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Purpose of the journal

The ***Journal of Social Policy, Social Change and Development*** is Academic journal of Faculty of Social Administration, Thammasat University Journal are published articles on all dimensions of social policy, social change and development. the academical, phillosophical, theoretical, empirical and methodological intuitive understanging and knowledge building in the social policy, social change and development arena. Also, welcome articles from young researchers, Ph.D scholars, and academicians to submit articles to the journal.

The journal is scheduled to be published Once a year: January - December

Deans Forwarding Message

Dear Esteemed Researchers, Writers, Academicians, and Colleagues,

It is with great pleasure and excitement that we will celebrate a momentous occasion - the 70th Anniversary of the Faculty of Social Administration at Thammasat University. This remarkable milestone not only signifies the enduring commitment to excellence in education and research but also the profound impact our faculty has had on the field of social administration and beyond.

Over the past seven decades, the Faculty of Social Administration has been at the forefront of producing exceptional graduates who have gone on to become leaders, policymakers, and social change agents in various sectors. Our commitment to social justice, equality, and sustainable development has guided us in our pursuit of knowledge and innovation.

As part of our 70th Anniversary celebrations, we are delighted to announce the launch of a significant endeavor, the inaugural issue of the Journal of Social Policy, Social Change, and Development. This new journal aims to provide a platform for rigorous scholarship and cutting-edge research in the areas of social policy, social administration, and development studies. It will serve as a vital resource for academics, practitioners, and policymakers alike, facilitating the exchange of ideas and the dissemination of knowledge to address the complex challenges facing our society today.

The Journal of Social Policy, Social Change, and Development will showcase interdisciplinary research that explores innovative solutions to societal issues, while also promoting critical analysis and evidence-based approaches. We believe that by sharing our collective wisdom and insights, we can contribute to the advancement of social policies and practices that foster inclusive societies, empower marginalized communities, and foster sustainable development.

On this momentous occasion, we extend our heartfelt gratitude to all the faculty members, researchers, students, and staff who have been instrumental in shaping the Faculty of Social Administration's legacy. It is your dedication, hard work, and unwavering commitment to excellence that have enabled us to reach this significant milestone.

We also express our sincere appreciation to our esteemed partners, supporters, and collaborators from academia, government agencies, and civil society organizations. Your unwavering support and collaboration have been invaluable in our collective pursuit of knowledge and social progress.

I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to the editorial team, contributors, and reviewers who have exerted prodigious efforts to materialize this inaugural issue. I am confident that the articles, essays, and commentaries featured herein will ignite insightful dialogues and contribute to our comprehension of the challenges and prospects of social policy, social change, and development.

As we embark on this new chapter with the Journal of Social Policy, Social Change and Development, we invite you all to join us in this journey of exploration, research, and knowledge sharing. Together, let us strive for a more just, equitable, and sustainable world.

Once again, congratulations to the Faculty of Social Administration on its 70th Anniversary and may the Journal of Social Policy, Social Change and Development serve as a beacon of academic excellence and societal transformation for years to come.

Respectfully,

(Associate Professor Dr. Auschala Chalayonnavin)
Dean of the Faculty of Social Administration,
Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

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Some Aspects of Poverty, Deprivation, and Social Exclusion in Australia

Venkat Rao Pulla[1]

Abstract

Conventionally, a universal measurement of poverty is to see how many people pass through those 'poverty lines'- finding the number of people above and those below to conclusively suggest that those who live beneath the unacceptably low-income level are certainly poor. In Australia, the Henderson poverty line, established during the Henderson inquiry into poverty in the 1970s, is still in vogue, though more recently, yet another method of measuring poverty has come into play. This method began by looking at what essential items people are missing out on as a result of lack of sufficient income, for instance, paying more for rented accommodation, electricity, and gas bills as opposed to food. This phenomenon is known as 'deprivation'.

In this paper, I present issues for welfare planning, and problems generated by poverty, deprivation, and social exclusion, tagging them as 'quasi-problems' and the tendency of some of these problems are to be normalized in Australian society. Affected individuals and groups seem to wear 'normalisation' and seem to cope and strive towards resilience in a welfare-deprived environment. It is some of these absurdities that I wish to tease out and explain as I explore the principles of social justice that aim to bring about change in those vulnerable, disadvantaged, or marginalised sections of Australian society. A debate always ensues when people ask this question: Is Australia a land of 'fair go' or a land of 'far between?'

Keywords: Disadvantage, Social exclusion, Poverty, Deprivation, Welfare, Marginalised, Social change

Introduction

The level of well-being and the living standard of people in the community are subjects of a heated and ongoing conversation that is frequently undertaken across the world. The majority of measures undertaken to alleviate poverty reveal different ways people and families living in different locations and under varying circumstances fare and compare with each other in terms of standards and expenditures in their day-to-day lives. These people and families may live under varying conditions. Poverty measurements unquestionably assist in locating those who are currently poor or who may soon fall into that category. At a time when many national economies have avoided the major impacts of a global recession, it is concerning that a large number of Australians continue to experience a variety of social incapacities such as financial difficulty, housing stress, and income inequality. It has been reported that almost one in six Australians of working age is dependent on income support that is offered by the government (Australian Council of Social Service (ACOSS) Report, 2021). This is even though opportunities are available in such a prosperous country. Poverty continues to exist in Australia despite these opportunities.

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Between twenty and thirty percent of the Australian population aged 15 years or older is experiencing marginality or worse levels of exclusion at any given point in time (Scutella, Wilkins, & Kostenko, 2009). It seems, though, that we may still require a better measure of the extent of poverty in Australia. The focus ought to be on measures that capture participation in society or the ability to participate rather than the already established causal relationship between poverty, deprivation, and social exclusion. Thus, the crux of this discussion is to suggest an exploration of a measure of social exclusion that recognises its multidimensionality at the level of the individual. This, I believe, will help understand a measure of social exclusion that captures a total level or levels of deprivation in society that is greater than what pure income poverty is capable of manifesting. As stated in Accoss reports year after year, a nearly a third of Australia experiences poverty. This phenomenon suggests that having paid work does not protect people from poverty. The following theoretical background assists the discussion and will be helpful in understanding the principles of social justice that aim to bring about change in vulnerable, disadvantaged, or marginalised sections of Australian society and in reviewing the question, Is Australia a land of 'fair go' or a land of 'far between?'

Deprivation and exclusion framework

While the unmet needs drive welfare planning to locate or create interventions and/or services. (Kerson, et al. 2012). Welfare policies and social work are guided by humanitarian ethics. A consideration of assisting people in need and mobilizing against social injustices, seems to be the reason for social work's commitment to human rights (Mungai, Pulla, 2015). By the same token, supporting, and empowering the marginalised contributes to building resilience for the community to demand human rights and a dividend in economic growth (Mungai, Pulla, 2015). The social condition and welfare of individuals can best be described by a range of concepts, including poverty, social inclusion and/or exclusion, social capital, disability, capability, well-being, satisfaction, and happiness. These concepts form quasi-welfare problems, with one prompting the possible causation of the other. For instance, 'disability' might lead to diminished 'capability' while 'well-being' is considered a determinant of 'happiness'. Every day, people instinctively find ways to cope with deprivation by adopting various techniques. Nonetheless, this ought not to mask the social condition and welfare of individuals. Often, there is a tendency to see that people living in poverty might have immense reserves of energy and drive to make a decent living for themselves, and their households seldom realise that this might not be possible without the right chances and incentives. The application of the deprivation and exclusion framework to help us gain a better understanding of poverty, as well as the presentation of a more comprehensive measure that enables us to take a more effective approach to addressing or even eliminating poverty in Australia, are the primary focuses of this paper.

Amartya Sen regarded poverty as the 'deprivation of basic capabilities, rather than merely as the lowness of incomes, which is the standard criterion of identification of poverty' (Sen, 1999, p. 87). Certainly, this is not to discard the concept of poverty as the inadequacy of income to provide for means to achieve minimal functioning or basic living. Rather, it is to assert that there is more to poverty than income. Mungai and Pulla (2015) have previously considered the advantages of Sen's concept of Basic Capabilities Index, which identifies poverty not based on income but using indicators like the percentage of children reaching fifth grade, child mortality, and the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (Social Watch, 2007). The basic capabilities index is correlated with social development and allows for comparison between countries or within the same country over time. The advantage of this approach is that the indicators are associated with capabilities that all members of a society should have, and that would also mutually interact towards achieving higher levels of individual and collective development, particularly for the youngest members of the society (Mungai, Pulla, 2015)

Poverty and its measures

Poverty is a persistent problem that poses political and moral challenges in all cultures and at all times. The concept of poverty is easily recognisable, and most people have some level of comprehension of it. Nevertheless, the particular meaning that is attached to it is dependent on the fundamental idea of poverty that we all appear to be thinking about. It is possible to conceptualise poverty in a wide range of different ways, each of which results in a distinct, precise definition of poverty, which in turn transcends into diverse approaches and measurements of poverty. The term "poverty" refers to a fundamental lack of the means to survive; those who are considered to be poor are people who, even under normal circumstances, have trouble providing for their own basic needs, such as feeding and clothing themselves. People in a society can be considered to be living in poverty if they are unable to afford the necessities that the majority of people in that society consider to be a given, or poverty can be an absolute state in which basic requirements are not met (ACOSS, 2011). According to Bradshaw and Finch's (2003) definition, "a categorical need" is a requirement that must be fulfilled in order for human beings to be able to function properly (p. 1).

A definition of this straightforward kind is that it is becoming more and more undesirable in Australia, which has reached higher general standards of living. As a result, poverty is defined in relative terms, and a greater emphasis is placed on societal survival, with values placed on quality of life that even the most impoverished members of the community should ideally be able to enjoy.

The widely used measure of poverty is the poverty line. As stated in the ACOSS report update (2021):

- Poverty is often measured using ‘poverty lines. Poverty lines measure ‘income poverty’; the number of people living below an unacceptably low-income level.
- The Henderson poverty line, established during the Henderson inquiry into poverty in the 1970s, is still often quoted as the poverty line in Australia.” (p.1).

On the other hand, other measures have been utilised, such as, more recently, the poverty line established by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which was established at fifty percent of the median disposable income for all Australian households, as well as the Australian measures generated by the National Centre for Social and Economic Modelling in Australia. Both of these measures were utilised in Australia (NATSEM). There is also something called the half-average income line or the half-median income line that people use. It is a prevalent perception that the level of poverty may be measured by the number of people whose income is lower than the poverty line. This line has, over the course of time, been improved to account for elements such as the number of individuals who are dependent on the income as well as the expenses of housing.

When compared to the 34 countries in the OECD with the highest levels of wealth, Australia has the 15th highest rate of people living in poverty. This rate is greater than the rates in the United Kingdom, Germany, and New Zealand; it is also higher than the average rate for the OECD. People who are living in poverty in Australia frequently do not have access to vital necessities like food and a roof over their heads. (Stone, 2023) Children who are raised in low-income households are more likely to miss out on opportunities like school field trips.

According to the estimates provided by the OECD, the overall poverty rate in Australia now stands at 12.6%. (Compared to the prediction provided by ACOSS for 2019-20, which is 13.4 percent), As a consequence of this, the rate of poverty in Australia is the fifteenth highest of the 38 countries that are included in the OECD. In its capacity as a signatory nation, Australia has demonstrated its commitment to the Sustainable Development Goals established by the United Nations. The first of these ambitions is a slogan that simply states, "No poverty." On the other hand, the statistics from 2022 indicate that there are 3.3 million people in Australia who are living below the poverty line, which is defined as having an income that is less than fifty percent of the median income. This amount accounts

for 761 thousand children (16.6 percent). In terms of cash, the amount that defines the poverty line for a person living alone and without children is $489 per week, while the amount that defines the poverty line for a married couple with two children is $1,027 per week.

The "poverty gap," also known as the difference between the incomes of those living in poverty in different types of families and the poverty line, is an average of $304 per week. This number is referred to as the "poverty gap." This indicates that a significant number of people whose lives have been altered are surviving in conditions of abject destitution.

The constraints imposed by COVID-19 contributed to the fact that the poverty rate reached 14.6% during the March quarter of the year 2020 (Naidoo, et al 2022).

However, in the third quarter of the year 2020, as a result of increased payments for income support, it plummeted to 12 percent, which is the lowest it has been in the previous 17 years.

A total of 646,000 people, or 2.6 percent of the overall population, were able to lift themselves out of poverty as a direct result of the higher benefits.

According to the most recent statistics that are available, the percentage of children who are living in poverty has climbed from 16.2 percent in the third quarter of 2019 to 19 percent.

As a direct result of the additional income support that was provided by COVID-19, the poverty gap eventually decreased to $310 a week in June 2020 from its previous level of $323 a week in March 2020. Prior to this point, the poverty gap had been steadily increasing from $168 a week in 1999 to $323 a week in March 2020 (Naidoo, et al 2022).

Social security benefits for adults who are unemployed and do not get any other sort of income have increased from being $134 below the poverty level to being $146 above it as a result of increases in income support. The difference between their income and the poverty line increased from $119 below the poverty level to $176 over the poverty line for single parents with two children. Couples who did not have any children saw their income rise from $152 below the poverty line to $411 above it, whereas couples who did have two children saw their income rise from $187 below the poverty line to $361 above it. Couples who did not have any children saw their income rise from $411 below the poverty line to $411 above it (Naidoo, et al 2022).

