

T.R.
ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE EDUCATION INSTITUTE
DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS



**STATE'S ROLE IN REDUCING POVERTY:
THE CASE OF SABA YOI DISTRICT IN THAILAND**

MA THESIS

Sapeena WOHLONG

Istanbul

June-2024

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June-2024

THESIS APPROVAL

This study has been approved in partial fulfilment of the requirements for MA degree
in Political Science and International Relations

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DECLARATION OF SCIENTIFIC ETHICS AND ORIGINALITY

This is to certify that this MA thesis titled “*State’s Role in Reducing Poverty: The Case of Saba Yoi District in Thailand*” is my own work and I have acted according to scientific ethics and academic rules while producing it. I have collected and used all information and data according to scientific ethics and guidelines on thesis writing of Sabahattin Zaim University. I have fully referenced, in both the text and bibliography, all direct and indirect quotations and all sources I have used in this work.



Sapeena WOHLONG

Istanbul, June-2024

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Sapeena WOHLONG

Istanbul, -2024

ABSTRACT

STATE'S ROLE IN REDUCING POVERTY: THE CASE OF SABA YOI DISTRICT IN THAILAND

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Poverty is a challenging problem that many countries in different parts of the world are facing, hence, these countries have implemented several poverty reduction policies to resolve the issue. Thailand, likewise, is facing the issue of poverty like many other countries, and it has implemented a number of policies to reduce poverty within the country as well. Accordingly, this thesis studies the government's efforts to combat poverty in the Saba Yoi District of Thailand, with a focus on the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household' Project, a project that aimed to alleviate poverty within Thailand's Deep South region, a region that includes the three southernmost provinces and four districts from their neighbouring province of Songkhla.

The information used in this research came from academic journals, articles from online news sources, and documents from the websites and offices of government agencies. The results of the study presented the state's contribution to the reduction of poverty in the Saba Yoi District through government agencies from regional, district, and subdistrict levels with the main purpose of accelerating the alleviation of poverty among the locals and solving this problem from upstream to downstream, to help the targeted households escaping from poverty threshold, and enable them to live in a well-being condition. Several poverty alleviation activities which differed from subdistrict to subdistrict, mostly income-generating activities, were carried out in different subdistricts by these government agencies to achieve the project's objectives.

Key terms: Poverty Reduction, State's Roles, Saba Yoi District, Thailand.

ÖZET

DEVLETLERİN FAKİRLİĞİ AZALTMADAKİ ROLÜ: TAYLAND SABA YOİ BÖLGESİ ÖRNEĞİ

Sapeena WOHLONG

Yüksek Lisans, Siyaset Bilimi ve Uluslararası İlişkiler

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Fakirlik, farklı bölgelerdeki birçok ülkenin karşı karşıya olduğu zorlu bir sorundur; bu nedenle, bu ülkeler sorunu çözmek için birçok yoksulluk azaltma politikası uygulamışlardır. Tayland da diğer birçok ülke gibi fakirlik sorunuyla karşı karşıyadır ve ülke içinde fakirlikle mücadele etmek amacıyla bir dizi politika uygulamıştır. Bu tez, Tayland'ın Saba Yoi Bölgesi'nde fakirliği azaltmada devletin rollerini incelemekte olup, odak noktası Tayland'ın Derin Güney bölgesindeki yoksulluğu hafifletmeyi amaçlayan 'Bir Memur Bir Fakir Aile' Projesi'ne yöneliktir. Bu proje, Tayland'ın en güney üç ilini ve komşu Songkhla ilinin dört bölgesini içeren Derin Güney bölgesindeki fakirliği hafifletmeyi hedefleyen bir projedir.

Bu çalışmada kullanılan veriler, akademik dergilerden, çevrimiçi haber makalelerinden ve hükümet kurumlarının web sitelerinden ve ofislerinden alınan belgelerden elde edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, Saba Yoi Bölgesi'nde yoksulluğu azaltmada devletin rollerini, bölgesel, ilçesel ve altınsal düzeydeki hükümet kurumları aracılığıyla sunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, yerel halk arasında yoksulluğun hızlı bir şekilde azaltılmasını sağlamak ve bu sorunu yukarıdan aşağıya doğru çözmek, hedeflenen evlerin yoksulluk sınırından kurtulmasına ve onların iyi bir yaşam koşullarında yaşamalarına olanak tanımaktır. Bu amaçları gerçekleştirmek için, çoğunlukla gelir getirici faaliyetler olmak üzere, farklı altınlardaki farklı yoksulluk azaltma faaliyetleri, bu hükümet kurumları tarafından gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Fakirlik Azaltma, Devletin Roller, Saba Yoi Bölgesi, Tayland.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AD	: Anno Domini
AIM	: Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia
BRN-C	: BRN-koordinasi
BRN	: Barisan Revolusi Nasional
COVID-19	: Coronavirus Disease of 2019
DEM	: Democrat Party
EDC	: Electronic Data Capture
FDI	: Foreign Direct Investment
GMI	: Gerakan Mujahideen Islam Patani
GPRS	: Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
IMF	: International Monetary Fund
MAIDAM	: Majlis Agama Islam dan Adat Melayu Terengganu
MAIM	: Majlis Agama Islam Melaka
MDGs	: Millennium Development Goals
MFP	: Move Forward Party MFP
MPI	: Multidimensional Poverty Index
MUIP	: Majlis Ugama Islam Pahang
NDP	: National Development Policy
NEP	: National Economic Policy
NESD	: National Economic and Social Development
NESDB	: National Economic and Social Development Board
NGOs	: Non-Governmental Organizations
NHS	: National Housing Strategy

NPD	: New Palangdharma Party
NVP	: National Vision Policy
PBBS	: Performance-Based Budgeting System
PPE	: Personal Protective Equipment
PPPs	: Purchasing Power Parities
PPRP	: Palang Pracharath Party
PTP	: Pheu Thai Party
PULO	: Patani United Liberation Organization
R	: South African Rand
RM	: Malaysian Ringgit
SAO	: Subdistrict Administrative Organization
SBPAC	: Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre
SDGs	: Sustainable Development Goals
THB	: Thai Baht
TPMAP	: Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms
UK	: United Kingdom
UNESCO	: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNSDGs	: United Nations Sustainable Development Goals
USD	: United States Dollar

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The seventeen goals that each UN member state adopted in 2015 are known as the Sustainable Development Goals, or SDGs, the Goals aim to foster prosperity and protect the environment concurrently and are set to be achieved by every country by 2030. The 17 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UNSDGs) include:

No poverty; zero hunger; good health and well-being; quality education; gender equality; clean water and sanitation; affordable and clean energy; decent work and economic growth; industry, innovation, and infrastructure; reduced inequality; sustainable cities and communities; responsible consumption and production; climate action; life below water; life on land; peace, justice, and strong institutions; partnerships for the goals (United Nations, 2021).

The eradication of every form of poverty universally is goal 1 of the SDGs established by the UN. Thailand, whose status is a UN member state is committed to achieving all 17 SDGs of the United Nations, nevertheless, this thesis will only touch upon the roles of the state in contributing to the achievement of goal 1 of SDGs in Saba Yoi district which locates in the southern province of Songkhla, Thailand.

The province of Songkhla is in southern Thailand and among other southernmost provinces including Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat. Songkhla has 16 districts (Songkhla Provincial Administrative Organization, 2022). Saba Yoi is one of the four districts in Songkhla province along with Thepha, Na Thawi, and Chana, and the other 3 provinces i.e., Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat that are exclusively under the administration of the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, or in other words, this region considered Thailand's Deep South region where there is an ongoing insurgency that has been taken place for 18 years already. A recent poverty reduction project in Saba Yoi district is among the poverty reduction projects in other districts within the region that are under the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Center's management (Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, 2022).

1.2. Key Terms

Poverty Reduction, State's Roles, Saba Yoi District, Thailand.

1.3. Literature Review

1.3.1. The Roles of States in Reducing Poverty in Different Countries in the World

The roles of the state in alleviating poverty have been studied in many countries. Donaldson argued that in China, the state reduced poverty through the establishment of institutions that promoted markets, the redistribution of public assets, and the execution of poverty alleviation policies at both the local and central levels such as purchasing agricultural production to reduce rural poverty, equally distributing land to households in the rural areas based on the size of the family at no cost. Besides, work programs, loan and grains subsidizations, development grants, land improvement, infrastructure constructions like electricity and roads, and other funding that gives loans to much-needed capital improvement were some of China's central and local government's implementations in reducing poverty. The results indicated that the overall poverty reduction policies in China that are supported by the government were successful (Donaldson, 2007).

In the past few decades, the governments of the Indian State of Kerala have promoted numerous anti-poverty programs such as the feeding program for mothers and children, rural electrification, and providing cheap and convenient transportation and primary healthcare accessibility. The role of the local governments in India in poverty reduction is a bottom-up approach in which it meets the demands of the marginalized and impoverished people in society, in contrast to China's top-down poverty reduction approach implemented by the Communist Party of China, nevertheless, the results of poverty reduction were more impressive in China than in India (Banik and Hansen, 2016).

Banik and Hansen also stated that poverty rapidly reduced in Vietnam most likely because of the reforms in agriculture, for example, the modernization of agriculture, and a shift from collectivized agriculture to highly egalitarian land reforms (2016). The most influenced government's investments in poverty reduction were the investments in agricultural research, roads, and education, respectively (Fan et al., 2007, as cited in Banik and Hansen, 2016). Likewise, the Doi Moi's economic reform in Vietnam also played a

major part in the nation's efforts to reduce poverty as it increased employment in the services and production sectors along with self-employment of the family's businesses (Hoang et al. 2014, as cited in Banik and Hansen, 2016). The study concluded that the three above-mentioned countries have achieved impressive outcomes in reducing poverty, nonetheless, China and Vietnam are able to reduce poverty faster than India. Despite the impressive achievement in poverty reduction, however, the three countries are still facing considerable developmental challenges such as growing inequality and the impact of environmental degradation and climate change (Banik and Hansen, 2016)

Sri Lanka, one of the South Asian countries, gradually changed its policies to alleviate poverty, initially, it introduced two poverty reduction programs, i.e., the Janasaviya Programme in 1990 which consisted of production generation and income transfer, but later as a result of regime change in 1994 it was replaced by the Samurdhi Programme which included micro-enterprise credit, beneficiary participation, savings, and community mobilization, and some elements of the Janasaviya Programme like income transfer. Another policy change by the state was the inclusion of the non-government section to be its legitimate and significant partner in providing welfare and poverty reduction process. Later, in 2000, the state drafted the new 'Framework for Poverty Reduction in Sri Lanka' to build a sustainable poverty reduction process, the Framework was the result of the consultation by different groups in the society, i.e., government agencies, civil society, donor community, and private sector, and they came up with three fundamental elements of the Framework which were creating opportunity for the poor, social protection, and empowering and mobilizing the poor and strengthening governance. Amongst the discussion of the paper is whether a centralized poverty reduction implementation is better than a decentralized one, Gunetilleken did not come to a conclusion on this discussion, nonetheless, he claimed that in the case of Sri Lanka, it combined both a centralized and a decentralized structure (Gunetilleke, 2000).

Malaysia, a Southeast Asian country that is neighboring Thailand's southern border, the Malaysian government launched many poverty eradication programs such as welfare assistance, and house rental payments in different cities. Apart from that, in an effort to end poverty, the government also supported non-governmental organisations and the commercial sector, for example, the Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) provides a credit

facility and applies a group-based Grameen Bank (i.e., a Bangladeshi microfinance organization) model in which there would be no legal action taken if the borrowers fail, Yayasan Basmi Kemiskinan (Poverty Eradication Foundation) provides housing or demolishing old houses and replacing with the newer ones, education, training, and small economic projects, and Yayasan Kemiskinan Kelantan (Kelantan Poverty Eradication Foundation) also supports education. Hussin et al.'s study underlined the significant role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in assisting the government to reduce poverty in Malaysia, although the NGOs themselves were likewise aided by the government agencies in achieving their objectives in poverty reduction. Hussin et al. asserted that in order to further poverty eradication extensively, the government needs collaboration from the NGOs to help it implement the poverty eradication policy. However, not all NGOs are entirely non-governmental, some are established with the support of governmental organizations, ministries, and government-affiliated businesses. The findings demonstrated that Malaysia has seen a rise in poverty particularly among the indigenous people, in contrast to relative poverty in the urban area which has been decreasing (Hussin et al., 2018).

It is suggested that a liberalization strategy could play a significant role in reducing poverty in India but only with the intensification of that effort in policymaking. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) also plays a role in poverty reduction in India, but indirectly as it has an influence on structural change in the Indian economy, particularly in its industrial sector. The study indicated that industrial sectors reduce poverty faster than agricultural sectors which have always been promoted by the state for reducing poverty. Accordingly, poverty reduction through industrialization which is advocated by FDI prevails over agriculturalization supported by the state. However, it is debated that FDI would play a more effective role in reducing poverty if it placed its objective in more labor-intensive manufacturing rather than industrializing (Kalirajan and Singh, 2010).

Crawford and Abdulai's study of Ghana's poverty reduction strategies and good governance is conducted mainly through documentary analysis of The Ghanaian government's yearly progress reports which track the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) implementation. Ghana implemented GPRS I from 2003 to 2005 and GPRS II from 2006 to 2009. Human resource development was one of the GPRS II's thematic areas

that is essential in reducing poverty by means of social services and social development like safe drinking water, health, sanitation, and education. The results of the Ghana case study showed that the state under the GPRS governance model has limited jurisdiction and is generally subordinated to the market, and this entails the downsizing of the state (Crawford and Abdulai, 2009).

The Republic of Korea and Taiwan are some of the most successful cases of rural poverty reduction in the contemporary era. These countries' success in reducing rural poverty is because of the implementation of these development strategies, i.e., the rapid and labor-intensive growth that provides remunerative and productive employment to the poor, the changing of the poor to become productive entrepreneurs which created self-employment, the increase in the productivity of the poor workers in self-employment and wage employment, and the improvement of the terms of exchange for the poor's production. Although both Korea and Taiwan are considered to be some of the most successful cases in reducing rural poverty in the contemporary era in East Asian countries, however, these countries still have some differences in their policies implementation that make any of them more successful or less successful or fail in particular policy such as the tenancy reform that was successfully implemented in Taiwan because the existence of grassroots organizations, in contrast to the tenancy reform in Korea which was failed to implemented due to the absence of grassroots organizations within the country (Khan, 2004).

1.3.2. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in Thailand

Chayangkoon primarily studied the expenditure of the Thai government and poverty solving, however, in her study she also mentioned how the Thai government has been trying to cope with the problem of poverty in the past such as setting goals and strategies for solving poverty problem in every National Economic and Social Development Plan which the government allocated annual expenditure budget to different ministries to contribute to poverty solving. Chayangkoon argued that to solve the problem of poverty, the problems of the whole system must be solved first, and citizens and the state should seriously and continuously prioritize poverty reduction (Chayangkoon, 2019).

Buntong's paper touched on three main subjects, i.e., the strengthening of the welfare state policy, the implementation of welfare state policy as a solution to problems, and the

strengthening of the welfare state system to create equality. Buntong maintained that in 1993, the Thai government implemented social welfare projects that are the foundation of contemporary welfare projects which are the poverty reduction project that provides loans to the poor to pursue a career with no interest or low interest, the elderly welfare pension program which gives monthly money 200 Thai Baht to the abandoned and poor elders around 3-5 people per village, and medical treatment welfare project which was formerly a project that helped low-income people to access medical treatment initiated by Mr. Kukrit Pramoj's administration in 1975. In 2001, the Thai Rak Thai administration launched a universal healthcare system in which every Thai citizen who holds the 30-baht universal healthcare card can get treatment for every disease. The current Thai government (under the administration of General Prayut Chan-ocha) tried to solve the problem of social and economic inequality through Plan No. 12 of the National Economic and Social Development. Buntong argued that the implementation of a welfare state policy in solving social and economic inequality would benefit effective sustainable development, however, he also wondered whether the current welfare state policies strengthened by the government are truly sustainable or not. He suggested that the sustainability of the Thai social welfare state system should learn from the experiences of countries that are reforming to find a balance between extensive supervision of the public, effects on work motivation, and sustainability. Moreover, he maintained that the weakness of welfare state policy is that it could be changed from time to time according to the changing of governments, some policies may continue or terminate depending on the government that is in power at the time. It is concluded that the implementation of a welfare state policy in solving social and economic inequality would be perfectly sustainable development if the government takes serious action on such a policy, nevertheless, there is still no guarantee that poverty would be eradicated from Thailand (Buntong, 2021).

Trakarnvanich et al. researched the factors that resulted in the effectiveness of the planning and management of budgets about the provincial-level execution of policies aimed at reducing poverty in Thailand under the Performance-Based Budgeting System's implementation (PBBS). The finding appeared that appropriate facilitation and sufficient information provided by the Budget Bureau and other federal agencies tend to result in

the accomplishment of PBBS budget planning and execution. Yet, there is a correlation between the effectiveness of the PBBS and the poverty reduction policy's execution and budget preparation as the more accurate the poverty reduction policy is, the lower level of the achievement of the budget preparation and execution of PBBS could be.

Besides, Trakarnvanich et al. also mentioned the budget allocation of the Thai government to many poverty reduction approaches in the country for example the set-up of water and land resources management system, the evolution of mechanisms for managing social and financial services essential for creating jobs and increasing the income of the poor, the development of infrastructure, the provision of funds to solve the problems of the communities (Trakarnvanich et al. 2011).

Chansoon et al. studied the educational management strategies for solving inequality and poverty problems in Thailand, they used documentary research methodology through educational processes by reviewing concepts, theories, and related literature from government policies, research papers, books, and documents with contextual analysis and descriptive conclusions. Their study showed that from 2011 to 2018, the Thai government implemented many inequality and poverty reduction policies such as setting the minimum wage to no less than 300 Baht per day, establishing a women empowerment fund, reducing education and travel expenses for children, providing loans for high school and university students. They claimed solving inequality in education is a key solution to the poverty problem in the country. Nonetheless, the findings of the study demonstrated that despite numerous governments' attempts to find solutions to the educational inequality problem, to this day this problem has not been successfully solved yet due to several reasons such as the failure of educational model management, the focus of teacher-centered more than student-centered education (Chansoon et al., 2021).

There have been several studies on poverty reduction policies of the Thai government at the provincial level. The state's welfare card policy is also another nationwide poverty alleviation strategy in Thailand. Yala is one of Thailand's Southernmost provinces, the other three are Narathiwat, Pattani, and Songkhla. Waeosanga and Chaijaroenwatana studied the perceived effectiveness of the state welfare card policy among citizens within the Yala Municipality, in Yala province. The study was conducted by using a closed-

ended questionnaire and a statistical test to find the differences in government welfare card policies' effectiveness compared to fundamental personal factors which included gender, age, income, occupation, and degree of education. The 376 samples are among the population living in the Yala municipal area and have registered to receive state welfare cards. The first finding appeared to be contrary to the first hypothesis as the researchers anticipated that the perceived effectiveness of the state welfare card policy is high, while the result proved that it is only moderate. The second finding corresponds to the second hypothesis in which the perceived effectiveness of the state welfare card policy compared with fundamental personal factors differs in accordance with gender, and it is believed that men would have higher expectations than women (Waeosanga and Chaijaroenwatana, n.d.).

In Thailand's Chonburi province, the government reduces inequality and poverty with the provincial welfare store policy. Watanapruk et al. studied the process and problem process of participation in reducing poverty and inequality of the holders of welfare cards under the government's provincial welfare store policy in Thailand's province of Chonburi. They collected data using an in-depth interview method which later was analyzed by content analysis, observation without participation, recording, and taking notes from 3 contributor groups with the open-ended questionnaire. They selected samples by purposive sampling, among the 35 participants were owners of provincial welfare stores, government officials involved in the Provincial Welfare Store in Chonburi, and the holders of provincial welfare cards. There are two findings in this paper, the first finding is for the process of participation in the project was divided into 3 groups according to the selected samples. First, the government officials involved in the project follow up on the operations, receive complaints, and reduce inequality and poverty among the welfare card holders. Second, the provincial welfare store owner contributed to the operations' development. Lastly, the welfare cardholders only participated in the decision to buy the products they wanted according to the amount received from the welfare card. The second finding is about the participation problems of the project, which included the selling of expensive products, non-compliance with the state's policy, and insufficient Electronic Data Capture (EDC) machines at the welfare stores (Watanapruk et al., 2021).

The poverty alleviation project that applies the community education process and adheres to the principles of community participation has been implemented nationwide in Thailand since 1997. However, Supthpun's paper studied specifically the implementation of the poverty alleviation project at Khao Yai village, which is in the Pluangthong subdistrict, Borthong District, Chonburi province. The data is obtained by means of small group discussions with the board committee of the project and 30 project members who took a loan from the project for investing and were successful. Supthpun asserted that there is no exact model of project management, it is flexible depending on the potential of each village, yet it is managed under the principle of people's organizations and villagers' participation. The result of the project turned out to be successful and impressive, thus, it could be an example for other villages within the province or the country to follow. Some of the elements that made this project different from others were strong board committees, integrated funds, well implementation and control of the project's work, and provided funds to members, however, the members needed to deposit savings every month with a minimum of 100 baht for instances (Supthpun, 2019).

Thailand's northeastern province of Khon Kaen introduced a poverty alleviation project named the Siew Partnerships Against Poverty Project, the integrated project works jointly between government agencies such as Khon Kaen Red Cross Office, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen Provincial Treasury and private sectors like Khon Kaen Provincial Chamber of Commerce and Provincial Industry Council to find funding sources in order to provide and support vocational training, employment, housing repair, and renovation for instances. The project was implemented in accordance with the sufficient economy philosophy, all 26 districts in the province used a mechanism of "Match Siew" in which every civil servant from every department in the province is responsible for one or two poor households. Lhamkaek and Pienkhuntod first determined the issues in the discussion and later conducted group discussions with the project participants, the project-related documents and reports were also thematically analyzed. The study provided a table on different types of assistance under the Siew Partnerships against Poverty Project that poor households in 26 districts need, i.e., the building or repairing houses, providing consumer goods, employing, providing scholarships, health care, and subsidies, and supporting occupations. Lhamkaek and Pienkhuntod believed that public servants are likely to be the

key coordinators in linking assistance from both the educational institutions and private sectors in supporting the needs of poor households by improving their work skills and providing them with knowledge and resources vital to poverty reduction and could increase their income and well-being. The result of the study showed that there is an integration of government agencies' collaboration within the province through the implementation of people-centered and sufficient economic principles with 4 integrated poverty alleviation processes, i.e., identifying life goals, making life compasses, managing life, and taking care of life (Lhamkaek and Pienkhuntod, 2021).

Besides many studies have been done on the roles of the state in reducing poverty at the national or state level in several countries like China, India, Vietnam, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Ghana, Korea, Taiwan, and Thailand, there are very few studies that have been done at the provincial or district level in Thailand, particularly in the Deep South region of Thailand where the historical background, demographics, and situation are different from other regions, as there has always been the enforcement of the Martial Law Act and Emergency Decree in the Deep South region from time to time as a consequence of the region's continuous insurgency, and the consequences of the insurgency are likely to affect the lives of some groups of people in this region physically, economically, or even mentally more than other parts of Thailand. Therefore, conducting a study on the role of the state in reducing poverty in Thailand's Deep South region is also important. However, this study emphasizes the smaller scale, it focuses on the district level instead of the regional or provincial level, amongst Thailand's southernmost provinces, Songkhla province has the highest number of poor people, and since Saba Yoi district has the highest poverty rate among other three districts in Songkhla province that are considered as part of the Deep South region. Accordingly, this study will focus on the role of the state in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi district by emphasizing the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' that has been administered by the Southern Border Provinces Administration Centre.

