

**SOCIOECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND SUBJECTIVE  
WELL-BEING OF THE DISPLACED COMMUNITY IN  
PUTRAJAYA, MALAYSIA**

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**FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS  
UNIVERSITI MALAYA  
KUALA LUMPUR**

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# **SOCIOECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF THE DISPLACED COMMUNITY IN PUTRAJAYA, MALAYSIA**

## **ABSTRACT**

Issues of socioeconomic conditions and subjective well-being (SWB) of development-induced displacement due to out-migration of plantation workers have hardly been discussed in the context of Malaysian rubber plantations. Indeed, the available evidence on this community is reflected only in anecdotal evidence and a piecemeal approach in the media public. This reflects the lack of understanding of the true socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community for any policy intervention by policy makers. This study therefore seeks to examine the socioeconomic conditions and SWB, particularly life satisfaction, as well as the drivers of SWB in the Indian displaced community in Malaysia. In addition to assessing the socioeconomic conditions and SWB of the study group, the study also examines the intergenerational mobility of the community. The study uses a mixed-methods approach, employing both qualitative and quantitative methods, using a combination of questionnaire survey and interviews. The study uses the displaced community in Taman Permata, which was displaced from three main settlements, as a case study for the research. The main findings of the study indicate that the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community have not improved significantly. For example, the income level of the displaced community remains low, with an average income of RM 722 and a median income of RM 625, which is below the national level. Experience also does not contribute to income differences in the displaced community, suggesting that the community is trapped in an occupational class where experience does not matter. There is also a large income gap between men and women. Almost 96% of households also have no other sources of income, with 75% of households unable to survive without income for more than 1 month. Similarly, lack of financial stability is one of the critical factors for the community. In terms of intergenerational

mobility, there has not been much progress in the community as a whole, especially in terms of educational mobility which limits income opportunities. It is also noted that the community has a high school dropout rate - almost 28%. The main reasons for dropping out of school are financial and family problems, which account for 53%. There is also a lack of social support and network, which limits the possibility of seeking additional help. More importantly, safety in their neighbourhood was mentioned as one of the main problems - gangsterism and robbery are the biggest safety issues. Although the socio-economic factors did not show much progress, selected segments of the community shows some very positive attitudes towards their subjective well-being. Financial instability, family relationships, the physical environment and relationships with neighbours were found to be the most important factors for SWB. This suggests that the social network was key to improving the SWB of the displaced community as they were displaced from the settlements. Income, gender, household size and education do not seem to explain SWB. The study concludes with policy implications and future research directions. It is crucial to improve access to education, income opportunities and the overall living environment to improve the socio-economic conditions and subjective well-being of the community.

Keywords: Malaysia, Indian Community/Plantation Workers, Migration Development Induced Displacement, SWB, Intergenerational mobility, Socio-economic.

**KEADAAN SOSIOEKONOMI DAN KESEJATHERAAN SUBJEKTIF:  
PENGALAMAN KOMUNITI PEMINGGIRAN PEMBANGUNAN DI  
PUTRAJAYA, MALAYSIA**

**ABSTRAK**

Isu keadaan sosioekonomi dan kesejahteraan subjektif (SWB) akibat penghijrahan keluar pekerja ladang India hampir tidak dibincangkan dalam konteks Malaysia. Sesungguhnya, bukti semasa yang ada mengenai komuniti ini hanya dicerminkan dengan bukti anekdot dan pendekatan tidak menyeluruh di khalayak media. Ini mencerminkan kurangnya pemahaman tentang keadaan sosioekonomi sebenar masyarakat yang dipindahkan untuk sebarang campur tangan dasar oleh pembuat dasar. Oleh itu, kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji keadaan sosioekonomi dan SWB, khususnya kepuasan hidup, serta pemacu SWB dalam komuniti India di Malaysia. Di samping menilai keadaan sosioekonomi dan SWB komuniti ini, kajian ini juga mengkaji mobiliti antara generasi masyarakat. Kajian ini menggunakan pendekatan kaedah campuran, menggunakan kaedah kualitatif dan kuantitatif, menggunakan gabungan tinjauan soal selidik dan temu bual. Kajian ini menggunakan komuniti India di Taman Permata, yang dipindahkan dari tiga perladangan utama, sebagai kajian kes untuk penyelidikan. Penemuan utama kajian menunjukkan bahawa keadaan sosioekonomi komuniti ini tidak bertambah baik dengan ketara. Sebagai contoh, tahap pendapatan komuniti ini kekal rendah, dengan purata pendapatan RM 722 dan median pendapatan RM 625, iaitu di bawah peringkat kebangsaan. Pengalaman pekerjaan juga tidak menyumbang kepada perbezaan pendapatan dalam komuniti ini, menunjukkan bahawa komuniti itu terperangkap dalam kelas pekerjaan di mana pengalaman tidak penting. Terdapat juga jurang pendapatan yang besar antara lelaki dan wanita. Hampir 96% isi rumah juga tidak mempunyai sumber pendapatan lain, dengan 75% isi rumah tidak dapat menampung kehidupan tanpa

pendapatan selama lebih dari 1 bulan. Kekurangan kestabilan kewangan adalah salah satu faktor kritikal bagi masyarakat ini. Dari segi mobiliti antara generasi, tidak banyak kemajuan yang dicapai dalam masyarakat secara keseluruhan terutama dari segi mobiliti pendidikan yang menghadkan peluang pendapatan. Bukti juga menunjukkan bahawa masyarakat ini mempunyai kadar keciciran sekolah tinggi - hampir 28%. Sebab utama berhenti sekolah adalah masalah kewangan dan keluarga, yang menyumbang 53%. Terdapat juga kekurangan sokongan sosial dan rangkaian, yang menghadkan kemungkinan mendapatkan bantuan tambahan. Lebih penting lagi, keselamatan di kawasan kejiranan komuniti ini adalah salah satu masalah utama - gangsterisme dan rompakan adalah isu keselamatan terbesar. Walaupun faktor sosioekonomi tidak menunjukkan banyak kemajuan, segolongan isi rumah menunjukkan beberapa sikap yang sangat positif terhadap kesejahteraan subjektif mereka. Walaubagaimanapun, ketidakstabilan kewangan, hubungan kekeluargaan, persekitaran fizikal dan hubungan dengan jiran didapati menjadi faktor terpenting bagi SWB. Ini menunjukkan bahawa rangkaian sosial adalah kunci untuk meningkatkan SWB komuniti tersebut. Kajian ini diakhiri dengan implikasi dasar dan hala tuju penyelidikan masa hadapan. Adalah penting untuk meningkatkan akses kepada pendidikan, peluang pendapatan dan persekitaran hidup secara keseluruhan untuk memperbaiki keadaan sosioekonomi dan kesejahteraan subjektif masyarakat.

Katakunci: Peminggiran pembangunan, Kesejahteraan Subjektif, Mobiliti antara generasi, Sosioekonomi.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>Abstrak</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>Table of Contents</b> .....	<b>ix</b>
<b>List of Figures</b> .....	<b>xiii</b>
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	<b>xiv</b>
<b>List of Abbreviations</b> .....	<b>xvi</b>
<b>List of Appendices</b> .....	<b>xvii</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The Historical Context of the Plantation Displaced Community in Malaysia.....	3
1.2.1 Background of Putrajaya Development and the Context.....	10
1.3 Study Background.....	12
1.4 Problem Statement .....	14
1.5 Research Questions .....	18
1.6 Objectives of the Study .....	20
1.7 Research Methodology.....	21
1.7.1 Case Study and Criteria of Case Selection.....	21
1.8 Significance of the study .....	23
1.9 Organization of the study .....	24
<b>CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	<b>27</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	27
2.2 Definition of Displacement and Types of Displacements.....	27
2.3 Theories and Models of Displacements .....	32
2.3.1 Four-Stage Model .....	32

2.3.2 The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations	33
2.3.2.1 Landlessness	34
2.3.2.2 Joblessness	35
2.3.2.3 Homelessness	35
2.3.2.4 Marginalization	36
2.3.2.5 Increased Morbidity and Mortality	36
2.3.2.6 Food Insecurity	37
2.3.2.7 Loss of access to common property and services	38
2.3.2.8 Social Disarticulation	38
2.4 Implications of Displacement on Socioeconomic Conditions	40
2.4.1 Income	42
2.4.2 Savings	44
2.4.3 Borrowings	44
2.4.4 Education	45
2.4.5 Health Accessibility	46
2.4.6 Social Network, Safety and Security	47
2.5 Perceived Future of Children and Intergenerational Mobility	48
2.5.1 Intergenerational mobility in Income	49
2.5.2 Intergenerational mobility in Education	50
2.6 Definition of Well-being	51
2.7 Subjective Well-being (SWB)	53
2.8 Subjective well-Being and Development Induced Displacement	59
2.9 Summary	61
<b>CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>62</b>
3.1 Introduction	62
3.2 Research Paradigm and Approach	62

3.4	Conceptual Framework of the Study: Socioeconomic Conditions and SWB .....	68
3.4.1	Demographic Dimension .....	71
3.4.2	Economic Dimension .....	72
3.4.3	Social Dimension .....	77
3.4.4	Population of the study .....	83
3.5	Data Collection Method .....	84
3.5.1	Interviewer Administrated Questionnaire .....	84
3.5.2	Enumerators .....	85
3.5.3	In-depth Interview .....	86
3.5.4	Survey Questionnaire .....	87
3.5.5	Observation .....	91
3.5.6	Measurements .....	91
3.5.7	Data Entry and Cleaning Process .....	96
3.5.8	Data Analysis Methods and Techniques .....	97
3.5.7.1	Descriptive Statistics Analysis .....	97
3.5.7.2	Statistics Analysis .....	98
3.5.7.3	Qualitative Analysis .....	101
3.6	Summary .....	102
 <b>CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS: SOCIOECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND INTERGENERATIONAL MOBILITY .....</b>		<b>103</b>
4.1	Introduction .....	103
4.2	Profile of the Respondents .....	103
4.3	Exploring the Socioeconomic Conditions .....	106
4.3.1	Income and Financial Conditions .....	107
4.3.2	Intergenerational Mobility – Education and Income .....	116
4.3.3	Health, Social Support and Security and Safety .....	124

4.3.4	Determinants of Income and Financial Conditions .....	131
4.3.4.1	Income Earnings .....	131
4.3.4.2	Financial Stability .....	133
4.4	Summary .....	134
<b>CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS: SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND IT'S DETERMINANTS .....</b>		<b>135</b>
5.1	Introduction .....	135
5.2	State of SWB of Displaced Community and Heterogeneity of SWB .....	135
5.3	Determinants of SWB .....	144
5.4	Summary .....	148
<b>CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS .....</b>		<b>149</b>
6.1	Introduction .....	149
6.1.1	Key Finding 1– Economic and Social Conditions .....	151
6.1.2	Key Finding 2 - Perceived children future and intergeneration mobility... ..	153
6.1.3	Key Finding 3 - Assessment of SWB and the drivers of SWB .....	154
6.2	Policy Implications .....	160
6.2.1	Setting up DID Monitoring and Support Center System .....	160
6.2.2	Economic attainment and job skills .....	161
6.2.3	Empowerment of Education .....	163
6.2.4	Financial Literacy .....	164
6.2.5	Environment and Safety .....	165
6.3	Limitations and Future Studies .....	166
6.4	Summary .....	168
<b>References .....</b>		<b>169</b>
<b>APPENDIX .....</b>		<b>195</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Implications of Development-Induced Displacement	34
Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework	68
Figure 3.2: Study Location and Area	78
Figure 3.3: The Permata Flats	78
Figure 4.1: Earning out of Employment, Head of Household and Children	104
Figure 4.2: Household Income, Mean and Median	105
Figure 4.3: Intergenerational Mobility in Education, Parents vs. Children	113
Figure 4.4: Mean and Median Income, Parents and Children	115
Figure 4.5: Social Network and Trust within the Nearest Agents	121
Figure 5.1: SWB Distribution, Density	134
Figure 5.2: Overall Life Satisfaction for Malaysia	136

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Malaya: Estate Labour Population, 1938-1947	4
Table 1.2: Total Employment and Distribution, Ethnicity, Plantation Sector	5
Table 3.1: Research Objectives and the Methods	67
Table 3.2: Variable, Measurements and Types	92
Table 3.3: Score Measurements	96
Table 4.2: Demographic of the Displaced Community in Taman Permata	104
Table 4.1: Head of Household, Education, Occupation and Working Sector	106
Table 4.2: Other Sources of Income, Displaced Community	112
Table 4.3: Income Sustainability of the Households	114
Table 4.4: Current Financial Condition Compared to 5 years back.	115
Table 4.5: Financial Position	116
Table 4.6: Education Intergenerational Mobility, Parents and Children (%)	119
Table 4.7: Head of Household Confidence Level about Children's Future	121
Table 4.8: Reasons for Pessimistic Views About Children's Future	122
Table 4.9: School Dropouts, Beyond Secondary Education Attainment and Reasons	123
Table 4.10: Health Care Expenses and Protection	124
Table 4.11: Support System of the Displaced Community, Percentage Difference between False and Definitely True Responses	127
Table 4.12: Security and Safety Issues	128
Table 4.13: Occurrence of Safety Issues	131
Table 4.14: Determinants of Head of Household Income Earnings	133
Table 4.15: Determinants of Financial Stability	134
Table 5.1: SWB of the Sampled Respondents	136
Table 5.2: Distribution of SWB, by Satisfaction Classification	138

Table 5.3: Responses by Dimensions	140
Table 5.4: Distribution of Decent Living Standards	143
Table 5.5: Satisfaction – Family, Neighbour and Surrounding Environment	144
Table 5.6: SWB Determinants – Role of Family, Environment, Financial Stability and Neighbour	146
Table 5.7: SWB Determinants (Individual SWB)	148
Table 6.1: Summary of the Findings	157

Universiti Malaya



## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DID	:	Development Induced Displacement
IAQ	:	Interviewer administrated questionnaire
IDP	:	Internally Displaced People
IRR	:	The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations
KL	:	Kuala Lumpur
MSC	:	Multimedia Super Corridor
SEC	:	Socioeconomic Conditions
SWB	:	Subjective Wellbeing

Universiti Malaysia

## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire Survey .....	190
Appendix 2: Questions and Sources .....	200

Universiti Malaya

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

Development induced displacement (DID) is often overlooked in comparison to other types of displacement, such as displacement due to natural disasters and war. Christopher (1996) emphasised the urgent need to focus on DID because it is responsible for more displacement worldwide. One of the main factors for the occurrence of such an event is due to development. Stanley (2004) pointed out that many scholars, activists, and authors consider development displacements to be those who are forced to relocate because they lost their homes for development projects. This occurs when a group of people who have inhabited an area for generations (e.g., tribal people or a plantation community) are forced to vacate their homes in order to give them up for development.

These developments are limited to events such as the development of a new city, the construction of new dams, railroads, and so on. Displacement is the relocation of a group of people from their current homes so that the piece of land in question can be transformed and replaced by new projects (Drydyk, 2007). According to Satiroglu & Choi (2015), displacement can vary in size, from small infrastructure or mining projects to mega hydropower plants; it can be public or private organisations, well planned or rushed. The above authors again point out that awareness of DID remains low even after years and decades of research. Smith (2001) states that uprooting and displacement are among the central experiences of modernity and that millions of people around the world are displaced from their local lives by displacement. Smith went on to state that this group is often given a new place to live, but it is unfamiliar and separates them from their local life. When a community is forced to leave the place where they have lived for generations,

they are forced to adapt to the unfamiliar environment that the new place provides. Rodman (1992) mentioned that "the most powerless people have no place at all," suggesting that these people are either at the mercy of the authorities to receive good compensation from the authority itself or from the developer of the area. The majority of people who have to migrate, as well as other people in the area such as host communities, often face very negative consequences. People are often left socially and institutionally disrupted as well as economically deprived, and the community still suffers from infrastructure and increased overcrowding in the areas to which people have been forcibly relocated (De Wet, 2006; Selvi & Katimah, 2012).

As a result, many of these people resist displacement because it affects not only their homes, but other aspects of their lives such as their income, social environment, physiology, and other factors over which they have little control (Fisher, 1999). When a community is relocated to a new environment with a new way of life, they struggle to adapt to the relocation. Cernea (1996) notes that resettlement dismantles existing modes of production, disrupts social networks, impoverishes many uprooted people, threatens their cultural identity, and increases the risk of epidemics and health problems. When development or economic structural change occurs in a place, there will always be conflict between those who want to develop or change the structure of a place and those who are affected by the changes. The process of transformation that accompanies development does not proceed without considerable cultural and social discontinuity, and not infrequently without conflict (Moore, 1966; Wolf, 1982). This displacement not only disrupts sociological factors such as the sense of belonging to one another, the need to adapt to a new environment, but it also has an economic impact as those affected must find ways to find employment in a new place and cover other costs associated with displacement.

When DID is in effect, a whole new dimension of life opens up for the affected community, causing them to adapt to a new place with an unfamiliar environment that is different from the one they have been exposed to for decades. This study aims to further investigate the current situation of such communities in terms of their socio-economic conditions. In doing so, the study will go a step further and analyse the subjective well-being (SWB) of such communities in the context of Malaysia.

A common cause of DID in Malaysia is the construction of dams and fragmentation of rubber plantations, either for the development of townships or cities or for conversion to oil palm cultivation. New towns such as Shah Alam, Bukit Jalil, and Bandar Bukit Tinggi are among the few communities that have emerged from the rubble of such rubber plantations. These urban developments have displaced many people from the rubber plantations. The purpose of this study is to examine one such displaced community in Malaysia. Understanding the history of rubber plantations in Malaysia is crucial as it will provide a basis for further discussion and explanation of the DID of the selected site and an overview of the lifestyle of the rubber plantation communities. This will form the basis for further analysis after displacement. It is also important to understand the chronology of rubber plantations in Malaysia, as many of the current DID cases have survived from the colonisation period.

## **1.2 The Historical Context of the Plantation Displaced Community in Malaysia**

This section presents the history of plantation workers from the period of British colonial rule to set the stage for the study. Although the study will assess the current socio-economic conditions of the displaced community, understanding the historical account of the displaced community will provide background for the readers. The next section

describes the target audience of the study in more detail. The target population of the study is former plantation workers who were displaced from their rubber plantation land.

From a historical perspective, Malaysian Indians were the main population in the rubber plantations. It is a fact that Indian workers were the main labour force for the plantation economy in the Malay states under British protection, especially in rubber production since the late 19th and early 20th century (Sundra Raja & Raymond, 2018). Most of the Malaysian Indians were employed by the British government to work in the rubber plantations in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Many Indians living in Malaysia are descendants from southern India. Under the Indentured and Kangany systems, Indian labourers were assigned to work on various plantations, most of them on the rubber plantations (Arasaratnam, 1970). Apart from the rubber plantations, they also provided labour for the maintenance of the European plantations, the construction and maintenance of roads and railroads, and enabled the functioning of public utilities and services. They were mainly found in Selangor, Perak, Kedah, Negeri Sembilan, Penang, and Johor. These Indian migrants formed the largest group of plantation workers during this period (see Table 1.1).

**Table 1.1: Malaya: Estate Labour Population, 1938-1947**

<b>Ethnic Group</b>	<b>1938</b>	<b>1941</b>	<b>1946</b>
Indians	214,323	209,871	137,027
Chinese	57,897	61,257	51,651
Malays	15,230	18,474	21,258
Javanese	8,699	10,215	8,680
Others	1,221	293	235
Total	297,370	300,110	218,851

Source: Gamba, 1962

By 1960, many of these Indians had made up a large portion of the population in the rubber plantations. Table 1.2 shows that by the 1960s, ethnic Indians in Malaysia comprised nearly 50% of the plantation sector population. In the 1970s, plantations were

the main source of income for many Indians in Malaysia. According to Mid-Term Review, Second Malaysian Plan (1973: p. 77; 1974: p. 17), nearly 46% of Indians in Malaysia were employed in plantation activities.

**Table 1.2: Total Employment and Distribution, Ethnicity, Plantation Sector**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total Employed</b>	<b>Malay</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>Indian</b>	<b>Others</b>
1950	310,247	20.6	28	47.9	3.5
1955	309,198	17.3	28.8	53.3	0.6
1960	314,440	20.7	29.3	49.6	0.4

Source: Gamba, 1962

The British companies owning the plantations provided houses and other basic amenities to the workers on the plantations themselves. This system was practised and some generations of Indians have lived on the rubber plantations for many years. One of the main reasons for this is that the plantations are very isolated and far from the city centre, and it is easy for the employer to house and monitor the workers in one area. Housing the workers locally allowed the employers to control the workers (Ramachandran, 1994). This allowed workers to build strong ties to the place where their second and third generations were later born and raised. These bonds become even stronger when temples and schools are built in the settlements. Nagarajan claims that these plantations have become akin to their homeland for their generation and for the coming generation (Nagarajan, 2004).

Because these workers are isolated from the mainstream of other socioeconomic aspects, they are now highly dependent on the plantation administration for their jobs and housing. This dependency continues from one generation to the next. The practise of the son of an estate worker taking his place when his father retires has increased the dependence on the estate administration (Gordon, 1970).

The problem for these workers began after Malaysia's independence in 1957. Many British companies that held major stakes in the rubber plantations before Malaysia's independence sold their land. The new owners subdivided the lands for many other economic activities such as urban development or converted them into palm oil plantations. Many of these lands were purchased by local government consortia. These buyouts by local companies, especially those affiliated with the government, should have raised positive hopes for existing plantation workers. Unfortunately, this has not materialised as expected. The incident of the famous London Raid is a good example. After the Local Government Link Companies took control, the situation of the plantation workers worsened compared to the time when the British companies managed the plantations. It was mentioned that the new management maintained a very submissive workforce that was unable to articulate their rights and continued to be subjected to poor living and working conditions, including inadequate welfare and doctrinal offices (Tate, 2008). The industrialization policies of Mahathir Mohamad (who was prime minister from 1981 to 2003) began to have a more vigorous impact in the 1990s. This has resulted in many of these plantations becoming more fragmented. The government-owned companies want to realise and achieve the ambitious project of making Malaysia an industrialised country by 2020. This has resulted in many of the rubber plantations falling and being given to new townships and housing estates. Studies by Nagarajan (2007) and Manickam (2009) mentioned how residents of the Bukit Jelutong settlement in Shah Alam, Selangor, were razed to the ground by bulldozers without notice in June 2002 after negotiations had been stalled for several years.

In addition to urban development, the conversion of rubber cultivation to palm oil has also played a role in displacing many workers from rubber plantations. Palm oil makes



an important contribution to the country's economy, which is why many plantations have been converted from rubber to palm oil. These palm oil plantations do not require many workers compared to rubber plantations, so many workers who were previously dependent on rubber have lost their jobs. The decline in the price of rubber on the world market and the changes in economic activities due to government-sponsored economic programmes that converted many of these plantations into industrial, commercial and residential areas led to a sharp decline in the number of plantations. According to the Monthly Rubber Statistics report, 2004: 24, employment in rubber plantations declined from 163,577 in 1979 to 11,788 in January 2006. Between 1980 and 2000, it is estimated that more than 300,000 Indians were displaced by this type of industrial development (Centre for Public Policy, 2006).

Many of these rubber plantations underwent transformation or structural change in economic terms. Some of the lands have been converted from rubber plantations to palm oil plantations, mainly operated by the private sector. Some have been transformed from rubber plantations to townships by the private sector. In addition to the private sector, states also play some role in changing the economic structure of an area. The Bukit Jalil area was transformed from a rubber plantation to a site for the National Sports Complex. All these developments have forced the Indian community to leave the plantations that were their home for many years.

The social problem described above worsened when the lands were converted from rubber plantations to other economic activities. "Thousands of Indians lost their jobs and homes when the lands were converted into industrial and residential areas," but there was no attempt to help them integrate into society, no attempt to get them jobs. So they lived in poverty and turned to gangsters to make ends meet." (Pasupathi, 2018). At this point,

it should be noted that these plantation workers not only lost their jobs, but also other basic amenities such as houses provided to them by the previous owner. These workers lived in the plantation houses for generations. Structural changes in the economy also caused them to give up another source of income, such as farming, poultry raising, or the opportunity to work a part-time job to supplement their income during the day. Nair (2000) noted that when an estate is sold, the estate workers lose not only their jobs but also their homes and additional sources of income from farming and livestock.

In Malaysia, the Employee Regulations 1980 helps workers receive some compensation when their services are terminated. Shri Dewi, Asan Ali, & Muszafarshah, (2008) elaborated on the law and stated that a worker who has worked continuously for five or more years is entitled to at least 20 days' wages per year. However, this compensation is not enough and does not last long, so the community faces a problem of sustainability. Many studies focus on the period before displacement, but not on the period after displacement. Shri Dewi, Asan Ali & Muszafarshah (2008) pointed out that many studies on displaced people in Malaysia focus on rubber plantation workers and do not consider the post-displacement period.

Currently, Malaysian Indians are facing various problems after Malaysia's independence. The percentage of Malaysian Indians in the total population was 15% in 1921, and this number declined to 11.3% by 1957. A further decline was recorded in 1970 to 10.6% according to the report of Dorothy, Amos, & Silvia, December (1975). Currently, the percentage of Indians is the lowest it has been since 1957. The percentage of Indian population in the total population of Malaysia was 7% in 2016 (Malaysia, 2017). In fact, their share has decreased from 7.3% in 2010 (Department of Statistics Malaysia Official Portal, 2011).

According to the 10-year Malaysian Indian Blueprint which was launched by the government in April 2017, the number of primary school dropouts among Malaysian Indians is 13%. At the secondary level, the dropout rate is 8%. At the national level, the dropout rate is 1% and 3%, respectively. The national average pass rate for the UPSR (public examination for Year 6 students) is 66%, but Indian students have a lower pass rate than this; in 2015, the pass rate for all subjects was 54%. For the SPM (equivalent to GSCE O Level), only 45% of Indians pass all subjects, below the national average of 55%.

As for unemployment, 14.5% of Indians are unemployed. This figure is relatively higher than that of Malays/Bumiputra, which is 11.6%, and 8% for ethnic Chinese. More worrisome are the statistics on crime and criminological activities. Compared to their overall population of only 7% in the country, 31% of Indians were arrested for involvement in violent crimes in 2014. In addition, Indians make up 70% of criminal gang members in the country. With only 7% or less than 2.5 million of the total population and being the third largest ethnic group, Indians dominate many areas of negative and illegal activities in Malaysia. The cause of most of the problems lies in the development or change of the landscape of economic activities in the rubber plantations. Oorjitham (1993) pointed out that land fragmentation and displacement have resulted in far worse consequences such as low incomes, high cost of living, and organised crime.

Based on the above observations on the socioeconomic problems of Malaysian Indians, this study focuses on Indians in Malaysia, particularly the workers displaced from the rubber plantations. One such case that this study focuses on is the displaced community due to development in Putrajaya. To better understand the displacement of the community

due to the development of Putrajaya, it is important to know the background of the development of this modern city of Putrajaya. This sets the stage for a deeper understanding of the displaced community.

### **1.2.1 Background of Putrajaya Development and the Context**

The idea of having an administrative city for Malaysia emerged in the early 1990s. Kuala Lumpur (KL), the administrative capital, developed rapidly, especially after independence. KL's growth accelerated in the 1980s with more skylines, high-rise office buildings, and a faster increase in population. The population doubled from 300,000 people in 1957 to 600,000 in 1975 (Putrajaya Holdings Sdn. Bhd, 2003). The conversion of the Malaysian economy from agriculture to manufacturing and the massive influx of foreign direct investment has driven the growth of KL. In the last decade of the 20th century, the population of KL has already surpassed the 1 million mark. Apart from the growing population and heavy traffic, the lack of land for further expansion prompted Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad to find a solution to all these problems. In addition, the Economic Planning Unit of the federal government has projected a population growth of 0.5% for the period 1990 to 2020 (Putrajaya Holdings Sdn. Bhd, 2003). This increases the pressure on already congested and scarce land. Based on the experiences of other cities around the world<sup>1</sup>, two criteria have been established for the new administrative city of Malaysia. The first criterion is that the new location should be close to Kuala

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<sup>1</sup> The experience of USA shifted their capital to Washington DC, The Canadians to Ottawa, The British-India from Calcutta to New Delhi, Turkey from Istanbul to Ankara, Canberra for Australia, Brazil to Rio de Janeiro and few other countries has been studied for this purpose.

Lumpur, part of Malaysia's financial center. The second criterion is that the new city should be a pure government city and have a vibrant commercial component.

Apart from the above factors, Mahathir Mohamad, the father of Malaysia's modernization, embarked on this mega project to show the world that Malaysia is an advanced, sophisticated, and technologically advanced nation where tradition and Muslim culture are strongly embedded (Moser, 2010). The Putrajaya site is close to the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC), which stretches from Kuala Lumpur to Sepang International Airport. MSC is seen as the Silicon Valley of Malaysia to attract high-tech investors and provide the country with a knowledge-based economy (Morshidi & Pandian, 2007). It is seen as a way to attract world attention to Malaysia. The city of Putrajaya was also an ambitious mega project of Mahathir Mohamad to establish Malaysia as a progressive Muslim country on the world map. Tajuddin (2005) & Nas (2007) pointed out that, unlike many other Southeast Asian countries that adopt vernacular architectural concepts, Putrajaya rejects such forms. On the other hand, it has strongly adapted Middle Eastern concepts and structures.

In view of the above aspirations, eight sites were selected as prospects for the new city. Of the eight sites, Sepang district was selected. Located between Kuala Lumpur and the national airport, Sepang district is a perfect choice as it is only half an hour away by car. In addition, this area is close to the Smart City Cyberjaya. Sepang District, which has been narrowed down to a 4,931 square kilometer area in Prang Besar, was the ideal choice for the new cities' development. There are a few plantations in this area, namely Prang Besar Estate, Estate Galloway, Estate Sedgeley and Estate Madingley with a total of 400 families, most of whom are Indians who have lived and worked on the rubber plantations for generations. In the process of developing this mega-project, all these families were

displaced. Bunnell (2002) has mentioned that this project has displaced about 2400 plantation workers. Putrajaya Holdings (the company set up by the government to develop it), through Permodalan Negeri Selangor Berhad (the investment arm of the Selangor state government), decided to make the Taman Permata housing estate in Dengkil, Selangor, a new settlement to relocate the plantation residents (Narayanan & Rostam. 2017). All these families were relocated to a residential house in Taman Permata, Dengkil, between 1998 and 1999.

