



REVIEW

From Conflict to Catalysis: The Socio-Economic Transformation of Southeast Asia in the Aftermath of World War II

Chee Kong Yap 

Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang 43400, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

World War II (WWII) brought devastation in its wake to Southeast Asia (SEA), but it was also the beginning of a profound socio-economic transformation in the region. This review considers how wartime dislocation was a stimulus to post-colonial growth, identifying the long-term structural change initiated after Japanese occupation and the collapse of European imperial powers. The aim of this review is to see how the war enabled the establishment of resilient economies, emerging infrastructure networks, cities, regional clusters, and institutional reform in SEA nations. Through the synthesis of empirical research and historical research, this study examines five general topics: economic restructuring, urbanization, public health reform, political realignment, and regional cooperation. From scholarly literature, the review shows how forced autarky and wartime labour mobilization revealed the weakness of extractive colonial economies and laid the foundation for diversification and export-led industrialization. The article demonstrates how wartime migration and trauma rearranged urban labour markets and public health needs, stimulating long-term investment in social welfare and mental health. It further discusses the influence of nationalist forces, formed amidst resistance to war, on post-war politics and legal modernization. The establishment of ASEAN and mixed legal systems further facilitated the collective trajectory of the region toward stability and integration. This discourse argues that WWII, far from being an era of destruction, was a turning point that shaped the socio-economic trajectories of SEA countries well into the 21st century.

Keywords: World War II; Southeast Asia; Socio-Economic Development; Post-war Transformation; Regional Integration

*CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:

Chee Kong Yap, Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang 43400, Malaysia; Email: yapchee@upm.edu.my

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 22 June 2025 | Revised: 12 August 2025 | Accepted: 17 August 2025 | Published Online: 25 August 2025

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.63385/sadr.v1i2.303>

CITATION

Yap, C.K., 2025. From Conflict to Catalysis: The Socio-Economic Transformation of Southeast Asia in the Aftermath of World War II. *Southeast Asia Development Research*. 1(2): 1–11. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.63385/sadr.v1i2.303>

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2025 by the author(s). Published by Zhongyu International Education Centre. This is an open access article under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY 4.0) License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

World War II (WWII) was a sweeping historical breach in Southeast Asia (SEA), not merely as a period of violent occupation and geopolitical shift, but as a breaking point of transformation that dismantled colonial structures and created new channels for regional change^[1]. Whereas traditional historiography has concentrated on war and independence movements, a longer perspective establishes the war's consequences also initiating long-term socio-economic transformation, population readjustment, institutional rebuilding, and public health realignment^[2-4]. Through this, WWII was not only an imperial order crisis but a moment of generation that shaped the modern foundations of governance, industry, and social policy in SEA^[5,6]. However, Macau in SEA and other Portuguese colonies adhered to Portugal's status as a neutral country. Earlier Macau had already benefited from brokering commercial relations between China and Japan. The Portuguese role of trade intermediary occurred when the Chinese were forbidden to trade with Japan and the Japanese could not enter China^[7].

The occupation of Japan from 1941 to 1945 dissolved European colonial hegemony and established alternative systems of rule, labour, and economic control. These exploitative regimes, yet coercive, demonstrated the fragility of colonial economies and unwittingly sowed the post-war rationale for national sovereignty, economic diversification, and localized policymaking^[8,9]. Anti-Japanese nationalist resistance movements during the occupations of Malaya and Indonesia politicized nationalist identities and post-war leadership^[10,11], while Hadhrami communities negotiated occupation by means of strategic cultural negotiation.

Emerging from the ashes of empire, nationalist leaders shaped the experience of war into new socio-political agendas, including the extension of healthcare, education reform, and food security^[12,13]. But they came at a cost. In Malaysia, to cite just one example, memories of occupation that were embodied in the "black-out" syndrome—continued to inform collective memory and identity^[14]. At the same time, SEAn cities were transformed into thriving urban hubs as war devastation was replaced with rapid reconstruction, inward migration, and economic realignment^[15,16]. The developments cleared the way for the industrial ascendancy of the region in the subsequent years, with proof evident in export-oriented strategies and labour-intensive development models^[6,17].

Psychosocial trauma and public health emergencies also sparked state interventions that were instrumental in institutional change. Returning troops and war-affected communities required protracted care, reshaping policies nationally across welfare, public health infrastructure, and mental health facilities^[18,19]. Meanwhile, cultural propaganda and gendered military occupations left permanent marks on SEA's media cultures, family structures, and gender relations^[20,21]. These multi-dimensional experiences stretched the post-war policy agenda beyond reconstruction to encompass issues of identity, resilience, and social cohesion.

Cold War politics also shaped SEA towards regionalism and legal transformation. Associations such as ASEAN and internal legal reforms for the aim of unifying new, fragile states, market integration, and securing development aid^[22,23]. This regionalism was a strategic response to address global ideological struggles and at the same time a shared aspiration to unite post-colonial achievements into one cohesive, progressive SEA.

The objective of this article is to investigate how WWII acted not only as a historical crisis but also as a catalyst for socio-economic transformation in SEA, through the examination of its impact on industrialization, urbanization, health systems, legal and institutional transformation, and regional cooperation. Through interdisciplinary synthesis of history, economics, and politics, this review highlights the heretofore neglected legacy of the war in building modern SEAn societies.