The implication of this is that the number of people living in poverty may simply be inferred from the number of people residing below the poverty line, as this is the measurement that is generally used for poverty lines. This traditional method of determining poverty compares the per-person income of a household to a poverty line that is generated from a nutrition-based estimate of the required minimum income. In 2016, one in six Australian children aged 0-14 years were living in poverty, but many children experienced disadvantage on multiple fronts, lacking the opportunities and family resources to be socially connected and to be able to participate fully in their local communities, according to yet another report on poverty, social exclusion, and disadvantage that was submitted by the National Centre for Social and Economic Modelling (NATSEM) in the year 2018, This report was published in 2018. The degree to which a child suffers from social disadvantage can be measured in a variety of different ways. Child social exclusion highlights the multi-dimensional character of disadvantage suffered by many of Australia's children, expanding the perspective on disadvantage beyond that of child poverty, which is derived only from a household's level of money. (Miranti, et. Al, 2018).

Deprivation and Social Exclusion

Defining poverty in terms of income thus fails to capture the multidimensionality of poverty, as low income becomes one and the same with poverty (Saunders, 2006). This heightens our interest in empirical approaches based on much more broad concepts of disadvantage than narrow income-based measures. One such approach is the social exclusion approach which was recently adopted by the Australian government. An individual is socially excluded if he or she does not participate in key

activities in the society in which he or she lives. (Burchardt, Le Grand and Piachaud, 2002). One of the key advantages of adopting such an approach is that it identifies the multidimensional nature of disadvantage (Scutella, Wilkins, Kostenko, 2013). Although poverty can be narrowed down to the poor state of welfare of people, there are a number of other significant factors that drive poverty, dictate deprivation, and pave the way to social exclusion. Research has established the link that exists between poverty and other welfare problems and allows us to interpret poverty in terms of social exclusion. (Halleröd, & Larsson, 2007; Scutella et al (2009). Scutella et al (2009) also put forward the seven 'life domains' across which poverty and social exclusion can be measured which include material resources, employment, education and skills, health and disability, social, community and personal safety (p.7) in light of this, it would imply that poverty-related issues such as poor health, malnutrition, lack of shelter and other issues that could generate from the seven life domains are in themselves not regarded as poverty but rather as conditions caused by poverty resulting from lack of economic resources, hence making it impossible to acquire the necessary basics of living (Halleröd, et al (2007). The poverty line used to identify who is poor has been criticised for being arbitrary as it doesn't take into account other factors that might contribute to the inadequacy of meeting individual needs.

One more method of determining whether or not a person is poor is to make a list of the essential things that person does not have access to because of a lack of sufficient income or because they are forced to spend a disproportionate amount of their income on certain costs in comparison to other costs (ACOSS, 2011). For example, spending more on accommodation and utilities than food is referred to as "deprivation." One of the most appealing aspects of social exclusion is that it broadens the conventional framework that identifies poverty as a lack of resources relative to demands. This is one of the reasons why social exclusion is one of the most attractive qualities (Saunders, 2013).

Peter Townsend (1979), took a much broader sociological approach to creating an understanding of poverty. According to him, families, and even entire groups of people within a population can be said to be living in poverty if they do not have the financial means to obtain the type of diet, participate in the activities, and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged, or approved, in the societies to which they belong. Poverty is a social construct that can be applied to individuals, families, and even entire groups within a population when people have to make do with far lower resources than required (Townsend, 1979).

Poverty can therefore be viewed as an exclusion resulting from a lack of resources. Hence, poverty defined in terms of exclusion is characterised by not only by a low level of income but also by a high level of deprivation. One of these measures is deprivation, where people are asked whether they can afford items which most people regard as essentials of life (ACCOSS, 2014). Deprivation here is represented by an enforced lack of socially perceived necessities (Sanders et al 2010), The growing concern over the reliability of conventional poverty studies focusing on the need to identify the poor as those actually experiencing hardship necessitated the Social Policy Research Centre to conduct a survey of deprivation across the community, the 'Poverty and Exclusion in Modern Australia' (PEMA) survey. The survey measured the percentage of households who have difficulty in affording items that the majority consider essential. This was a more comprehensive survey of hardship than the financial stress indicators used in the conventional ABS survey. The survey was conducted by asking people whether they have items that a majority of people regard as 'essential', such as 'a decent and secure home', and if not, whether this was because they could not afford it, in a bid to measure people's actual living standards.

In order to give a graphic description of poverty, we will consider 'Average Amanda' a typical Australian mom who has a pile of expenses but who can't make ends meet due to the lack of a modest job. The video was made by the Salvation Army to mark Anti-Poverty Week 2015. This story depicts deprivation in its fullest as Amanda has to gradually sacrifice the basics, including kids' outings and new clothing, in order to afford feeding and shelter. I suggest that this video be watched by the readers, Average Amanda - Anti-Poverty Week 2015 - YouTube.

Australia: A Land of Fair Go' or 'Far Between'?

According to the findings of the 2022 Poverty in Australia Snapshot, there are 3.3 million individuals in Australia (13.4%) living below the poverty line, which is defined as 50 percent of the median income. This number includes 761,000 children (16.6 percent). For a single adult, the cash amount that constitutes the poverty line is $489 per week, while for a couple with two children, the amount that constitutes the poverty line is $1,027 per week. 1.3 billion poor (ACOSS, 2021)

Nonetheless, the Australian public continues to be confronted with extremes of inequality and poverty and with seemingly unending gaps in measuring the extent of poverty, especially among the most affected group in Australian society. The variances between poor and rich in Australia remain in most aspects of essential needs, such as housing health and our ability to survive in a crisis. Scientia Professor Carla Treloar, Director of the UNSW Social Policy Research Centre (SPRC) and the Centre for Social Research in Health (CSRH), believes that the wealth in Australia is distributed very unevenly. That Australia has over 130 billionaires yet in the year 2021, while their wealth grew, on average, by $395 millions, or 12 per cent. This equals the wealth of 2.8 million households in the lowest 30 per cent of the population (UNSW, Media, 2022).

Furthermore, there are inequalities in areas of health and life expectancy owing to in affordability of maintaining the expenses. Aboriginal people can expect to die about 8 to 9 years earlier than non-Aboriginal Australians. On average, Aboriginal males live 71.6 years, 8.6 years less than their non-Aboriginal peers, women live 75.6 years, 7.8 years less. (Korff, 2022). Although people continue to cope with crises– the poorest often have the fewest resources to maintain a crisis situation.

"Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people were more likely to experience poverty than other Australians, with 19.3% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people living below the poverty line, compared with 12.4% of other Australians…" (ACOSS, 2013, p.44 - 46).

Aboriginal people: short life span

Causes for a low life expectancy include, and not limited to poverty and poor health and nutrition – about 80% of the life expectancy difference is due to preventable chronic conditions, such as heart disease, diabetes, chronic lower respiratory diseases, and lung and related cancers. (Korff, 2022). The other related causes are inadequate and poor housing, dispossession of their traditional lands, low education levels, high unemployment, and hidden racism, (Korff, 2022). Clearly the systemic issues require political will, and Australian politicians and administration together do not boldly tackle these issues.

Therefore, the implication in the context of indigenous people is that, poverty is not just caused by individual circumstances but rather by major inequalities, built into the structure of Australian society. Some of the primary causes of these inequalities, and poverty are access to work and income, education, housing, healthcare, and other services.

When discussing the concept of a "fair go" or equal opportunities in relation to poverty in Australia, it is possible that the issue is not solely the responsibility of the government but also of private and public institutions as well as the entirety of Australian society in general. Poverty is detrimental to social relationships as well as to business and the community as a whole. Being poor is not at all profitable for a company. And most significantly, it is detrimental to the people who are going through it: to their sense of self-worth, to their physical well-being, and most critically, to the generations that will come after them. It is essential to recognise that people who come from disadvantaged backgrounds or, who have disabilities, or who have experienced a crisis that has changed their lives for the worse all continue to dream and have a number of common aspirations. These aspirations include the following: to have access to a decent standard of living, to live a "normal life," to have a secured income, to be respected, and to have a sense of belonging in society.

Implications for Social Policy

Poverty, social inclusion and/or exclusion, social capital, disability, capability, well-being, satisfaction, and happiness are some of the concepts that can be used to describe the social condition and welfare of individuals. Other concepts that can be used include social inclusion and/or exclusion. People in everyday life naturally discover ways to live with deprivation by adopting a variety of strategies, despite the fact that poverty has a catastrophic impact on both health and quality of life. Hallerod and Larsson's research (2007), points out that poverty is linked to a wide variety of social issues; hence, preventing people from falling into poverty should presumably be one of the primary goals of social policy. Due to the fact that this outcome occurred, it is rational to consider the conflict against poverty and the conflict against social exclusion as a contest that is mutually inclusive. The issue that needs to be asked is: why is it so vital to act against poverty and to locate those who are poor? Who else besides the poor and the excluded suffers from starvation, lack of shelter, poor health, exclusion from an ordinary lifestyle in society, etc.? If this is the easy response, then who else suffers from these things? If we were to declare that this kind of circumstance is intolerable, then we could look for answers within the realm of social policy.

Conclusions

In the preceding conversation, an effort was made to take a fresh look at a number of the definitions of poverty and determine whether or not they are applicable to the situation that exists in Australia. According to a review of previously published research, the widely used poverty lines as well as the Henderson Poverty line considered income-based poverty measures and took into account fluctuations in the average income level of Australians. This was determined by analysing the results of previous research. An effort was made to define the phrases "deprivation" and "social exclusion," and it was successful. When the implications of poverty, deprivation, and social exclusion in Australia are examined, it becomes clear that there is a pressing need to continue advocating for innovations that promote change on the one hand and clearly articulate social justice for many segments of Australian society on the other.

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The Importance of the Claimsmaking Process in Introducing Social Care in Society: Evidence from Channa Industrial Area, Thailand

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Abstract

The Claims-making process is important to the implementation of social care in that, it lays out the foundation of why such care is needed. This has emerged as a critical challenge for marginalized groups that have less capacity to voice their needs. Many times, their claims are overlooked by the dominant power in their home county, resulting in a depressed quality of life. In search of this challenge, I attempt to fill this gap through a scope review taking theories around the claims- making process into consideration with the evidence from the marginal groups who protested in Bangkok about the construction of the Chana industrial area in 2020. We found that there are three factors that can potentially influence their claims' achievability including with: advocacy, dialogue and negotiations, and moral responsibility. We recommend that to successfully claim for social care, there must be a larger number of members who are directly affected by the problem.

Keywords: Claims making, Advocacy, Social Care

Introduction

The introduction of social care into society is essential for creating a healthier, more supportive, and more balanced community (Buckner et al., 2013; Cornell et al., 2020). In order to make social care a reality, the claims-making process is a crucial step (Clapton et al., 2013; Series & Clements, 2013). This process involves building awareness of the need for social care, connecting stakeholders who can help introduce social care into a community, and setting agendas around the issue. Through this process, individuals or groups of people can make a claim that social care should be made available and present it to decision-makers and the public (Drover & Kerans, 1993). By doing so, they can generate widespread support for the cause by highlighting the potential benefits that social care can bring to everyone (Ochieng, 2011). However, introducing social care into a community is not always straightforward, and the importance of the claims-making process should not be underestimated. Understanding the claims-making process can help ensure that social care is successfully implemented in society.

Claimsmaking has been an important factor in introducing social care into society (Dean, 2010; Drover & Kerans, 1993). Despite the considerable research that has been conducted in this area, a research gap remains (Laenen et al., 2019). In particular, there is a need for research that examines the influences between claimsmaking on social care and economic structure, particularly in relation to capitalism. The current lack of understanding of how claims shape social care implementation and reception has hindered the ability to gain meaningful insight into the effects of societies, especially in regard to capitalist economies. To fill these research gaps, further research are required to explore the relationship between claimsmaking and economic structure, which in turn can provide beneficial insights into how capitalist economies are impacted by social care.

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This study highlights the importance of claimsmaking in introducing social care in capitalist society, with evidence from Chana, Thailand. Located in the south of the country, Chana is a coastal town with a growing Muslim population that relies primarily on fisheries and agriculture. In 2018, the Thai Cabinet approved the Chana Industrial Park project, a large-scale industrial development that included industrial facilities, deep-sea ports, and biomass power plants. Despite this, the local community was not involved in the decision-making process, raising concerns about potential negative impacts on their culture, way of life, and environment.

By analyzing this evidence, this paper demonstrates how claims-making is a key step to developing social care in response to the progress of capitalist society. We employ a qualitative approach, leveraging the contents analysis of the claims-making framework, to analyze how social care can be introduced effectively. Through this analysis, we aim to provide evidence to stakeholders and decision-makers that the social care system being proposed is well-planned, feasible, and sustainable. To do this, we draw on secondary information such as data, facts, and figures to demonstrate the need for services and prove that claims-making will not only benefit the target group, but also the larger community.

Claimsmaking and Social Care Nexus

The claims-making process is considered one of the most crucial aspects of designing a social policy (Béland, 2019). Not only will it designate the vulnerable group the policy is targeting, but it also addresses why people should care if those in power are reluctant to do it for some reason(Ray et al., 2023; Schneider & Ingram, 1993). It is human nature to try and ignore a problem that you perceive as not your own, therefore, claims-making is basically giving reasons why you should care about the problem (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). Claims-Making is extremely important to social care since nowadays nobody cares (Drover & Kerans, 1993).

The claims-making process involves three steps, each with its own set of questions, in order to establish the foundation for a policy. These include: who is the policy targeting, why are they important, and who should handle the problem (Drover & Kerans, 1993). The first step is to compare the current situation to others to emphasize disparity and understand the alternative options that could be implemented with the policy. If this comparison is not made, it can lead to doubts regarding the necessity of the policy or the risks associated with it. For instance, if a young person in primary school asks their parents for the same shoes that their friends have, their parents may decline due to reasons such as “your shoes are still usable”, “do I look like a rich person? Money doesn’t grow on trees”, or “Why does it have to be that brand?” The last question is the most important one to consider.