The Putrajaya area is designed in such a way that the Malay reserve is not affected and its status quo as a Malay reserve village is maintained. The eight villages that will be adjacent to this town are Kampung Limau Manis, Kampung Datuk Abu Bakar Baginda, Rancangan Kemajuan Tanag Sungai Merab, Kampung Pulau Meranti, Kampung Datuk Ahmad Ghazali, Kampung Tok Aminuddin, Kampung Sungai Merab and Jederam Hilir (Putrajaya Holdings Sdn.Bhd, 2003). These Malay villages are untouched by Putrajaya, but the plantation settlements, of which the majority are Indians, were relocated for the development of the city, so these are the affected group by displacement.

### **1.3 Study Background**

The residents of the four estates mentioned above moved to the new location in 1999. They are given flats (low-cost unit houses) to replace their former plantation houses. As part of the land acquisition, the workers receive compensation in the form of money, and unlike many other displacements; these workers received a three-bedroom flat. The compensation with flat and compensation should be a good deal compared to many other displaced communities or groups but after more than 20 years there are many problems plaguing the displaced community here. The problems have been highlighted many times

in the media such as newspapers, television news, and also in other social media. Although they have been provided with a flat, this was only meant to be a temporary measure. The community was asked to move out of their plantations (Times, 2012), but so far the promise has not been fulfilled. In addition, the flats they are currently living in are in deplorable condition. It was also pointed out that the houses have cracks in the wall, blocked drains, poor rubbish disposal, and broken sewage pipes (Online, 2011). The situation worsens when about 80 families have to be housed in tents because of the security problems in their homes (Awani, 2013). Crime and school dropouts are the order of the day here. Many children have no choice but to drop out of school to take care of their siblings when their parents are away earning money. In addition, social problems, especially fights among youths, are commonplace here. Andrew (2014) notes that the youths loiter in the car park without doing anything that benefits them. He also pointed out that the gathering of people with intense (rival) relationships in all four settlements has further exacerbated social problems in Taman Permata.

This study, therefore, examines how this community copes with its new environment in terms of socio-economic conditions. In addition, the current SWB of the community is examined to gain a better understanding of the political implications of displacement. SWB is a term used to describe how people think about and evaluate different aspects of their lives. It is often used to assess psychological well-being and satisfaction and is a good predictor of personal health, well-being and life expectancy. It consists of two components, affective balance (positive and negative affect) and life satisfaction (Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2011). Affective balance refers to the emotions, moods and feelings a person has at a particular time or on a particular day. Life satisfaction, on the other hand, is the way a person views their life and evaluates how well it is going according to the standards they believe are most important for a happy life. This study examines SWB in relation to the life satisfaction of the displaced community. Therefore, the study focuses

on the progress of the generation that came out of the plantation and the progress of the subsequent generation after displacement almost 20 years ago in terms of socio-economic and SWB. SWB here refers to the assessment of their life satisfaction in relation to life in the displaced society.

#### **1.4 Problem Statement**

The issues related to DID are rarely discussed compared to those displaced by natural disasters and war-related displacement. One of the main reasons for this is that in this type of displacement, there is an expectation of a smooth transition from the original place to the new place. This expectation is based on the idea that such displacement is well planned, unlike sudden events such as natural disasters or war-related displacement. In fact, it is assumed that DIDs are well planned and all aspects and consequences of such events are considered by the movers, especially if the movers are the government or the authorities themselves. Government involvement in taking over land and houses and relocating people should have positive outcomes rather than negative consequences. This is especially important for a community that has inhabited the area for decades. It is expected that the government's involvement in providing alternative compensation, especially in building new houses, will improve the socio-economic situation and happiness of the displaced group. The question here, in reality, does such improvement in the socio-economic situation and SWB actually exist? The issues related to DID are rarely discussed compared to those displaced by natural disasters and war-related displacement. One of the main reasons for this is that in this type of displacement, there is an expectation of a smooth transition from the original place to the new place. This expectation is based on the idea that such displacement is well planned, unlike sudden



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In most cases, the community affected by displacement through development faces various challenges. These challenges do not vary much from one area to another. In his book, Willford (2014) has mentioned problems such as unemployment, underpayment, housing problems, problems in relocating schools and temples, demolition of plantation workers without proper notice and no proper compensation for the displaced as some of the problems.

In the Malaysian context, not much attention has been paid to the problem of displacement or ways to address the problem. Although displacement is considered an old problem by many scholars who have taken a historical perspective, this study finds that the problem has intergenerational implications in the study of poverty and income inequality. It shows that displacement is not only a problem for those who have been directly displaced but also has an impact on the next generation. In addition, those who are displaced tend to settle in urban areas, which leads to youth becoming alienated from social culture, the economy, and education, especially when their parents work long hours to meet the high

cost of living in urban areas and cannot pay much attention to their children.  
(Cpps.org.my., 2010)

The conversion of rubber plantations into housing estates and golf courses has displaced plantation workers who have migrated to urban centers. As a result, urban Indian ghettos have emerged and crime has escalated (Anjum, 2007). Once the plantations are replaced, either by the companies themselves converting from rubber to palm oil or by converting the plantations to other development such as housing estates or for other purposes, these Indian communities have been displaced and left behind in many socio-economic aspects. Building regions often leads to socio-economic imbalances that exclude low-income earners from the benefits of development. In Malaysia, an example of this is the territorial and cultural displacement of Indian plantation workers due to rapid economic growth and urbanization (Govindasamy, 2010).

This is evidenced from time to time when the displaced speak out loudly and highlight it in the media, such as in newspapers. For example, Vinod (2011) has highlighted the case of the former plantation workers from the Bukit Jalil estate who are forced to vacate their homes. Hui et al (2012) also pointed out the case of developers not keeping their promises to build a new house for the displaced in the case of the Bukit Raja estate. Fong & Kathleen (2015) also highlighted the case of the Orang Asli (indigenous people) who lived in a forest and had their houses demolished by the authorities. Indeed, there are many other cases of displacement that have attracted media attention in Malaysia, but there is no comprehensive statistical analysis or proper record of such cases.

The population of these former plantations in Putrajaya was later resettled in low-cost housing. The problem started when the deplorable condition of the people living there was pointed out (Fernandez, 2011). However, the problem resurfaced when another report

emerged that about 80 families remained in the tents because the housing provided to these families was not suitable (Terence, 2013). In 2016, the problem for these 80 families had still not been solved and they have been living in tents for more than 3 ½ years (Online, 2016)<sup>2</sup>. According to the report, these displaced people, along with those from other blocks, were promised that they would be given a house (landed property), but instead, they were given flats and resettled there (Perumal, 2013).

Apart from the condition of the houses, there are other pressing issues such as lack of employment opportunities, school dropouts, financial problems, and fights among the youth (Wilford, 2015). Wilford (2015) further elaborated that by merging the population of four different Estates into one area, the problem of kinship arises due to the establishment of leadership practices, religious authority, and marriages. All this has been consistently reported in the local media and news since 2009, and the available evidence is only anecdotal evidence reported in the media. To a large extent, this may be subject to bias that may not reflect the actual conditions of the displaced community. Moreover, it is clear that the problems are not solved, because, after a few months, the same problem reappears in the same area.

Indeed, there is a lack of concrete, verifiable evidence of displacement and resettlement in Malaysia, especially among the estate workers with adequate and reliable information and data on the progress of the displaced community along their SWB. Most of the issues raised in the local news and social media are anecdotal and may be subject to bias that

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<sup>2</sup> The latest developments show that there are back to their flats and were not satisfied with their condition given that only minor repairs are undertaken.

does not reflect the actual conditions of the displaced community. Therefore, this study aims to examine the issue of displacement from the perspective of Malaysia via Putrajaya (a former rubber plantation area) and its displacement. During the development of Putrajaya, a total of 2,400 people were affected by these areas (Bunnell Tim, 2002). Again, the question is how those displaced people cope with the new location and what their SWB is. In the case of Malaysia, there is a lack of empirical studies. There is indeed a need to conduct a more systematic study to gain better empirical insights. All these were the motivation for this study. Overall, what remains as a major research gap are: (1) most studies do not provide strong empirical evidence and rely only on anecdotal evidence (2) most studies only rely on historical encounters with Indian plantation workers and neglect the need to understand the current situation of Indian plantation workers, especially those who have been displaced. This study aims to fill these research gaps.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

This study aims to examine the socio-economic conditions and SWB dimensions of the displaced community. It is therefore important to ask critical questions to guide policymaker's makers in designing effective DID policies, especially given the availability and support of empirical data. Questions such as how the displaced community has fared in socio-economic and SWB terms can be an interesting policy questions. Therefore, this study outlines several research questions that need clarification and explanation. The questions are:

1. What are the general socio-economic conditions (SEC) and progress of the displaced community in Putrajaya?

2. What are the households' perceptions of their children's future? Is there intergenerational mobility in the displaced community?
3. After two decades of displacement, how well has the displaced community fared in terms of SWB?
4. What are the factors that determine their SWB?

The first research question addresses the existing socio-economic conditions of individual households in the displaced community. Socio-economic factors such as employment opportunities, income, savings, and education, which are important factors in the progress of the displaced community, are examined in more detail. The idea is that the community may have made socio-economic progress or it may be trapped in a vicious cycle without seeing progress. This is crucial as the study follows this community after 20 years and looks at how the displaced community has positioned itself. It is equally important to understand how their children have developed, as stated in the second research question. This is an interesting question because if there is evidence of a lack of intergenerational mobility, then the displaced community as a whole may not have evolved and is likely to be trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty. Studies show that lack of intergenerational mobility, especially in the Malaysian context, leads to the community being trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty. Studies on intergenerational mobility from other countries show that children who grow up in poverty are more likely to be poor as adults, while those who grow up in wealthier families are more likely to be wealthy later in life (Sarah, Kinsey, & Yumiko, 2009). In short, the study aims to examine parents' confidence in their children's future (how optimistic they are) and also the intergenerational mobility of this group. In addition, the data based on intergenerational mobility provide policymakers with the opportunity to compare and assess differences in parents' expectations of their

children's future with the more objective measures of intergenerational mobility in terms of education and income. This gives an idea of how optimistic parents are about their children and informs policymakers if parents are concerned about this situation.

The third question is about the progress of the displaced community on SWB. Considering the displacements, this community could have initially experienced a more stressful environment and later coped with it and progressed, or they could have remained trapped after almost two decades of displacement without much improvement in their SWB. This requires proper empirical investigation, which this study explores under the third question. By understanding both socio-economic conditions and SWB, we can gain more policy insights to effectively address the vicious cycle. For example, Mexico's PROGRESA/ Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) was developed in an attempt to break the intergenerational transmission of poverty by improving the health and education of children in poor families (Levy, 2006).

It is also important to understand what drives SWB and its current socio-economic conditions. In other words, this research sheds light on why displaced households differ in terms of socio-economic conditions and SWB. Finally, the study explores policy choices and options that arise from the lessons learned from this case study of displaced communities.

## **1.6 Objectives of the Study**

Based on the research questions, the study develops the following distinct research objectives:

1. Examine the socio-economic conditions (including well-being, which includes material resources and social attributes) of the displaced community.
2. Assess the intergenerational mobility of the displaced community and the households' perceived future of their children.
3. Assess the SWB conditions of the displaced community.
4. Explore the drivers of SWB of the displaced community.

## **1.7 Research Methodology**

This section briefly explains the methodology used in the study. Further details are elaborated in Chapter 3, Research Methodology.

### **1.7.1 Case Study and Criteria of Case Selection**

The study uses a case study or a specifically exploratory case study. The Taman Permata is the focus of the study. The case study approach is appropriate because displacement cases are sensitive to the context in which they operate. In other words, the location and similarity of the previous context are important to generalize the findings in the context of the community. Moreover, intensification of spatial and occupational displacement can only be captured well when cases are confined to that particular community. Therefore, when examining the socio-economic conditions and SWB of the displaced community, the location and similarity of displacement within that community should be taken into account. It does not attempt to generalize the findings to all types of displacement, but to understand the state of socio-economic conditions and SWB within a particular displaced community contextually in order to maintain homogeneity. For these reasons, this study focuses on the displaced community specifically in Taman Permata. The displaced people

who were resettled in Taman Permata are from 4 estates namely Prang Besar, Galloway, Medengley and Sedgeley estates in Sepang District, and studying them as a group of homogeneous communities will provide better understanding and insights.

Based on the history and structural changes in the economy and employment, a few conditions are set as guidelines for selecting an area (case) that includes DID. For the case study, the following criteria were applied: (1) the area must be a former rubber plantation area. (2) there are structural changes in the economy of the place (e.g. conversion of estates to an administrative town). (3) there must be a structural change in terms of employment. (4) the displaced people are located in an area (5) the structural change is being driven by the government. (6) there are current problems due to displacement. Putrajaya was chosen as a case study because the city has undergone structural change. From a pure rubber estate, it was acquired by the federal government from the state government to build an administration city. In the process, about 400 families (or 2,400 people) were displaced from the rubber plantation. Along with the change in the economic structure, the employment structure has also changed drastically. Earlier, the employment structure of this place consisted mainly of rubber tappers and workers associated with the rubber industry.

### **1.7.2 Methods, Sampling and Data Collection**

The study uses a mixed research method, employing both qualitative and quantitative methods to explore the case study while describing the findings. The empirical study combines interviews, questionnaires and observation to obtain the results. The research questions are investigated through questionnaires and interviews, which are completed by interviewers. Complementing the results from the questionnaires, an observational study is conducted to determine the validity of the answers given in the questionnaires.



Door-to-door interviews were conducted with all respondents. In terms of sampling, data collection through a questionnaire survey involves random sampling by mapping households based on a list of households in Taman Permata. Of the 400 displaced households in Taman Permata, 196 were randomly selected. The final sample consists of 141 households.

This study aims to provide evidence-based value on the socio-economic situation and SWB of the displaced community, as previous studies are only based on hearsay and lack scientific research as reported in the media. Therefore, previous findings might be isolated cases or might not be representative of the entire population of the displaced community in Taman Permata. Therefore, systematic studies are needed to confirm or refute the anecdotal findings so far.

### **1.8 Significance of the study**

The study is relevant to policy makers when considering future development projects involving displacement and resettlement. There is a large body of literature on the impact of displacement and how to deal with it. However, the volume of literature mainly relates to the experiences of other countries. As far as Malaysia is concerned, some things can be gleaned from this study that can guide stakeholders in future evictions. The study is expected to contribute in the following ways:

First, the study expects the survey to reveal the factual socio-economic conditions of the displaced community. The study breaks down the various aspects of their socio-economic conditions. In other words, the study provides empirical evidence of the displaced

community in general and the Putrajaya community in particular, which is currently poorly reported in the media without much data and information. Similarly, there is no specific study that assesses the SWB of the displaced community in Putrajaya. This study fills these research gaps and provides insights on SWB for policy makers.

Second, understanding intergenerational mobility enables policy makers to address the problem of the poverty trap. To date, there is no empirical evidence on the progress of children from displaced communities in Malaysia. This is crucial as the progress of children determines the future of the displaced community in terms of socio-economic and SWB progress. Studies show that the vicious cycle of intergenerational transmission of poverty can only be broken if the younger generation is nurtured within the community. For this to happen, children must do better than their parents in terms of education and income. Third, understanding SWB and its drivers often provides better policy prescriptions that would be valuable. In addition, the findings and other insightful recommendations help policymakers set a better policy direction for the future IDP community.

In short, the study provides empirical evidence on the displaced community in Malaysia in general and in Putrajaya in particular. The study aims to fill these gaps and provide useful data and information for policymakers, especially policy makers.

## **1.9 Organization of the study**

Chapter 1 introduces the main topic, the motivation for the study and the background of the study. This chapter also sets out the research questions and the objectives of the study.

It also contains a brief introduction to the research methodology, which will be which will be discussed in more detail later in Chapter 3.

Chapter 2 looks at various literature reviews on displacement from different sources and countries. It explores the definition of displacement itself, as there are various classifications, and discusses various issues related to developmental displacement, including the definition of displacement, the factors and the impact of developmental displacement. The chapter also examines the theories and models of various developmental displacement and the impact of DID. To gain a better insight into the performance of two generations, the literature on intergenerational mobility is examined. Next, the literature on socio-economic conditions and displacement is compared with SWB, drawing on and integrating literature on both aspects. Therefore, the final part of Chapter 2 examines SWB and the driving factors of SWB in more detail.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology and the way in which the study is conducted. This includes the framework of the study, the population of the study, the methods of data collection and detailed information about the interview questions, the formulation of the questionnaires and the way observations are conducted, as well as the analytical tools used to analyse the data. In this chapter you will find the details on how to analyse the data.

Chapter 4 reports the findings related to the socio-economic conditions, intergenerational mobility and SWB of the case study. The study also uses the information from the interviews to further explore and elaborate on the observations made from the quantitative data. It provides further insights that support and complement the observations from the survey data

Chapter 5 quantitatively explores the determinants of SWB using the survey data collected. Several hypothesis tests are conducted to identify the factors that contribute to the current state of SWB. In addition, the information from the interviews is used to support the observations from the quantitative assessment.

Finally, Chapter 6 summarises the main findings and provides policy lessons and recommendations. It helps policy makers to formulate more meaningful policies on development-related evictions.

Universiti Malaysia

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter contains literature related to the aims of the study. First, the term and concept of displacements are discussed in order to provide a clear insight into DID in relation to the selected case. Secondly, the study discusses literature-related theories and models of displacement that offer further insights into the socio-economic conditions of the displaced community. The main purpose of discussing the theories of displacement is to provide the reader with an understanding of the displacement process and its impact on socio-economic conditions. It also highlights the impact of displacement on some important variables studied, such as income, savings, borrowing, and education. A section looks at the perceived future of children and intergenerational mobility. The chapter also discusses the concept of SWB and its drivers.

### **2.2 Definition of Displacement and Types of Displacements**

The term 'displacement' has been presented in many ways. Displacement is forced migration where a group of people or a community is forced to involuntarily leave their home and move to another place. Displacement refers to any household that is forced to leave its residence due to circumstances affecting its home or immediate environment. The statement here is rather vague as it does not specify the conditions or the reasons for the involuntary departure of the households. There are various factors that can cause this forced displacement. It can be due to natural disasters, conflicts, wars, gentrification or development (Gates, Le & Hartman, 1981).

According to the International Association for the Study of Forced Migration (IASFM), the term displacement refers to the movement of refugees and internally displaced persons. There are various factors that cause such displacement. Factors such as natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects are some of them. It is noted that displacement is a complex, wide-ranging, and pervasive phenomenon (UNESCO, 2016). The study of displacement can be approached in different ways. It is a multidisciplinary, international and cross-sectoral issue, involving academic, practical, agency and local perspectives. The next section provides a clear definition of development-related displacement.

DID happens when development takes place in a certain area. Due to development, people are forced to move away from their homes. Some of them have been living in their present place for decades and for several generations. This type of displacement occurs mainly when a country or an area undergoes rapid change due to development. Even if development benefits others, it is often at the expense of those who have lived there for a long time. There are several types of development that cause this kind of forced migration or displacement.

Rakhi & Thaneshwar (2014) have identified five types of development processes that cause DID. These are the development of large hydro or water-based projects, the development of electricity or thermal power plants, projects related to national security, natural resources such as agriculture and related industries, and finally tourism-related development projects. Furthermore, they point out that the affected people never cross the border of their territory and are considered Internally Displaced People (IDPs). Rakhi & Thaneshwar failed to address the fact that IDPs are not limited to the five categories. IDPs can also be created through township development. Township development refers to the growth of new townships, such as the development of Putrajaya as a new township

in Malaysia due to rapid urbanization initiated by the government. This new township replaced the previous economic activities such as rubber and oil palm plantations. The development of the new townships was accompanied by infrastructures such as railways and road systems that were built or developed at the expense of the people living there. Mooney (2005) states that although the term 'internal displacement' is firmly established in the international lexicon, the question is whether it has become a term of art.

DID occur primarily in the context of the development of new territories, whether through construction projects such as the building of new hydropower plants, the extraction of natural resources, the development of new infrastructures such as roads or highways, or the development of new city. In development projects, a developer often exercises direct control over land that was previously occupied by another group. Natural resource extraction, urban renewal or development programmes, industrial parks, and infrastructure projects (such as highways, bridges, irrigation canals and dams) require land, often in large quantities. The usual impact of such projects is upheaval and displacement of communities (Stanley, 2004).

DID occurs when one party exerts its control over the other group, which usually has no firm authority over their dwellings. Bauman (1989) revealed that DID and resettlement is in many ways a clear expression of the state, with its monopoly on the use of force and its ambitious engineering projects, being free from other constraints of non-political power or institutions of social self-government and able to exercise control over the location of people and objects within its territory. This is, of course, a situation where residents are forced to move out of their homes and therefore have little power against them. Margaret (1992) went on to say that the most powerless people have no place at all. Although they are powerless, there are also cases where the affected people resist in order to protect their livelihoods. Fisher (1999) stated that it is not surprising that indigenous

and marginalized groups affected by dams have come to believe that resisting projects is one of their few viable alternatives. Resistance has proven to be far more effective in protecting their long-term interests than cooperation. Stephen, (2003) pointed out that there are few types of forced migration involving displaced communities and that it is difficult to quantify. (Due to this forced migration, some manage to rebuild their livelihoods, but many experience permanent impoverishment and marginalisation (Cernea & McDowell, 2000).

Forced Migration Online (2012), a website dedicated to the study of such issues, pointed out that there is no accurate data or organization tracking the availability of the DID population. The people concerned usually stay within the borders of their home country. Although some of them are resettled, it is clear that very few of them are adequately compensated, especially through new houses. Although some major donors to these types of projects, such as the World Bank, have established guidelines for the recovery of affected populations, access to compensation and recovery for affected people appears to remain inadequate (Barutciski, 2000). Cornish & Ramsay (2018) have highlighted one such problem where cash compensation and replacement of basic assets for the displaced people of the Upper Paunglaung (UPL) hydropower scheme in Myanmar are insufficient to restore their lives. The main reason for this failure lies in the bureaucracy and its working methods. The problem arises from the lack of accountability of host governments, particularly through inappropriate interventions and lack of proper guidelines. It can also be seen that the number of people affected by displacement is really huge. Fuggle et al (2000) estimated that between 1950 and 2000, about 45 million people were displaced by development projects in China. Stanley (2004) stated that about 127,000 people were displaced by the Narmada Sardar Sarovar Dam project in India. In Brazil, La Rovere and Mendes (2000) mentioned that 25,000-35,000 people were



displaced as a result of the Tucuri Dam Project, Phase I. In relation to the Kariba Dam Project in Zambia, Soils Incorporated (Pty) Ltd. and Chalo Environmental and Sustainable Development Consultants (2000) stated that approximately 57,000 people were displaced during project development. In the industrialized countries of Europe and North America, displacement of people is no longer an issue, but these countries have had their own experiences in the past. Ortolano and Kao (2000) stated that between 1933 and 1975, about 5,100-6,350 people were displaced by the Grand Coulee Dam project.

Developing countries have the largest number of DID. In the case of Malaysia, there is no official data on the displacement of plantation workers, but since plantations contribute significantly, the number is likely to be high. In the 1980s, an average of 235,000 people was employed in the plantation sectors (rubber and palm oil), including nearly 70,000 Indian workers in the rubber plantations alone. Due to the decline of rubber plantations since the 1990s, the number of plantations is shrinking as most workers have lost their jobs as these plantations have been converted into a real estate market. The number of people affected by displacement is truly enormous. All these figures raise the question of how the authorities have authorised such a large displacement and how they are dealing with it, especially when it involves indigenous people and minorities. Colchester (2000) has highlighted that these groups make up a disproportionate percentage of those whose livelihoods have been affected by development projects. On the other hand, Pattnaik (2013) has highlighted that women often face adverse consequences compared to men, as compensation is usually paid to men (the heads of households), leaving women exposed to higher levels of disadvantage.

## **2.3 Theories and Models of Displacements**

Unlike the other types of displacements, there is no particular body or organization that focuses or specializes in tracking down DID. Godamunne (2013) noted that, unlike refugees, there are no institutions or publications dedicated to tracking DID on a global scale. This makes it difficult to establish an accurate number of people affected by DID. The author further claimed that because of this setback, many of these cases are based on case studies, which has led few social scientists to explore the findings and few theoretical models to be developed for DID.

### **2.3.1 Four-Stage Model**

One DID model is a four-stage model developed by Scudder and Colson in 1982 (Scudder & Colson, 2019). It was developed for voluntary resettlement but later extended to involuntary resettlement. In this model, the process for DID is said to go through four phases. The phases are recruitment, transition, development of potential, and incorporation, also known as handling over.

The model attempts to explain the process and stress that resettlers go through in each phase or stage. These stages show how the community has been identified from resettlement to resettlement and transition, which is considered the most stressful stage. Once resettled, after a few years, the displaced group will become acclimatized and adapt to their new environment. At this stage, they are more flexible and can manage their situation without the interference of external management or the management that initiated the move. The model basically looks at the whole process of resettlement and relocation rather than focusing on the impact on those who have been relocated from their

original place to their new settlement area. In the analytical study of this model, the focus has been on the transition process and the essence of economic and social issues has hardly been captured. This model can be seen as a way of moving people from their original place to a new place. It did not emphasize the impact on the displaced.

### **2.3.2 The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations**

The Risk and Reconstruction Model for resettling displaced populations is used to capture the socio-economic substances and manage the problems and risks associated with displacement (Cernea, 1997). This model emphasizes the interconnectedness of three important elements that are critical to resettlement: capturing the essential economic and social aspects of displacement and resettlement, identifying important factors to prevent and overcome the problems created by displacement, and ways to initiate social processes to solve problems. The model contains four important aspects in addressing displacement problems, i.e. it identifies the root of the problem caused by displacement and the variables or factors that cause impoverishment. Once these are identified, the model provides preventive measures for future eviction problems in relation to the factors mentioned. It gives an early indication of what to expect before displacement occurs so that a precautionary measure and the necessary measures to address the problems can be prepared. Over the years, Cernea (1997) has found that there are patterns or trends that lead to the impoverishment of displaced people. Figure 2.1 illustrates the eight impoverishment hazards or risks that the model considers to be the most important factors leading to the displaced population slipping further into poverty.

**Figure 2. 1: Implications of Development-Induced Displacement**



Source: Cernea (1997)

### **2.3.2.1 Landlessness**

When the land is taken away from those who have lived and worked on it for decades, the replacement land that these people receive is not equal to the size they previously owned. The amount of land they need for their livelihoods decreases or diminishes, reducing their income and contributing to their impoverishment. For example, in Kenya's Kiambere Hydropower Project, it was found that the average landholding of farmers declined from 13 to 6 hectares, livestock numbers shrank by more than a third, yield per hectare of maize and beans fell by 68% and 75% respectively, and family income fell from Ksh10,968 to Ksh1,976 (Mburugu, 1993).

### **2.3.2.2 Joblessness**

The second risk of the model is unemployment. According to the author's research, displacement causes many who are affected to lose their income because they cannot find suitable work. Those who worked as farmers, small entrepreneurs, or artisans lost their income as soon as the eviction took place, as these industries or jobs are not restored in the new development. A survey in Orissa, India, found that unemployment among tribal households in Talcher village increased from 9% to 43.6%. This is due to the shift from primary to tertiary industries, which has resulted in a drop in income of between 50% and 80% (Pandey, 1996).

### **2.3.2.3 Homelessness**

In many cases of displacement, compensation is paid, especially in the form of houses, but there are also cases that contribute to impoverishment. This scenario occurs because the displaced are unable to raise the necessary amount to buy a new house. When the displaced cannot afford the price and the costs in terms of labour, time, and money, they tend to seek temporary accommodation and this fallback solution leads to homelessness becoming chronic rather than temporary. This is illustrated by the case of the Forum-Gleita Irrigation Project in Mauritania, where only 200 of the 881 displaced families were able to successfully rebuild their shelter; the rest lived in tents or under tarpaulins for two years or more (Cernea, *The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations*, 1997). Another such case occurred in India at the Kukadi Krishna irrigation sub-projects in Maharashtra. 59% of the displaced families lived in temporary/semi-permanent houses 10-15 years after their resettlement (Joseph, 1997).

#### **2.3.2.4 Marginalization**

In this model, marginalization refers to the loss of economic power and a drop to a level of income and standard of living comparable to that before displacement. Those who have been displaced fall below the poverty line. This happens when those who owned larger land are only allocated smaller land after displacement. In some cases, according to the model, the newly acquired land is not fertile, which directly contributes to lower productivity. Besides the land and its size, there are other factors that lead to marginalization when some of them cannot find a suitable job in their new area because their skills do not match. This is similar to structural unemployment, where there is a mismatch between the skills desired by employers and the skills of workers. The skills that people have inherited are not suitable to earn a living in the new place because these skills are not needed. In the long run, the marginalization mentioned above can lead to psychological marginalization. Psychological marginalization refers to a situation where there is a behavioral disturbance, anxiety, and a decline in self-esteem, and has been reported in many areas (Appell, 1986). It occurs when a person who was previously in the middle or higher income group has less income due to displacement.

#### **2.3.2.5 Increased Morbidity and Mortality**

The model showed that in certain cases the displaced people were exposed to certain diseases. This increased their morbidity of sickness or a specific disease and affected their mortality rate. Records were kept of various diseases that occurred among those affected by displacement. Records show various diseases such as malaria, and schistosomiasis

occurring due to the viewing of water are some of them. (Jayewardene, 1995) has pointed out that the incidence of malaria in the Mahaweli System C resettlement area in Sri Lanka has increased from 8.9% to 15.6%. Other problems recorded and reported by (Cernea, The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations, 1997) include the increase of schistosomiasis by up to 70%, which exceeded the expected rate in the Foun-Gleita irrigation project in Mauritania.

In terms of mortality cases, a report by the University of Padjadjaran, Indonesia (1989) found that 106 people died from drowning in Lake Saguling due to a lack of adequate information and precautions in the project, and another report by the same team found that 10 people died from drowning in Cirata Reservoir. All these cases clearly show that deaths can occur if displacement and resettlement are not carried out carefully, especially after resettlement has taken place.

#### **2.3.2.6 Food Insecurity**

Food insecurity refers to a situation where people who have been displaced have a lack of nutrients compared to what they used to get. This can happen for a number of reasons, such as the land available to them after displacement becomes smaller and the amount of food produced decreases, which directly affects their income. The Bailiambe Reservoir in China is one such case (Cernea, The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations, 1997), where cultivated land has decreased and this has affected food production so that local food production is no longer sufficient.