2. Economic Impact and Industrialization

Figure 1 shows the economic impacts and industrialization in SEA after WWII. Japanese occupation between 1941 and 1945 extensively dislocated the economic systems throughout SEA. The economies were redirected to be employed in the Japanese war effort, such as forced labour, production diversion, and autarkic economic systems. Indonesia, Malaya, and the Philippines witnessed sudden drops in productivity and trade, which made their economies leave long-lasting scars but also created the push for long-term economic restructuring^[2,3]. While colonial powers had based their economies on extractive models, the war exposed their vulnerabilities and refocused attention on more diversified and sustainable national economies.

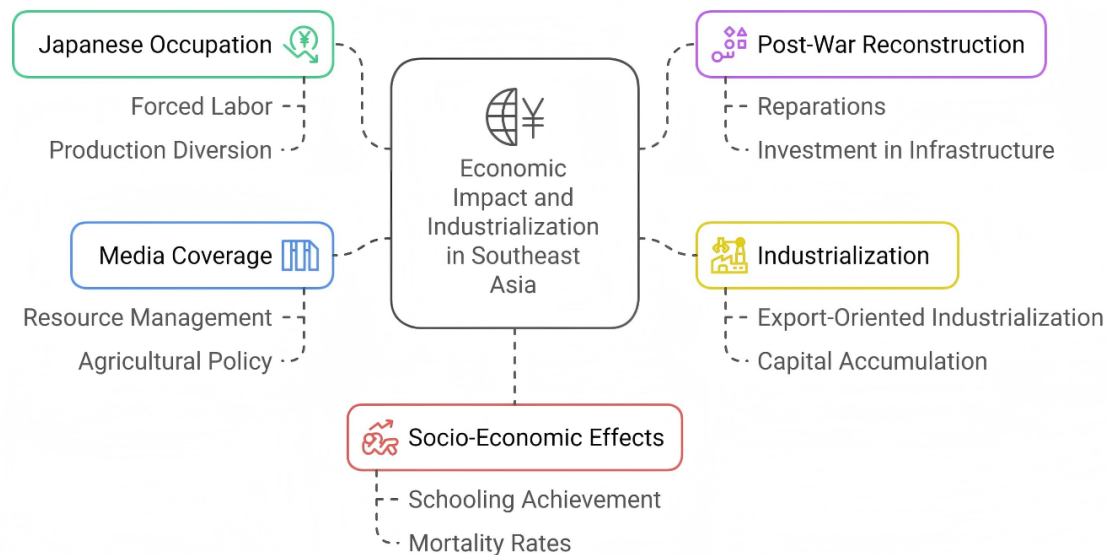


Figure 1. The economic impacts and industrialization in Southeast Asian after World War II.

After the war, Japan's policy of reparations attempted to restore diplomatic and economic ties with the area by offering financial assistance and technical aid. Such re-entry led to Japanese investment in infrastructure, transportation, and industry that specifically in countries like Indonesia, Burma (Myanmar), and the Philippines that drove initial industrial growth^[8]. Such initial investments led to further integration into the global economic system. The Japanese occupation during the war had already laid infrastructural and administrative foundations that, paradoxically, would later support such reintegration^[2]. In Indochina, Japanese control over economic activities during the war transformed supply chains and economic governance structures, which post-war governments adapted and expanded. These conditions, although imposed under occupation, became a pivot point for post-war economic recovery and planning^[24].

The development of East Asian economies such as Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan inspired the SEAn countries to adopt export-oriented industrialization. It enabled them to shift from primary commodity dependence to sophisticated manufacturing hubs. Huff^[6] also included the fact that pre-war trading networks and urban infrastructure were repurposed and expanded to facilitate post-war industrialization. Additionally, policies on capital accumulation, foreign direct investment, and training in skills drove enduring industrial transformation^[17]. In this regard, wartime economies which are often assumed to be solely destructive—

also served as experimental grounds for new models of governance, resource mobilization, and productivity, which were studied further by Horwitz and McPhillips^[16] in evaluating whether World War II truly ended the Great Depression or merely transformed economic mechanisms under state control.

Moreover, wartime economic coverage in the media mirrored a strategic concern for preserving farm production and industrial crop cultivation in areas under occupation such as the Philippines^[25]. Danquah^[26] examined Japanese English-language newspaper coverage to identify how resource management was key to wartime administration and came to serve as a benchmark for post-war planning in agricultural policy. Additionally, the comparative economic experiences from World War II to the early 21st century, as documented by Hormats and Ratner^[27], provided insight into how global economic challenges and adaptations—including those in SEA, have roots in wartime transitions. These transitions helped shape long-term policy choices related to industrial policy, trade agreements, and global positioning.

Economic reforms were also positioned in SEA within the broader health and social effects of the war. Cassidy et al.^[28] displayed the effect that war exposure and military service had on schooling achievement and mortality rates over generations. These long-term socio-economic effects had impacts on labour market performance and productivity in SEA. Economic responses to WWII therefore had increasingly fo-

cused on investment in human capital and welfare in order to facilitate long-term development. As Huff^[2] thoroughly documented, the post-war period was marked by a continuous negotiation between inherited wartime structures and emerging national development strategies—underpinning the complex legacy of Japanese occupation in the region.

3. Urbanization and Infrastructure Development

Figure 2 shows the unplanned post-war urbanization in SEA after WWII. War damage to infrastructure spurred massive reconstruction drives that acted as stimulus for urban development. Cities destroyed by bombs and those that were drained of resources needed to be rebuilt, and this was alongside new national development priorities. Singapore, for example, invested massively in public housing, port facilities, and manufacturing sites and became a major node in global logistics and trade by the 1970s^[6].