1.4. The Purpose of the Thesis

The purpose of the thesis is to explain the state's institutions and their role in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi district, in Thailand's Deep South province of Songkhla, how

such a project was implemented, and by which state institutions. The study also expects to comprehend the decentralization of state institutions in implementing a poverty reduction project in the Saba Yoi district.

1.5. Problem Statement

According to the United Nations, one-tenth of the total population of the world is extremely living in poverty, and more than half of the 10 percent of the world's population suffers from severe deprivation in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia regions (United Nations Development Programme, 2022). Countries that have strived to eradicate poverty must achieve the goal by 2030 by providing everyone with a basic standard of living, social protection, fundamental services, and protection from natural calamities and conflict (Cichos and Salvia, 2018: 51). Besides, poverty is not only a socioeconomic problem, but it can also affect good health and well-being of poor people as well, as in a recent study reveals that poverty can affect the physical development of children in poor families, as prolonged breastfeeding of children in poor families is likely to have a tendency towards stunting more than in wealthy families (Cetthakrikul et al., 2018: 1). Therefore, by ending poverty, other SDGs, i.e., zero hunger, good health and well-being, and quality education can also be easily achieved. Poverty can also be an obstacle to accomplishing other SDGs such as SDGs 6,7,8 and 9 which are clean water and sanitation; affordable and clean energy; decent work and economic growth; and industry, innovation, and infrastructure respectively. Accordingly, more than half of the SDGs can be easily accomplished as a result of the accomplishment of SDG1 (Cichos and Salvia, 2018: 52). Hence, it is obvious that the achievement of SDG1 (No Poverty) is vital to the achievement of other SDGs.

Furthermore, in Thailand, the population's percentage living below the National Poverty Line in 2019 and 2020 was 6.2% and 6.8%, respectively (Asian Development Bank, 2022). Accordingly, the percentage of Thailand's population living below the National Poverty Line has increased by 0.6% from 2019 to 2020. Reducing poverty could help increase people's access to clean water, good health, and quality education, for instance, thus, by contributing to the achievement of SDG1, Thailand is moving closer to the achievement of other SDGs.

Besides, Thailand's Deep South provinces (which include Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat, and 4 districts in Songkhla province) despite having been affected by the ongoing insurgency in its region which had sparked since 2004, hence, 2022 marked its 18th year, the region also suffers from poverty as well, as some families may have been directly or indirectly affected by the insurgency, for example losing the head of the family such as a father or a brother who is the backbone of the family. In consequence, the burdens, and responsibilities would fall on women to take care of the family instead, and some families may suffer both mentally and economically from the insurgency. Therefore, conducting a study on the state's contributions to the reduction of poverty in this region is also important. Nevertheless, this study does not focus on the regional level but rather on the district level instead.

1.6. The Significance of the Study

This study is significant because the findings of the case studies in this study could be alternative examples to other countries or other regions of Thailand that have been trying to solve the problem of poverty.

1.7. Research Questions

This thesis emphasizes the role of the state in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi district which is located in Songkhla province, Thailand. Thereby, it mainly tries to find out the state's institutions and their roles in implementing the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi district and the implementation of this project. Hence, the research questions of this thesis include three main research questions as follows:

- 1) What are the purposes of the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project'?
- 2) What are the state's institutions that contribute to the implementation of the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi district?
- 3) How do state institutions implement the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi district?

1.8. Research Methodology

The study will be conducted by using academic journals, online news articles, and government websites such as the Saba Yoi District Office and the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre as the main sources.

1.9. Design and Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters and each chapter is divided into different parts and sections or paragraphs. The first chapter is the introduction chapter which includes ten headings, i.e., introduction, key terms, literature review (this heading consisted of two subheadings, i.e., the roles of states in reducing poverty in different countries in the world, and the roles of states in reducing poverty in different countries in Thailand), the purpose of the thesis, problem statement, the significance of the study, research questions, research methodology, design and structure of the thesis, and schedule of the thesis, respectively. The second chapter is about poverty, this chapter has four headings which are the definition of poverty, poverty and Sustainable Development Goals, different forms of poverty (the subheadings cover generational poverty situational poverty, urban poverty, and rural poverty), and poverty in Thailand (consisted of three subheadings, i.e., the poor in Thailand, the targeted poor in Thailand, and the non-targeted poor in Thailand). The third chapter talks about Thailand's deep south provinces, the chapter includes four headings, i.e., what are Thailand's deep south provinces, historical background of Thailand's deep south provinces, Songkhla's deep south districts, and Saba Yoi district (consisting of four subheadings, i.e., demographic of Saba Yoi district, poverty in Saba Yoi district, causes of poverty in Saba Yoi district, and former poverty reduction policies implementation in Saba Yoi district). The fourth chapter is about the state's role in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi district, it is made up of three headings, i.e., One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project (comprises two subheadings, i.e., purposes of the project, and local administrations implemented the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in Saba Yoi district [this subheading is composed of three sub-subheadings, i.e., Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, Saba Yoi District Office, Office of the Subdistrict Headman]). The fifth chapter is the final chapter which is the conclusion chapter.

1.10. Schedule of the Thesis

The thesis is planned to be finished within a period of 10 months.

Work Packages	Duration
Literature review and collect the data	4 months
Analyze the content	3 months
Review and finalize the thesis	3 months
Total	10 months

CHAPTER II

POVERTY

2.1. Definition of Poverty

Definitions of poverty vary depending on the contexts that are being discussed. Poverty in an economic context is closely related to monetary poverty or income poverty, it could be defined as a condition of not having an inadequate amount of money in order to afford the fundamental needs of human beings such as food, shelter, and clothing. Poverty is hindering needy people from having and enjoying a decent life. A decent life that has implications in this study involves a situation in which one human being could afford their fundamental needs as introduced by the Government of New Brunswick, i.e., food, shelter, and clothing. Nevertheless, in addition to not having sufficient money, the state of poverty also hinders the poor from having access to quality education in case if the state does not provide quality education accessibly nationwide, and not able to access healthcare or medical treatment if the country they are living in does not have or provide a universal healthcare system, and most importantly, poverty is also related to being jobless, as most people are poor because they do not have or unable to earn incomes (The Government of New Brunswick, 2008-2009).

Poverty includes those who are considered poor or extremely poor since they are incapable of affording the fundamental needs of human beings as presented by the Government of New Brunswick, namely, the poor who are differentiated from the non-poor, and what separates the poor from the non-poor is called 'the poverty line'. According to Goedhart et al.'s article "Poverty is then defined as a situation where command over resources falls below a certain level, the poverty line" (Goedhart et al., 1977: p. 504). Therefore, people are considered poor when their income falls below the poverty line, and vice versa if their income is above the poverty line, they are considered as non-poor. Furthermore, the poverty line is not fixed, it could be changed or updated from time to time depending on the purchasing power parities at that moment, for example, the latest global poverty line adjusted by the World Bank in September 2022 was \$2.15 per person per day, this latest

global poverty line took the place of the former poverty line which was \$1.90 per person per day. The global poverty line's rate is determined by the purchasing power parities also known as PPPs, and once there is an update for the PPPs, likewise, the rate of the global poverty line will be updated accordingly (World Bank, 2022).

According to development economic theory, poverty has two dimensions, i.e., absolute poverty, and relative poverty (Ruenkham, n.d.). These two dimensions of poverty are identical in terms of lacking something, yet absolute poverty is universal in a way that everyone who is considered poor in one society is also considered poor in other societies as well, or in other words, the criterion of being poor in absolute poverty is similar in all societies, it is fixed and not dependent neither on society nor circumstance. Absolute poverty is a state of impoverished or deficiency concerning fundamental human needs for example clean drinking water, food, and shelter (Sen, 2008). Whilst relative poverty is not universal but rather relative to society, it is more about comparing income level or standard of living between people who reside in a particular society or country, for example, some people may be living above the international poverty line, i.e., \$2.15 per day in which according to absolute poverty, they are considered non-poor, however, if the standard of relative poverty is used in defining these group of people they may be considered poor if their living conditions or standard of living fall below the average standard of living of the people who live in that particular society. Therefore, some people might be considered non-poor according to the widely accepted international poverty line but may be considered poor in a particular society or country, since the average standards of living in certain societies or countries are different from one another (Townsend, 1979). A person could be considered poor because his or her income and standards of living fall below the average poverty line and the average standards of living of the society or country, in which he or she is dwelling. Besides, according to Ruenkham, relative poverty falls within the 'non-income poverty' which includes other determinants of poverty apart from the basic human needs for example food, clothing, medicine, and shelter. Relative poverty takes other factors that are aside from basic human needs into consideration for the measurement of poverty such as the significant social and cultural needs, quality of life, and inequality within society for instance (Ruenkham, n.d.).

Being in a state of poverty may not only affect physical well-being but it could also affect the well-being of mental health as there is a mutual relationship between poverty and happiness because being impoverished could lower the level of happiness. According to the World Happiness Report 2023, there are six factors that contributed to the happiness of people in the country which is ranked as the happiest country in the world in 2023, i.e., Finland, and the six factors included income, health, social support, generosity, no corruption, and the ability to make decisions freely (Helliwell et al., 2023). Thus, it seems harder for impoverished people to achieve happiness if their income or revenue is not sufficient for them to afford a satisfied or decent life. Moreover, a person is most likely not happy if he or she does not have good health and well-being due to being unable to access healthcare or living in a healthy environment because of a lack of money to afford such things. In addition, having the freedom to make life choices could also make a person happy, the more choices people have and free to choose whatever they like the happier they would be, as they are not limited to or restricted to the few choices, and the higher their incomes are, the more choices they would be able to choose. Thereby, the freedom to make life choices for the poor is constrained since the number of life choices is dependent on the level of their incomes, the lower their incomes are the fewer life choices they would have.

2.2. Poverty and Sustainable Development Goals

The notion of sustainable development was initially introduced in 1987 by Gro Brundtland, a former Norway Prime Minister, and later in the same year, this notion was developed into the ‘Three Pillars of Sustainability’ that include social, economic, and environmental dimensions. The ‘Three Pillars of Sustainability’ subsequently brought about an attempt to the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals. The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by the United Nations, commenced in 2015 and are planned to be achieved by 2030, in other words, these goals are scheduled to be achieved between the 2015 - 2030 timeframe. However, previous to the inauguration of the 17 SDGs, the United Nations also introduced Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the MDGs were executed between 2001- 2015, and they consisted of 8 main goals, the first goal of MDGs was the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger which is almost identical to the first goal of the SDGs that is trying to end all forms of poverty

everywhere. Thereby, SDG1 is seen to be a sort of progression and development of MDG1, although according to the United Nations Report, by 2015 the number of the extremely poor had decreased more than half compared to 1990, and this signified the success of MDG1. However, the replacement of MDGs with SDGs in 2015 also started with the poverty-reduction-related goal, there is a development and advancement in SDG1 when compared to its previous goal, i.e., MDG1. SDG1 is different from MDG1 in a way that SDG1 is trying to end every form of poverty everywhere, while MDG1 was trying to end severe hunger and poverty. Although for the time being, the timeframe of SDG1 has not come to an end yet, nevertheless, there are still some assumptions concerning the achievement of SDG1 by 2030 that it may not be accomplished in accordance with the target or result that was expected to be. Furthermore, ending poverty not only ends the problem of poverty as set in SDG1 but could also bring an end to the problem in the following SDGs as well. An accomplishment of SDG1 which is ending all forms of poverty everywhere could also pave the way to the accomplishment of other SDGs, as by ending poverty, the goal of ‘zero hunger’ could be easier to achieve if the goal of ‘no poverty’ is successfully accomplished. If the number of the poor is decreased or put to an end, the number of people that would suffer from hunger could also be decreased as well, or in the best-case scenario, hunger could even be eradicated eventually. In addition to the fulfillment of SDG2 (zero hunger), SDG1 could also contribute to the fulfillment of other SDGs as well, these SDGs are such as SDG3 (good health and well-being), SDG4 (quality education), SDG6 (clean water and sanitation), and SDG10 (reduced inequalities) for instances. Besides, although some of these SDGs could be easier to achieve with a contribution of an accomplishment in SDG1, nevertheless, they may not need the contribution from the fulfillment of SDG1 if, for example, quality education, clean water, sanitation, and conditions that could lead to having good health and well-being, are provided by the state, thus every person in the society who falls under any socioeconomic status would have access to all of these state’s provisions equally. Therefore, people from lower- and middle-income families could acquire access to quality education, hygienic water, and sanitation, as well as overall health and well-being as people from upper-income families do. As for SDG10 (reduced inequalities), if SDG1 were to succeed, then the problem of inequalities would also be solved because some policies in ending the two

problems (i.e., poverty and inequalities) overlap one another like providing employment to both the poor and the unemployed and supporting workers for instance (Ratanachai and Vachiyatanin, 2022).

However, although the problems of poverty and inequalities can be reduced simultaneously through some similar policy implementations, yet, there are still some cases that poverty might be hugely reduced but not inequalities, or in other words, inequalities took more time to be reduced or eliminated compared to poverty, such as in the case of the Philippines where it took almost two decades for the declining of income inequalities whereas its rate of poverty decreased more than half (World Bank, 2022).

2.3. Different Forms of Poverty

Poverty according to Richmond Vale Academy consists of six forms, namely, generational, situational, urban, rural, absolute, and relative poverty. Amongst the six forms of poverty, there are two forms that are differentiated in accordance with the causes and duration of poverty, i.e., generational poverty, and situational poverty. Urban poverty and rural poverty are the forms of poverty differentiated according to the location in which the poor people are living. Whereas absolute and relative poverty are the two forms of poverty that are distinguished corresponding to the two different notions of poverty's definitions (Richmond Vale Academy, 2022). Besides, the absolute and relative forms of poverty have already been mentioned in section 2.1. of the thesis, therefore, they are not included in this section.

2.3.1. Generational Poverty

Generational poverty according to Wilber as cited in Tennial (2008) is “A predestination of certain people to a life of (economic) poverty... one inherits poverty through his color, his economic status, or the occupation of his parents [and grandparents] ...” (Tennial, 2008: p. 73). Generational poverty can be described as a continuation of the lowest economic status that is poverty from one generation to the succeeding generations of the family. The causes of generational poverty could be somewhat similar to the causes of other poverty such as the consequences of being unemployed, illiterate, and lack of skills for instances. This generational poverty is different from other forms of poverty in a way that it is part of a vicious circle that keeps passing on from one generation to the next

generations continually. In the case of families that have been living in a state of poverty for a minimum of two generations uninterruptedly, they are not only associated with generational poverty but intergenerational poverty as well. Nevertheless, this vicious circle of poverty can be brought to an end with support from the state or other organizations that could contribute to the creation of jobs by providing for example skills training, and quality education in order to become literate and thus the poor could use knowledge attained from education or skills obtained from the training to get jobs, hence, they would be able to end this impoverished cycle before it would pass on to the future generations of the families (Tennial, 2008).

2.3.2. Situational Poverty

Situational poverty is “Certain conditions that cause individuals to become suddenly poor” (Jensen 2009, as cited in Ningrum et al., 2020: p. 16). There are two groups of people that are affected by situational poverty, i.e., the group that was already poor prior to situational poverty taking place, and the group that was not poor yet prior to the emergence of situational poverty but became poor suddenly as a result of the occurrence of situational poverty. Situational poverty is caused by many incidents such as coming across pandemics, joblessness, long-term illness, an accident, divorce, or losing the head of the family for instance. Nonetheless, this situational form of poverty generally takes place for a short period of time, it does not happen for all time, it can be terminated for example when the pandemic ends, or when people experiencing situational poverty are getting jobs. What makes situational poverty obviously different from generational poverty is their time span as situational poverty most probably stays with the poor temporarily whereas generational poverty is likely to be more enduring, it could last from generation to generation (Ningrum et al., 2020).

2.3.3. Urban Poverty

Urban poverty according to Cano-Hila refers to “The set of economic and social difficulties that are found in industrialized cities and that are the result of a combination of processes such as: the establishment of comfortable living standards...” (Cano-Hila, 2019: p. 1). In South America, more than half of the proportion of impoverished people reside in cities than in any other part of the region (Ravallion, 2007). Urban poverty is not

only about being jobless but also related to poor living conditions, or poor housing, namely urban slums which are generally located in the capital cities (see Figure 2.1). One of the differences between the urban poor and rural poor is that the urban poor tend to live in crowded areas due to the density of the population living in the metropolis despite limited space. Besides, during the time of pandemic when social distancing is necessary, urban slum dwellers could be put at risk of being exposed to a pandemic disease because of the difficulty in practicing social distancing. Although some people migrate from their birthplace in the countryside to the cities in order to escape from poverty in the rural area, and to look for jobs and many other better opportunities that they could discover within the cities, yet, some of them may end up being urban poor, in other words, some rural poor who migrate to the city might get themselves out of a state of poverty, while some others may be caught in a poverty trap, i.e., run away from rural poor but turn out be urban poor instead.



Figure 2.1: Urban Slum in Bangkok Metropolis
Source: THE NATION, 2021

2.3.4. Rural Poverty

Rural poverty can be understood as poverty that happens in rural areas, or in other words, a situation that which rural dwellers are living in a state of poverty which is known as the

rural poor. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), there are several factors that could lead to rural poverty such as markets, culture, gender, climate, and public policy. For instance, in the case of rural poverty that is caused by markets, since people living in rural areas are normally associated with agriculture or farming, therefore the market could cause rural poverty such as by means of providing or setting a cheap price for buying crops or agricultural products from rural dwellers. Moreover, being landless poor is also one of the difficulties that the rural poor may encounter (Khan, 2001).

Furthermore, in some countries such as Thailand, the issue of land rights and ownership is also problematic, thus, during the election campaign of Thailand's most recent election (which was held in May 2023), many parties, namely Palang Pracharath Party (PPRP), Democrat Party (DEM), Pheu Thai Party (PTP), Move Forward Party (MFP), and New Palangdharma Party (NPD) promoted policies on issuing title deeds to the populace (Chintaksikam, and Klaikrasae, 2023). However, although rural life is generally perceived as associated with agriculture like farming for instance, nonetheless, Alston maintained that rural poverty does not cover only farm poverty but also non-farm rural poverty that takes place in the rural areas of a developed country like Australia (Alston, 2000).

2.4. Poverty in Thailand

2.4.1. The Poor in Thailand

According to the Board of Investment of Thailand, in 2022 the numbers of Thailand's total population is 66.09 million, and out of this total population, 40.14 million people (around 60.73% of the total population) are in the labor force as of quarter four of 2022 (the 'labor force' terminology as defined by Thailand's Department of Labour Protection and Welfare refers to the population who are in the working age [aged 13 years old and above] and ready to work, regardless of being employed or unemployed, besides, this term excludes those in the working age but not willing or not ready to work such as housewives or those working in an organization or a charity but do not earn wages, full-time students, and people with disabilities who are not able to work), while the unemployment rate is 1.2%. The minimum wages in the country that came into effect on October 1st, 2022, are varied to provinces, ranging from 328 Thai Baht (THB)/day to 354 THB/day, (the exchange rate from USD to THB as of October 1st, 2022, 1 USD = 37.80 THB [according

to the XE Currency Converter’s website], that is approximately equal to 8.28 to 9.36 USD per day (Thailand Board of Investment 2023; XE, 2023; Department of Labour Protection and Welfare, 2023). Therefore, when comparing the international poverty line which was \$2.15/day per person as set by the World Bank in September 2022 to Thailand’s recent minimum wage as announced in October 2022, those who are employed and earned according to Thailand’s minimum wage are considered non-poor according to the absolute poverty dimension, however, according to relative poverty, they could be considered either non-poor or poor depending on the average standard of living of the country or society they are living in.

Over the past 31 years (from 1988 to 2019), Thailand reduced a significant poverty headcount ratio as well as the number of people living below the national poverty line. In 1988 and 2019, the poverty headcount ratio was 65.17 % and 6.24 % respectively, while the number of people living below the national poverty line in 1988 was 34.1 million and reduced to 4.3 million in 2019 (see Figure 2.2). Accordingly, from 1988 to 2019, almost 29.8 million poor people overcame poverty (Thai Publica, 2020).

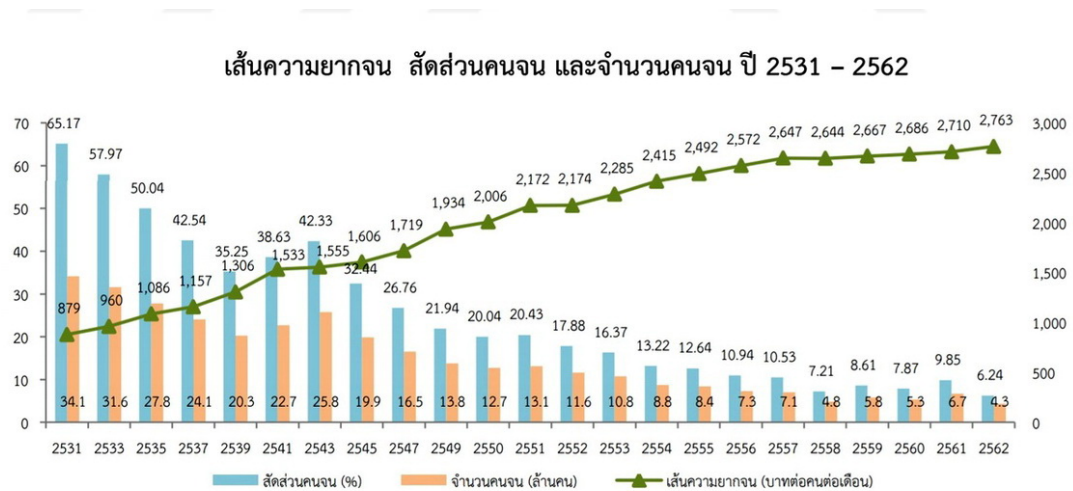


Figure 2.2: Poverty Headcount Ratio at the National Poverty Line (Thai Baht/Month), Percentage of Poor People, and the Number of People Living in Poverty from 1988-2019
Source: THAIPUBLICA, 2020

2.4.2. The Targeted Poor in Thailand

The Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms (TPMAP) have developed from a targeted information management system for the poor (Thai Poverty Map and Analytics Platform) in order to cover a wider range of problems. The TPMAP uses the ‘Multidimensional Poverty Index’ which is known as MPI as a method of calculating the targeted poor by looking at five dimensions, i.e., health, well-being, education, income, and access to government services. A person is identified as poor if they lack any of these five basic dimensions. Through the integration between the ‘survey-based’ method of the basic necessity’s information from the Community Development Department under the Ministry of Interior and the ‘registered-based’ approach of the state welfare registrant information from the Ministry of Finance, the TPMAP was able to target, verify, and trace the poor within the country, for example, which province, district, sub-district, or village they live in. Hence, the targeted poor in Thailand according to the TPMAP are the poor who need urgent support in one or more dimensions from the five dimensions of poverty, that means, they are not limited to only one dimension of poverty, one poor person could be facing more than one dimension of poverty. Moreover, firstly, the basic necessities needed in the health dimension include the minimum weight for newborns, which is 2,500 grams; households consume food that is hygienic, safe, and standardized food, and use drugs for therapy and ailments; and people aged six and over exercise 30 minutes a day, for at least three days a week. Secondly, the well-being dimension touches on the necessities that households need which consist of a durable and stable house; sufficient clean water for drinking and consumption throughout the year which is at least 5 liters of water for drinking and consuming and 45 liters for utilities per person per day; and a clean, hygienic, and orderly manner house. Thirdly, the necessities in the education dimension cover access to preschool care services for children aged between three to five; access to the nine-year compulsory education for children aged 6 to 14; and children who graduated from lower secondary education are able to continue their education in the upper secondary level or its equivalent, and people aged between 15 to 59 are literate and have basic mathematic skills. Fourthly, the income dimension looks at the average household income per year; and whether people aged 15 and over have occupations and incomes. Lastly, the access to government services dimension refers to the elderly and people with

disabilities being taken care of by families, communities, or public or private sectors. Therefore, those who are categorized as ‘targeted poor’ in Thailand meaning that they are incapable of meeting one or more basic necessities that are indicated in the five dimensions (TPMAP, 2023).

