Well-being and Emigration Intentions: New Evidence from the Gallup World Poll[*]

Milena Nikolova
IZA
The Brookings Institution

Carol Graham
The Brookings Institution
The University of Maryland, College Park
IZA

Abstract

What factors shape the emigration aspirations of potential permanent movers from developing and transition economies, and what role does well-being play in the decision to move? Using Gallup World Poll data, we find that life dissatisfaction increases emigration desires. This result is robust to correcting for the endogeneity between life satisfaction and emigration aspirations and to using different emigration intent proxies. Real household income is not a robust determinant of emigration intentions, meanwhile, and appears relatively unimportant for the emigration decision. Migrant networks and perceptions of socio-economic conditions are more relevant for emigration aspirations than income and life dissatisfaction. Our results imply, therefore, that traditional migration models overstate the importance of well-being as a push factor for migration. Our findings can help inform the design of proactive migration policies and show that no danger of "happiness drain" exists in migrant-sending countries.

Keywords: migration intentions, well-being, instrumental variables, Gallup World Poll.
JEL Codes: F22, I31, J61, O15.

1. Introduction

The question of why people move across international borders has received much attention from academics and policymakers. Migration scholars have examined the push and pull factors of actual migration stocks and flows, including income and relative deprivation, dissatisfaction with public goods and institutions at home, networks, as well as determinants such as climate variability and conflict (Bang & Mitra, 2013; Beine & Parsons, 2012; Feng, Krueger, & Oppenheimer, 2010; Hatton & Williamson, 2002; Stark & Jakubek, 2013; Stark, Micevska, & Mycielski, 2009).[1] Although these may be particularly relevant for informing proactive rather than reactive migration policies (Esipova, Ray, & Srinivasan, 2011), potential emigration flows, or emigration intentions, have received less consideration.

The emerging literature on emigration intentions shows that both monetary and non-monetary determinants related to aspirations, perceived opportunities at home or abroad, and life dissatisfaction influence the emigration decision. These novel studies leave several open questions, which this paper seeks to answer empirically. First, there is still some debate whether migrants are positively or negatively selected into emigration in terms of life satisfaction. While the majority of authors find that potential emigrants are "frustrated achievers" who despite having high material well-being are unhappy, Ivlevs (2015) challenges the cross-sectional results by presenting instrumental variable evidence for potential movers from transition economies. Second, while income is certainly important for moving intentions, Cai et al. (2014) propose that subjective well-being (SWB) measures[2] better capture unobserved migration catalysts than income does. Yet, we have only a partial answer about *how* important income and life satisfaction are for the migration decision, both relative to each other and to other emigration aspirations determinants.[3]

We make two empirical contributions to the literature on quality of life and emigration intentions. First, we present descriptive evidence related to the determinants of emigration intentions of individuals from 100 developing and transition countries worldwide, with a particular focus on SWB and income. We further correct for the endogeneity between potential emigration and life satisfaction using instrumental variable techniques for a sub-sample of 76 developing and transition economies. Our results unequivocally show that potential emigrants are negatively selected on SWB even after we control for the endogeneity of the relationship using instrumental variables or when using alternative proxies for potential emigration.

Second, we compare and contrast the relative importance of well-being factors (income and subjective well-being) relative to one another and relative to other emigration determinants, including personal circumstances, migrant networks, access to information and communication

---

[1] While the relationship between environment and migration is complex, research suggests that environmental degradation and extreme weather events are already triggering migration and will permanently displace up to 700 million people by 2050 (Warner, Ehrhart, Sherbinin, Adamo, & Chai-Onn, 2009).

[2] Throughout this paper, the terms life satisfaction, best possible life (BPL), and subjective well-being are used interchangeably.

[3] While Cai et al. (2014) examine the change in the pseudo R^2 by sequentially removing income and life satisfaction from the migration intentions regression equations, they do not assess the relative importance of each of the well-being variables compared to each other and compared to other migration factors.

technology, and others. We show that traditional migration models overstate the importance of well-being factors as push factors for migration: well-being factors jointly predict less than one percent of the probability of emigration intentions.