Pre-war urbanization patterns, founded upon colonial

trade systems and immigrant flows, had already created a crude urban framework. Huff and Angeles^[17] argued that SEA had experienced early stages of globalization and industrial agglomeration even before the war. These forces were resumed and amplified in the post-war era, facilitating rapid urban migration and metropolitan economic development. Furthermore, Huff and Caggiano^[9] highlighted the importance of labour elasticity, as the availability of migrant workers allowed the cities to react quickly to industrial demands. Migrants from rural areas or displaced due to conflict were incorporated into construction, industry, and informal services, reshaping the social and spatial form of the urban centers. This transformation was not spontaneous but emerged from the complex reorganization of post-war state-building efforts, many of which were prefigured during the Japanese occupation and adapted in the aftermath^[29]. For instance, in post-war Malaya, the political resistance to the Malayan Union catalyzed nationalist-driven urban transformations that further accelerated these demographic shifts.

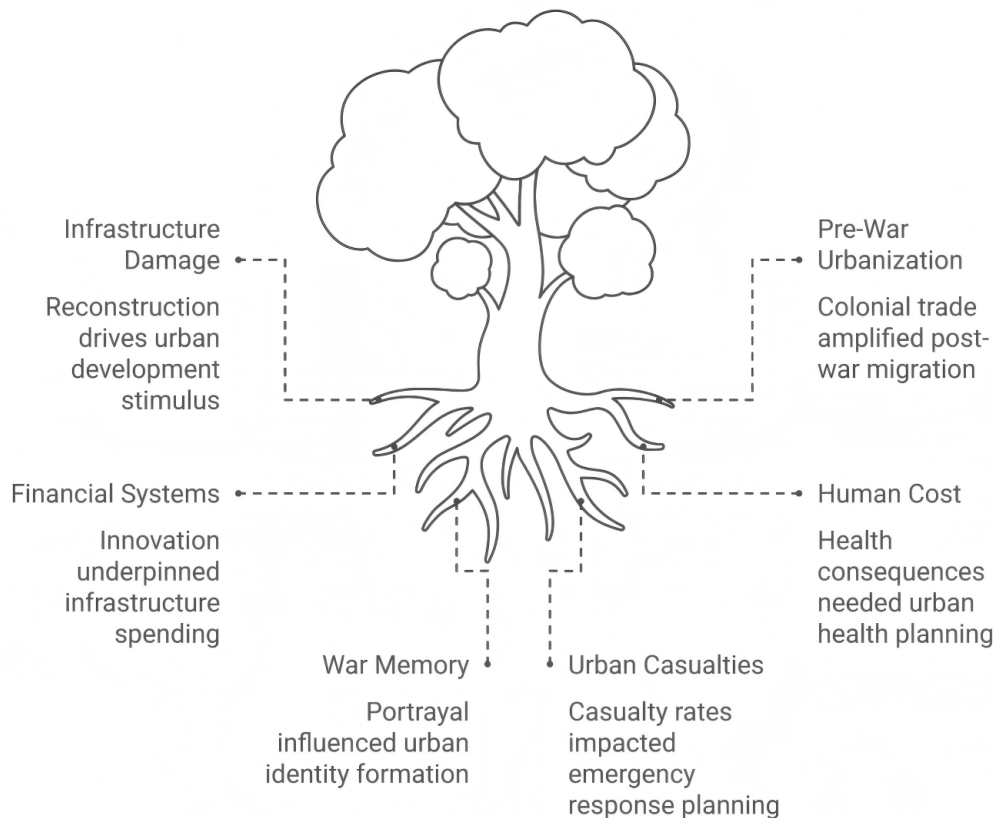


Figure 2. The unplanned post-war urbanization in Southeast Asia after World War II.

Post-war urbanization also required new financial systems. Huff^[5] demonstrated how financial innovation, including the establishment of central banks, insurance markets, and sovereign credit arrangements, underpinned massive infrastructure spending. Governments financed bridges, railways, and power grids using foreign aid and domestic savings. These developments were also closely tied to monetary and fiscal measures enacted during the liberation period. Rudner^[30] explained how British administrators in post-war Malaya instituted tax reforms, introduced new currency systems, and enacted fiscal policies to reconstruct urban economies. Furthermore, Rudner^[31] explored how rubber remained a central commodity in post-war economic strategies, with the urban economy of Malaya responding through reorganization of export and labour systems to meet British demands. Despite the focus on physical infrastructure, the human cost of the war also had to be met. Verburg and De Geus^[20] documented the chronic parasitic diseases and their long-term health consequences among prisoners of war, which led to the need for planning urban health and improved living conditions. These facts resulted in the establishment of hospitals, sanitation, and outreach health services in the cities post-war. Harper^[32] noted that disease management and psychological instability became central issues in Malaya's post-war urban environment, prompting institutional responses that connected public health, policing, and social services into new municipal frameworks.

Additionally, studies such as Wang and Mason's^[33] demonstrated the physiological effect of war-related Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) on WWII veterans, showing how war trauma influenced post-war health infrastructure and clinical service planning. Urban planning also had to anticipate how to rebuild the physical and administrative systems inherited from the colonial era. Turnbull^[34] documented how British planning for post-war Malaya included not just physical infrastructure but also urban governance mechanisms, resettlement schemes, and town planning departments, especially in anticipation of political instability and insurgency threats.