In addition, the number of targeted poor is only some amount of the total number of poor people in the country, as the number of poor people in 2019 according to the NESDB as reported by Thai Publica was 4.3 million, however, the number of the targeted poor in 2019 as maintained by the TPMAP was only 1.12 million (see Table 2.1) which is counted as approximately 26.10% of all those living in poverty that presented by the NESDB. Nonetheless, the number of targeted poor in every dimension has reduced significantly in 2023 compared to 2019, from a total number of 1,122,374 to 239,026 (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.1: The Number of Targeted Poor in 2019 according to the Five Dimensions of Poverty as Reported by the TPMAP

The Five Dimensions of Poverty	Number of Targeted Poor
Health	198.263
Well-being	192.489
Education	355.593
Income	373.942
Access to government services	2.087
Total Number of Targeted Poor	1.122.374

Note. Data are from the website of Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms. Copyright 2018 by National Electronics and Computer Technology Center - National Science and Technology Development Agency.

Table 2.2: The Number of Targeted Poor in 2023 according to the Five Dimensions of Poverty as Reported by the TPMAP

The Five Dimensions of Poverty	Number of Targeted Poor
Health	26.891
Well-being	44.976
Education	52.876
Income	113.955
Access to government services	328
Total Number of Targeted Poor	239.026

Note. Data are from the website of Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms. Copyright 2018 by National Electronics and Computer Technology Center - National Science and Technology Development Agency.

2.4.3. The Non-Targeted Poor

In defining whether each poor person is classified as ‘targeted poor’ or ‘non-targeted poor’, it is necessary to look at every criterion of each dimension. Some poor may be defined as ‘targeted poor’ because they fail to meet at least one basic necessity from one or more dimensions of poverty, however, they may be considered ‘non-targeted poor’ according to different basic necessities of the same or different dimensions of poverty. In other words, one poor person could be considered ‘targeted poor’ in line with one dimension’s criterion but may be considered ‘non-targeted poor’ in accordance with other criteria that are similar or different dimensions of poverty (TPMAP, 2023).

2.5. States’ Role in Reducing Poverty in the World

There are plenty of roles that different states in the world have been playing in order to reduce the level of poverty in their countries. The roles that individual states have been playing in poverty reduction could be similar or different from one another.

2.5.1. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in Malaysia

In Malaysia's State of Terengganu, the state uses the Zakat institutions to alleviate poverty within the state. By the word 'Zakat', Zulkifli et al. make a reference to "The compulsory giving of a set proportion of one's wealth to charity" (Zulkifli et al., 2021: p. 505). Thus, the Zakat institutions are the institutions that collect the Zakat from the Zakat payers and have the responsibility to manage and distribute it to the underprivileged and disadvantaged who are eligible to receive the Zakat assistance. In Zulkifli et al.'s study, the Zakat institution that played a role in fighting against poverty within the State of Terengganu was the 'Majlis Agama Islam dan Adat Melayu Terengganu' known as 'MAIDAM' which is one of the State Islamic Religious Councils in Malaysia amongst other Islamic Religious Council from other States such as the Majlis Ugama Islam Pahang (MUIP) from Malaysia's State of Pahang or the Majlis Agama Islam Melaka (MAIM) from the State of Malacca for instances. Alleviating poverty through Zakat institutions is carried out by various types of Zakat assistance, for example, some eligible groups of people may receive assistance in the form of financial support that would be distributed to the receivers every month in order to afford their basic living expenses, and the amount of money that the Zakat receivers would get in every month is different ranging from 0 to 451 Malaysian Ringgit (RM) and above per month in accordance with the demographic profile of Zakat receivers. Moreover, some Zakat assistance might also be in the form of capital assistance instead of providing monthly financial assistance because the Zakat institutions expect that the capital assistance could help the poor who fall within the categories of the eligible Zakat receivers could invest and generate income and profits out of that capital assistance (Zulkifli, 2021).

In addition, the state's involvement in reducing poverty in Malaysia is not limited only to the state level, it can be narrower to the local level or broader to the federal level. Siwar's study named 'Good Governance for Poverty Alleviation: The Case of Malaysia' touched on the role of the state and other four factors which include good governance, targeting and participation, effective delivery system, and pragmatic poverty eradication strategies and policies which contributed to the effectiveness of poverty reduction in Malaysia. The role Malaysia played in reducing poverty within the country by providing high government expenditure for reducing poverty, and including a major policy thrust in the

country's plans of development such as the New Economic Policy (1970-1990), the National Development Policy (1991-2000), and the National Vision Policy (2001-2010) in which received a strong budgetary and policy support at the local, state, and federal level in implementing pragmatic policies, for example, interventionist and positive discrimination strategies and policies, affirmative action, along with striking a balance between interventionist and market-driven strategies and policies. Besides, the practical methods and policies for ending poverty that consisted of Growth and Distribution Policies were included in the country's development plans since the 1970s such as the National Economic Policy (NEP), the National Development Policy (NDP), and the National Vision Policy (NVP). Malaysia's Growth Policies contain six different sub-policies. The first sub-policy is the structural change and diversification policy. The second is sectoral policies that included rural development and agricultural policy concerning land and rural development, food security and sufficiency, and the National Agricultural Policies, industrial policies that covered for example industrial zones and the growth of industries, taxes and subsidies, and ports and infrastructures. The third is the investment policy. The fourth is savings and fiscal policies that helped in poverty reduction such as microfinance, and rebates for instance. The fifth sub-policy is employment and labour policies for example training and human resource development. Finally, the price policy for instance the regulation of the price of food, fundamental needs, and other essential services, and low inflation rates. Furthermore, Malaysia's Distribution Policies mainly cover four different types of policies, first, the poverty reduction policies, strategies, and programs, this touch on rural and agricultural development, industrial and urban development, economic programs, and small business development for instance. The second distribution policy is related to affirmative-action equity together with restructuring policies and programs, which include for example equity in participation, education, and human resource development, pro-indigenous and pro-poor strategies, and the restructuring of wealth. The third is about social infrastructure policy which contains welfare, pension, health, housing, as well as education programs for the poor, and so forth. The fourth policy is the supply of necessities and facilities like food, clothing, housing, and water electricity, and infrastructure. The last distribution policy is access to resources, such as loans, land, water, and legal assistance (Siwar, 2006).

2.5.2. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, there are community-led approaches to dealing with poverty, even though at the very beginning, community-based poverty reduction activities were not supported by the UK government, however, later in 2010, they started to receive attention and support from the government. From there on, the UK government started introducing a variety of programs as well as legislative reforms in order to uphold such community-led poverty reduction activities. In addition to the UK government which supports community-led activities, the Scottish government also gives its support to such a kind of activities. By the term ‘community-led approaches’, Crisp et al. defined it as the activities in which carried out by individuals, organizations, or groups of people who settled in a specified geographical neighborhood for the purpose of accomplishing the social, economic, and environmental goals which are set by the participants with the least control from outside. The examples of the community-led approaches covered a lot of key features and different community-led activity types. Each type of activity has different key features, including, for instance, broad goals, key logic, and system or target groups. The associational activity, for example, has broad goals which are to make the standard of living for individuals within the neighborhood become better as well as to provide the residents the unfulfilled needs, while the key logic of the activity contains meeting needs along with creating the association’s opportunities for the targeted group in which this activity was aimed for the residents. Whilst the community and neighborhood organizing activity have the broad goal of influencing the residents to make their lives better and contributing to the development of the grassroots, the activity’s key logic is to create empowerment as well as mutual support, whereas the targeted groups do not include only resident like in the associational activity but include residents together with service providers and local government for instances. The above-mentioned examples of community-led approaches are merely some examples of the types of activity and key features that were put forward by Crisp et al. in their ‘Community-led approaches to reducing poverty in neighborhoods: A review of evidence and practice’ (Crisp et al., 2016). Although, the main actors who played roles in the community-led activities were community members, i.e., the residents who are living in a particular neighborhood owing to the fact that they laid the foundations of the community-led approaches for poverty

reduction, and they are the ones who undertake and organize most of the activities, nonetheless, there is still a role of the state, i.e the UK government in this approaches as well through the legislative reform and policy implementation in upholding plenty community-led approaches related activities as well as the introduction of such activities (Crisp et al., 2016).

Moreover, apart from the community-led approaches to tackling poverty played by the government of the United Kingdom, there are other roles of the state in dealing with poverty, however, these roles are not played directly by the government of the United Kingdom but rather by its devolved governments which consisted of the three devolved governments of Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. The roles of devolved governments in the United Kingdom in poverty reduction indicate the roles of the local or regional administrations in dealing with poverty in place of the central government, and their anti-poverty programs vary from country to country. The Welsh Government added various programs and plans to reduce poverty within its territory including institutional commitment, anti-poverty programs, the tackling poverty action plan, job growth Wales, and other future aspirations. Through institutional commitment, the Welsh Government had a strong institutional commitment to dealing with poverty, it had explicit policies toward poverty reduction along with institutions for doing accordingly. Besides, the government of Wales also embodied poverty reduction strategies in two of its ministers, i.e., the Minister for Communities and Tackling Poverty who was responsible for poverty's decision-making process in Wales, and the Deputy Minister for Tackling Poverty who was responsible for ensuring an effective implementation of the Welsh anti-poverty strategy as well as the fulfillment of objectives. As for the anti-poverty programs, there are mainly three anti-poverty programs proposed by the Welsh government that are aimed at low-income families, i.e., Communities First, Flying Start, and Families First Programme. Firstly, the Communities First Programme is a bottom-up and place-based community empowerment program founded in 2001, and the result of the program on economic factors was positive. Secondly, the Flying Start Programme that was inaugurated in 2006, dissimilar to the place-based approach of the Communities First Programme, Flying Start Programme is rather people-based intervention in which the program proceeded in the early years interventions aiming to improve education in order

to increase the proportion of the qualified population as well as to give an address to income inequality. the last Welsh government anti-poverty program is the Families First Programme, which is focused on low-income families, with the purpose of enhancing the design and delivery of family-related local authorities' service. The Tackling Poverty Action Plan is the main document that drafts the Welsh anti-poverty strategy. The plan is committed to preventing poverty by means of increasing young peoples' attainment through the early years' intervention programs, for example, the provisions of childcare and education, besides, the plan consists of three core themes, i.e., preventing poverty, lifting people out of poverty, and alleviating the impact of poverty. In addition, Job Growth Wales is also another anti-poverty program by the Welsh government, it is an initiative targeted to support employment by means of creating approximately 4,000 additional employment opportunities for younger generations. The last program is the Future Aspirations Programme in which the Welsh government widens its ambitions in order to support poverty-related matters (Lodge et al., 2015).

Besides, the anti-poverty strategies by the government of Northern Ireland consisted of government functions and strategies, tackling fuel poverty, living costs, and welfare issues. The government functions and strategies included many significant strategies related to anti-poverty, for example, in 2006, the government launched the 'Lifetime Opportunities' document which involved an anti-poverty and social inclusion strategy of the government of Northern Ireland (Lodge et al., 2015; UK Parliament, 2006).

The more recent strategy by the executive branch of Northern Ireland was the 'Delivering Social Change Framework' which was established in order to deal with social marginalization and poverty, some of the key programs in this framework include for example the improvement in literacy and numeracy competence, the endorsement of the existing family support hubs along with the formation of the new family hubs and the hubs of social enterprise incubation, and so on. Followed by the tackling of fuel poverty and the costs of living, due to the high fuel poverty in Northern Ireland more than in any other region in the UK. The one-time fuel allowance payment at the beginning of 2012, and the free prescriptions as well as free travel for the elders are examples of the devolved government of Northern Ireland's roles in tackling fuel poverty and costs of living in its region (Lodge et al., 2015; Northern Ireland Executive, n.d.).

Lastly, the roles of the devolved government of Scotland in tackling poverty. The Scottish government played a good role in poverty reduction since the rates of child poverty in Scotland were lower compared to Wales and England, there are some examples of Scotland's success in dealing with poverty within its territory, including decreasing housing costs, initiating inward investment, subsidizing families with living expenses, building the skills base as well as supporting threatened jobs. In addition to the counter-poverty measures carried out by the Scottish government, it also launched a formal anti-poverty strategy in 2008 named 'Achieving our Potential' which was a framework that was determined to fight against poverty. Apart from increasing the poorest 30 percent of households' income proportion by 2017, the framework also aimed to bring about income inequalities reduction, the introduction of long-range measures in dealing with poverty, better tax credits and benefits system, and support for those in poverty or prone to be in poverty. Moreover, there are also many other policies that the Scottish government determined to tackle the cost of living like free prescriptions, universal social care, and no up-front student fees for instance (Lodge et al., 2015).

2.5.3. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in New Zealand

In the late 1990s, the Labor-led coalition governments of New Zealand introduced the five economic and social policies that contributed to the alleviation of the severity of poverty incidence at the time, the five policies composed of the superannuation policy of New Zealand, the primary health care plan, the income assistance to decrease child poverty in policy, the income-related rents on state-owned housing policy, and the policy of decreasing unemployment and fostering an economy rich in jobs. The New Zealand superannuation policy was one of the five social and economic policies that were put forward by the new government at that time (i.e., the Labor-led coalition government). The new government introduced this policy in order to take the place of the previous policy implemented by the former government in early 1999 with regard to the reduction of superannuation for elderly people from 65% to 60%, the consequence of this superannuation reduction policy caused a great number of the elders in the state of impoverished. For this reason, once the new government came to power, the superannuation was raised up to 72.5% for a married couple, nevertheless, for both, a single person who received a living-alone payout and who was not receiving a living-

alone payout was eligible to receive the superannuation for 65% and 60% of the couple's rate respectively. The second policy was the rent-related policies for state-owned housing. After the cessation of the rents based on income on state houses policy in 1991, the policy aided the entitled people to pay the rent of state houses at 25% of their household income. The cessation of the policy was the result of the 1991 Budget, and it affected people in a way that they were required to pay the rent at a higher percentage of their household income, bringing people into trouble. Nonetheless, in late 2000, the policy on state residences rents based on income, which allowed the tenants to pay the rent at 25% of their household income was once more introduced by the Labor-led coalition government. The third was the primary health care strategy. The policy attempted to remove financial barriers to those who could be in need of primary health care services, therefore, it focused on providing individuals from high-need and low-income communities with low fees or free access to first-contact primary care services. Followed by, the fourth policy, i.e., the policy to minimize child poverty through income support. The policy that was underlined by the Prime Minister at the time during the Address-in-Reply debate asserted a commitment with respect to the improvement of financial assistance for children from low-income households in its term of government. The final policy out of the five social and economic policies in the late 1990s was encouraging an economy that creates jobs and lowers unemployment rates. The government contributed to the alleviation of poverty through an employment-rich economy's support and the reduction of the unemployment rate by means of economic expansion via an active labor market strategy, with the purpose of enabling the unemployed or those who were at risk of losing jobs to take part in the market. The results of these social and economic policies' implementations in the late 1990s and the early 2000s turned out to be somewhat successful, besides, the achievement and effectiveness of the policies were not only evidenced in Waldegrave et al.'s study in 2003 but also in an attempt in the continuation of the policies as the coalition government also undertook similar policies at the time of the 2002 election (Waldegrave et al., 2003).

The government of New Zealand's role in alleviating poverty consisted of a series of actions, first of all, strengthening the economy by creating a hundred thousand new employment opportunities, constantly increasing the minimum wage as well as raising about 11% of real wages, together with lowering taxes and interest rates. Second, welfare

reform, the government reformed the welfare system by way of helping people into work and supporting the off-welfare people, introducing an investment approach to welfare, and providing packages for children in most indigent families which include an increase in a weekly allowance to families with dependent children, an increase in Childcare Assistance for both early childhood education and after-school care for families with limited incomes, an increase in the rates of student weekly allowance for families with children, and an increase in the weekly allowance of the low- to middle-income families and a provision of additional \$24.50 per week to the very low-income working families through Working for Families under New Zealand's Inland Revenue Department. Third, an improvement in financial capability. There are two different initiatives progressed by New Zealand's Ministry of Social Development for the purpose of improving the financial capability of the people of New Zealand who are facing difficulties, particularly financial difficulty. The two initiatives consisted of the redesigning of budgeting services and community financing. By redesigning budgeting services, a co-design approach is applied to this initiative, and it is also supported by the Community Investment Strategy. Besides, the initiative is determined to put together the proper mix of services and initiatives necessary for advancing the financial capability of New Zealanders who are experiencing difficulties. Community finance is an initiative that provides low-income New Zealanders with interest-free and low-interest loans. Fourth, having a safe and healthy homes program which is a government program aiming to improve New Zealand's housing. The program is composed of five different housing-related initiatives, i.e., Housing New Zealand, Warm Up New Zealand, Healthy Homes Initiatives, Residential Tenancies Amendment Bill, and the Māori Housing Strategy. First, through Housing New Zealand, the government invested significantly in order to improve its housing, and the actions which have been done in this initiative include the completion of the Energy Efficiency Programme Initiative by means of upgrading insulation in nearly 50,000 properties, the installation of additional heating, extractor fans and range hoods as well as thermal quality triple weave curtains, and pruning trees or vegetations, along with carpeting houses if necessary. Next, Warm Up New Zealand. The government aimed to bring about drier, warmer, and healthier houses for New Zealanders through this program, and it did so accordingly by contributing to the insulation of around 288,000 households of which more

than half of this amount were low-income households. However, sometimes the funding of such a program is not solely from the government but rather from a combination of both the government and the third party. Then, Healthy Homes Initiatives, the initiatives that focused on housing interventions with the aim of finding crowded households a suitable house size in accordance with the number of family members, in other words, for the purpose of reducing the crowdedness of households, however, there are certain conditions for families to be entitled to beneficiaries, i.e., there need to be children from eligible households in the incidence of acute rheumatic fever. Moreover, similar to the Housing New Zealand and the Warm Up New Zealand initiatives, the Healthy Homes Initiatives also contributed to the installation of curtains and insulation along with taking other actions to ensure the warmth and dryness of houses. After that, the Residential Tenancies Amendment Bill, an amendment Bill introduced by the Government of New Zealand in late 2015, through this amendment, certain changes and new regulations were proposed with the intention of improving rental properties. The newly proposed regulations consisted of the requirements for the rental housing to provide the tenants with a minimum of insulation and fire protection, in order to contribute to a better life, in other words, for the quality of life of the residents and their children (The Cabinet Office of New Zealand, 2016).

Finally, the Māori Housing Strategy. The Government launched the Strategy in the year of 2014, with the focus of bringing about an improvement in the housing of the Māori people who were the indigenous people or native inhabitants of New Zealand (New Zealand Tourism, n.d.). The Strategy led to two significant outcomes, the first one is the improvement in the housing of the whānau, the word 'whānau' according to Durie referred to as "An extended family social unit" of the Māori (Durie, 2014, as cited in Moeke-Pickering, 1996). The second outcome was an increase in the Māori's housing choices by means of growing their housing sector. Besides, the Māori Housing Network was also founded in 2015 with responsibilities to support several community-based projects such as the emergency housing project, the housing repair projects, and the planning and preparation for housing projects for instance (Moeke-Pickering, 1996).

2.5.4. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in Canada

The roles of the state in reducing poverty in Canada can be separated into two parts, i.e., the federal role and the municipal role, as there were two main actors of the state who played roles in poverty reduction in Canada including the federal government and the municipalities which represented the local government. Accordingly, poverty reduction policies or strategies were supported both locally and nationally. The federal government played numerous significant roles in reducing poverty in Canada, it invested in many crucial areas as well as brought together each of the orders of the government to support and maximize the impact as much as possible. Besides the efforts to reduce poverty by providing support and encouragement to all orders of government, the federal government also committed itself to the recommendations of the Federation of Canadian Municipalities with regard to poverty reduction. Some of the key strategies were its commitment to the development of a National Housing Strategy or NHS, along with the expansion and renewal of the Homelessness Partnering Strategy. In addition, the roles of the federal government in poverty reduction covered its budget allocation in the investment plan for the expansion of public transportation throughout the country. Better and well-connected public transportation across the country helped low-income people in Canada to have easier access to jobs or work and other services and daily essentials. Moreover, there were other additional commitments relating to the funding of affordable childcare spaces in order to provide all families, particularly those living in poverty to be able to access affordable and high-quality childcare spaces. Furthermore, the federal government also assured Income Supplements and enhanced Old Age Security, and these supports would benefit low-income elders. Incidentally, the poverty reduction initiatives of the federal extended to low-income indigenous people and families as well, which was through the renewal of the funding of the Urban Programming for Indigenous People Initiative. Despite its several commitments to poverty reduction strategies and initiatives in Canada, the federal government likewise acted in a way of deepening the efficiency of the local plans for reducing poverty. As for the municipal role, the municipalities acted as the direct actors in reducing poverty in Canada, since they were government administrations that worked locally, thus the closest government entity to the locals' daily lives. The municipalities across the country developed and invested in a variety of plans

and initiatives with regard to poverty reduction, nevertheless, the municipalities were not always the sole actors in reducing poverty, sometimes they worked together with other organizations in implementing the plans and strategies, with the purpose of reducing obstacles to health, employment, and education in low-income areas. Besides, the local governments were not always the leading actors in delivering poverty reduction plans or initiatives, occasionally, they played indirect roles in reducing poverty, as some initiatives were founded and run by local people and non-governmental organizations, however, these initiatives received some support from the local governments as well, for example, the Hamilton Roundtable for Poverty Reduction that founded in 2005 and administered by non-governmental organizations and the members of the community but also received supports from the City of Hamilton. In spite of the indirect roles, the local governments also played a direct role in poverty reduction, through the implementation of local actions targeted at poverty reduction. Some examples of local actions in alleviating poverty namely Edmonton's Leisure Access Program, a program that provided qualified people from low-income families and new refugees with annual memberships to attraction facilities and city recreation free of charge, Kamloops' Affordable Recreation for Community Health Program offered \$300 in credit toward pools or museum memberships along with other activities run by the city, while Yellowknife's Recreation for All program provided low-income citizens access to public transportation and every drop-in recreational activities such as skating, family swims and other special events free of charge as well. In brief, some of the most crucial roles of the local governments or municipalities in poverty alleviation in Canada were their contributions to reducing obstacles to the participation of a variety of city-run programs that promoted healthy living, learning, employment, and the social inclusion of the low-income population (Federation of Canadian Municipalities, 2017).