Given that happiness and life satisfaction are linked with positive social outcomes such as productivity, creativity, longevity, and others, migrant-sending countries should strive to retain their happiest workers while migrant-magnet countries would seek to attract them. From the destination countries' point of view, having happier immigrants is crucial as SWB is linked to outcomes such as health and longevity, income and productivity, and individual and social behavior (for a review, see (De Neve, Diener, Tay, & Xuereb, 2013)). More life satisfied immigrants are therefore less likely to be dependent on the host nations' welfare and healthcare systems and may integrate more easily (Ivlevs, 2015). From the sending countries' perspective, if those with the highest perceived and actual well-being are permanently emigrating, this might create an ever decreasing well-being for those left behind.

While much attention has been paid to income as a push factor for migration, the relationship between subjective well-being and migration intentions is policy-pertinent for sending and receiving governments (Ivlevs, 2014, 2015; Nikolova & Graham, 2015). Specifically, emigration could be a win-win-win opportunity if the least happy migrants leave their home countries and move to countries where they improve their objective and subjective quality of life. First, our results show that rather unhappy people tend to express desires to vote with their feet and move to the advanced OECD countries. Unhappy potential emigrants may stand to gain from actually completing the move. For example, emigration leads to improvements in evaluative well-being for migrants from transition economies (Nikolova & Graham, 2015) and mental well-being and financial satisfaction for migrants from Tonga to New Zealand (Stillman, Gibson, McKenzie, & Rohorua, 2015) in addition to great improvements in material well-being (Clemens, Montenegro, & Pritchett, 2008; Stillman, et al., 2015). Studies conclude that migrants contribute to public coffers in OECD destination countries (OECD, 2013a) and to natives' well-being (Akay, Constant, & Giulietti, 2014; Betz & Simpson, 2013), suggesting that immigration may be welfare-improving in the destinations. Finally, unhappy emigrants who achieve greater quality of life abroad might benefit the sending countries by sending remittances, investing in their home countries, or contributing to the spread of ideas and technology.

2. Literature Review

International economic migrants leave their homes to seek better employment opportunities and quality of life abroad. Specifically, according to rational choice theory, potential emigrants decide to leave if the expected or perceived benefits of moving exceed the costs. The determinants of international migration are well-documented (see Hatton and Williamson (2002) for a review). Conventional migration models generally assume that income maximization motivates the migration decision (Massey et al., 1993). At the individual level, income, relative poverty, migration networks, and migration regimes motivate the desire to move. Yet, migrants move for non-economic reasons as well, and many of the migration determinants may be unobserved.

This paper relies on self-reported subjective and objective individual well-being measures. Subjective well-being (SWB) indicators, which capture respondents' positive and negative moods, life satisfaction, and life purpose, are gathering salience in economics and public policy as broad measures of quality of life (Diener, Lucas, Schimmack, & Helliwell, 2009; O'Donnell, 2013).[4] Scholars increasingly agree that while imperfect, these metrics furnish meaningful information about the human condition, are valid and reliable, and are comparable across countries and over time (Di Tella & MacCulloch, 2006; Durand & Smith, 2013; Graham, 2009; Graham & Nikolova, 2015; Helliwell & Barrington-Leigh, 2010; Helliwell & Wang, 2013; Kahneman & Krueger, 2006; OECD, 2013b; Stone & Mackie, 2014).

In this paper, in addition to (PPP-adjusted) income, which we use as an objective welfare indicator, we rely on SWB data to explore whether and to what extent well-being perceptions motivate the emigration decision, while also accounting for the potential endogeneity of the relationship. Cai et al. (2014) posit that SWB metrics might be better predictors of international migration. The authors show, moreover, that omitting income from the empirical model does not affect the pseudo R^2, while omitting SWB reduces it, suggesting that the latter contributes more to the goodness of fit of the model. Cai et al. (2014) conclude that SWB is a better predictor of migration intentions than income likely because it captures non-pecuniary aspects of one's life such as health, the quality of social relationships, marriage, and others.[5] In this paper, we not only consider income and SWB as two complementary well-being dimensions, but we also explicitly test for their relative importance. Unlike Cai et al. (2014), who in separate regressions compare the contribution of income and SWB to the goodness of fit metric, we use variance decompositions, which allows us to explicitly measure the relative importance of each well-being variable and compare it to that of other migration determinants.