War urban memory was also reflected in education and the media. Lachmann and Mitchell^[35] have analyzed the development of the portrayal of WWII in textbooks and its impact on the interpretation of the war heritage by cities. These pedagogical narratives subtly but powerfully influ-

enced the formation of post-war urban identity and public investment agendas. Urban casualties and their timing were also a consideration in the planning. Haacker^[36] discussed differences in casualty rates during WWII and in later conflicts such as Vietnam, and spoke of war's changing face in relation to its impact on urban population and emergency response planning.

4. Political and Social Reforms

Figure 3 shows the post-war political and social reforms in SEA after WWII. The geopolitical collapse of colonial empires during and after the war opened a window of opportunity for nationalist movements to seek independence. The newly independent states redirected their energies toward socio-political change, economic progress, and social welfare as foundations of legitimacy and modernization^[12]. In Indonesia and Malaya, for example, anti-Japanese resistance movements during the war were central to post-war nationalist movements and political leadership^[10]. Resistance momentum during the war was translated into political capital in the post-colonial period. This reorganization in politics was also reflective of long-term patterns of military rule, as found by Custis^[37], in charting medical and logistical innovation from WWII through Vietnam, reflecting institutional continuity in the military and policy spheres.

One of the most significant concerns was public health. Bu and Yip^[13] examined how international forces shaped national health agendas, especially through institutions like the World Health Organization. These interventions included the eradication of malaria, maternal care, and nutritional reform, which worked towards raising life expectancy and productivity. Additionally, war reports from Japanese press sources portrayed particular interest in the development of industrial crops and food supply initiatives during the Philippine occupation period, showing how health and agriculture were embedded in wartime policy^[26]. As Weekley^[38] argued, post-war health and welfare efforts in the Philippines were deeply entangled with the state's struggle between national identity formation and addressing social inequality. Seng^[39] further emphasized how post-war SEAn cities like Singapore and Kuala Lumpur had to rebuild public health infrastructure in the wake of war-induced dislocation, disease, and poor sanitation in rapidly expanding urban settlements.

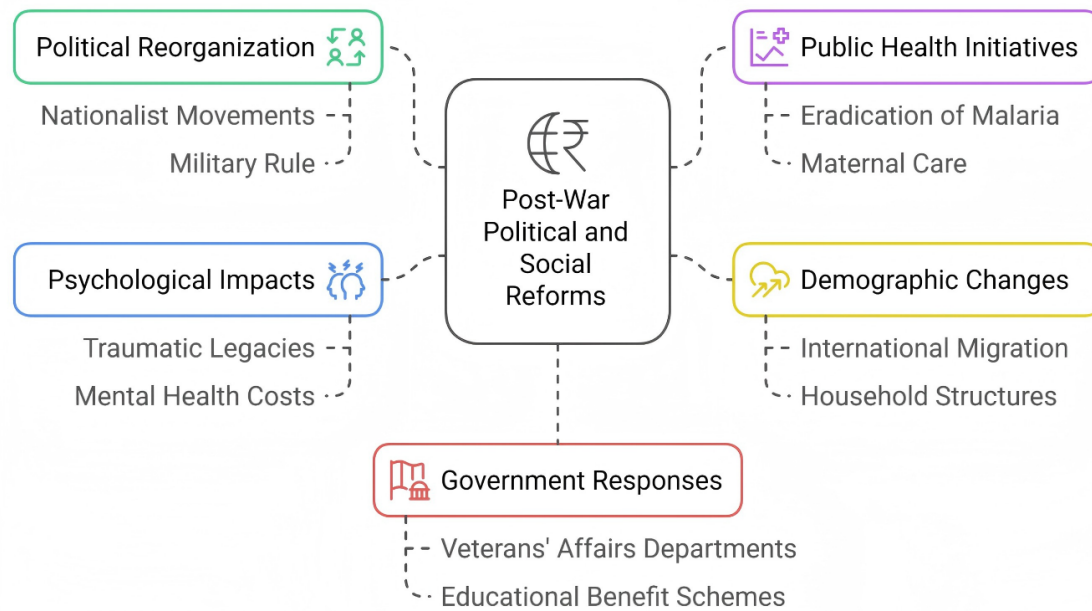


Figure 3. The post-war political and social reforms in Southeast Asia after World War II.

Demographic change and displacement caused by war were significant elements in reshaping household structures and labour markets. Hugo^[18] discussed how international migration streams following WWII intensified, with large movements of people both within and across SEA. These streams brought about new skills, work patterns, and cultural diversity that influenced urban economies and social policy. Roosa^[40] showed how military consolidation in Indonesia transformed both population movements and labour alignment with post-war state-building. Solomon^[41] also examined cultural renegotiations in Singapore, where Indian identities were redefined in the context of urban migration and post-colonial educational reform. Alvah's^[23] study on the U.S. military wives in the Philippines highlights how gender and family roles were renegotiated as a reaction to militarization, affecting household forms and cultural norms. More broadly, Turner et al.^[42] analyzed how long-term post-war motivations and suspicions shaped migration in Vietnam's upland frontiers, illustrating the socio-political legacies of war on internal mobility. Earl^[43] adds a gendered cultural perspective from post-war Vietnam, where changing values regarding love and marriage reflected broader transformations in social identity and intergenerational cohesion.