### **2.3.2.7 Loss of access to common property and services**

Through displacement, people lose not only their dwellings but also the benefits and advantages they had with their surroundings and environment. The population that is displaced lives from agriculture or is connected to it. They not only cultivate their land but also use their environment, which is common property, for other activities such as cattle rearing, collecting firewood for their own use or to supplement their income, free water supply from nearby streams, and so on. With displacement, they lost all these benefits and the benefits of these commons that provide their income. Pandey (1997) has mentioned that no compensation was paid for common properties by any of the seven projects that led to eviction in Orissa, India between 1950 and 1994.

### **2.3.2.8 Social Disarticulation**

Social disarticulation refers to the separation of a community that has been together for many years due to displacement. This separation ends their social network as a community and their kinship and affiliation as well as their culture that they have shared for years. It also disintegrates their dependence on each other and the bonds in their relationship as a community. The book "The Division of Labour in Society" (Durkheim, 1893) states that social order is maintained through social integration and regulations in a social equilibrium and that in the transition period, the equilibrium of traditional societies is disturbed and sacred-religious institutions, traditional beliefs and ascribed status relationships disintegrate. In a study by Nayak (1986), it is mentioned that social disarticulation happens in a family due to compensation payments that have to tear a



family apart when the father, as the head of the family, received the payment, leading to quarrels and arguments with his married son and with other children in his family. This led to estrangement between the family and they started to relocate to separate villages. In the new place, they were not treated well by the locals as they were not from traditional clans or cast. This situation can last for years as the displaced community or family is unable to integrate with the locals and their economic situation deteriorates as they do not receive support from the host communities for many activities such as joint celebrations after harvest and pilgrimages. In the Hirakud Dam Project in India, Baboo (1992) mentioned that displaced households whose economic status was completely disrupted by displacement could not be properly integrated into host villages for many years after resettlement.

Many previous studies show that development-induced displacements have brought many negative or stressful impacts on those directly affected. Randell (2016) mentioned the decline in the quality of life of affected communities due to various development projects such as dams, mines, and urban infrastructure. Other studies by Hwang, Cao, & Xi (2011) noted the increase in poverty due to significant losses in the quality of farmland due to displacement by the Three Gorges Dam. This has led to more poverty, negative social impacts, and political stress due to forced relocation, etc. A notable impact is that many of them become even poorer after they have been displaced. For example, of the 20 million people displaced in India in the last four decades, 75% have not been rehabilitated and many of them are impoverished (Fernandes, 1991). The IRR model has hit the nail on the head by classifying or explaining the dangers of impoverishment for these displaced people.

## 2.4 Implications of Displacement on Socioeconomic Conditions

This section looks at the various implications arising from DID. What are the obstacles arising from DID and are there solutions? An essential concept of development involves a way for society to progress and escape poverty. Ideally, when an area is developed (whether for dams, housing or other infrastructure projects), the people who reside there should receive fair compensation, not only in monetary terms but also for a good prospect of socio-economic factors such as a place to live or a stable job or career. Although most development projects aim to reduce poverty and improve people's lives, project-induced displacement often leads to worsening living conditions for the displaced (Cao, Sean, & Juan, 2012). Cernea (2004) pointed out that relocation has devastating consequences as it impoverishes host populations, destroys productive assets, and disrupts the social fabric. It can also have negative impacts in terms of loss of assets, jobs, and income. Relocated people suffer from the loss of farmland, forest land, houses, and other possessions, which can reduce their income and opportunities for re-employment (Wang., Lassoie., Dong. & Morreale, 2013). Ironically, those who are directly affected by development face negative consequences rather than improved livelihoods. In its landmark report, the World Commission on Dams (2000) argued that "the goal of any dam project must be the sustainable improvement of human well-being", yet most previous research on dam-induced displacement has found evidence of socio-economic decline among affected populations

Decline in living standards is considered a negative consequence of DID. Scudder (2005) pointed out that in 82% of cases, living standards for the majority of the population deteriorated as a result of displacement. Research by Fearnside (1999), LaRovere &

Medes (2000), and Monosowski (1990) confirmed the case of DID in Tucurui Dam, where about 30,000 people were displaced. Most of them did not receive compensation. In addition, the outbreak of mosquito-borne diseases, poverty and land abandonment had negative social, economic and health consequences for the affected communities.

Although there are many studies that point to the negative impacts or loss of income due to DID, there are also some studies that show the opposite. The study by McDonald, Webber & Yuefang (2008) showed that resettlement in the case of the Three Gorges Project in China could have positive impacts on maintaining and increasing the income levels of the resettled communities. In another study by Galipeau, Ingman & Tilt (2013), a comparison was made between resettled communities in the Chinese Mekong Basin and the existing non-resettled community in terms of income and landholding, resettled communities have a higher income level. In the study on wealth shifting in the Brazilian Amazon, Randell (2016) found that wealth increased for the majority of the population studied and socio-economic inequality decreased as poorer households experienced greater improvements in housing, assets and land ownership.

Careful planning with comprehensive implementation can lead to better socio-economic outcomes for the DID community. According to Partridge (1993), the Arenal programme in Costa Rica resulted in positive socio-economic outcomes due to careful planning through the use of anthropological studies to guide participation in the planning process and the gradual introduction of new agricultural technologies to resettled farmers. In the Yacyreta Hydroelectric Project in Argentina, Meijia (2000) reported that a comprehensive economic revitalization plan was put in place that allowed residents to either continue their conventional economic activities or pursue new, alternative livelihood opportunities.

The above discussion emphasized the general category of risk and impact of displacement, which is further explored in this study. It provides an insight into the holistic view of the impact of DID, which will be reconciled with the key variables examined in this study. This study focuses only on selected key variables that have been examined in more detail for policy implications. These variables are discussed in the next section.

#### **2.4.1 Income**

As Larovere & Medes (2000) report, some of these displacement projects had negative social, economic and health impacts on the affected communities, including outbreaks of mosquito-borne diseases and, most importantly, poverty directly related to their income. In the case of DID, the most common event is loss of income. Loss of income or source of income is one of the biggest obstacles for the displaced community. When displacement occurred, they not only lost their homes but also their main source of income. Another important factor affecting the income of DID groups is the lack of skills. People who are displaced due to mega development projects and industrial growth are also excluded from new employment opportunities because they are illiterate, lack skills and are not familiar with the workings of the modern labour market (Haldar & Abraham, 2015). Both authors also emphasize that the DID community is losing its community property, which is its main source of income.

Yntiso (2008) noted that DID is something to look forward to if resettlement can take place near viable commercial and/or industrial areas that can serve as an alternative option for income generation and employment. However, there are also studies that show that DID causes large losses of income. The communities displaced by the Three Gorges Dam

in China are one of the few examples. In addition, communities displaced by the Three Gorges Dam in China suffered large losses in the quantity and quality of farmland, as well as a decline in household income, debt, poorer health, less social assistance and higher levels of absolute poverty. (Hwang, Cao, & Xi, 2011; Wilmsen, Webber & Duan, 2011). The loss of income in many places is also due to DID. Most often, it is due to a chain reaction of other factors. In China, studies have found that development-induced resettlement is associated with a range of negative impacts on communities. These negative impacts, such as reduced land ownership and limited access to natural resources, have brought household incomes to lower levels (Tilt, Braun & He, 2009).

Informal income is affected badly for many of those who have been displaced. Informal income refers to the income derived from common property resources. For many of these people, before displacement occurs, they utilize common property resources like forest, rivers, and their surrounding area to generate extra income but when the displacement takes place, they also lose the income from the source mentioned

This informal income can be described as secondary income for the displaced community of Putrajaya. During their time on the plantations, these people had their secondary income from other sources of income. Many of them worked part-time on the plantation itself. Jobs such as clearing the jungle, spraying pesticides and other work after morning work supplemented their income. Many families have their own farms to raise poultry and grow vegetables. All this has contributed to their informal income during this period (Manikam, 2009).

It will be interesting to know the experiences of the displaced community in our case study. After two decades of displacement, the study can assess the income and asset situation of this DID community.

### **2.4.2 Savings**

According to Rakodi, T. & Lloyd-Jones (2002), livelihood assets are interrelated in several ways. A loss of income can lead to other losses, such as losses in investments, savings and loans. These impacts occurred in the period before displacement and immediately after displacement. The question arises as to what the saving habits or patterns are after the displaced group has settled in the new areas. So far, there are no studies on DID and savings. Therefore, this study examines the savings behaviour of the displaced community. For example, do families manage to accumulate a significant amount of savings for their future or retirement?

### **2.4.3 Borrowings**

Previous studies have shown that DID have a direct impact on society's indebtedness, especially through high loans or borrowings. Hwang, Cao & Xi (2011) in their study DID on the Three Gorges Dam in China pointed out that the displaced population faces a very high increase in debt. One of the main reasons for debt is borrowing or loans. The study aims to find out if the pattern of borrowing is the same for the DID of this community in Putrajaya. Are they still a debt society after years of displacement or have they moved away from it. By answering this question, the study can determine whether the society has made progress or is still in debt.

#### 2.4.4 Education

DID had also affected other important institutions, namely schools and education systems. When people are displaced, education, especially that of children, is severely affected unless there is a provision that guarantees the establishment of a school. When people are displaced, children have no chance of education, increasing the number of illiterate people in society. Poverty forces these children to work to supplement their family's income. Some of them voluntarily interrupt their schooling to supplement their family's income. This has given them some relief as it has increased the family income (Samarakoon, 2017). Children's education or their own education becomes the main sacrificial variable to achieve their original goal or to regain their income before displacement. In the absence of other sources, they had to turn their children into child labourers to earn an income (Fernandes, 2007).

The location of schools in the new area after displacement is an important factor in the number of dropouts. If a group has been displaced and the location of the school is further away, children are more likely to drop out of school. Patel, Sliuzas & Mathur (2015) found that greater distance to public schools, lack of adequate public transport and the need for money and time to renovate and adapt to the new location were cited by 80% of households as reasons for chronic or temporary school absenteeism. Most students who returned to school had to travel by car for longer periods of time, which was associated with significantly higher costs. A study by Samarakoon (2017) in Wellangiriya in Sri Lanka found that there was significant school dropout in the community after displacement. In addition, the study also shows that the quality of education is not improving. If facilities and infrastructure are provided in a timely manner and there is motivation and a desire to succeed, education levels can be improved.

Research on forced displacement and relocation indicates that most community children face many challenges during the initial stages of the resettling process, which affects their formal education; some children never return to school and enter the workforce at a young age (Downing, 2002). This study will use all these experiences from different displacement communities to analyse the educational attainment of the displaced community in Putrajaya.

#### **2.4.5 Health Accessibility**

Those affected by DID either remain in poverty or become worse than their previous condition, and this is not limited to income but also includes other infrastructures and facilities. Cernea & McDowel (2000) pointed out that those who have been displaced often bear the brunt of the burdens incurred by a development project and receive little benefit from the development. Health and accessibility benefits are one of them. Accessibility to health is very important and one of the basic requirements for all. For the displaced, this access is often denied or made difficult. This makes the displaced group vulnerable in terms of health. A study by Sahoo & Jojo (2020) in a community in Gundiapali village found that without a public health system in the resettled colonies, they cannot afford primary health services such as institutional deliveries, antenatal and postnatal care.

This group of people who were displaced due to the development of Putrajaya are from the rubber plantation area, as mentioned earlier. Apart from houses and other basic services and infrastructure, they also have access to medical facilities. This is what the law provides. The Labour Act Amendment of 1906 mandated that estate administrators (employers) are required to establish dispensaries and, if possible, a hospital on the



plantations (Ramachandran, 1994). A nurse (hospital assistant) is responsible for this medical care, who is accommodated in a specific quarter or house on the plantation itself. In this way, the workers have access to basic medical care around the clock without paying a single cent.

How will the people on DID cope without basic health care when the plantations are abandoned? Will they have access to clinics or medical facilities, especially in emergencies? Are they able to pay for medical expenses and do they have a medical card or health insurance? This will be another part of the socio-economic conditions that will be explored in the study.

#### **2.4.6 Social Network, Safety and Security**

Social networks are an intangible asset, especially for communities that have lived together for years. This social network helps not only to integrate with each other, but also to help each other in case of emergencies or adverse events. DID can disrupt this social network and the integration that has been built up over many years. Cernea (1997) has pointed out that both populations face significant disruptions to their social organisation and community. Apart from being disrupted, social networks also lead to conflict, especially between the displaced group and the existing group or population already living in an area before the group DID arrives. Heggelund (2006) found that the social networks of the community affected by resettlement under the Three Gorges Project were disrupted.

Ray (2000) found that the protracted, dehumanising, incapacitating and painful process of displacement has led to far-reaching traumatic psychological and socio-cultural

consequences. It leads to the dismantling of production systems, desecration of sacred zones or ancestral tombs and temples, dispersion of kinship groups and family systems, disorganisation of informal social networks that provide mutual support, weakening of self-governance and social control, and disruption of trade and market relations, etc.

Although security at DID is not as urgent as displacement compared to conflict or disaster, groups at DID are still at some risk. Adaptation to a new environment is mentioned as one of the issues of security. Terminski (2013) mentioned that development projects involving the permanent transformation of a large area and the mass resettlement of entire populations pose the greatest challenge to community protection.

Groups with very limited capacity to adapt to the new situation pose a particularly high risk to community security. A study in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, found that displaced people were relocated from the city centre to near neighbourhoods, as opposed to other relocation sites that were far from the city. This has resulted in the least favourable locations for informal sector businesses to operate. In the outlying areas, they face problems in regaining employment and other related opportunities, as well as sanitation and security issues (Megento, 2013).

## **2.5 Perceived Future of Children and Intergenerational Mobility**

One of the objectives of this study is to assess the perceived future of the children by the displaced parents and to determine whether there is intergenerational mobility among the children of the displaced community in Putrajaya. Intergenerational mobility is the change in the social position of the family between generations. Social position can be considered by various factors such as income, education, type of job, and others. It

measures the disparities or differences in the said group in terms of income, occupation, education and other variables. Intergenerational mobility is an important concept because it provides information about equality of opportunity in society (Flores, 2015). There is a perception that improving socio-economic conditions between generations will increase the SWB of society. This has led many governments to improve intergenerational mobility. In the UK, for example, specific programs have been developed and led by the government to improve social mobility (UK, 2011; Social Mobility Commission, 2016). Indeed, lack of mobility contributes to greater income inequality, which affects the SWB of society (Nikolaev & Burns, 2014). Social, educational, and income mobility have negative effects on SWB. This study focuses on intergenerational mobility of income and education.

### **2.5.1 Intergenerational mobility in Income**

Family structure and other external opportunities play an important role in intergenerational mobility. Indeed, Chetty et al. (2014) point out that mobility changes according to geographical area, better access to schooling, greater family stability and lower income inequality. The recent study by Chetty and Hendren (2016) also shows that the neighbourhood environment influences children's chances of income mobility.

Parents' income is an important factor in determining their children's future. Although there are other factors, income is considered to be one of the most important factors affecting children. Greg & Jeanne (1997) highlighted that children from poor families with high cognitive development can be a push factor for their success in the labour market in adulthood. On the other hand, some studies have shown that children from affluent families have a higher chance of earning a high salary compared to children from poor families. Solon (1999) has strongly suggested that high-income parents are also

likely to possess other characteristics, such as high ability, which have an independent positive impact on their children's outcomes. The study therefore intends to assess intergenerational mobility between the two generations of the displaced society of Putrajaya.

### **2.5.2 Intergenerational mobility in Education**

The second analysis of intergenerational mobility relates to educational attainment. Although intergenerational mobility often refers to income as a variable, intergenerational mobility in relation to education has not yet been explored. Fletcher & Han (2018) found that much attention has been paid to the study of intergenerational mobility in relation to the variable of income, but studies on education in relation to intergenerational mobility are lacking. One of the ways to measure the progress of a society is to compare the achievements of the current or new generation with those of the previous generation. This comparison should not be limited to income. The comparison should also include education. Since education is seen as a platform or band-aid for higher income, its study will give a clear insight into the progress of the society. In fact, studies show that the other motivation that can lead to intergenerational mobility is to achieve a higher social status in society. This can help policy makers to develop measures to improve the effectiveness of education policies in the long run. Therefore, the study includes intergenerational mobility in education to see how far this displaced society has progressed.

## 2.6 Definition of Well-being

It is important to have a clear definition and type of well-being so that the right measurement and concepts can be derived or obtained from it. It is even more important to be clear about what is being measured and how to interpret the data obtained for the study. There is no precise definition of well-being in the existing literature. There is a lack of a very clear definition in the terminology itself. Without a clear definition, the topic becomes very broad and ambiguous. Ryff (1989) pointed out that the lack of theory-based formulations of well-being is puzzling. Although many papers have been published on the various topics of well-being, the definition of well-being is still uncertain and varies according to the author. The definition of well-being is still very broad and has an unclear meaning (Forgeard, Jayawickreme, Kern, & Seligman, 2011). Elena & Galina (2015) argue that there is neither a unanimous definition of this category nor a unanimous approach to exploring and assessing its value and importance for people and society. In turn, there are many interpretations of this category, depending on which aspect is considered.

According to the Oxford dictionary, well-being is defined as the state of being comfortable, healthy, or happy. It is the result of the way a person or a society expresses their state of mind. Well-being is a positive outcome that matters to people and to many sectors of society because it tells us that people feel that their lives are going well. Good living conditions (e.g. housing, work) are fundamental to well-being

Furthermore, the underlying dimensions or categories of well-being vary according to researchers. According to Rath & Harter (2010), well-being is developed by looking at the five elements of well-being. The five elements are career, social, financial, physical,

and community well-being. According to this, individuals can improve their lives by fulfilling the five elements. In addition, a broader concept of well-being includes various sub-aspects from the social, environmental and economic, health, and other miscellaneous aspects. Among these aspects, the socio-economic conditions assessed in this study can be considered as part of the dimensions of well-being.

In general, well-being is divided into two categories, the first being objective wellbeing<sup>3</sup>. It assesses external factors (not directly related to a person's life satisfaction) and is usually measured by indicators such as income, education, and others. In objective measurement, a person's well-being can be determined based on certain hard measures. For example, whether he/she is rich or poor based on income. Alartartseva & Barysheva (2015) highlights that the objective aspect of well-being is characterized by the description of material well-being and quality of life: these concepts are formed and influenced by factors such as the level and stability of income, the conditions of residence, the opportunity of education, the quality of the social and natural environment, safety and security and the possibility of realizing social and civil rights and needs. In this study, the assessment of socio-economic conditions of the displaced community in terms of income and other objective measures can be considered as part of objective well-being.

Nevertheless, objective well-being does not reflect the general state of well-being. In the social context, objective well-being figures and data such as GDP or GNP tend to generalize them to the whole community or society. This generalization does not show the true value of the society, especially when there is inequality between rich and poor and GDP does not reflect the nation's well-being (Kapoor & Debroy, 2019). When

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<sup>3</sup> Scholars define this as a person's economic wellbeing or the socioeconomic status.

scholars compare objective well-being with SWB, they often do not match. It is also the case that some studies use variables such as income, working hours, and leisure time as implicit values of SWB. Lars, et. al. (2011) argue that income does not take into account many aspects - leisure time, longevity, asset depletion or accumulation, income inequality, economic security etc. - that are important to an individual's economic welfare-being, but it is important to include these factors. Since the above factors are not considered, new ways or methods are used to calibrate SWB. Therefore, studies have further explored the concept of SWB. SWB, which is considered to be a perfect complement to objective well-being is further studied to explain human behavior. Meanwhile, the subjective aspect of well-being is characterized by, and perhaps only conceptualized as, an internal subjective experience of each individual.

The SWB has become an important tool for measuring human preferences and social welfare. SWB can be a perfect complement to examine society and its happiness more closely. When a person or a society is happy, the tendency or chances for the society to progress and achieve greater things in their lives are better. From an evolutionary perspective, positive SWB plays an adaptive role in human survival by motivating the individual to engage in discovery and build resources that enhance coping with life strategies and stressors (Diener & Diener, 1995). The following section explains the concept of SWB in more detail

## **2.7 Subjective Well-being (SWB)**

SWB is the situation of how a person or a group of people perceive their life, whether it is positive or vice versa. It is meant to describe how happy an individual or society is and has been discussed and debated throughout human history. The great Greek philosopher

Aristotle went a step further and expounded the concept of eudaemonia, which states that every human being strives for an objectively desirable and happy life. SWB plays an important role not only for the individual but for society as a whole. A positive SWB in society can lead to good values for society and the people around it and vice versa. All this underlines the importance of SWB in improving the status of society and the urgent need for policymakers. The focus of SWB is on affect and cognitive appraisals. Life satisfaction is the most commonly operationalized measure to capture the cognitive aspects of SWB. Clark et al. (2018) believe that people should self-reflect on their own well-being. Cognitive measures such as life satisfaction should be favoured over affective measures that measure mood, feeling, and meaning in life. Regarding the field area of SWB of displaced people, several studies have been conducted recently in different settings and conditions (Shemyakina & Plagnol, 2013; Randell, 2016; Veronese et al., 2019; Sullivan & Sagala, 2020).

There are several concepts associated with SWB. The terms well-being, quality of life, happiness, and life satisfaction are often used interchangeably (OECD, 2017). The OECD (2017) report further emphasizes that good mental state, including all the various positive and negative evaluations people, make of their lives, and people's affective reactions to their experiences are the measures of SWB. With this definition, the report measures how people experience and evaluate their lives in a particular area of life, such as their financial status, health status, and also the means of their lives.

In other words, the question is directly aimed at examining the happiness of the person himself. (Gurin, Veroff, & Fled, 1960) argues that SWB needs to be measured more accurately. Indeed, Angner (2010) clearly argues that the answer to the question of how happy the individual requires the study of both SWB, i.e. individual and societal well-



being-. Societal well-being refers to living conditions in social, economic, and psychological terms. In other words, it measures the quality of life of an individual or a group of people. In addition, SWB is a measure of a person or group in various areas such as employment, housing, infrastructure, education, environment, and more. Diener (2006) has given a clearer definition by defining SWB as "the various valuations people attach to their lives, to events in their lives, to their bodies and minds, and to the conditions in which they live".

Researchers such as Kahneman & Krueger (2006) and Diener (2000) stated that SWB is a better measure of the progress of a society or country compared to other indices such as gross national product. The use of other concepts of well-being such as SWB became popular in the 1960s due to the inadequacies of measuring economic indicators, especially gross domestic product, but lost momentum and importance in the 1980s before re-emerging in the 1990s (Jong, Lee & Kim, 2015). SWB plays a useful role in measuring consumer preferences and social welfare, and economists have already made much use of SWB data. Between 2001 and 2005, more than 100 papers were written analyzing data on self-reported life satisfaction or happiness, compared to only four between 1991 and 1995 (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006).

In DID cases, there are some positive reports of how SWB has improved for most households, especially for households that did not own land at baseline, that have acquired assets such as vehicles, that have stayed closer to the original study area, or that have stayed in close proximity to other households from the study population (Randell, 2016).

### 2.7.1 Theoretical Justification of Subjective Well-Being

The SWB theory states that various factors contribute to SWB. In exploring the determinants of SWB, this study uses the relevant theories as its primary theoretical framework. A review of the literature reveals the development of such theories - from different perspectives. In fact, there are very few universal theories on SWB with different theories and conceptualizations of SWB from different fields (Durayappah, 2011). There are three theories in the conceptualization of SWB. Parfit (1984) classifies these theories as subjectivist, objectivist, and hedonistic theories of well-being. The subjectivist theory defines well-being as desire, preferences, and satisfaction (Heathwood, 2015), with some theories defining it as life satisfaction, while the objectivist theories set a universal standard to judge whether life is happy (Fletcher, 2015). The hedonistic theories define well-being as pleasure (Gregory, 2015).

Similarly, in defining what explains well-being, theories discuss relative expectation. Relative theory states that individuals' expectations and social comparisons influence well-being. Factors such as income and other socio-economic conditions could influence happiness or life satisfaction. In fact, this is seen in absolute rather than relative terms, and we can assume that individual basic needs explain well-being. Apart from this, the ability theory assumes that the individual's ability to adapt to changing events, whether positive or negative, determines well-being. Aspiration theory, on the other hand, states that satisfaction depends on the relationship between the individual's desires and his or her total desires. These theories form the basis for discovering the potential determinants of subjective well-being, which are discussed in the next section.

## 2.7.2 Factors Driving Subjective Well-being

The importance of SWB prompts scholars to examine the various determinants of SWB, namely economic and social indicators. George (2010) provides an overview of the determinants of SWB and argues that understanding the determinants is still problematic. This section explains how socio-economic factors determine SWB. A further detailed explanation can be found in Chapter 3 in building the conceptual framework of the study. In some cases, the evidence suggests mixed results. There are few universal theories of SWB, but there are several different theories that conceptualise SWB and its drivers depending on the area of study (Durayappah, 2011).

Studies using SWB and economic indicators include that of Di Tella, MacCulloch, & Oswald (2001), which clearly indicates that happiness and GDP are strongly correlated. The perception of happiness also increases with age (Pouwels, Siegers & Vlasblom, 2008). The study also found that working hours have the expected negative effect on happiness, but only for men is the effect significant. According to Nikolaev & Burns (2014), general factors such as consumption, better access to education and health increase a person's SWB. In fact, other factors also contribute to SWB. For example, pride in doing better in education than one's parents leads to higher SWB. In addition, intergenerational mobility to achieve a higher social status again increases an individual's SWB.

A study by Bjornskov et al. (2013), Dreher, Fischer, Schnellenbach & Gehring (2013) concluded that income inequality only has a positive impact on SWB if people have a higher perception of fairness in terms of social mobility and economic opportunities. In other words, income inequality has a negative impact on SWB when these two conditions are not present. Indeed, Nikolaev & Burns (2014) have shown that SWB is influenced by

social and educational mobility, mainly through the channels of income and health.

The income factor is usually associated with happiness or higher SWB. The more money someone has, the happier the person is. Deaton (2008), Stevenson & Wolfers (2008) and Sacks, Stevenson and Wolfers (2013) argue that income has a positive impact on SWB. Oishi & Kesebir (2015) note that the issue of the impact of income distribution on SWB concerns communities and nations rather than individuals.

However, this generalisation can be challenged and one such disagreement was reported by Easterlin (1995). Easterlin (1995) concluded that increases in income do not contribute to happiness, especially when the surrounding society also experiences a substantial increase in income. This is because the material norms on which assessments of well-being are based increase at the same rate as the actual income of the surrounding society. When income increases, SWB decreases. Helliwell & Putnam (2004) found that happiness increases with income, but with diminishing returns. They noted that "money can buy happiness for the relatively poor, but more money does not necessarily mean more happiness for the relatively wealthy."

Apart from the factors mentioned above, there are others that contribute to SWB. Chi, Cai & Li (2017) pointed out that urban-rural differences in SWB are determined by income, sense of community and social environment. Similarly, (Easterlin, Laura & Jacqueline, 2011) state that economic development contributes to income, education and occupational structure differences that determine urban-rural differences in SWB. Interaction and social networking is an important aspect that determines happiness. People are a social group that needs to work together to live and thrive. Understanding how and why collaboration works or fails is critical to addressing the many global issues we face (The Cooperative Human, 2018). This points to the importance of neighbours

and friendships. Disbanding a group of people will have a negative impact on them. Time spent with friends and neighbours is positively related to happiness (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004). This also suggests that trust and a sense of belonging to each other is a key determinant of happiness. In a study by Yip et al. (2007), trust, reciprocity and a sense of belonging were found to be associated with higher levels of happiness in rural China. The disintegration of a group of people who have belonged together for years or even decades therefore has negative physiological effects. In the case of DID, moving to a city as well as moving far away from family or friends was strongly associated with a decline in happiness (Randell, 2016). This is confirmed by the earlier study by Knight & Gunatilaka (2010), which found that rural to urban migrants in China had lower SWB than those who had stayed in the countryside or were born in the city.

From all these arguments and indications, it can be concluded that factors such as age, working hours, gender, income of the person and income of the surrounding society, community well-being and interaction along with relationship with the community play a vibrant role in shaping a person's SWB.

## **2.8 Subjective well-Being and Development Induced Displacement**

There are many studies that look at subjective wellbeing and displacement, but these studies tend to focus on conflict and war-related displacement rather than development-related displacement. Many of these studies on SWB relate to different aspects of life such as health and aging of society (Steptoe., Deaton., & Stone. (2015), the relationship between social integration and subjective wellbeing (Appau, Churchill, & Farrell, L.

2019), and many others such as income and SWB and etc. The population and samples of these studies vary. Some studies focus on urban populations, others on rural populations, some on developing countries, others on developed countries, etc., but very few specifically address development-induced displacement and related SWB.

As for the studies on development-induced displacement, the focus is more on other aspects such as the socio-economic impact on the displaced communities rather than on the specific study of SWB and development-induced displacement. Most of these examples of development-induced displacement have resulted in a socio-economic decline for the displaced as the relocated communities struggle to rebuild their livelihoods in the face of new circumstances (Cernea. 2008). However, examples of successful resettlement show that displacement and socioeconomic collapse do not necessarily go hand in hand (Cernea & McDowell, 2000; Mejia, 2000; Picciotto, Van Wicklin, & Rice, 2001). Very few aspects of development-induced displacement and community SWB have been discussed.

One of the most important papers on development displacement and SWB is by Randell (2016). Randell's study on SWB of the displaced community in the Brazilian Amazon found that the majority of households recorded an improvement in subjective well-being, especially those who did not own land at the beginning of the study, acquired assets such as vehicles, and stayed close to the original study area or were in close proximity to other homes of the study population. Moving far away from family or friends or to an urban area was significantly associated with a deterioration in well-being. In addition, displacement affects social networks, income, livelihoods and living conditions, whether caused by economic opportunities, political unrest, or development projects. All these factors have affected the basic relationships that exist before and after displacement and

the assessment of wellbeing and life satisfaction. Therefore, this study is one of those that specifically address the issue of development-induced displacement and the SWB of such displacement.