The claims-making process consists of three steps, each with its own set of questions that will determine the foundation of a policy, such as: who is being targeted? Why are they important? and who should deal with the problem (Drover & Kerans, 1993). The first step is to compare your situation to others. This is done so that disparity is emphasized and we get to see the parallel alternative we could’ve had should this policy be implemented. If this comparison is not made, it could give rise to doubts about whether the policy is needed or not, or if it will be risky or not.

Claims-making process is a concept in the implementation of social policy. It branched out from the social constructivist theory; which argues that a body of knowledge is known only through the acceptance of society. It relies on the acknowledgement of the people in that society to make something a “real” thing. In claimsmaking, that body of knowledge includes the social problems that are confronting people, and the solution that is proposed to solve those problems. And through laying the justification for intervention through claims-making, the social problem becomes “known” to society and accepted as such. This kickstarts the momentum for introducing social care and welfare.

Claims-making process is the right process for seeking better care. For example, if you were a young person in your primary school years and all of your friends had a certain type of shoe, leaving you with your old, uncomfortable, and crumbling-at-the-seams pair, you might be met with resistance if you asked your parents for the same style of shoe. Your parents may cite reasons such as “your shoes are still usable” and “do I look like a rich person? Money doesn’t grow on trees”, or they might simply

wonder "Why should deserve it?". To combat these doubts, you can provide reasons why this particular brand is popular, how it is more beneficial to your health, or that it is your right as a child and school student to have it. It is also important to note who is responsible for such policies, which in this case is likely the government. It is then necessary to ask whether entitlement to the policy comes from being a part of a certain group, or if everyone is entitled to the same policy, such as in the case of the necessity of shoes for health and safety (Banks et al., 2020; Zahariadis, 2019).. Ultimately, it is important to emphasize that everyone deserves to have their basic rights met, regardless of the world's imperfect enforcement of human rights.

The mode of delivery for social care is a critical component of claims-making. Existing research suggests that the way in which social care is provided to recipients is of utmost importance (see Hadley & McGrath, 2021; Mishna et al., 2021; Nyashanu et al., 2020). Not only must the care be provided in a reasonable way, but it must also be decided upon by policymakers. A good example of this process is the ongoing debate surrounding how to address poverty. Some propose giving money, while others suggest it could be used for drugs, and still others argue that public housing is too expensive (Chou & Dancygier, 2021; Moffitt & Ziliak, 2019). Ultimately, social care can only be effective when it is delivered, and it can only be delivered when the decision makers deem it necessary.

Social care policies are often overlooked by the top-down policy on their recipients of support, who may already have a solution to their problem that only requires support (Patrick & Simpson, 2020; Peckham et al., 2022). This tendency is often caused by the false sense of superiority held by policymakers, which is rooted in bias and prejudice (Demirtaş-Madran, 2020; Richardson, 2021; Rosenfeld, 2018). This is especially true in countries where authoritarian leaders have the power to create and implement policies based on their own ideologies (Von Soest, 2015; Von Soest & Grauvogel, 2017). This authoritarian mentality can lead to policies that miss the true underlying causes of the problem. This is seen in many developing countries, where the central government must approve all budgeted projects before they can be implemented; only minor projects can bypass this requirement (Li et al., 2019; O'Connor et al., 2019). This type of governance is indicative of leaders who prioritize their own power and authority over the wellbeing of their constituents.

Theoretical Consideration around the Claimsmaking Process

The growing complexity of our global society has brought about a multitude of challenges for individuals and communities seeking to have their voices heard. As a result, new strategies have emerged for both individuals and groups to have their needs met and their claims heard. Advocacy, dialogues and negotiations, and moral responsibility are then three key elements that have been influencing the claims-making process, which addresses the interests of individuals and groups in various contexts (Liévanos, 2012; Linder, 2001; McCormack, 2020). These three elements, in other words, are processes of collective action used to make and defend claims for rights, justice, and resources.

Advocacy is an important tool for achieving social reform and involves the use of public opinion and legal pressure to influence decision-makers and other stakeholders (Gen & Wright, 2013; Rosewarne et al., 2021). While there is no definitive theoretical framework to analyze the role of advocacy, two key dimensions are generally discussed: power dynamics and forms of participation. By taking a power dynamic-oriented approach to advocacy, it is possible to identify the limitations of certain actors and the areas where they can effectively advocate for reform (Wright et al., 2019; Young, 2009). An example of advocacy in developing countries is the work of grassroots organizations to advocate for improving local livelihoods and quality of life, such as access to healthcare and public participation (Muriu, 2013; Wahid et al., 2017). Through the use of power dynamics, these organizations have been able to identify areas where decision-makers are limited in their ability to advocate for reform and have used this leverage to create meaningful change. In terms of forms of participation, communities can actively engage in advocacy efforts through both formal (e.g., involvement in government hearings, filing of public records requests) and informal (e.g., attending local meetings, mobilizing networks of contacts) strategies (Wulz, 1986). This function can also allow

them to use their existing resources and capabilities to successfully advocate for the causes they deem important (Sanoff, 1999).

When engaging in dialogue and negotiations for social welfare benefits, it is important to understand the political, social, and human elements at play (Appadurai, 2001; J. Boonstra & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 1998; Parton & O'Byrne, 2000). With regards to the political environment, it is essential to understand the history, interests, and strategies of the dominant political group in order to effectively negotiate for social welfare benefits (Petersen, 2015; Somer, 2016). Additionally, one must consider the existing social conditions, such as demographics, economic conditions, and geographical divisions, which can affect the distribution of power within society (Carleton & Hsiang, 2016; O'Neill et al., 2017). It is also important to take into account the needs and desires of all affected by negotiations, including those potentially disadvantaged by the outcome (Butler & Adamowski, 2015; Ostrom et al., 2015). Finally, human nature must be taken into account, with an understanding of both rational and irrational elements of human behavior, as well as consideration of individuals' beliefs, negotiation styles, and the implementation of empathy (McGrath, 2018; Zerilli et al., 2019). Through understanding and accommodating these components, one can effectively craft mutually beneficial solutions for the distribution of social welfare.

In developing countries, dialogue and negotiations for social welfare benefits are illustrated through the negotiation process between the government and civil society groups (Corson et al., 2015; Howell & Pringle, 2019). As civil society groups are often the most affected by limited access to social welfare benefits (Panican & Johansson, 2016), they have a vested interest in negotiating with the government for increased access. As evidence from India shows, civil society groups have been negotiating with the government for greater access to welfare benefits, such as food security and health care (Raju et al., 2021; Saxena, 2018). In this process, the political environment of the country, such as the history and interests of the dominant political group, are taken into consideration. Additionally, existing social conditions such as demographics, economic conditions, and geographical divisions are assessed to understand the power dynamics of society. Furthermore, the goals and desires of all affected by the negotiation process are taken into account, including those that may be disadvantaged by the outcome. Finally, an understanding of human nature, including biases, motivations, and limitations in cognition and understanding, is necessary to craft more effective solutions for the distribution of social welfare.

Lastly, the concept of moral responsibility is an essential factor to consider when evaluating the rights and obligations of marginalized groups with regards to social welfare benefits. Utilitarianism, deontology, and consequentialism all provide different perspectives on the moral implications of making a claim on behalf of a marginalized group. Utilitarianism examines the consequences of a particular action, allowing us to determine whether the benefits outweigh the possible negative outcomes (Raju et al., 2021; Savulescu et al., 2020). Deontology focuses on the intentions, duties, and motives of a moral agent, allowing us to assess the potential influence of a claim on the level of moral duty of those in need (Browning, 2015; Holyoak & Powell, 2016). Lastly, consequentialism takes into account the long-term results of the action taken and how it will bring the most positive outcome for all involved (Altman, 2021; Card & Smith, 2020). In several cases, when considering the claim of a marginalized group for social welfare benefits, one must consider the short-term and long-term implications to ensure that the welfare of those in need is weighed against the overall well-being of society (Bostrom, 2017; Savulescu et al., 2020). Regarding utilitarianism, it can be used to determine whether the benefits outweigh the potential negative consequences, and deontology can be used to assess the moral implications of the claim. Meanwhile, consequentialism can be used to evaluate the long-term effects and potential outcomes of the action taken. This is an important step to gain a better understanding of the moral and ethical considerations that must be taken into account when making claims on behalf of marginalized groups for social welfare benefits.

In conclusion, advocacy, dialogues, negotiations, and moral responsibility are essential components to any successful claims-making process. These elements help to ensure that the interests of individuals and groups are properly represented in any given context. By taking a comprehensive approach to the claims-making process, meaningful solutions can be reached that are acceptable to all parties involved.

Evidence from Chana's Claimsmaking for Social Care

1. Advocacy

Channa people's claims-making process began with the protest by Save the Channa group on December 10th 2020 (Bangkokbiz News, 2021). It began with a few locals from the area waiting on the steps of Songkhla City Hall where Channa district is located. More particularly, a young advocate, Qireeyah Ramanya wrote an open letter on Facebook addressed to then-prime minister Prayuth Chan-o-cha, titled "Letter to Uncle Prayuth" (BBC, 2020). In the letter, she vividly describes the childhood she had and the connection her family and community have to the sea. Though never explicitly written in the letter, it is inferred that through the creation of the industrial estate, the damage to the environment will be catastrophic. She also directly blamed the decisions of the National Council of Peace and Order (NCPO) for setting up community engagement during COVID and Ramadan. What all of this in the letter means is that: One, they are saying that the lives of people in the area will get worse without them being comprehensively consulted with, comparing what is currently the situation with the potential future that might happen.

Two, the hegemonic groups are marginalizing them for their own interests, they are claiming that they deserve to have quality of life as a right, or at least be informed of the changes. And third, since the letter was posted on Facebook, it is clear that the intention is to draw in more people to join the cause. Considering the political context of that time, it can also be argued that the target inference to the wider society is not just the prevention of environmental damage, but to challenge the political power of the hegemonic group, which has ruled with an iron fist since the start of their terms. The protest on December 10th in Bangkok, reflected the intentions of the letter in that, it first made the wider public aware of the problem they are facing and made the community of Chana not just reduced to one person, but made the people who lived there more tangible to the wider society of Thailand.

2. Dialogues and negotiation

The protestors demanded two concessions from the government: first, the suspension of the industrial estate program and second, the Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) report, which, through historical precedent, is only written to give the hegemonic group the justification to go ahead with their plans. And that a study of strategic environmental assessment (SEA) should be used instead. These demands are taken into consideration by the government which appoints Captain Thamanat Prompow to oversee the negotiations between the protestors and the government. The result of which is that cabinet concludes that the initiation of the project goes against the cabinet's policy and is temporarily suspended. This seems like a victory for the protestors, however, this proved to be simply a delaying tactic where the government wait for the momentum for the claim of the Channa people to die down. one year later, on December 6th 2021, the people of Channa came back to protest in Bangkok, citing a lack of progress on the agreement (Bangkokbiz News, 2021).

It was discovered that not only was the project not halted, but plans were drawn up to change the classification of agricultural and conservation land to industrial areas. The EIA report was also still being conducted which breached the terms of the agreement. On the night of December 6th, police arrived to put down the protests, which led to the arrest of participants. Public outrage ensued, which led the government to concede again, leading to the announcement of the SEA report on 2021 (Thairath Online, 2022). To this day, the report is still being conducted, with its result still pending. The villagers have stated that they do not oppose the industrialization of the area, but it should be light industry that takes place, not heavy manufacturing as initially planned.

3. Moral responsibility

After the election of 2019 and the "transition" to democracy, it seemed weird that the government that once held absolute power plans to do something that is so unpopular without said power. The reason behind this is that the areas of the southern provinces are prone to insurgencies as

happened in 2004. This led to many programs being initiated by governments of all political spectrum, to address the issue, the current one being the "Stable, Wealthy, Sustainable Triangle". This encompasses three districts in the province: Narathiwat, Pattani, and Yala. It can be argued that the government has the responsibility of stabilizing the region and preventing separatist movements in line with the constitution. However, if this is so, then it is also the government's responsibility to protect those who are innocent and to preserve their welfare and well-being despite the circumstances and situations around them.

Results and Discussion

1. The Crucial Role of Advocacy in Achieving Social Reform

Chana communities have been more likely to be marginalized for area development. From systemic inequities in access to economic opportunity to frequent occurrences of policy exploitation, they have long been facing numerous disparities that make their fight for social reform all the more challenging. That's why advocating for their rights and wellbeing is of the utmost importance.

The ability to speak out against injustice is fundamental to achieving social reform. Advocacy organizations in the area are working to give a voice to people who may not be able to speak up on their own behalf. Through public protests and educational campaigns, advocacy groups are raising awareness and gaining support for the issues their communities face. In this way, they are likely contributing to a cultural shift and initiating change. The involvement of civil society groups and nonprofits is also crucial when it comes to addressing the disparities that marginal communities face. These organizations can offer resources and aid, such as consulting services and legal support. They also create opportunities for collaboration, connecting those in need with resources, creating a safe environment for discussion, and inspiring individuals to take part in positive action.

Advocating for the rights and wellbeing of minority communities is also a critical element in encouraging others to become active and engaged. However, when others witness chana citizens advocating for change, they are less likely to feel empowered to do the same. This is as a result of the claims proposed by Chana's organizations which are foreseen to impose the country's development plan. This discourages a movement that empowers a broader range of individuals in other parts of the country and, as a result, contributes to depressing more lasting and effective reforms. Due to this, it's important to acknowledge that in many cases, advocacy is not just a call to action, but has to identify the limitations of certain actors and the areas where they can effectively advocate for reform (Wright et al., 2019; Young, 2009). Especially, the organizations' advocacy from formal involvement such as participating in government hearings, filing public records requests, or informal involvement, e.g., attending local meetings, mobilizing networks of contacts strategies must be intensified in order to empower their claims (Wulz, 1986). This function can also allow them to effectively collect their power and capabilities to successfully advocate for the causes they deem important (Sanoff, 1999).