2.5.5. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in Brazil

There were several policies and programs drafted by the federal government of Brazil specifically with the purpose of alleviating poverty in the country. In spite of a lack of an explicit National Poverty Reduction Strategy, nonetheless, the federal government still had the 'Cumunidade Solidária Programme' which was the nearest program that could substitute for the National Poverty Reduction Strategy. The Cumunidade Solidária

Programme had a significant impact on the decline of poverty in Brazil in the mid-1990s, the Programme was composed of two different parts, i.e., the first part was related to a federal agency known as Comunidade Solidária, and the second part was involved a set of partnerships among private sectors, the government, and civil-society associations. As for the first part of the Programme, the Comunidade Solidária agency usually used its own budget mainly for supporting compensatory policies for example free food distribution to extremely poor neighborhoods or communities afflicted by different kinds of natural disasters like drought for example. While the partnerships in the second part of the Programme also supported several useful programs that contributed to the alleviation of poverty such as the Capacitação Solidária, and the Alfabetização Solidária programs for instance (Camargo et al., 2000). Besides, according to the translations from Portuguese to English by the Cambridge Dictionary, the words Capacitação Solidária and Alfabetização Solidária were interpreted as Solidarity Training and Solidarity Literacy respectively (Cambridge Dictionary, 2023).

Incidentally, the Capacitação Solidária program was developed in 1996, the program's main objective was to support education and training courses for the impoverished youth who resided in the suburbs of the big cities. The courses in this program were conducted in accordance with the recent requirements of the job market to obtain the youth decent jobs because once they entered the labor market, or in other words, were employed, it would mean that would earn an income and this at least could somewhat alleviate poverty (EducaBrasil, 2001).

Whereas the Alfabetização Solidária program (also known as AlfaSol) was founded in 1997, it was a long-term and nationwide program that focused on supporting youth and adult literacy. Among the program's primary goals were to reduce the rates of illiteracy in youth and adults in Brazil by enhancing their abilities to read and write, to support the institutionalization of Youth and Adult Education, to advocate greater opportunities for furthering their lifelong learning, and to use literacy in support of the advancement of human rights, responsible citizenships, and the development of skills in order to uphold social inclusion as well as poverty reduction (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013). The literacy courses were generally taught by students from universities, in addition, the program was jointly sponsored by donors from the private sector and the

Ministry of Education of Brazil. Moreover, apart from the Comunidade Solidária Programme that advocated poverty reduction in Brazil in the mid-to-late 1990s, at the same time, the Federal Government of Brazil also played a role solely in alleviating poverty through its exclusive funding in 'the social area' which covered social security, health, education, and the labor-related transfers (Camargo et al., 2000).

Besides, the Zero Hunger, the School Allowance, and Brazil Without Poverty programs likewise have helped hundreds of thousands of people overcome poverty. Furthermore, the School Allowance Programme was the key program that supported numerous initiatives that conditionally offer cash transfers namely 'Family Stipend'. Whereas Brazil Without Poverty Programme also played a part in fulfilling the Millennium Development Goal of extreme poverty eradication in the country. In addition, since the 1980s, the International Fund for Agricultural Development started its collaboration with the federal government and the state governments of Brazil in rural development activities. These institutions worked together in a way that the International Fund for Agricultural Development was the loan provider, whereas the state governments were the loan borrowers with the federal government as the guarantor. There were several projects supported by this collaboration for examples the Rural Sustainable Development Project in the semi-arid region of the Bahia State which aimed to alleviate rural poverty by means of increasing production and generating income through employment in order to enhance the capacities of individuals and organizations as well as to help with their connection to the market, the Productive and Capacity Development Project in Ceará State targeted to also reduce poverty together with to improve the standards of living of family farmers by ways of increasing the rural household's productive base and investing in the development of productive initiatives, the Cariri and Seridó Sustainable Development Project in Paraíba in which supported people living in poverty in the rural area of Paraíba's semi-arid region for the purpose of raising their livelihoods through the development of rural economy in the region, and the Rural Poverty Alleviation Project in Maranhão State that focused on the needs of a number of peoples in the countryside which included youth, women, indigenous people, fishers, traditional communities, and the Afro-descendants, the goals of the project were to reduce rural poverty as well as gender and ethnic inequalities, together with to raise the rural people's capacity for effectively engaging in the local

development process and for a better management of their organizations. Besides, the budget of these projects ranged from tens of millions of dollars to about a hundred million dollars. However, most of the projects were jointly funded by both the state and the International Fund for Agricultural Development. Generally, the contributions of the International Fund for Agricultural Development to the projects were more or less than half of the total budget, while the remaining amount of the budget was supported by the state (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2017).

2.5.6. The Roles of the State in Reducing Poverty in South Africa

In the 1960s the economy of South Africa grew approximately six percent annually, at the same time the annual rate of employment also increased by almost three percent, corresponding to an increase in the country's population. Nevertheless, later, in the 1980s, South Africa entered a period of economic downturn, and this likewise affected the employment sector as well, where with in mid-1998, economic growth dropped to lower than 0.5 percent per year. Although afterward, in 2004, the economy started to grow again, reaching 4.5 percent, this was a consequence of the economic expansion along with a gradual increase in the numbers of the population. In the 1990s, during the period of economic depression, hundreds of thousands of people in South Africa became unemployed, and for this reason, a great number of people were pushed into poverty. Nonetheless, in response to the economic crisis at the time, the South African government implemented numerous decentralization policies, particularly policies and strategies related to poverty reduction. Accordingly, the formerly centralized national government was replaced with the newly decentralized government, namely a 'system of cooperative governance' that included a national government, nine provincial governments, and 284 other municipal governments which were the three separate spheres of government but were interdependent and interrelated with one another. As a result of the decentralization, the national government could also hand on some of its activities to the lower tiers of government for instance the provincial and municipal governments. Furthermore, the decentralized system of government also had a crucial role in addressing Goal 1 of the MDGs which was relevant to the complete eradication of hunger and extreme poverty. The decentralized government contributed to the end of severe destitution and starvation in a way that paved the way for the sub-national spheres of government in implementing

or delivering the provision of a social wage package, a package that was carried out in order to address the concerns of poverty within the country, it covered compulsory education for every child aged from seven to thirteen years, free clinic-based primary health care for everyone, and subsidies for instances on housing, transportation, water, electricity, sanitation, and refuse removal and so on for the qualified people (May, 2010).

In addition to the provision of a social package, there were some short-term measures in response to poverty as well, for example, the 'Extended Public Work Program' that was launched in the mid-2000s, the program created more than a million job opportunities, and the social grants payments that covered seven different grants, i.e., grants for disabled people, war veterans, foster children, older people, child support, care dependency, grants in help, and grants for foster children (May, 2010; South African Government, 2023).

Whereas the significant long-term strategy for eradicating poverty was education, the difference in the educational support between this strategy and the social package was the extension of compulsory education from age 13 to age 15. Moreover, in 2007, the school fee exemption policy was also introduced to exempt eligible students from school fees. The provision of one meal a day at schools to approximately 6 million primary school students in nearly 20,000 schools was one of the attempts to eradicate poverty as well. As for the alleviation of child and maternal mortality and other infectious diseases, the government provided free health care for children under six years old and pregnant women, along with applying a preventive health care approach instead of the former curative approach. Besides, another long-term strategy for reducing poverty was land reform, it was the potential strategy for alleviating the severity of poverty in the long term, as the assets were able to be transferred into the hands of impoverished families through state intervention (May 2010).

Incidentally, the more recent role of the South African Government in reducing poverty in the post-COVID-19 (an abbreviation of Coronavirus Disease of 2019) era was also noteworthy (Khambule, 2021; Vergnaud, 2023).

Since the emergence of COVID-19, apart from the serious effects on the health of people around the world, the economy of many countries has also been harshly damaged by the pandemic, and South Africa was not an exception. Subsequently, as a consequence of

economic damages problems such as unemployment and poverty arose, nonetheless, in dealing with these problems, the South African Government adopted countercyclical monetary and fiscal measures. The countercyclical monetary and fiscal measures adopted by the Government of South Africa in response to the effects of COVID-19 on society and the economy included a series of measures that consisted of wage support via the Unemployment Insurance Fund, disaster relief funds, financial assistance for small companies impacted by COVID-19, as well as company tax relief, after the declaration of the pandemic as a national disaster. In addition, the government carried out an R500 billion social and financial assistance programme, particularly for the purpose of increasing economic activities, reducing poverty, and raising the capacity of the state to mitigate impacts caused by COVID-19. This R500 billion social and economic package was varying distributed into seven different categories namely, the loan guarantee scheme that was administered by the National Treasury to subsidize businesses in paying rent and salaries; job protection and creation; tax relief, in order to increase government spending and reduce tax for promoting the economy; social grants to support vulnerable citizens particularly the poor by increasing monthly financial support to the child, disabled, and elderly grants for six months during the pandemic together with an establishment of a special Covid-19 Social Relief of Distress grant which provided six months monthly financial support to the unemployed people who did other supports from the government; Unemployment Insurance Fund that was used to aid business and workers troubled by the lockdown measure; COVID-19 capacity aiming to alleviate the spreading of the Covid-19 by way of providing additional medicine, staffing, beds, and ventilators to the hospitals, increasing screening and testing capacity of the country, and supplying the PPE (personal protective equipment) items to the health sector; and municipalities for the improvement of water and sanitation facilities as well as for the provision of shelter to the homeless (Khambule, 2021).

Beyond the aforementioned measures, in order to further increase the country's economic activities, the State-owned Industrial Development Corporation (which is a national institution for development finance) also contributed R300 million Small Industrial Finance Distress Fund for struggling small businesses, subsidized R2 billion to small community-based shops like unofficial convenience stores operated out of homes, as well

as providing support to the local companies for manufacturing PPE products. (Industrial Development Cooperation, 2023; Khambule, 2021).



CHAPTER III

THAILAND'S DEEP SOUTH PROVINCES

3.1. What are Thailand's Deep South Provinces

3.1.1. Thailand

The Kingdom of Thailand, also called Thailand, is one of the Southeast Asian countries, it is geographically divided into six regions i.e.: the North, the Northeast, the East, the West, the South, and the Central. The country shares borders with Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar (previously Burma), and Malaysia. Apart from sharing a border with Malaysia in the South, the southern region of the country is also surrounded by two of its two territorial seas, i.e., the Gulf of Thailand to the East, and the Andaman Sea to the West (see Figure 3.1). Bangkok, Thailand's capital, is located in the country's Central region and it is the most populated city in the country with the number of populations surpassing five million people as of August 2023 according to the Official Population Statistics of the Bureau of Registration Administration, under the Department of Provincial Administration (2023).

Thailand is a multi-religious country, with a total population of approximately 69.6 million as of the midyear of A.D. 2022 according to an estimation of the Government of the United States. The vast majority of citizens in the nation are Buddhists which counted 92.5 percent, while the number of Muslims and Christians in the country counted at 5.4 percent and 1.2 percent respectively. Moreover, there are also other religions in the country that have a smaller percentage compared to Buddhism, Islam, and Christianity such as Judaism, Confucianism, Sikhism, Hinduism, Taoism, and Animism. Despite a variety of religious groups within the country, nevertheless, there are only five religions out of nine that are officially recognized by the law, i.e., Buddhism, Islam, Christianity, Brahmin-Hinduism, and Sikhism. Furthermore, even though none of the five officially recognized religions is considered to be the official state religion, however, based on the Kingdom of Thailand's constitution, the King is required to be Buddhist, and he is required to declare himself 'the upholder of religions.' Notwithstanding the fact that Buddhism is

the dominant religion of the country as a whole, nevertheless, Islam is the most common religion in the southernmost region of the country or known as 'Thailand's Deep South' region which consists of the three southernmost provinces bordering Malaysia, i.e., Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat, and the other four districts in the Songkhla province includes Chana, Thepa, Na Thawi, and Saba Yoi Districts, or in other words, the Malay speaking region of the country (United State Department of State, n.d.).

Despite being a multi-religious country, Thailand is also a multi-ethnic country. The country consisted of a variety of ethnic groups including Central Thai, Isan, Khon Meuang, Chinese, Malays, Khmer, Mountain Thai, and other small populations including Mon, Indian, Burmese, and Vietnamese. The biggest ethnic group in Thailand is Central Thai which has the highest percentage of the population, approximately 50 percent of the population as in late 2000s. The Central Thais mainly live in the Central region or Greater Bangkok, and with respect to having the highest percentage of the population, Central Thai is considered the ethnic majority group, while the rest are considered the ethnic minority groups. Among the ethnic minority groups, Isan is the largest ethnic minority group in Thailand, it is a Lao-speaking group that makes up around 23 percent of the population of Thailand, geographically, this group is populated in Thailand's Northeastern region which shares a border with Laos. Then, the second-largest ethnic minority group in Thailand is Khon Meuang, it is a section of the populace residing in the Northern region of the country, this group is made up of 9 percent of the population and is a Lao-speaking group similar to the Isan group but with a difference in dialect. Despite having a dialectic difference, the two Lao-speaking groups along with the Central Thai are still profoundly related to each other racially, religiously, and linguistically, as all of them are parts of the Tai-speaking linguistic group which constitutes more than 80 percent of the country's population. Next, the Chinese group constitutes almost 8 percent of the population. The Thai Malay, the dominant ethnic group in Thailand's southernmost provinces, i.e., Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat, and the four mixed Malay-Thai districts in Songkhla province, makes up 2 percent of the population, equivalent to the percentage of the Khmer ethnic group in Thailand which makes up 2 percent of the population as well. While the Thai Malays are more concentrated in the southernmost region of the country, the Khmers are more

concentrated in the country's northeastern region. Whereas the Hills peoples or Mountain Thai constitute 1 percent (Selway, 2007).



Figure 3.1: Map of Thailand's Geographical Location in the Southeast Asia Region

Source: Geoscience News and Information, 2007

3.1.2. Thailand's Deep South Provinces

Thailand's Deep South provinces are geographically located in the southernmost region of the country, bordering the northern region of Malaysia. The Deep South provinces

included Thailand's three farthest south provinces, i.e., Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat, along with the four mixed Malay-Thai districts in Songkhla province, namely, Chana, Thepa, Na Thawi, and Saba Yoi districts. The major ethnic group in Thailand's Deep South provinces is the Malays, while the four districts in Songkhla province are a mix of both Malay and Thai ethnicity (see Figure 3.2). Furthermore, most of the Malays or the Thai-Malays (nationally Thai, but ethnically Malay) are Sunni Muslims. Besides, apart from the Deep South provinces, the Malays also settled in Satun province, Thailand's southern but not southernmost province (Viriyapah, 2020; Minority Rights Group International, 2018).

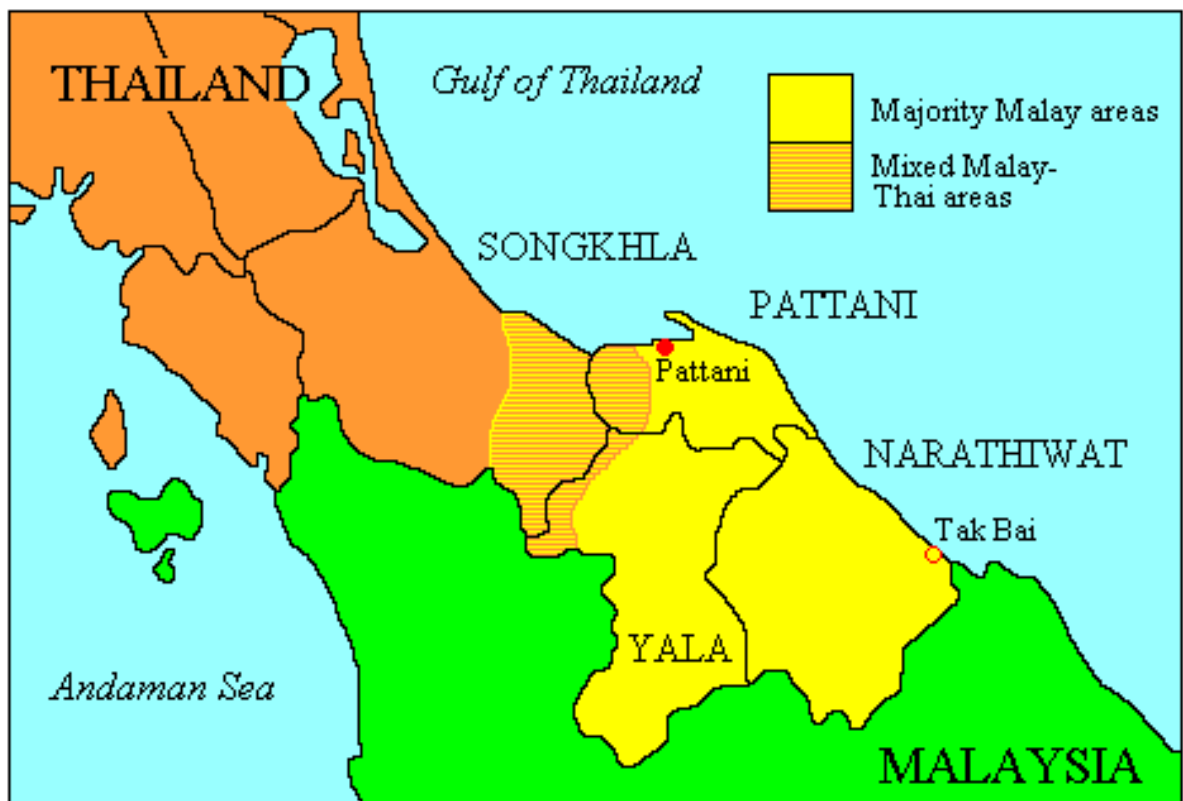


Figure 3.2: The Geographical Location of Thailand's Southernmost Region

Source: Viriyapah, 2020

The numbers of Thai-Malays population in the region is roughly 1.5 million of the 68 million of Thailand's population as of A.D. 2018. While the percentage of the Muslim population in Thailand is around 5-10 percent, however, the percentage of Thai-Malays or Malay Muslims out of the total percentage of the nationwide Muslim population is only

18 percent. Despite being citizens of Thailand, however, the first language of the Thai-Malays, alternatively known as Malay Muslims (in Thailand) is not the Thai language but rather the Jawi language. The Jawi language, or to be more obvious and comprehensible, could also be called the 'Patani Malay' language or dialect which is slightly different from the Malay that is spoken in other regions or countries like Malaysia for instance. The Thai-Malay or Patani Malay people as put forward by Paramal, are exposed to several languages' contexts, having the Jawi or Patani Malay language as their native tongue, followed by the Thai language as their national language, and Arabic language as a language for learning and reciting the Quran (Paramal, 2019). In addition, the Malay language consists of two distinguished scripts, i.e., the Jawi and Rumi scripts, the Jawi script is based on the Arabic alphabetic writing system, while the Rumi script is based on the Roman alphabet. The Jawi script is widely used by the Malay speakers in Thailand's Deep South, dissimilar to the Malay speakers in Malaysia, and Indonesia who presently use the Rumi or Roman script instead of the Jawi script (Minority Rights Group International, 2018).

Jawi is in fact not only a language, but it is also another word to call the group of Malay Muslims in Thailand's southernmost provinces. Both Jawi and Malays or Melayu are words that can be used interchangeably when referring to the Malay ethnic group in Thailand. In spite of the fact that the Jawi language does exist in Thailand's southern provinces and is the first language of the Thai-Malays (the reason for using the words Thai-Malays is in order to make a distinction from the Malays living in Malaysia), nevertheless, the language is still not recognized. Besides, although the word Thai-Malays is for the purpose of distinguishing the Malay people in Thailand from the Malay people in Malaysia, however, due to the resistance of the Malays to Thailand's cultural and political integration that has taken place since the Siamese (the Kingdom of Siam, a former name of the Kingdom of Thailand) permanent annexation of the Sultanate of Patani, the Malays (in Thailand) rather name themselves as Malays vis-à-vis Thais who are ethnically, linguistically, and culturally different (Le Roux, 1998).

3.2. Historical Background of Thailand's Deep South Provinces

Prior to the twentieth century, ahead of the Kingdom of Siam's annexation of the Sultanate of Patani at the beginning of the twentieth century, the Deep South region, or in a broader term, southern Thailand was known as the Malay Sultanate of Patani, it could also be called in short as 'Patani'. The Sultanate of Patani in the middle of the sixteenth century was a small maritime and trading port on the Malay Peninsula, however, it was on the rise at that time (Amirell, 2011; Parret and dos Santos Alves, 2022).

According to the historical map titled the 'Malayan Peninsula' (see Figure 3.3) which was compiled in A.D. 1862 by T. Moniot who was the Surveyor General of the British's Straits Settlements, the peninsula contained Siamese tributaries in the south and several Malay Sultanates such as Patani, Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu, Pahang and Johor for instances. In accordance with the Malayan Peninsula's historical map (see Figure 3.3), the geographical location of the Sultanate of Patani situated along the South China Sea in between the east coast of the Malay Peninsula and the Gulf of Siam (also known in the modern time as the Gulf of Thailand), bordering Singora in the north, which was a tributary vassal of Siam at the time, however, in present-day it became Thailand's southern province of Songkhla, the Sultanate of Kedah in the west, the Malay sultanate state that was a tributary of Siam until A.D. 1909 when the modern borderline between British Malaya and Siam was made as a result of the Anglo-Siam Treaty of 1909, in these days it is known as the State of Kedah, a member of the Federation of Malaysia, and the Sultanate of Kelantan in the south, another Malay sultanate state which was also a tributary of Siam, nonetheless, it was at the same time under the protection of the Treaty with British Government, and likewise, it later became part of modern-day Malaysia (Amirell, 2011; Bisalputra and Sng, 2020; The National Archives of Singapore, n.d.; Kuroda, 2002; The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Malaysia, n.d.; Parret and dos Santos Alves, 2022).

