

Explanation of major determinants of poverty using multivariate statistical approach and spatial technology: a case study on Birbhum district, West Bengal, India

Ranajit Ghosh · Niladri Das · Prolay Mondal

Accepted: 14 October 2022 / Published online: 17 November 2022 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature B.V. 2022

Abstract Poverty is not only the focal issue that has drawn worldwide attention but is also an essential issue in people's livelihoods. This research examines the primary factors of poverty in the Birbhum district. Multivariate statistical techniques have been used to identify the primary determinants. Ten parameters have been identified as significant drivers of poverty, six of which are physical, viz. slope, elevation, drainage density, pond frequency, soil texture, and rainfall. The remaining four sociocultural and economic parameters are literacy, major market center, population growth, and road density. A linear relationship has been established between the explanatory and response variables where the R-square or coefficient of determination value is 0.741, and this relationship explains more than 74% of the variables. The P-value of multi-linear regression is 0.000, which validates the model and permits the data for factor analysis to extract the major determinants. Factor analysis indicates that five essential factors have been found based

R. Ghosh

Department of Geography, Suri Vidyasagar College, Birbhum, Suri, West Bengal 731101, India

N. Das Department of Geography, Hiralal Bhakat College, Birbhum, Nalhati, West Bengal 731220, India

P. Mondal (⊠) Department of Geography, Raiganj University, Raiganj, West Bengal 733134, India e-mail: mon.prolay@gmail.com on their eigenvalue viz., agro-climatic factor, infrastructural and educational factors, hydrological factor, demographic factor, and pedological factors. All the p-values of the correlation matrix are < 0.05, meaning all the relationships are valid and significant. This research also demonstrates the spatial analysis of data using GIS technology. The western part of the study area has been affected by the high influence of all factors due to the presence of plateau fringe and associated low productivity. The outcomes of the research are scientifically significant and this study helps the planners, higher authorities, and social workers to eradicate poverty from this region through formulating better policies and management.

Keywords Poverty determinants · Multilinear regression · Poverty incidence · Factor analysis

Introduction

The economic growth of any country or region is heavily influenced by their income and spending habits as well as their savings, loans, and investment patterns. A country with a developed economy is characterised by high levels of income and consumption (Headey, 2008). In contrast, a country's poor economic position is characterized by low income and expenditure levels. People living in underdeveloped or developing countries are interested in transmitting goods and services. However, their demands are unmet due to a lack of buying power. This may result from insufficient income or poverty (Giri, 2015). Poverty incidence by geographic orientation shows an alarming rise in global poverty linked to poor economic development and significant income disparity. The geographical depiction necessitates a thorough study of poverty traps that impact poverty via various causal processes, the most prominent of which is inequality, undermining the global pro-poor development process (Khan et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2015). The main issue confronting the globe is the massive rise in poverty and hunger, as represented in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), namely SDG-1 and SDG-2, which call on global economies to cut poverty and hunger by half by 2030 on a country-by-country basis(Mestrum, 2003).

Since ancient times, poverty has been a contention in global politics. In 1981, over 1.9 billion people in the developing world lived on less than US\$ 1.25 per day. In 2005, this statistic for poverty in developing nations decreased to 1.4 billion people living on US\$ 1.25 per day (S. Chen & Ravallion, 2009). According to the most recent estimates from 2015, 736 million people lived below the US\$ 1.90 purchasing power parity poverty level, accounting for 10% of the world's population (The World Bank, 2019). Most were from India, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, and Bangladesh (World Bank, 2020). In India, several committees have estimated poverty, notably the Lakdawala Committee (1993), the Tendulkar Committee (2009), and the Rangarajan Committee (2012). According to the Suresh Tendulkar Committee's methodology, India's poor population was 35.4 million (29.6%) in 2009-2010 and 69 million (21.9%) in 2011–2012(Panagariya & Mukim, 2014). According to the Rangarajan Commission, India's poverty rate had decreased from 454 million in 2009–2010 (38.2%) to 363 million in 2011–2012. (29.5%) (De et al., 2017). However, as India's economy grows, poverty decreases, but it remains a significant problem. As a result, the most crucial task for the researcher is to discover the most frequent and the most intense causes of poverty to reduce poverty incidence.

Poverty has a geographical component to it. In every local community, especially in developing countries, geography, particularly the physical environment, significantly influences the prevalence of poverty (Bigman & Fofack, 2000). According to empirical data, geography and poverty are significant linksas the geographical environment influence the spatial pattern of poverty to some extent (Das, 2012; Gallup et al., 1999; ODI, 2013; Sachs et al., 2001; Zhou & Liu, 2019). Several geographic variables may contribute to substantial regional variation in the prevalence of poverty. These factors include natural resource endowments and agro-climatic conditions, market accessibility and proximity, access to transportation infrastructures, the influence of demographic variables, etc (Vista & Murayama, 2011a).So, poverty is not just a socio-economic issue but also an essentially spatial one (Glasmeier, 2002). However, discussions about poverty and its causes have traditionally focused on the socio-economic sphere, but recently academics and development practitioners have begun to realize the importance of geographical influence in understanding and evaluating poverty. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adoption increased attention to geographical aspects of poverty, which has resulted in efforts in the international arena (Hyman et al., 2005). As a result of advances in geographic information systems (GIS), as well as advances in remote sensing (RS) and statistical approaches, spatial data and satellite images are now being used as tools for poverty mapping and analysis (Deichmann, 1999; Hyman et al., 2005). Spatial analysis allows combined biophysical data and socioeconomic indicators to provide a more systematic and analytical picture of human well-being and equality (Henninger & Snel, 2002).

On the other hand, statistical analysis can help us comprehend the impact and severity of povertyrelated variables(S. G. Kim, 2015). Several studies have been carried out using various statistical methodologies to determine the occurrence and degree of poverty(Dagum & Costa, 2004; Gräb, 2015; Leonard, 2014; Sugiyarto, 2007; U N STATISTICS, 2005; Ubale, 2017; Wang & Wang, 2016). Among the several works one of the major work done by Roy et al. (2019), who employ a multi-stage random sampling approach in West Bengal to quantify the incidence, depth, and severity of multidimensional poverty (MDP) among rural families and the contributions of dimensions to MDP using logistic regression analysis. Another research by Guchhait and Sengupta (2021), who investigated poverty difficulties in rural homes in India, using Glimpses from the Purulia District of West Bengal as a case study. They employed quantitative approaches such as stepwise multiple regression and decomposition analysis using FGT indices to estimate the relative strengths of the variables influencing poverty.

The presentpoverty research was conducted using remote sensing (RS) and geographic information systems (GIS) to analyze the spatiality of determinants, as well as multivariate statistical techniques to examine the connection of critical deciding variables. Previously, many research studies have been conducted utilizing multivariate statistical approaches (Coppi & Statistica, 1998; Dagum & Costa, 2004; Gräb, 2015; Hanley, 1983; Ipsum et al., 2015; Mondala et al., 2018; Mukhopadhyay, 2008) in conjunction with remote sensing (RS) and geographic information systems (GIS) (ADB, 2020; Akinyemi, 2008; Hersh et al., 2021; Netzband, 2010; Sangli, 1999; Shah, 2011; Thongdara et al., 2012) to analyze the geographical connection as well as the relationship between various poverty factors and their measurement and mitigation strategies. Previously, different socioeconomic, agro-climatic, and physical variables were utilized to integrate this kind of study effort for analytical purposes. Based on previous research, this study examined the following variables associated with poverty, i.e., mean elevation, percent of the slope with and without agricultural constraints, percent of soil with and without agrarian restrictions, mean drainage density, mean pond density, and mean annual rainfall as agro-climatic factors; mean road density as access to transport and communication factor; the nearest estimated distance to town centers or major cities as proximity to major market-related factor; and population growth rate and literacy rate as demographic factors.

The primary objectives of this research are -(i) to extract the significant determinants of poverty using geospatial and geostatistical tools and technique and their interrelationship with poverty (ii) to identify the spatiality of the variable over the specific regions (iii) to find out the spatial distributions of significant factors throughout the regions and causes behind it.

This study area did not experience any study regarding this. That's why this is the uniqueness of the research and authors were trying to fill this research gap as much as possible. The second research gap is that significant research projects deal with socioeconomic factors to control poverty, but very few include physical factors (Minot et al., 2006; Vista & Murayama, 2011b). In this respect, this research simultaneously focuses on socio-economic and physical parameters. Based on the 'economic determinism' philosophy, the human economy is majorly determined by nature. So, authors were also trying to fill up this research gap.

This research is quantitative research investigating the test area's poverty factors. So, in a quantitative investigation, many qualitative characteristics are not considered; consequently, some deficiencies may happen during this study as the qualitative parameter is not accepted for analysis. It is one of the challenges of this research. Anotherdifficulty we faced during this research is that due to overspreading of COVID-19, we were not able to get extensive field survey and collect primary ground truth data, so the entire work was processed under secondary data. But the outcome of the work will be helpful for the planner and social workers for properly implementing policies to eradicate or reduce poverty.

Materials and methods

Study area

To achieve these goals, the Birbhum District of West Bengal, an impoverished area in eastern India, has been chosen as a test location, where, as per the 2011 census, about 27.7 percent of the total population is below the poverty line (Mondala et al., 2018). The study area is located between 23° 32' 30" and 24° 35' 0" N latitude and 87° 5' 25" and 88° 1' 40"E longitude and covers an area of 4,545 sq km. The Ajay River runs between Birbhum and Bardhama along the southern base. The state of Jharkhand lies on the northern and western border, while Murshidabad is on the east (Figure 1). According to the 2011 census of India, Birbhum has a population of 3,502,404. Males outnumber females by a ratio of 1,790,920 to 1,711,484. Literate males to literate females are 2,158,447 to 956,966 (Census, 2011).