2. The Small Impact of Dialogues and Negotiations

The introduction of mega industrial projects in southern Thailand has exacerbated the vulnerability of Chana citizens, simply because of their social context. Without proper consideration for social welfare, their basic rights are often neglected, and their ability to achieve equitable standards of living is compromised. As a result, members of this community are engaging in dialogue and negotiations with governing authorities in order to acquire the necessary benefits to lead healthy and productive lives.

Although dialogue and negotiation can help those who are unfairly excluded from power systems, the effects of these initiatives on achieving social welfare benefits are often limited due to economic disparities, unequal access to resources, racism, and systemic oppression (Appadurai, 2001; J. Boonstra & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 1998; Parton & O'Byrne, 2000). As a result, progressive social

change initiatives are often hindered, making it difficult for those attempting to make claims for social welfare benefits to succeed (Dean, 2010; Drover & Kerans, 1993). Moreover, lobbying has become a major concern for grassroot organizations, as it gives a certain political group an unfair advantage in the negotiation process (Carleton & Hsiang, 2016; O'Neill et al., 2017). The dominant political groups may use their influence in the lobbying process to secure their own interests, while leaving the local communities/organizations feeling powerless and unheard. This has caused a major breakdown in trust between the two sides, and has made it difficult for the grassroot organization to hold their own in the negotiation process (Butler & Adamowski, 2015; Ostrom et al., 2015). This was obviously seen when they came to protest the project in Bangkok, rather than to protest within the province.

3. Moral Dilemma of Making Claims

At first glance, making a claim on behalf of Chana as a marginalized group seems like a laudable act, but there are some who argue that such actions could be detrimental in the long run to the national economy. By making claims on behalf of a marginalized group, a claimant is essentially advocating for that group to be considered less of a priority than another group in the allocation of resources. This brings up a moral dilemma.

By making a claim on behalf of a marginalized group, Chana's organizations have attempted to bring awareness to the unequal distribution of resources that has been so pervasive throughout history (Linder, 2001; Sanoff, 1999). However, their intentions are more unlikely to support a claim on the level of moral duty of those in need. This might be the effect of the general public's perception of the welfare of those in need being weighed against the overall well-being of society (Bostrom, 2017; Savulescu et al., 2020). On the other hand, some argue that it can perpetuate the notion that certain people are more deserving of resources than others, which could cause a dangerous "othering" of the people claiming on behalf of the marginalized group (Drover & Kerans, 1993).

In the current Chana case, the accuracy and trustworthiness of claims have been called into question due to the presence of asymmetric information. Making unsubstantiated claims can be seen as deceptive and can lead to a decrease in public trust in the source of the claims (Raju et al., 2021; Savulescu et al., 2020). This issue has been demonstrated by the numerous published reports and news stories about Chana that have not been verified for accuracy. As a result, many public interests may be swayed by the dissemination of false information, which can have serious repercussions for the credibility of organizations representing Chana.

Concluding Remark

To conclude, we think that the Chana community's movement did not go as far as it could've had. This may be due to one, two, or combination of deficiencies of all three factors we have laid out. The Advocacy of the Chana community could've been impeded due to neglect by the wider media, causing their awareness campaign to falter. The wider Thai society can also be unsympathetic to the cause in that, they think that national progress should trump some local concerns since the area is known for having separatist movements. Or it could be other external factors in that, many of the local people and the people of the surrounding areas have lobbied for and agreed to the project. This leads to Chana being the outlier and being seen as "troublemakers". All in all, from all the factors that go into claims-making, we think that ones we raised are the most important factors that should be considered in the process of social care implementation.

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The Impacts of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Social Welfare Policies of Norway and Japan: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

The impact of Covid-19 posed major challenges for governments, particularly in terms of welfare policies. This comparative analysis will mainly study the consequence of the pandemic on the social welfare policies of two nations, Norway and Japan, and define the similarities and differences in their policy responses in relation to the governments' interest. The study focuses on a comparative study of the history of welfare state development, welfare provision, welfare financing, and welfare systems by the two countries in response to the pandemic. Data collection is significantly utilized from secondary data, including the review of official documents, news articles, media reports, and academic literature.

The result of the study implies that both countries have made significant efforts to support individuals and businesses affected by the pandemic. Their policy responses differ in terms of scope, implementation, and outcome. Norway's policy response has been characterized by a significant expansion of its welfare state, including the provision of financial assistance to individuals, businesses, and local governments. In contrast, Japan's policy response has been more targeted and focused on supporting specific sectors and vulnerable groups, such as small and medium-sized enterprises and low-income households.

Furthermore, the study highlights the role of institutional factors in shaping policy responses to the pandemic. Norway's strong social democratic tradition and well-established welfare state has enabled it to respond more effectively to the crisis, while Japan's more conservative political culture and fragmented welfare system have hindered its ability to implement comprehensive policy measures.

Overall, the study contributes to our understanding of the impact of the pandemic on social welfare policies and the role of institutional factors in shaping policy responses. It provides insights for policymakers and scholars interested in understanding the challenges and opportunities for social welfare policies in the context of the ongoing pandemic.

Keywords: Welfare provision, Welfare financing, Welfare regime

Introduction

The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic created negative impacts on everyone in society, especially vulnerable groups, It has also had significant socioeconomic impacts. Many shocks, such as poverty, unemployment, food shortage, and health disparity, occurred during and after the pandemic. In recognition of these issues, governments around the world have introduced many measures and social policies to reduce the impacts of COVID-19 and minimize the consequence of the pandemic. The measures and social policies financed by the welfare state have played a significant role in supporting people needing assistance. Many social programs, for instance, have been expanding their budgets and coverage to more people. As a result, some welfare states have moved forward to achieve universal and inclusive welfare coverage, while others aim to target and select welfare coverage. This implies that COVID-19 has pushed many countries to transform their welfare system in relation to the current

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situation. Each state's welfare system might change according to each country's structure, capacity, and development (Alcock, P. & Craig, 2009). Therefore, this paper aims to analyze the differences in the welfare system of different countries, specifically Norway and Japan, before and during the pandemic. A brief history of welfare state development, welfare provision, welfare financing, and welfare regime will be discussed.

A Brief History of Welfare State Development

The study of the history of welfare state development is very important to understand the direction, approach, and structure of the welfare system in each country. The emergence and development of a welfare state in Norway started after second World War II and was associated with the labor party's government. The purposes of the Norwegian welfare state are numerous, but one of its main goals is to ensure employment for everyone, as one of Norway's political aims is to secure job opportunities and settlement throughout the country. In addition to the provision of jobs, the Norwegian welfare system also aims to provide security for the unemployed, the vulnerable, and the elderly and aims to manage the country's economy in an effective and efficient way that is similar to other Nordic countries. The Norwegian welfare state consists of a comprehensive model in which welfare provision is based on universalistic principles. The benefits cover all Norwegian citizens regardless of their social status, working class, or income measurement. Child allowance, for example, is provided to every family irrespective of household income. Having Norwegian citizenship is necessary to be entitled to welfare benefits. Furthermore, the Norwegian welfare state under the control of the labor party expanded its coverage to many different groups. This includes providing a five-day workweek policy for workers in 1960, the 1967s people's pension, the 1990s welfare support for housing, and free university programs (Norwegian Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, 2022).

On the other hand, the welfare system in Japan began to develop in the 1920s under a military government to support public servants and formal employees. The first social insurance, also known as Employee Health Insurance (EHI), was established to secure welfare coverage solely for those who work in the governmental and industrial sectors, such as public workplaces and large firms (Alcock and Craig, 2009). In 1938, the Japanese government started to introduce a new concept of welfare in which the family of the welfare recipient is also protected by the system. Simultaneously, the Japanese welfare state was expanded when the Employees' Pension Insurance (EPI) was formed, ensuring passive income for the retired group. In addition, the family of public servants and employees working in formal industries/sectors are also protected by health and pension schemes, implying that the system was focused on the individual contribution to the labor workforce. The Japanese welfare system was built on Bismarckian social insurance, first adopted in Germany, where the workfare is used to determine the benefits of welfare. Under this system, the more someone contributes to the labor market, the more welfare benefits they are likely to receive. After World War II, the Japanese welfare system adapt universal welfare. In 1947, the Japanese government introduced a new constitution declaring the basic right for people to meet a minimum standard of living and quality of life. This constitution emphasized the obligation of the government to provide security and welfare services to all Japanese citizens. Consequently, many welfare acts and social insurance schemes were created, including the Unemployment Act of 1947, the 1954 EPI reform, the 1959 EHI revision, and the National Pension Insurance (NPI) in 1961 (Alcock and Craig, 2009). By 1961, all Japanese citizens were legally protected by healthcare and pension schemes. Nevertheless, most Japanese welfare programs were primarily focused on economic development or national policy, while welfare policy was secondarily prioritized. This welfare development concept can also be found in other East Asian countries, such as South Korea and Taiwan.

Welfare Provision

Before the COVID-19 Pandemic

International comparative welfare states and social programs have looked to the Norwegian welfare state as a model. Since the middle of the 20th century, numerous social and welfare programs have been developed based on universal principles in order to give all citizens and noncitizens access to high-quality welfare services, encourage the equitable distribution of wealth and accomplish the fundamental aims of a solidaristic and egalitarian society. Social security, social services, and the labor market are the three primary components of the Norwegian welfare system. The system also includes housing aid, healthcare, pensions, and programs that support families. The welfare system in Norway is extensive and provides a wide range of social and welfare services to all citizens living in the country. However, healthcare, pensions, and unemployment benefits are not included in the Norwegian social insurance scheme in social security programs. Instead, it concentrates on giving families, kids, individuals with disabilities, the elderly, and young people financial assistance and housing benefits. This contrasts Norwegian social insurance from social insurance in other welfare nations, as it does not cover health, pension, unemployment, and accidents and injuries at work. In Norway, labor market policies were put into place which reduced unemployment and promoted sustained economic growth (Kuhnle, S. & Hort, E., S, 2004).

Similarly, social insurance, social assistance, and the labor market are the three main programs that form the Japanese welfare system. It has a comprehensive, mandatory, and contributory social insurance system. All citizens are required to enroll in social insurance programs and schemes, including public servants, private sector employees, and self-employed individuals (Alcock and Craig, 2009; Komatsubara, 2012). However, employment status continues to play a significant role in Japanese social insurance policies. Most programs, with the exception of health, pension, and employment insurance, were developed for public servants and company employees. Only salaried workers, such as public servants and company workers, were eligible for employee health and pension insurance and employment programs. The self-employed were not eligible for such programs but were eligible for unemployment benefitsand national health and pension insurance provided by the government. As a result, there are gaps and disparities in the number of benefits and provisions. Furthermore, social welfare bureaucrats and administrators closely examine and evaluate income and assets as part of conditional means-testing in Japanese social assistance programs. People must pass the means-testing to get social assistance benefits. Programs for the labor market were put in place to deal with demographic changes brought on by the aging of the population, which impacts the labor market as well as the stability and expansion of the economy (MoF, 2017).

Norwegian Welfare Benefits

Social Security	Social Services	Labor Market
• Social assistance (Means-tested) • Health Insurance • Employment Insurance • Financial grants: - Family and children - Disability - The Elderly - Housing benefits for people with vulnerability	• Healthcare for children and the elderly • Disability care • Free education, transportation, and lunch (7 to 16 years old) • Psychiatry care and service • Youth psychanalysis • Family psychanalysis	• Unemployment insurance • Funds to start a business • Labor market training • Vocational training benefits for the labor market, job-seeking, and rehabilitation • Support for youth placement

The table shows the three welfare benefits included in the Norwegian welfare system

(Source: Alcock and Craig, 2019)

Japanese Welfare Benefits

Social insurance (Mandatory and contribution)	**Social assistance** (Means-tested)	**Labor Market**
• Health insurance (workers' health insurance and national health insurance) • Pension insurance (workers' pension insurance and national pension insurance) • Employment Coverage • Employees' accident compensation coverage • Long-term care benefits	• Financial assistance for poor families • Social facilities and assistance to vulnerable groups (the elderly, children, disabled, and single-mother households)	• Unemployment benefits • Monthly allowance for the elderly • Employment program for people with disability • Job-training program for single mothers • Funding program for employment • Assistance's development and training (public vocational training) for all the workers

The table shows the three welfare benefits included the Japanese welfare system
(Source: Komatsubara, 2018)

During and After the COVID-19 pandemic

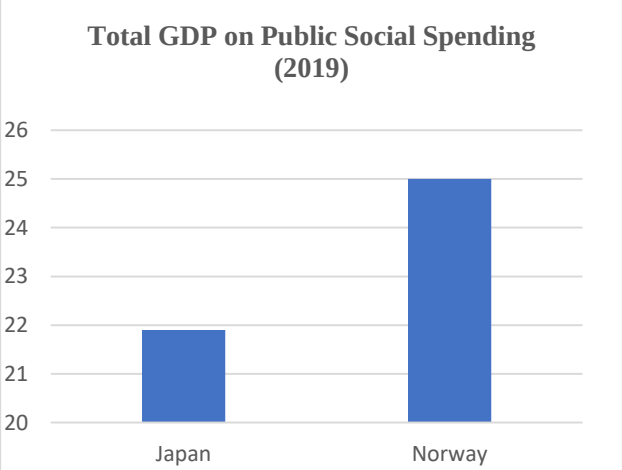
Like its neighboring Nordic countries affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, Norway made changes to its existing welfare system to assist people in need, secure jobs, lessen the financial burden on firms and enterprises, and maintain economic stability. In recognition of COVID-19 impacts on the labor market, Norway implemented a short-term layoff plan that allows employees to reduce work hours by up to 60%. At the same time, employees can still receive 90% of their monthly salary, with the remaining 75% of their salary funded by the government. (Greve et al., 2020). The budget for the government's public unemployment program was also increased to support essential skill development initiatives to improve employee workplace adaptability and flexibility throughout the pandemic. This illustrates that the short-term layoff program provided by the government not only protects against wage losses for workers but also helps them to develop their skills during the pandemic. The government also created a crisis package that included tax breaks, loan guarantees, rent subsidies, and temporary social security payment reductions for small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs). This was done in an effort to protect small businesses' capacity, allowing them to continue their businesses while also lowering unemployment rates resulting from the lockdown, and bringing the Norwegian economy back to pre-pandemic levels. The government and involved ministries also increased social transfer benefits for infected and uninfected people as a type of sick pay insurance. Beneficiaries were no longer required to have a formal medical certification in order to be eligible. Patients who were in hospitals and those who posed a significant risk of infection were automatically eligible for sick pay transfers. In addition, the government of Norway extended parental insurance to give monetary support to parents whose children were at home when schools were closed during the outbreak. 80 percent of wages were given to parents (Greve et al., 2020). Simultaneously, the government loosened the requirements for receiving unemployment benefits to twelve months of full-time work. This meant that for the first 300 days of employment, all employees, regardless of status, can get 80% of their earnings. Therefore, these initiatives and responses by the Norwegian government to the pandemic improved access to social insurance and labor market programs and boosted benefits from the existing programs. This proved that recent policy reforms intended to safeguard economic expansion and boost the welfare system were aligned with Norwegian social policies and labor market initiatives (the Nordic Co-operation, 2022).