An emerging literature has sought to quantify the relationship between life satisfaction and emigration decisions (Ivlevs, 2014). While relatively scarce, the cross-sectional evidence shows that life dissatisfaction is associated with international moving intentions. In one exception, a study using instrumental variables demonstrated a positive causal effect of life satisfaction on the decision to migrate for transition economies (Ivlevs, 2015). Specifically, using a sample of 35 European and Central Asian countries, father's education, and having a family member killed or injured in WWII, Ivlevs (2015) finds that a one unit increase in life satisfaction (on a 1-10 scale) corresponds to a 14 percentage points increase in the probability of emigration intentions.[6]

---

[4] Scholars distinguish between evaluative and hedonic subjective well-being (Graham & Nikolova, 2015; Kahneman & Deaton, 2010; Kahneman & Krueger, 2006). The former dimension is a cognitive reflective assessment about one's life as a whole, and the latter reflects moods and experiences related to daily life.

[5] Cai et al. (2014) also demonstrate that individual migration desires are less sensitive to SWB in poor than in rich countries and that household income has a less significant link with emigration willingness in poor than in rich nations.

[6] After correcting for endogeneity, our main results show that the negative effect of life satisfaction on emigration intentions of a comparable magnitude – a one percentage point increase in BPL perceptions decreases the probability of having emigration intentions by about 14 percentage points. Note that in our sample, SWB is measured on a scale of 0-10, while in Ivlevs (2015), it is on a 1-10 scale. It is possible that both sets of results are correct but are applicable to different countries. It is also possible that they describe different aspects of a non-linear association between happiness and emigration intentions.

Moreover, several papers document an inverse U-shaped relationship between origin country objective well-being (GDP per capita) and country-level emigration rates (Faini & Venturini, 1994; Hatton & Williamson, 1998; Massey, 1988; Stalker, 2000; Vogler & Rotte, 2000). Blanchflower and Shadforth (2009) further show that the migration propensity to work in the UK for the Eastern European countries which joined European Union in 2004 is inversely correlated with GDP per capita and life satisfaction in the origin country and positively associated with unemployment rates (but not with employment or inflation rates). Polgreen and Simpson (2011) document a U-shaped country-level association between happiness and emigration rates: in relatively unhappy countries, the emigration rate decreases with average happiness, while the reverse is true in relatively happy countries. There is also evidence that the U-shaped relationship between life satisfaction and migration intentions exists at the individual level for European and Central Asian potential emigrants (Ivlevs, 2015). [7]

Following Czaika and Vothknecht (2014), we conceptualize the emigration decision in terms of two capacities: (i) the capacity to aspire and (ii) the capacity to realize. In this framework, the capability for migration is a pre-condition for potential emigration; though, naturally some people who have such capabilities may never end up realizing their emigration plans. The capacity to aspire is defined as the aspirations gap between the actual and aspired well-being and depends on factors such as personality, education, social interactions, but also access to information and opportunities abroad, as well as networks of family and friends abroad. Education, access to information technology, and networks provide information and resources to form SWB aspirations. In addition, the capacity to realize a migration intention depends on different capabilities and means, such as income, having skills which are transferable across international borders, and others.

Given the theoretical and empirical considerations, we expect a negative relationship between life satisfaction and emigration rates as potential emigrants are likely "frustrated achievers," whereby they have low perceived well-being despite high material comfort. The literature indicates that potential migrants have means and capabilities to migrate (in terms of income and education) but are relatively dissatisfied with their lives (Chindarkar, 2014; Graham & Markowitz, 2011). Conditional on having high aspirations as well as income and actual capabilities and means, life dissatisfied people have an incentive to change their circumstances and undertake a migration project. [8]

3. Sample, Data, and Variables

We utilize repeated cross-sectional data from Gallup World Poll (GWP) – an annual survey conducted by the Gallup Organization in about 160 countries worldwide – polling 98 percent of the world's adult population (age 15 and older). While GWP has not been specifically designed to study migration, its comprehensiveness and the fact that the data are weighted so that they are

---

[7] A recent paper also demonstrates that while the destination-country's GDP and per capita and employment conditions have a negligible (or even negative) association with migration intentions, potential migrants prefer destinations with higher SWB (Lovo, 2014).