Figure 2 (a & b) shows the study's physiographic division and geological condition. The landscape of this region is extremely similar to the Rarh area of Murshidabad, Burdwan, Bankura, and Midnapore. The divided plateau of Jharkhand stretching southsoutheast includes the district's western section. The



Fig. 1 Location map of study area- a India, b West Bengal, c Birbhum district

landscape grows more undulated as you go east. The western highlands are made up of Gondwana sediments, laterite, and alluvium.

In contrast, the remainder of the region is made up of Archean crystalline rocks that are hard and impervious to water. There are several rock formations in this region. In the western half of the area, for example, a dissected plateau made of Archean granitic gneiss may be found. The Gondwana era sediments, as well as laterite and alluvium deposits, have produced the eastern section of the area.

Data source

The dependent variable in this study is poverty, parametrically called poverty incidence, which is defined as the percentage of individuals living below poverty in a particular nation. (Coudouel et al., 2002). Census



Fig. 2 a Physiographic division and b Geological map of the study area

data and Birbhum District Statistical Abstract, 2011 are utilized to integrate this study. In view of this, the block-wise poverty percentage (poverty incidence) was estimated based on the block-wise number of total households and the BPL families. Among Independent variables, mean elevation, percent of the slope with and without agricultural constraints, percent of soil with and without agrarian restrictions, mean drainage density, mean pond density, and mean annual rainfall are used as agro-climatic variables; mean road density is used as access to transport and communication variable; the nearest estimated distance to town centers or major cities is used as proximity to the major market-related variable, and population growth rate and literacy rate are used as demographic variables (Table 1). This test region's spatial distribution of rainfall was produced from the District planning map of NATMO on a 1:1,000,000 scale. Mean elevation data of this study region was collected from satellite imageries of the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission Digital Elevation Model (SRTM DEM V3, 1-arc sec). The spatial data of slope gradient (percent) was produced, tuning the same elevation data from SRTM Dem in Arc GIS 10.5 software (Evaluated Copy) using the Spatial Analyst tool. The drainage density and pond frequency maps of this study area were produced by using Arc GIS software (Evaluated Copy) using the grid index method from the drainage map and pond map, respectively digitalized from the Survey of India (SOI) topographical maps (sheet no. 72P/12, 72P/14, 72P/15, 72P/16, 73 M/1, 73 M/5, 73 M/6, 73 M/9, 73 M/10, 73 M/13, 73 M/14, 73D/3, 73D/4) on 1:50,000 scale. The soil texture map was obtained from the Birbhum District Portal. This study area's road density map was prepared using Arc GIS software (Evaluated Copy) using the line density method from the road map obtained from the Survey of India (SOI) website. The closest distance from each town center to major cities was calculated to represent proximity to major markets. The distance between each town center and the nearest large town was estimated using the ArcGIS network analyst feature based on the existing road networks. Block-wise population growth was calculated using the 2001 and 2011 census data of Birbhum District. Lastly, block-wise literacy was also calculated using the Birbhum census, 2011. These variables directly or indirectly impact poverty in developing nations, particularly agriculture-based societies(see table 1).

Methods

S298

Various geospatial and geostatistical methods have been deployed after collecting the dataset from different sources. The methodology section has been divided into three significant steps.

(a) Methodology regarding geospatial database generation.

(b) Methodology regarding the quantitative analysis.

(c) Methodology regarding the spatial mapping of controlling parameters.

The geographical data was created using Arc GIS 10.5 software (Evaluation Copy), and the statistical methods were examined with IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software (Evaluated Copy).Figure 3 illustrates the whole process in a methodological flow chart.

Methodology regarding geospatial database generation

To produce thematic layers, digital image processing is used with the digitization of existing maps (Samson et al., 2017). 10 variables were examined in this study to determine block-level poverty incidence: mean annual rainfall; mean elevation; percent of slope with and without agricultural restrictions; mean drainage density; pond frequency; percent of soil with and without agricultural restrictions; population growth rate; and literacy rate. These variables are regarded to be the most important in determining poverty levels. Table 2 is an overview of the literature. The spatial database of this study was developed using ArcGIS 10.5 software (Evaluated Copy). To extract data from each thematic layer in each block, 252 random points were generated. The spatial analyst tool in Arc GIS 10.5 software was used to retrieve numerical data from all thematic levels of these random 252 sites.

Methodology regarding quantitative analysis

Multiple linear regression and principal component analysis (PCA) have been performed using IBM



Fig. 3 Methodological flow chart

 Table 1
 Data source of different variables and hypotheses

Primary variable	Secondary variable	Indicators	Data source	Hypothesis
Poverty	Local poverty level	Poverty incidence	Calculated using Census data and Birbhum District Statistical Abstract, 2011	Dependent variable
Agro-Climatic Factors	Rainfall Distribution	Mean Annual Rainfall	Produced from the Dis- trict planning map of NATMO	(↑) Rainfall (−)
	Elevation	Mean Elevation	Produced from SRTM DEM	(\uparrow) Elevation (+)
	Slope	Percent of Slope With and Without Agrarian Restrictions	Produced from SRTM DEM	(↑) Slope With Restrictions(+)
	Access to Water	Mean Drainage Density	Produced from the Survey of India (SOI) topographical maps	(↑) Drainage Density (−)
		Pond frequency	Produced from the Survey of India (SOI) topographical maps	(\uparrow) Pond frequency $(-)$
	Soil Texture	Percent of soil with and Without Agricultural Constraints	Obtained from the Birb- hum District Portal	(↑) Soil With Constraints(+)
Access to Transport and Communication	Road network	Mean Road Density	Obtained from the road map of Survey of India	(\uparrow) Road Density $(-)$
Proximity to Major Markets	Location of Town or Major Cities	Nearest Estimated Dis- tance to Town Centers or Major Cities	Obtained from the Sur- vey of India	(\uparrow) Distance $(+)$
Demographic Character- istics	Population Growth	Population growth rate	Calculated using the 2001 and 2011 census data	(↑) Population Growth Rate (+)
	Literacy	Literacy rate	Calculated using the 2011 census data	(↑) Literacy Rate (−)

 (\uparrow) Arrow means higher i.e. higher elevation would have higher poverty incidence; (+) positive means direct relationship, i.e. higher elevation increases poverty incidence; (-) negative means inverse relationship, i.e. higher elevation decreases poverty incidence

SPSS Statistics 25 software to determine the linear relationship between explanatory variables and response variables and extract the significant factors influencing poverty.

Multiple linear regression (MLR) We must understand the influence of independent variables (mean annual rainfall, mean elevation, percent of slope with and without agricultural restrictions, mean drainage density, pond frequency, and percent of soil with and without agricultural restrictions) on the dependent variable (mean estimated distance to town centers or major cities, population growth rate, and literacy rate) (poverty incidence). Linear regression is the most important statistical approach for discovering linear correlations. MLR is the best approach for extracting linearity when there are more than two independent variables and just one dependent variable. So, in this study, MLR was used to determine the direct effect of several independent factors on a single dependent variable (Jobson, 1991; Plotts, 2011; Turóczy & Marian, 2012; Uyanık & Güler, 2013). This statistical technique established a linear relationship between many explanatory (independent) and one response (dependent) variables (Jobson, 1991; Uyanık & Güler, 2013).

Multiple linear regression (MLR) mathematically expressed as-

Primary variable	Secondary variable	Indicators	References
Agro-Climatic Factors	Rainfall Distribution	Mean Annual Rainfall	Banerjee (2015); Barua et al. (2014); Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje (2019)
	Elevation	Mean Elevation	Bathla et al. (2020); Kudo & Mino (2020)
	Slope	Percent of Slope With and Without Agrarian Restrictions	Gerber et al. (2014); Rahman et al. (2012)
	Access to Water	Mean Drainage Density	Frayne et al. (2014); Harmanny & Malek (2019)
		Pond frequency	Chukalla et al. (2013); Joffre et al. (2017); Kipkemboi et al. (2010)
	Soil Texture	Percent of soil with and Without Agricultural Constraints	Kopittke et al. (2019); Otchia (2014); Seyedmohammadi et al. (2016)
Access to Transport and Commu- nication	Road network	Mean Road Density	Greiner et al. (2021); Khanani et al. (2021); Modinpuroju et al. (2016); Omar & Inaba (2020)
Proximity to Major Market	Location of Town or Major Cities	Nearest Estimated Distance to Town Centers or Major Cities	Darrouzet-Nardi & Masters (2015); Prabhu et al. (2017)
Demographic Characteristics	Population Growth	Population growth rate	Abernethy (2002); Ahlburgl (1996); Jackson et al. (1996); Nabi et al. (2020)
	Literacy	Literacy rate	Bakhshi et al. (2021); Malik (2013); Tridico (2010)

 Table 2
 Literatures on selection of conditioning variables for Poverty incidence

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \mathbf{x}_{i1} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 \mathbf{x}_{i2} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_3 \mathbf{x}_{i3} \dots \dots + \boldsymbol{\beta}_p \mathbf{x}_{ip} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$
(1)

where, y_i =Response or dependent variable (poverty incidence); x_{i1} , x_{i2} , x_{i3} x_{ip} =Explanatory or independent variables (mean annual rainfall, mean elevation, percent of the slope with and without agricultural restrictions, mean drainage density, pond frequency, percent of soil with and without agricultural constraints, mean road density, nearest estimated distance to town centers or major cities, population growth rate, and literacy rate); β_0 =Intercept or constant; β_1 , β_2 , β_3 β_p =Slope coefficients for each explanatory variable; ε =Standard error of estimation.