## **2.9 Summary**

The aim of this chapter is to discuss what displacement means in the context of forced migration due to development and what category or jargon is used for those who have been displaced due to a situation. The chapter also explores the various impacts of development-induced displacement in terms of economic, social, and gender discrimination. This is followed by the definition of well-being and a particular focus on SWB. Both aspects of the development-induced displacement and SWB are combined to serve as a further basis for the analysis of the study's case study. The study specifically looks at how a displaced community is doing and what their SWB looks like after being forced to move to a new location.

## CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used for the study. It presents the research philosophy underlying the design and explains how it relates to the research instruments and a range of procedures that were used to collect data for the study. Chapter 2 provides the relevant literature, while this chapter delves into the discussion of the conceptual framework and its domains of the SWB of the displaced community, as well as the drivers of the SWB, namely the socioeconomic state of the displaced community.

### 3.2 Research Paradigm and Approach

A research paradigm is the orientation and assumptions shared in the design of the research, and the phenomena being studied are associated with the study and the way the research methods are used. According to Kuhn (1977), a research paradigm is a method recognized by the community of researchers that provides an in-depth guideline for conducting research. Several paradigms are mentioned in various literature, but only two dominant paradigms are mainly discussed and used by researchers: positivism and the interpretivist paradigm (Bryman, 2001).

Positivists believe in empirical hypothesis testing, which is widely used in the quantitative approach and can be measured by objective methods. In this approach, researchers follow a standard procedure by defining a clear research topic and objectives. Researchers use



the structural approach by defining a clear research objective, considering the relevant theories in constructing their hypothesis, and by following a consistently rational and logical approach (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug, 2001). In other words, positivists design to show their properties and the relationships between them, where reliability can be measured using certain methods and instruments. Researchers in this paradigm uses a deductive approach. The approach is one of testing a theory before reaching conclusions, and this is done by developing a hypothesis. The aim is to investigate the relationship associated with the theory.

Following the above, this study uses positivism or a deductive approach. The study starts with a theory from which some hypotheses are then developed to achieve the objectives. The hypotheses are tested by analysing data and information collected for the purpose of the study. One of the most popular methods of obtaining data and information is through the use of survey methods. The methods are quantitative in nature and involve the process of questionnaire design, sampling, measurement and scaling, and data analysis. The aim is to gather a larger number of respondents that will allow generalisation about a specific population.

The second paradigm is interpretivism, which uses a research design that focuses mainly on qualitative methods. Interpretivism assumes that human behaviour is very subjective. Therefore, it is important to study human behaviour in daily life rather than in a controlled environment. Neuman (2000) clarifies that the role of this group of researchers is to understand and interpret human behaviour and not to generalise or predict causal relationships. Researchers who follow the interpretivism paradigm usually use the inductive method in their research. The inductive approach is a method in which theories are formulated through observation. Goddard & Melville (2004) explained that the

inductive approach starts with observations and theories are only formulated at the end of the research process based on the observations. Common methods of the inductive approach are ethnography and grounded theory. Qualitative techniques also include interviews, observations, case studies and others. In this study, this method is applied through observation and interviews with the population.

In contrast to the other two paradigms, the paradigm of pragmatism holds that there are many ways of interpreting research findings and that one need not necessarily limit oneself to one method that can provide an interpretation of the whole situation (Saunders, Adrian, & Philip, 2012). Pragmatists "recognise that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and conducting research, that no single point of view can ever give the whole picture, and that there may be multiple realities". Therefore, pragmatism uses a combination of inductive and deductive methods in its research. The method of pragmatism consists of combining the methods of positivism and interpretivism. In short, this study used both paradigms to gain a better understanding of the displaced community. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the study does not attempt to develop a theory as is common within the interpretivist paradigm. Rather, it only uses some of the interpretivist methods such as interviews and observations to support and justify the observations made using the data collected through the questionnaire. Therefore, this study explores the relationship between the variables under study, conceptualised and derived from the earlier theoretical foundation and later tested through a series of hypotheses.

This study uses the paradigm of pragmatism, combining both qualitative and quantitative methods, to answer the research questions stated in Chapter 1. The reason for this attempt to use a mixed methodology is explained further. As this study is a case study of the displaced community, the depth of answering the study objectives is still uncertain when it comes to providing appropriate answers. The study of the community requires some form of subjective judgement as behaviours may vary greatly from person to person. Therefore, it is difficult to verify qualitative data such as perceptions or awareness issues that differ from person to person, and it is also difficult to determine causality. However, it does provide a way for the researcher to explain the reasoning behind the quantitative data observations.

Using a mixed method also allows researchers to overcome some of the disadvantages of both methods. According to Barbour (1999), it can be difficult for researchers to investigate causality between different research phenomena using only the qualitative research approach, as the quality and quantity of information obtained from different respondents can always lead to inconsistent conclusions. It is also true that qualitatively collected data is highly questionable as it can be influenced by the researcher's interviewing and observation skills. The researcher has to be careful as he can influence the details collected and there will be bias in the research findings. Apart from this, the usual open-ended questions are difficult to interpret correctly in relation to the real situation. Individual perspectives and instinctive decisions can lead to bias. It can also lead to inaccurate data interpretation as it relies on the subjectivism of the researcher (Vittana.org, 2018). The quantitative approach would thus compensate for some of these drawbacks by providing more structured responses that avoid the researcher's bias.

The exclusive use of a quantitative approach to research also has several drawbacks. One of the flaws or weakness is the situation in collecting the data. Baxter & Jack (2008) argued that sometimes researchers have problems controlling the environment in which respondents give answers to questions at a given time. Similarly, quantitative methods use closed-ended questions, which are often designed in advance and do not correspond to reality in certain circumstances. In addition, respondents have limited response options due to the choices made by the researcher (Sudeshna, 2016). Therefore, a qualitative approach offers the possibility to mitigate some of these challenges.

To overcome the challenges of using only one method, this study integrates both quantitative and qualitative methods to achieve the best possible result. By using mixed methods, the study provides more opportunities to adequately address the issues of socioeconomic and SWB. By interviewing the respondents during data collection using the questionnaire, more detailed supporting information is obtained. Indirectly, each of the respondents was interviewed to obtain additional information on the topics under study. As Courtney (2017) argues, the perceived value of the mix method is higher and it will provide researchers with more insights and information to draw valuable conclusions.

This study also addresses observation: in studying socio-economic conditions and SWB, researchers observed household environmental conditions. Observation of household environmental conditions provides additional information not directly captured by the questionnaires, which is then recoded by the enumerators. The localised contextual and environmental factors are captured through visits to the homes of the displaced community. Table 3.1 shows each of the objectives and the methods.

**Table 3.1: Research Objectives and the Approach**

<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Approaches and Methods</b>
<p>1. <b>Objective 1:</b> Examine the socioeconomic conditions (including well-being that captures material resources and social attributes) of the displaced community.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Survey - Using Quantitative methods via analysing from the data collected via descriptive statistics.</li> <li>• Qualitative – In depth Interviews and observations - Using the interviews to obtain the information on the situation and the conditions.</li> <li>• Survey - Regression analysis in identifying drivers of income and financial stability. Quantitative methods in analysing the collected data. This includes a base line regression and descriptive statistics.</li> </ul>
<p>2. <b>Objective 2:</b> Assess the household perceived future of their children and inter-generation mobility of the displaced community.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Survey and Interviews - The conditions are captured using descriptive statistics by assessing the shift in income and education. Interviews to complement the assessment.</li> </ul>
<p>3. <b>Objectives 3:</b> To assess the SWB conditions of the displaced community.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Survey - Descriptive statistics and factor analysis.</li> </ul>
<p>4. <b>Objective 4:</b> Explore the drivers of SWB of the displaced community.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Survey - Regression analysis to explore the determinant of SWB (quantitative)</li> </ul>

### 3.4 Conceptual Framework of the Study: Socioeconomic Conditions and SWB

Figure 3.1 shows the conceptual framework of the study. Revisiting the study objectives, it is clear that the study seeks to investigate the following:

1. examine the socio-economic conditions of the displaced community.
2. assess the households' perceived future of their children and intergenerational mobility in the displaced community.
3. Assess the SWB of the displaced community.
4. explore the drivers of the SWB of the displaced community.

The framework shown in Figure 3.1 is developed by examining each of the socioeconomic dimensions and further assessing how these socioeconomic conditions are relevant to SWB. The conceptual framework is based on the theoretical framework of the 'Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations' (IRR), the theory of intergenerational mobility and the concept of SWB discussed in Chapter 2. The displacement model shows the impact of displacement on the different socioeconomic conditions of the community. In view of this, the starting point of the conceptual framework for the study is to examine the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community. Two major socioeconomic conditions are examined in the study. First, the economic conditions, which include income and financial position, including savings and borrowing. Second, social conditions, which include education, health, social support and security. Furthermore, in this context of the displaced community, the study assesses the intergenerational mobility of displaced households in terms of income and education. In the context of assessing education and income, the study uses the theory of intergenerational mobility to assess the problems of intergenerational mobility among the

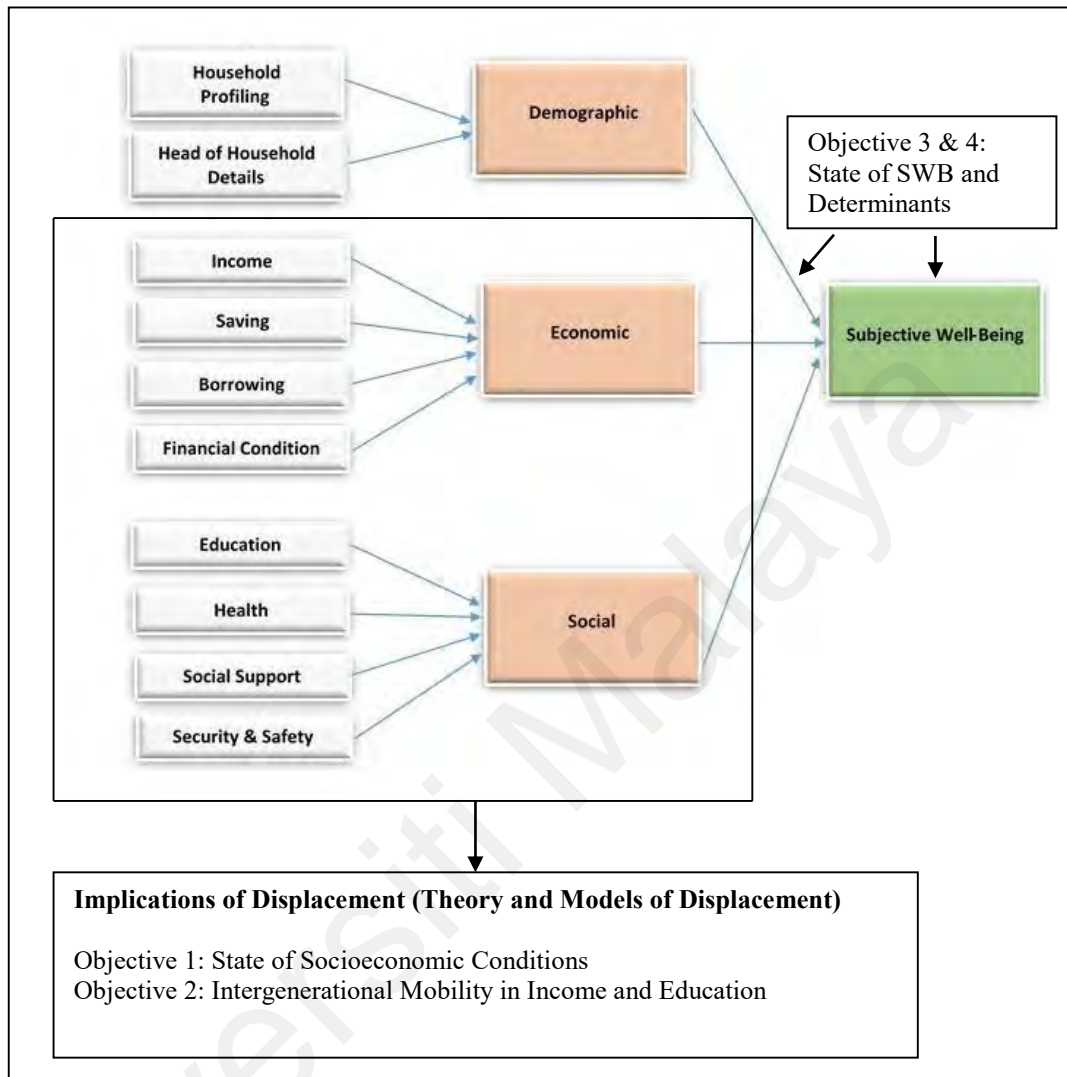
children of the displaced community. The objective is to examine the extent of educational and income mobility among the households, which will have an impact on improving the socioeconomic conditions of the households.

In addition, the study assesses households' perceptions about the future of their children's income and education. The assessment uses both quantitative and qualitative data. The analysis includes in-depth assessments covering the economic and social dimensions shown in Figure 3.1 in the following areas:

1. income and financial conditions
2. intergenerational mobility in education and income
3. health, social support and security and safety.

In addition, the study attempts to predict certain occurrence of the socioeconomic conditions related to household demographics by conducting a basic regression analysis.

**Figure 3. 1: Conceptual Framework**



The rationale for the analysis is based on the literature review in Chapter 2, which discusses the relevant literature on the impact of displacement on socioeconomic conditions and SWB by examining the theories and models of displacement. In this chapter, the study also includes literature on the factors that determine SWB. In addition to the analysis of socioeconomic conditions in this section, the study extends the conceptual framework borrowed for the literature presented in Chapter 2 and adds more information to build the conceptual framework of the study to achieve the study



objectives. This extension is to establish the causal relationship between socioeconomic conditions and the state of SWB. The study then assesses the state of SWB. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the SWB of the displaced community is further captured as the measurement of well-being should consider more than objective measures of socioeconomic conditions. For these reasons, the study explores and uses the SWB concept, which has been widely reported in the literature. In the final phase, the causal relationship between demographic and socio-economic factors and SWB is further explored based on the SWB literature.

The SWB determinants (factors) are discussed in detail in the following section, especially the factors used in the study of SWB drivers' factors. The factors were carefully extracted and selected from various literatures (as discussed in Chapter 2) to study the SWB factors of the displaced community.

#### **3.4.1 Demographic Dimension**

The demographic dimension includes gender, age, occupation, and the number of working years. There is less emphasis on demographic factors compared to personality types and psychological factors in determining SWB. Nevertheless, demographic variables can alter the state of SWB and serve as an important control variable in the analysis of SWB of the displaced community. Past literature indicates the following references to gender and age. Bartels & Boomsma (2009) found that there were no differences in SWB between genders. The findings of Jiang, Lu & Sato (2012), Bockerman, Johansson & Saarni (2011), and Monk-Turner & Turner (2012) are consistent with the earlier studies of Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith (1999) who indicated that SWB is lowest in the middle age group and females have better SWB compared to the opposite sex. Mather (2012), Charles (2010), Kunzmann, Little, & Smith (2000) have

shown the relationship between age and SWB. The general results show that age has a negative effect on positive affective SWB, but not on negative affective SWB.

This study hypothesizes the following:

*H1: Demographic variables have significant relationship with SWB of the displaced community.*

### **3.4.2 Economic Dimension**

Economic dimensions can be captured through the lens of income, savings rate, borrowing and financial conditions. Income is the total net flow of payments received in a given period. There are a variety of definitions of income, from taxes, transfers, measuring national productivity, measuring family resources, measuring individual well-being, providing health care subsidies, providing scholarships and loans to students, and more (Brooks, 2017). By monitoring all the aspects mentioned here, which include monitoring people's income to assess their opportunities rather than their choices, it is therefore essential to monitor income alongside access to certain products. It respects people's right to make their own choices about what they consider most important for their lives (Roser, 2021). This falls directly into the definition of economics itself, especially in terms of scarcity and choice.

Saving simply means consuming fewer resources now in order to spend more in the future. It is thus the decision to defer consumption and to shop this deferred consumption in some form of assets (Kotlikoff, 1989). Saving is the part of income that is not spent on current expenditure. Saving plays an important role in the economy, especially at the macroeconomic level. Governments attach great importance to saving at the

macroeconomic level in order to make new investments, produce new capital products and maintain economic growth. Individuals and households view savings incentives as promoting the long-term economic security of the individual and the long-term economic prosperity of the country.

The next economic dimension tested here is borrowing. According to recent academic studies, higher borrowing is associated with other economic factors such as slower output growth, higher unemployment and a higher likelihood of future banking crises (Mian, Sufi & Verner., 2017). Excessive borrowing can lead to the collapse of a nation's economy. These links became evident after the global financial crisis, when excessive borrowing by subprime customers increased the number of defaults and foreclosures (Mian & Sufi, 2014). Higher household borrowing and debt can trigger other economic crises, such as a reduction in income available to households for other essentials such as food and rent. This can eventually spell doom for households when they face rising debt service. According to the IMF's Global Financial Stability Report of autumn 2017, debt in emerging markets has risen from 15% of GDP to 21% in the same period since 2008. So it seems that households have not been deterred from taking on more debt by the global financial crisis. This could have a chain effect on households, as they could eventually suffer if they have to service increasing debt once interest rates rise and the credit boom comes to an end. In recent decades, household debt has expanded rapidly, raising questions about its sustainability and consequently its impact on the financial system and the overall economy (Debelle 2004). This will definitely affect the financial stability of households.

Income and financial stability are considered very important aspects in determining SWB. Many scholars raise the question of whether a person's income or financial conditions (circumstances) can increase SWB. The question of whether more money leads to an improvement in a person's subjective well-being has sparked debate among scholars and policymakers. Some scholars believe that income affects subjective well-being, while others disagree. One of these models is the Easterlin paradox (Easterlin, 1974), which states that an increase in income does not increase well-being. He also concluded that comparison between countries shows that income and happiness have a weaker relationship (Easterlin, 1974). He also found that despite significant increases in wealth and living standards, happiness hardly increases over time (Easterlin, 1995).

Nevertheless, Sacks, Stevenson & Wolfers (2012) have refuted the Easterlin paradox by claiming that there is a very positive and robust relationship between well-being and income levels, using time series data (Sacks, Stevenson & Wolfers, 2012). Scholars such as Frank (2012), Veenhoven and Hagerty (2006) noted that the evidence points to a strong relationship between income and SWB.

For scholars such as Diener & Seligman (2004), the relationship between income and well-being also diminishes above a certain income level. That is, after a certain level of income is reached and well-being is fulfilled, happiness becomes an independent and autonomous factor. Layard (2003) also confirms that happiness levels seem to be independent of income.

Clark, Frijters & Shields (2008) noted that economic prosperity eventually stops buying more happiness. Similarly, Di Tella & MacCulloch (2008) argued that happiness cannot be bought despite high per capita income. Frey and Stutzer (2002) pointed out that desirable income has a very small impact on SWB after reaching a certain level. They

further argued that factors such as the type of democracy and the extent of decentralisation of government determine SWB. On the other hand, Deaton (2008) and Stevenson and Wolfers (2008) pointed out that there is no saturation point between income and happiness, but that every dollar earned greatly increases the happiness of the poor compared to that of the rich. The findings of Mentzakis and Moro (2009) show that higher absolute income increases SWB to some extent. Moreover, relative income plays a more important role in determining SWB. Higher monthly income leads to higher SWB, which is in contrast to other aspects such as relationship with family, friends and surrounding community, which can achieve higher satisfaction even without monthly income (Lipovcan, Brkljacic and Sakic (2007)). There are some correlations between income and SWB. Although income increases over time, SWB does not increase in the typical way (Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2005), Easterlin. (2001). Brockmann, Delhey, Welzel & Yuan (2009) also found that while income has increased over the last 30 years, SWB has not increased at the same time. One proposed explanation is that relative income may play a greater role in SWB than absolute income (Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2005; Luttmer, 2005).

Based on the above theories and arguments, the study has included income as a factor in the economic dimension to examine the impact on the displaced population. Generalising the above theoretical arguments, it can be assumed that income has an impact on SWB in one way or another, even if it is not necessarily a direct impact. Based on the argument that the displaced population may not have reached the required threshold, the study hypothesises that income and financial situation have a positive impact on SWB. It is important for the study to establish the extent to which income and financial situation influence the SWB of the displaced community. The study goes beyond the usual use of income as the main indicator and also includes other financial aspects such as savings and borrowing to assess financial situation. For example, savings are recognised to influence SWB alongside consumption, time preferences and risk taking (De-Neve, Diener, Tay, &

Xuereb, 2013). Guven (2012) found in his research that people with high SWB (happier) save more and are unlikely to fall into the debt trap (Guven, 2012). Similarly, Gokdemir (2015) confirmed that savings contribute to high levels of SWB.

There are the following reasons for measuring the economic situation with the inclusion of the financial situation for this particular case study. Firstly, the life expectancy of Malaysians has increased and is expected to continue to increase in the coming years, making savings and the ability to secure funding critical for SWBs. Indeed, saving for retirement has become a critical factor after active working age. Having more savings on the way to retirement gives the household a kind of comfort and safety net and thus contributes to the increase in SWB and satisfaction. This also raises the question of whether the displaced community has sufficient financial security. A household with a lower income might still have a higher level of well-being because of the financial security. It will also complement the average household income well. In addition, during the pilot survey, the study also found that some of the households receive some form of government assistance. The case presented by Baker, Gruber, & Milligan (2009) clearly shows that the income support programme in Canada has increased income and reduced poverty. Looking at savings and financial conditions, better conclusions can be drawn. Similarly, borrowing could provide temporary relief or have a negative impact on overall SWB. Borrowing may encourage financial stress, and if it turns into bad debt, it may trigger financial stress, which in turn has a negative impact on SWB. The study therefore intends to examine the general financial conditions and their impact on SWB. The study hypothesises the following and empirically determines the relationship:

*H2: Financial conditions (income, saving, borrowing etc) positively influence SWB of the displaced household.*

The study empirically assess the individual dimensions of each of the financial conditions.

### **3.4.3 Social Dimension**

The social dimension is crucial for the socioeconomic development of the community. They provide the community with the necessary impetus not only to develop its well-being but also to move up the economic ladder individually. Education, health, social support and safety and security are the most important social dimensions. Sen (1999) found that there is an obvious link between financial success and good health, especially when it comes to increasing a person's socioeconomic well-being. People in wealthier countries often live longer and suffer less from diseases of all kinds. In the same nation, wealthier people often live longer and suffer less from diseases. Another social aspect mentioned for the well-being of people is the reduction of human insecurity, such as physical violence, through the use of education. Sen (2003) noted that expanding the reach and effectiveness of basic education can play a strong preventive role in reducing human insecurity of almost any kind. In other words, education can achieve fewer negative elements.

Concern for human values, social support systems, education, and training, as well as safety and health, has a great impact on a person's well-being. Studies show that at the individual level, social support, education, and health status have a stable relationship with SWB (Dolan, Peasgood, and White, 2008).

Barrera, Sandler & Ramsay (1981) provided one of the earliest definitions of social support. They refer to the many types of support provided by family members, friends, neighbours and others. The social support system plays an important role in determining SWB (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Studies show that social support positively influences

SWB (Newsom & Schulz, 1996; Pinquart & Sorensen, 2000; Thomas, 2010). However, some studies also show that social support has no influence on SWB (Lakey et al., 2010; Lee et al., 1995; Lepore et al., 2008). The different results are due to the different measures of social support. While there is sufficient evidence that social support can predict subjective well-being, the clarity of the relationship between these two components is still less clear (Li et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the study hypothesises that the social support system is more relevant in the case of the displaced community in Taman Permata, as changes in the environment vary greatly between life on the plantation and the urban social support system.

Specific studies examining neighbourhood support point to the following. They conclude that the relationship with the neighbourhood is an important determinant of the SWB of the displaced group. Mutual trust, especially between neighbours, is seen as an important and crucial element for community development and higher SWB. A good relationship and trust between neighbours increases happiness levels and life satisfaction. Bjornskov (2006) generally found that trust and civic engagement are among the factors that improve life satisfaction. Trust is seen as a positive indicator for increasing SWB. Helliwell & Putnam, (2004) and Luttmer (2005) have shown that social trust leads to higher satisfaction. In addition to neighbourliness, relationships with family members and friends are also crucial. A study by Linn, Husaini, Richard, & Rudy (1989) showed that having friends nearby is positively related to mental health. Indeed, Kahneman and Krueger (2006) report that good partner relationships and social contacts are a significant covariate in explaining SWB.

In the initial stages of the study, observations and some brief interviews with some local residents indicated that the environment in the case area is in a deplorable state. The main concern is security, as cases of vandalism and crime are on the rise. For this reason, safety



and security are seen as one of the potential determinants of SWB. A literature review shows that there is little literature that addresses the safety and security aspects of SWB, and only the general factors such as income, marital status and health come to the forefront in the study of SWB. The few studies available show the following. For Michalos and Zumbo (1999), reducing the crime rate is important to improve the quality of life. However, in another study, Michalos and Zumbo (2000) found the opposite, stating that matters related to personal safety have little impact on well-being. This suggests that security can be very context-specific and depends on the environment. Moller (2005) agrees that concerns about personal safety and the perceived likelihood of victimisation have a more negative impact on life satisfaction than the actual event itself.

Furthermore, differences between countries are also found, which means that this social dimension is context-specific. A comparison of previous studies shows that personal security is considered less important in developing countries than in developed countries (Cummins et al., 2003; Tiliouine et al., 2006 ; Lau et al., 2005; Renn et al.,

One of the aspects to be explored in this study is how health, or more specifically the availability of a health care system, affects the well-being of a household. Health has a greater impact on a person's happiness than income. In particular, it is the most important and significant determinant of individual well-being (De Mello & Tiongson, 2009). Health has a major impact on a person's SWB. Whether mental or physical, both play an important role in a person's happiness. Whether physical or mental, Dolan, Peasgood & White (2008) found a strong relationship with SWB. Therefore, availability and access to health care are crucial for a good and happy life. Indeed, perceived health status would more strongly influence SWB. Conceicao & Bandura (2008) have reported that health and SWB go hand in hand in a positive way. Others such as Mukuria & Brazier (2013)

and Dolan & Metcalfe (2012) believe that the level of psychological well-being is more closely related to SWB than the level of physical health.

Another important social dimension is the level of education. This is considered a social dimension rather than a demographic dimension because higher levels of education enable the building of social skills that support information gathering and the building of a social network outside the community. It is seen as a powerful channel for developing social skills, promoting self-confidence, communication skills and self-esteem. Education is seen as supporting the social system by promoting collective ideas and goals. It is therefore interesting to explore whether education is relevant to SWB.

A study by Blanchflower & Oswald (2004) found that for each level of education attained, there was a positive relationship with SWB. Others, such as Stutzer (2004), confirm that an intermediate level of education is associated with higher levels of satisfaction. Jiang, Lu & Sato (2012); Bockerman, Johansson & Saarni (2011); Monk-Turner & Turner (2012); Ferrer-i-Carbonell (2005); Blanchflower & Oswald (2004); and Graham, & Pettinato (2004) concluded that education brings positive SWB, which is also confirmed by the earlier studies by Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith (1999).

However, there are also studies that come to opposite conclusions. Stutzer (2004) argued that education brings about positive change only to a small extent. Similarly, Hickson & Dockery (2008) and Shields, Price & Wooden (2009) found that education and SWB are negatively related. Yet, there is limited evidence on the complex nature of education in influencing SWB (Powdthavee, Lekfuangfu & Wooden, 2015). Most education variables act as control variables within SWB and there is a lack of studies that directly examine how this variable influences SWB (Dolan, Peasgood & White, 2008). Dockery (2010) also argues that more studies are needed in this area.

### **3.5 Case Study and Study Population**

The identification of the case is based on reported displaced community. While there are no accurate records of the actual displaced communities as a result of eviction from the plantations during the development process, the study relies on report about the communities in the media and other sources such as non-governmental organisations. Indeed, communities displaced from plantations are scattered all over Malaysia and in most cases the size of a particular community is very small. The highlighted case of Taman Permata is of interest because of the size of the community and the problems it faces. The forced relocation of the community has attracted a lot of media attention because of the social problems it faces. However, there was no adequate data and information to objectively substantiate the claims. Therefore, Taman Permata is an appropriate sample for a case study of the community displaced from the plantation area. The Taman Permata dwellings are located in Dengkil town. Figure 3.2 shows the map of the area. The flats are surrounded by some other housing estates. These housing areas surrounding the flats are either one-storey houses or two-storey houses (all land tenure).



#### **3.4.4 Population of the study**

The survey is aimed at the population as a whole. Taman Permata is home to 400 households. All these houses are for the residents of the four plantations that were displaced during the development of Putrajaya. When the survey was conducted, it was found that the original householders rented out a total of 111 houses. These 111 households were not surveyed as they did not meet the criteria of the group displaced by the Putrajaya development. Therefore, the study population comprises the remaining 289 households. Of these, 75 households were inaccessible to the enumerators for security reasons. Gangster elements and rough, non-cooperative, dangerous and abusive behaviour towards the enumerators are some of the reasons why these 75 households are not approachable. Subtracting this leaves a balance of 214 households. A total of 45 households were unresponsive because they were not at home (the households that were unresponsive after three attempts on three different occasions) and another 22 households refused to be interviewed. The study made four attempts to contact the households that could not be reached on the first visit.

The final total population interviewed and surveyed is 147. 6 households with incomplete data were excluded from the analysis during data cleaning. The final total number of households used for the analysis is 141 households. The survey procedure is as follows. The household head was asked a qualifying question to ensure that the household was from a plantation settlement and that they were eligible for the survey as a displaced person. Once the head of household is deemed qualified, permission is obtained to complete the questionnaire and record the interview. In cases where permission for recording was not obtained, interviews were conducted with respondents based on the questionnaire only. The average time taken for each household was between 30 and 45

minutes. On average, about 40 houses were allocated to one enumerator. The survey and interview were conducted from 24 November 2018 to 31 December 2018. The survey was conducted only on weekends. On weekdays, almost all households are working and it is difficult to reach them. Many of the households could only be reached on Sundays as most of them work on Saturdays.

### **3.5 Data Collection Method**

This section explains the methods and processes of data collection, in particular the questionnaire collection and interview data collection process used for the study. The study uses primary data for its analysis. The main primary data were collected using questionnaires. To support the survey, the study also conducted interviews and recorded the responses of the respondents. These recordings are used as supporting evidence for the questionnaire survey.