Similarly, a fiscal stimulus program was also introduced in Japan, giving each citizen a one-time cash payment of 100,000 yen to help them during the pandemic. The Japanese government also started subsidy programs for small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) and self-owned business whose revenues fell by 50% from the same month of the previous year because of the COVID-19 pandemic (Suppasri et al., 2021). For instance, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) would get

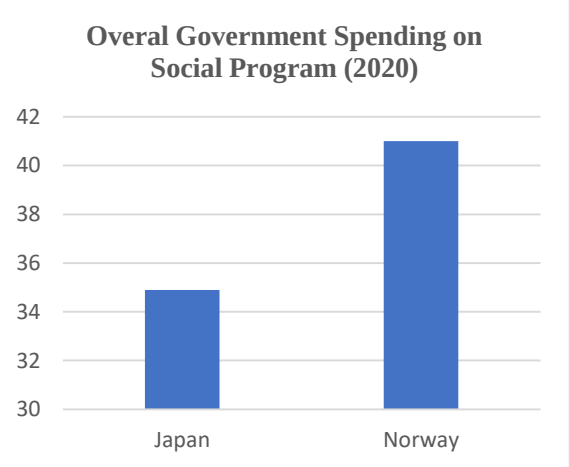
two million yen (USD 19,200) through this subsidy program, while each self-employed business owner would receive one million yen (USD 9,600). This program was subject to strict conditional means testing, which included application screening procedures and supporting documentation. Additionally, the government offered funding support and allowances to non-regular employees and workers for SMEs. 80 percent of their daily earnings, or 11,000 yen, were paid to employees who took voluntary leave because of government measures to combat the pandemic (Soon et al., 2021). Additional childcare allowance subsidies were also given. Families with children, for example, received an additional stipend of USD 96.18 for each child. Regarding social insurance, namely the national health insurance program, insurance payments were given to self-employed individuals whose annual income decreased by at least 30% from the previous year (Mainichi Japan, 2021). In response to the pandemic's rise in homelessness, the Japanese government and the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare also took supplementary action to help low-income families with housing needs This included reducing rent fees, waiving fees, and providing temporary accommodation for up to nine months. By the end of 2020, more than 125,874 households had received one or more housing support benefits (Mainichi Japan, 2021).

Welfare Financing

Financing resource is a critical component for increasing the scope and quality of the welfare system and social protection programs. There are a variety of ways that governments can fund social programs, including through taxes and social contributions. Norway and Japan generated different levels of funding for welfare programs and services: In 2019, Japan spent 21.9 percent of its total GDP on public social spending, compared to Norway's 25 percent of its total GDP (European Commission, 2020). In terms of government spending, Norway allocated roughly 41% (OECD, 2020) of its overall government budget for social programs and services, compared to 34.9 percent for Japan (M0F, 2020). Although both Norway and Japan experienced economic growth contractions resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic, the amount of welfare spending tended to increase significantly.



Source: European Commission, 2020



Source: OECD, 2020

Generally, the welfare states of Norway and Japan are funded by taxes and contributions from the workforce. The majority of Norway's welfare services are paid for by income tax in the form of employer and employee payments, albeit these two groups do not contribute equally. Employers contributed 31.42 percent, and employees contributed 7% of their income to the social security system in 2020. (OECD, 2021b). Self-employed people paid 28.97% of their earnings. As was already indicated, SMEs temporarily reduced or postponed their social security contributions in order to maintain economic activity throughout the pandemic. Due to the need for greater funding for the system and the absence of social contributions from SMEs, the public finance deficit would increase. . Japan, in contrast, finances social security programs, particularly social insurance, through social contributions from both employees and employers. Employees must contribute between 14.35 and 15.69 percent of

their income, while employers or businesses contribute between 14.68 and 16.63 percent (Burgess, 2020). Self-employed people, as was already noted, are not covered by social insurance, with the exception of national pension and health insurance. However, they still had to pay income tax, which ranges from 5 to 45 percent, depending on the taxable income bracket.

Welfare Financing

	Norway	**Japan**
Income Tax	High	Moderate
Social Contribution	Low	High

Welfare Regimes

With a high level of state intervention, Norway is categorized in Esping-welfare Andersen's typology as a social democratic welfare, or a Scandinavian welfare model. The public sector finances and manages the majority of welfare programs using a decentralized system that distributes responsibility from the federal government to local governments and country councils. The level of decommodification from public funding and provision is high in Norway. However, since the 1990s, the private sector has also offered social services in the fields of education, health, and disability care, while the voluntary sector has worked with municipalities to organize, deliver, and evaluate welfare services (Chenu et al., 2015). The Norwegian welfare system is based on universalist and social rights ideas, offering cash benefits and welfare services to all citizens in order to foster a peaceful, cooperative, and egalitarian society (People's Home). As a result, there is low social stratification and low-class inequality. Additionally, because welfare services are provided by the state, families with vulnerable members—such as the elderly, kids, and women—can receive welfare support without relying on the head of their family or breadwinners for sole support. In addition, over the past decades, female employment in Norway has grown steadily in the labor market. This has a significant defamiliarization effect, leading to a high level of defamiliarization (low familialism/familism).

Esping-welfare Andersen's typology, nevertheless, does not categorize Japan under any specific welfare system. s. However, in the late 1990s and early 2000s, researchers and academics viewed it as an East Asian welfare model (EAWM), or productive welfare system (Shizume et al., 2020). Welfare programs, especially social insurance, were primarily designed for workers in public sectors, businesses, or industries, with benefit amounts based on occupational groups. This is because the government placed a strong emphasis on economic growth (Alcock and Craig, 2009). This causes a cross-status disparity and moderate to high levels of social stratification. Additionally, the primary suppliers of welfare services and care in Japanese society are markets and families. Despite the fact that substantial familial obligations to give welfare were eliminated by post-World War II constitutional change, families are nonetheless legally obligated to care for and assist members who are unable to obtain the basic needs in society (Peng, 2000). This shows that the Japanese welfare system values a strong familialism in providing welfare support. Furthermore, the government encourages private funding and sources for welfare services, especially in social insurance programs, leading to a moderate to a high degree of services that are delivered by the private sector. Instead of acting as a distributor, the state or government functions as a regulator, mainly offering minimal benefits to people who are not eligible for social insurance programs. This results in modest to moderate state intervention in the welfare system in Japan.

Welfare Typology

	Norway	Japan
Welfare Region	Social democratic	Productive/East Asian
State Intervention	High	Low to moderate
Decommodification	High	Moderate to high
Social Stratification	Low	Moderate to high
Defamiliarization	High	Low

Conclusion

In conclusion, there were both similarities and contrasts found in this comparative analysis of the COVID-19 pandemic's effects on the social provision in Norway and Japan. By implementing various stimulus plans and strengthening social security, both nations tried to safeguard individual livelihood and lessen the effects on the economy. Despite general differences in the historical development of the welfare state and welfare regime, both countries implemented extensive (value judgement) programs and stimulus packages in reaction to the pandemic. Despite the fact that social security and welfare spending in these two countries are at different levels, both Norway and Japan have consistently increased spending for these programs. Throughout the pre-pandemic and pandemic periods, both welfare states had issues that necessitated ongoing assessment and analysis. Both countries currently face significant financial deficits in their welfare systems as a result of the pandemic. Future welfare policies in these two welfare states will also emphasize the labor market as a key priority, employing work- and economy-oriented strategies.

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Multidimensional Poverty and Social Protection Policies in ASEAN Member States: A Comparative Study

Mahesh Chougule[1]

Abstract

The present paper is a review-based research paper. The research article examines recent studies on multidimensional poverty in Southeast Asian countries. The paper analyzes and focuses on the conceptualization and measurement of multidimensional poverty, as well as the determinants and consequences of poverty in the ASEAN region. This paper is an attempt to study the present social protection programms for the eradication of poverty implemented in ASEAN member state countries. The study has revealed that poverty in Southeast Asia is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, with both rural and urban areas facing significant challenges. The researcher has used a literature review-based method wherein articles published in Scopus database are used and classified based on the keywords, content, and context of the study. The present research article involves the recent studies on poverty and social protection programms in ASEAN member states. The ASEAN member states (AMS) have formulated various policies for addressing multidimensional poverty. The well-known and effective programms for social protection and poverty alleviation programms are classified according to their criteria and area of impact in a table. This review finds that the poverty alleviation programms focus mostly on social insurance and social security in ASEAN member states and that there are very few or hardly any programms especially focusing on poverty and the ten indicators of poverty suggested by the Alkheri method of multidimensional poverty. The paper concludes by identifying key gaps in current research, implementing policies, and highlighting areas for future research.

Keywords: Multidimensional poverty, Social protection programms, ASEAN member states, Poverty eradication.

Introduction

Poverty remains a major challenge in Southeast Asia, despite significant economic growth and development in recent decades. While poverty rates have declined overall, there remain significant disparities between and within countries in the region. Moreover, poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that extends beyond income, encompassing factors such as health, education, and social exclusion. As such, a comprehensive understanding of poverty in Southeast Asia requires a multidimensional approach. This paper contributes to the longstanding literature on multidimensional poverty in Southeast Asian countries, focusing on the conceptualization and measurement of poverty, as well as its determinants and consequences and its correlation with social protection programmes implemented in AMS. The present paper analyzes the multidimensional poverty and social protection programmes implemented in AMS.

ASEAN Member States

According to ASEAN Development Outlook (2021) ASEAN, or the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, is a regional intergovernmental organization consisting of ten-member states in Southeast Asia. The member states include Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. ASEAN was founded on 8th August 1967,

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with the signing of the Bangkok Declaration by Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Brunei Darussalam joined in 1984, Vietnam in 1995, Laos and Myanmar in 1997 and Cambodia in 1999. The objective of ASEAN is to promote economic growth, social progress, cultural development, and regional peace and stability. ASEAN also aims to promote cooperation and collaboration between its member states in various fields, including trade, investment, technology, education, and tourism. ASEAN has become an important player in the global economy, with a combined GDP of over US$3 trillion, making it the sixth-largest economy in the world. It has also established strong ties with other countries and regions, including China, Japan, South Korea, India, and the European Union.

Understanding Multidimensional Poverty

Poverty has probably always been characterized as a multidimensional problem, but nationally it has been calculated only through the income dimension, as income was considered the source of consumption and expenditure. The understanding was that income level could enhance the capacities of people to attain minimum levels of basic needs like food, clothing, and shelter. But it was always debated and there was an understanding and agreement regarding the insufficiency of income poverty measures and indicators (Sen, (1992). Poverty itself is a complex term as poverty can be understood by different dimensions and indicators. The question of who is poor and what constitutes poverty in a society always remained a debate among researchers. For Sen (1976), in a unidirectional income pace the poverty line is determined by the income necessary to buy basic needs like goods and services, which can differentiate groups into poor and non-poor. Thus, income was considered the only dimension of poverty. However, this is incomplete. In a multidimensional poverty framework, the identification of the poor is more complex.

Poverty can also be time-dependent, it can be temporary, acute, short-term, or persistent and chronic in nature. It is a long-lasting risk for those who are above the poverty line, and it can be a trap for those who live in it permanently. Lack of different amenities can result in poverty. It may be the result of inadequate income, or unfulfilled basic needs such as healthcare, education, and or housing. But poverty is also subjective in nature and includes feelings of deprivation, vulnerability, exclusion, shame, pain, and other forms of ill-being. Nonetheless, poverty is a result of a lack of means, capabilities, freedom, and options for a better future (Gonner et al.2007).