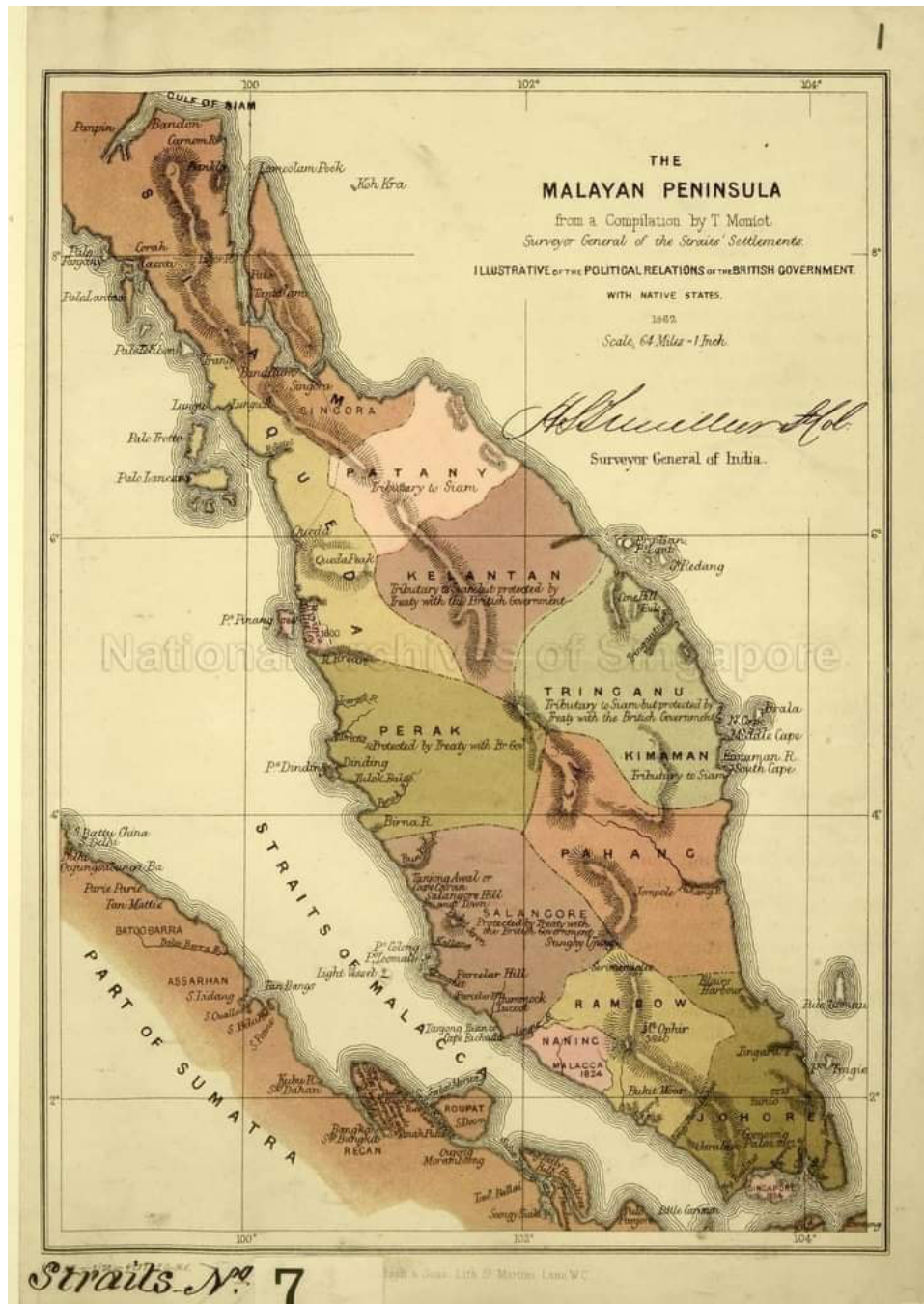


Figure 3.3: The British Map of the Malay Peninsula in 1862

Source: The National Archives of Singapore

3.2.1. The History of the Sultanate of Patani

The history of the Sultanate of Patani could be traced back to the period of the foundation of the kingdom of Patani which was around the late Middle Ages. The ancestors of the kingdom of Patani's kings were formerly from Kota Maligai, which according to Porath,

was the capital city of an inland kingdom. The king who founded the kingdom of Patani was King Phaya Tu Nakpa who was originally from Kota Maligai like his predecessors. King Phaya Tu Nakpa built a settlement on the beach where he failed to hunt an albino mouse-deer, besides, the word 'Patani' was likely first called by King Phaya Tu Nakpa when he ordered to build a settlement 'on this beach here' the sentence in which when translated to the Malay language would mean 'pada pantai ini', thus it was called in short as 'Patani' (Porath, 2011).

After the foundation of the kingdom of Patani, King Phaya Tu Nakpa fell ill with some type of skin disease, thereby, he proclaimed throughout the kingdom that whoever could cure his disease, would be able to marry his daughter. Sheikh Said, a Muslim merchant who was from Pasai but living in the kingdom of Patani at the time accepted the challenge but also came up with the condition that if he could successfully cure the king, the king who was then a Buddhist would have to convert to Islam. Later, the king was cured by Sheikh Said, but he did not keep his promise regarding his conversion to Islam, subsequently, the king suffered again from the recurrence of the disease, onward to the third recurrence, the king finally converted to Islam (Porath, 2011; Bougas, 1986).

Following the conversion to Islam, the king's name was changed to Sultan Ismail Syah Zillillah Fil Alam-Alam, also known in short as Sultan Ismail Shah, the new name that was given by Sheikh Said. Besides, there is also a dispute over the name of the converted king of the kingdom of Patani, according to the *Hikayat Patani* (meaning in English, the Story of Patani) as cited in Bougas (1986), stated that the name of the king was given name Sultan Ismail Syah Zillillah Fil Alam-Alam, however, according to *A Malay History of Patani* by Ibrahim Syurki as cited in Bougas (1986) as well, the king's name was changed to Sultan Muhammad Syah (Bougas, 1986).

The conversion of the king from Buddhism to Islam, over a period of time, brought about the conversion of his population as well, therefore, the kingdom of Patani which was previously a Buddhist kingdom likewise converted to Islam. However, prior to the widespread conversion to Islam by the Patani Kingdom's inhabitants, the Muslim communities existed in the Buddhist kingdom of Patani as religious minorities, until the first king of the kingdom converted to Islam, followed by his subjects' conversion, the

kingdom eventually officially converted to Islam. Nevertheless, the exact year of the kingdom's official conversion to Islam was ambiguous, some sources assumed that it could have been between the A.D. 1450s to A.D. 1500. Consequently, the Sultanate of Patani was founded in the early sixteenth century, concurrently, with the Portugues arrival in this newly established sultanate (Porath, 2011).

According to the *Hikayat Patani*, as cited in Porath (2011), it was put forward that Sultan Ismail Shah could have ruled the Sultanate of Patani from the early sixteenth century until his demise, then was succeeded by his son, Sultan Mudhaffar Shah who was assumed to have been born around A.D. 1513, and later ascended the throne and became the king of the Sultanate of Patani from A.D. 1530 until his passing in A.D. 1564. Hence, Sultan Manzur Shah who was the younger brother, succeeded his late brother, Sultan Mushaffar Shah, thus reigned the sultanate from A.D. 1564 until he passed away in A.D. 1572 (Amirell, 2011; Bougas, 1986; Porath, 2011).

3.2.2. The Golden Age of the Sultanate of Patani

In advance of the golden age of the Sultanate of Patani in the early modern period, previous to the succession to the throne of the Great Queen of Patani, Raja Hijau, the Sultanate of Patani was under the reign of Sultan Manzur Shah who ruled the Sultanate from A.D. 1564 to A.D. 1572. Moreover, after the demise of Sultan Manzur Shah in A.D. 1572, two male successors ascended the throne respectively, the first male successor was Patik Siam, the son of Sultan Mudhaffar Shah who was the brother and predecessor of Sultan Manzur Shah Malaysia (Amirell, 2011).

Patik Siam ascended the throne and became Sultan Patik Siam when he was nine years old, for this reason, his aunt, Raja Aisyah concurrently acted as a regent, and his reign started from A.D. 1572 to A.D. 1573. A year after his ascension to the throne, both Sultan Patik Siam and his aunt were assassinated by Raja Bambang, who was his half-brother. Accordingly, after the assassination of Sultan Patik Siam and Raja Aisyah, Bahdur (Sultan Manzur Shah's last-born child) subsequently succeeded to the throne at the age of ten, he ruled from A.D. 1573 to A.D. 1584, Sultan Bahdur came across a similar fate, he was also assassinated by his half-brother, Raja Bima (Amirell, 2011; Bougas, 1986).

After the demise of the two young sultans, i.e., Sultan Patik Siam and Sultan Bahdur who were assassinated by their half-brothers, followed by violence and political turmoil in the country caused by the relatives of Sultan Manzur Shah who fought and killed amongst themselves for the throne. The fights over the throne among Sultan Manzur Shah's relatives, left the Sultanate of Patani with no male successors and heir apparent to ascend the throne, consequently, this resulted in the successive enthronements of the three princesses who were the daughters of Sultan Manzur Shah as well as the elder sisters of Sultan Bahdur. The first female successor, who afterward became the first queen of the Sultanate of Patani was Raja Hijau (also spelled as Ijau, the Malay word which means green, thus, Raja Hijau, in English means the 'Green Queen'). Raja Hijau was the eldest daughter of Sultan Manzur Shah, she had two younger sisters, Raja Biru (the Blue Queen), and Raja Ungu (the Purple Queen), who later succeeded her, and became the Queens of Patani respectively. Besides, the sultanate of Patani institutionalized female rule, and this probably was an example for another sultanate within Southeast Asia, namely, Aceh to institutionalize their female rule as well (Amirell, 2011).

According to Amirell, Raja Hijau, the eldest daughter of Sultan Manzur Shah as well as the eldest sister of Sultan Bahdur, succeeded her younger brother, Sultan Bahdur, and ascended the throne upon her Sultan Bahdur's passing and became the first queen of the Sultanate of Patani in A.D. 1584, and ruled until A.D. 1616 (2011). However, there was also an argument concerning the ascension to the throne of Raja Hijau as some sources claimed that Raja Hijau ascended the throne upon the demise of her husband whose name was Lin Dao-qian, a prominent pirate from China who came to Patani during the reign of Sultan Bahdur, and married one of Sultan Mazur's daughters which was assumed to be Raja Hijau, hence, by reason of being Sultan Manzur's eldest daughter and a widow of Lin Dao-qian, justified Raja Hijau's ascension to the throne upon the decision of the council meeting amongst the chiefs and the members of the royal family (Amirell, 2011; Syurki, 1985).

Raja Hijau ruled the sultanate with feminine skills and justice. The Sultanate of Patani under her administration was prosperous, increasingly populated, and progressively developed. Likewise, the sultanate reached its highest point as the center of global trade during the reign of Raja Hijau as well. Its trading port flourished and filled up with trading

ships from Europe and other parts of the world. Incidentally, the affluence amongst both the upper class within the sultanate and the international merchants was a consequence of Raja Hijau's implementation of economic liberalism. Whilst ahead of the arrival of the Western peoples in the Sultanate of Patani, Eastern peoples which included Siamese, Javanese, Indians, Arabs, Chinese, and Japanese had already come into the Sultanate with the purpose of trading their goods. The first European people who came to the trading port of the Sultanate of Patani were the Portuguese who arrived in the sultanate around the early sixteenth century, followed by the Dutch who came to Patani for commerce throughout Raja Hijau's rule. The English trading ship whose name was 'The Globe' sailed from London to the Asian continent and disembarked at the harbor of the Sultanate of Patani in the early seventeenth century. Accordingly, these European peoples (i.e., the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the English) who came to the sultanate for trading had built trading stations in order to store their goods within the sultanate upon the authorization of Raja Hijau. However, despite their successful commerce in the sultanate, there was also competition over trading amongst these European peoples. Moreover, apart from the flourishing trade, the greatness of the sultanate also relied on its security and defense system to protect the capital city. Besides, Raja Hijau at the same time had developed friendly relationships with different kingdoms, ranging from East to West such as Holland and England, therefore, in her time, the Sultanate of Patani was famous and renowned throughout the world (Mansurnoor, 2009; Syukri, 1985; Walker, 2013).

As for the internal affairs of the sultanate, among the major developments of infrastructure that was carried out by Raja Hijau was the digging of the river, and channel for securing the supply of fresh water within the sultanate also caused a rise in the manufacturing of crops and together with the flourishing trading port that did not only enlarge the trade within the sultanate but also the external world, whereupon, these resulted in the growth of the economy and prosperity of the Sultanate. Incidentally, even though, the Sultanate of Patani under the reign of Raja Hijau enjoyed economic expansion and prosperity for most of her reign, nevertheless, there was a short period of time in which internal political instability took place within the sultanate. Since, not long after the ascension of Raja Hijau to the throne, she came across a rebellion undertaken by her prime minister, i.e., Bendahara Kayu Kelat, who led the march of thousands of armies to the capital, this

challenged the power of Raja Hijau, however, Raja Hijau could tackle the rebellion calmly and fearlessly (Amirell, 2011; Syurki, 1985).

In addition to economic growth and prosperity, the sultanate of Patani under the administration of Raja Hijau also reached a high cultural achievement, as it was the center of several arts and cultural performances for example dance, music, and dramatic performance, along with handicraft productions such as weaving, wood carving as well as metal working. Raja Hijau ruled the sultanate for 32 years, she passed away in A.D. 1616. Later, her younger sister whose name was Raja Biru (the Blue Queen), who was also an heiress to the throne, succeeded her and ascended the throne of the sultanate of Patani in A.D. 1616 (Amirell, 2011).

Raja Biru was enthroned at the age of 50, and it was assumed that she was still unmarried at the time of ascending the throne. With support from 'orangkaya', the leading merchant-aristocrats in the sultanate, an ascension to the throne of Raja Biru upon the decision of the royal family and their chiefs, was accomplished without any resistance, chaos, or internal political instability, unlike the ascension to the throne of her late sister, Raja Hijau. While Raja Hijau was the queen who ordered to dig the channel, Raja Biru carried on her late sister's work by contributing to the improvement of the channel. In addition, Raja Biru also ordered the construction of a dam as well as the manufacturing of the great cannon. Apart from the development of relationships with foreign countries for long-term purposes beyond trading, Raja Biru sought an alliance with the Sultan of Kelantan to unite the armies in fighting against the Siamese attacks (Amirell, 2011; Syurki, 1985; Walker, 2013).

Furthermore, the great cannon of the Sultanate of Patani namely 'Phaya Tani', known amongst the local peoples as 'Seri/Sri Tani', one of the potent symbols of the Sultanate of Pattani's identity, was also made during the reign of Raja Biru, nevertheless, later, it was looted by Siamese in A.D. 1785 and was brought to the Kingdom of Siam, and it is presently placed in front of the building of Thailand's Ministry of Defense, in Bangkok. Besides, Phaya Tani or Sri Tani was one of the two large cannons, the other one was Sri Negara, that were manufactured under the command of Raja Biru (Andaya, 2013; Syurki, 1985; Walker, 2013).

Moreover, Raja Biru ruled the Sultanate of Patani for approximately eight years, she passed away in A.D. 1624. Afterward, her younger sister, Raja Ungu (the Violet Queen) succeeded her and became the third Queen of the Sultanate of Patani in A.D. 1624, Raja Ungu ruled the sultanate until A.D. 1635. According to the description of Van Vliet, a Dutchman who traveled to Ayutthaya (the then capital city of Siam) in the seventeenth century, he described the characteristic of Raja Ungu (as cited in Porath, 2011), as an ambitious queen who wanted to acquire the supreme power. Besides, Raja Ungu renounced her royal Thai/Siamese title that was given by the king of the Kingdom of Siam, and she granted herself the grand Islamic and Malay title, i.e., ‘Paduka Syah Alam’ which when translated into English would mean “The Majestic Ruler of the World” in place of her royal Thai title (Amirell, 2011; Porath, 2011).

Incidentally, in advance of Raja Ungu's ascension to the throne, during the reign of one of her elder sisters, Raja Ungu married the sultan of Pahang (which at the time was one of the Malay states located on the Malay Peninsula, presently it is part of the Federation of Malay that was founded in 1963) who afterward became a father of her daughter, the future Raja Kuning (the Yellow Queen). Following their marriage, both Raja Ungu and the Sultan of Pahang traveled back to Pahang. Raja Ungu lived with her husband in Pahang for some years until he passed away, thereupon, Raja Ungu together with her daughter, Princess Kuning returned to the Sultanate of Patani (Syurki, 1985; Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

In the late of Raja Ungu’s reign, the Sultanate of Patani was attacked by Siam twice, the first attack was between A.D. 1632 to 1634, whereas the second attack took place in A.D. 1636 which was in the early reign of Raja Kuning, and Patani was defeated in both attacks. The reign of Raja Ungu came to an end in A.D. 1635, the throne was subsequently passed to Raja Ungu’s daughter with the sultan of Pahang, Princess Kuning, known as Raja Kuning, who was also an heiress apparent to the throne during Raja Biru’s reign, however, it was assumed that her mother, Raja Ungu, bypassed her and ascended the throne. As for Raja Kuning’s personal life, she married the Yang di Pertuan Muda Johor, a prince who was the son of the Sultan of the Malay State of Johor, nevertheless, the couple separated afterward. Besides, neither Dutch sources nor Syukri mentioned the marriage between Raja Kuning and the king of Bordelong (or Phatthalung, in present-day, it is one of 77

Thailand's provinces) as did Amirell. According to Amirell, the marriage between Raja Kuning and the king of Bordelong took place before her marriage with the prince of Johor, thereby, her later marriage worsened the relationships between the Sultanate of Patani and the Kingdom of Siam and eventually led to a prompted military attack on Patani by the king of Borderlong. Raja Kuning was the final monarch of an inland dynasty to rule the Sultanate of Patani. Under her reign, she implemented more open policies, along with more active diplomacy towards the Kingdom of Siam compared to her predecessors, incidentally, she even visited the court of Siam by herself to restore the relationships between the two states. The sending of golden flowers by Raja Kuning to the king of Siam could also be seen as an example of Raja Kuning's open and active diplomatic policies towards Siam, furthermore, there was a time in her reign when she also sent tribute to Siam in order to get her Siam's royal title back, i.e., Phra Chao, which was given by Siamese king. In addition, the reign of Raja Kuning was also the period in which the Sultanate of Patani started to decline as a result of several problems such as the emergence of new trading centers in other Malay states which could potentially compete with and weaken the trading ports of the Sultanate of Patani, the bankruptcy of the state's finance, internal political instability and rivalry amongst the elites as well as political upheavals which took place after the passing of Raja Kuning (Amirell, 2011; Mansurnoor, 2009; Walker, 2013).

Besides, under the reign of both Raja Hijau and Raja Biru, the Sultanate of Patani implemented peaceful foreign policies by building friendly relations with foreign kingdoms, welcoming foreign merchants, avoiding hostilities and military aggression, along promoting the well-being and prosperity of its populace. Nonetheless, Raja Ungu, in contrast to her predecessors, applied more aggressive foreign policies, and this also intensified the tensions between the Sultanate of Patani and the Kingdom of Siam (Amirell, 2011).

Furthermore, according to Syukri, Raja Kuning passed away with no direct descendant to ascend the throne, thus, this led to an end of the inland dynasty or Sri Wangsa family's rule over Patani. Hence, following her passing, the Sultanate of Patani faced a succession crisis, thereby, bringing about the ascension of the Kelantanese royal family to the throne of the Sultanate of Patani, and the first king from the Kelantan Dynasty, a royal family of

one of the Malay states on the Malay Peninsula which was also one of the 43 territories that were possessed by Patani during the period of the four queens from the Sri Wangas family or the inland dynasty, to rule the Sultanate of Patani was King Bahar or Raja Bahar, also known as Raja Bakal. However, according to Amirell, Raja Kuning did not rule the sultanate throughout her life, rather she was overthrown by the king of Kelantan (Raja Sakti I) a few decades before her passing, and he consequently made his son, Raja Bahar rule the sultanate instead, this is similar to Porath's assertion, moreover, he also added that the installation of the king of Kelantan's son to the Patani's throne by the Kelantanese King was also supported by Ayutthaya. Besides, following the end of the four-queens period and the coming of the Kelantanese dynasty was also the end of the Sultanate of Patani's golden age. Although its golden age came to an end, nevertheless, its global trade continued under the governing of the new dynasty, nevertheless, it did not flourish as it did during the golden age because its trading role was affected by the new trading centers that emerged in the region (Amirell, 2011; Mansurnoor, 2009; Porath, 2011; Syukri, 1985; Walker, 2013).

3.2.3. The Sultanate of Patani under the Kelantan Dynasty

In the history of the Sultanate of Patani, numerous rulers from the Kelantan Dynasty have ruled the Sultanate of Patani after the reign of Raja Kuning, namely, Raja Bahar or Bakal, Raja Mas Kelantan, Raja Mas Chayam (ruled twice, the first reign was after Raja Mas Kelantan, and the second reign was after Peracau Raja Dewi), and Peracau Raja Dewi (Amirell, 2011).

The first Kelantanese king was installed to rule the Sultanate of Patani in A.D. 1651. In advance of the coming of the Kelantan Dynasty in the mid-seventeenth century, the Sultanate of Patani in the late Raja Kuning's reign already started to decline because of several reasons such as overspending, the bankruptcy of the state, moral and palace crises, internal instability, and political crises that came after the demise of Raja Kuning. Therefore, by the time the Kelantan Dynasty took control, Patani was not as flourishing as it was during the era of the four inland queens. Incidentally, the sultanate, under the reign of the Kelantanese Dynasty, not only declined politically but also economically, and culturally (Amirell, 2011; Mansurnoor, 2009; Porath, 2011).

The arrival of the Kelantan Dynasty brought about an increase in the Kelantanese migration to the Sultanate of Patani as the two states (i.e., Patani and Kelantan) united at the time. Indeed, the union or alliance between the two Malay states, Patani, and Kelantan could be traced back to the reign of Raja Biru when she attempted to federate with Kelantan that was under the reign of Sultan Abdul Qadir to unite their army and strengthen their defense in beating off the Siamese attacks that could come by any chance. However, at that time, Raja Biru had the sultan renounced his royal title and used the title 'datu' (which in English means 'lord') instead. Accordingly, an alliance between these two states began from that time onward to A.D. 1750, hence, this alliance lasted for 131 years. In addition, the succession of the Kelantan king to the throne of the Sultanate of Patani was also the succession of the Kelantan Dynasty to the Kelantan and Patani Federation. Since the beginning of the Kelantan Dynasty's rule over the Sultanate of Patani, the dynasty did not seem to possess that much power, as power appeared to be shared more among the nobility within the sultanate. Indeed, the power of the royal family has declined since the reign of Raja Kuning, and this issue accelerated following the dethronement of Raja Kuning as well as the coming of the new ruling family (Amirell, 2011; Walker, 2013).

Following the reign of the first Kelantanese king to rule the Sultanate of Patani, the reign of female revived again around A.D. 1670 when Raja Mas Kelantan, Raja Bahar's wife, succeeded her husband and ascended the throne of the sultanate, making her the second ruler from the Kelantan Dynasty. Moreover, the couple appears to have had no male descendant, thereby, after the reign of Raja Mas Kelantan, their youngest and unmarried daughter, Raja Mas Chayam, succeeded her mother and became the queen of the sultanate in A.D. 1698 (according to al-Fatani as cited in Amirell, 2011). However, the monarch ruled only nominally since the real power resided with the elected oligarch rather than the royal family, in other words, the monarch was given the title but not the authority. Raja Mas Chayam ruled the sultanate for a couple of years, because of political turbulence and instability, she was then overthrown and replaced by a new queen who was appointed in A.D. 1702, Raja Dewi who was not from the Kelantan Dynasty. Raja Dewi governed the sultanate for almost a decade and later was dethroned as well. Followed by the infighting amongst the oligarchs for some years, finally led to the reinstallation of Raja Mas Chayam

to the throne, she became the queen of the sultanate again for a short period of time before her passing around A.D. 1718 (Amirell, 2011).

3.2.4. The Decline of the Sultanate of Patani

Several factors contributed to the decline of the Sultanate of Patani, including, the decline of royal power and female rule, the effects of war particularly with Siam, the decline in the economic and politics of the sultanate, and the advancement and expansion of the European within the region (Amirell, 2011).