[8] Note that some studies find a U-shaped relationship between happiness and emigration intentions whereby the least and most satisfied are most likely to migrate.

nationally representative make it an especially opportune source for studying migration intentions (Esipova, Pugliese, Ray, & Kanitkar, 2013).

In this paper, we are interested in *international* migration intentions and consider two proxies for the emigration decision, both of which are binary indicators with possible values being yes and no.[9] The main dependent variable we use is *emigration intentions*: "Ideally, if you had the opportunity, would you like to move PERMANENTLY to another country, or would you prefer to continue living in this country?" As a robustness check, we also define the dependent variable as *emigration plans* based on a question on whether respondents have concrete international migration plans (Table 2). Only respondents with emigration desires were asked about their emigration plans, but we define this binary indicator in two ways: (i) for all respondents in the sample and (ii) only for those who gave a positive answer to the emigration intention question.

While the Gallup dataset spans 2005/6-2013, we only use the 2009-2013 sub-sample as employment status data are only available starting in 2009.[10] The migration plans question is only available starting in 2010, moreover. As noted above, not everyone who expresses willingness or intention to migrate will ultimately undertake this action. The literature shows, however, that migration intentions are relatively good predictors of subsequent moving behavior (Creighton, 2013; Simmons, 1985; van Dalen & Henkens, 2008, 2013). Furthermore, our emigration intentions variables include two different degrees of inclinations to move, with those expressing concrete plans being highly likely to move.

Our focal independent variables include two well-being indicators to reflect the fact that human well-being has both material and non-material aspects. First, our SWB proxy is the Cantril ladder measuring the best possible life (BPL), which asks respondents to place themselves on a notional ladder where zero represents the worst possible life they can imagine and ten represents the best possible life they can imagine.[11] By being self-anchoring and therefore framed to each respondent's aspiration, this question is highly comparable across individuals with different life circumstances (OECD, 2013b).

In addition, we include an income-based well-being metric, which is household income in PPP-adjusted international dollars provided by Gallup. Designed in consultation with economist Angus Deaton, the income metric is comparable over time and across 131 countries in the poll. The self-reported continuous income variable is in international dollars, and the measure is

---

[9] Note that GWP also asks the following question, "In the next 12 months, are you likely or unlikely to move away from the city or area where you live?" We did not use this question in our analyses because while it elicits affirmative responses among those with concrete emigration plans, it does not distinguish between international and internal migration intention. As noted in the literature, it most likely refers to *internal* migration intentions (Dustmann & Okatenko, 2014).

[10] Note that in some of the IV specifications, we also use the 2006-2010 sample without the employment variables.

[11] As a robustness check, we also considered using a general life satisfaction variable which is based on the following question: "All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days? Use a 0 to 10 scale, where 0 is dissatisfied and 10 is satisfied." Our sample would have only been limited to a handful of countries (Venezuela, Malawi, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, Bulgaria, Central African Republic), which is why we opted against using this variable.

highly correlated with the World Bank's per capita GDP variable.[12] Gallup constructs the household income variable by dividing the local currency incomes by the 2011 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) ratios. As such, the income metrics are comparable across individuals, communities, and over time. Following Cai et al. (2014), we log-transformed income. The Gallup income variable is highly reliable as Gallup's methodology is highly standardized across countries and only countries with sample sizes of at least 2,000 respondents during the 2006-2013 period are included.