#### **3.5.1 Interviewer Administrated Questionnaire**

The survey is conducted using a structured questionnaire. To simplify the questionnaire, an interviewer-administered questionnaire (IAQ) was used in the study. IAQ refers to the questionnaire designed to be completed by the interviewer asking the respondent the questions. By using the IAQ method, the study hopes to obtain accurate and reliable data. In addition, most respondents needed help in answering the questions. Complex questions need to be formulated by the administrator so that they can be interpreted correctly by the respondents. The use of IAQ and the presence of well-trained enumerators are necessary for handling complex questions. Although IAQ are more resource intensive, they provide additional control over the quality of measurement as interviewers administer

questionnaires face-to-face. Apart from this, the use of IAQ allows respondents to answer all questions while asking them about other relevant details that may not have been captured in the questionnaire. Shuy (2002) argues that spontaneity in answering contributes to accurate responses.

### **3.5.2 Enumerators**

The study uses IAQ and, where possible, interview recording to obtain further information that may be useful to the study. The entire Taman Permata area will be included to cover the study area. The questionnaire needs to be completed by trained personnel. Therefore, a group of trained personnel or enumerators<sup>4</sup> were used for data collection. The enumerators were also trained by the researcher including the supervisors. The reason for using counters is -.

- i. Almost all households are only available at weekends, especially on Sundays, due to their work commitments. Without enumerators, it will be a daunting task to conduct the survey to meet the sample size requirements.
- ii. During the field visits it was found that almost all households, especially those of the first generation and the majority of the second generation, are not very educated and have difficulties reading and answering the questionnaires in English. Since the questionnaires are in English, the enumerators also had to translate into Tamil.

Based on the above considerations, a total of 10 enumerators were selected. These 10 enumerators are proficient in both English and Tamil. They were specially trained on the

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<sup>4</sup> I have directly been involved in administrating the enumerators and the survey questionnaires

content of the questionnaire. They have also been trained to ask for more details that are not given in the questionnaire to gain more insights. They will be trained for about 2 days on the questionnaires. The administration of the data collection will also be tape-recorded if the respondents allow it. These recorded responses will be used to extract some information that may not be apparent from the questionnaires.

### **3.5.3 In-depth Interview**

In-depth interviews are conducted while the survey questionnaire is administered. Both are conducted simultaneously. Enumerators asked participants for permission to record the in-depth interviews. When permission was given, the in-depth interviews were recorded. The enumerators were also trained to inquire further during the in-depth interviews, especially to find out the actual situation and reasons for these conditions. So, during the interview, the enumerators inquire from the participants at the same time to get more information about the issue. In this way, the interviews are expected to capture more data and information that the structured questionnaire cannot. This helps to support data analysis using the questionnaire and to extract information that is more valuable for substantiating arguments. Example: The questionnaire asked about salary, but what are the annual salary increases, etc., to analyse the financial situation over the years. Later, these interviews are decoded based on the narratives and categorised according to the category they fall into. For example, if the participants talk about their income, it falls under the category of income, and if they talk about crime, it falls under safety and environment. This data, together with the observations or other statistical data on the topic, forms solid evidence.



During this IAQ, many respondents do not agree to the interview being recorded. Even after explaining that the recording is only to record other important points on the issues and will not be used for other purposes, many are still against their voice being recorded. Respondents are concerned that this recording will be used to incriminate them. Finally, only 60 respondents' conversations were recorded for the study. These 60 recordings were later transcribed and used to capture other important information that will enable the study to complement the questionnaire survey. In addition, the study can identify the reasons why certain events occurred, which is supported by the narrative of the interviews. Together with the statistical analysis, it provides further detailed information when needed.

In order to classify the themes from the interviews, we use the quantitative questionnaire and the study framework as a guide, as we have predetermined the dimensions in which the study is embedded, especially the socio-economic dimension. During the interview, respondents were asked to justify and give reasons for the answers they gave. This provides important information to explain the observations made in the study.

#### **3.5.4 Survey Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was developed based on the previous literature review and consists of different parts. The questions in the questionnaire were either directly adopted or modified according to the situation in the case study. In addition, there are some questions that were created exclusively for this study based on some initial field visits.

The questionnaire is divided into 2 main parts (see Appendix 1). The first part, Part A, deals with the demographic data of the household. Here the respondent's household details, the total number of households (family members) and the status or position of

each household member are recorded. The position refers to the relationship with the head of the household. Other required information collected is occupation or study, gender, religion, sector employed, current income, highest qualification, number of years of employment, other sources of income and property ownership. Information on the head of household is also collected. It consists of five questions related to where the household moved to the flats in Taman Permata from and why. It is also about finding out what their job prospects are and what problems they face in finding employment. All this information is important to analyse household income and intergenerational mobility in terms of income and education.

The second part, Part B, is divided into 4 main sections specifically designed to capture the socioeconomic conditions and SWB of the displaced community. Fifteen questions were asked to capture the economic dimensions. The questions are related to additional income, savings, credit and mode of borrowing, purchasing power, government assistance, financial situation and old age provision. It is expected that these questions will provide more information about the financial opportunities and capabilities of the communities.

The next section of the questionnaires deals with the social dimension. The social dimension has been divided into 4 categories. The first category is about health. The section on health consists of 5 questions. The critical elements are to capture the health problems in terms of affordability of medical facilities to the community, especially in the absence of a public health sector. The next category under this social dimension is education and training. With a total of seven questions, the aim here is to collect information on the level of education and the attitude of the population towards education.

This section also aims to collect data on dropouts from the education system and the reasons for this.

The social support system is the next part covered under this social dimension category. The study aims to find out whether DID community perceptions and expectations regarding the social support system. The social support system here consists of the immediate environment and the external social system. The immediate social system refers to family members, neighbours and friends, while the external social system refers to the government and other NGOs. All these systems are included in order to capture how they perceive society, especially during contingency.

The last part of this category of the social dimension deals with security. The residential area here is relatively open, without any security, and it is not a gated community. From preliminary observation and interviews with residents in the area, it appears that gang fights, theft and other illegal activities occur in the area. Therefore, questions were included in the study to address the above activities. It is expected that these questions will give an overview of how the DID society, especially the second and third generation, has developed in this environment.

The last part or Part D of the questionnaire is about SWB. There are eight questions in this section. The first seven questions are about measuring the cognitive aspects of SWB. These questions are asked on a Likert scale from 1 to 7, where 1 stands for "strongly agree" and 7 for "strongly disagree". The questions are adapted from (Diener. et al, 1985). The questions capture the SWB of the DID community. The final question on SWB is designed to capture the Decent Life Scenario, which was developed to capture the current

overall situation of the community by comparing the assessment to a hypothetical scenario.

This is to ensure that the study gets the right information. Once the questions are completed, the validation process takes place. When validating the questions, the first thing that is determined is the construct validity of the study. Construct validity is about the extent to which the study measures what it claims to measure. Since the study aims to examine the SWB of the community displaced from the plantation, exploratory studies were conducted in the study. This exploratory study used an inductive approach. Based on observations and theories, the questions are formulated. Once the questions are formulated, the next step is to seek the opinions and suggestions of experts. This is to assess whether the questions actually capture the topic under investigation and to ensure, using a psychometric procedure, that the questions are not leading questions or confusing questions.

After the questionnaire had gone through the process described above, a pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of the questionnaire. Based on the pilot study, some questions were revised to improve the clarity of these questions in the context of the study. This was done during the pilot study using the interview process where the enumerators checked with the respondents whether they understood the questions. For the questions that are confusing, the question numbers are noted. Once the whole process is completed, the questions that are not clear are collated and any questions that have the same or similar meaning are taken out. Once the suitability of the questionnaire has been assessed, data collection begins. This ensures content validity. The interviews with semi-structured interviews are based on the questionnaire. The survey was conducted from 24 November

2018 to 29 January 2019. Appendix 1 and 2 illustrate the sample of the questionnaire survey and the source in which these questions were constructed and adopted.

### **3.5.5 Observation**

Observation is also used in this study, where the researcher observes the households' environmental conditions while studying the socio-economic situation and SWB. Observation of the households' environment provides additional information that is not directly captured by the questionnaires and is recoded by the enumerator. Visits to the homes of the displaced group captures the particular contextual and environmental elements. The study uses the method of unstructured observation to obtain the information needed. Unstructured observation is conducted in an unstructured manner and without predetermined objectives, schedules or variables. The method used for this observation is naturalistic observation. With this method, the study aims to capture the natural conditions and behaviour of the population, especially in relation to their living environment.

### **3.5.6 Measurements**

As different indicators are measured and recorded, this section describes the measurements used in the study. Table 3.2 provides a complete overview of the metrics used in the study. These measures capture not only the absolute level of income of the respondents, but also the sustainability of income under the aspects of saving and borrowing. This is measured in monthly absolute values (RM) and uses dichotomous

measures (treated as dummies - yes and no). The source of saving, borrowing, retirement savings and type of government support is an open-ended question and the survey classifies these as categorical measures. Financial management is measured on a four-point Likert scale to assess respondents' financial management.

**Table 3.2: Variable, Measurements and Types**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Measurement</b>	<b>Type</b>
<b>Demographic</b>		
Age	Actual Age in Years	Numeric
Gender	Household head Gender (Female/Male)	Dichotomous (1= Female; 0=Male)
<b>Economic Conditions</b>		
Income	Household Head Income Household Income (Joint Average Income)	Numeric - Value (RM) Numeric - Value (RM)
Loss source of other income	Monthly income Yes/No	Numeric – Value (RM) Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Sustainability without income via savings	Months	Numerical (Nos. of months)
Monthly savings	Amount monthly Yes or No	Numerical (RM) Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Lived using borrowed money.	Yes or No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Borrowing	Yes or No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Reasons for Borrowing	Education; Retirement; Children; Major appliances; Home Purchase; Pay off debts Unexpected expenses; Just to save and Others	Categorical
Government support	Yes or No	Dichotomous

	Actual Amount	(Yes=1; No =0) Numerical RM Value
Source of Government Support	Government agency; BRIM Education Support; Cash Transfer or allowance/ from welfare (Sosco); Others	Categorical
Financial Management	Living comfortably; Doing okay; Just getting by; Finding it difficult to get by	Likert Scale
<b>Social Dimension- Health</b>		
Medical card or Insurance by Employers	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Major medical expenses	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Source for medical bill	Children/Own money/ Help from government agency/others	Categorical
<b>Social Dimension- Education</b>		
Skills (Work Skills)	Very confident; Somewhat confident; Not confident; Don't know	Likert Scale <b>(LIKELIHOOD)</b>
Any Children didn't further studies.	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Expensive Education Cost	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Family members have withdrawn from School.	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
<b>Social Support System</b>		
Trust	Your neighborhood; Family members; Friends; Relatives (outside family members); NGOs; Government	Likert Scale <b>(LIKELIHOOD)</b>
Reliability for help	Neighbor/Family; Members/Relatives (outside family	Likert scale <b>(LIKELIHOOD)</b>

	members/Friends/No one to rely	
<b>Safety – Security</b>		
Security/safety within the neighbourhood	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Crime (within last 1 year)	Yes/No	Dichotomous (Yes=1; No =0)
Frequency of Crime by types	Robberies/Alcohol consumption in the streets/Drug sale in streets/How often are girls/women harassed in your neighborhood/Gangsters activities	Likert scale ( <b>FREQUENCY</b> )

Source: Author's Compilation

As for social indicators, health<sup>5</sup> is measured by taking into account access to health and the presence of diseases, mostly using dichotomous measures (yes and no). The presence of illness which reflects subjective health status, is a self-assessment of general or physical health. Accessibility to health facilities is used to capture the implicit health status of respondents. This is important because health status itself does not necessarily cause greater anxiety and stress, but mostly lack of accessibility to health services. Our initial observations suggest that key health issues are not a major problem in the displaced community, but accessibility may be more challenging for the displaced community.

In addition to educational attainment, education and training are also measured by respondents' perceived confidence in skills on a Likert scale. The study goes beyond widespread formal education and assesses required social and professional skills in terms

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<sup>5</sup> Goldberg's (1978) general health measure is the most common general health assessment tools capturing the mental health well-being. Nevertheless, in this study the intention is to use a simple measure to detect the actual presence and absence of illness that reflects the physical health of the respondents.



of respondents' confidence in these skills. The lack of these important skills can have a negative impact on SWB. Simply recording formal education on the basis of educational attainment (qualification) may not accurately reflect the social situation in terms of knowledge and education. Formal education level also excludes informal education that respondents may have received during their lifetime. Self-study or even informal education in their current employment is not well reflected in the formal education measure, so an assessment of respondents' confidence in their skills would be desirable. Most of the previous studies only capture formal education based on years of schooling. This study goes beyond formal education. These dimensions of the measures capture not only the education and skills of the household head, but also his perception of his children's future education. The educational attainment of both the household head and the children can better reflect the educational attainment of the household and also helps the study understand why intergenerational mobility was not possible in certain households.

Social support was measured by the trust and help respondents can rely on in their environment. The support they received from neighbours, family members, friends and non-governmental organisations is crucial. In this study, a Likert scale is used for measurement. Similarly, safety and security are measured as dichotomous variables to capture the presence of security problems. It also measures the frequency of such incidents to capture the actual occurrence of adverse events experienced by respondents.

As for SWB, there are different measurements of SWB. The OECD (2013; 2017) has produced a very comprehensive review of SWB. One of the most reliable and widely tested SWB is the Life Satisfaction Scale. The scale is one of the best tested and most reliable multi-item life assessment scales. It has been shown to have higher reliability than single-item measures and is more robust to interpersonal differences in scale design

compared to single-item measures (OECD, 2013; 2017). These questions deliberately focus on how displaced people feel about life, rather than relying on reflective assessments of their feelings at a particular time or their current mood. The intention is not to ascertain the current emotional state of the displaced community. This is because in the context of the study, the main objective is to capture the life experience of the displaced community since displacement. The journey is only captured well by assessing the entire life experience of the community rather than capturing the state of mind at a particular point in time. SWB uses the scales developed by Diener (Likert scale 1-7) proposed in the OECD Guidelines (2013; 2017) to capture and measure SWB. Following (Pavot and Diener, 1992), the scale is described as follows, with the total scores of the measured variables attached.

**Table 3.3: Score Measurements**

<b>Score</b>	<b>Measurement</b>
4-7	Extremely dissatisfied.
8-11	Dissatisfied
12-15	Slightly dissatisfied
16	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
17-20	Slightly satisfied.
21-24	Satisfied.
25-28	Extremely satisfied.

### **3.5.7 Data Entry and Cleaning Process**

After the fieldwork and data collection for the study, the data were further cleaned and prepared for analysis. Data entry was mainly done by the author to ensure that the data was entered correctly. The author also checked the data for missing variables and content reliability by visually checking the responses in the questionnaires. Each household is given a ID during the survey and the ID is used to track each household. In this way, the survey can also be checked for inconsistencies. As usual, descriptive statistical analyses

and charts on the main variables were carried out to identify outliers and anomalies in the data sets.

### **3.5.8 Data Analysis Methods and Techniques**

Once the data cleaning and its process are complete, the next phase is to find appropriate techniques and methods for data analysis. The study is a mixed research method, but the emphasis or weight is more on the quantitative method. It should be noted that the samples for the quantitative methods are larger than the interviews and observations (qualitative approach). With a larger sample, it is useful to investigate a specific hypothesis within a large population. On the other hand, the qualitative data can become an assessment of the opinion base, providing important narratives that complement the quantitative data to paint a picture of the target group. The study therefore analyses its data using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Three types of analysis are thus used to get the best results from the data collected.

#### **3.5.7.1 Descriptive Statistics Analysis**

Data analysis involved the application of descriptive statistics and factor analysis to the data collected, which included Likert scale data. The study uses various descriptive statistics as well as statistical charts and graphs to interpret the data collected. Descriptive statistics help to present the data in a more meaningful way, which facilitates data analysis. It provides basic information about the variables in a data set and shows possible relationships between them. Tabulating the numbers and presenting them both directly and through descriptive statistics gives an overall picture of the subject. The triangulation

between the qualitative data and the descriptive statistics gives a good and meaningful overview of the topic.

### 3.5.7.2 Statistics Analysis

A regression analysis is conducted to assess the determinants of a few of the socioeconomic status of the displaced community, namely income level and financial stability. In addition, a regression analysis was conducted to assess the determinants of SWB. The specification of the model is described in the relevant sections of the results. Depending on the nature of the dependent variable, the OLS (linear regression) model and the regression model were used to examine the causal relationship and the explanation for it given below.

#### *(a) Regression Analysis for Income*

OLS (baseline regression) is used to find out which variable has the greatest influence on the dependent variable. This multivariate baseline regression is expected to give a clear picture in analysing and recommending measures. Three important factors influence earning capacity: education, work experience and gender. To determine the extent to which these three factors influence income, the study will construct a simple baseline regression (as shown below) to explore the issue further.

$$\ln \text{Income} = a + \beta_1 \text{Sex} + \beta_2 \text{Edu} + \beta_3 \text{Exp}$$

Where,

In Income = Log of income

Sex = Gender (1=Male)

Edu = Education level

In Exp = Log of Experience (Years)

### ***(b) Logistic Regression for Financial Stability***

Given the importance of financial stability as one of the critical economic conditions, the study further explores the reasons for the differences in financial stability. The current financial situation of the household compared to the last 5 years is used as a proxy dependent variable. The variable is transformed into a dummy variable and was estimated using the logistic regression technique. Those who reported their financial situation as 'much better', 'better' and 'same' were coded 0, while others who reported their financial situation as worse and 'much worse' were coded 1. Logistic regression estimated the odd ratio of the probability of the event occurring. Since probability is a ratio, the following equation was estimated as the logarithm of probability.

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_m X_m$$

Here,  $\pi$  indicates the probability of having better financial stability, and  $X_1$  to  $X_m$  represent the covariates. The covariates considered are gender (male=1), education, whether the household received government assistance (dummy), the log of household income, future investments (1=have future investments) and retirement planning (1=have given considerable thought to retirement planning).

### ***(c) Analysis for SWB***

The focus is on the cognitive dimensions of SWB. In other words, it measures how satisfied respondents are with their lives overall. The cognitive dimensions of respondents' life satisfaction are measured using 4 items to assess their self-satisfaction

with their lives. There are a number of possible approaches to analysing and reporting SWB (OECD, 2013) that are useful in determining the level of SWB among the displaced community. In this study, the report includes four key measures: (1) aggregate responses and central tendency (2) SWB distribution (3) SWB heterogeneity between groups. The central tendency and aggregate measures enable policy makers to assess how high or low the SWB of the displaced community is. Similarly, the study can indicate SWB status based on a specific threshold. Despite studies using central tendency, e.g. mean values, there are shortcomings. First, the mean values do not provide sufficient information. This is because the mean values assume that it is a cardinal measure, even though most of the SWB is ordinal. Secondly, the mean values are heavily influenced by the presence of outliers and do not provide information about the distribution of the results. Therefore, it is important to show the distribution of responses across the different categories.

The determinants of the factors influencing the SWB of the displaced community are further analysed (Objective 4). Multivariate regression models were used to test which variable plays an important role as a determinant of SWB in the displaced community. The independent variables used to analyse SWB were family relations, living environment, financial stability, gender, neighbourhood relations and income. Other covariates were also tested in the study, but no significant associations were found. OLS regression was used to test the relationships with SWB as the dependent variable. Few models were tested in the context of SWB, using various alternative measures of SWB, which are discussed in more detail in the results chapter.

### 3.5.7.3 Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative analysis is conducted using the interview data and the observation method. Two methods were used to analyse the interview data. First, thematic content analysis and second, narrative analysis. Thematic content analysis aims to find common patterns in the interview data sets. The process follows listening to the recording and transcribing the voice recording into text. This is later used and coded according to the thematic content of the information. The study then searches for the corresponding themes with broader patterns of meaning. This allows the themes to be placed in appropriate chains of argumentation that relate to the topics studied. It also enables the creation of a coherent narrative that includes quotes from the respondents. Narrative analysis is used to make sense of the respondents' narratives. The study collects and analyses each narrative and extracts insights and meanings from it. In effect, the narratives (stories) are compared for further interpretation. The study compares both analyses, thematic and narrative, within the study to make the conclusions more objective.

The second method for qualitative analysis used in the study is observation. Observation gives the real perspective from the researcher's point of view on the conditions of the community and the environment in which they are located. The study uses naturalistic observation methods to avoid spontaneous and controlled behaviour of the participants. Observation was also carried out in the environment, especially with regard to the condition of the buildings, waste disposal and the participants' houses. This was to create a real scenario of the conditions on the ground. The observations will later be a supplement for the IAQ and also for the recorded conversation.

### **3.6 Summary**

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the research methodology used for the study. The chapter discusses the conceptual framework of the study using The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced Populations which was discussed in Chapter 2. Based on the model and drawing on the literature on various SWB issues, this chapter presents the theoretically based causal relationship. Through the extensive search of the literature, a consensus emerges that expands the conceptual framework of this study to examine the SWB of developmental displacement. This would provide an insightful view of the community. This chapter describes in detail how the study was conducted, starting with the development of the questionnaire, the method of sampling criteria, measurements, and the process of data collection and the method that is important for the data analysis platform presented in the next chapter. This chapter has clearly described how the study will be conducted, namely through a combination of qualitative and quantitative data. Therefore, the mix method is used to blend the methods in data collection, analysis of the collected data and interpretation of the findings. By integrating both methods, the study is better able to provide and present stronger and more concrete evidence in the conclusion.



## **CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS: SOCIOECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND INTERGENERATIONAL MOBILITY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter reports on the analyses of the survey data collected for the study. In addition, the interview data was used to corroborate the observations from the survey data and further reveal the actual experiences of the displaced community. The analysis seeks to achieve the first objective of the study, which is to understand the state of socioeconomic conditions, intergenerational mobility and the state of SWB in the displaced community. The question of socioeconomic conditions and SWB after a decade of displacement is of interest because the debate on the selected displaced communities is still ongoing and no proper assessment of the actual state of the displaced communities has been done in the past. In addition, long-standing socioeconomic needs can be more clearly identified through a more objective assessment of these needs. This study is the first to collect such data to objectively measure their socioeconomic conditions and SWB. The chapter highlights some of the key issues facing the selected displaced community. The findings will help policy makers in formulating future strategies related to displacement.

### **4.2 Profile of the Respondents**

The total number of samples collected in these exploratory studies is 141 households. Of the 141 household heads interviewed, 69 are women and the remaining 72 household heads are men. The average age of the household head is 51 years and the standard deviation is 13.1 years (see Table 4.1). Based on these two figures, it can be said that the

majority of the people living here are first generation and their immediate descendants are second generation, coming from the plantation and displaced. This is an important factor as they have experienced both the lifestyle on the plantations and in this new displacement area.

**Table 4. 1: Demographic of the Displaced Community in Taman Permata**

<b>Information</b>	<b>No</b>
Male	72
Female	69
Average Age	51
Standard Deviation (age)	13.1

Source: Author's calculation

Understanding household background is not only crucial to the study of household social class, but also shapes the development of the family as a whole, including children. Indeed, theoretical arguments show that the chance of advancing in socioeconomic development is determined by family background in addition to individual differences. Table 4.2 shows the educational level, occupation and work sectors of household heads. 38% of the household heads have completed primary school. About 12% of the household heads have never attended school. Almost 75% of the household heads only have an education level of below 3, with almost 51% never having gone to school and only having attended primary school. As for the occupations of the household heads, most of them are low-skilled workers. 54% of the heads of households work as labourers, cleaners, drivers or in some kind of casual work that does not require much education. This is indeed a consequence of displacement where they are unable to find decent work due to lack of education.

The chronological events that took place after the displacement explain the position of the household head in the labour market. Since most of the heads of households are plantation workers who mainly tap rubber, the displacement rendered them unemployed, or more precisely, contributed to frictional unemployment among them because their skills in the plantations and the new demand for labour that does not require rubber tapping skills did not match. This situation has resulted in them ending up in casual jobs and being forced to take jobs that do not require many skills, such as cleaners, gardeners and other casual jobs. Nevertheless, professionals such as accountants and engineers, together with owners of their own businesses, make up only 2% and 4% of this group respectively. The third largest group among household heads are those with semi-professional training such as technicians, pre-school teachers and factory supervisors. The remaining 29% of household heads are non-professional, retired or simply housewives.

Most occupations are in the private sector (62%), only 4% work in the state sector. The number of income earners in the household shows that in the majority of cases (69%) the number of income earners is between 0 and 2 members. Notably, 10.6% of households have no income and depend solely on other supports, while household heads are the only income earners (22% of the sample). In 36% of households, at least 2 people work in the household. Households in which 3-4 members work account for only 26%.

**Table 4.2: Head of Household, Education, Occupation and Working Sector**

<b>Education</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
Never been in school	18	12.77
Primary School	54	38.30
SRP/Form 3	34	24.11
SPM	33	23.40
STPM/Diploma	1	0.71
Degree and above	1	0.71
<b>Occupation</b>		
Retired/Housewife/Not working	41	29.08
Own Business	6	4.26
Labour/Cleaner/Driver/gardener	76	53.90
Technician/Kindergarten teacher/clerk/supervisor/salesman/agents	16	11.35
Professionals	2	1.42
<b>Working Sector<sup>1</sup></b>		0.00
Government	6	4.26
Private	88	62.40
Own Business	6	4.26
<b>No of Working Members in the household (including the heads)</b>		
0 - 2	97	68.88
3 - 4	37	26.25
5-7	7	4.97

Note: The total will not add up to 100 since those not working are not considered.  
Source: Author's Survey

### 3.5 Exploring the Socioeconomic Conditions

This section examines the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community in Taman Permata in more detail. The study mainly examines the economic and social indicators in order to empirically assess the state of the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community. Looking at this data provides objective measures that have been lacking in the past to inform future policy insights. In fact, this is the first study to quantify the indicators beyond the anecdotal evidence that previous studies relied on. It will also help the government move forward in achieving the inclusive agenda set out in the Shared

Prosperity Vision 2030. In examining socio-economic conditions, the study also looks at some of the household characteristics that could explain the socioeconomic conditions. Identifying some of these determinants is crucial to further drive the policy implications.

### **4.3.1 Income and Financial Conditions**

Figure 4.1 shows the income distribution of the household head and those whose children work in the household. The mean income of the household head is RM 1,424.35 (SD = RM 738.34). The distribution confirms that the head of household's earnings range from RM 300 to RM 4500, with most of the distribution not exceeding RM 2,000 (see Panel 1, Figure 4.1). Children's income also refers to the income of the children of the household head who are currently working. A total of 95 household children work in the household. The median income is RM 1,477.37 (SD = RM721.51). The income ranges from RM 900 to RM 4500 (see Plate 2). This clearly shows that there is not much difference between the income of the displaced children and that of their parents. Since this comparison is based on the current situation, it is not possible to equate the children's income with that of their ageing parents. The children's chances of earning an income when their parents are older should be greater because of the experience they have gained and, conversely, the parents should earn more when they are younger if there are differences. To overcome this situation, a baseline regression was run with some variables that include years of experience (see the analysis in 4.3.4.1 below). It clearly shows that experience does not help to increase the income for the job held.

Examining average income differences by gender and education of the household head shows that women earn less than men (Figure 4.1, Panel 3). On average, men earn RM

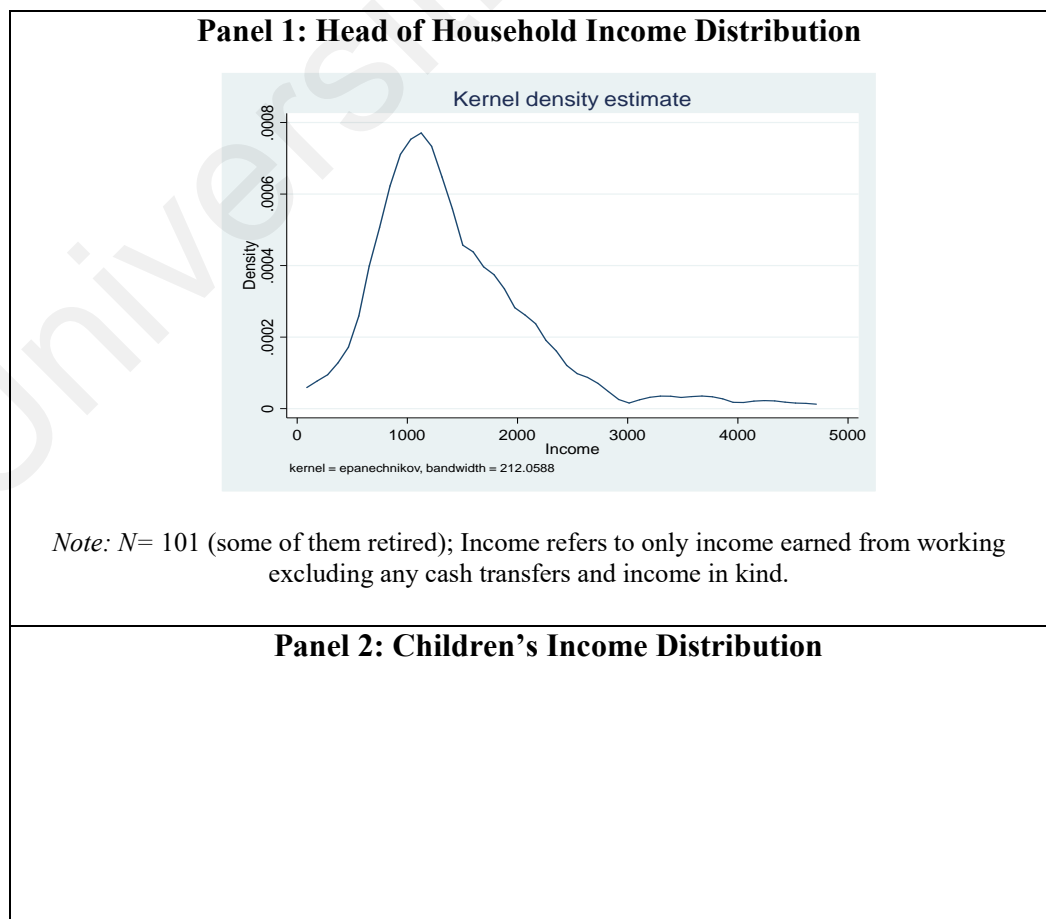
448 more than female heads of household. Income differences based on gender are reported in many other studies. For example, Megento (2013) pointed out that women enjoy fewer income advantages and opportunities, while Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi (2006) also reported low wage equality between men and women, even though the labour force participation rate of women and men is high at 0.79, but wage equality for comparable work is 0.65.