To start with, the decline of royal power, particularly over the leading merchant-aristocrats also called in short, the oligarchy that began in the reign of Raja Ungu was a consequence of her applying of the confrontational policies towards Siam which were opposed by the aristocrats. During the reign of Raja Kuning, the royal power declined owing to her lack of financial prosperity which later weakened her power, particularly over the oligarchy. Secondly, the decline of female rule started during the reign of Raja Kuning, and its decline seemed to get worse with the coming of the Kelantan Dynasty, especially under the reign of the Kelantan queens who did not implement any influential foreign policy specifically towards Siam, thereby, when confronting its counterpart, Siam, the sultanate was incapable of opposing the Siamese troops and ultimately led to its demise (Amirell, 2011; Porath, 2011).

Thirdly, the decline because of the prolonged disastrous wars with the Kingdom of Siam which brought about a decline in trade, a very crucial state affair that helped spur economic expansion and prosperity of the Sultanate. Fourthly, a downturn in both politics and the economy, eventually brought about the downfall of the city and afterward was incorporated into the Kingdom of Siam in the late eighteenth century. Finally, the advancements and expansions of the Europeans in the Southeast Asian region were the most crucial factors that seriously caused the Sultanate of Patani to decline and come to an end eventually. The European advancements and expansions affected many indigenous trading states within the region including the Sultanate of Patani, it entailed the region's structural changes in many aspects, namely, economic, political, and military systems that precipitated the sultanate to decline demographically, culturally, economically, and politically following the mid-seventeenth century (Amirell, 2011).

3.2.5. Patanian-Siamese Relations

There were different interpretations regarding the relations between the Kingdom of Siam and the Sultanate of Patani. According to Wade, before being part of the Siamese tributary system in the eighteenth century, the status of Patani was somewhat of an independent kingdom or polity, and this assertion is in accordance with the Patani Jawi sources (as cited in Mansurnoor, 2009) in which identified Patani's status before the arrival of the European peoples as an independent polity. Moreover, Jory maintained that as a consequence of several wars with the Kingdom of Siam that took place from the late eighteenth century up to around the mid-nineteenth century, the independent status of the Sultanate of Patani finally came to an end, and so did its mandala relations with the Kingdom of Siam (Mansurnoor, 2009; Jory, 2013; Wade, 2012).

The mandalas, also known as the galactic polities, were the characteristics that described the relations between polities or kingdoms in the Southeast Asian region in the early modern era. The system of mandala relations can be described as a system in which constant negotiation and contestation determine relations between the lesser and greater political centers. Herewith, Bradley maintained that the mandala relationship was the relationship between the Malay state of Patani and the Kingdom of Siam from the sixteenth century until the eighteenth century. This sort of relationship allowed Patani to enjoy a high level of autonomy (Bradley, 2012)

Nevertheless, according to a Chinese reference in A.D. 1730 that was cited in Wade (2012), there were two distinct excerpts concerning the relations between the Kingdom of Siam and other states or countries to its south, particularly the Malay states. The first excerpt put forward that every country ranging from the south of Siam to the Malay state of Johor fell under Siam's jurisdiction. In contrast, the second excerpt raised that the relations between Siam and Malay states, namely, Pahang, Patani, Trengganu (present-day Terengganu), and Kelantan were somewhat different from Siam's relations with Songkhla, Chaiya, and Nakhon (these three cities are currently part of Thailand's southern provinces) which seem to have been rather under the direct control of Siam. (Wade, 2012).

Sometimes, the relationship between Patani and Siam could also be interpreted as a trading partner as Mansurnoor mentioned about the purchasing of cannons from Patani by Siam during the queens' reign. In addition, the sending of tribute by Patani to Ayutthaya is also noteworthy in explaining the relationships between the two states, since both parties (sender and receiver) interpreted this very same action differently. According to Bangnara (as cited in Mansurnoor, 2009), the sender (Patani) sent a tribute to Ayutthaya intending to strengthen friendly relations between the two states, whereas the receiver (Siam) interpreted this action as Patani's willingness to submit to Siamese sovereignty (Mansurnoor, 2009),

Accordingly, the relationship between Siam and Patani prior to the twentieth century is debatable, as each party interpreted the same action differently, and different sources also offered different interpretations of the relationship between these two states. Nonetheless, what seems convincing could be the fact that their relationships and the status of Patani kept changing over time as a result of the wars with Siam, as A. Bangnara (as cited in Mansurnoor, 2009), contended that the relationships between these two states were never settled since the Sukhothai era, an era when Sukhothai was the capital city of the Kingdom of Siam which lasted from the thirteenth to the fourteenth century, in fact, it was the first capital of the kingdom before Ayutthaya (Mansurnoor, 2009; UNESCO World Heritage Convention, n.d.).

3.2.6. Wars between the Sultanate of Patani and the Kingdom of Siam

Before the golden age of the Sultanate of Patani in the time of the four inland queens, the Kingdom of Siam seemed to have some influence over Patani, however, there was not much information regarding the certain amount of influence that Siam had over Patani at that time. By then, the first Patani rebellion against the Kingdom of Siam was carried out, this rebellion appeared to be during the reign of Sultan Mudhaffar Shah who reigned Patani from A.D. 1530 until 1564. After returning to Patani from a visit to Ayutthaya, around A.D. 1563, Sultan Mudhaffar Shah, together with his brother, ministers, and over a thousand soldiers and a hundred women traveled to Ayutthaya again aiming to take over the Siamese capital in taking vengeance for being humiliated by Siam during his last visit. Sultan Mudhaffar Shah along with his soldiers entered the Siamese Palace at Ayutthaya

and launched an attack, at the same time the king of Siam was forced to escape. Sultan Mudhaffar Shah and his soldiers then fought against the Siamese guards who also broke into the palace as the attack came about. The fight between the two forces ended with Patani's defeat, as Sultan Mudhaffar Shah was murdered after he commanded his brother to return to Patani (Mansurnoor, 2009; Porath, 2011; Walker, 2013).

After Sultan Mudhaffar Shah's reign, the wars between Patani and Siam arose several times. According to al Fatani (as cited in Walker, 2013), the Kingdom of Siam's first attempt to conquer the Sultanate of Patani began in the time of Patani's golden age, in the reign of Raja Hijau, to be specific, in A.D. 1616, this war ended with Patani's triumph. Afterward, during the time of Raja Ungu's reign, Siam attacked Patani twice, the first attack that was carried out in the reign of Raja Ungu took place between A.D. 1632 and 1634 while the second attack was in A.D. 1636. Furthermore, Holland supported Siam in these two attacks, for example during the war in A.D. 1634, it promised to aid Siam by attacking and bombarding the sultanate from the sea whereas the Siamese troops simultaneously attacked it from the land, yet the promises were not fulfilled as the Dutch fleet was not able to arrive at the sultanate on time, thereby, the sultanate was able to repel the Siamese troops. In fact, during the wars with Siam, Patani did not face the attacks all alone, but rather with its Malay allies, namely, Johor and Pahang who supported Patani in fighting back against the Siamese troops, because these two states also saw Siam as a threat from the north that may threaten them as well in the future, hence, by assisting Patani in fighting against Siam served their joint interest. Besides, an alliance between the Malay state of Patani and Kelantan which started in the reign of Raja Biru and lasted around 131 years later, was also created to overcome the Siamese forces that may attack Patani at any time (Mansurnoor, 2009; Walker, 2013).

The raid and conquest of Patani by the Siamese troops in A.D. 1786 tore down the city, caused the sultanate a great defeat, and took Patanian people to refuge in the nearby Malay polities, namely, Kedah, Perak, Kelantan, and Trengganu. Apart from the destruction of the city, its people were also depopulated. Following the conquest, the sultanate was divided into seven principalities before eventually being integrated into present-day Thailand and known as the Deep South. Besides, the Sultanate of Patani probably genuinely became a tributary of the Kingdom of Siam as a result of this attack. Ahmad

Fathi (as cited in Mansurnoor, 2009) mentioned the causes behind this defeat, namely, strategic mistakes as a result of the neglect in the sultanate's defense as well as the unpreparedness for war wherewith Patani did not face any external attack in the former half-century, along with the demise of the last inland queen, Raja Kuning, in the middle of the seventeenth century which afterward brought about an internal instability. Since the defeat in the late eighteenth century, Patani rebelled against Siam many times, but all were unsuccessful and ultimately led to the installation of the non-Patani ruler by Bangkok in A.D. 1816 (Bradley, 2012; Walker, 2013; Liow, 2016; Mansurnoor, 2009).

In A.D. 1832, the Malay states including Kedah, Kelantan, Patani, and Terengganu united together in resisting an intervention from Bangkok (the capital of the Kingdom of Siam since A.D. 1782). Notwithstanding the joint forces, these Malay states were still not able to overcome Bangkok's forces. Subsequently, Siam implemented a strict control policy toward its Malay opponents particularly Patani when it was under the direct control of Siam since then. This policy implementation by Siam put Patani in the position of a buffer state between Siam and other Malay states. A decade later, Bangkok appointed Malay officials to govern the sultanate, however, they were under the supervision of the governor of Songkhla, this system lasted for more than half a century until A.D. 1902 when Bangkok ended this system (Kokpol, n.d.; Mansurnoor, 2009).

3.2.7. Patani in Modern-Day Thailand

In the early twentieth century, the fate of the Sultanate of Patani was put into the hands of the British, who sacrificed Patani and handed it over to the Kingdom of Siam in order to secure its larger interests in the Malay peninsula region. The handover of Patani to Siam was undertaken through the 1909 Anglo-Siamese Treaty that was signed between the British and the Siamese government in A.D. 1909. Incidentally, although the sultanate had never been colonized by any European powers like other Malay states in the region, however, it was subjugated and integrated into the Kingdom of Siam, finally becoming part of modern-day Thailand, accordingly, Patani did face real colonization only through this treaty (Bradley, 2012; Mansurnoor, 2009; Walker, 2013).

Furthermore, in addition to Patani, Siam also retained Satun (a territory neighboring the Malay states and is presently one of Thailand's southern provinces) owing to the 1909

Anglo-Siamese Treaty, whereas other northern Malay states namely, Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu, and Perlis were given to British Malaya. Therefore, a border between Siam and British Malaya was created as a result of this Treaty. Moreover, sometimes when referring to the term Thailand's southern border provinces, Satun is likewise frequently put in this categorization due to its geographical location bordering the state in northern Malaysia, indeed, it used to be one of the districts of the Malay sultanate of Kedah prior to the 1909 Anglo-Siamese Treaty (Bradley, 2012; Funston, 2010; Liow, 2016).

3.2.7.1. From the Sultanate of Patani to Thailand's Deep South Provinces

From the Sultanate of Patani, one of the main trading powers in the region around the fifteenth century to the Deep South provinces in modern-day Thailand. Thailand's Deep South provinces consisted of the three southernmost provinces, namely, Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat, and the four Malay-speaking districts of Songkhla province, i.e., Theba (also spelled as Thepha, but is known as Tiba in the Malay language), Chana (Chenok), Na Thawi (Nawi), and Saba Yoi (Sebayu). According to Liow, the Deep South provinces are home to nearly two million people and approximately 75% of the total population is "Ethnic Malays who profess the Islamic faith" (Liow, 2016: p.99). Hence, most of the Deep South provinces' population is Malay Muslims whose ethnic and religious identities are identical to the majority population in its neighboring country, Malaysia. Besides, although, both Thai Malay Muslims (also called 'Nayu') and Malaysian Malay Muslims might share the same ethnic and religious identity, however, a lot of those Nayu working in the northern states of Malaysia also face a feeling of alienation as living in a Buddhist-majority country like Thailand make them feel being less 'Malay' in their Malaysian neighbor's viewpoint (Funston, 2010; Liow, 2016).

In addition, it is also worthy to note that Patani, a sultanate that existed before the early twentieth century is different from Pattani, one of Thailand's Deep South provinces which came to exist after the Kingdom of Siam's acquisition of the Sultanate of Patani, even though both, the sultanate and the province are situated in the very same geographical location, except that the Sultanate of Patani might cover a larger geographical area when comparing to Pattani province. The sultanate was most likely to cover the whole region of the Deep South provinces when taking the ethnic and religious identity of the majority

population into consideration as well as a reference to the Malayan Peninsula's map in Figure 3.3 (Liow, 2016).

3.2.7.2. From Patani Malays to Thai Muslims of the Kingdom of Thailand

The Kingdom of Thailand implemented assimilationist policies which were the dominant policies in its process of nation-building from the beginning of World War II up to the 1990s, because it feared that the Patani Malays may follow other Malay states in British Malaya in demanding independence from Britain as a result of the decolonization era together with the growing of Malay nationalism. Accordingly, Thailand was afraid that these two factors, i.e., decolonization and the rise of Malay nationalism might encourage its Malay ethnic subjects to seek independence as well. Thereby, assimilationist policies were implemented in order to change the sentiment from Malayness amongst the Patani Malay to Thainess, and one of the ways to do so was to identify them as Thai Muslims instead of Patani Malays (Jory, 2006).

3.2.7.3. Thailand's Deep South Ongoing Insurgency

a) Contributing Factors to Thailand's Deep South Conflict

According to Jory, there were some factors contributed to Thailand's Deep South conflict, to begin with, the Thai government's attempt to transform the ethnic identity of its subjects in the southernmost region from being the 'Patani Malays' to 'Thai Muslims', replacing the demonym from 'Patani' to 'Thai' and from ethnic identity 'Malays' to religious identity 'Muslims' in order to make the Patani Malays feel that they and other Muslims throughout the Kingdom of Thailand are homogenous, nonetheless, the most important reason was to avoid a reference to Malay ethnic identity which may encourage the Patani Malays to seek independence or separation from Thailand. The government was afraid that the rise of decolonization and Malay nationalism that arose in its neighboring Malaysia could inspire its Patani Malays subjects whose ethnic sentiment was Malay rather than Thai to pursue independence. Thus, to avoid the occurrence of such an issue, the Thai government implemented assimilationist policies in its nation-building process by getting rid of the ethnic identity of its Patani Malay subjects. In short, there is a place for Muslims in the official identity of the Kingdom of Thailand but there is no place for Malays, and this denial of Patani Malays identity intensified the Deep South conflict. In

addition, Islamization in Malaysia was another contributing factor to the Deep South conflict. The implementation of the Islamization policy by the Malaysian government at the beginning of the 1980s to solve its country's social problems such as laziness, corruption, drug addiction, and so forth that seemed to be predominant among its ethnic Malay citizens was perceived by the Patani Malays as a more Islamized Malay identity compared to their Patani Malay identity in a Buddhist majority country such Thailand. Thereby, the Patani Malays's perception of the strong Islamized Malay identity in its neighboring Malaysia together with the revival of radical Islam which later replaced communism in the resistance movement's ideology contributed to the Deep South conflict. Besides, the de-culturalization in southern Thailand is assumed to be another contributing factor to the conflict as well, according to Roy (as cited in Jory, 2006), the radicalization of Islam is caused by de-culturalization, hence, Jory presumed that it might be accountable for radicalism that arose in Thailand's deep south to some extent. De-culturalization through the assimilationist policies carried out by the Thai government for half a century seemed to have some impacts on the Patani Malay people, particularly the young generation, as can be seen from the decrease in their fluency in the Patani Malay dialect whereas their proficiency in Thai language has increased (Jory, 2006).

b) Thailand's Deep South Ongoing Insurgency

The ongoing insurgencies in Thailand's Deep South region occurred from time to time since the Sultanate of Patani's official admission into the Kingdom of Siam (Thailand) in A.D. 1909, and they still continue up until the present day. In the 1920s, the insurgency broke out as a result of Thailand's introduction of compulsory state education with the closing down of the traditional Islamic schools (known as 'Pondok') at the beginning of the 1920s. The resistance was intensified later when the Thai government under the first Phibulsongkhram administration (1938-44) implemented ultra-nationalist policies aiming to ban identity and cultures related to Malayness such as the banning of Malay language and Malay dress, relabeling the Patani Malays or Malay Muslims to Thai Muslims, including the closing down of the Islamic courts. In addition, in the time of World War II, the Patani region was reunited with its northern Malay neighbors (namely Kedah, Kelantan, Perlis, and Terengganu) as Japan gave back the region which lost under the 1909 Anglo-Siamese Treaty. Thereby, the Patani Malays made its only attempt to

incorporate the four southern provinces with Malaya following the end of the Second World War. Nonetheless, a petition to the United Nations as well as the formation of the pro-merger Malay Association of Greater Patani failed to make progress. Furthermore, opposition to Bangkok was also carried out by the resistance movements including the Barisan Revolusi Nasional (BRN), and the Patani United Liberation Organization (PULO) which were founded in the 1960s with the purpose of seeking independence or a degree of autonomy, however, these resistance movements lost their momentum as they came across a potential counter-insurgency campaign along with the granting of political amnesty in the 1980s and 1990s. Thereupon, they reorganized, and a branch of BRN, the so-called BRN-koordinasi (BRN-C) is considered the key actor in the Deep South's ongoing insurgency. Moreover, newer groups namely Bersatu and the Gerakan Mujahideen Islam Patani (GMI) were also established. In the early 2000s, the low level of violence reoccurred in the region, and about 56 people were killed in a couple of years. Later, in 2004 the conflict escalated and increased the death toll to around 4,000 by the middle of 2010 (Funston, 2010).

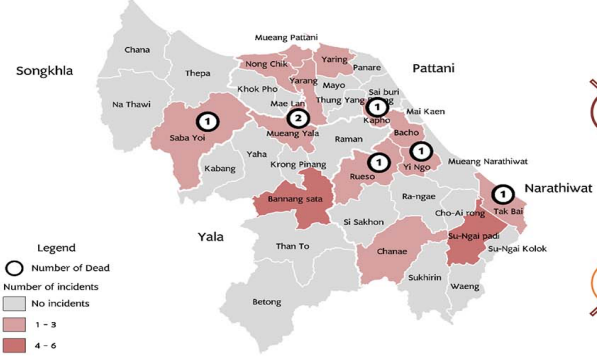
The 2004 conflicts in Thailand's Deep South provinces took place under the administration of Thaksin Shinawatra who was Thailand's prime minister at the time, an increase in violence was obvious subsequent to his victory in the general election a year earlier. In 2004, there were around three major incidents arose in Thailand's Deep South region, i.e., the raid of the military depot, the Krue-Sae massacre, and the Tak Bai massacre respectively. The conflict started in January 2004, when the military depot in Thailand's southernmost province of Narathiwat was raided, four Buddhist soldiers were killed, hundreds of weapons were stolen, and violence in the region rapidly increased following the attack. A few months later, in April 2004, the Krue-Sae massacre occurred in Thailand's southern province of Pattani in which 32 Muslim militants hiding from military persecution and taking refuge in the centuries-old mosque of Krue-Sae were murdered by the Thai armed forces who started shooting straight into the mosque. The murder of these Muslim militants who sought refuge in the mosque was criticized as 'extrajudicial killing'. Afterward, at the end of the same year, there was another deadly incident known as the Tak Bai Incident or the Tak Bai Massacre took place in October of 2004. In this incident, "Eighty-six unarmed Malay-Muslim protesters arrested at a rally

died under the custody of security officials when they were piled into army trucks and subsequently perished as a result of asphyxiation” (Liow, 2016: p. 119). Besides, throughout the tenure of Prime Minister Thaksin, many of his security advisors emphasized the use of force in countering an increased tendency of violence within the region (Liow, 2016; Feske and PholPai, 2008).

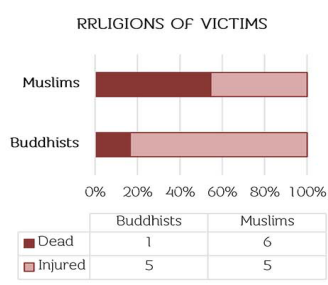
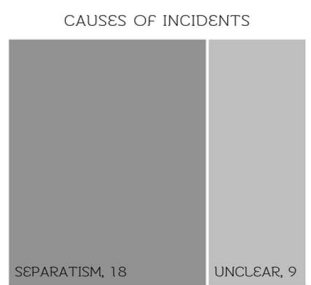
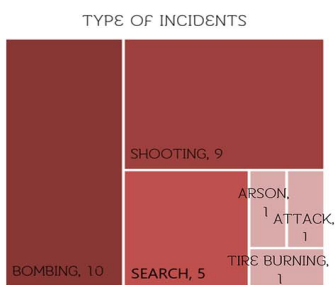
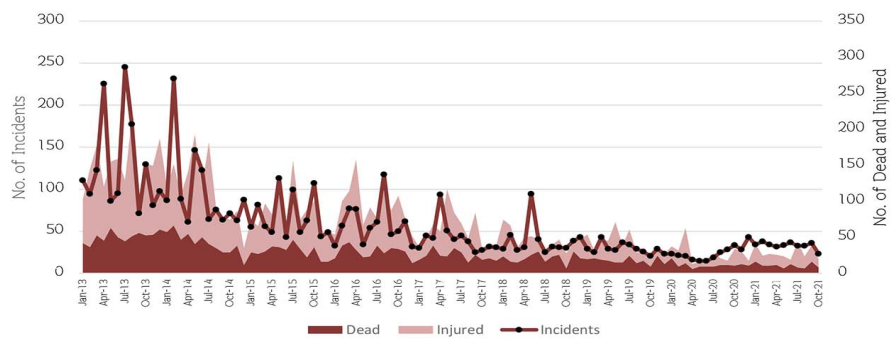
The data from the Deep South Watch (see Figure 3.4), revealed the number of incidents, deaths, and injured people as a result of the ongoing insurgencies in the Deep South region that happened in October 2021. The types and causes of incidents and the victims' religions were also indicated. The types of incidents varied, ranging from bombing, shooting, search, arson, and attack to tire burning. Separatism caused most of the incidents in October 2021, however, in some incidents, the causes were still unclear. The victims affected by the incidents were both Muslims and Buddhists. Furthermore, as of November 3, 2021, in almost two decades, since the first incident that arose in January 2004 until October 2021, there were a total of 21,235 incidents took place in the region, 13,550 people were injured, and the death toll reached 7,294. Besides, the insurgency has systematically decreased since 2013, the year in which the Peace Talks commenced, and continued to 2021 (Deep South Watch Database, 2021; Jitpiromsri, 2022).

Total Jan 2004 - Oct 2021
Incidents 21,235 → Dead 7,294 → Injured 13,550

27 Incidents	17 Casualties	
	Dead 7	Injured 10
	Hard Target 1	Hard Target 6
	Soft Target 6	Soft Target 4



Below 18 : Male 1 Female 0
18-59 Years : Male 11 Female 0
Above 60 Years : Male 1 Female 0
Unclear of age : Male 4 Female 0



Deepsouthwatch.data@gmail.com Tel : 073-312-302

Figure 3.4: Summary of Incidents that took place in Thailand’s Deep South Region in October 2021

Source: Deep South Watch Database, 2021

3.3. Songkhla's Deep South Districts

Songkhla's Deep South Districts are the four mixed Malay-Thai-speaking districts of Songkhla province namely Chana, Na Thawi, Saba Yoi, and Thepa which are part of Thailand's Deep South region where the insurgencies have occurred. What makes them different from their Deep South Provinces' neighbors is that they are not the majority Malay districts, but rather mixed Malay-Thai area (Viriyapah, 2020).