We use control variables including satisfaction with freedom, optimism (a binary indicator for whether the respondent believes that children in this country can learn and grow), satisfaction with personal living standard, confidence in the national government, and individual-level characteristics such as age, age squared, gender, urban or rural location, employment status, household size, and religiosity (a binary indicator for whether religion is important in the respondent's life or not) (Table 2). We include two variables which relate to the capacity to aspire: (i) migrant networks and (ii) access to information and communication technology. We create the networks variable based on a wide range of questions related to whether the migrant has relatives abroad or whether the household is receiving remittances. Using principal component analysis, we constructed an index for whether the respondent's household has access to information and communication technology (See Figure A1 for the scree plot). The variables comprising the index include: access to a landline, cell phone, internet, and TV. We conjecture that networks and more information obtained from ICT access should stimulate the formation of migration aspirations.

Like Lovo (2014), we think of the countries to which respondents wish to move as "ideal" or preferred destinations. Unlike existing emigration intentions papers using the Gallup data, we only examine migrants from developing and transition countries who specifically expressed intentions and plans to move to advanced economies.[13] We focus on this migrant stream as South-to-North migration still dominates global flows and is also the subject of policy debates (Tilly, 2011). We exclude North-to-North and North-to-South migration for two reasons. First, we wish to study migration as a development phenomenon. Second, in large advanced economies such as Australia, Canada, and the United States internal migration is more likely than moving across borders.[14]

---

[12] Respondents who hesitated to provide a monthly income measure were given an interval scale from which later on a continuous metric was inferred by taking the midpoint of the interval.

[13] Our categorization of "advanced" economies relies on the International Monetary Fund's definition, which classified countries as advanced or emerging based on income per capita, export diversification, and the degree of integration into the global financial system. Because the IMF uses export diversification to define advanced economies, major oil exporters with large incomes per capita are excluded. We chose this classification as it is relatively more stable than other classifications by the World Bank because the IMF uses averages income per capita and export diversification over several years. Re-classification is only done in the event of major shifts–e.g., Latvia adopting the Euro (IMF, 2014). For detailed definitions of the emergence and evolution of the "North" and "South" concepts and alternative classifications, see Chapter 1 in the 2013 World Migration Report (IOM, 2013).

[14] Respondents in the GWP are asked to which country they would like to migrate if they had the opportunity, thus allowing us to focus on economic migration from developing to developed contexts. We also exclude the EU-15as distances between the EU-15 countries could be relatively small and international migration may in fact be equivalent to commuting.

4. Methods and Summary Statistics
    4.1. Methodological Challenges

Several methodological problems limit our ability to present causal results. The main challenge is endogeneity related to un-measurable unobservable factors correlated with both the emigration decision and well-being (life satisfaction and income). For example, traits such as ability, motivation, risk tolerance, and aspirations are relevant for both the emigration decision and well-being (income and life satisfaction), and failing to control for them will result in biased estimates.

Second, reverse causality is a problem if having made the emigration decision changes a person's long term well-being levels (Ivlevs, 2015). Experimental findings show that expectations influence hedonic happiness even before the outcomes are revealed and that the expectations related to making decisions affect happiness (Rutledge, Skandali, Dayan, & Dolan, 2014), Nikolova and Graham (2015) also demonstrate that potential migrants with concrete migration plans do not experience higher evaluative SWB levels than observably identical immigrants in the destination countries, also implying that taking the migration decision might be associated with a long-term life satisfaction boost. Finally, Nowok et al. (2011) suggest that British internal migrants experience temporary unhappiness prior to the move, likely reflecting the psychological costs and feelings of unhappiness related to the imminent separation from family and friends.

We explicitly address reverse causality using instrumental variable techniques. Furthermore, we attempt, to the extent possible, to mitigate the omitted variables bias by including a large set of individual-level observable characteristics and socio-economic variables associated with the emigration decision.

    4.2. Logistic Regressions and Regression-based Decompositions

We estimate the association between well-being (best possible life and income) and emigration intentions and plans using a standard logistic regression in which the emigration intentions M of individual i in time period t living in country j are as follows:

$$M_{itj} = \alpha + H_{itj}\gamma + I_{itj}\mu + X'_{itj}\beta + \pi_j + \tau_t + u_{itj,}$$

where H is life satisfaction and I is the log-transformed household income, X is a vector of individual- and household-level characteristics (age, age squared, gender, education level, marital status, presence of children in the household, urban or rural location, household size, employment status, religiosity (i.e., whether religion is important), π_j are country dummies, τ_t are year dummies, and u_{itj} is the stochastic error term (which follows the logistic distribution). All regressions are estimated using the Gallup-provided survey weight. For ease of interpretation, we report the results using average marginal effects and graphs estimating the conditional marginal effects at all BPL levels.