We must first determine if the independent variables are linearly related before doing an MLR calculation. Multicollinearity tests may be used to assess the linear connections between independent variables. Multicollinearity occurs when the regression model includes many variables closely connected to the dependent and independent variables. (J. H. Kim, 2019; Young, 2017).

When an investigator tries to determine how effectively each variable can be used to predict or understand the response variable in a statistical model, multicollinearity may lead to skewed or misleading findings(Frank E. Harrell, 2001).Several research studies have addressed the multicollinearity issues in the regression model, stressing that the main problem consists of unequal and biased standard errors and impractical interpretations of findings(Jobson, 1991; Turóczy & Marian, 2012; Uyanık & Güler, 2013). The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is one of the most used methods for identifying multicollnearness (Shrestha, 2020). The variance inflation factor is used to determine how much the variance of the predicted regression coefficient is inflated by correlating the independent variables. The VIF is computed as follows:

$$VIF = \frac{1}{1 - R^2} = \frac{1}{Tolerance}$$
(2)

The tolerance is only the opposite of the VIF. The lower the tolerance, the more probable it is that the variables are multicollinearity.

Principal component analysis (PCA) Principal component analysis (PCA) is one of the most effective methods for extracting the major determining factors of poverty (Ipsum et al., 2015; Suryahadi et al., 2014). PCA has been performed using IBM SPSS 25 statistical software. The Karl Pearson correlation matrix has been created to identify and associate the individual factors of poverty incidence (Suryahadi et al., 2014). The correlation value of > 0.5 indicates a powerful correlation between variables, < 0.5 is a weak correlation between variables, and the 0.5 value suggests moderate correlation (Libório et al., 2020). PCA offers the most effective information on the components of extensive data collection and minimizes information loss. This research adequately interpreted PCA varimax rotation in accordance with the Guttman-Kaiser rule. Only those elements with a value higher than one (>1) were considered as significant factors (Cangelosi & Goriely, 2007). Therefore, the eigenvalue in the IBM SPSS 25 program has been set to 1 for the appropriate extraction of the poverty incidence components. Cattle's (1966) scree Test is a graphical representation of the eigenvalue in terms of factors (Cattell, 1966). A simple line segment plot shows the percentage of the total variation. It has been demonstrated that when substantial factors are present, the slope of the line is steep, but when the factors correspond to the error, the slope is fat. Following steps have been utilized to the computation of PCA.

Step-1:The following formula has been used to standardization of data-

$$Y_{ij} = \frac{X_{ij} - \mathbf{X}\overline{X}_j}{S_j} \tag{3}$$

where, $i=1, 2, 3, \dots$ is point of samples; $j=1, 2, 3, \dots$ is the amount of original sample.

$$X_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{ij} \& S_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{ij} - X_j)}$$
(4)

After standardization, the mean and variance of each sample were 0, 1.

Step-2:Calculated the correlation matrix of variables R.

Let the sample correlation matrix $R = (r_{ij})$ = 2X'X, Correlation coefficient.

 $r_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum$, and $r_{ij} = r_{ji}$, $r_{ii} = r_{jj} = 1$ So Ris a symmetric matrix; the main diagonal elements are 1.

Step-2:Calculated Eigenvalue $\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \lambda_3 \dots \dots$ $\dots \lambda_p > 0$ of the correlation matrix of variables, and the Eigenvector corresponding

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{11} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{21} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{p1} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{21} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{22} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{p2} \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1p} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2p} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$
(5)

Step-4:The final PCA can be expressed with the help of Equation-

$$F_1 = \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1i} X_1 + \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2i} X_2 + \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{3i} X_3 \dots \dots + \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{pi} X_p \qquad (6)$$

where F_1 is the first principal component, X_1 , X_2 , X_3 ,..., X_p are the original variables (namely mean annual rainfall, mean elevation, percent of the slope with and without agricultural restrictions, mean drainage density, pond frequency, percent of soil with and without agricultural constraints, mean road density, nearest estimated distance to town centers, or major cities, population growth rate, and literacy rate), and α_{1i} , α_{2i} , α_{3i} ,..., α_{pi} are the coefficient or weight of each variable for the first principal component F_1 .

Methodology regarding the spatial mapping of controlling parameters

The Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) technique has been employed in ArcGIS 10.5 software using the spatial analyst tool to represent the spatial pattern of controlling factors derived from principal component analysis(PCA) (Ajaj et al., 2018). IDW is a type of interpolation technique in which missing values are approximated by averaging other sample values from the vicinity and considering that nearby values are more similar than the furthest value and is used to estimate the value of unknown stations (Burrough & McDonnell, 1999). Fig. 5 shows the IDW principle, which states that an unknown value may be estimated using the closest value. The National Weather Service of the United States established this idea in 1972 (F. W. Chen & Liu, 2012).IDW can be mathematically expressed using the given formula-

$$\widehat{R}_{p} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} R_{i} \& w_{i} = \frac{d_{i}^{-x}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} d_{i}^{-x}}$$
(7)

where, \hat{R}_p =unknown data in thematic layers, R_i =known data value of the thematic layer, N=data value of each thematic layer, w_i =weighting of each thematic layer, d_i =distance from the unknown station to a known station for each thematic layer.

Results

Spatial variability and importance of parameters

Spatial variability means the distribution determinants throughout the study region. The spatial variation of major determinants are discussed below.

Rainfall

Rainfall is the most important agro-climatic factor that influences crop production and poverty levels in every agro-based community (Kyei-Mensah et al.,

Fig. 4 Principle of inverse distance weighting (IDW) technique

2019; Ndamani & Watanabe, 2015). From June to September, the southwest monsoon winds provide 80 percent of the rainfall for the study region. In this district, the average annual rainfall is 1430.5 mm. The quantity of rainfall in the western half of the country is greater, while it is lower in the eastern section. The whole district has been split into five rainy zones based on rainfall distribution, i.e., very high (>1400 mm), high (1300–1400 mm), moderate (1200–1300 mm), low (1100–1200 mm), and very low (<1100 mm) rainfall zone (Figure 4a).

Elevation

Elevation, also an agro-climatic factor, directly affects living conditions and the prevalence of poverty in any region (Merrey et al., 2018; Olsson et al., 2015). As the Chhotanagpur plateau extends, the western portion of this district is highly elevated. So on the west side is undulating topography. On the other hand, the central and eastern parts of the district have flat terrain (Figure 4b).



Slope

Slope is one of the most significant agro-climate factors that affect people's economic and poverty conditions (Petterson et al., 2019). Slope affects the irrigation system and crop productivity because it influences surface runoff and vertical water percolation(Fombe & Tossa, 2015; Wezel et al., 2002). Slopes with agricultural limitations, i.e., slopes greater than 8%, directly affect agricultural output and the prevalence of poverty because of their rolling to hilly and steep slopes. Lands with a slope of 0-8 percent, defined by flatlands to rolling hills, on the other hand, have a comparatively low degree of poverty incidence. A 0-8% slope characterizes the majority of the research area. A higher than 8% slope may be seen in certain sections of the western side (Figure 4c).

Drainage density

The stream length per unit area in a region is referred to as drainage density (Horton, 1932; STRAHLER, 1952). Drainage density is also one of the most critical agro-climate variables that influence people's economic conditions and poverty circumstances. Individuals with greater access to river resources have a geographic advantage because rivers provide water for agriculture and fishing (Kamra et al., 2019). Higher drainage density has been seen in this research region over the western portion of the plateau border, whereas lower drainage density has been observed over the eastern part of the district, where the terrain has a gentle slope (Figure 4d).

Pond frequency

The number of ponds per unit area is called pond frequency.Pond frequency is also one of the most important agro-climatic factors that affect people's economic situations and poverty levels since ponds also offer water for agricultural irrigation and a platform for inland fishing(Bichsel et al., 2016; Golam Rabbani et al., 2018). The prevalence of ponds in this research area is shown in Fig. 4e. The eastern and central parts of the research region have extremely high to high frequencies, while the western portion has low to moderate pond frequency.

Soil texture

Soil texture is another significant agro-climatic variable affecting crop productivity and the poverty level of an agriculture-based community. Not all soils are conducive to agricultural production. The ideal agricultural soils are balanced in mineral components, soil organic matter, air, and water inputs (Kraaijvanger et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2014). So, there is a clear link between poverty incidence and soil with and without agricultural constraints. Fig. 4f depicts a soil texture map of the study region. The research region was divided into five main soil texture groups: sandy, clay loam, sandy loam, clay, and loam.

Access to transport and communication

Transportation and communication are a significant predictor of poverty incidence since well-connected transportation is critical for regional development, as agricultural and industrial output is transported to markets through transportation networks (Milewski & Zaloga, 2013; Rodrigue, 2016). This research considers mean road density a criterion for transport and communication. Fig. 4g shows the average road density map of the research area. In the central part of this research area, where major cities are situated, the maximum road density has been found than in the outer regions.