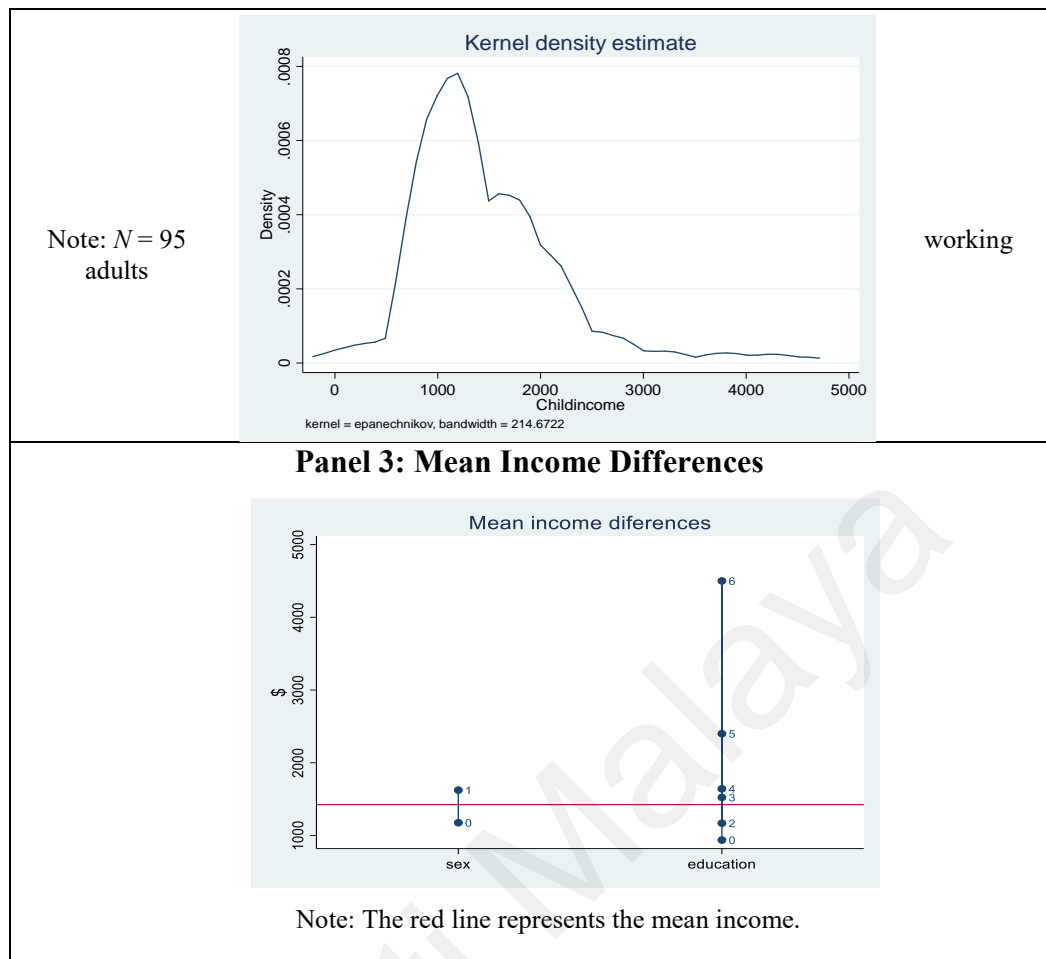
In terms of education, those with secondary education and above earn more on average than the median income (Figure 4.1, Panel 3). However, no specific skills are taught at secondary level, so this group of people receives little benefit from improving education at secondary level. Blaug (1947) argued about the limitations of education, emphasising that education provides motivation, self-confidence, greater problem-solving skills and the ability to adapt to change. Blaug (1947) stated that while education does not impart specific skills, those who are educated are rewarded more for their performance, motivation and greater self-reliance, as well as having greater initiative to solve problems and the ability to adapt to change. Other authors such as Devereus (2005) and Fang (2006) support the view that education plays a crucial role. Devereus (2005) argues that education has a major impact on outcomes, with those with a university degree receiving increasingly higher wages than those without a degree. von Fang (2006) share the view that university graduates earn more than non-graduates. However, this also depends on the quality of education received by the displaced community. In the case of the displaced, our results show that education plays a crucial role, but in some cases the differences are small, especially when compared to secondary education, e.g. between SPM and STPM graduates.

Interestingly, many of the households survive on in-kind income from various sources, especially from the government. This is manifested either in the form of one-off payments

such as BRIM or continuous monthly cash payments for those who are eligible. This support has helped the displaced community to sustain their livelihoods. In the sample, 90% of households received some form of cash transfer such as BRIM, MyKasih, and some received cash transfers from the social welfare office. The range of support amounts is from RM400 to RM 1,200. Such welfare and transfer payments actually help the poor in their lives. Romer & Romer (2016) mentioned in their research that in the first month after a permanent increase in welfare payments, the larger cheques arrive almost one-for-one and increase the total expenditure of consumers. In most cases, however, these are one-off cash transfers. When asked if households live with borrowed money, only 36% of households answer that they live with borrowed money. A larger percentage lives with the support of other members of the household, especially children.

**Figure 4. 1: Earning out of Employment, Head of Household and Children**

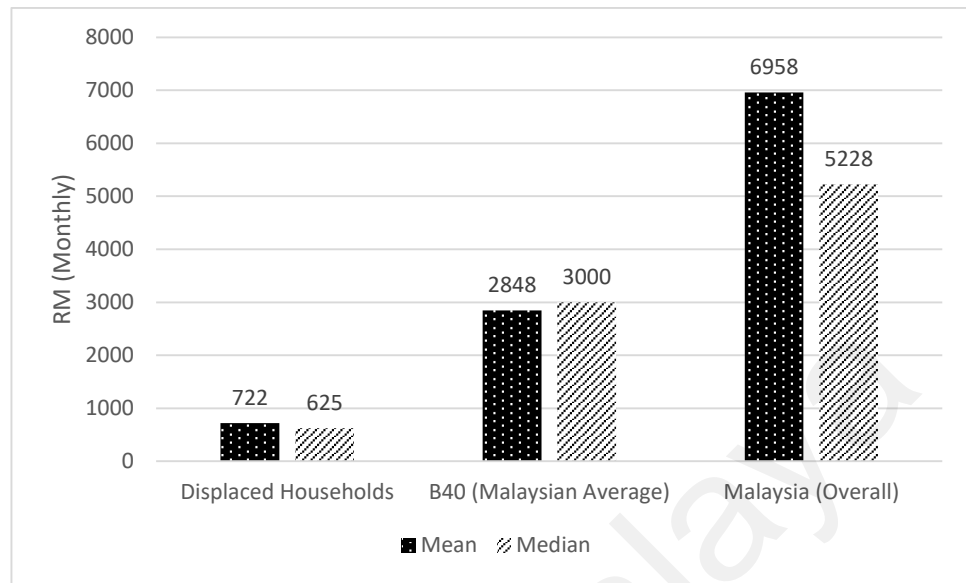




The study also examines the mean and median income of total households. A comparison is then made with the total national household income and that of the lowest 40 households. Figure 4.2 shows household income for the displaced community, the bottom 40 and the total population of Malaysia. The displaced have a median income of RM722, which is much lower compared to the B40 group, which is RM2,848 at RM. Also, the median income of the IDPs is only RM625 compared to the national median income for B40 which is RM3,000. This also shows that their income is below the national poverty line of RM980 per household. Although Malaysia as a whole has shown an improvement in income growth and a reduction in poverty and inequality, the reality does not reflect the entire population and differs between different classes and segments of society. In this regard, the displaced are also the most vulnerable group.



**Figure 4. 2: Household Income, Mean and Median**



Note: Author's calculation. National mean and median income is from DOSM. B40 refers to the bottom 40.

Table 4.3 shows the alternative sources of household income. The majority of households (97%) have no sources of income other than their current job. 3% of the households do have other sources of income, but the income is negligible and ranges from RM 200 to RM 400 per month by taking odd jobs and part-time jobs, e.g. as helpers. By and large, the displaced community do not pose the capacity to generate additional income or assets. This inability across the life course means that efforts to reduce socioeconomic inequalities in income must recognise that public policy should focus on programmes that enable them to earn additional income.

**Table 4.3: Other Sources of Income, Displaced Community**

<b>Other Sources of Income</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
No	136	96.45
Yes	5	3.55

Source: Author's Survey

For the majority of households, survival also depends on children's income. A rough examination of the distribution of children's income shows that their earning capacity is no better than that of their parents. This could indicate that there are limits to earning potential and intergenerational mobility. This will be discussed further in later sections to explore the hypothesis on income and educational mobility.

The information from the interviews provides further insights that explain the labour market and earning opportunities of the displaced community and reflect the overall financial conditions. An accurate understanding of the scenario underlying the differences in household incomes of the displaced community and Malaysia as a whole is essential. The study shows that almost all households in the displaced community faced financial problems mainly due to their lack of earning capacity. One of the respondents who works as a cleaner states the following:

*"I have been working as a cleaner for more than 10 years, but my income still the same all these years which is RM1100. There isn't any increment".*

(Personnel communication 9th December 2018).

In one case, the respondent, who is only 52 years old, worked as a gardener for a private company in Putrajaya and lost his job after the company moved to another location. His

20 years of work experience was not able to adequately improve his financial situation and his last salary was only RM 1100.

*“I was working with a private company for almost 20 years as a gardener in Putrajaya. Once the company was relocated to another place, they offered me RM1,300 which is above my last salary RM1,100. I didn’t take the offer as it’s far away from my family and house”.*

(Personnel communication, 9th December 2018).

Similarly, another respondent pointed out the difficulties he faces due to lack of skills, forcing him to take up odd jobs, including a job as a temp in a laundry shop, for which he is paid RM 10 per day. His monthly income is only RM 300. He explained this as follows:

*“Our life is a very hard life; I’m depending on my wife to take care of the family. My wife is working as a cleaner in a golf club. Her salary is around RM1, 000 and she is working for 10 years in the organization”.*

(Personnel communication, 9th December 2018).

Another respondent reported that he does not have a job because of his age, he is 67 years old. He is also dependent on the income of his wife who also works as a cleaner in a private company and earns RM1,030 per month.

*“I’m 67 years old and nobody wants to give me any job. There is no help from the welfare department or government agencies. My wife’s income is RM1,030 before the deduction of EPF and SOSCO.”*

(Personnel communication 7th December 2018).

The study addresses the issue of income sustainability (survival without income) to measure the ability of respondents to live solely on savings and other forms of social safety nets. Table 4.4 shows the results. The results show that the majority of respondents

cannot survive without income for even one month. Those who cannot survive on one income account for 52% of those displaced. A worrying trend is that almost 93.6% are unable to survive without income for more than 3 months. This shows that a large proportion of IDPs are vulnerable and lack social protection. Due to the lack of social protection, it is likely that not only the current generation but also the future generation will be affected. Although sustainability is an ethical concern for society and policy makers, the high vulnerability of displaced people deserves some attention. One interviewee explains the situation as follows:

*“In case, I lost my job and let say the company gave me some kind of gratitude payment together with my savings, I think I can only survive for 2 to 3 months the most without a job”.*

(Personnel communication 22nd December 2018).

**Table 4.4: Income Sustainability of the Households**

<b>Sustainability (Months)</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
0	74	52.48
1	33	23.4
2	13	9.22
3	12	8.51
5	1	0.71
6	3	2.13
12	4	2.84
24	1	0.71

Source: Author’s Survey

To understand the financial situation of displaced households in a longitudinal perspective, the study compared the overall financial situation of households over a 5-year period. Households were asked whether their current overall financial situation had improved compared to 5 years ago. The results are shown in Table 4.5. For almost 61% of the households, the financial situation has either remained the same or has worsened.

Of these, 40% indicated that their financial situation has worsened compared to 5 years ago. The deterioration of the financial situation shows how vulnerable the displaced community given that income has not improved over the years. With the rising cost of living in urban areas, it is becoming increasingly difficult for almost half of the displaced community to cope with the cost of living. It also shows that there are financial inequalities within the displaced community. Some (39%) said that they are somewhat better off and much better off than 5 years ago.

**Table 4.5: Current Financial Condition Compared to 5 years back.**

<b>Condition</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
Much better off	9	6.38
Somewhat better off	46	32.62
About the same	29	20.57
Somewhat worse	45	31.91
Much worse	12	8.51

Source: Author's Survey

The study further examines the financial conditions of the displaced community. Perceived financial condition is an indicator of relative individual income. The idea behind it is that it characterises financial situation by assessing how households feel about their financial situation compared to their previous situation, their situation compared to their peers and other different environments that absolute income may not be able to capture. Financial situation is captured by the question "How well are you doing financially at the moment?" with five different possible outcomes. The survey also looks at whether the displaced community is excluded from the financial markets. The lack of clientele in traditional financial markets explains the further vulnerability of the displaced community's economic situation. Table 4.6 shows the financial conditions of the displaced community. Nearly 56% of the households reported that they are barely making ends meet and find it difficult to manage their lives financially. This shows that the

households are financially unable to lead a decent life. Their ability to engage in investment is also limited. When asked about their future investments, almost half (55%) of the households replied that they would not invest. Similarly, those who do invest do so only in basic investments with low returns such as insurance and Amanah Saham, a savings scheme run by the state bank. This is a consequence of low income, as 73% of households were unable to invest even a minimum amount of savings. In fact, income is only enough to cover daily expenses. Shockingly, 78.5% of the respondents said that income is only enough for daily expenses.

**Table 4.6: Financial Position**

<b>Managing Finance</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Living comfortably	9	6.43
Doing OK	52	37.14
Just Getting by	56	40
Finding it difficult to get by	23	16.43
<b>Future Investments</b>		
No	78	55.32
Yes	63	44.68
<b>Types of Investments</b>		
Insurance	41	29.29
Amanah Saham	4	2.86
Others	14	10
<b>Sufficient Income for Saving</b>		
No	103	73.57
Yes	37	26.43
<b>Income only allows to meet expenses</b>		
No	29	20.71
Yes	110	78.57

Source: Author's Survey; Total responses would not equal to 141 or 100% in some cases due to non-response.

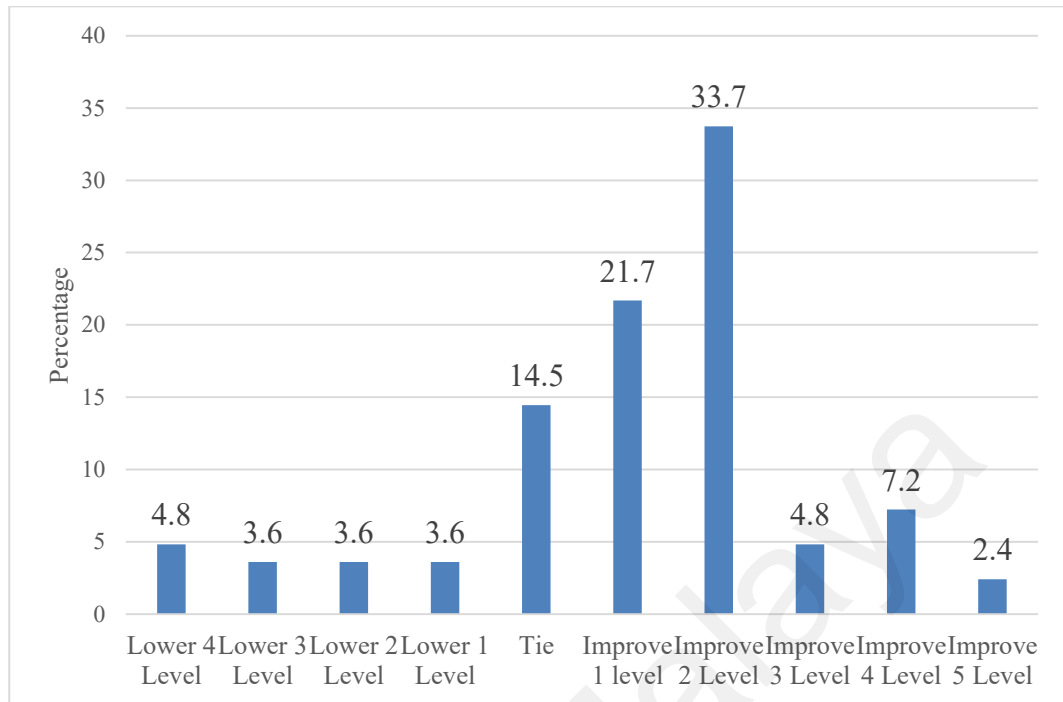
### **3.5.4 Intergenerational Mobility – Education and Income**

The study also assesses intergenerational progress in educational attainment, indicating the ability to attain higher education regardless of parental education, and the relationship

between education and labour market outcomes, indicating the ability to convert educational qualifications into economic wealth. An upswing in education between one generation and another plays a crucial role in the upward movement in occupational mobility. In the process of intergenerational economic and occupational mobility, educational attainment is crucial Torce (2019).

Figure 4.3 shows intergenerational mobility in education between parents and their children. The study compares the education of the parents (highest education of the parents, either the father or the mother) and the education of the children (highest education of the children) and assesses the extent to which the children's education is better than the father's education. The study only considers children who have already started working. Interestingly, 68% of the children have upward mobility in education and are better educated than their parents. Considering that access to education has been expanded, it is not surprising that upward mobility is present in the case of the displaced community. Nevertheless, it is also true that the majority of upward mobility in education has reached only one or more levels, namely 55%, with 23% being one level higher and 34% two levels higher than the educational level of their parents. The study also finds that 14.5% of children have no upward mobility, meaning that their educational level remains at that of their parents. However, many of the improvements in educational attainment are at lower levels of education. It is also surprising that 16% of the children have lower educational attainment than their parents. The interviews suggest that they dropped out of school and in some cases did not pursue education because they lost interest in studying.

**Figure 4. 3: Intergenerational Mobility in Education, Parents vs. Children**



Source: Author's Survey

Note: Those households without working children are excluded. Those households without information on parent's education are excluded. In the case of those households with more than 1 children working, we take the highest education level of the children. In comparing parent's education (father vs. mother), we take those with highest education level. n=84

Examining the distribution of educational mobility between generations offers further insights into intergenerational mobility. Table 4.7 shows the distribution of education in households by father, mother and their children (up to the 3rd child). As far as parents are concerned, the highest proportion of educational attainment is in primary and secondary education (up to grade 3). It is interesting to note that women (mothers) without educational qualifications make up 22% of households. Examination of the children's educational attainment shows that in most households almost half of the children have completed secondary education and have been in school for 11 years. It is also true that more than 11% of the children have attained secondary education and a degree. This seems to indicate that the children are performing well in school compared to their parents, but only slightly better than their parents who have one or two levels of higher



education. However, educational mobility seems to be much better for the 2nd and 3rd child within the household, especially in obtaining a higher school leaving certificate (SPM).

**Table 4.7: Education Intergenerational Mobility, Parents and Children (%)**

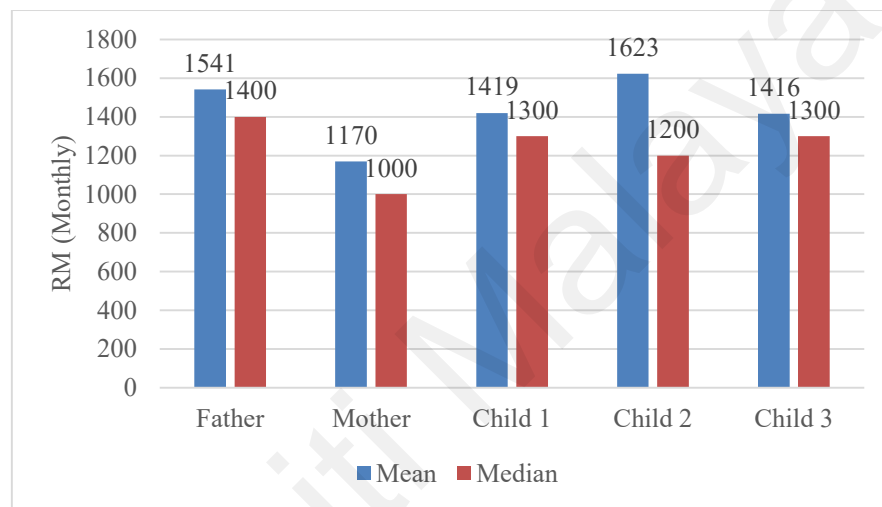
<b>Education Level</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>Child 1</b>	<b>Child 2</b>	<b>Child 3</b>
No Education	8.26	21.97	11.11	14.81	13.79
Primary	38.53	31.82	13.58	3.70	3.45
Secondary (Up to Form 3)	29.36	19.70	17.28	16.67	20.69
SPM	20.18	24.24	41.98	44.44	51.72
STPM/Diploma	2.75	1.52	11.11	11.11	6.90
Degree & Above	0.92	0.76	4.94	9.26	3.45

Source: Author's Survey

Looking purely at education and labour market outcomes in relation to income shows that there is no commensurate improvement in children's income. The median income of the father is RM 1,400, while for the children it ranges from RM 1,200 to RM 1,300. Although experience may have contributed to the father's median income being higher than the children's, the study of occupational groups shows that the children have not moved up much further in occupational class than the parents. Many of the children are still in the low-paying job category, which limits their ability to achieve the required income progression. In other words, the observation that children tend to work in a similar occupational class as their parents could be due to the transmission of skills or occupational preferences, but also to the importance of limited social networks. The results show that the household social network is limited only within family members. This is discussed further in the later sections under the social dimensions of the socioeconomic conditions. Similarly, any additional experience would not bring much improvement in children's income gains. This is similar to the trap the study observes for parents, where experience does not matter for the low-paying jobs. While Figure 4.3

shows that the educational attainment of most children has improved, most of the improvements are at the lower level of educational attainment. Therefore, again, children's earnings may not be improving significantly. Figure 4.4 shows that the current income of the children is mostly below that of the parents, even though the children have a better education than the parents<sup>6</sup>.

**Figure 4. 4: Mean and Median Income, Parents and Children**



Source: Author's Survey

In understanding in-depth, the perceived future of the head of households about their children's future in terms of education, the study further poses few interesting questions. The study assesses the level of confidence of their parent on their children's future by setting the following question – *“Thinking about the current education, work experience and the economic and political situation, how confident are you that your children have the skills necessary to get the kinds of jobs they want now?”* Table 4.8 indicates that majority of the head of households are confident that their children have a necessary skill

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<sup>6</sup> The survey does not allow the measurement of the income of the parents when they were at the child age. However, our study did not directly compare income of the parents and children. The argument is that if the children's education is higher than their parents, naturally children should be earning better than their

to obtain job opportunities despite the lack of education and income mobility. This is not surprising considering that even one level higher of education among household heads is considered sufficient to make a decision. The study also shows that household heads with higher education are less optimistic about their children's future. A simple regression<sup>7</sup> shows that a level of education of the household head reduces the confidence level by - 0.0311.

**Table 4.8: Head of Household Confidence Level about Children’s Future**

<b>Levels</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very confident	65	47.10
Somewhat confident	36	26.09
Not confident	32	23.19
Don’t know	5	3.62

The study also explores the reasons why 23% of household heads said they were not confident about their children's future. Table 4.9 shows the main reasons for being pessimistic about their children's future. Among the top three reasons, lack of opportunities and lack of education account for 31% and 42% of the total responses respectively. Interestingly, discrimination in the labour market on the basis of race was mentioned as one of the reasons, accounting for 18% of the responses.

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<sup>7</sup> Simple regression of level of confidence on the education level of the head of household was performed. It shows a negative relationship however it is not statistically significant.

**Table 4.9: Reasons for Pessimistic Views About Children’s Future**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Children Attitude	1	2.22
Education	14	31.11
Lack of Opportunity	19	42.22
Discrimination	8	17.78
Transport	2	4.44
Family Problems	1	2.22
Total Responses	45	100

Note: The total is not the same as total not confident since the study allows respondents to indicate more than one reasons. Percentage is for total responses and not total households.

The problem of lack of education is widespread among the poor and studies have shown that lack of education is linked to lack of employment opportunities. While the education of the displaced children is not much more advanced than that of their parents, the study further explores the problem of school dropouts. The study focuses on two aspects of schooling. First, it looks at whether there are children in the households who have dropped out of school. In this case, they are technically the dropouts. Second, the study looks at the extent to which children's educational attainment goes beyond secondary school. The secondary school leaving certificate (SPM) is used as the threshold. The study examined whether the children continued their education beyond secondary school, i.e. whether they obtained diplomas or degrees that provided them with vocational skills and knowledge. In addition, the reasons for both were investigated. Table 4.10 shows the results. It is alarming that in 26% of the households, children dropped out of school after secondary education. The main reasons are financial constraints (41%), lack of interest in studies (27%) and family problems (15%). Staying in school is a major problem. A detailed analysis of the data shows that the prevalence of school dropouts is higher for the first child. Nevertheless, there are also households where more than one child drops out of school. In almost 50% of households, more than one child dropped out of school. The study of inability to pursue post-SPM education reveals the following. It is interesting

to note that 43% of children have not gone beyond secondary school to acquire the skills and knowledge they need for employment. Failure to complete schooling beyond SPM is also a serious limitation to future opportunities. Although Malaysia promotes various incentives and programmes (community colleges, education loans among others) to improve educational attainment, the efforts do not seem to reach the needed segment of the society. Lack of interest in studying (44%), lack of financial support (31%) and family problems (16%) are the main reasons for not pursuing studies.

**Table 4.10: School Dropouts, Beyond Secondary Education Attainment and Reasons**

<b>School Dropouts</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
No	93	65.96
Yes	36	25.53
Not Relevant	12	8.51
<b>Reasons for Withdrawal</b>		
Family Issues	6	14.63
Not Interested in Studies	11	26.83
Finance	17	41.46
Health Issues	4	9.76
Others (Friends, Crime etc)	3	7.32
<b>Pursued Beyond SPM</b>		
Yes	64	45.39
No	61	43.26
Not Relevant	16	11.35
<b>Reasons for Not Pursuing</b>		
Family Issues	10	16.39
Failed Secondary Schooling	3	4.92
Not Interested in Studies	27	44.26
Finance	19	31.15
Health Issues	2	3.28

Note: Not relevant shows the household who did not have children, or the children have not reached the age of the level of schooling. Pursued beyond SPM refers to those who did not achieve or pursued beyond secondary education by moving into skill based or academic level education. Percentage for reasons for not pursuing is based on total number of responses and not based on total households.

### 3.5.5 Health, Social Support and Security and Safety

The survey of the study shows that there are no major health problems in the displaced households. Therefore, the focus of the study was on the household's preparedness to cope with health-related shocks in the household. In other words, health financing was further analysed. Health financing can be a major burden for the displaced community if such support is not within reach. A large number of households, about 67%, have no insurance coverage at all, while 33% have mainly insurance (Table 4.11). Among those who are insured, it is mainly insurance coverage with inadequate coverage of health care. In the last year, 28% of households had major medical bills to pay. Due to inadequate insurance coverage, these households rely on their savings as well as loans and government support. However, out-of-pocket payments are the most pronounced. Those relying on their savings have the highest proportion (66%), followed by borrowing. A detailed study shows that borrowing takes place within the family.

**Table 4.11: Health Care Expenses and Protection**

<b>Medical Coverage</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
No	94	66.67
Yes	47	33.33
<b>Major Medical Expenses</b>		
No	101	71.63
Yes	40	28.37
<b>How Medical Expenses Covered</b>		
Own Money & Saving	41	66.13
Borrowing	12	19.35
Government Assistant	9	14.52

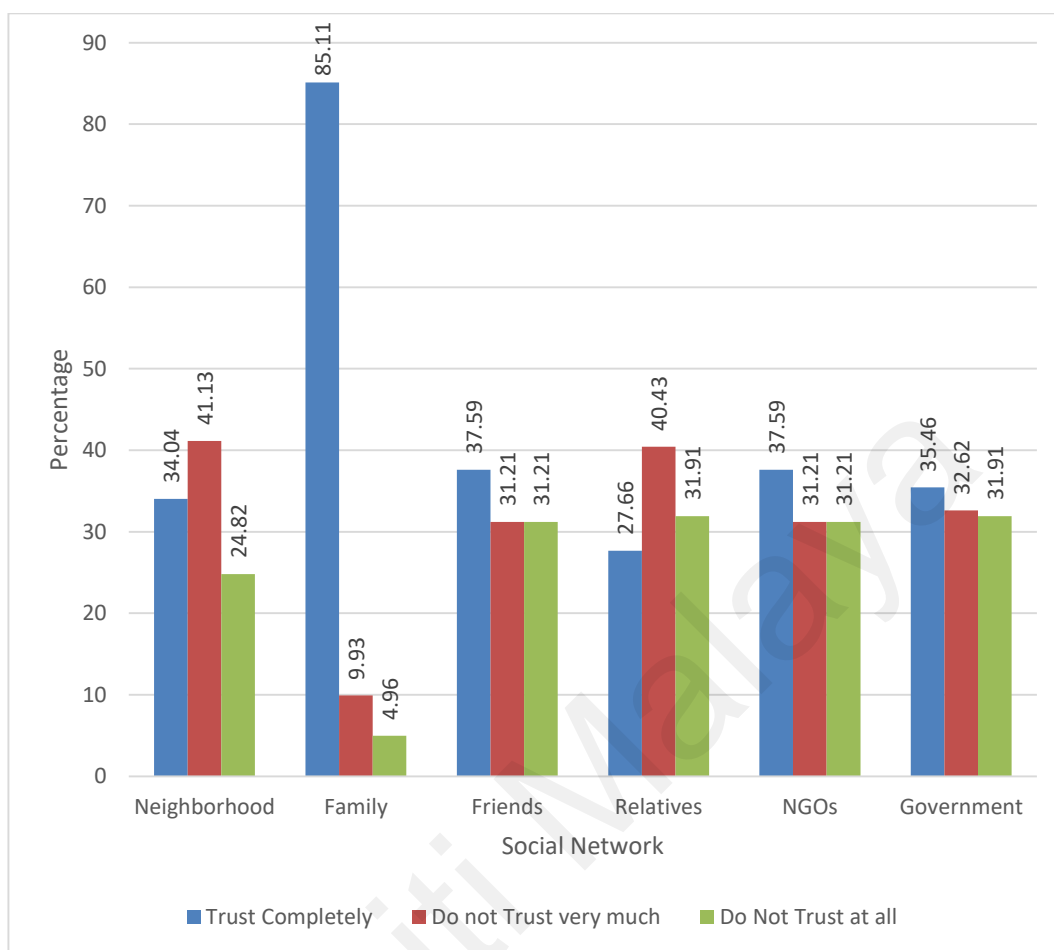
Major medical expenses refer to medical bills that is above their individual capacity and does not relate to the types of diseases or the severity of health problems.