In addition, we discern the relative contribution of income and life satisfaction to overall variation in migration intentions, relying on a Shapley-based decomposition procedure (Israeli,

2007; Shorrocks, 2013).[15] This decomposes the goodness-of-fit statistic R^2 into the percentage contributions of each regressor to the total variance of the dependent variable. The method relies on the fact that the contribution of each explanatory factor to the overall R^2 is also the percentage contribution of each individual variable to the overall explained variance of the dependent variable. While we also considered the Fields' decomposition method (Fields, 2003, 2004), we chose the Shapley method as it is appropriate for binary variables and in contexts where the explanatory variables are highly correlated with one another (Israeli, 2007).[16]

4.3. IV Regressions

To correct for the endogeneity in the SWB-migration intentions relationship, we rely on an IV approach. To produce valid results, the instrument needs to be correlated with best possible life but not directly affect emigration intentions. In addition, the instrument must also be relevant, i.e., account for a significant variation in SWB, and above all, be guided by logic and economic theory.

As in Rode (2013), the instrument we use is per capita alcohol consumption from the World Health Organization (2008-2010 moving average).[17] The data report the total (i.e., recorded and estimated) per capita alcohol consumption (in liters of pure alcohol) for the population aged 15 and over. Specifically, we merge the 2010 GWP sub-sample with the WHO alcohol consumption data. We remove from the sample countries in which at least 60 percent of respondents report to be Muslim.[18] See Table A.2. for the included countries and their per capita alcohol consumption data.

Being at the aggregate level, this instrument captures patterns in spirits consumption rather than the presence of alcoholism or the total intake per inhabitant (Rode, 2013). As such, per capita alcohol consumption reflects genetics, cultural norms, and climatic factors rather than alcoholism. Intuitively, while the instrument is related to SWB, it is unlikely that alcohol consumption is linked to migration intentions. Intuitively, individual SWB and per capita alcohol consumption should be positively correlated. Specifically, higher alcohol consumption at the country level may indicate socialization and networking, building social capital, and enjoyment in the hedonic sense, which should be positively correlated with subjective well-being. Florida (February 11, 2011) shows, moreover, that per capita alcohol consumption levels are also higher in richer than in poorer countries, in countries with more educated populations, in white-collar, knowledge-based economies, and happier nations.

It could be argued that the relationship between per capita alcohol consumption and individual SWB levels may be non-monotonic. At low levels of consumption, alcohol may improve mood and increase socialization but at high levels, it may also have negative social

---

[15] Dustman and Okatenko (2014) use this procedure in a similar context.
[16] Note that the Shapley and the Fields methods coincide if there is no correlation among the independent variables.
[17] See Appendix I, Alcohol Consumption in the Global status report on alcohol and health 2014, available from: http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/publications/global_alcohol_report/msb_gsr_2014_3.pdf
[18] The excluded states are Turkey, Pakistan, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Comoros, Djibouti, Iraq, Malaysia, Tunisia, Yemen, and the Somaliland region.

externalities (Massin & Kopp, 2011). In other words, while there may be a positive relationship between life satisfaction and alcohol consumption, beyond some point, higher levels of alcohol consumption may be symptomatic of social problems at the country level. Figure 5 shows that there is little evidence for a non-monotonic relationship between SWB and alcohol consumption in the sample of countries we are considering. Rather, the data seem to support a positive linear relationship between SWB and alcohol consumption. [19] Moreover, as explained above, the instrument captures patterns of alcohol consumption reflective of cultural norms and peculiarities rather than excessive alcohol consumption at the individual level.

4.4.   Summary Statistics

Our main analysis sample spans 2009-2013 and includes 250,539 respondents from 100 developing and transition economies, 17 percent of whom are willing to move permanently to 35 advanced economies. Figure 1 shows a map of the migration intention probabilities for our analysis sample, suggesting that respondents from the relatively poorer regions of Africa, Latin America, and Eastern Europe have the highest (unconditional) emigration probabilities.