Psychological impacts of war had complicated expressions as well. Knox^[21] compared WWII and Vietnam-era war traumatic legacies, noting that the mental health costs

among veterans and civilians alike shaped post-war debate regarding trauma and public memory. Utter et al.^[44]'s examination of microchimerism in transfusion-injured combat veterans years after transfusion addresses war's long-term physiological consequences, again destabilizing the post-war recovery narrative. Wang and Mason^[33] found increased levels of the T3 hormone in WWII veterans with PTSD, linking biological responses to combat stress to measurable psychiatric symptoms. Additionally, Fontana and Rosenheck^[45] illustrated how traumatic war stressor exposure across three cohorts of veterans (WWII, Korea, and Vietnam) resulted in long-term psychiatric symptoms, influencing the configuration of post-war mental health care systems. Bonura^[46] argued that such mental health discussions must also be framed in how SEAn societies navigated their own subjectivities, often excluded from mainstream trauma studies due to Western epistemological biases.

Furthermore, Cassidy et al.^[28] illustrated that military service in a number of war periods, including WWII, imposed significant influences on educational attainment and mortality, linking socio-political service to long-term population well-being. Donnelly et al.^[47] referred to the evolving nature of medical follow-ups for paraplegic veterans across generations, with the WWII cohort serving as a model for long-term care in post-war societies. Miller et al.^[48] also demonstrated how symptom distress differed considerably

among ex-POWs and Vietnam veterans, calling for individualized psychological and medical treatment. Fettling^[49] noted that Australia's engagement in the Indonesian Revolution post-WWII also revealed regional solidarities and emerging welfare frameworks that linked war support to long-term socio-political legitimacy.

SEAn countries' governments responded to these complex difficulties by establishing veterans' affairs departments, psychiatric clinics, and educational benefit schemes. These institutional responses played a significant role in establishing national stability and public faith in the fragile early decades of independence. Chan^[50] explored how Vietnamese and Chinese authorities in the borderlands used cultural exchanges and trade normalization to ease cross-border trauma and reconstruct livelihoods. They also mirrored broader international discourse regarding war, health, and state. Li et al.^[51] demonstrated how spatial develop-

ment and nighttime light data trends across Belt and Road countries, including SEA, reflected policy attention to urban planning, health services, and infrastructure in post-conflict recovery.

5. Regional Cooperation and Legal Transformation

Figure 4 shows the regional cooperation and legal transformation in SEAn countries after WWII. The post-war era experienced a sudden shift towards regional integration. With the Cold War, SEAn countries sought alliances that would secure peace, bargaining power in the collective form, and aid for development. Thompson^[24] noted that the formation of ASEAN in 1967 was a political structure as well as an economic necessity within the war-ravaged, colonial-disrupted region.

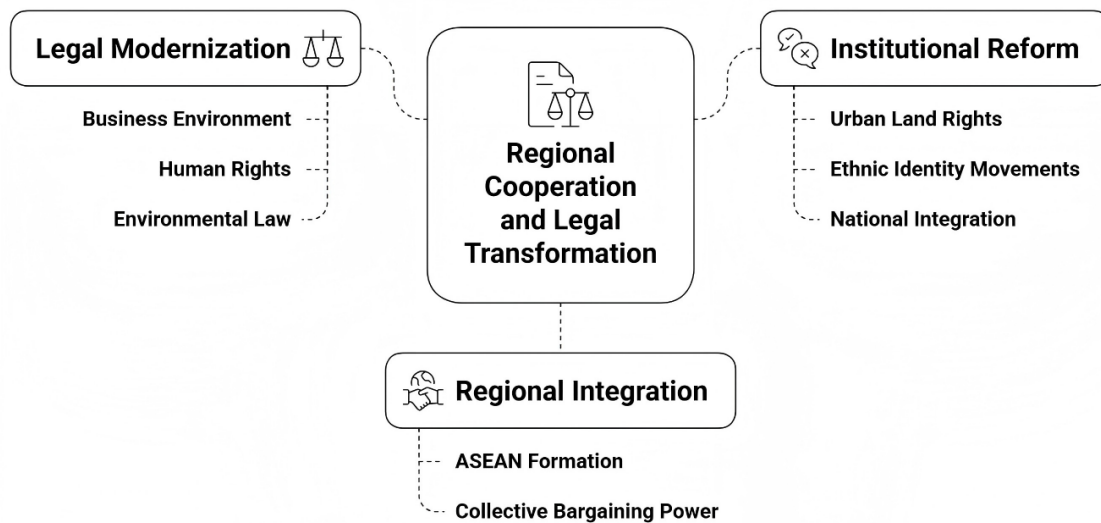


Figure 4. The regional cooperation and legal transformation in Southeast Asian countries after World War II.

National legal frameworks also modernized during the same period. Yasuda^[25] pointed out the manner in which SEAn countries began decolonizing from imported colonial codes of law to hybrid legal structures suitable for the indigenous setting. Legal modernization enabled better business environments, increased foreign investment, and the enhancement of human rights and environmental law. Such systems played a significant role in sustaining long-term socio-economic growth. For example, Li et al.^[51] demonstrated how spatial-temporal urban development across Belt

and Road Initiative countries, including several SEAn nations, has been closely linked to institutional capacity and legal adaptation, using nighttime light data as a proxy for city-level transformations. Roy^[52] noted that the military discipline and morale of British, Indian, and African soldiers in Burma highlighted the significant role played by legal-military infrastructure in shaping administrative transition towards independence. In a similar vein, Roosa^[40] described how the Indonesian military became central to legal-political consolidation, positioning itself as the guaran-

tor of national unity and shaping post-colonial governance structures.