The Alkire method of Multidimensional poverty (also known as MPI Multidimensional Poverty Index) is a measure of poverty that considers multiple deprivations experienced by individuals or households. It was developed by Sabina Alkire and James Foster in 2010 and has since been used by governments and organizations around the world to identify and address multidimensional poverty. The Alkire method uses 10 indicators to measure poverty across three dimensions: health, education, and living standards. The indicators are chosen based on their relevance to poverty in a particular context and may include factors such as access to clean water, education level, school attendance, child mortality, nutrition, cooking fuel, sanitation, water, electricity, floor, and ownership of assets. Each indicator is given equal weight within its dimension and the dimensions are also given equal weight to calculate the MPI. Households are first identified as deprived or non-deprived in each indicator. A household is considered deprived in an indicator if they do not meet a predetermined threshold for that indicator (for example, if they do not have access to clean water). Once deprivation has been identified for all indicators, a household is considered multidimensionally poor if they are deprived in at least one-third of the indicators within each dimension (i.e., at least one health indicator, one education indicator, and one living standards indicator). The MPI can be used to track changes in poverty over time, and to identify the most deprived regions or populations within a country. It is also useful for targeting interventions to address specific deprivations experienced by poor households (Alkire, S., & Foster, J. 2011). This approach recognizes that poverty is not just about income, but also encompasses factors such as health, education, and social exclusion. Several frameworks have been proposed to conceptualize multidimensional poverty in the region. These include the Alkire-Foster method, the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), and the United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) Human Development Index (HDI). These frameworks use a range of indicators to capture different dimensions of poverty, such as nutrition, education, and access to basic services. The present study

focuses on the Alkire-Foster method's three dimensions and ten indicators and the social protection programms implemented for the eradication of poverty in AMS.

Understanding the theoretical framework of Social Protection

Social protection refers to a set of policies and programs designed to protect individuals and households from the economic risks and shocks associated with poverty, unemployment, illness, disability, old age, and other social contingencies. There are several theories that underpin social protection, each with its own set of assumptions, principles, and objectives. In this response, the research paper outlines four major social protection theories and provides references for further study. According to Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, (2004), the risk management theory views social protection as a mechanism for managing the risks and uncertainties that individuals and households face in their daily lives. According to this perspective, social protection should aim to mitigate the impact of shocks and help people cope with vulnerabilities. Risk management theory emphasizes the importance of providing social protection to vulnerable groups, such as children, the elderly, and people with disabilities who are most vulnerable to experiencing adverse events. Similarly, the human capital theory argues that social protection can help individuals and households to invest in their own human capital, such as education, health, and training, which can lead to increased productivity and improved well-being. According to this perspective, social protection should be designed to promote human capital development by providing access to quality education, health care, and training, as well as income support to help individuals invest in their own skills and capabilities (Hoddinott et al., 2012). Nonetheless, the human capital theory holds that social protection is shaped by political and economic factors, including the distribution of power and resources in society. According to this perspective, social protection policies are influenced by the interests and preferences of different actors, including governments, donors, and civil society organizations, as well as broader economic trends and global governance structures. The political economy theory emphasizes the need to analyze the political and economic context in which social protection policies are developed and implemented, to understand the drivers of policy change and the implications for different stakeholders (Roelen et al., 2014).

Methodology

Research Scope

The fundamental goal of this research paper is to review multidimensional poverty and social protection programmes in ASEAN member states. For this study a narrative review was constructed that focuses on multidimensional poverty and the social protection programmes formulated by AMS. The present article is a Literature Review-Based Study on Multidimensional Poverty and Social Protection Policies in the ASEAN Member States: with Research Questions such as: "What is the current state of research on multidimensional poverty and social protection policies in ASEAN member states?"

Data collection procedure

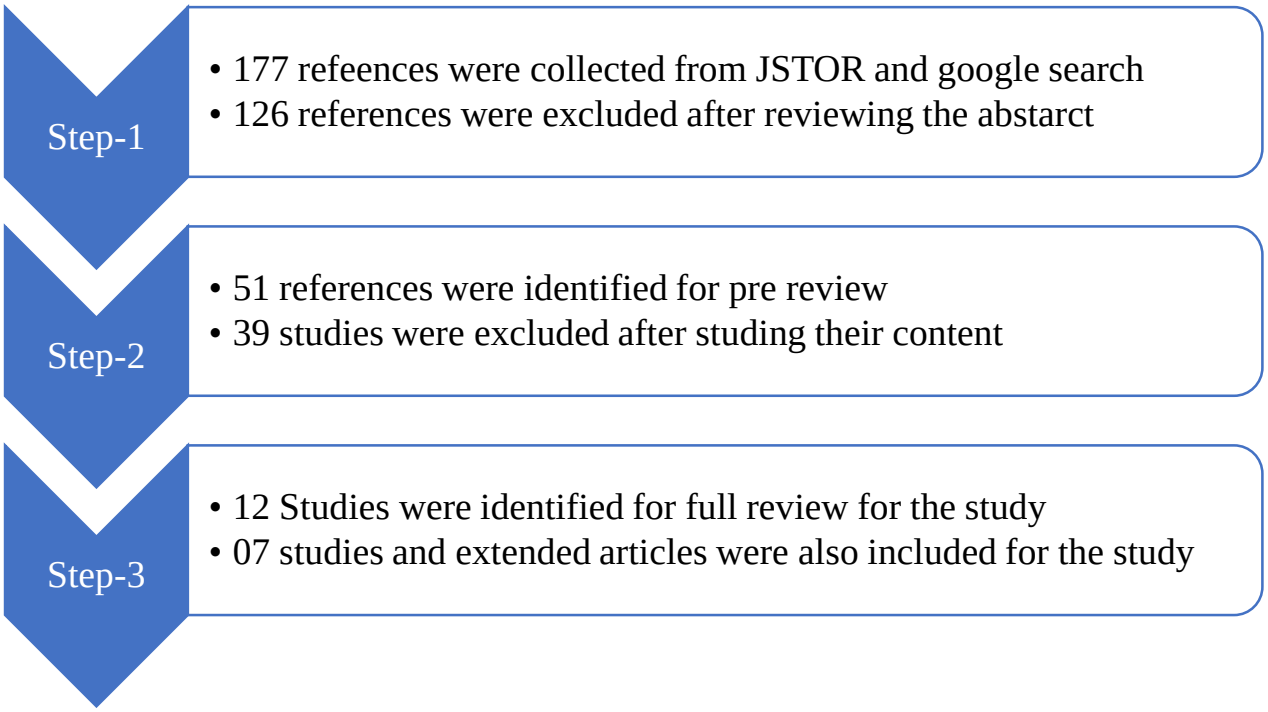
1. Step 1 Identifying research areas of interest h: in this step the researcher identified the research articles that were published in relation to the research question. The research articles were then studied and analyzed for key words like multidimensional poverty, ASEAN members states and multidimensional poverty, policy, and programmes on poverty. The contents of the abstracts were considered for the selection process.
2. Step 2 Narrowing dawn the research articles to the scope of the research topic: after identifying different articles and research studies r according to the thematic area and research question, the content was narrowed down to those articles highlighting the programmes and policies for poverty in ASEAM member states.
3. Step 3 Extracting the relevant studies: In this step the selected references from step 2 were again reviewed to see whether the study included thematic areas of multidimensional poverty or social protection programmes in ASEAN member states. Many articles were not published within the timeframe of 2010 to 2023.

Table 1 Data Collection Criteria and Process used

Step-1 Finding the scope for research through major thematic keywords	**Step-2** Narrowing dawn research studies to the scope of research	**Step-3** Extracting the relevant studies
Multidimensional poverty, social protection programmes, ASEAN member states	Multidimensional Poverty in ASEAN member states	Searched for benchmark studies and already published studies, with suitable studies were selected for further analysis.
	Social Protection programmes focusing on multidimensional poverty in ASEAN member states	

Source: Table generated by researcher.

Table 2 Process of identifying and selecting the study references



Literature Review Strategy

A comprehensive search strategy has been used to identify relevant literature on multidimensional poverty and social protection policies in ASEAN member states. The search has involved JSTOR databases. The search terms have included keywords related to multidimensional poverty, social protection policies, ASEAN member states. The researcher found 177 search results for Multidimensional Poverty in ASEAN member states.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria for selecting the literature have followed: peer-reviewed articles, published between 2010 and 2023, written in the English language, and focused on multidimensional poverty and social protection policies in ASEAN member states. The exclusion criteria were literature that does not meet the inclusion criteria was deleted.

The researcher classified the articles according to their sources shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Sources and numbers of studies

Sr.No	Sources	No of studies
1	Academic Journals	122
2	Book chapters	15
3	Research reports	26
4	Serials	11
5	Documents	03
	Total	177

Synthesis of Findings

The findings of the literature review have been synthesized into a coherent narrative. The synthesis has involved identifying common themes and patterns in literature and presenting them in a structured and organized manner.

Table 4 Summary of selected references

Research areas	Identified references	Additional references
Multidimensional Poverty	Alkire,S., & foster,J.(2011), Alkire, S., & Foster, J. E. (201la), United Nationals Development Programme.(2019), Summer,A.,& Mallett,R.(2019), ASEAN Development Outlook (2021),	Sen, A. K. (1992), Sen, A. K. (1976), Gönner, C., Haug, M., Cahyat, A., Wollenberg, E., de Jong, W., Limberg, G., Cronkleton, P., Moeliono, M., & Becker, M. (2007), Alkire, S., & Foster, J. (2011).
Social Protection Programmes	World Bank (2020), Hoddinott, J., Maluccio, J. A., Behrman, J. R., Flores, R., Martorell, R., & Quisumbing, A. R. (2012), Roelen, K., Devereux, S., & Abdoulayi, D. (2014), ASEAN. (2014), ASEAN Secretariat's Statistical Yearbook 2020, Asian Development Bank. (2020), World Bank. (2021), World Bank. (2021). Malaysia, World Bank. (2021). Indonesia	Devereux, S., & Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2004), ASEAN. (2014).
Total	13	06

Limitations

The limitations of the literature review have been discussed. These limitations include the quality of the literature, the scope of the search, and potential biases in the data collection and analysis.

Social Protection GDP expenditure in ASEAN

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) defines social protection as a set of public and private policies and programs aimed at preventing, reducing, and eliminating poverty and vulnerability, promoting social justice and equity, and ensuring that all individuals and communities have access to basic services, including health care, education, housing, and social assistance. ASEAN

social protection includes a range of programs and initiatives such as cash transfers, social insurance schemes, labor market interventions, and social welfare services. These programs are designed to address different forms of risks and vulnerabilities, such as unemployment, disability, old age, illness, and natural disasters. In ASEAN Framework on Social Protection, which was adopted in 2014, provides guidance and principles for member states to develop and implement effective and inclusive social protection systems. It emphasizes the importance of a comprehensive and coordinated approach to social protection that considers the needs and priorities of different population groups, including women, children, older persons, and persons with disabilities (ASEAN framework on social protection, 2014).

According to the ASEAN Secretariat's Statistical Yearbook (2020), social protection policies and programs focus on reducing poverty and vulnerability by aiding individuals and households in areas such as healthcare, education, housing, and income support.

Table 5 Country, GDP Expenditure and GINI Coefficient

Country	GDP Expenditure on Social Protection	GINI coefficient
Brunei	0.6	n.a.
Cambodia	1.2	0.290 (2017)
Indonesia	1.3	0.393 (2017)
Lao PDR	2.3	0.362 (2013)
Malaysia	1.1	0.399 (2016)
Myanmar	0.5	0.300 (2017)
Philippines	1.8	0.444 (2015)
Singapore	2.5	0.458 (2018)
Thailand	1.4	0.453 (2017)
Vietnam	2.4	0.424 (2018)

Source: (The author has developed the table using the data from ASEAN Secretariat's Statistical Yearbook 2020)

From the table, we can see that the ASEAN member states vary significantly in their GDP expenditure on social protection. The country with the highest GDP expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP is Singapore, at 2.5%, followed by Vietnam at 2.4%. On the other hand, Brunei and Myanmar have the lowest GDP expenditure on social protection, at 0.6% and 0.5%, respectively. Similarly, it can be revealed from the table that Singapore has the highest income inequality, and it spends 2.5% of its GDP on social protection. Thailand has the second highest inequality, with a GINI value of 0.453, and utilizes 1.4 % of its GDP on social protection. However, the Philippines is third among ASEAN member states in income inequality with a GINI value of 0.444 and a significantly less social protection spending, utilizing just 1.8% of total GDP. Thus, it can be concluded from the table that ASEAN member states need to work on eradicating income inequality and building up more robust, efficient, and effective social protection policies with a higher percentage of investment in their GDP. It is also important to note that these figures represent only a portion of the overall social protection spending in each country, as some programs may be funded through other sources such as donor aid or private sector contributions. Additionally, the effectiveness of social protection programs depends not only on the level of funding but also on the design and program efficiency.

Social Protection Programs in ASEAN Member States

Brunei Darussalam, officially known as the Nation of Brunei, the Abode of Peace, is a small country located on the island of Borneo in Southeast Asia. The government of Brunei has implemented various social protection policies to support its citizens and residents. Below are some of the key social protection policies of Brunei.

1. National Old Age Pension Scheme: This program provides financial assistance to Bruneian citizens aged 60 and above who have little or no income. The amount of the pension is based on the number of years the applicant has been contributing to the scheme.
2. Disability Allowance Scheme: This program provides financial assistance to Bruneian citizens who are permanently disabled and are unable to work. The amount of the allowance is based on the severity of the disability and the applicant's income.
3. Public Assistance Scheme: This program provides financial assistance to Bruneian citizens who are facing economic hardship and have no other means of support. The amount of assistance is based on the applicant's income and expenses.
4. Public Assistance Scheme: This program provides financial assistance to Bruneian citizens who require medical treatment but cannot afford the cost. The amount of the assistance is based on the cost of the treatment and the applicant's income.
5. National Healthcare System: Brunei has a national healthcare system that provides free healthcare services to its citizens and residents. The government has invested heavily in healthcare infrastructure, including hospitals and clinics, and has also implemented health education and promotion programs to improve the health outcomes of its people.
6. Schooling Assistance Scheme: This program provides financial assistance to Bruneian citizens who need financial support to cover the costs of their children's education. The amount of assistance is based on the applicant's income and the number of children in school.
7. Child Allowance: Brunei provides a child allowance to families with children under the age of 15. The allowance is intended to help families meet the basic needs of their children, such as food, clothing, and education.
8. Unemployment Benefit: Brunei provides unemployment benefits to citizens and permanent residents who have lost their jobs and are unable to find new employment. The benefit is intended to provide financial support to people who are temporarily unemployed and help them meet their basic needs.