3.3.1. Saba Yoi District

Saba Yoi district covers 866 square kilometers and has a total population of 77,296. The numbers of male and female populations are 38,884 and 38,412 respectively. The district is geographically located in the southernmost of Songkhla Province, it shares borders with Na Thawi and Thepa districts in Songkhla Province, Khok Pho district in Pattani Province, and Mueang Yala, Yaha, and Kabang districts in Yala Province, along with sharing a natural border with Malaysia (Saba Yoi District, 2014; Deep South Watch Database, 2021).

The district consists of ten local government organizations, also called subdistricts (or tambons in the Thai language). Two of these are subdistrict municipalities namely Tha Phraya Subdistrict Municipality and Saba Yoi Subdistrict Municipality. The remaining eight local governments are the subdistrict administrative organizations: Bahoy, Ban Not, Chanae, Khao Daeng, Khuha, Pian, Thankeeree, and Thung Por (Saba Yoi District, 2014).

3.3.1.1. Poverty in Saba Yoi District

The targeted poor in the Saba Yoi district are the poor who need urgent assistance since they are considered poor based on the survey-based method of the basic necessity information and also registered themselves as poor through the registered-based method of the state welfare registrant information, in short, the targeted poor were the surveyed-poor who registered for the state welfare. In short, the difference between the poor and the targeted poor in this context was that the poor were those considered poor based on the basic necessity information, whereas the targeted poor were the former who registered for the state welfare. In 2022, out of the 16,221 surveyed households in the Saba Yoi district, 2,709 households were considered poor. Moreover, out of the 49,092 surveyed populations in the Saba Yoi district, 10,326 persons were considered poor, and 2,378

persons were the targeted poor. The percentage of the targeted poor in the Saba Yoi district counted as 4.84% which was the highest compared to the other three Songkhla's Deep South District, namely Thepa, Chana, and Na Thawi districts where the percentage of the targeted poor was 4.50%, 2.70%, and 2.53% respectively. Furthermore, the total number of the targeted poor in the Saba Yoi district in 2022 which included 2,378 persons can also be divided according to five different dimensions of poverty, i.e., income, health, well-being, education, and access to government service (see Table 3.1). Besides, one poor person can be categorized in more than one dimension of poverty. From Table 3.1, the income dimension of poverty has the greatest number of targeted poor, while poverty in access to government services dimension has the least number of targeted poor (Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms, 2022).

Table 3.1: The Number of Targeted Poor in 2022 in Saba Yoi District in accordance with the Five Dimensions of Poverty as Reported by the TPMAP

The Five Dimensions of Poverty	Number of Targeted Poor
Income	902
Health	843
Well-being	829
Education	471
Access to government services	9
Total Number of Targeted Poor	2,378

Note. Data are from the website of Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms. Copyright 2018 by National Electronics and Computer Technology Center - National Science and Technology Development Agency.

In addition, the number of the targeted poor in different subdistricts within the Saba Yoi district is as follows, Chanae (575 persons, counted as 9.14% of the total number of population in the district), Pian (392 or 7.30%), Khao Daeng (391 or 5.94%), Thung Por (338 persons, or 6.87%), Bahoy (336 persons or 7.53%), Saba Yoi (130 persons or 1.73%), Thankeeree (96 persons or 2.49%), Khuha (68 persons or 1.42%), Ban Not (52 persons or 1.19%), Saba Yoi subdistrict municipality (0 persons, 0.00%), also (see Table 3.2).

According to Table 3.2, the Chanae subdistrict has the greatest number of targeted poor whereas the Saba Yoi subdistrict municipality has the least number of the targeted poor (Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms, 2022).

Table 3.2: The Numbers and the Percentage of the Targeted Poor in Ten Different Subdistricts within the Saba Yoi District

Name of Subdistricts	Number of Targeted Poor	Percentage of Targeted Poor
Chanae	575	9.14%
Pian	392	7.30%
Khao Daeng	391	5.94%
Thung Por	338	6.87%
Bahoy	336	7.53%
Saba Yoi (Tha Phraya)	130	1.73%
Thankeeree	96	2.49%
Khuha	68	1.42%
Ban Not	52	1.19%
Saba Yoi Subdistrict Municipality	0	0.00%
Total Number and Percentage of the Targeted Poor in the Saba Yoi District	2.378	4.84%

Note. Data are from the website of Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms—copyright 2018 by National Electronics and Computer Technology Center - National Science and Technology Development Agency.

3.3.1.2. Causes of Poverty in Saba Yoi District

The roots of poverty in the Saba Yoi district could be generated by several causes, namely the fall in the price of agricultural products, particularly the price of rubber, which is the district’s biggest plantation, the possession of land without ownership hinders some locals from doing gardening, and an increase in living expenses and unemployment, are also

some of the major factors that are most likely to affect their income levels (Saba Yoi District Government Administration Committee, 2023).

3.3.1.3. Former Poverty Reduction Policies Implementation in Thailand

Some of the most recent poverty reduction policies implemented nationwide in Thailand were the measures carried out by the Thai government in response to the COVID-19 effects on the economy. The coming of COVID-19 in the past few years caused extensive economic loss, and increased the unemployment rate, while those vulnerable groups (whose income is marginally above the poverty line) were also at risk of becoming poor.

The Thai government has been continually allocating budget for coping with poverty and income inequality, thus, the government launched three measures specifically to help those affected by COVID-19. Firstly, the ‘Rao Mai Ting Gun’ (known in English as ‘No One Left Behind’) provided a three-month monthly allowance of 5,000 Thai Baht per person to the informal or independent contractors who do not work in the agriculture industry. Secondly, a similar measure to the previous one, except that it targeted farmers. The last measure provided a three-month monthly allowance of 1,000 Thai Baht per person to those eligible for the State Welfare Card. Approximately 42.4 million Thais (or around 60% of the population) benefitted from these three measurements (National Assembly Library of Thailand, 2021; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2019).

Apart from the poverty reduction policies implementation in response to the COVID-19's influence on the economy, there were also some other poverty reduction policies implemented nationwide by the Thai government. To begin with, the Royal Initiative Projects consisted of eight categories namely Agricultural Development Project, Water Resources Development Project, Public Health Development Project, Environmental Development Project, Career Development Project, Transportation and Communication Development Projects, Social Welfare and Education Development Projects, Integrated Development Project, and other development projects. In addition, several living expense reduction measures were also carried out to support Thai citizens countrywide, some of the prominent measures for instances the 15-year Free Education Program in which the government supports five main educational expenses including tuition fees, textbooks,

stationeries, school uniforms, and student quality development activities to students from pre-primary to secondary levels. The state welfare card policy targets the poor particularly, it aims to reduce household and living expenses for eligible citizens who meet the criteria, in July 2020, around 1.14 million people benefitted from the state welfare card. The National Village and Urban Community Fund, the Thai Women Empowerment Funds, the Universal Health Coverage Project, the Land Allocation Project for the Community in accordance with the Government Policy, the Providing of Subsistence Allowance for the Elderly and People with Disabilities who registered to be given the subsistence allowance were also some of the major poverty reduction policies implemented in Thailand (Thailand's Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation, 2020).

Besides, these poverty reduction policy implementations were generally carried out in a top-down approach whereby the policies and resources came from the central government in Bangkok and were implemented by the local governments or authorities ranging from the province level such as the Provincial Offices or the City Halls, and the Provincial Administrative Organizations, the district level, i.e., the District Office, the subdistrict level, also known as the Subdistrict Administrative Organizations, to the village level (Thailand's Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation, 2020; Department of Local Administration, 2015).

CHAPTER IV

STATE’S ROLE IN REDUCING POVERTY IN SABA YOI DISTRICT

One of the recent state’s roles in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi District was inaugurated on 30th October 2020 through the Order of Prime Minister No. 47 /2563 (2563 is the Thai Buddhist year which corresponds to the Gregorian or Western year 2020). Besides, the Thai Buddhist year is generally used in official documents in Thailand in place of the Gregorian year. The Order of the Prime Minister was implemented through a combination of the top-down and the decentralized approaches. Consequently, the Order of the Prime Minister was onward enforced by the provincial hall (a sub-agency of Thailand’s Department of Local Administration that differs from the local government organization at the provincial level which is known as the Provincial Administrative Organization). The Songkhla Provincial Hall then announced the Order of Songkhla Province No. 2149 /2564 following the Order of Prime Minister No. 47 /2563 concerning the founding of the operation center for poverty eradication and sustainable human development in accordance with the sufficient economy philosophy of the Saba Yoi district (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021; Department of Local Administration, 2015).

Subsequently, the Operation Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Human Development in All Ages following the Philosophy of a Sufficiency Economy was founded at the district level.

As the Order asserted the local authorities used the TPMAP system in several processes throughout the implementation of poverty eradication and sustainable human development. They would use the TPMAP system to monitor, inspect, evaluate, and report the results of the operation in order to ensure efficiency in the aforementioned processes and to use it as supporting data in action planning corresponding to the facts and circumstances of the targeted groups and local context. Hence, the data from the TPMAP System is the main source used during the process of poverty eradication and inequality along with sustainable human development in all ages. The purpose of founding the

operation center at the district level is in order to achieve the vision of Thailand's stability, prosperity, and sustainability, becoming a developed country by implementing the principles of sufficient economy philosophy (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021).

The Order of the Songkhla Province aimed to solve the problem of poverty at both individual and household levels. Accordingly, the operation center outlined several practical guidelines in ensuring its accomplishment, ranging from filling data that covers every dimension of the development issues into the TPMAP system, searching for critical targets to conducting field visits to the targets' houses by using the data from the TPMAP system in solving the problems of poverty among the targeted groups whose urgent assistance required for surviving and making a living. Moreover, sustainable human development in all ages was also emphasized in the Order, the state aimed to achieve sustainable human development by using the TPMAP system through the making of measures, guidelines, project plans, and activities per the local contexts (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021).

Besides, the Order also appointed the management committee of the operation center. The management committee was composed of people from different fields of professions including an Imam of the Ban Saba Yoi Mosque, the Saba Yoi chief district officer, and the senior assistant chief district officer as chief of the administration group were appointed as the committee's advisor, chairman, and vice chairman of the operation center, respectively (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021). Incidentally, the word 'Imam' is defined by the Merriam-Webster dictionary as "The prayer leader of a mosque" (Merriam-Webster, 2024). The word 'Ban' is a shortened word of 'Muban' in the Thai language which according to the Cambridge Dictionary means village in the English language (Cambridge Dictionary, 2024). Likewise, the committees also came from different professional fields as well, namely, the Saba Yoi District Police Station Superintendent, Lieutenant Sinchai, along with officers from numerous public offices within the districts including the Saba Yoi District Agricultural Extension Office, the Fisheries District Office, the District Livestock Office, the District Public Health Office, the District Land Office, directors from Ban Tham Talod, the Saba Yoi District Non-Formal and Informal Education Centre and the Rubber Authority of Thailand (Office of Saba Yoi Branch), a manager from Ban Kuan Ran Demonstration Farm, representatives from the civic sector,

Mayors, Chief Executive of the Subdistrict Administrative Organizations, Subdistrict Headmen, and a senior expert. Officers from the District Development Office and the District Office for Local Administration were appointed as committees as well as secretaries, while the assigned officers from the District Community Development Office and the District Office for Local Administration were appointed as both committees and assistant secretaries of the operation center (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021).

The tasks of the management committees included promoting, supporting, and integrating the operations within the district in order to find solutions to the problems of poverty and inequality together with the development of people of all ages in accordance with the Provincial Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy by using information from the TPMAP system. Furthermore, they are in charge of accelerating the advancement of the operation, integrating plans, projects, and activities as well as coordinating operations with government agencies, and private and public sectors within the operation area in order to reduce inequality and solve the problem of poverty and develop human of all ages by applying the principles of sufficient economy. Along with following up, examining, and evaluating the performance of the operation of poverty eradication and sustainable human development of all ages at the district level as well as constantly reporting the performances, problems, and obstacles of the operation to the Provincial Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy. They are also responsible for other tasks that may be assigned by the Centers for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of a Sufficiency Economy at both the district and provincial levels. Besides, they have the authority to appoint a subcommittee, or a workgroup as deemed appropriate (Songkhla Provincial Hall, 2021).

Apart from the Order of the Prime Minister, and the Order of Songkhla Province concerning poverty eradication and sustainable human development, there was also a resolution carried out by the Strategic Committee for the Development of Southern Border Provinces following its meeting on 28th October 2021. The Strategic Committee endorsed the framework for driving integration to eradicate poverty and sustainably develop people of all ages following sufficient economic philosophy in the southern border provinces

under the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’s concept. Another project that was brought out together under the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ concept named the ‘Stable, Prosperous, and Sustainable Subdistrict’ project, it was also the leading project carried out for driving the eradication of poverty and a sustainable human development of all ages in the Deep South region in 2022. The related authorities under the integrated plan for driving solutions to the Southern Border Provinces’ problems which are in charge of executing activities or subprojects under the ‘Stable, Prosperous, and Sustainable Subdistrict’ project were assigned to acquire the national identification numbers of the impoverished and their home addresses in order to firstly set the target group of the activities or subprojects, followed with target areas, and target activities or subprojects. Thereupon, the Strategic Committee for Southern Border Provinces’ Development assigned the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre (also called SBPAC), ministries, departments, and other related authorities under the Action Plan for Driving Integration to Eradicate Poverty and Sustainably Develop People of all Ages Following Sufficient Economic Philosophy Phase 2 (2024-2027) and other related plans to work with one another in order to bring about substantial success in the development of the southern border provinces (Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, n.d.-b; Provincial Community Development Office of Songkhla, 2021).

Besides, the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, or the SBPAC is a government administrative agency founded in 1981 by the Ministry of Interior, responsible for facilitating, supervising, coordinating, and joining forces, along with monitoring and evaluating the performance of local police and civil service agencies in the southern border provinces region in order to achieve the objectives of the National Security Policies of the southern border provinces. Apart from the abovementioned responsibilities, the SBPAC has an important mission i.e., preventing and suppressing all forms of terrorism under the supervision of the Commander of Thailand’s 4th Army Region. Accordingly, the SBPAC has a wide range of responsibilities that are not limited only to the fields of government administration, maintaining stability and security, or supervising civil agencies in the region, but also cover other fields as well, such as contributing to economic and social development and promoting good understanding

within the region, along with supporting cooperation at the local level with the neighboring countries (Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, n.d.-a).

Also, the SBPAC is the government agency leading in executing the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project in Thailand’s Deep South region. However, when putting the project into action, the SBPAC is jointly integrated with the Provincial Halls of the Deep South Provinces, namely Yala Provincial Hall, Pattani Provincial Hall, Narathiwat Provincial Hall, and Songkhla Provincial Hall. Thus, in the case of the Saba Yoi District, one of the four deep south districts in Songkhla Province, the Songkhla Provincial Hall cooperatively integrated with the SBPAC in carrying out the project (Provincial Community Development Office of Songkhla, 2021).

Moreover, in addition to the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project, the state also played its role in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi District through other projects as well, for example, in 2022, the Saba Yoi District Office provided assistance to five households (see Figure 4.1) for a picture the living condition of one of the five households in Khao Daeng subdistrict who failed to meet the criteria of well-being according to the TPMAP system in having good living conditions, or in other words who fall into the category of well-being dimension of poverty. The District Office assigned Khao Daeng’s subdistrict operation team to pay a visit to these households to evaluate the problems and plan how the help could be carried out (see Figure 4.2). The assistance was then supported by the Chief Executive of the Khao Daeng Subdistrict Administrative Organization and the division of public works (civil works) of the Khao Daeng Subdistrict Administrative Organization in renovating the houses in order to improve the living conditions of the targeted households, and most importantly, for alleviating poverty and achieving the government policy’s objective of ‘Leave No One Behind’ (Saba Yoi District Community Development Office, 2022).



Figure 4.1: A Picture of a House of One of the Five Households Receiving Assistance from the Saba Yoi District Office

Source: Saba Yoi District Community Development Office, 2022



Figure 4.2: The Khao Daeng's Subdistrict Operation Team Paid a Visit to the Targeted Households

Source: Saba Yoi District Community Development Office, 2022

4.1. One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project

The ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project is one of the projects carried out by the state in order to alleviate poverty in the Saba Yoi district. The first government authority to put in place the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ concept was the Strategic Committee for the Development of Southern Border Provinces which afterward tasked the SBPAC to lead the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project in the Southern Border Provinces region since the SBPAC is the leading government administrative agency in every dimension of the development of the people within the region. The SBPAC works in collaboration with the Provincial Halls, the District Offices, and other local government authorities in the Deep South region when putting the project into practice (Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, n.d.-b; 2021; Provincial Community Development Office of Songkhla, 2021).

4.1.1. Purposes of the Project

There are several purposes for implementing the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project in the Deep South region, namely, for expediting the alleviation of the problems of poverty among the local people in the Deep South region. The problems of poverty that the project refers to are the five dimensions of poverty, namely, income, health, well-being, education, and access to government services which the local people may come across with one or more of these dimensions. The project also aims to solve the problem of poverty of the local people in the region from the upstream, midstream, and downstream, in order to capacitate them to live in a state of well-being, and most importantly, to support them to escape from poverty threshold and live together peacefully and sustainably in a multicultural society (Pattani Provincial Public Relations Office, 2023; TPMAP, 2023).

Moreover, the SBPAC perceived the implementation of the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project as urgently required in the dimension of development which would have an influence on the problem-solving and other development strategies within the Southern Border Provinces (Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre, 2021).

In addition to the abovementioned purposes, the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project also has sub-purposes or subgoals in accordance with the respective subprojects which are executed for different targeted households. In other words, different subprojects are carried out under the ‘One Civil Servant One Poor Household’ Project, and each subproject has its own purposes that are planned to be accomplished. For instance, in the case of the subproject that was carried out specifically for the three targeted households in three different villages within the Chanae Subdistrict named Mushroom Cultivation for Career Support Project which intended to create employment opportunities, generate income and revenue, improve the standard of living and quality of life of the targeted households (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

In another subdistrict, for example, in Thankeeree Subdistrict, the project that was carried out also related to the creation of employment, however, it was not associated with farming or cultivation as administered in Chanae Subdistrict. In the case of the Thankeeree Subdistrict, the local authorities support the targeted household with a noodle business, for the purposes of raising the quality of life of the targeted household in order to be able to escape from the poverty threshold, generating supplemental income that is in line with the current cost of living. Moreover, in order to enable the targeted households to be self-resilient, capable of consuming and selling, reducing expenses, and generating more income by themselves, to further develop into a community’s product for value creation and income generation, and to create sustainable careers for the local people in an effort to reduce the numbers of the impoverished households (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022).

4.1.2. Local Administrations implemented the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in Saba Yoi District

There were a number of administrative authorities that were in charge of implementing the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Saba Yoi District ranging from the regional administrative authority i.e., the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Authority Centre (SBPAC) to different local administrative authorities namely the Saba Yoi District Office.

4.1.2.1. Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre

The Southern Border Provinces Administrative Authority Centre (which is also known as the SBPAC), is a regional governmental administrative authority taking the lead in the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project within the Southern Border Provinces' region as a whole, thus its implementation of the project likewise covers the Saba Yoi District as well. The SBPAC is at the forefront of the initiation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project and in putting the project into effect, it played an important role throughout the implementation of the project. There were some divisions together with subdivisions under the administration of the SBPAC that contributed to the SBPAC's implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Saba Yoi District through different tasks, namely, the Division of Promotion and Support for the Development of the Security and its subdivision which is known as the Social Psychology for Security Subdivision (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

The Promotion and Support for the Development of the Security Division and its Social Psychology for Security Subdivision under the SBPAC were responsible for supporting and aiding the implementation of the project when the Subdistrict Peace Councils passed on information about the plans, projects, or activities together with the other relevant evidence to them. Furthermore, the subdivision was tasked with the validation of the project by scrutinizing whether the project adheres to the criteria and requirements of the project expenses in strengthening the subdistricts within the Southern Border Provinces, which is known in other words as the Stable, Prosperous, and Sustainable Subdistrict project before submitting the project's information to the Internal Audit Subdivision of the SBPAC who was in charge of examining the cost estimation and proposing the project to the executives for the approval of the project as well as allocation of the budget (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

Accordingly, the SBPAC was responsible for transferring the budget into the bank account of the Subdistrict Peace Councils and notifying the District Office to proceed with the procurements. Moreover, apart from the roles of the SBPAC together with its subdivisions

as an institution that carried out various roles during the project's implementation, there was the deputy secretary-general for secretary-general of the SBPAC who acted as the project approver, the director of the Division of Promotion and Support for the Development of the Security as project coordinator (assigned by the secretary-general of the SBPAC) and was also in charge of checking the completeness of the project, and government officials, government employees, and independent contractors under the SBPAC, who worked in conjunction with the subdistrict operation teams, the graduate volunteers for homeland development, and other related authorities in paying visits to the targeted households in order first to conduct a survey and collect in-depth information of the targeted impoverished households. Subsequently, these working groups worked cooperatively in analyzing and synthesizing information about the targeted impoverished households, making plans, coming up with projects and activities, and proposing to the Subdistrict Peace Council and the Saba Yoi District Office for their approval through the Southern Border Provinces' Subdistrict Strengthening Project from the SBPAC (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

Besides, the government officials and employees, independent contractors under the SBPAC, the subdistrict operation team, and graduate volunteers for homeland development also worked together with the Subdistrict Peace Councils in paying a visit to the targeted impoverished households from time to time (around once a month) in an effort to inspect, follow up (for evaluating the achievement and acknowledge the problems and obstacles of the project's implementation), give advice, and provide them with the necessary knowledge and skills. In addition, they were responsible for reporting the project's implementation's status and outcomes to the Provincial Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, the Southern Border Provinces' Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, and the executives of the SBPAC (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022).

4.1.2.2. Saba Yoi District Office

While the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Authority Centre (SBPAC) was the spearhead of the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project at the regional level, the Saba Yoi District Office was the spearhead of the project's execution at the district level. In Thailand, a district is made up of several subdistricts that came together to form a district. A district is similar to a province, as it is also considered to be part of the regional administration system which is known in Thailand as the provincial administration system, however, it does not have a legal entity status as the province does, and it is still under the administration of the provincial office. According to the organizational structure of the district office, in each district office, three main administrative officials would carry out governing administrations namely the Chief District Officer, the Assistant Chief District Officer, and the Head of the District Government Agency (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015).

The Saba Yoi District Office, as the District Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, worked in integration with another local administrative authority namely the Subdistrict Peace Councils in checking and examining the correctness and appropriateness of the list of the targeted households who would be benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project. In addition, the Saba Yoi District Office and the District Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy assigned the civil servants as well as the employees of the local government authorities within the area where the project was carried out to be in charge of the impoverished targeted households. Additionally, the Saba Yoi District Office also collaborated with other local authorities including the operation's team at the subdistrict level, government officials, as well as local government employees who were in charge of the targeted households, civil servants, government employees, independent contractors under the SBPAC, and graduate volunteers for homeland development in searching for in-depth information of each household, surveying their surrounding environments, assessing their potentiality and necessary assistances needed or for improving the targeted households' standard of living. Afterward, such in-depth information would be documented through the One Civil Servant One Poor Household

system which is a data collection system under the SBPAC (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

Furthermore, the abovementioned local authorities also worked jointly in setting out a plan for developing quality of life, together with promoting knowledge, skills, concepts, and procedures for implementation, the preparation for carrying out the quality-of-life development plan, finding channels for product distribution, and preparing project, plans, or activities with related evidence by proposing to the Subdistrict Peace Councils for submitting the request assistance to the SBPAC. Besides, the Saba Yoi District Office, the Subdistrict Peace Councils, and the operation teams at the district level were responsible for proceeding with the procurement, along with delivering the factors of production to the targeted households (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022).