Proximity to major markets

Market location is another key factor of regional development, given that the market plays an essential role in the interchange of commodities and services. The sole market is focused on different agricultural and household industrial products. Additional employment in the market sector may thus be offered. This is why it is an important variable affecting the prevalence of poverty in an area (Imran et al., 2017; Kero, 2002).Fig. 4h shows the location of this research region's different markets and road networks.

Population growth

Population growth refers to the increase or decrease in the size of a population over time, which may be positive or negative depending on the balance of births, deaths, and migration. There is a direct relationship between population growth rate and poverty incidence. When the globe's population outnumbers its resources, the earth's resources carry the additional weight on land, making economic growth harder and increasing poverty and hunger throughout the world (Malthus, 1798). So, it is an important demographic factor that influences the incidence of poverty. The population growth rate in this research area is shown in Fig. 4i. The blocks in the western and northern portions, namely Md. Bazar, Rampurhat-II, Nalhati-II, and Murarai-II, have seen the most population growth. The blocks of Rajnagar, Suri-I, Nalhati-I, Mayureswar-I, and Murarai-I have seen the least amount of population growth. The rest of the blocks have seen moderate population growth.

Literacy

Literacy is another significant demographic variable that has an impact on economic growth and the prevalence of poverty. Literacy improves job chances and raises one's socioeconomic standing. Increased literacy rates also result in lower population growth rates, allowing a country's resources to be better distributed among fewer people. Those with inadequate literacy skills are much more likely to be poor and suffer health issues (Dahal, 2017; Desai, 2012). Fig. 4j shows the literacy map of this research area.

Table 3 Regression coefficient

Two blocks in the northern portions, namely Murarai-I, and Murarai-II, have seen the lowest literacy rate, i.e., less than 58.03 percent. Two blocks of Illambazar and Nalhati-I have seen the maximum literacy rate, i.e., more than 73.30 percent. The rest of the blocks have seen a moderate literacy rate, i.e., 85.03 to 73.30 percent.

Poverty incidence

This is the dependent variable for this research. It is the conventional metric, which may be calculated by calculating the proportion of people in a particular area who live below the poverty line (Coudouel et al., 2002). The greater the prevalence of poverty in a community, the poorer it is compared to another. Figure 4k shows the poverty incidence map of this study area. The blocks in the northern portions, namely Murarai-I, Murarai-II, Nalhati-II, Rampurhat-I, and Rampurhat-II have seen a high to the very high prevalence of poverty. The blocks like Rajnagar, Mayureswar-I, Mayureswar-II, and Nalhati-I have seen a moderate poverty rate. The rest of the blocks have seen a low incidence of poverty.

Model	Unstandardized coefficients	Standardized coefficients	t	Sig	Collinearity statistics			
	В	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	98.711	13.605		7.256	.000		
	Pond frequency	- 4.498	.554	373	- 8.126	.000	.831	1.204
	Mean drainage density	764	.899	039	850	.396	.831	1.203
	Mean elevation	162	.027	332	- 5.994	.000	.571	1.752
	Mean annual rainfall	008	.006	082	-1.380	.169	.500	1.998
	Literacy rate	420	.130	171	- 3.228	.001	.621	1.610
	Population growth rate	.668	.074	.408	9.044	.000	.858	1.165
	Slope in percent	.153	.248	.027	.616	.539	.924	1.083
	Mean road density	010	.006	078	- 1.622	.106	.754	1.327
	Proximity to major market	511	.175	141	- 2.916	.004	.749	1.334
	Soil texture	.000	.001	014	338	.736	.972	1.029

Dependent variable: Poverty Incidence

The statistical linearity between poverty incidence and other Explanatory variables

MLR checks statistical linearity. Table 3 shows the MLR model's tolerance and VIF values for each independent variable. VIF opposes tolerance. Smaller tolerance increases multicollinearity. A VIF of 5–10 shows multicollinearity. (O'Brien, 2007). Table 3 shows that the tolerance values of all independent variables employed in this study are significantly higher than 0.20. We can also observe from this table that the VIF values of all independent variables are much lower than 5. This result shows no problem with multicollinearity among the independent variables applied in this study. So, we will go for a multiple linear regression test to determine the relationship between the explanatory and response variables. (Fig. 5)

Multiple linear regression depicts the linear connection between numerous independent variables and a single dependent variable. The whole model was run using IBM SPSS Statistics 25 (evaluation version). According to Table 4 and Fig. 6, poverty incidence is positively related to mean elevation, percent of the slope and population growth and negatively related to rainfall, road density, and pond frequency. Except for soil texture, all factors in this study showed a significant link with poverty in the study region. Most of the correlational value is significant at 1% significance level.Thefollowing paragraph delves into the nuances of each element and their impact on poverty in this study area.

Table 4 shows the expected link between all explanatory factors and poverty incidence, whereas Fig. 6 reveals the analytical outcome. Rainfall and poverty incidence should be inversely related. The finding's - 0.899 regression coefficient also confirms the previous theory. Thus, higher rainfall benefits farmers by delivering more water for agricultural irrigation and thus boosts farmproductivity and resultant reduced poverty incidence. There is a direct correlation between a region's mean elevation and its prevalence of poverty. The positive regression coefficient confirms the hypothesis equals 0.966. Therefore, poverty is more prevalent at higher elevations. The finding, which has a regression coefficient of 0.957, substantiates the theory that came before it. The rate of agricultural production and poverty level are both directly influenced by the presence of hilly terrain and steep slopes.

Conversely, flatlands to rolling hills with a slope of 0-8% have a low frequency of poverty. The regression coefficients for drainage density and pond frequency are negative verifies, which was expected to be inverse. So, increasing drainage density and pond frequency would reduce poverty since rivers and ponds offer water for agricultural irrigation and fishing. However, regression results show that agricultural soil texture is not a statistically significant predictor of poverty occurrence. Soil is not a factor impacting poverty in the examined region. The negative regression coefficient (- 0.749) between road density and poverty incidence supports the original premise. Well-connected transportation infrastructure is essential for regional development, which relies on delivering agricultural and industrial products to markets. It was also expected that access to big marketplaces would reduce poverty. The.949 positive regression coefficient supports the previous hypothesis. Because marketplaces are essential for exchanging commodities and services, increasing the distance between cities and big markets reduces poverty. The positive regression coefficient (0.822) for the association between population growth and poverty incidence supports the first premise. It is also plausible to deduce that rising population growth will lead to poverty. Finally, discovering a negative regression coefficient (-0.945) between literacy and poverty incidence validates the original hypothesis. It is also plausible to infer that higher literacy will reduce poverty.

Predicting poverty incidence from explanatory factors requires explaining the model first. To summarize the model, r=0.861, r2=0.741, and Durbin-Watson=1.260 indicate positive autocorrelation. In this situation, the standard error of the estimate is 0.7891 (Table 5), showing that the MLR model is accurate. This model's significance level is 0.000 (Table 6), rejecting the null hypothesis (H0).

Table 3 is significant since it contains information on the forecast poverty level. From this table we can see that the intercept value (β_0) is 98.711 and the values of pond frequency (x_{i1}), mean drainage density (x_{i2}), mean elevation (x_{i3}), mean annual rainfall (x_{i4}), literacy rate (x_{i5}), population growth rate (x_{i6}), slope in percent (x_{i7}), mean road density (x_{i8}), proximity to major market (x_{i9}), and soil texture (x_{i10}) are - 4.498, - 0.764, - 0.162, - 0.008, - 0.420, 0.668,



Fig. 5 Spatial pattern of different variables- **a** Annual Rainfall, **b** Elevation, **c** Slope in Percent, **d** Drainage Density, **e** Pond frequency, **f** Soil Texture, **g** Road Density, **h** Proximity to $\underline{\textcircled{O}}$ Springer

Major Market: Towns and Road Network, i Population Growth Rate, j Literacy Rate, k Poverty incidence: Percent of BPL Population



Fig. 5 (continued)

Table 4 Corre	ation matrix am	ong variables										
	Poverty Inci- dence	Pond Fre- quency	Drainage Density	Elevation	Rainfall	Literacy	Population Growth	Slope percent	Road Density	Major Mark	Soil	
Poverty Inci- dence	Pearson Cor- relation	1	– .859 ^{**}	773**	.966	899*	945**	.822**	.957**	749**	.949**	060.
	Sig. (2-tailed)		000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	.000	000.	000.	.154
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Pond Fre-	Pearson Cor-	– .859**	1	.915**	– .862 ^{**}	.894**	.818**	– .930 ^{**}	877**	.881**	905**	171**
formah	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.		000	000	000	000	000	000.	000	000.	.007
	N N	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Mean drain- age density	Pearson Cor- relation	— .773 ^{**}	.915**	1	750 ^{**}	.836**	.715**	954**	 – .805^{**} 	.980	863**	303**
)	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	.000		000.	000	000	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Mean eleva- tion	Pearson Cor- relation	.966**	– .862 ^{**}	750 ^{**}	1	– .933 ^{**}	971**	.791**	.974**	710 ^{**}	.950**	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	000.	000.		000	000	000.	000.	000	.000	.190
	N	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Mean annual rainfall	Pearson Cor- relation	899**	.894**	.836**	933**	1	.920**	854 ^{**}	932**	.787**	955**	084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	.000	.000	000.		000	000.	.000	000.	000.	.185
	N	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Literacy rate	Pearson Cor- relation	– .945**	.818**	.715**	– .971 ^{**}	.920**	1	778**	– .952 ^{**}	.697**	925**	082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	.000	000.	000.	000.		000.	.000	000.	000.	.195
	N	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Population growth rate	Pearson Cor- relation	.822**	930**	– .954 ^{**}	.791**	– .854 ^{**}	— .778 ^{**}	1	.843**	960	.884**	.163**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.		.000	000.	.000	.010
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Slope in percent	Pearson Cor- relation	.957**	— .877 ^{**}	– .805**	.974**	932 ^{**}	– .952 ^{**}	.843**	1	—.779 ^{**}	.966**	.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.		000.	.000	.073
	N	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Mean road density	Pearson Cor- relation	— .749**	.881**	.980	710 ^{**}	.787**	.697	960	779**	1	836**	313**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	.000	000.	000.	000.	000	000.	000.		000.	000.