Legal and institutional reform also touched education, land rights, and public accountability, quintessential issues in inclusive development. War had illustrated the dangers of unchecked power and arbitrary rule, and reformers were led to build more participatory and transparent political systems. Seng^[39] examined how legal and institutional responses to squatter settlements in post-war SEA reflected the push for urban land rights and bureaucratic modernization. Solomon^[41] revealed how in colonial and post-colonial Singapore, Tamil identity movements shaped educational and civic legal challenges to ethnic majoritarian policies, underscoring the role of cultural legal resistance. Weekley^[38] reflected on the Philippines' post-WWII legal tensions between national integration and social welfare, questioning the balance between elite-led nation-building and the promises of democratic inclusion. Fettling^[49] further highlighted Australia's role in supporting Indonesian independence and emphasized how international legal recognition and diplomatic support shaped Indonesia's early nationhood.

Kakizaki^[53] also added that regional transport networks such as Thai railways, contested during wartime by Japan and Thailand, then later became the focal point of post-war claims of sovereignty and institutional bargains of emergent SEAn states. Chan^[50] similarly illustrated how cross-border legal frameworks involving Vietnam and China were negotiated through trade, tourism, and cultural diplomacy in the borderlands. Legal pluralism and informal negotiations often coexisted with codified law. As Bonura^[46] argued, political science's interdisciplinary anxieties have sometimes obscured the granular legal cultures in SEA, which are embedded in historical, cultural, and geopolitical contingencies. In the Vietnamese context, Earl^[43] highlighted how family, love, and marriage laws reflected both state-imposed ideals and vernacular interpretations, revealing the hybrid nature of post-war legal modernity.

6. Conclusions

WWII was a turning point that radically re-shaped the socio-economic and political trajectories of SEAn countries. War-time dislocation of social as well as colonial economic patterns exposed underlying vulnerabilities while simulta-

neously inviting movements toward national independence, diversified industrialization, and intra-regional cooperation. The years of occupation, as destructive as they were, compelled local elites and populations to experiment with resistance, accommodation, and institution-building of new governance and economic structures. Foreign and domestic investments in the post-war period leveraged existing infrastructure and drew on human capital to fuel high-speed urbanization, export-led industrialization, and financial system development. These economic gains were not distinguishable from changes in populations, flows of migration, and shifting labour markets that were dynamically responsive to war-induced displacements and reconstruction pressures.

At the same time, the psychological, medical, and institutional residues of the war extended well beyond economic indicators. Chronic public health problems, veteran trauma, the reorganization of education and welfare bureaucracies, and the codification of legal and political reform were an interrelated matrix of rehabilitation after the war. The war also shaped national identity and historical memory in contested and enduring ways. In regional initiatives such as ASEAN and constructing hybrid legal systems, SEA presented itself as a region desiring stability, inclusiveness, and progress. Therefore, the legacy of WWII in SEA was not one of destruction alone, but also one of transformation—a crucible in which the foundations of modern nationhood, resilience, and regional solidarity were forged.