Social conditions such as family relationships and social capital are intangible assets that help the urban displaced community withstand external shocks through networks of trust and dependency (Moser, 1998). In addition to these familial relationships, networks of

neighbours and other actors are the most important components of social capital for the displaced community. Figure 4.5 shows the social network of the displaced community based on their perceived importance of the social network. A limited social network can be a major barrier to the exchange of information and resources and may indicate self-exclusion from larger segments of society. Social networks can also provide support in the form of financial, material and emotional help to overcome socioeconomic inequalities. It is also true that social networks can increase collective efficacy (Putnam, 2000). This can also have implications for education and income (Matthews & Hastings, 2013; Mennis, Dayanim et al., 2013). Importantly, trust is critical to the development of social networks and the people who live in these neighbourhoods (Curley, 2010b; Mennis et al., 2013).

As the displaced community remains in the context and environment of deprived neighborhoods, their ability to establish various social networks is limited. In fact, there seems to be a lack of network within the community. The trust of neighbors is lower than that of friends and NGOs. The social cohesion of the closest possible support, i.e. neighbors, is still lacking in the case of the displaced community. Moreover, the displaced largely rely on the support of their families in times of need. It is also surprising that although there are no ethical differences, the displaced community has little trust in the neighborhood, which makes collective action difficult. The neighborhood effect also depends on the environment that the displaced community leaves. The unfavorable environment, including the lack of security within the community, does not allow the community to interact frequently with other neighbors. The lack of amenities also does not provide such opportunities.

**Figure 4. 5: Social Network and Trust within the Nearest Agents**



The study further analysed the social network by creating possible scenarios (statements) to assess the support system of the displaced community. For each of the support systems, respondents were asked to indicate whether the statement was false, not certain or definitely true. The study assesses each actor's support system for each statement by considering the difference between the percentage of respondents who answered "false" and "definitely true". The differences indicate whether the majority of respondents agree with the statement as opposed to those who disagree. In other words, a positive percentage would mean that more respondents agree with the statement. Table 4.12 shows the result of the analysis. The analysis shows that more respondents agree with the statement that they do not receive support from neighbours, close relatives and friends. For family members, the differences are even small, indicating that they share their worries and fears.



**Table 4. 12: Support System of the Displaced Community, Percentage Difference between False and Definitely True Responses**

Statement	Neighbour	Family Members	Relatives (outside family members)	Friends	Someone to rely on
If my family and I had to go out of town for a few weeks, I can rely on	10.53	37.60	-23.97	-61.40	100.00
If I was stranded few miles from home, I can call	-70.91	49.62	-51.67	-14.29	100.00
If I'm alone at home and arise a situation where I need someone to take me to the hospital	-26.79	56.92	-50.44	-53.72	82.22
In case of emergency or arise a situation for extra cash, I can rely	-65.14	53.73	-46.34	-41.38	81.82
I feel that I can share my most private worries and fears with.	-69.49	37.98	-72.80	-36.51	72.06
If I needed a place to stay for a week because of an emergency (for example, water or electricity out in my apartment or house), I could easily find someone who would put me up.	-93.70	36.59	-28.79	-86.26	57.04

Table 4.13 shows the most common concerns of households regarding security and safety in the neighbourhood. The most common problem relates to gangsterism, robbery and cleanliness. The problems of gangsterism and robbery are also related to the problems of school dropouts and lack of safety and living conditions in the neighbourhood. The lack of social networks within the community is partly due to households' concern for their neighbourhood. This encourages households not to extend their relationships beyond their family members.

**Table 4. 23: Security and Safety Issues**

<b>Common Safety Issues</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Alcohol	11	8.27
Drug	11	8.27
Gangsterism	41	30.83
Health	3	2.26
Cleanliness	27	20.30
Robbery	35	26.32
Vandalism	5	3.76
<b>Total</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Note: Total percentage is based on total responses of 133.

The safety aspect of the living environment, especially buildings, must also be taken seriously. Observation has shown that the safety aspect is severely compromised by the poor condition of the buildings. In fact, problems such as a poor sewage system on the ground floor, which causes blockages, leads to bad smells and an unfavourable environment. Cracks in the building, both outside and inside, are not uncommon. The hollow floor contributes to the safety concerns of the entire building where the displaced community stays. It is also reported that the building was unstable a few years ago and the residents were forced to live in tents for weeks and months because they feared for their lives, as quoted by one of the residents below:

*“We have to stayed in the tent for few months due to the safety of the building. There are cracks on the wall and ceiling of few houses in block 5. After few months, the authority has come and did some “Touch up” as some temporary solutions. Though we have moved back, there are still cracks on the wall and ceiling. If you look at the block, it is not stable and leaning. They have used some beans to avoid it lean further. We hope for more permanent solution to overcome this matter so that we can live without fear. This is really our important safety concerns.”*

(personal communication, 22<sup>nd</sup> Dec 2018).

Another resident described the dilapidated state of his house as follows:

*“There are seven of us are staying in this house, my wife, my five children and myself. My elder son is working but unable to find a house for himself. He is working as a laborer.*

*If we were in the estate, he will be working in the estate and he will be having his own house given by the estate management. In here we do not enjoy such benefits hence, it's difficult for us to stay in the confined space”.*

(personnel communication 22<sup>nd</sup> December 2018).

Despite these concerns, the community also feels unsafe due to vehicle thefts and vandalism. One of the residents told that his new motorbike was stolen a few years ago and this is not the only case of stolen motorbikes. There are cases of vandalism to the vehicles. Apart from that, rubbish is often an eyesore and vandalism is also more common. Quoting one of the residents:

*“My new motorbike which was parked at the parking ground was stolen and this is not the first time such incident happens. There are few times some of my neighbours and other residents' bike has been stolen or vandalised. Apart from that, there is not much cleanliness at the surrounding area. You can look up yourself, rubbish is everywhere. The staircase is vandalised with words and vulgar sentences. I also heard there are drugs activities and people drink alcohol at the roadside.”*

(Personal communication, 16<sup>th</sup> December 2018)

The staircase of the flats was almost vandalised. Young people often consume alcohol on the street and create havoc. All these activities have led to more crime. One flat building illustrates this as follows:

*“The consumption of alcohol is rampant especially among the boys and they sometimes cause problems like vandalism, small fights and so on in this area”. I also heard there are many cases where people selling and buying drugs but so far never seen from my own eyes.*

(personnel communication 8<sup>th</sup> December 2018).

Robbery and theft seem to be frequent. This is illustrated as follows:

*“There was an attempt to break into my home a few years back. That time we were sleeping and heard the sound someone trying to break the front lock. The moment I woke up and switch on the light, saw three people running away”.*

(personnel communication 16<sup>th</sup> December 2018).

Another head of household admits that his son is now in prison. He has a wife and child who are currently being cared for by the households.

*“My son now in jail because involved in the robbery. He was caught due to a robbery case”.*

(personnel communication 8<sup>th</sup> December 2018).

In view of the deprived conditions, one resident draws a relative comparison between the current living conditions and his life in the estates. When asked if their life is relatively better than before the relocation, one resident commented as follows.

*“Though the environment and the situation here are not much conducive, we have managed to adapt the life here and live happily but deep down in our heart, I hope that I can go back to my old life when I was in Prang Besar Estate or at-least get a landed property with a better surrounding.”*

(personnel communication 22<sup>nd</sup> December 2018).

Table 4.14 shows the responses on the frequency of occurrence of the safety issues. Alcoholism and robbery are the most common safety problems in the neighbourhood. Indeed, gangsterism is widespread and limits children's opportunities to succeed in life.

**Table 4. 34: Occurrence of Safety Issues**

<b>Cases</b>	<b>Very Frequently</b>	<b>Frequently</b>	<b>Not at all</b>
Robberies	29.08	54.61	16.31
Alcohol consumption in the streets	68.79	24.11	7.09
Drug sale in streets	39.72	32.62	27.66
Girls/Women Harassment	26.24	16.31	57.45
Gangsters activities	47.52	34.75	17.73

### **3.5.6 Determinants of Income and Financial Conditions**

In this study, the state of socioeconomic conditions was further investigated to determine the reasons why the displaced community is trapped in such a situation. The study primarily focuses on examining the household characteristics that were crucial in determining why the households of the displaced community are different in terms of their income and financial conditions. The next section reports on the findings of each socioeconomic condition.

#### **3.5.6.1 Income Earnings**

Table 4.15 presents the baseline estimates for examining the relationship between income, gender, education and experience with a reasonable model fit ( $R=0.21$ ) showing that gender, education and experience explain 21% of the variation in income. The strongest covariates are education and gender. Additional years of education contribute

significantly to income gains. This is in line with previous findings suggesting that on average, those with secondary education and above earned more than the average income. Nevertheless, 72% of household heads have only below primary education, so they cannot benefit from the education premium. The next best option for these households is therefore to focus on experiences that can increase their earning capacity. Nevertheless, the results show a disappointing outcome. As far as the displaced community is concerned, additional years of experience do not benefit their income. This confirms that experience does not in any way significantly contribute to income within the occupational class in which the household is active. It suggests that being trapped in an occupational class that does not value differences in experience would make the household stay where it is. The lack of occupational mobility, even with slightly higher education (at one level), does not allow the displaced community to move beyond their income threshold, as the change of occupational class falls into the same class and not a better one. Low-wage work is pervasive and there are not enough "good jobs" for these displaced communities. Similarly, this low-wage work is a source of economic vulnerability for the displaced community. Experience shows that promoting robust income growth is much more important for inequality and the well-being of low-income households than any government welfare programmes. At this stage, however, it is clear that the displaced poor have neither the education nor the experience to escape the vicious cycle of remaining trapped in the low-income bracket. This is also confirmed by the interviews where it was noted that those who work as cleaners or guards are hardly paid for their experience. Another interesting observation is the inequality of income between the sexes. The household income of men is significantly higher than that of women. Income inequality based on gender ( $\beta=0.227$ ) is even higher compared to education ( $\beta=0.124$ ). On average, male household heads earn RM 449 more than female household heads after controlling for education and experience (male=RM1624 and female= RM1175).

**Table 4. 45: Determinants of Head of Household Income Earnings**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Coefficient</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Experience	.0487	0.041	1.20	0.232
Sex (Male =1)	0.227	0.087	2.61	0.011
Education	0.124	0.037	3.31	0.001
Constant	6.582	0.151	43.62	0.000
R-Square	0.2073			

Note: SE refers to standard error. Estimated by on survey data.  
Based on 93 observations.

It is also obvious that it is not possible for the displaced community to find a decent job to escape the poverty trap. When asked why it is difficult for them to find a job or even to find another job, the following reasons were given.

### **3.5.6.2 Financial Stability**

Table 4.16 shows the parsimonious model. The study takes into account various characteristics of the households. The most important variable is education and those who have sufficiently thought about future investment plans. Gender, government support and adequate pension provision do not affect the likelihood of better financial stability. The study shows that education is crucial as future investment in the displaced community is very low.

**Table 4.16: Determinants of Financial Stability**

	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Std. Err.</b>	<b>z</b>	<b>P&gt;z</b>
Sex	0.608	0.235	-1.290	0.198
Education	1.452**	0.245	2.200	0.028
Government Support	0.786	0.531	-0.360	0.722
Household Income	1.701***	0.532	1.700	0.089
Future Investments	2.271**	0.868	2.150	0.032
Proper Retirement Plan	0.933	0.352	-0.180	0.855
Constant	0.0042**	0.011	-2.060	0.040
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup> (0.0833)				

Note: \*\* significant at 5%; \*\*\* significant at 10%.

### 3.6 Summary

This chapter examines the state of socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community to understand their progress after almost 20 years of displacement. Indeed, the study also analysed the state of their children's future in terms of education and income, which ultimately determine their advancement in society. The results show that the socioeconomic conditions are below national progress, indicating that this community has lagged behind in the development process. Importantly, although intergenerational mobility is observed, it does not seem to bring the necessary shocks to households to improve their socioeconomic conditions. This is partly because their children have not been able to progress beyond the occupational class, as the majority of children still have lower levels of education. In addition, households are not secure in any way because of where they live. Social networks are indeed limited.



## **CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS: SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND IT'S DETERMINANTS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

SWB has been critical for the displaced community as it indicates their life satisfaction beyond conventional assessment indicators. The cognitive element assessment provides additional information about the displaced community's position and understanding the determinants allows policymakers to alter the state of SWB among the displaced community. This chapter deals with the determinants of the SWB of the displaced community. It first assesses the state of SWB and then identifies the factors that matter for SWB.

### **5.2 State of SWB of Displaced Community and Heterogeneity of SWB**

This section looks at the state of SWB of the respondents in the sample. The focus is on the cognitive dimensions of SWB. In other words, it measures how satisfied respondents are with their lives overall. The cognitive dimensions of respondents' life satisfaction are measured using 4 items to assess their self-satisfaction with their lives. There are a number of possible approaches to analysing and reporting SWB (OECD, 2013) that are useful in determining the level of SWB among the displaced community. In this study, the report includes four key measures: (1) aggregate responses and central tendency (2) SWB distribution (3) SWB heterogeneity between groups. The central tendency and aggregate measures enable policy makers to assess how high or low the SWB of the displaced community is. Similarly, the study can indicate SWB status based on certain

thresholds. Despite the studies using central tendency, e.g. mean values, there are some weaknesses. First, the mean values do not provide adequate information for policy makers. This is because the mean values assume that it is a cardinal measure, even though most of the SWB is ordinal. Secondly, the mean is strongly influenced by the presence of outliers and does not provide information on the distribution of results. Therefore, it is important to show the distribution of responses across the different categories.

Table 5.1 shows the factor analysis of the cognitive measures. Previous literature (Jose, 1993; Charles, Marcus, & Lawrence, 2006) accepts a reliability value of 0.7 or higher as the cut-off point. The four items have a loading factor above 0.70 (confirming the validity of the construct) with a Cronbach's alpha above 0.8, confirming the reliability of the scale. In general, the self-assessment measures in this study have strong characteristics, including uni dimensionality, high internal consistency and, importantly, theoretically meaningful patterns based on the items developed (Diener et al., 2009; Diener et al., 2013) for the displaced community under study. The last item has a lower factor loading, but is still acceptable, so it is not necessary to delete the item. Despite the application to the displaced community, the alpha value reflects many of the previous studies. Previous studies show that the value is in the range of 0.79 and 0.89 (Pavot and Diener, 1993; Adler and Fagley, 2005; Steger et al., 2006), which confirms internal consistency.

**Table 5. 1: SWB of the Sampled Respondents**

<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
In most ways, my life is close to my ideal	0.8097	0.8764
The conditions of my life are excellent	0.8731	
I am satisfied with my life	0.7996	
So far I have gotten the important things I want in life	0.6708	

Source: Author's calculation based on the survey data.

In terms of drawing conclusions about the status of SWB among the displaced, much of the literature tends to focus only on examining the mean values of SWB. They rely on the sensitive individual judgement of the person concerned. (Frey & Luechinger, 2007) have pointed this out by stating, "The assumption is that people are the best judges of the overall quality of their lives". On the other hand, many indicators of SWB focus heavily on the psychological processes without understanding the overall distribution of SWB. Understanding the overall distribution of SWB is crucial for the following reasons. Similar to income inequality, studying the distribution of SWB allows policy makers to understand the existence of inequalities in life satisfaction. Second, it allows policymakers to target specific groups that are more vulnerable than others. A more even distribution of SWB might indicate that not all displaced people are in the same state of SWB or are more vulnerable. In other words, some of these displaced persons could have improved their life satisfaction than others. In contrast, a more skewed distribution (e.g. to the left) could indicate that displaced persons are more disadvantaged. This warrants further research to find out why some were able to improve their life satisfaction than others, which in turn will have numerous policy implications for better management of eviction policies.

This study analyses both the mean value of SWB and its distribution. The mean of SWB for the head of household is 3.71 (SD - 1.70<sup>8</sup>) (or 14.82 - sum; SD - 6.81), while the median is 3.5 and 14 respectively<sup>9</sup>. This indicates that the SWB of the individuals in our sample is in the lower range overall (below 4 or below 16). To shed more light on the SWB conditions of the respondents, the study analyses the distribution of SWB totals.

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<sup>8</sup> Standard Deviation

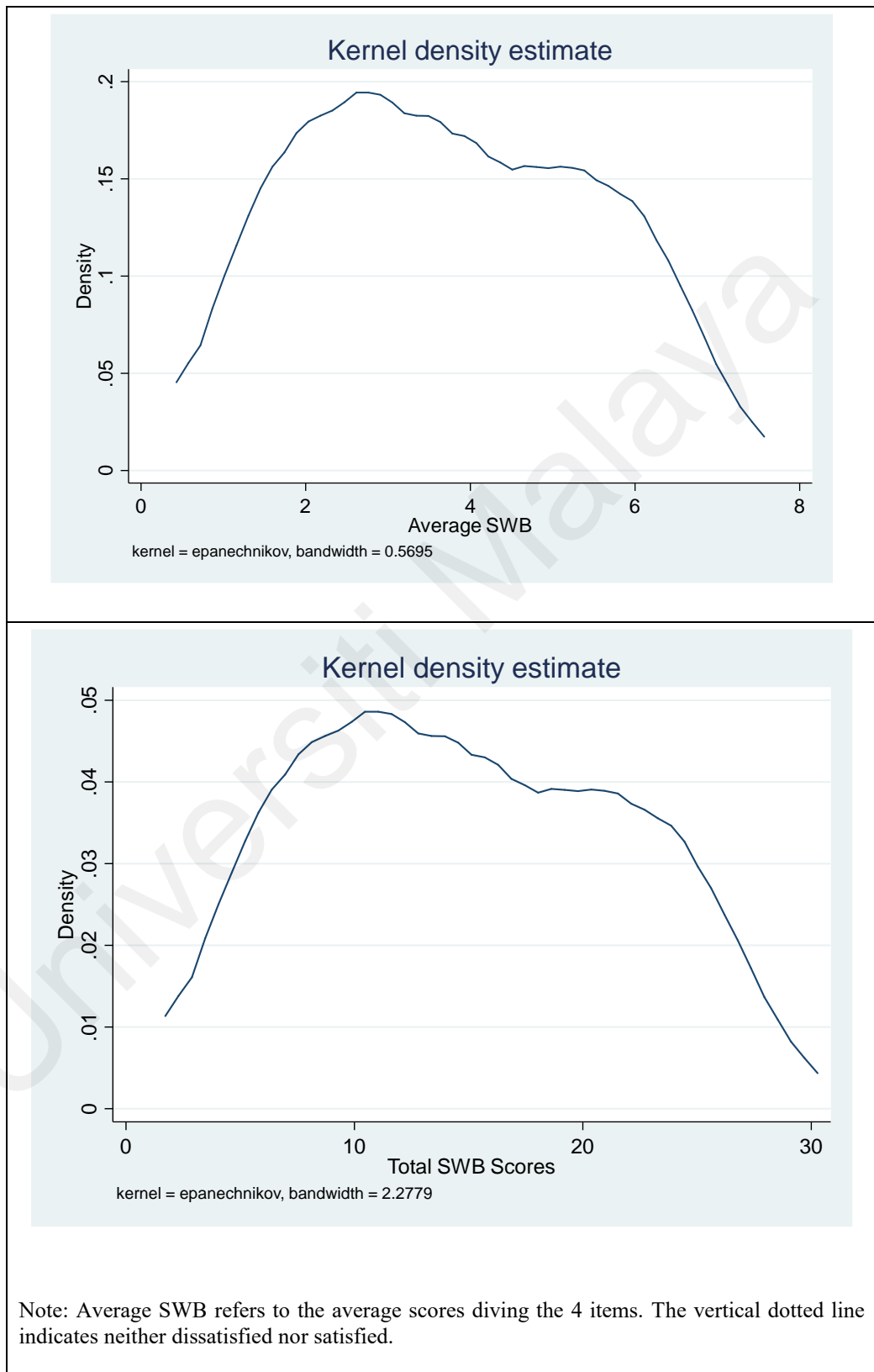
<sup>9</sup> The score can be calculated as overall average taking into account the summation of total score dividing by the number of questions (4 items in this case) or the total summed value of the 4 items.

Table 5.2 illustrates the percentage distribution of SWB. Following (Pavot and Diener, 1992), the scale is further described as the total score ranging from extremely dissatisfied to extremely satisfied. A slightly higher percentage of respondents are in the range of less than 15, representing 55.3% who are dissatisfied with their current state of SWB. Only 3.6% (5 respondents) were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Equally important is that 41% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their SWB, although the number of very satisfied respondents is rather small. It seems that there are two distinct groups within the sample and further analysis is needed to find out why there are differences. Figure 5.1 shows a more detailed core distribution of SWB. The values are consistent with those in Table 5.1, where the distribution of the mean and total sum of values is above the averages, indicating that a larger proportion of respondents are dissatisfied. Overall, two main conclusions can be drawn from these observations. First, the proportion of those who are dissatisfied is slightly larger than the proportion of those who are satisfied with their lives. Secondly, it appears that there are two equally distinct groups within the sample and further investigation of these groups would provide further insights.

**Table 5. 2: Distribution of SWB, by Satisfaction Classification**

<b>Scores</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
4-7	Extremely dissatisfied.	20	14.18
8-11	Dissatisfied	29	20.57
12-15	Slightly dissatisfied	29	20.57
16	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	5	3.55
17-20	Slightly satisfied.	22	15.60
21-24	Satisfied.	23	16.31
25-28	Extremely satisfied.	13	9.22

**Figure 5. 1: SWB Distribution, Density**



The decomposition of the above dimensions provides further insight into the precise aspects of life with which the displaced community is satisfied or dissatisfied. Table 5.3 illustrates the responses. Table 5.3 shows that when asked about living a life that is close to their ideal life, many agree that they live a life that is close to their ideal life. Those who answered "somewhat agree", "agree" or "strongly agree" that their life is ideal total 94 respondents. The remaining 47 responses fall into the category of "agree", "disagree", "strongly disagree" or "strongly disagree" for a life that is close to an ideal life.

**Table 5. 3: Responses by Dimensions**

Dimension s	Strongl y agree (%)	Agre e (%)	Slightl y agree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Slightly disagree (%)	Disagre e (%)	Strongl y diasgree (%)
Ideal Life	15.6	19.9	13.5	8.5	17.7	13.5	11.3
Excellent Life Condition	14.2	20.6	16.3	9.2	16.3	14.9	8.5
Satiafied with Life	16.3	29.1	12.1	5	9.2	19.1	9.2
Fulfillment	14.2	19.1	18.4	8.5	12.8	18.4	8.5

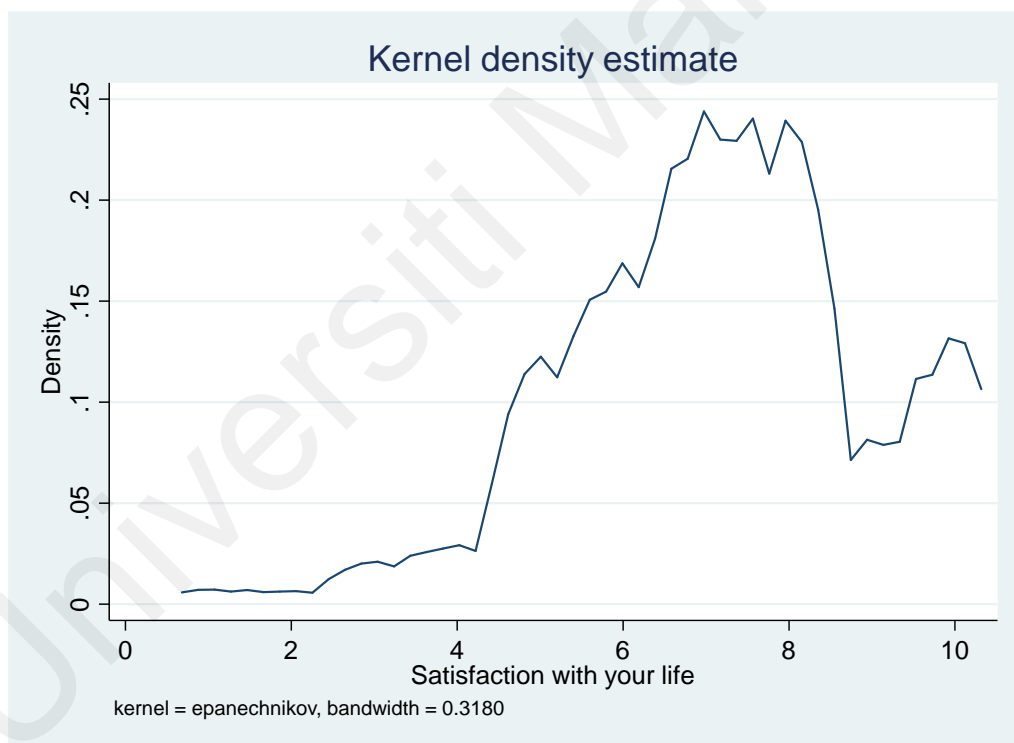
The study also attempts to compare the SWB of displaced persons with the general life satisfaction of Malaysians. For this purpose, the study used the World Value Survey data sets. It should be noted that a direct comparison is not possible as the measurement of overall life satisfaction in the survey is based on a single item: "All in all, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?". On a scale of 1 to 10<sup>10</sup>. However, general

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<sup>10</sup> The survey was conducted in 2012, therefore time change may also affect life satisfaction.

conclusions can be drawn if one knows the conditions of overall satisfaction in Malaysia. Figure 5.2 illustrates the overall life satisfaction of the general Malaysian population. In general, Malaysians' life satisfaction seems to tend towards higher scores above 4 and a higher distribution in the 6-10 range, although the proportion of people with extreme satisfaction (8-10) is relatively low. This suggests that, overall, Malaysians are satisfied with their lives. In contrast, the distribution is not as pronounced in the displaced community, which tends to be dissatisfied. This warrants further investigation into why certain groups within the sample have lower SWB.

**Figure 5. 2 : Overall Life Satisfaction for Malaysia**



Note: The distribution is plotted by the author for the entire population with a sample of 1,300 observation based on the World Values Survey. Please refer to Inglehart et al, 2014, World Values Survey Datasets.

Although the term SWB in this study is based on direct, unobservable measures, the study also attempts to measure relatively. This is to ensure that what we measure reflects the actual status of SWB, and to confirm previous measurements. Our concept of relative SWB is based on the theoretical and empirical concept of individual aspirations, where individual well-being functions are constructed by asking respondents to rate their well-being considering their own situation compared to their benchmark (the hypothetical case in this study) to make it more objective. It also indicates how badly or well they are doing compared to the hypothetical case used as a benchmark. Therefore, the following hypothetical case is used as a benchmark in the study.

“Assume that you know someone who is struggling to earn a decent living (earning less than RM 700), and he could not send his kids to school, have no money to pay for health care and no proper housing. And, very often he also feels unhappy with his family life. He thinks that there is no one that cares for him” (see Appendix 1, Question SWB 1.8 for more details).

The hypothetical scenario was created to understand if the respondents are unable to meet the condition of an adequate standard of living standards to survive. Table 5.4 illustrates the distribution of responses. It shows that most respondents feel (68.6%; scale 1-3) that they have an adequate standard of living as measured on the basis of the hypothetical scenario. It is also important to note that about 27.9% of the respondents indicated that their standard of living is worse than in the hypothetical scenarios, which warrants further investigation. This is discussed further in Chapter 5 when the study examines the dynamics of other covariates related to the state of relative well-being.



**Table 5. 4: Distribution of Decent Living Standards**

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cum.</b>
1	33	23.57	23.57
2	42	30	53.57
3	21	15	68.57
4	5	3.57	72.14
5	16	11.43	83.57
6	11	7.86	91.43
7	12	8.57	100

Note: Scale is range from 1 to 7 with 1 indicating strongly agree to strongly disagree. Questions: I would say that my well-being is far better compared to the person that you describe.

The study also looks at the satisfaction of the displaced community in terms of family relationships, the environment and the neighbourhood. These environments are crucial in creating the necessary supportive environment. In terms of family relationships, 24% of respondents are not satisfied or very dissatisfied with having a happy personal relationship with a family member. For the physical environment, the percentage of those who disagree or strongly disagree is even higher, at 40%. For neighbourhood, the figure is 24%. The results are well in line with the previous indicators that the displaced community are disadvantaged in terms of physical living conditions and neighbourhood environment.

**Table 5. 5 : Satisfaction – Family, Neighbour and Surrounding Environment**

Dimensions	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Slightly agree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Slightly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagree (%)
I am happy with my personal relationships with my family members.	50.4	19.1	1.4	3.5	1.4	7.1	17.0
In terms of physical environment, I am happy living in my current area	12.1	14.9	14.9	9.2	8.5	14.9	25.5
In terms of my neighborhood, I am happy living in my current area	15.6	26.2	10.6	9.9	9.2	12.8	15.6

### 5.3 Determinants of SWB

The study explores the determinants of SWB by examining the causal relationship between SWB and selected socioeconomic conditions. The idea is to better understand what is responsible for the differences in SWB in the displaced community. Table 5.6 and Table 5.7 examine the determinants of the overall average SWB and the individual components of SWB.

The results in Table 5.6 indicate that there is no significant relationship between the demographic variables. In particular, income does not seem to explain SWB. The variation in SWB shows a random distribution with no clear linear pattern with income. Since the majority of the displaced households have lower incomes and were not able to

compare their relative income with that of the higher earners, this could lead to the insignificant result of the income variable. In terms of gender, female heads of household have lower SWB than their male counterparts. In other words, women are less satisfied with their lives. However, the gender variable is not statistically significant. The results are consistent for both average SWB and relative SWB. Important explanatory variables for SWB are family relationships, living conditions and neighbourhood relationships. A poor social network and social support system are thus the most important factors determining SWB. Of crucial importance in connection with the economic dimensions is financial stability. Households with higher financial stability have higher SWB. Thus, absolute income does not play a major role, but long-term financial stability is more important than absolute income. In the context of displaced community, the results suggest that target variables such as income and demographic factors (gender, age, education and employment status) are of little relevance to SWB. In other words, SWB is much more influenced by personality and the perceived importance of personal relationships, social participation and other factors. The analysis shows that objective economic circumstances have no influence on subjective outcomes. This is due to the limited variance in wealth and income of the displaced community.