🖄 Springer

GeoJournal ((2023)	88:S293-	-S319
--------------	--------	----------	-------

0.153, -0.010, -0.511 and 0.000 respectively. When all of the values of all variables have been gathered, the linear relationship between the explanatory and response variables may be mathematically represented as follows:

Predicted	pover	rty	level
$(\mathbf{y}_i) = 98.711(\beta_0) + (-$	4.498)	*Pond	frequency
$(x_{i1}) + (- 0.764)$	*Mean	drainage	density
$(x_{i2}) + (-0.162) *Me$	an elevat	tion $(x_{i3}) +$	(-0.008)
*Mean annual rain	fall (x _{i4})	+(- 0.4)	20) *Lit-
eracy rate $(x_{i5}) + 0$.	668*Popu	lation gro	owth rate
$(x_{i6}) + 0.153$ *Slope in p	percent (x	$_{i7}) + (-0.0)$	10) *Mean
Road density $(x_{i8}) + (x_{i8}) + (x_{i8}$	- 0.511)	*Proximity	y to major
market $(x_{i9}) + 0.000 * S_{i9}$	oil texture	$(x_{i10}) + 0.7$	7891.

If we look into the p-value of the Anova table (Table 6), it can be observed that the p-value is < 0.05that means at a 5% significance level, the MLR model is valid and acceptable. So, if we get the values of all the explanatory variables, we can compute the projected poverty level for this study areain future years.

Major factors affecting poverty in the test region

This research used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to identify important poverty determinants. This PCA shows five factors that predict poverty in this location. Table 7 shows variables explained for factor analysis, eigenvalues, and variance. The first five components (Table 7) define 70% of the total variance (the first principal component accounts for 20.577 percent of the total variance; the second principal component accounts for 15.052 percent; the third principal component accounts for 13.625 percent; the fourth and fifth principal components account for 10.686 percent and 10.082 percent of the total variance, respectively). Rests were omitted. This study only concentrates on the first five components while assessing data.

The eigenvalues were shown using the Cattle's Scree Test (Cattell, 1966). This simple line segment graphic illustrates the volatile nature of the data. According to the slope line in Fig. 7, if more elements might influence the outcome, the line will rise at a quick rate; on the other hand, if the factors are connected to the inaccuracy, the line will remain flat. The first five components shown in Fig. 7 are the ones that matter, whereas the other components include errors that lead to flat slopes. The variables are rotated to generate new variables using principal component

Table 4 (coi	ntinued)			
	Poverty Inci- dence	Pond Fre- quency	Drainage Density	Ele
	Z	252	252	252
Proximity to major market	Pearson Cor- relation	.949**	905**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	000.	00.
	Z	252	252	252

	Poverty Inci- dence	Pond Fre- quency	Drainage Density	Elevation	Rainfall	Literacy	Population Growth	Slope percent	Road Density	Major Mark	Soil	
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Proximity to major market	Pearson Cor- relation	.949**	905**	863**	.950**	– .955 ^{**}	925**	.884**	.966**	836**	1	.108
	Sig. (2-tailed)	000.	000.	000.	000.	000.	.000	000.	000.	000.		.087
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
Soil texture	Pearson Cor- relation	060.	171 ^{**}	– .303 ^{**}	.083	084	082	.163**	.113	– .313 ^{**}	.108	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.154	.007	000.	.190	.185	.195	.010	.073	.000	.087	
	Z	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252	252
** Correlation	is significant at th	ne 0.01 level (2-t	ailed)									



Fig. 6 Diagrammatic presentation of Co-relation matrix

Table 5 Model summary of multi linear regression

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	Durbin- watson
1	.861 ^a	.741	.732	.7891	1.260

a. Predictors: (Constant), Soil, Population Growth, Rainfall, Road Density, Slope percent, Pond Frequency, Drainage Density, Major Mark, Literacy, Elevation

b. Dependent Variable: Poverty Incidence

analysis. A strategy for determining factor loading and gaining knowledge of factors is called rotation (Acal et al., 2020; Kaiser, 1958; Rösler & Manzey, 1981). To generate uncorrelated components, this research used the varimax rotation, which can be seen in Table 8.

Factor 1:agro-climatic factors

It accounts for 20.577 percent of the overall variance in the data (Table 7). This factor is subject to considerable sway from the mean elevation, slope, and annual precipitation averages (Table 8). The agroclimatic elements have a role in the prevalence of poverty in the area under investigation. Therefore, the effect of agro-climatic factors on the poverty level in the study region was defined by factor 1.

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig	
1	Regression	20,634.422	10	2063.442	33.136	.000 ^b
	Residual	15,007.399	241	62.271		
	Total	35,641.821	251			

a. Dependent Variable: Poverty Incidence

b. Predictors: (Constant), Soil, Population Growth, Rainfall, Road Density, Slope percent, Pond Frequency, Drainage Density, Major Mark, Literacy, Elevation

S310

Component

7

8

9

10

Initial	eigenvalues		Extrac	tion sums of squ	ared loadings	Rotatio	on sums of squar	red loadings
Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
2.058	20.577	20.577	2.058	20.577	20.577	1.708	17.075	17.075
1.505	15.052	35.629	1.505	15.052	35.629	1.432	14.322	31.398
1.362	13.625	49.253	1.362	13.625	49.253	1.426	14.260	45.658
1.069	10.686	59.940	1.069	10.686	59.940	1.383	13.830	59.488
1.009	10.087	70.027	1.009	10.087	70.027	1.054	10.539	70.027
.827	8.268	78.295						

Table 7 Variable explained for factor analysis

Extraction method: principal component analysis

8.141

6.622

4.081

2.860

86.437

93.059

97.140

100.000



.814

.662

.408

.286



Factor 2: infrastructural and educational factors

Explains 15.052% of overall variance (Table 7). This factor negatively affects literacy but positively affects the estimated distance to town centers or significant cities (Table 8). Therefore, proximity to big markets positively influences the incidence of poverty in the area under investigation, but the literacy rate has a negative effect. These are known as the educational and infrastructure aspects.

Factor 3: hydrological factors

13.526 percent of the total variation is accounted for by this factor (Table 7). This component significantly negatively impacts the average drainage density and pond frequency (Table 8). This component identifies mean drainage density and pond frequency as hydrological factors that negatively affect the incidence of poverty in this research area. Consequently, these elements fall under hydrological considerations.

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Pond frequency	205	.225	788	.081	164
Mean drainage density	.088	.006	776	.063	.010
Mean elevation	.837	045	060	.297	050
Mean annual rainfall	831	.026	196	310	.025
Literacy rate	294	891	.285	.031	075
Population growth rate	206	015	.154	.766	054
Slope in percent	.718	183	.501	.241	.529
Mean road density	.199	819	.216	.061	080
Proximity to major market	.210	.804	.075	017	180
Soil texture	086	.143	168	068	.835

Table 8 Rotated Component Matrix

Factor loadings > .7 are marked by bold font

Extraction method: principal component analysis

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations

Factor 4 and 5: demographic and pedological factors

Explain 10.686% and 10.087% of the total variance, respectively (Table 7). Factor 4 has a significant positive loading on the population growth rate, while Factor 5 has a large positive loading on the soil texture (Table 8). So, factor 4 defines population growth rate as a demographic component that positively affects poverty incidence in this study region. Factor 5, on the other hand, describes the percent of soil with and without agricultural constraints as an agro-climatic factor that positively influences the incidence of poverty in this research area.But collectively, these factors are considered as demographic and pedological factors.

Spatial pattern of factors

Mean elevation, yearly rainfall, and slope in percent are all included in **Factor 1**. Research shows that this factor is more concentrated in western research areas (Fig. 8a), and this factor is likewise more focused in the west part of the research areas than in the eastern part (Fig. 8b) (Fig. 5a, b & c). The west side of the Chota Nagpur plateau is more remarkable in height and slope than the east side. **Factor 2** includes the literacy rate, the mean road density, and the closeness to critical markets. These are the elements that are not physical. According to Fig. 8b, the largest concentration of this factor has been proven to be in the middle of each block in this study location. This is consistent with the findings of other factors such as mean road density and proximity to important markets (Fig. 5g & h). Another aspect contributing to this concentration of factors is the high literacy rate in this area's southern and central regions (Fig. 5j).

Factor 3 Pond frequency and mean drainage density. These are physical factors. The largest concentrations of this factor were found in the eastern, southeastern, southern, and south-western regions of this study area (Fig. 8c) (Fig. 5e). Due to its higher height and undulating topography (Fig. 5d), the western section of this region has the largest drainage density, contributing to the factor's concentration.

It's important to note that population is a factor in **Factor 4**. For this component, western and southern regions (Fig. 8d) have been determined to have the highest population growth rate in particular blocks (Fig. 8d). There has been a slight increase in population in the southern and central regions (Fig. 5i).