Funding

This work received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement

Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement

Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement

The data used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- [1] Davidson, J.R.T., Kudler, H.S., Saunders, W.B., et al., 1990. Symptom and comorbidity patterns in World War II and Vietnam veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*. 31(2), 162–170. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-440X\(90\)90020-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-440X(90)90020-S)
- [2] Huff, G., 2020. *World War II and Southeast Asia: Economy and Society under Japanese Occupation*, 1st ed. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, MA, USA. p. 491 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316162934>
- [3] Huff, G., Majima, S., 2013. Financing Japan's World War II Occupation of Southeast Asia. *The Journal of Economic History*. 73(4), 937–977. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022050713000843>
- [4] Leirissa, R.Z., 2007. Transient and Enduring Legacies of World War II: The Case of Indonesia. In: Koh, D. (ed.). *Legacies of World War II in South and East Asia*. ISEAS Publishing: Singapore. pp. 36–46. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1355/9789812304575-007>
- [5] Huff, G., 2007. Financial transition in pre-World War II Japan and Southeast Asia. *Financial History Review*. 14(2), 149–175. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0968565007000522>
- [6] Huff, G., 2012. Export-led Growth, Gateway Cities and Urban Systems Development in Pre-World War II Southeast Asia. *Journal of Development Studies*. 48(10), 1431–1452. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2012.693171>
- [7] Balsas, C., 2020. An extended urban history review of Macao and Hong Kong through the end of the 20th century. *Revista de Cultura/Review of Culture*. 63, 1-10. Available from: <https://pure.ulster.ac.uk/ws/portalfiles/portal/135895777/3988.pdf> (cited 21 June 2025).
- [8] Yoshihara, K., 1981. Nomura's investment in Southeast Asia before World War II. *Southeast Asian Studies (Kyoto)*. 19(3), 346–357. Available from: <https://repository.kulib.kyoto-u.ac.jp/items/0e1a3948-2ec2-416d-a76a-9a248893418e> (cited 21 June 2025).
- [9] Huff, G., Caggiano, G., 2007. Globalization, Immigration, and Lewinian Elastic Labor in Pre-World War II Southeast Asia. *The Journal of Economic History*. 67(1), 33–68. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022050707000022>
- [10] Embong, A.R., Abdullah, Z., 2019. The Japanese invasion of Malaya in World War II: Anti-Japanese resistance and the Malay nationalist movement. In: Suchoples, J., James, S., Törnquist-Plewa, B. (eds.). *World War II Re-explored: Some New Millennium Studies in the History of the Global Conflict*. Peter Lang: Lausanne, Switzerland. pp. 135–148.
- [11] Jonge, H.D., 2011. Selective Accommodation: The Hadhramis in Indonesia During World War II and the Struggle for Independence. *Comparative Studies of South Asia, Africa and the Middle East*. 31(2), 343–354. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1215/1089201X-1264280>
- [12] Frey, M., Pruessen, R.W., Tan, T.Y., et al., 2003. *The transformation of Southeast Asia: International perspectives on decolonization*, 1st ed. Routledge: London, UK. p. 376.
- [13] Bu, L., Yip, K. (Eds.), 2014. *Public Health and National Reconstruction in Post-War Asia: International Influences, Local Transformations*, 1st ed. Routledge: London, UK. p. 218. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315867694>
- [14] Boissarie, D., 2015. Indochina during World War II: An economy under Japanese control. In: Boldorf, M., Okazaki, T. (eds.). *Economies under occupation: The hegemony of Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan in World War II*, 1st ed. Routledge: London, UK. pp. 232–244.
- [15] Kheng, C. B., 2007. The 'Black-out' Syndrome and the Ghosts of World War II: The War as a 'Divisive Issue' in Malaysia. In: Koh, D. (ed.). *Legacies of World War II in South and East Asia*. ISEAS Publishing: Singapore. pp. 47–59. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1355/9789812304575-008>
- [16] Horwitz, S., Mcphillips, M.J., 2013. The reality of the wartime economy: More historical evidence on whether World War II ended the Great Depression. *Independent Review*. 17(3), 325–347. Available from: https://www.independent.org/pdf/tir/tir_17_03_01_horwitz.pdf (cited 21 June 2025).
- [17] Huff, G., Angeles, L., 2011. Globalization, industrialization and urbanization in Pre-World War II Southeast Asia. *Explorations in Economic History*. 48(1), 20–36. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eeh.2010.08.001>
- [18] Hugo, G., 2004. International migration in Southeast Asia since World War II. In: Ananta, A., Nurvidya Arifin, E. (eds.). *International Migration in Southeast Asia since World War II*, in: *International Migration in Southeast Asia*. ISEAS Publishing: Singapore. pp. 28–70. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1355/9789812306234-007>
- [19] Gallyamova, D.K., 2016. New industrial countries in Southeast Asia: Specific aspects of industrialization thereof. *International Business Management*. 10(21), 5069-5073. Available from: <https://www.makhillpublications.co/files/published-files/mak-ibm/2016/21-5069-5073.pdf> (cited 21 June 2025).
- [20] Verburg, G. P., De Geus, A., 1990. Strongyloidiasis in ex-prisoners of war and ex-internees in Southeast Asia in World War II. *Nederlands Tijdschrift voor Geneeskunde*. 134(52), 2529–2533.
- [21] Knox, W.J., 1993. *Speculation Contrasting Experiences*