Moreover, the Saba Yoi District Chief played the role of project endorser, meanwhile, the assistants of the Saba Yoi District Chief who were responsible for taking care of their respective subdistricts worked as project certifiers of their particular subdistricts. Besides, the assistant district chief, community development officers, and community development specialists, who are categorized as civil servants or local government employees are also in charge of the targeted households (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

4.1.2.3. Office of the Subdistrict Headman

Thailand's regional and local area administrations first commenced in the reign of King Chulalongkorn also known as King Rama V (who reigned the Kingdom of Thailand between A.D. 1868-1910). During his reign, several reforms were made with the purpose of modernizing the country, some of them were brought up to the present time, and the current public administration of Thailand is also one of those remaining from the reforms during the era of King Rama V and King Rama VI (also known as King Vajiravudh) who reigned the Kingdom of Thailand from A.D. 1910 to 1925 (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015; Assumption University of Thailand, n.d.-a, n.d.-b).

The administration of Thailand's regional and local area was founded after the establishment of Thailand's Ministry of Interior in A.D. 1892. At that time, Thailand

divided the administration of the country into eighteen main divisions or is known in the Thai language as ‘Monthons’ which when translated to the English language would mean ‘the group of provinces.’ Hence, one Monthon is made up of several provinces, one province is composed of a number of districts, one district is comprised of several subdistricts, and one subdistrict consists of different villages. The Monthon administration system lasted for 40 years, subsequently, it was abolished in A.D. 1932 following the Democratic Revolution in that year. Thereby, the remaining regional and local administration systems are the province, the district or minor district, the subdistrict, and the village (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015; Assumption University of Thailand, n.d.-a; Chulasai and Chotipamich, 2021).

Out of the four remaining regional and local administration systems, the village is the smallest local administration unit and probably the closest local administration unit to the people, followed by the subdistrict, minor district or district, and province, nonetheless, the latter two are considered as part of the regional or provincial administration system. In every village, there is the Office of the Village Headman, having the village headman as the leader of the village. Each village headman has his or her assistants, called assistants to the village headman which are divided into two groups, i.e., the assistant village headman for security, and the assistant village headman for order maintenance, and each village also has a village committee. The village headman acts as both the head of the village as well as the president of the village committee. Assistants to the village headman are also members of the village committee, while the rest of the village committee are senior experts who would be elected by the villagers (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015; Thailand’s Department of Provincial Administration, 2020).

At the subdistrict level, there are two different local authorities at this level. The first one is the Office of the Subdistrict Headman whose roles are somewhat similar to the roles of the village headman, the difference could be that the village headman is in charge of its village while the subdistrict headman is in charge of both its own village as well as every village within the subdistrict regarding some matters since a subdistrict headman is elected amongst the village headmen within the subdistrict. In other words, the subdistrict headman could be considered as the leader of the village headmen. The Office of the Subdistrict Headman consisted of three different positions namely the subdistrict

headman, the assistant subdistrict headman, and the subdistrict medical practitioner (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015).

The second type of local authority at the subdistrict level is the Office of the Subdistrict Administrative Organization also known as the SAO which was developed from the Subdistrict Council in accordance with the Subdistrict Council Act A.D. 1994/1999 and 2003. The Subdistrict Administrative Organization is almost identical to the Subdistrict Municipality, one subdistrict either has the Subdistrict Administrative Organization or the Subdistrict Municipality. The Subdistrict Administrative Organization is made up of two constituents which are the Subdistrict Administrative Organization Council, and the Subdistrict Administrative Executive Committee, both are directly elected by people within the subdistrict in the general local election. The Subdistrict Administrative Organization Council is comprised of the council's chairman, vice chairman, and secretary who are elected among the members of the council. While the Subdistrict Administrative Executive Committee consists of the Chief Executive of the Subdistrict Administrative Organization, the deputy's chief executive, and the secretary of the chief executive, the latter two are appointed by the Chief Executive of the Subdistrict Administrative Organization, only the chief executive alone is directly elected by the people in the district (Jiwananthaprawat, 2014).

The differences between the two local authorities at the subdistrict level would be that the Office of the Subdistrict Headman would be dealing with the governing duties. The subdistrict headman and the village headman could be described in other words as governing executives, unlike the executive team in the Office of the Subdistrict Administrative Organization whose roles are more focused on performing administrative duties (Provincial Affairs Bureau, 2015; Jiwananthaprawat, 2014).

As for the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project at the subdistrict level, there were several local authorities who contributed to the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Saba Yoi District including the Office of the Subdistrict Headman, the subdistrict operation team, and the subdistrict peace council, civil servants and employees in the local government authority, and the graduate volunteer for homeland development. Besides, the subdistrict

headman acts as both the headman of the subdistrict as well as the president of the Subdistrict Peace Council (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

The subdistrict headman who is at the same time the president of the Subdistrict Peace Council acted solely as the project proponent. Furthermore, the Subdistrict Peace Council is responsible for taking care of the budget since the SBPAC would be transferring the budget into the bank account of the Subdistrict Peace Council before notifying the Saba Yoi District Office to carry out procurement. The responsibility for carrying out procurement along with delivering means of production to the targeted households does not lie merely with the Saba Yoi District Office but rather with the subdistrict operation team and the Subdistrict Peace Council as well. Meanwhile, the graduate volunteers for homeland development are the project coordinators of their respective subdistricts. Moreover, in some subdistricts, the community development specialists from the Saba Yoi District Office acted as the representatives of the subdistrict operation team (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

While most of the other tasks namely examining and considering the correctness and appropriateness of the lists of the targeted households, conducting an in-depth search of each household, observing their environment, assessing their potentiality, and the necessary assistance required for improving the targeted households' standard of living, setting a plan to develop a quality of life, promoting knowledge, skills, concept, and procedures, preparing for the implementation of the quality of life development plan and other related plans, projects, and activities, and paying a visit to the targeted households for inspecting, following up, and providing them guidance along with keeping the Provincial Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, the Southern Border Provinces' Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, and the SBPAC's executives informed about the advancement and outcomes of the project's execution, the Subdistrict Peace Council jointly carried out these tasks with other authorities both at the district and subdistrict levels like the Saba Yoi District Office, the District Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy

of Sufficiency Economy, civil servants and government employees from local authorities and the SBPAC, and graduate volunteer for homeland development as mentioned in the above paragraphs (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

In brief, some responsibilities in the implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in Saba Yoi District were carried out independently by the respective government authorities at different levels, i.e., at the regional, district, and local or subdistrict level. Nonetheless, for some other responsibilities, these government authorities worked intertwined with one another in order to implement the project.

4.1.3. The Implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in Saba Yoi District

The implementation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Saba Yoi District was carried out through several subprojects or minor activities that were brought about in individual targeted households in different villages and subdistricts. The subprojects or minor activities that were implemented under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Saba Yoi District were predominantly related to career promotion and income-generating projects such as the career promotion project for running a noodle business, the professional development project for mushroom cultivation, the career promotion project in raising ducks for egg production (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

Some subproject was carried out in several targeted households, for example, the professional development project for mushroom cultivation which was implemented in three different targeted households in different villages however within the same subdistrict. Some other subprojects, for instance, the career promotion projects such as the noodle business and the raising ducks for egg production were executed solely in each targeted household within different villages and subdistricts, because there was only one targeted household within the village or subdistrict that fell under the criteria of one of the five dimensions of poverty. Besides, in some subdistricts within the Saba Yoi District, there were no targeted households that fell under the criteria of one of the five dimensions

of poverty at all, therefore, there was no subproject carried out under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project within these subdistricts. Moreover, concerning the fiscal year of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project's implementation, there was a subproject that was carried out in the fiscal year of 2022, i.e., the career promotion projects in the noodle business, while the other two subprojects namely the professional development project for mushroom cultivation, the career promotion project for raising ducks for egg production were implemented in the fiscal year of 2023 (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

All of the subprojects implemented under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project were carried out in accordance with the economic aspect (the remaining four aspects included social, natural resources, security, and management) of the Subdistrict Developmental Plan following the regulations of the Ministry of Interior, and also in accordance with the economic aspect (out of the four aspects, the remaining three aspects are social, environmental, and human resources development) of the framework for implementing the subdistrict strengthening project within the Southern Border Provinces region in the 2023 fiscal year. In accordance with the five dimensions of poverty, these subprojects fell under the income dimension of poverty (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

As for the operational period of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project's implementation, although all proposals of the subprojects have been written that the operational period of the project is to be carried out between the last week of May to the end of September of both the 2022 and the 2023 fiscal years, nevertheless, according to the operational plan attached together with the subproject's proposal, the beginning of the subproject's implementation or the processing time of the subproject seems to commence since March and end in September of both year (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

Besides, there were a few differences in terms of the operational plans for the implementation of subprojects under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the 2022 and 2023 fiscal years. For the 2022 fiscal year which was implemented in the

Thankeeree subdistrict, the operational plan first started with visiting the project's location in order to collect in-depth information on the targeted households. Next, analyzing and synthesizing information on the targeted households along with preparing plans, projects, or activities with the approval of the Subdistrict Peace Council and the Saba Yoi District Office. Then, the SBPAC would check the accuracy of documents and estimate the budget, and the SBPAC's executive would approve the project or subproject as well as the budget. After that, the Subdistrict Peace Council and the Saba Yoi District Office would carry out procurement and delivery. Finally, follow up on the project's implementation together with reporting the results of the operations (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022).

According to the operational plan for the implementation of subprojects under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the 2023 fiscal year in two subdistricts, i.e., Chanae and Khuha subdistricts which carried out the subprojects in the 2023 fiscal year, it first started with validating the correctness and appropriateness of the targeted household's list, Next, assigning civil servants and local government employees within the area of the project's location to be responsible for taking care of the targeted households, Then, searching for in-depth information on each targeted households, making plans, projects, or activities, and preparing relevant evidence before proposing to the Subdistrict Peace Council and later presenting to the Saba Yoi District Chief for approval. After that, the project would be inspected and approved by the SBPAC which afterward, would transfer the budget into the bank account of the Subdistrict Peace Council. Following this, the Saba Yoi District Office would carry out procurement as well as deliver means of production to the targeted households. Later, the targeted households would execute subprojects or activities in accordance with the Quality-of-Life Development Plan. Thereafter, the subdistrict operation team, the Subdistrict Peace Council, graduate volunteers for homeland development, and other related authorities would pay a visit to the targeted households in order to inspect, follow up, and provide them with recommendations, knowledge, and skills. Finally, the follow-up and evaluation of the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project's implementation would be carried out through the collaboration between the Provincial Center for Poverty Eradication and Sustainable Development of People of all Ages following the Philosophy of Sufficiency

Economy and other relevant authorities (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

4.1.4. The Households Benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in Saba Yoi District

The number of the targeted households that benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project varied from subdistrict to subdistrict. In some subdistricts, there were no households that benefitted from the project owing to the fact that there were no targeted households that fell into one of the five dimensions of poverty. Whereas in some other subdistricts, the number of the targeted households was dependent on how many households within the respective subdistricts would meet the criteria of the five dimensions of poverty. For example, in the Chanae Subdistrict, there were a total of three targeted households in three different villages within the subdistrict that benefitted from the subprojects under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project. While, in the Thankeeree and the Khuha subdistricts, there was only one targeted household benefitted from the subprojects under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project. Moreover, the types of subprojects that were carried out under the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project within the Saba Yoi District also varied from subdistrict to subdistrict. Accordingly, the following subheadings would touch upon some of the targeted households within the Saba Yoi District that received funding from the SBPAC through One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023; Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022; Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

4.1.4.1. The Targeted Household in the Thankeeree Subdistrict

In the Thankeeree Subdistrict, there was only one targeted household that benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project. The subproject in the Thankeeree Subdistrict was executed in 2022 when the targeted household received funding from the SBPAC to run a noodle business in order to generate income for its household. Accordingly, the subproject attempted to fulfill the income dimension of poverty of the targeted household. (Office of Thankeeree Subdistrict Headman, 2022).

4.1.4.2. The Targeted Household in the Khuha Subdistrict

Similar to the Thankeeree Subdistrict, there was only one targeted household which benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project in the Khuha Subdistrict as well. However, the subproject that was completed in the Khuha Subdistrict took place in 2023. The targeted household is a family of five in which most of the family's members work as employees. Thereby, the funding provided by the SBPAC to the targeted households for performing a particular income-generating activity in which the targeted household carried out a duck farming business by way of raising ducks for egg production also known in other words as egg-laying duck raising enabled the targeted household to generate supplement income for its household (Office of Khuha Subdistrict Headman, 2023).

4.1.4.3. The Targeted Household in the Chanae Subdistrict

For the Chanae Subdistrict, there were totally three targeted households in three different villages that benefitted from the One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project. All three targeted households carried out a similar activity, i.e., mushroom cultivation for career support activity (see Figure 4.3). The targeted households generated supplement income in addition to their regular income by means of growing mushrooms and merchandising them to markets (see Figure 4.4). The first targeted household is a family of seven in which the head of the family's occupation is an employee, while most of the remaining family members are a toddler, a preschooler, and pupils. The second targeted household has six family members whose occupations included rubber tappers (i.e., farmers who work in the rubber plantation), employees, and pupils. Finally, in the third household, which is a family of seven, some of the family members work as employees whereas the remaining members of the family include an infant, a preschooler, and pupils (Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023).



Figure 4.3: The Mushroom Cultivation for Career Support Activity of One of the Targeted Households within the Chanae Subdistrict

Source: Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023



Figure 4.4: The Merchandising of Mushrooms to the Markets

Source: Office of Chanae Subdistrict Headman, 2023

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1. Conclusion

This thesis studies the role of the state in reducing poverty with a focus on the case of the Saba Yoi District, a district in southern Thailand's province. It starts with the introduction chapter where the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UNSDGs), particularly its first goal, i.e., eradicating every form of poverty universally was emphasized. Followed by a short introduction to Thailand's Deep South region and Songkhla's Deep South districts.

A number of papers studied the roles of states in reducing poverty in different parts of the world namely China, India, Vietnam, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Ghana, Korea, and Taiwan. In addition, there were also several research papers on the government's contributions to Thailand's poverty reduction in the past, some of them studied the government's contributions to decreasing poverty in Thailand at the national, provincial, municipal, or village levels in different parts of the country. Nevertheless, there were a few research that studied the roles of the state in reducing poverty in Thailand's Deep South region, particularly in Songkhla's Deep South Districts in which only four districts out of Songkhla's 16 districts are part of the Deep South region, unlike the other three southernmost provinces where every district is part of the Deep South region. Hence, this thesis studied the roles of the state in reducing poverty in Saba Yoi District (one of Songkhla's Deep South Districts), with an emphasis on the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project'.

Poverty in the Saba Yoi District is caused by several reasons such as the fall in the rubber price which is the district's main agricultural product, the obstacles in gardening or farming owing to the lack of legal ownership, unemployment, and an increase in living expenses. Hence, in solving the poverty problem, the state launched some poverty reduction policies including the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' that was

not exclusively for solving the poverty problem in the Saba Yoi District but rather in the whole Deep South region.

Consequently, the focal point of this thesis was to explain the three main questions concerning the administration of the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi District, namely its purposes, the state's institutions that carried out the project, and how the project was implemented by these institutions. In brief, the key purpose of the project was to expedite poverty alleviation amongst the local people within the region from the upstream to the downstream in order to help them escape from the poverty threshold and enable them to live in a state of well-being. Besides, apart from the key purpose, the project also has its sub-purposes in accordance with the subprojects or sub-activities that have been implemented in different households within the district. While the main state institutions that played roles in the implementation of the project ranged from the regional level, i.e., the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre (SBPAC), to the local levels namely the Saba Yoi District Office, and the Office of the Subdistrict Headman, the two local institutions which are at the district and subdistrict levels respectively.

Furthermore, the project was implemented through a combination of the top-down and decentralized approaches. Although the project was led by the SBPAC, a regional institution that was assigned by the Strategic Committee for the Development of Southern Border Provinces to take the lead in the implementation of the project, the order passed from the regional institutions to the two local institutions. Nevertheless, the local institution namely the Office of the Subdistrict Headman in different subdistricts still has the freedom to determine what kinds of subprojects they would like to implement within their respective subdistricts, and for this reason, the subprojects that have been implemented varied from subdistrict to subdistrict.

In addition to the three main research questions, i.e., what are the purposes of the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project', what are the state's institutions that contribute to the implementation of the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi District, and How do state institutions implement the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household Project' in the Saba Yoi District that have been answered in this thesis, the

study also touched on different information related poverty including the definition and forms of poverty, poverty in Thailand, the evolution of poverty reduction notion from the Millennium Development Goals to the Sustainable Development Goals, and the states' roles in reducing poverty in different parts of the world.

Moreover, the details on Thailand's Deep South region which included its historical background, i.e., the history of the Sultanate of Patani, its golden age and decline, the Patani Sultanate under the Kelantan Dynasty, the relations and wars between the Sultanate of Patani and the Kingdom of Siam which afterward led to the incorporation of the Sultanate into the Kingdom of Siam are also included in this study in order to pave the way for the comprehension of the ongoing insurgency in Thailand's Deep South region.

The thesis also briefly addressed Thailand's Deep South ongoing insurgency and its contributing factors before introducing Songkhla's Deep South districts and Saba Yoi District in particular. Additionally, the 2022 statistics of the targeted poor in the five dimensions of poverty (as set by the Thai People Map and Analytics Platforms) within the Saba Yoi District as a whole, the numbers and percentages of the targeted poor in ten different subdistricts within the Saba Yoi District and causes of poverty in the district were also provided in the study. Subsequently, it brought up the poverty reduction policies that have formerly been implemented in Thailand, following the roles of the state in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi District aside from the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household' Project.

On account of the great emphasis of the study are the roles of the state in reducing poverty in the Saba Yoi District with a focus on the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household' Project, therefore, the thesis further discussed the project in detail in which covered its purposes, the regional and local administrations that took part in the project's implementation, the project's implementation processes, along with subprojects or subactivities that have been implemented for targeted households in some subdistricts.

Besides, despite the explicit purposes of the project which are mainly to accelerate poverty alleviation among locals by means of generating their supplemental incomes, it can also be associated with a counter-insurgency effort by the state through the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre. The state tried to solve the problem of poverty within

the Deep South region because it was convinced that the acceleration of poverty alleviation could help and influence the problem-solving of the region's main problem i.e., insurgencies, based on the assumption that if people's income is stable, having less economic difficulties, they may not seek for resistance. Nevertheless, based on another assumption, solving people's economic difficulties may not influence the problem-solving of insurgencies within the region if there is still discrimination between people in the Deep South region and the rest of the country through the enforcement of the Martial Law Act and Emergency Decree in the Deep South region. Although Thailand has been trying to make Patani-Malay feel a sense of belonging to Thai society through its assimilationist policies in the past few decades, the enforcement of the Martial Law Act and Emergency Decree in the Deep South region could make some Patani-Malay feel like second-class citizens of the country since the Martial Law enables state authorities, e.g., the military and police officers to abuse or violates human rights of the Patani-Malay, certain actions undertaken by state authorities may be considered as human rights violations if it takes place in other regions of the country, but if it happened to the Patani-Malay in the Deep South region, the state authorities might face less accountability or no accountability at all due to the Martial Law.

In addition, it is also noteworthy that the responsibilities of the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre ranged widely from preventing violence and insurgencies and suppressing every form of terrorism under the supervision of the Commander of Thailand's 4th Army Region to the field of development economics such as its roles in reducing poverty in the region. Therefore, the aims of the state, i.e., the SBPAC, may also include other aspects apart from reducing poverty, such as the purpose of surveillance of people in the region since the project's name is "One Civil Servant One Poor Households Project" in which 1 civil servant at the District Office is responsible for 1 poor targeted household, this would allow the state to closer monitor its citizens in the region through its civil servants.

Another interesting point regarding the role of the state in reducing poverty in the Deep South region is that it focuses only on a small scale like helping individual households generate supplemental income instead of a larger scale like developing basic infrastructures such as good public transportation within the region. In fact, having access

to public transportation, e.g., a bus, is crucial to people's daily lives especially those living in the countryside where it is located tens or almost a hundred kilometers away from the downtown. Besides, developing public transportation within the region could also help to solve other dimensions of poverty, for example, in the health dimension, although every Thai citizen could benefit from universal healthcare coverage from the state, however, traveling to the hospital in the city center is also troublesome for many people since there is no cheap and good public transports available for them. Thereby, providing cheap and good public transport to people in the region could reduce inequality in accessing state universal healthcare. This is similar to education and income dimensions of poverty, public transportation could help students in rural areas to have access to a variety of education systems, and perhaps a better quality of education in the provincial center instead of being limited to a few educational choices available for them in their villages or districts. As for the income dimension, the easier and cheaper people can travel downtown, the more opportunities they can find in order to increase their incomes.

In contrast to Thailand's Deep South region where the state emphasizes small-scale development to reduce poverty, in some other countries, the state emphasizes more on the larger scale of development for example, in China, the state tried to reduce poverty through the development of infrastructure which includes electricity development and road construction for instance (Donaldson, 2007). India is also another example of a state playing a role in reducing poverty through infrastructure developments such as rural electrification and providing cheap and convenient transportation, in Vietnam, likewise, the government invested in roads, education, and agricultural research (Banik and Hansen, 2016).

Ghana is another interesting case of the state's role in reducing poverty since it focused on human resources development fields by providing such as safe drinking water, health, sanitation, and education instead of income-generating fields like in the case of Thailand's Deep South region (Crawford and Abdulai, 2009). In Malaysia, where the ethnic background of the majority of the people is similar to people in the Deep South region, the NGOs together with the state played a crucial role in reducing poverty in Malaysia, in contrast to Thailand's Deep South region where only state institutions played a role in reducing poverty (Hussin et al., 2018).

In New Zealand, one of the state's policies to reduce poverty is through the increasing of minimum wage, whereas in Thailand, the increase of minimum wage varied from province to province, and Thailand's Deep South region is the region with the lowest minimum wage compared to other regions of the country. In fact, in addition to reducing poverty through supporting income-generating activities, the government could also reduce poverty by ways of increasing the minimum wage of people in the Deep South region to be equal to people in other regions of the country since the prices of goods and commodities are similar in the whole country, not changing according to provinces or regions (The Cabinet Office of New Zealand, 2016; Thai Publica, 2024).

5.2. Limitations

There were some limitations during the process of data collection as some information, for example, data about the households that have benefitted from the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household' Project were not centralized at the Saba Yoi District Office, but rather were kept by individual graduate volunteers for homeland development who were part of the subdistrict operation teams in different subdistricts. Accordingly, there were some difficulties in communicating with graduate volunteers for homeland development in every subdistrict, thereby, data about the households that have benefitted from the 'One Civil Servant One Poor Household' Project that was provided in this study was limited.

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