Soil texture, an essential pedological element, makes up **Factor 5**. Research in this area has shown the greatest concentrations of this component in the western regions of several blocks (Fig. 8e), which comprised both agricultural and non-agricultural soils (Fig. 5f).

Discussion

According to the correlation study, there is a negative relationship between poverty and physical parameters such as rainfall, pond frequency, etc. Thus, when the value of the specified physical characteristic increases, deprivationdecreases, and vice versa.If rainfall increases, agricultural productivity will increase, and more ponds will help the villagers engage in fishing or other aquatic activities. However, this relationship is positively correlated with elevation because, as altitude increases in the study region, agricultural activities may decrease, and there are fewer alternative sources of economic income. Also, there is a negative correlation between illiteracy and poverty; as individuals grow more literate, they will be able to locate other income sources. However, considering the positive relationship, we discover that poverty is positively associated with population increase. This relationship is logical since rapid population expansion may pressure food security, job security, income security, etc., accelerating the poverty rate increase.

Consider a discussion of the primary causes of poverty in the location under examination. Then, we might conclude that agro-climatic conditions have a crucial role in preventing poverty. The majority of this region's economy is dependent on agriculture. Instead of the agro-economic factors, marketing activities and education are the most critical factors in this region as there are six significant municipal marketing areas. Therefore, many rural residents rely on the marketing operations of these marketplaces and are interested in selling their agri-products in the municipal market areas. Soil is one of the five primary determinants; however, its influence on poverty is minimal. Primarily, the soil has an indirect effect on poverty, but it directly affects agricultural productivity. Therefore, we see soil as a small role in the occurrence of poverty.

Overall, it can be said that physical variables have a significant influence in determining the amount of poverty in the area under investigation. It distinguishes this study from earlier research, which did not emphasize physical factors. Notably, such research has not yet been conducted in this region; hence, we cannot compare our results to comparative analyses of this study area.

Conclusion

This research article identifies the major determinants of poverty in the study region. Numerous multivariate statistical methods such as multiple linear regression and factor analysis were used to extract the result. Multilinear regression demonstrates that independent variables can predict approximately 74% of the dependent variable. As a result of the linear relationship between dependent and independent variables, a mathematical model has been developed that can be applied to any region and can be used to forecast poverty incidence when other parameters are known. Additionally, because the p-value for multilinear regression is 0.000, this model is statistically significant. The following section of this research discusses another type of multivariate statistics, factor analysis. Five factors have been extracted in this case using the eigenvalue 1. Thus, the factor with a greater than one eigenvalue is considered to be the significant factor. The rotated component matrix demonstrates the effect of agro-climatic conditions on poverty in the study region, with 20.577 percent of variables explained. Factor 2 explains 15.052% of the total variance and can be broadly classified as a transportation and communication factor. Factor 3 accounts for 13.526 percent of the total variance and reflects physical factors influencing the incidence of poverty. Factors 4 and 5 accountsfor 10.686 percent and 10.087 percent of the total variance, with Factor 4 classified as a demographic component and Factor 5 as an agro-climatic fact.

It is one of the most critical studies on the current income issue. If a government wishes to enact measures to eliminate poverty, the first step will be to identify the primary causes of poverty. As though we could create strategies if we accurately identified the factors. As the execution of policies might vary by location, the elements in each region are not the same.

So, after this study, a planner or a social scientist can easily comprehend the current state of poverty incidence and the determinants that contribute to it. As we approach a critical pandemic situation, applying geospatial technology and statistical tools for identifying the specific determinants of poverty in the study area will undoubtedly assist the administration in adequately identifying and eradicating major poverty influence determinants.

There is some lacune of the study that, as a significant part of the study focuses on the physical parameters, very few socio-economic parameters were considered. Because due to the pandemic situation, an extensive field study was not possible. That's why this study primarily emphasizeson physical parameters but applying advanced statistical tools and geospatial technology made this work more scientific. So, the outcomes of the assignment help us better understand



◄Fig. 8 Spatial pattern of different factors- a Factor-1, b Factor-2, c Factor-3, d Factor-4, e Factor-5

how scientifically we extract the determinants of poverty and how the concept of environmental determinism still controls humans' economic earnings in the era of modern technology. Therefore, there is an essential future potentiality of this study. Whenever we implement policies to eradicate or reduce poverty, we will first justify why poverty prevails? The answer will be the extraction and justification of the causes of the poverty level, and this can only be done with the help of the extraction of the determinants of poverty. All the higher authorities need to do such research to better implement policies.

Acknowledgements The authors want to express their gratitude to Dr. Gopal Chandra Debnath, Retired Professor of Geography at Visva-Bharati University, Santiniketan, W.B., for his continuous supervision, invaluable keen attention, wise advice, and encouragement.

Funding No funding was received to assist with the preparation of this manuscript.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The author declared that there are no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

References

- Abernethy, V. D. (2002). Population dynamics: Poverty, inequality, and self-regulating fertility rates. *Population and Environment*, 24(1), 69–96. https://doi.org/10.1023/A: 1020181810894
- Acal, C., Aguilera, A. M., & Escabias, M. (2020). New modeling approaches based on varimax rotation of functional principal components. *Mathematics*, 8(11), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.3390/math8112085
- ADB. (2020). A special supplement of the key indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2020 mapping poverty through data integration and artificial intelligence - Asian development bank (Issue September).
- Ahlburgl, D. A. (1996). The impact of population growth on well-being in developing countries. *The Impact of Population Growth on Well-Being in Developing Countries*. https://doi.org/10.2307/2137819

- Ajaj, Q. M., Shareef, M. A., Hassan, N. D., Hasan, S. F., & Noori, A. M. (2018). GIS based spatial modeling to mapping and estimation relative risk of different diseases using inverse distance weighting (IDW) interpolation algorithm and evidential belief function (EBF) (Case study: Minor Part of Kirkuk City Iraq). International Journal of Engineering and Technology(UAE), 7(4), 185–191. https://doi.org/10.14419/ijet.v7i4.37. 24098
- Akinyemi, F. O. (2008). In support of the millennium development goals: Gis use for poverty reduction tasks. *International Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences - ISPRS Archives, 37*, 1331–1336.
- Bakhshi, P., Babulal, G. M., & Trani, J. F. (2021). Disability, Poverty, and Schooling in Post-civil War in Sierra Leone. *European Journal of Development Research*, 33(3), 482– 501. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-020-00288-7
- Banerjee, R. R. (2015). Farmers' perception of climate change, impact and adaptation strategies: a case study of four villages in the semi-arid regions of India. *Natural Hazards*, 75(3), 2829–2845. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11069-014-1466-z
- Barua, A., Katyaini, S., Mili, B., & Gooch, P. (2014). Climate change and poverty: Building resilience of rural mountain communities in South Sikkim, Eastern Himalaya. *India. Regional Environmental Change*, 14(1), 267–280. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-013-0471-1
- Bathla, S., Joshi, P. K., & Kumar, A. (2020). Growth and Rural Poverty Reduction in India. https://doi.org/10.1007/ 978-981-15-3584-0_5
- Bayudan-Dacuycuy, C., & Baje, L. K. (2019). When it rains, it pours? analyzing the rainfall shocks-poverty nexus in the Philippines. *Social Indicators Research*, 145(1), 67–93. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-019-02111-1
- Bichsel, D., De Marco, P., Bispo, A. Â., Ilg, C., Dias-Silva, K., Vieira, T. B., Correa, C. C., & Oertli, B. (2016). Water quality of rural ponds in the extensive agricultural landscape of the Cerrado (Brazil). *Limnology*, 17(3), 239–246. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s10201-016-0478-7
- Bigman, D., & Fofack, H. (2000). Geographical targeting for poverty alleviation: An introduction to the special issue. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 14(1), 129–145.
- Burrough, P. A., & McDonnell, R. A. (1999). Principles of geographical information systems: Spatial information systems and geostatistics. G. Stanley Hall: A Sketch., 75(4), 422–423.
- Cangelosi, R., & Goriely, A. (2007). Component retenti. Biology Direct, 2, 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1186/ 1745-6150-2-2
- Cattell, R. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *1*(2), 245–276. https:// doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr0102
- Census. (2011). District census handbook. Birbhum village and town directory. *Census of India*, 247–318.
- Chen, F. W., & Liu, C. W. (2012). Estimation of the spatial rainfall distribution using inverse distance weighting (IDW) in the middle of Taiwan. Paddy and Water

Environment, 10(3), 209–222. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10333-012-0319-1