- of World War II and U.S. Servicemen of the Vietnam Era in Southeast Asia. *Psychological Reports*. 73(1), 137–138. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1993.73.1.137>
- [22] Nieuwenhof, F., 1984. Japanese film propaganda in world war II: Indonesia and Australia. *Historical Journal of Film, Radio and Television*. 4(2), 161–177. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/01439688400260161>
- [23] Alvah, D., 2012. U.S. military wives in the Philippines, from the Philippine war to World War II. In: Hacker, B., Vining, M. (eds.). *A Companion to Women's Military History*. pp. 431–452. BRILL: Leiden, Netherlands. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004206823>
- [24] Thompson, S., 2011. The Western powers and the development of regional cooperation in Southeast Asia: the international dimension, 1945–67. *Global Change, Peace & Security*. 23(1), 75–88. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/14781158.2011.540096>
- [25] Yasuda, N., 2002. Law and development from the Southeast Asian perspective: Methodology, history, and paradigm change. In: Antons, C. (ed.). *Law and development in East and South-East Asia*, 1st ed. Routledge: London, UK. p. 43. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203988947>
- [26] Danquah, F.K., 2005. Reports on Philippine Industrial Crops in World War II from Japan's English Language Press. *Agricultural History*. 79(1), 74–96. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1525/ah.2005.79.1.74>
- [27] Hormats, R., Ratner, A.M., 2011. World War II to 2011: Changes and Challenges in the Global Economy. *Business Economics*. 46(3), 144–153. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1057/be.2011.18>
- [28] Cassidy, S.P., MacLean, A., Denney, J.T., 2023. Military Service, Education, and Mortality Across Cohorts from World War II to the Post-Vietnam Era. *Population Research and Policy Review*. 42(4), 67. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11113-023-09815-w>
- [29] Arifin, A., 2020. From Malayan Union to Malayan Emergency: Nationalists' resistance and colonial reaction in post-war Malaya, 1946–1948. In: Gin, O.K. (ed.). *Malaysia and the Cold War Era*. Routledge: London, UK. pp. 144–180. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429455186>
- [30] Rudner, M., 1975. Financial policies in post-war Malaya: The fiscal and monetary measures of liberation and reconstruction. *The Journal of Imperial and Commonwealth History*. 3(3), 323–348. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/03086537508582436>
- [31] Rudner, M., 1970. Rubber Strategy for Post-War Malaya, 1945 – 48. *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*. 1(1), 23–36. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022463400000059>
- [32] Harper, T.N., 1990. The Politics of Disease and Disorder in Post-War Malaya. *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*. 21(1), 88–113. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022463400001971>
- [33] Wang, S., Mason, J., 1999. Elevations of Serum T3 Levels and Their Association With Symptoms in World War II Veterans With Combat-Related Posttraumatic Stress Disorder: Replication of Findings in Vietnam Combat Veterans. *Psychosomatic Medicine*. 61(2), 131–138. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1097/00006842-199903000-00001>
- [34] Turnbull, C.M., 1974. British Planning for Post-war Malaya. *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*. 5(2), 239–254. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022463400013904>
- [35] Lachmann, R., Mitchell, L., 2014. The Changing Face of War in Textbooks: Depictions of World War II and Vietnam, 1970–2009. *Sociology of Education*. 87(3), 188–203. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0038040714537526>
- [36] Haacker, L.P., 1969. Time and Its Effects on Casualties in World War II and Vietnam. *Archives of Surgery*. 98(1), 39. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1001/archsurg.1969.01340070057008>
- [37] Custis, V.D.L., 1990. Military Medicine From World War II to Vietnam. *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association*. 264(17), 2259. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.1990.03450170107031>
- [38] Weekley, K., 2006. The national or the social? problems of nation-building in post-world war II Philippines. *Third World Quarterly*. 27(1), 85–100. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590500369253>
- [39] Seng, L.K., 2016. Emergencies. *Asian Journal of Social Science*. 44(6), 684–710. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1163/15685314-04406004>
- [40] Roosa, J., 2007. Finalising the nation: The Indonesian military as the guarantor of national unity. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*. 48(1), 99–111. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8373.2007.00333.x>
- [41] Solomon, J., 2012. The Decline of Pan-Indian Identity and the Development of Tamil Cultural Separatism in Singapore, 1856–1965. *South Asia: Journal of South Asian Studies*. 35(2), 257–281. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00856401.2012.667365>
- [42] Turner, S., Pham, T.-T.-H., Hanh, N.T., 2020. The Territorialization of Vietnam's Northern Upland Frontier. *Migration and Society*. 3(1), 162–179. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3167/arms.2020.030113>
- [43] Earl, C., 2014. Life as lived and life as talked about: Family, love and marriage in twenty-first-century Vietnam. In: Kong, T.S.K., Lau, S.H.L., Li, E.C.Y. (eds.). *Routledge Handbook of Sexuality Studies in East Asia*. Routledge: London, UK. pp. 101–111.
- [44] Utter, G.H., Lee, T., Rivers, R.M., et al., 2008. Microchimerism decades after transfusion among combat-injured US veterans from the Vietnam, Korean, and World War II conflicts. *Transfusion*. 48(8), 1609–1615. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1537-2995.2008.01758>

- .x
- [45] Fontana, A., Rosenheck, R., 1994. Traumatic war stressors and psychiatric symptoms among World War II, Korean, and Vietnam War veterans. *Psychology and Aging*. 9(1), 27–33. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.9.1.27>
 - [46] Bonura, C., 2011. Political Science, the Anxiety of Interdisciplinary Engagement, and Southeast Asian Studies. In: Sears, L.J. (ed.). *Knowing Southeast Asian Subjects*. University of Washington Press: Washington, DC, USA. pp. 205–242. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1515/9780295804255-009>
 - [47] Donnelly, J., Hackler, R.H., Bunts, R.C., 1972. Present Urologic Status of the World War II Paraplegic : 25-Year Followup. Comparison with Status of the 20-Year Korean War Paraplegic and 5-Year Vietnam Paraplegic. *Journal of Urology*. 108(4), 558–562. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5347\(17\)60801-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5347(17)60801-2)
 - [48] Miller, D.J., Goreczny, A.J., Perconte, S.T., 1992. Comparison of symptom distress between World War II ex-POWs and Vietnam combat veterans with post-traumatic stress disorder. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*. 6(1), 41–46. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0887-6185\(92\)90024-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0887-6185(92)90024-2)
 - [49] Fettling, D., 2013. J.B. Chifley and the Indonesian Revolution, 1945–1949. *Australian Journal of Politics & History*. 59(4), 517–531. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajph.12030>
 - [50] Chan, Y.W., 2013. *Vietnamese-Chinese Relationships at the Borderlands*. Routledge: London, UK. pp. 1-148. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203761991>
 - [51] Li, D., Yu, H., Li, X., 2017. The spatial-temporal pattern analysis of city development in countries along the Belt and Road Initiative based on nighttime light data. *Wuhan Daxue Xuebao (Xinxi Kexue Ban)/Geomatics and Information Science of Wuhan University*. 42(6), 711–720. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.13203/j.whugis20170100>
 - [52] Roy, K., 2010. Discipline and Morale of the African, British and Indian Army units in Burma and India during World War II: July 1943 to August 1945. *Modern Asian Studies*. 44(6), 1255–1282. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0026749X1000003X>
 - [53] Kakizaki, I., 2015. Scramble for Thai railways between Thailand and Japan during World War II: How did Thailand recapture and maintain its train operations? *Japanese Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*. 52(2), 137–171. DOI: https://doi.org/10.20495/tak.52.2_137