Table 5.7 examines the influence of the same variables on the individual measures of life satisfaction. Although single item scales are not the best measures of well-being, these measures are widely used and have acceptable levels of reliability and validity (Diener et al. 1999, pp. 277-278). The results suggest that for the ideal life, none of the variables are significant in explaining variation in the ideal life. Family relationships, relationships with neighbours and financial stability are crucial factors that explain life as excellent and life satisfaction.

**Table 5. 6: SWB Determinants – Role of Family, Environment, Financial Stability and Neighbor**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Average SWB	Average SWB	Average SWB	Average SWB	CS	CS	CS	CS
<b>Family Relations</b>	0.211 <sup>***</sup>	0.139 <sup>*</sup>	0.212 <sup>**</sup>	0.123	0.580 <sup>***</sup>	0.507 <sup>***</sup>	0.545 <sup>***</sup>	0.475 <sup>***</sup>
	(0.0584)	(0.0607)	(0.0664)	(0.0721)	(0.0519)	(0.0524)	(0.0584)	(0.0606)
<b>Living Environment</b>	0.132 <sup>*</sup>		0.206 <sup>**</sup>		0.0851		0.0799	
	(0.0637)		(0.0725)		(0.0567)		(0.0638)	
<b>Financial Stability</b>	0.285 <sup>*</sup>	0.289 <sup>*</sup>			0.0957	0.0831		
	(0.119)	(0.118)			(0.106)	(0.102)		
<b>Sex (Female vs Male)</b>	-0.256	-0.197	-0.396	-0.355	-0.235	-0.144	-0.0473	0.00872
	(0.272)	(0.274)	(0.325)	(0.331)	(0.242)	(0.238)	(0.286)	(0.280)
<b>Neighbour Relation</b>		0.154 <sup>*</sup>		0.178 <sup>*</sup>		0.188 <sup>**</sup>		0.177 <sup>*</sup>
		(0.0686)		(0.0810)		(0.0595)		(0.0685)
<b>Income (Log)</b>			0.270	0.340			-0.180	-0.122
			(0.300)	(0.306)			(0.263)	(0.257)
<b>Constant</b>	1.822 <sup>***</sup>	1.976 <sup>***</sup>	0.467	0.385	0.926 <sup>*</sup>	0.788	2.393	1.836
	(0.507)	(0.464)	(2.150)	(2.201)	(0.450)	(0.401)	(1.885)	(1.852)
<b>Observations</b>	141	141	102	102	140	140	101	101
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.149	0.153	0.158	0.131	0.497	0.524	0.486	0.511
<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.124	0.128	0.124	0.096	0.483	0.510	0.464	0.491

Note: Standard errors in parentheses; \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; CS refers to relative SWB based on scenario created by the study. Average SWB refers to average scores of 4 SWB items with 1 being strongly agree and 7 highly disagree. Higher SWB scores means lower life satisfaction. Neighbour relations and Living environment were separately estimated due to high multicollinearity issues. The scale is reverse coded - 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

**Table 5. 7 : SWB Determinants (Individual SWB)**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Life is close to ideal	Life is close to ideal	Life are Excellent	Life are Excellent	Life Satisfying	Life Satisfying	Achieve Important Things in Life	Achieve Important Things in Life
<b>Family Relations</b>	0.112 (0.0727)	0.0593 (0.0760)	0.245*** (0.0669)	0.174* (0.0687)	0.307*** (0.0693)	0.236** (0.0718)	0.180** (0.0681)	0.0876 (0.0723)
<b>Living Environment</b>	0.110 (0.0793)		0.0781 (0.0730)		0.115 (0.0756)		0.227** (0.0743)	
<b>Financial Stability</b>	0.284 (0.148)	0.292 (0.148)	0.287* (0.136)	0.275* (0.134)	0.424** (0.141)	0.424** (0.140)	0.143 (0.139)	0.167 (0.141)
<b>Sex (Female vs Male)</b>	-0.0419 (0.339)	-0.00652 (0.343)	-0.332 (0.312)	-0.246 (0.310)	-0.148 (0.323)	-0.0801 (0.324)	-0.503 (0.317)	-0.457 (0.326)
<b>Neighbor Relation</b>		0.104 (0.0858)		0.184* (0.0775)		0.164* (0.0811)		0.165* (0.0816)
<b>Constant</b>	2.166*** (0.631)	2.360*** (0.580)	2.007*** (0.581)	1.849*** (0.525)	1.010 (0.602)	1.063 (0.548)	2.103*** (0.591)	2.632*** (0.552)
<b>Observations</b>	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.056	0.053	0.132	0.159	0.188	0.198	0.124	0.091
<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.028	0.025	0.106	0.134	0.164	0.174	0.098	0.064

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$  The scale is reverse coded - 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

## 5.4 Summary

This chapter examines the state of SWB in the displaced community in Taman Permata. The analysis proves that SWB in the displaced community is low. A larger comparison with the population of Malaysia shows that the displaced community has lower life satisfaction. However, it is also found that not all households are equally dissatisfied (low SWB). The analysis of the determinants of SWB shows that the conventional factors associated with SWB do not have much influence in determining SWB. In contrast, the psychological factors such as financial hardship and social network are the most important determinants of SWB. The displaced community deserves attention in a wider context given the low socioeconomic conditions and SWB. Importantly, the physical environment and security within the community is a bigger issue that the relevant authorities should improve. This will improve living conditions to some extent and foster community relations.

## CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings of the study and explains the policy implications of the study that would enable policy makers to consider policies that would change the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community as well as their SWB. The study provides general implications and some important specific implications that if left unaddressed would result in perpetuating the challenges of the displaced community. Most of the policy implications drawn apply not only to the Indian displaced community but also to the larger community as a whole, which is in the same situation as the displaced community. Therefore, the implications of the study have a more general meaning.

There are various socioeconomic impacts of development-induced displacement. The basic idea of resettlement leading to displacement was the expectation of improving the socioeconomic status of the society, which would indirectly lead to an improvement in the subjective well-being of the society. In reality, however, this assumption is far from the truth and may worsen the socioeconomic conditions of the displaced community. The main objective of relocating the Indian community from the estate was to promote development and the promise of a better life for the estate workers. However, the results indicate that the community is not able to rebuild their lives in the new environment with less favourable socioeconomic conditions. The aftermath of such a situation has also affected the subjective well-being of the community. Against this background, this paper further explored the details of the socioeconomic conditions and SWB of the displaced community in Putrajaya.

After decades of displacement, the study examines the socioeconomic status of the community and how they fared in terms of life satisfaction, or subjective well-being. The socioeconomic conditions were divided into a few categories. Socioeconomic factors such as education, health, social support and safety and security as well as economic factors such as income, savings, credit and the financial conditions of the households are used to determine their status. As the community has been displaced for almost two decades, the study also looks at the intergenerational mobility of the displaced communities. Intergenerational mobility uses education and income as the main indicators to determine if there is a jump between the two generations. Finally, this thesis examines the subjective well-being of the displaced community from Putrajaya and the factors that contribute to subjective well-being. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the study explored the following research questions:

1. What are the general socioeconomic conditions and progress of the displaced community in Putrajaya?
2. How do the households see the future of their children? And is there intergenerational mobility in the displaced community?
3. After two decades of displacement, how well have the displaced people progressed in terms of SWB?
4. What are the factors that determine their SWB?

Along with it, few testable hypotheses were constructed to identify the factors that could explain the variations in the socioeconomic conditions and SWB. Despite large amount of research on the displaced community, the issues related to SWB of the displaced community have been largely ignored (especially in the context of Malaysia). It is also true that empirical findings supported with data are limited. Hence the finding of the thesis led to the original contributions in the following areas:



1. The status of economic and social conditions of the displaced community of Putrajaya.
2. The differences among the intergenerational mobility in terms of education and income
3. The subjective wellbeing of the community after decades been displaced.
4. The relationship between socio-economic factors and subjective wellbeing.

The assessment and study of the above issues has resulted in a valuable and insightful policy outcome for the displaced community. Before we go into the main findings and policy recommendations, you will receive a summary of the findings and analysis. This is followed by an explanation of the key findings and implications. The key findings provide new insights for policy makers and development scholars.

#### **6.1.1 Key Finding 1– Economic and Social Conditions**

The main findings for Objective 1 have been divided into two sections. The first relates to economic conditions and the second to social conditions.

##### **a. Economic conditions of the displaced community**

Although the Malaysian government has managed to reduce the poverty rate over the past decades, the displaced community is still in the poverty trap. As the analysis shows, the majority of this community is still below the poverty rate compared to the national poverty rate. They have been displaced from their former homes for almost two decades, but their incomes have not only held up, but are still far below the poverty rate. While the country's growth is improving, the income of this population group is stagnating, causing them to fall out of the income stream. The income stagnation may also be the result of

their occupational activities. Most of them work in occupations that do not require much training or qualification. Occupations such as cleaners, gardeners and labourers do not require high qualifications, which affects their income. They also have to bear in mind that they are trapped in low-skilled jobs because of their previous employment in the rubber plantations. In the plantations, most of them worked as rubber tappers and now there are no such jobs. Therefore, their skills are outdated and they are trapped in frictional unemployment. All this has forced them to take casual jobs for which no skills are required and which are poorly paid. In addition, the industry in which they work is not upgrading and training to become an industry that values skills and knowledge.

The chain effect of these low-paying jobs without additional income enhancement affects the savings and investments of this community. Most of these households were not even able to save for a month. With no improvement in income, the community was also unable to save for emergencies or 'rainy days'. This is well in line with Friedman's (1957) theory of permanent income, which states that one saves when a person's current income is higher than the expected or projected level of permanent income. Permanent income refers to the average long-term income that can be safely spent.

The stagnation of their income is also a major obstacle to their future investments. Indeed, the chain reaction of lack of income and lack of savings has contributed to many people getting into debt because they have decided to borrow. Although Modigliani and Brumberg (1954) argued that people borrow according to their needs, including to fulfil their consumption desires, in the sample, borrowing is mainly for unexpected expenses.

## b. Socio Conditions of the Displaced Community

The socio-condition in education does not show much progress. In particular, the number of school dropouts is a major problem. Indeed, the community lacks social support, which limits its ability to function and receive important information. Security issues are a major problem limiting their SWB.

### **6.1.2 Key Finding 2 - Perceived children future and intergeneration mobility.**

Intergenerational mobility has been tested using education and income as determinants or measures. There is a significant improvement in educational mobility, but still most of the improvement is one or two level higher. This shows that there is still a lack of awareness of the importance of education, especially among parents. On the other hand, the proportion of tertiary graduates among children has increased compared to their parents. Although the number of tertiary graduates has increased in the sample, the percentage is much lower compared to the national level and very low compared to non-tertiary graduates. The majority of children have studied only up to SPM. The dropout rates are alarming. Although the number of dropouts has decreased in primary and lower secondary education, there is not much difference in the completion of tertiary education between these two generations. The children are only 1 or at most 2 levels better than their parents. However, the educational attainment of the 2nd or 3rd child tends to be better than that of the older ones. The main reason for this is that the older child could not continue his or her education due to poverty and therefore starts working early in life to support his or her family.

As with educational mobility, there are no differences in income mobility between generations. There is no significant movement in the income of children compared to that of their parents. Although education shows a very small upward movement, the movement in type of employment does not differ much. Thus, incomes do not show any improvements.

These two indicators clearly show that there is not much progress in intergenerational mobility between these two groups. Education is often seen as a driver of intergenerational mobility in income persistence (Jonsson, Macmillan & Mood, 2017). In the case of Taman Permata, education was not sufficient for income

### **6.1.3 Key Finding 3 - Assessment of SWB and the drivers of SWB**

Based on the analysis in the chapter earlier, it is a clear indication that there are two distinct groups. Nevertheless, large numbers of those with low SWB are still a major concern. In contrast to the conventional belief that objective measures of socioeconomic influence SWB, the study finds that that household characteristic does not influence SWB. In other words, psychological factors are more relevant than income of the households. Family relations, neighbour relations and social participation are key drivers. Importantly, financial distress also explains the variation in SWB.

Although the community's income is below the national average, income does not affect their subjective well-being. This is in contrast to previous studies which indicate that higher income leads to higher well-being, especially through consumption (Fuentes & Roja, 2001). Easterlin (2005) found that the relationship between income and happiness is strong at the lower income range, but weakens as income increases. However, this is

not observed in our sample. The study also does not agree with the conclusion of Luhmann, Schimmack & Eid (2011) that richer people have higher subjective well-being compared to poor people. This study agrees with that of Marks & Fleming (1999) and Schyns (2001), who showed that the influence of income on subjective well-being is very small and in some cases not significant.

On the other hand, subjective wellbeing is also said to be influenced by stable dispositional characteristics (Headey & Wearing, 1989; Lykke & Tellege, 1996). In other words, a person's character traits determine subjective wellbeing. The way one adapts to the environment and circumstances is also said to determine the person's subjective wellbeing. While the study did not find a relationship between personal demographic characteristics such as gender, age and education and SWB, the perceived financial situation does influence SWB.

Another important factor contributing to the subjective wellbeing of displaced community is the environment. The study clearly shows that the environment plays an important role. The regression analysis shows that environment is the most important factor. The environment refers to both the surroundings and the facilities. Even in the interviews, many complain about their dissatisfaction with the environment, including pollution, poor waste disposal, heavy vandalism and lack of cleanliness. Headey & Wearing (1992) have mentioned that environment, apart from partly genetic factors, determines subjective wellbeing. This was also confirmed by other studies such as that of Nes, Røysamb, Tambs, Harris & Reichborn (2006), who found that exposure to change was mainly related to individual environmental factors.

As a whole, Table 6.1 critically summaries some of the key findings.

**Table 6.1 Summary of Key Findings**

Objective	Results / Analysis	Remarks / Comments
<p><b>Examine the socioeconomic conditions (objective well-being that captures material resources and social attributes) of the displaced community.</b></p>	<p><i>a) Income and Financial Conditions –</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The income ranges from RM 900 to RM 4500.</li> <li>• On average, male earns RM 448 more than the female household heads.</li> <li>• Those with secondary education and above earn more than the mean income on average.</li> <li>• The displaced community has a mean income of RM722, which is much lower compared to the B40 group, which stand at RM 2,848. Similarly, the median income for the displaced community is only RM625 compared to the national median amount for B40 which is RM3000.</li> <li>• Largely, majority of the household (97%), do not have any other sources of income other than their current working jobs.</li> <li>• 61% of the household’s financial conditions are either stayed the same or were worse off. Out of these, 40% reported to have a worse financial condition as compared to 5 years back.</li> <li>• In terms of managing their finance almost 56% of the households showed they are just getting by and finding it difficult to financially get by with their lives.</li> <li>• 73% of the households were not even being able to allocate some minimum savings. Indeed, the income only is able to sustain their daily expenses.</li> </ul> <p><i>b) Health, Social Support and security and Safety</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Large number of households, around 67% does not have any single insurance coverage.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Education at secondary levels do not teach any specific skills leaving these group of people getting only marginal premium out of the improvements in education at secondary levels.</li> <li>➤ Interestingly, many of the households survive with the income in kind from various sources, predominantly from government.</li> <li>➤ Only 36% of the household lives with borrowed money. Larger percentages are living with the support of other members within the household, especially children.</li> <li>➤ It also indicates that their income is below national poverty line of RM980 per-household.</li> <li>➤ This shows that the households could not live decent live financially.</li> <li>➤ Additional years of education significantly contribute to income earnings.</li> <li>➤ It is clear that neither the poor displaced communities have had the education nor the experience to help them avoid the vicious cycle of remaining trapped in lower income.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The analysis shows that there are more respondents agreeing that they are not getting support from neighbor, close relatives, and friends. Indeed, within family members the differences is low indicating that sharing worries and fears.</li> <li>• The most common problem relates to gangsters, robbery and cleanliness. The issues of gangsters and robbery also relate to the issues of school dropouts and the deprivation safety and living conditions of the neighborhoods.</li> <li>• The safety aspect is very much jeopardized with poor building structural conditions. Indeed, issues like poor drainage system at the ground floor which causes clogs leads to bad smell and unfavorable environment. Building cracks both outside and inside of the household residency are common sites. The hollow ground further adds to the safety concerns of the entire building in which the displaced community stays.</li> </ul> <p><i>c) Determinants of Income and Financial Conditions</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nevertheless, 72% of the head of household only have less than primary education qualification thus it deprives their ability to enjoy the education premium in earning.</li> <li>• Additional years of experience do not add any benefits to their earning where it confirms that experience do not in any way significantly contribute to earnings within the occupation class that the household actively engage in.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Many of the improvements on education attainment are at lower education level.</li> <li>➤ It seems to suggest that despite children doing well in education as compared to their parents, it is only marginally better than their parents having one- or two-level higher education attainment.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Assess the household perceived future of their children and inter-generation mobility of the</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 68% of the children have an upward mobility in education having better education than their parents.</li> <li>• Nevertheless, it is also true that the majority of the upward mobility in education has only moved at one or more levels accounting for 55% with 23% at one level higher and 34% at two levels higher than their parent's education level.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Children have not moved up the occupation class much better than the parents. Many of the children are still within the low-paying job category limiting the attainment of the needed income progress.</li> <li>➤ As a whole, two main inferences can be made from these observations. First, those dissatisfied</li> </ul>

<p><b>displaced community.</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The median income of the father is RM 1,400 while as for children it ranges between RM 1,200 to RM 1,300.</li> </ul>	<p>are slightly greater than those who have satisfied with their life. Second, it seems that there are two equally distinct groups within the sample and exploring them further would provide greater insights.</p>
<p><b>Assess the SWB of the displaced community.</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The mean scores of the SWB for the head of households are 3.71 (SD - 1.70<sup>11</sup>) (or 14.82 – sum total; SD - 6.81) while the median stands at 3.5 and 14 respectively.<sup>12</sup> It suggests that the overall SWB of the sample where the people in our sample have a level of SWB close to the lower range (less than 4 or below 16).</li> <li>A slightly higher percentage of respondents are in the range of less than 15 accounting for 55.3% where they are dissatisfied with their current state of SWB. Only 3.6% (5 respondents) where neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Equally important to note is that 41% of the respondents indicated that they are satisfied with their SWB although the number of extremely satisfied is somewhat low.</li> <li>Overall Malaysians are satisfaction with the overall life. In contrast, the displaced community does not exhibit the same distribution where the distribution is more skewed towards dissatisfaction.</li> <li>In terms of family relationship, 24% of them disagree and strongly disagree of having a happy personal relationship with family member. The score is even higher on physical environment where to total of disagree and strongly disagree consist of 40%. As for neighborhoods, it accounts for 24%. The findings align well with the previous indicators that the displaced communities are deprived with the physical living conditions and the non- supporting neighborhoods environment.</li> </ul>	<p>➤ Therefore, poor social network and social support system deem to be the important factors determining their SWB.</p>

<sup>11</sup> Standard Deviation

<sup>12</sup> The score can be calculated as overall average taking into account the summation of total score dividing by the number of questions (4 items in this case) or the total summed value of the 4 items.



<b>Explore the drivers of SWB of the displaced community.</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Demographics variables, it does not have any significant relationship.</li><li>• Specifically, income does not seem to explain SWB</li><li>• In terms of gender, female head of households has lesser SWB than the male. However, the gender variable is not statistically significant</li><li>• Critical explanatory - SWB variables are family relations, living conditions, and neighbor relations.</li><li>• Financial stability, households with higher financial stability have higher SWB</li></ul>	
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## **6.2 Policy Implications**

The findings of the studies offer useful insights in terms of policy implications for future issues related to development-induced displacement, particularly in the case of displacement from plantations in Malaysia. The data and the findings of the analysis provide important guidance for conducting policy-related research. Therefore, the study suggests the following policy implications:

### **6.2.1 Setting up DID Monitoring and Support Center System.**

It is time that policy makers set up a centre to monitor the entire spectrum of developmental displacement, which is crucial not only for the Indian community but for the entire society that is or will be faced with such displacement. There are other areas of displacement throughout the country that require a holistic approach to mitigate the impact of displacement. Similarly, in Indonesia, a new decree on land acquisition was issued in 1993 that emphasises consultation with affected people (Rew, Fisher, & Pandey, 2000). This centre can adopt some ideas from Smyth & Vanclay (2017) when they propose the process from the perspective of a resettlement consultant. It is important to outline six key phases that need to be undertaken in resettlement. The six phases are scoping and initial planning, profiling and baseline data collection, development of the resettlement action plan (RAP), implementation and handover, livelihood restoration and enhancement, and finally monitoring and evaluation. All of this can help mitigate problems and ensure a smooth transition for all displaced communities.

Many of the problems facing this community are due to a lack of guidance and information. This centre should play a central role in the early stages of displacement, i.e. even before a group of DID is relocated or displaced. This will help the centre to have a comprehensive historical account and knowledge of the group that can help them guide the future displaced community to overcome the hurdles and obstacles when they are in the new places. Clear regulations and plans are also needed to deal with such displacement issues. We need clear guidelines for dealing with displacement problems. Clear standard operating procedures must be in place to handle resettlement until future development-related resettlement takes place. The Centre for Displacement can be the main driving force to ensure that all these processes are carried out accordingly.

### **6.2.2 Economic attainment and job skills**

There are few aspects that are key for the authorities and policy makers to help the displaced and one of them is the economy (jobs and income) of the displaced. The studies clearly show that the displaced group is not making progress or achieving much economic success. One of the main reasons is the structural change in the skills of their work, which are outdated and no longer needed. After displacement, many of them were not able to match their existing skills with the new environment and surroundings. Therefore, not only do they no longer have the opportunity to find a job, but it has also affected their financial and income opportunities. To overcome this, the authorities can take the responsibility of formulating a retraining programme that specifically focuses on these groups so that the displaced community can learn some useful skills to compete in the new labour market. Not only will they acquire new skills, but they will also increase their confidence and chances of getting a job in a new industry and environment.

The government can also cite the success of the Federal Land Authority (FELDA) programme that eradicated poverty in the early 1960s, especially among the Bumiputra (Malays). Under this programme, many of them were allotted land so that they could actively participate in rubber and palm oil plantations. The settlers receive a progressive income of RM1,300 per month for the first three years. Once the crops mature, they can earn more. There are also various programmes to promote entrepreneurship among the settlers, but these types of programmes are out of reach for the displaced community.

In the case of Orissa, India, Pandey (1998) found that displaced people with an agricultural background found jobs in areas that were classified as agricultural zones by the government. The government's supportive role was crucial. In this way, the government has to some extent matched job creation with the skills of the displaced group. If the authorities in Malaysia match skills and job opportunities, society will progress far better. This will reduce unemployment among the displaced. Policymakers should be prepared to identify the same type of economic zone for the resettlement of the displaced groups. It is important to identify these types of target groups for support, especially in terms of the type of jobs, skills match and capabilities of the displaced population.

In order to counter structural unemployment and other types of unemployment that arise due to displacement, a policy on job placement needs to be formulated. The government, through its Ministry of Labour or Human Resources, should identify companies that can hire the displaced population. Perhaps the ministry can undertake certain measures such as training and retraining for the displaced people so that they are willing to work in such a company. That would be a win-win situation for all three parties, the displaced persons get a job, the companies meet their labour needs without shying away from the training

costs, and the government can reduce unemployment. In effect, the foreign labour problem can be minimised. A good example of such a practise is China. The state (authorities) uses state-owned enterprises to hire people displaced from the countryside to the city (Meikle, & Zhu, 2000). In the capitalist economy, the government can create incentives for enterprises to hire the displaced people, especially small and medium enterprises. This will also enable enterprises to fulfil their social obligations, which is much needed in the context of sustainable development.

Another measure that can be taken to curb the economic problems and unemployment of the displaced is to provide business or micro-credit to enable them to start a business. These small businesses should meet the needs of the large businesses in their new resettlement area and ensure that they have enough customers to buy their products. In a study by Pandey (1998) at the National Aluminium Company Limited (India), it was mentioned that many had settled in a colony near the plant, which ensured that there was always a market and the average annual income of those displaced by the project increased the most.

### **6.2.3 Empowerment of Education**

The next implications from the study is the attainment of education by the displaced community. The population group under study was obviously bypassed in attaining education. Many of them do not continue their studies and the number of dropouts is still very high compared to the national average. It is time for the relevant authorities to find solutions to overcome these problems. Counselling should be provided for the dropouts. Also, more opportunities should be opened for them to pursue non-academic studies. For this group, non-academic studies such as vocational training should be established either

on a full-time or part-time basis. Vocational training should be emphasised and the benefits to the community should be highlighted. By acquiring such training, displaced people have a better chance of finding permanent employment. The case of the Cree Indians in James Bay is a good example. Adult education courses enabled adults to learn new skills (Salisbury, 1986). Through part-time courses, school dropouts still have the opportunity to acquire some education while working full-time to support themselves and their families.

#### **6.2.4 Financial Literacy**

The second aspect that needs attention is the adequate information and training on financial skills for the displaced community. Financial skills such as changing savings behaviour and empowering them to invest are crucial. From a theoretical point of view, it became clear that majority of the study participants do not know how to save and mostly opt for low interest savings like normal savings accounts with the banks. It is time for the government to come up with a long-term literacy plan through the Centre. Products like investment in mutual funds, cooperatives and insurance should be highlighted for the group. The government, through its institutions such as Bank Simpanan Nasional (a state-owned bank) or the training institutes, should regularly visit the displaced communities and provide proper training, lectures and workshops on financial aspects such as savings, mutual funds, insurance and others and encourage them to save.

### 6.2.5 Environment and Safety

From the study, it appears that the environment is the main cause of lower achievement of subjective wellbeing. It is clear from the analysis that the environment plays a crucial role. It is time that clear policies and guidelines are formulated to ensure that the displaced group live in a comfortable, clean and safe environment. The authorities, such as municipal councils, should put in place programmes to involve people in maintaining a desirable environment. Such programmes will also foster a sense of belonging among residents.

As far as the security of the area is concerned, the authorities should enact a law that all future residences be gated, similar to a gated community, and that there be few and limited access points to prevent crime and especially theft. Programmes such as community policing or "Rakan Cop"<sup>13</sup> should also be extended to these types of areas. Programmes like community policing are a collaboration between police officers and the community to solve various crime problems (Tyler, 2011). Such programmes have shown tremendous success in reducing crime, such as street drug dealing, gangsters in Englewood, Chicago (Kerley, 2005). In another case, in New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory, community-based policies have improved police-community relations. This has increased community trust and reduced the risk of crime (Priest & Carter, 1999). It is time for policy makers in Malaysia to develop such policies to curb crime in a displacement area such as that in Taman Permata.

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<sup>13</sup> Rakan Cop serve as an intermediary medium to reduce the gap between the police and the community in combating crimes in housing areas (Suffian et, al.,2012)

In short, it is time for policy makers to develop sound policies that take into account the above suggestions to address the displacement caused by development. This will ensure a smooth transition not only in terms of socioeconomic factors but also a high level of subjective wellbeing for the future group of displaced people. With sound policies and a centre to monitor such displacements, the government would be able to mitigate the problems identified in the study.

### **6.3 Limitations and Future Studies**

The study takes a case study approach of the displaced community in Taman Permata. This limits the applicability and generalisation of the study's findings. For example, the social support systems are very site-specific and may not reflect the entire population of the displaced community or Indians in general. Some of the context-specific data should be interpreted with caution and without generalisation. However, it is reasonable to assume that some of the findings, although limited to this case, could also apply to the entire poor population facing similar socio-economic dilemmas. As far as the condition of the SWB is concerned, the study only covers the displaced community. Therefore, a larger study with more resources should be initiated to understand these unprivileged communities across Malaysia. Many of them are now moving to the urban areas where they may be exposed to extreme urban poverty. As the sample of the study is relatively limited to the displaced people in Taman Permata, a larger study is needed to uncover and assess the entire socioeconomic and SWB levels of the displaced community. This study can be used and replicated to better understand the situation of the displaced Indian community.



The study has contributed to a better understanding of the socioeconomic and SWB of the group displaced from the plantation sector due to development. However, there are some limitations that need further attention in future studies. One of the most important aspects of intergenerational mobility is the success of the children, whether in educational attainment or income level, which is not significantly different from that of their parents. Although the government has taken various measures to improve access to education and give children and parents more opportunities to be educated, these children are still almost at the same level as their parents. This warrants further study of their behaviours as well as questions about the return to education. Studies show that children from poorer families have low self-esteem and other problems that obviously require solutions. Indeed, the problems of school dropouts should be addressed to solve educational mobility, without which intergenerational mobility would not be possible in the case of the Indian displaced community in particular and Indians in general. According to Malaysian Indian Blueprint (2017)<sup>14</sup>, prepared as part of the assessment of the situation of Malaysian Indians, the percentage of Indian male students who passed all subjects in the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM) examination was 44% in 2015. In 2014, the percentage of Indian male students who dropped out of school was 8% of all secondary school dropouts. This is an alarming figure considering that Indians make up only 7% of the total population. Overall, this means that 4 out of 10 Indians drop out of school. Among the reasons for dropping out of school are poor socioeconomic conditions. Studies have shown that only 5% of Indian children whose parents have no formal education attain a university degree compared to other races, e.g. 33% among the Bumiputera and 44%

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<sup>14</sup> The blueprint was an initiative by the Malaysian Indian Congress Party that was launched on 25<sup>th</sup> April 2017 by then the Prime Minister, Najib Razak with a aim of establishing 10 year plan. Nevertheless, the plan did not take off seriously after collapse of the Najib administrative. The plan aimed to uplift the socioeconomic conditions of the Indians in Malaysia.

among the Chinese community. The fact that 13% of all primary school dropouts are Indian further complicates matters.

Another limitation is that no comparison was made between female-headed households and male-headed households in terms of socioeconomic situation, perception of intergenerational mobility and progress of SWB. This will help us to find out whether there are deficits or advantages for women in addressing socioeconomic issues. This can give policy makers ideas for sound and strong policies for women, especially when it comes to providing them with the necessary resources and assistance. Another aspect that should be considered in future studies is that there is no comparison between sons and daughters. This will also shed light on whether girls (women) are able to earn money compared to men and whether important indicators such as education have an impact on their income.

#### **6.4 Summary**

The study reveals the condition and SWB of the displaced community. Various policy implications were also discussed to provide policy insights. Further efforts are needed to support the displaced community. It is also recommended that future studies should explore some of the areas that were not explored in this study.

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