varied with different occupational categories.

6.5.4. Land Alienation

10. Outright sale was the major form of land alienation. All farm groups and small scale industrial workers sold more than 60 per cent of their land to non-tribals. It was the maximum (81.2 per cent) in the small scale industrial workers.

11. The next major form of land alienation was encroachment by the government and private sectors. The encroachment from the large scale industrial worker category was cent per cent. The reason behind their silence to it was that it secured them employment. Government service sector households alienated a major share (54.84) of their land by way of encroachment by the government. Most of the reported encroachment was due to the fact that tribals constructed their houses on government's revenue poramboke and forest poramboke land long back.

12. All the farmers lost a sizeable portion of their revenue and forest poramboke lands due to encroachment.

13. The loss of land due to lease was less than 10 per cent for all categories of households except small farmers. It was between 10 per cent and 20 per cent due to mortgage for all categories except small scale industrial workers.

14. In the Government service category, social and religious involvement contributed 48.36 per cent of land alienation. Thus, domestic consumption, and social and religious expenditure were the major causes for land alienation.

6.6. Policy Suggestions

The foregoing conclusions on the levels of living of Kurumba tribals in the Nilgiris district brought to light certain gaps in the policies of governments. The removal of such gaps would go a long way in promoting and sustaining the process of development of tribals. With this end in view, some policy suggestions are made in the following paragraphs:
1. The natural increase of total labour force of Kurumba households in the existing socio-cultural-economic set up cannot be altered by population policy alone. In order to eliminate or reduce the level of poverty, the fundamental change in the composition of earnings, package of the government for agricultural households and inter-sectoral shift in workforce are essential, that is, an attack on tribal poverty should be through a combination of direct and indirect poverty alleviation measures. The redistribution of existing rural assets and diversification of tribal economy will be useful for non-farm households in the tribal community.

2. One of the ways to provide a basic asset that can yield income is to redistribute land. If land is given free to the poorest in the target group, they will be assured minimum level of living. Land will also support the keeping of cattle, sheep, poultry, etc., which in turn would increase their income. It is the most natural scheme of insurance that can be thought of. Provision of land will benefit the tribal poor through a multiplier effect of income.

3. As livestock was a permanent source of income for all the occupational categories, the distribution of subsidized high breed livestock will increase their income. Direct assistance should be given to cottage, tiny and small scale sectors as well as artisan households through the supply of raw materials, technical guidance, and financial and marketing back up. It will help industrial workers and other service labourers also in Kurumba tribal households.

4. Another important suggestion is the consumption transfer, particularly distribution of foodgrains through Public Distribution System. It would provide food for the population living in a state of deprivation, despair and starvation.

5. The primary constraint for the analysis of regional income distribution and poverty of tribal households has been a lack of household / individual data in the Niligiri district. An effective data collection technique is to be used to collect a reliable household level data for effective policy making and project
design of the government and social service organisations, to improve the conditions of tribal poor. The credit plans prepared by the lead banks become pseudomicro level planning documents, which will not help to prepare a systematic tribal development manual. The tribal development manual should contain the occupational activities of tribes in three groups, as suggested below, to take effective measures for tribal development.

i. Individual groups.
ii. Community based activities.
iii. Schemes which could be undertaken by respective departments including infrastructural development, credit institutions and others.

6. The government should plan welfare programmes, by keeping in view, the specific needs of a particular community. Apart from the programmes generally meant for tribal population as a whole, there should be specific target oriented programmes, exclusively for economically poor sections within the community. From this study, it was found that a systematic and comprehensive orchestration of welfare programmes are important. These are to be sensitive to the intra group differences among vulnerable communities. It does not mean that any particular section among the vulnerable communities should be kept completely out of government programmes. All the existing programmes should continue and these should be widened to include the poorer and the poorest among the poor in the vulnerable communities.

7. To release the tribal households from the clutches of debt from non-institutional agencies, the following steps may be implemented:

i. minimise formalities and documentation;
ii. withdrawal of beneficiaries who have already availed of loan;
iii. the effective rate of interest should be decreased;
iv. provide loans to the specific activity of the household and
v. fixing high target for loan disbursement officials to be avoided, because it will avoid indiscriminate lending.
8. Finally, tribal society is passing through a transitional stage, which lies between traditional and modern ways of living. This phase is characterized by inequities in returns to resources and disequilibrium. Hence, it is necessary that an attempt to transform tribal society be geared to arrive at a package deal comprising both the need specific, technological and socio-economic changes at various levels, with a continuous feedback.

9. The inter-relationship between the technological, socio-economic and institutional framework factors for tribal development is suggested by this study in the following self-explanatory sketch:
TECHNOLOGICAL, SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL COMPLEXITY IN TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSFORMATION.

1. ADOPTION OF INNOVATION AND TECHNOLOGY
2. INCREASED USE OF PHYSICAL INPUTS
3. RESPONSE TO PRODUCTION POTENTIALS

PRODUCTIVITY IMPROVEMENT AND INCOME EQUALITY