Social Protection Policies Cambodia

According to Asian Development Bank (2020), Cambodia has implemented several social protection policies to address the country's high poverty rates and income inequalities. Below are some examples of social protection policies.

1. ID Poor: This is a national program that identifies households living in poverty and provides them with cash transfers and other forms of support. The program uses a targeting system based on a poverty scorecard to identify eligible households.
2. Health Equity Fund (HEF): The HEF provides free healthcare services to poor and vulnerable people who cannot afford to pay for healthcare. The program covers the cost of medical treatment, transportation, and other related expenses.
3. Social Pension: The Social Pension program provides a monthly pension to elderly people who are 70 years or older and do not have any means of support. The pension is intended to help them meet their basic needs and improve their standard of living.
4. Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT): The CCT program provides cash transfers to poor households with children who attend school regularly and receive basic healthcare services. The program is designed to encourage families to invest in their children's education and health.
5. Public Works: The Public Works program provides temporary employment opportunities to poor households. The program aims to provide income support and improve access to basic infrastructure, such as roads and irrigation systems.

Social Protection Policies Indonesia

Indonesia has implemented several social protection policies to address various social issues, including poverty, healthcare, education, and social security (world bank 2022). Some of the key social protection policies in Indonesia Include

1. Healthcare: services for all Indonesian citizens. It is a mandatory program that covers basic health services, including medical consultations, hospitalization, and medications.
2. National Health Insurance (JKN): The JKN program aims to provide access to healthcare services for all Indonesian citizens. It is a mandatory program that covers basic health services, including medical consultations, hospitalization, and medications.
3. Cash Transfer (PKH): The PKH program provides cash transfers to poor households who meet certain conditions, such as ensuring their children.
4. Social Assistance: Indonesia provides social assistance to vulnerable populations, such as the elderly, persons with disabilities, and victims of natural disasters. This assistance includes food assistance, cash transfers, and housing subsidies.
5. Social Security Programs: Indonesia has various social security programs, including the National Pension Program, the Work Accident Insurance Program, and the Death Insurance Program. These programs aim to provide financial protection to workers and their families in the event of accidents, disabilities, or death.
6. Educational Assistance: Indonesia provides education assistance to disadvantaged students, including scholarships and fee waivers.

Overall Indonesia has made significant efforts to implement social protection policies to address various social issues. However, there are still challenges in ensuring that these policies reach all those in need, particularly those living in remote areas or informal workers who may not have access to formal social protection programs.

Social Protection Policies Lao PDR

According to World Bank (2021), Lao PDR, or Laos, has implemented several social protection policies to address poverty, healthcare, education, and other social issues. Some of the key social protection policies in Laos include.

1. National Social Security Law: This law was enacted in 2013 and aims to provide social protection to all citizens of Laos. It includes provisions for social security funds, insurance, and assistance programs for vulnerable groups, such as the elderly, persons with disabilities, and children.
2. Health Equity Funds (HEFs): HEFs are a form of health insurance that covers the cost of healthcare services for the poor and vulnerable populations. The program is supported by the government and external donors and aims to increase access to healthcare services for those who cannot afford them.
3. Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs): Laos has implemented CCT programs that provide cash transfers to households that meet certain conditions, such as ensuring their children attend school and receive regular health check-ups.
4. Education Assistance: Laos provides education assistance to disadvantaged students, including scholarships, school fee waivers, and transportation allowances.
5. Community-Driven Development (CDD): The CDD approach empowers communities to identify their own development priorities and manage funds to support those priorities. It is aimed at improving access to basic services, such as healthcare and education, in rural and remote areas.

Overall, Laos has made significant efforts to implement social protection policies to address various social issues. However, there are still challenges in ensuring that these policies reach all those in need, particularly those living in remote areas or informal workers who may not have access to formal social protection programs.

Social Protection Policies Malaysia

According to the world bank (2021), Malaysia has implemented several social protection policies to address poverty, healthcare, education, and other social issues. Some of the key social protection policies in Malaysia include National Health Insurance Scheme: This program provides free health insurance coverage to low-income households and individuals who are registered with the government's healthcare assistance program.

1. National Poverty Reduction Strategy: Malaysia's National Poverty Reduction Strategy aims to address poverty through various initiatives, including social protection programs, job creation, and education and skills training.
2. Social Assistance: Malaysia provides social assistance to vulnerable populations, including the elderly, persons with disabilities, and children from low-income families. This assistance includes cash transfers, food assistance, and housing subsidies.
3. Social Security Programs: Malaysia has various social security programs, including the Employees Provident Fund, the Social Security Organization, and the Employment Insurance System. These programs provide financial protection to workers and their families in the event of job loss, accidents, disabilities, or death.
4. Education Assistance: Malaysia provides education assistance to disadvantaged students, including scholarships, financial assistance, and school fee waivers.

All in all, Malaysia implemented policies focusing on social protection and has good impact but there is always scope for improvement. Malaysia has many challenges for effective implementation and to reach to every individual unto the last citizen of the country who might have very less opportunity and access to avail the social protection programs.

Social Programs and their Categories

Social protection programs in ASEAN member states can be classified into social insurance programs, social assistance programs, and or labour market programs, the following table has classified the important social protection programs into different categories as follows.

Table 6 Social Insurance, Social Assistance and Labour Market programs

Items	Social Insurance	Social assistance	Labour market Programs
Categories	Programs focus on risks like illness, old age problems, and unemployability problems, the programs help to eradicate poverty directly or indirectly	Transfer of money directly into accounts to help marginalized communities, especially the poor	Labour programs help to secure individual employability
Programe	Examples of such programs are health insurance, unemployability insurance, disability insurance, maternity benefits programs, provident funds	Examples of such programs are cash or in-kind transfers, child welfare, health insurance, tax-funded benefits, disability benefits	Training and skill development programs,

The table was developed after analyzing the different social protection policies in ASEAN member States.

Conclusion

Multidimensional poverty is a complex issue that affects a significant proportion of the population in the ASEAN Member States. The study on Multidimensional Poverty and Social Protection Policies in the ASEAN Member States provides a comprehensive analysis of poverty and social protection policies in the region. The study highlights the importance of a multidimensional approach to poverty reduction, which considers not only income but also other dimensions such as health, education, and living standards.

The study finds that poverty reduction policies in the ASEAN Member States have been successful in reducing poverty levels in the region according to ASEAN Secretariat's Statistical Yearbook 2020.However, the study also identifies significant gaps in social protection policies, particularly in the areas of healthcare and education. This suggests that more needs to be done to ensure that vulnerable populations have access to basic services. One of the key findings of the study is the importance of social protection policies in reducing poverty levels. The study highlights the need for a comprehensive social protection system that includes cash transfers, social insurance, and social assistance. The study also emphasizes the importance of targeting social protection policies to those who need it the most, such as children, the elderly, and people with disabilities. The study provides a comparative analysis of poverty and social protection policies in ASEAN Member States, which allows policymakers to learn from each other's experiences. The study finds that countries that have implemented comprehensive social protection policies, such as Thailand and Vietnam, have successfully reduced poverty levels according to ASEAN Secretariat's Statistical Yearbook, (2020).

In conclusion, the study on Multidimensional Poverty and Social Protection Policies in ASEAN Member States provides valuable insights into poverty and social protection policies in the region. The study highlights the importance of a multidimensional approach to poverty reduction, the need for a comprehensive social protection system, and the importance of targeting social protection policies for vulnerable populations. The findings of the study can help policymakers in ASEAN Member States develop more effective poverty reduction and social protection policies, which will ultimately improve the lives of millions of people in the region.

The present study suggests for future research on the aspects like political and cultural dimensions in formulating and implementing the social protection programmes in ASEAN member states. It was also found that there is a dearth of data availability per person spending on social protection which could paint the picture with different brushes.

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Building Community Resilience to Coastal Disasters: A Case Study of Cyclone Sidr in Bangladesh 2007

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Bui Phan Quoc Nghia [2]

Abstract

The devastating consequences of ineffective implementation of community-based disaster risk reduction plans in coastal areas can be nothing short of disastrous. In order to maximize the chances of success when facing such a catastrophe, understanding the measures adopted by coastal communities is an important part of increasing resilience and preparing for disasters. This study looks into the actions taken by the coastal areas of Bangladesh in response to the 2007 Cyclone Sidr. Utilizing a scope review of the events, we can analyze the underlying causes of loss, while also determining the critical challenges government organizations or relief organizations may be confronted with. Through our research, we aim to provide policy makers and practitioners with advice on how to better address the requirements of coastal communities during times of future crises.

Keywords: Communities, Resilience, Disaster management, Cyclone, Sidr

Introduction

The ever-evolving field of disaster management necessitates effective preparation and response strategies to confront emerging risks and threats. Over the years, great advances in technology and tools have improved the field, however, it is paramount to look back to previous policies that have come from prior disasters (Nghia, Pal, Chollacoop, et al., 2022; Nghia, Pal, Pramanik, et al., 2022). With an increasing frequency of extreme events and natural disasters, disaster management organizations must use hindsight to gain insights for future policy development. Reflecting upon past disaster events, understanding the important points that led to the disaster, and strategizing future protocols and policies can better equip disaster management organizations to be proactive rather than reactive in confronting future events.

In the wake of the devastating Cyclone Sidr of 2007, Bangladesh experienced a tremendous loss of lives, property, and livelihoods (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). The storm highlighted the need for improved disaster management and social work in this low-lying and often flood-prone region. At the time, the country was ill-prepared to address the immense destruction caused by the cyclone. Poor coordination of aid and rescue efforts, lack of communication and warning systems, and inadequate supplies rendered thousands of people stranded and vulnerable (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008; Paul, 2009; Tasnim et al., 2015). This tragedy, however, not only devastated the local communities of Bangladesh, but also catalyzed a newfound era of disaster management and social work. In the wake of this calamitous event, citizens exhibited impressive resilience and solidarity as they joined forces to restore their dwellings (Ahsan & Özbek, 2022; Haque et al., 2021; Karim & Lin, 2021). To meet the demands of their situation, they developed volunteer

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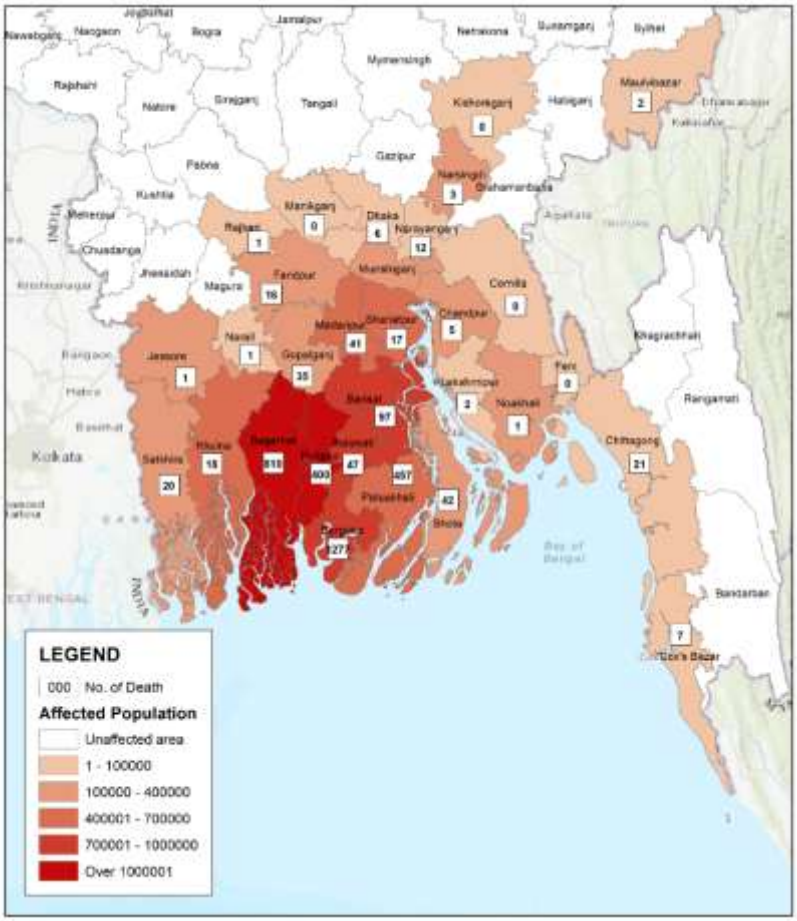
systems to identify and prioritize needs, such as search-and-rescue operations, medical aid, and the provision of food and water supplies. This demonstration of collective effort to facilitate post-disaster development served as a teaching moment for Bangladesh and other cyclone-exposed regions, highlighting the necessity for a well-prepared, organized response by disaster-management and related organizations.

The devastating effects of Cyclone Sidr, which occurred in 2007, have had a lasting impact on Bangladesh, sparking a national conversation regarding disaster management. This scope review sets out to uncover potential contributing factors influencing emergency response systems, such as volunteer systems, during times of crisis. Through the careful analysis of these components, the study will look to gain a deeper understanding of the social, environmental, and economic factors which have resulted in either effective or ineffective management of disaster-related activities. With this understanding, policymakers and researchers can be better informed when developing preparedness and response plans in the future.

Figure 1 Most affected areas by Sidr



Source: Developed by authors with extracting data from Disaster Management Information Centre Disaster Management Bureau (DMB) (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008).