- Chen, S., & Ravallion, M. (2009). The developing world is poorer than we thought. But No Less Successful in the Fight against Poverty. in Debates on the Measurement of Global Poverty (issue August). https://doi.org/10.1093/ acprof:0s0/9780199558032.003.0015
- Chukalla, A. D., Haile, A. M., & Schultz, B. (2013). Optimum irrigation and pond operation to move away from exclusively rainfed agriculture: The Boru Dodota Spate Irrigation Scheme. *Ethiopia. Irrigation Science*, 31(5), 1091– 1102. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00271-012-0390-9
- Coppi, R., & Statistica, D. (1998). The Fuzzy Approach to Multivariate Statistical Analysis: Recent Developments., 2002, 2002.
- Coudouel, A., Hentschel, J. S., & Wodon, Q. T. (2002). Poverty measurement and analysis. World Bank, 45362. https:// mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/45362/
- Dagum, C., & Costa, M. (2004). Analysis and measurement of poverty. Univariate and Multivariate Approaches and Their Policy Implications. A Case Study: Italy (issue August). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-7908-2681-4_11
- Dahal, G. (2017). The contribution of education to economic growth: Evidence from Nepal. https://doi.org/10.20472/ iac.2016.023.032
- Darrouzet-Nardi, A. F., & Masters, W. A. (2015). Urbanization, market development and malnutrition in farm households: evidence from the Demographic and Health Surveys, 1986–2011. *Food Security*, 7(3), 521–533. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s12571-015-0470-9
- Das, T. K. (2012). Does geography have impact on poverty in India? SSRN Electronic Journal, January. https://doi.org/ 10.2139/ssrn.2057056
- De, U. K., Pal, M., & Bharati, P. (2017). *Inequality*, poverty and development in India.
- Deichmann, U. (1999). Spatial aspects of poverty and inequality. January, 1–13.
- Desai, V. S. (2012). Importance of literacy in India'S economic growth. *International Journal of Economics and Research*, 03(02), 112–124.
- Fombe, L. F., & Tossa, H. N. (2015). Slope morphology and impacts on agricultural productivity in the kom highlands of Cameroon. Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal, https://doi.org/10.14738/assrj.29.1474.
- Frank, E., & Harrell, J. (2001). Regression modeling strategies: with applications to linear models logistic regression and survival analysis. *In Statistical Methods in Medical Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/096228020401300512
- Frayne, B., McCordic, C., & Shilomboleni, H. (2014). Growing out of poverty: Does urban agriculture contribute to household food security in southern African cities? *Urban Forum*, 25(2), 177–189. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12132-014-9219-3
- Gallup, J. L., Sachs, J. D., & Mellinger, A. D. (1999). Geography and economic development. *International Regional Science Review*, 22(2), 179–232. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 016001799761012334
- Gerber, N., Nkonya, E., & Braun, J. von. (2014). Land degradation, poverty and marginality. In *Marginality: Addressing* the Nexus of Poverty, Exclusion and Ecology (pp. 181– 205). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7061-4_2

- Giri, M. S. A. K. (2015). Financial development, poverty and rural-urban income inequality: evidence from South Asian countries. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11135-015-0164-6.
- Glasmeier, A. K. (2002). One nation, pulling apart: The basis of persistent poverty in the USA. *Progress in Human Geography*, 26(2), 155–173. https://doi.org/10.1191/ 0309132502ph362ra
- Golam Rabbani, M., Rahman, S. H., & Munira, S. (2018). Prospects of pond ecosystems as resource base towards community based adaptation (CBA) to climate change in coastal region of Bangladesh. *Journal of Water and Climate Change*, 9(1), 223–238. https://doi.org/10.2166/ wcc.2017.047
- Gräb, J. (2015). Econometric analysis in poverty research: with case studies from Developing Countries. In *Econometric Analysis in Poverty Research*.
- Greiner, C., Greven, D., & Klagge, B. (2021). Roads to change: Livelihoods, land disputes, and anticipation of future developments in rural Kenya. *European Journal of Development Research*, 33(4), 1044–1068. https://doi. org/10.1057/s41287-021-00396-y
- Guchhait, S. K., & Sengupta, S. (2021). Determinants and decomposition of poverty of Rural India: Glimpses from the Purulia district of West Bengal. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, 56(6), 1251–1270. https://doi.org/10. 1177/0021909620960155
- Hanley, J. A. (1983). Appropriate uses of multivariate analysis. Annual Review of Public Health, 4, 155–180. https://doi. org/10.1146/annurev.pu.04.050183.001103
- Harmanny, K. S., & Malek, Ž. (2019). Adaptations in irrigated agriculture in the Mediterranean region: an overview and spatial analysis of implemented strategies. *Regional Environmental Change*, 19(5), 1401–1416. https://doi. org/10.1007/s10113-019-01494-8
- Headey, B. (2008). Poverty Is low consumption and low wealth. Not Just Low Income. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11205-007-9231-2
- Henninger, N., & Snel, M. (2002). Where are the poor? experiences with the development and use of poverty Maps. In *Urban Studies* (Vol. 45, Issue 7).
- Hersh, J., Engstrom, R., & Mann, M. (2021). Open data for algorithms: Mapping poverty in belize using open satellite derived features and machine learning. *Information Technology for Development*, 27(2), 263–292. https://doi. org/10.1080/02681102.2020.1811945
- Horton, R. E. (1932). Drainage-basin characteristics. *Eos, Transactions American Geophysical Union*, 13(1), 350–361. https://doi.org/10.1029/TR013i001p00350
- Hyman, G., Larrea, C., & Farrow, A. (2005). Methods, results and policy implications of poverty and food security mapping assessments. *Food Policy*, 30(5–6), 453–460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2005.10.003
- Imran, M., Zhang, G., & An, H. (2017). Impact of market access and comparative advantage on regional distribution of manufacturing sector. *China Finance* and Economic Review. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s40589-017-0047-1
- Ipsum, L., Sit, D., Rippin, N., Alkire, S., Foster, J. E., Seth, S., Santos, M. E., Roche, J. M. J. M. J. M., Ballon, P., Alkire, S., Foster, J. E., Seth, S., Santos, M. E., Roche, J.

M. J. M. J. M., Ballón, P., Emma, M., Roche, J. M. J. M. J. M., Ballon, P., Gianni, B., Banks, N. (2015). Overview of Methods for Multidimensional Poverty Assessment. In *Multidimensional Poverty Measurement and Analysis* (Vol. 45, Issues 2–3).

- Jackson, W. A., Razin, A., & Sadka, E. (1996). The impact of population growth on well-being in developing countries. *The Economic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2307/2235235
- Jobson, J. D. (1991). Multiple linear regression. Statistics for Business and Financial Economics. https://doi.org/10. 1007/978-1-4612-0955-3_4
- Joffre, O. M., Castine, S. A., Phillips, M. J., Senaratna Sellamuttu, S., Chandrabalan, D., & Cohen, P. (2017). Increasing productivity and improving livelihoods in aquatic agricultural systems: a review of interventions. *Food Security*, 9(1), 39–60. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12571-016-0633-3
- Kaiser, H. F. (1958). The varimax criterion for analytic rotation in factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 23(3), 187–200. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02289233
- Kamra, S. K., Kumar, S., Kumar, N., & Dagar, J. C. (2019). Engineering and biological approaches for drainage of irrigated lands. *In Research Developments in Saline Agriculture*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-5832-6
- Kero, F. (2002). Regional marketing and the strategic market planning approach to attract business and industry case study: Orange County, California, USA. Diplomarbeiten Agentur diplom.de.
- Khan, H. U. R., Zaman, K., Yousaf, S. U., Shoukry, A. M., Gani, S., & Sharkawy, M. A. (2019). Socio-economic and environmental factors influenced pro-poor growth process: New development triangle. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 26(28), 29157–29172. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-019-06065-2
- Khanani, R. S., Adugbila, E. J., Martinez, J. A., & Pfeffer, K. (2021). The impact of road infrastructure development projects on local communities in Peri-Urban areas: the case of Kisumu, Kenya and Accra. *Ghana. International Journal of Community Well-Being*, 4(1), 33–53. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s42413-020-00077-4
- Kim, J. H. (2019). Multicollinearity and misleading statistical results. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology*, 72(6), 558–569.
- Kim, S. G. (2015). Fuzzy multidimensional poverty measurement: An analysis of statistical behaviors. *Social Indicators Research*, 120(3), 635–667. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s11205-014-0616-8
- Kipkemboi, J., Kilonzi, C. M., van Dam, A. A., Kitaka, N., Mathooko, J. M., & Denny, P. (2010). Enhancing the fish production potential of Lake Victoria papyrus wetlands, Kenya, using seasonal flood-dependent ponds. *Wetlands Ecology and Management*, 18(4), 471–483. https://doi. org/10.1007/s11273-010-9180-4
- Kopittke, P. M., Menzies, N. W., Wang, P., McKenna, B. A., & Lombi, E. (2019). Soil and the intensification of agriculture for global food security. *Environment International*, *132*(July).
- Kraaijvanger, R., Almekinders, C. J. M., & Veldkamp, A. (2016). Identifying crop productivity constraints and opportunities using focus group discussions: A case study with farmers from Tigray. NJAS - Wageningen

Journal of Life Sciences, 78, 139–151. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.njas.2016.05.007