Table A1 in the appendix demonstrates that emigration intentions from developing to advanced countries started to decline with the onset of the economic crisis in 2008, following a regional pattern, moreover. Among the EU transition countries, for example, intentions exhibit a clear U-shaped pattern over time, dipping in 2009 and subsequently recovering. In the Western Balkans, by contrast, migration intentions peaked in 2011 and have declined slightly since. For further comparisons, see Table A1.

Finally, Table 3 shows the summary statistics for potential emigrants and those with no migration desire. Potential migrants are statistically different from non-migrants along all observable characteristics except income. Aspiring migrants have slightly lower BPL scores, are less optimistic, have lower perceptions of freedom and living standard, and are less confident in the national government than those with no migration intentions. They are more likely to live in an urban location and have access to international networks (i.e., have family or friends abroad or receive financial or other support from abroad), more likely to be younger and single, and more educated than those expressing preferences to stay.

5. Main Results
5.1. Baseline Results

Our first result is that international migration intentions from developing and transition countries to advanced economies are a decreasing function of evaluative well-being (measured by the BPL variable) and are positively associated with income, though with some variation by migrant-sending regions (Table 4).[20] Our results resonate with those in Graham and Markowitz

---

[19] As a robustness check, we also ran all regressions using alcohol consumption and its squared term. The first stages are less but the main results are generally robust, though smaller in magnitude than the main results. The tables are available upon request.

[20] Note that when we use household income per household member without log-transforming it, the coefficient estimate for income is generally not statistically significant. Like Cai et al. (2014), we opted for the log-transformed

(2011), who find that potential emigrants are richer but unhappier than those who want to stay behind. Our overall result concerning the income variable is in contrast with Cai et al. (2014), who find no association between log household income and emigration intentions for the overall Gallup World Poll sample (including both developing and developed source countries). In our analysis, we are specifically interested in migration from developing to developed countries, where income plays a role in financing the trip and covering migration costs. Table 4 further shows that emigration intentions are negatively associated with BPL in all world regions (models (2)-(9)), although marginally significant in MENA, CIS, and not significant in South Asia. Income is not robustly associated with emigration intentions across the world regions. It is positively linked to emigration intentions in the poorer regions—Africa and Asia—but negatively associated with emigration intentions in the EU transition countries and MENA. It is not associated with emigration intent in the rest of the regions.

Per Table 4, a one unit increase in SWB is associated with about a 0.3 percentage point decline in the probability of emigration, while a 10 percent increase in income corresponds to 1.6 percent increase in the probability of reporting emigration intentions, which is relatively modest in terms of an economic impact. Given that the mean probability of reporting emigration intentions is 16.6 percent, what the baseline results imply is that a 10 percent rise in household income (e.g., a 10 percent rise in income is 766 ID at the average value of income) would bring the emigration intention rate to about 18 percent.

Figure 2, which presents the marginal effects at each BPL value, shows that the predicted probability of reporting emigration intentions is about 18.4 percent at the lowest BPL level (least life satisfied respondents) and falls to 15.1 percent for those with the greatest BPL scores. In other words, the conditional difference in reporting emigration intentions between the unhappiest (BPL=0) and happiest (BPL=10) is 3.3 percentage points, which is comparable to what previous studies find. We also tested whether emigration intentions are a U-shaped function of BPL, and we find that emigration intentions are a non-monotonically decreasing function of SWB, i.e., there is no evidence of a U-shaped relationship (Figure 3). The adjusted difference in emigration intent probabilities between the happiest and unhappiest is again about 3 percentage points.