The Incident of Cyclone Sidr

Cyclone Sidr was a tropical cyclone that hit coastal areas of Bangladesh. It resulted in heavy rain and winds speeds that peaked at at 59 m/s (Tasnim et al., 2015) during November 11-16, 2007. The cyclone significantly impacted 12 districts. The major affected areas were Borguna, Bagerhat, Patuakhali and Pirozpur. Other most affected districts were Barisal, Khulna, Satkhira, Jhalokathi, Bhola, Madaripur, Gopalganj, Shariatpur etc (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). Details are

shown in Figure 1. On 21 January 2008, the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) official reports indicated that more than 8.9 million people were affected, including 3,406 people killed, 1,001 missing and 55,282 injured.

Taking into consideration the affected districts in terms of death toll, the Government initially classified levels of damage in order to provide proper assistance. Table 1 summarizes the major impact and the responses from respective agencies.

Table 1 Impact and Response of the disaster

Affected factors	Major Response Action
Food security	The Government immediately distributed rice and packets of dry food to the affected area by road or via airdrops both during and after the disaster period.
Water and Sanitation	After the disaster took place, the respective agencies distributed jerrycan/cleaned drinking water and installed water purifiers in affected districts.
Shelter	The government compensated housing damages for poor and vulnerable families. In addition, many international agencies provided funding and financial aid to the government for reconstruct of damaged houses
Health and Nutrition	Relevant agencies stocked medical supplies and medical personnel were dispatched to areas in advance in order to be ready for early response.
Community Infrastructure	The relevant agencies conducted a rapid damage and need assessment and began repairing damaged infrastructure.
Inland Water Transport	The respective agencies continued searching and rescuing activities for missing and dislocated people. .
Electricity	Repair was prioritized to partially damaged sub stations. They were completely repaired within one month after the cyclone.
Telecommunication	The respective agencies repaired and restored the telecommunication systems located in the most affected districts first,
Education	Damage assessment was completed to take necessary actions for rehabilitation and reconstruction of the affected school buildings.
Livelihoods	- Government compensated poor and marginal farmers (cultivating 40 percent of the damaged crop area) with BDT 15,000 for each hectare of land. - A Medical Team formed in each cyclone affected area ran a vaccination programme for livestock.

Source: summarization from the Ministry of Food and Disaster Management (2008).

Major Contributors to the Loss

The great Sidr cyclone created a devastating impact on the coastal region of Bangladesh, leading to widespread destruction and loss of life. The tremendous losses resulting from this cyclone were mainly due to inadequate preparedness and response. This included a poor early warning system, inadequate infrastructure and shelters, and inadequate government collaborations.

- Ineffectiveness of early warning system and risk identification

Despite warnings being issued by the relevant agencies in a timely manner, there was much doubt as to the accuracy of these predictions (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). False alarms regarding a tsunami in the weeks prior to the cyclone incidents had caused people to distrust the warnings. Furthermore, many of those in the community did not understand the technical language of the signals, so were unsure of the level of risk and what actions needed to be taken. This made it difficult for the warnings to be communicated to the general public.

Furthermore, the forecasting and warning systems for Cyclone Sidr were ineffective in accurately predicting the intensity of the cyclone (Kumar et al., 2011). This led to many of the most vulnerable areas of Bangladesh being inadequately prepared for the destruction that the cyclone. As a result, many people living in coastal areas were unaware of the impending danger and destruction they were facing. In addition, taking into consideration affected population in 12 districts, it was highlighted that most of the affected population were distributed in different districts than the district with the highest death toll, i.e Barguna district (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). This difference was thought to result from the government putting more concentration of effort and resources in particular areas that were less affected by the cyclone. This could imply that the risk assessment in terms of function and location of hazards were not effective.

- Poor community infrastructure

Cyclone Sidr is a tragic example of how poor community infrastructure can lead to increased destruction in natural disasters. Many believe that the destruction caused by Sidr could have been avoided if there had been better infrastructure in place to help people cope with and survive the storm. Most of the coastal areas of Bangladesh are very poor, and the infrastructure was simply not strong enough to withstand the strong winds and rain of the cyclone(Ahsan & Özbek, 2022). Houses made of mud and bamboo were easily destroyed. According to the outcomes of the survey by Paul (2009), many people who were in the Barguna district could not receive warnings or evacuation signs or orders because of the loss of power and/or a lack of workable batteries. Many volunteers had to use sirens to warn coastal residents of the impending danger.

The local infrastructure had long been in a state of disrepair before the cyclone hit, making it harder for the locals to access the support and supplies they needed in the aftermath of the disaster(Paul, 2009). The damage was compounded by weak housing, a lack of community services and resources, and inadequate communication infrastructure, leaving the local population without access to essential aid(Haque et al., 2012; Pathirage, 2011). As a result, the destruction of cyclone Sidr was felt much more deeply by Bangladesh than other parts of the world, due to its poor community infrastructure.

This lack of infrastructure has had serious implications for the country since the cyclone. There has been an increased number of disasters and death rates in Bangladesh since the cyclone, indicating that the lack of infrastructure has not been properly addressed (Alam & Collins, 2010; Mallick et al., 2011). This has led to a rise in poverty in the country, as those affected by the cyclone were unable to rebuild and secure necessary resources. Additionally, Bangladesh's recovery from the cyclone has been likely slower than that of other parts of the world, suggesting that its infrastructure was not sufficiently equipped to respond to the cyclone's impact (Islam et al., 2021; Rokonuzzaman & Hattori, 2021).

- Inadequate and poor conditions of shelter

As reported, only 30% of the coastal area had access to shelters that were sufficient to accommodate people in the region. In some coastal zones, these shelters are located at a distance of more than 3.5 miles (5.6 km) apart and would have been to far away for coastal residents to reach during the emergency. (Paul, 2009). Furthermore, a survey conducted in 2004 by the Centre for Environmental and Geographic Information (CEGIS) on 1,705 shelters identified that many were deficient. (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). Moreover, most of the shelters had no provision for the shelter of livestock (Islam et al., 2011). It resulted in some people being unwilling to move to the shelter as they had to leave their cattle behind (Paul, 2012).

- Ineffective information sharing and database

The respective government agencies observed that many agencies had not implemented a decentralized relief management system, tending instead to manage agency actions from Dhaka (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). This resulted in very few deployed on-site liaison officers to the severely affected area to obtain updated information. This lack of on-site personnel meant that the agencies were unable to effectively coordinate the delivery of relief materials and services to the local people, leading to increased levels of frustration and discontent among the local population

(Rathore et al., 2012; Ullah & Hasan, 2010). Furthermore, the absence of on-site personnel meant that the agencies were unable to gather accurate, up-to-date information about the situation on the ground, leading to poor decision making and inadequate responses to the crisis. Ultimately, this lack of decentralized relief management systems hindered the effective implementation of relief efforts. This also delayed the decisions on emergency cases which resulted in a prolonged period of suffering for the people of the affected area.

Critical Challenges for Post Disaster Management

Even though economic losses from tropical cyclones are unavoidable in Bangladesh, the Sidr Cyclone event made it more crucial for the Bangladesh government to develop and implement improved efforts or programmes to cope with disasters. After the cyclone took place, the government made some progress in it's disaster preparation and prevention initiatives, particularly by increasing the resilience of the risk communities (Tasnim et al., 2015). One example of this progress was the development of the Cyclone Preparedness Programme (CPP) (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2008). This programme encouraged the communities to be a part of the early-warning system for cyclones. Volunteers from communities were trained to provide the early warning to remote area, to provide first-aid and distribution of relief goods, and to assist people in evacuation. Moreover, due to high levels of illiteracy, the programme adopted and improved the use of sounds and symbols for effective information transfer during the disaster period. In terms of infrastructure improvement, the country improved storm surge countermeasures such as cyclone shelters and embankments across low-lying areas. The construction of multi-purpose cyclone shelters increased rapidly from 512 in 1992 to 3976 in 2007 covering 30% of the coastal region (Paul, 2009). The government also planned to build, upgrade, and repair the embankments including water control structures and drainage irrigation along the coastal which was approximately affected by 2,290 km from 5,000 km (Government of Bangladesh, 2008).

Although the government is taking big steps to improve the country's disaster management capacity, there are still many challenges to face due to several countries' socio-economic influences.

Upcoming challenges are identified as follows:

- Risk Identifications

Risk identification is one of the important steps of pre-disaster management. As mentioned above, there is strong indication that the country needs more improvement on hazard and risk assessments. This is demonstrated by the affected areas and death tolls being higher than expected, mainly due to ineffective monitoring and forecasting systems and their inaccuracy on the magnitude and location of the disaster.

Also, it was noticed that an assessment of vulnerability in the risk area was unsuccessful as a result of incompletely integrated collaboration among the stakeholders in the areas. Bangladesh is an extremely vulnerable country in terms of economic factors, particularly household income. Most people live in poverty and only rely on one source of income, usually resulting from livestock and agricultural products. Therefore, during the early warning stage, manypeople did not fully follow the instructions from the government as they were concerned about their cattle, property or farming. They were not guaranteed to be compensated for the loss of these in aftermath of the cyclone event.

These challenges must be addressed while formulating the disaster plan. The concept of socio-economic integration should be inclusively investigated and analyzed by the government to gain deeper understanding on economic costs and the basic needs of vulnerable people who live in those risk areas. This could ensure that the people will fully participate when there is another disaster.

- Household Poverty

One challenge is the lack of knowledge and access to information on the risk awareness measures. Many people in poverty-stricken areas may not have access to the internet or other sources of information on risk prevention, leading to a lack of understanding on how to best protect themselves.

This resulted in misunderstanding the message of early warning sent by the respective agencies. Another challenge resulting from household poverty is the lack of resources to enable people to participate in preventive measures. Many people in poverty-stricken areas lack the financial resources to purchase protective gear or even the basic supplies needed to properly practice preventative measures. Finally, the lack of access to healthcare services in poverty-stricken areas can make preventive measures even more difficult, as people may not have access to medical care if they contract a disease or illness.

In order to address these challenges, the government should take steps to make sure that people in poverty-stricken areas have access to accurate and comprehensive information about risk prevention. This could include providing resources, such as pamphlets or workshops, to help people understand how to protect themselves from the dangers of their environment. In addition, the government should provide incentives for people in poverty-stricken areas to access preventative care and use protective gear, such as masks, gloves, and protective clothing. To further increase access to preventive measures, the government should also encourage local organizations to partner with modern healthcare providers. This could include helping to fund healthcare clinics in poverty-stricken areas, or providing resources to help local organizations develop partnerships with healthcare providers. By taking these steps, the government can ensure that people in poverty-stricken areas have access to the preventive measures they need to stay safe and healthy.

- Contingency and Preparedness Plan

When examining the facilities available to accommodate and support vulnerable communities, it was apparent that the country's contingency and preparedness plans did not reflect the actual needs of the communities. This was evidenced by the fact that the shelters provided by the government were not suitable for the local community, failing to take into account gender issues, livestock concerns, and other unique characteristics of the community. For example, a shelter in a rural, agricultural village did not take into account the need to house livestock or provide separate facilities for men and women, both of which are essential components of the community. Therefore, it is important for the country's contingency plan and preparedness plan to be more reflective of the local community's needs. To do this, the government should look into providing more gender-sensitive shelters, as well as shelters that are equipped to support livestock. Additionally, the government should provide resources to help communities better prepare for natural disasters, such as providing evacuation kits and training for emergency responders. With this step, the government can ensure that the at-risk communities are better supported and prepared for natural disasters.

- Emergency Response

In view of the emergency response, most of the government actions were performed well in terms of management during the disaster. This included quick responses or actions on disaster management such as rapid classification of affected areas, good infrastructure support withlimited resources, and dissemination of volunteers.

Major problems included communication in both affected people to the government and the government to the government. This resulted from limited country infrastructure and resulting poor communication and inaccurate report figures. To ensure effective coordination and management of future disaster, the monitoring and evaluation system should systematically track the key interventions and process in order to support the relief or recovery process. Moreover, the early warning system still requires development. People still have less understanding about technical words in the system. Also, the warning event are not reliable on some occasions. To ensure the effectiveness for further disaster management, the government must understand physical needs and characteristics of the communities.

- Rehabilitation

Because the country has experienced many disasters, it has strong cooperation and collaboration with international agencies and NGOs. This would help the country to quickly recover or rehabilitate in affected or damaged areas. However, improving and repairing community infrastructure is an upcoming challenge as the government had limitations on budget. Effective and strategic recovery

and reconstruction plans for the at-risk communities over the medium- to long-term needs to be enhanced in order to ensure that the assistance is brought to everyone in need, in particular those in remote and inaccessible areas. This would reduce loss of life and livelihood and promote rapid recovery following future disasters.

Conclusion

Although Bangladesh is a low-lying country, which makes it particularly vulnerable to such events, it could not cope with the magnitude of destruction caused by Sidr. Poor preparedness, inadequate relief measures, ineffective communication of disaster risk, and failure to establish evacuation procedures resulted in heavy losses in the affected communities. In the aftermath of the cyclone, NGOs and government agencies both struggled to coordinate their responses, resulting in the rescue efforts being delayed. This cost lives and heightened the risk of further death from disease and dehydration caused by lack of potable water, food and shelter.

Moreover, in a region of the world where human capital is the key productive resource, loss of education, lack of resources and displacement severely undermined recovery efforts. And while the country's emergency preparedness programs were improved, large numbers of rural populations were excluded from emergency response services.

Cyclone Sidr highlighted the inadequacies in disaster risk management and relief responses in Bangladesh, which resulted in enormous destruction to affected communities. It also underscored the need for better coordination among governments, civil society organizations, NGOs and local communities, particularly with respect to preventing disasters from recurring. Moving forward to increase community resilience, there is a need to increase investments in infrastructure to make it more resilient, identify risk factors, improve disaster risk governance and improve community access to essential resources and services. Only then will the devastating effects of a cyclone such as Sidr be minimized.

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