- Kudo, S., & Mino, T. (2020). Framing in sustainability. Science. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-9061-6_1
- Kyei-Mensah, C., Kyerematen, R., & Adu-Acheampong, S. (2019). Impact of rainfall variability on crop production within the worobong ecological area of Fanteakwa district, Ghana. Advances in Agriculture, 2019, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/7930127
- Leonard, T. (2014). Economic commission for latin America and the caribbean (CEPAL). *Encyclopedia of US-Latin American Relations*. https://doi.org/10.4135/97816 08717613.n281
- Libório, M. P., da Silva Martinuci, O., Machado, A. M. C., Machado-Coelho, T. M., Laudares, S., & Bernardes, P. (2020). Principal component analysis applied to multidimensional social indicators longitudinal studies: Limitations and possibilities. *GeoJournal*. https://doi. org/10.1007/s10708-020-10322-0
- Liu, N., Li, X., & Waddington, S. R. (2014). Soil and fertilizer constraints to wheat and rice production and their alleviation in six intensive cereal-based farming systems of the Indian sub-continent and China. *Food Security*, 6(5), 629–643. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12571-014-0377-x
- Malik, B. K. (2013). Child schooling and child work in India: Does poverty matter? *International Journal of Child Care and Education Policy*, 7(1), 80–101. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/2288-6729-7-1-80
- Malthus, T. (1798). An essay on the principle of population. In Oxford World's Classics reprint. Printed for J. Johnson, in St. Paul's Church-Yard.
- Martinez, A., Western, M., Haynes, M., & Tomaszewski, W. (2015). How income segmentation affects income mobility: Evidence from panel data in the Philippines. *Asia* and the Pacific Policy Studies, 2(3), 590–608. https://doi. org/10.1002/app5.96
- Merrey, D. J., Hussain, A., Tamang, D. D., Thapa, B., & Prakash, A. (2018). Evolving high altitude livelihoods and climate change: A study from Rasuwa district. *Nepal. Food Security*, 10(4), 1055–1071. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s12571-018-0827-y
- Mestrum, F. (2003). Poverty reduction and sustainable development. *Environment, Development and Sustainability,* 21, 41–61.
- Milewski, D., & Zaloga, E. (2013). The impact of transport on regional development. January 2013.
- Minot, N., Baulch, B., & Epprecht, M. (2006). Poverty and inequality in Vietnam: Spatial patterns and geographic determinants. In Research Report of the International Food Policy Research Institute. https://doi.org/10.2499/ 0896291510
- Modinpuroju, A., Prasad, C. S. R. K., & Chandra, M. (2016). Facility-based planning methodology for rural roads using spatial techniques. *Innovative Infrastructure Solutions*, 1(1), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s41062-016-0041-8
- Mondala, P., Ghosh, R., & Sutradhar, S. (2018). Identification of determinant factors for the development of C.D. Blocks in Birbhum District: A Multivariate Statistical Approach Prolay Mondal., 05, 40–49.

- Mukhopadhyay, P. (2008). Multivariate statistical analysis. Multivariate Statistical Analysis, 1–549. https://doi.org/ 10.1142/6744
- Nabi, A. A., Shahid, Z. A., Mubashir, K. A., Ali, A., Iqbal, A., & Zaman, K. (2020). Relationship between population growth, price level, poverty incidence, and carbon emissions in a panel of 98 countries. *Environmental Science* and Pollution Research, 27(25), 31778–31792. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-08465-1
- Ndamani, F., & Watanabe, T. (2015). Influences of rainfall on crop production and suggestions for adaptation. *International Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, 5(1), 2167–2447.
- Netzband, M. (2010). Remote sensing for the mapping of urban poverty and Slum areas. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 7(2), 1–7.
- O'Brien, R. M. (2007). A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. *Quality and Quantity*, 41(5), 673–690. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-006-9018-6
- ODI. (2013). The geography of poverty, disasters and climate extremes in 2030, Research Report and Study, Overseas Development Institute, UK. 88. http://www.odi.org/sites/ odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/ 8633.pdf
- Olsson, L., Opondo, M., Tschakert, P., Agrawal, A., Eriksen, S. H., Ma, S., Perch, L. N., Zakieldeen, S. A., Cutter, S., Piguet, E., & Kaijser, A. (2015). Livelihoods and poverty. *Climate Change 2014 Impacts Adaptation and Vulnerability: Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects*, https:// doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415379.018.
- Omar, M. A., & Inaba, K. (2020). Does financial inclusion reduce poverty and income inequality in developing countries? A panel data analysis. *Journal of Economic Structures*. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40008-020-00214-4
- Otchia, C. S. (2014). Agricultural modernization, structural change and pro-poor growth: Policy options for the democratic Republic of Congo. *Journal of Economic Structures*. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40008-014-0008-x
- Panagariya, A., & Mukim, M. (2014). A comprehensive analysis of poverty in India. Asian Development Review, 31(1), 1–52. https://doi.org/10.1162/ADEV_a_00021
- Petterson, M., Seim, D. G., & Shapiro, J. M. (2019). Bounds on a slope from size restrictions on economic shocks. *NBER Working Paper*, 53(9), 1689–1699.
- Plotts, T. (2011). A multiple regression analysis of factors concerning superintendent longevity and contiuity relative to student achievement (Doctoral dissertation). 1–132.
- Prabhu, J., Tracey, P., & Hassan, M. (2017). Marketing to the poor: an institutional model of exchange in emerging markets. AMS Review, 7(3–4), 101–122. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s13162-017-0100-0
- Rahman, S. A., Rahman, M. F., & Sunderland, T. (2012). Causes and consequences of shifting cultivation and its alternative in the hill tracts of eastern Bangladesh. *Agroforestry Systems*, 84(2), 141–155. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s10457-011-9422-3
- Rodrigue, J.-P. (2016). The role of transport and communication infrastructure in realising development outcomes. *The Palgrave Handbook of International Development*. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-42724-3
- Rösler, F., & Manzey, D. (1981). Principal components and varimax-rotated components in event-related potential

research: Some remarks on their interpretation. *Biological Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1016/0301-0511(81) 90024-7

- Roy, P., Ray, S., & Haldar, S. K. (2019). Socio-economic determinants of multidimensional poverty in Rural West Bengal: A household level analysis. *Journal of Quantitative Economics*, 17(3), 603–622. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s40953-018-0137-4
- Sachs, J. D., Mellinger, A. D., & Gallup, J. L. (2001). The geography of poverty and wealth. *Scientific American*, 284(3), 70–75. https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificameri can0301-70
- Samson, G. L., Lu, J., Usman, M. M., & Xu, Q. (2017). Spatial databases: An overview. Ontologies and Big Data Considerations for Effective Intelligence. https://doi.org/10. 4018/978-1-5225-2058-0.ch003
- Sangli, I. (1999). GIS and Remote sensing technology for mapping poverty.
- Seyedmohammadi, J., Esmaeelnejad, L., & Ramezanpour, H. (2016). Land suitability assessment for optimum management of water consumption in precise agriculture. *Modeling Earth Systems and Environment*, 2(3), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40808-016-0212-9
- Shah, M. (2011). Poverty Mapping in GIS., 66(July), 37–39.
- Shrestha, N. (2020). Detecting multicollinearity in regression analysis. American Journal of Applied Mathematics and Statistics, 8(2), 39–42. https://doi.org/10.12691/ ajams-8-2-1
- STRAHLER, A. N. (1952). Dynamic basis of geomorphology. Bulletin of the Geological Society of America, 63(11), 1117–1142. https://doi.org/10.1130/0016-7606(1952)63
- Sugiyarto, G. (2007). Poverty impact analysis: Selected tools and applications. In *Asian development bank*. http:// www.adb.org/Documents/Books/Poverty-Impact-Analy sis/Poverty-Impact-Analysis.pdf
- Suryahadi, A., Suryadarma, D., & Sumarto, S. (2014). Poverty and nonconsumption Indicators. *In Cmaj*, 141(10), 1077–1079. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5
- Tridico, P. (2010). Growth, inequality and poverty in emerging and transition economies. *Transition Studies Review*, 16(4), 979–1001. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11300-009-0116-8
- The world bank. (2019). Annual report 2019: Ending poverty, investing in opportunity. *World Bank Group*, 319. https:// openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/32333
- Thongdara, R., Samarakoon, L., Shrestha, R. P., & Ranamukhaarachchi, S. L. (2012). Using GIS and spatial statistics to target poverty and improve poverty alleviation programs: A case study in Northeast Thailand. *Applied Spatial Analysis and Policy*, 5(2), 157–182. https://doi. org/10.1007/s12061-011-9066-8
- Turóczy, Z., & Marian, L. (2012). Multiple regression analysis of performance indicators in the ceramic industry. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 3(12), 509–514. https://doi. org/10.1016/s2212-5671(12)00188-8
- U N STATISTICS. (2005). Handbook on Poverty Statistics : C Oncepts, M Ethods and P Olicy U Se. *Special Project on Poverty Statistics, December*, 406.
- Ubale, P. (2017). A statistical study of changing scenario of poverty line in India. September 2014, 130–132.

- Uyanık, G. K., & Güler, N. (2013). A study on multiple linear regression analysis. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 106, 234–240. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro. 2013.12.027
- Vista, B. M., & Murayama, Y. (2011a). Spatial Determinants of Poverty Using GIS-Based Mapping. https://doi.org/10. 1007/978-94-007-0671-2
- Vista, B. M., & Murayama, Y. (2011b). Spatial determinants of poverty using GIS-based mapping. *GeoJournal Library*, 100, 275–296. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0671-2_16
- Wang, Y., & Wang, B. (2016). Multidimensional poverty measure and analysis: a case study from Hechi City China. *Springerplus*. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-2192-7
- Wezel, A., Steinmüller, N., & Friederichsen, J. R. (2002). Slope position effects on soil fertility and crop productivity and implications for soil conservation in upland northwest Vietnam. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment, 91(1–3), 113–126. https://doi.org/10.1016/ S0167-8809(01)00242-0
- World Bank. (2020). Supporting countries in unprecedented times. Annual Report 2020.

- Young, D. S. (2017). Handbook of regression methods (1st Editio). Chapman and Hall/CRC. https://doi.org/10.1201/ 9781315154701
- Zhou, Y., & Liu, Y. (2019). The geography of poverty: Review and research prospects. *Journal of Rural Studies, Janu*ary. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2019.01.008

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.