The rest of the results in Table 4 conform to expectations: respondents who believe that children in this country have opportunities to learn and grow, are satisfied with their living standards and freedom to choose in life, and have confidence in their national governments, are less likely to report moving intentions. Note that freedom dissatisfaction is not associated with emigration aspirations in the Western Balkans, Latin America, and the Middle East/North Arica regions. Women, married, older respondents, those with elementary school education, and religious respondents are less likely to want to move abroad permanently. Similarly, the self-employed and voluntary part-time workers are less likely to report moving intentions (compared with full-time workers), while, unsurprisingly, the unemployed and the involuntarily employed part-time workers were more likely to do so (relative to the full-time employees). Respondents living in urban environments, those with children in the household, and those having networks abroad are more likely to express moving intentions. For example, those with family and friends

specification as it correctly models migration intentions as a concave function of income and helps with scaling issues.

abroad are 7.5 percentage points more likely to report willingness to leave. Access to information technology is somewhat important— a 100-unit increase in the index (i.e., moving from no information technology to having complete access) increases the probability of reporting emigration intentions by 10 percent. Our variable is more precisely defined than that in Cai et al. (2014) and similarly defined as in Ivlevs (2015) as we use all available information in the GWP indicating whether respondents have friends or relatives on whom they can count when they need them, whether household members or relatives work abroad, and whether the respondent's household has received remittances. For the overall sample, having a network abroad increases the predicted probability of reporting emigration intentions by 7.5 percentage points. For the sample of predominantly transition economies, the corresponding estimate from Ivlevs (2015) is an increase of 2.5 percentage points in emigration intentions associated with networks, while for the overall GWP sample, the difference in the emigration probabilities between those with and without migration networks is 10.3 percentage points.

We next consider the Shapley-based decompositions indicating the relative importance of each factor in explaining individual international migration plans (Figure 4). We distinguish among the contributions of life satisfaction (BPL), log real household income, the ICT index, migrant networks abroad, socio-demographic variables, and binary indicators for whether the respondent believes that children in this country can learn and grow every day (optimism), freedom satisfaction, satisfaction with standard of living, and confidence in government. We include year and country dummies. First, the pseudo R^2 value suggests that much of emigration intentions remain unexplained—the variables included in the model account for only 19 percent of the variation in emigration intentions. Second, income and SWB are the least important determinants of emigration aspirations, explaining only 0.16 percent and 0.31 percent of the variation, respectively. Socio-demographic factors, networks, and satisfaction with public goods and institutions at home dwarf the salience of both well-being factors combined. Apart from country of origin and socio-demographics, which are the most relevant factors for emigration aspirations, networks of family and friends abroad are pivotal, jointly contributing 13 percent, while confidence in government adds another 7 percent.

5.2. Instrumental Variable Regressions

Here we merged the alcohol consumption information with the GWP sample. In this section, we show regressions for different time periods, namely, all available years (2006-2013); the 2008-2010 data sample (the alcohol consumption data are averaged over the 2008-2010 period); 2009-2013 sample with employment controls; and 2010 only. In all regressions, we exclude year dummies. We first estimated the "naïve" probit and OLS regressions and then estimated the IV probit and IV OLS (linear probability IV) regressions.

First, based on the "naïve" OLS results in Table 5, emigration intentions are again negatively associated with BPL (using only regional dummies and no year dummies). Specifically, a one unit increase in the BPL score (on a 0-10 score) corresponds to a 0.5-0.7 percent decline in the probability of reporting emigrating intentions. Income is negatively associated with emigration intentions and is not robust compared with the results presented in Table 4.

We next turn to the instrumental variable regressions (Table 6). For ease of interpretation, we used linear probability IV models.[21] We have very strong first stages, with BPL being positively correlated with per capita alcohol consumption (Models (1), (3), (5), and (7)). According to these first-stage results, a one liter increase in per capita alcohol consumption corresponds to about a 0.5 increase in the reported BPL (on a 0-10 scale). In addition, the Anderson-Rubin Wald test statistic of the excluded instruments is much over the conventionally accepted critical value of 10, rejecting the hypothesis that the instrument is weak.

The second stage regressions show that BPL negatively affects emigration intentions even after controlling for the endogeneity of the relationship. The coefficient estimates are relatively large, suggesting that a one unit increase in BPL decreases the conditional probability of emigration by about 14 percentage points (Models (2), (4), (6), and (8)). Ivlevs (2015) shows that moving one step on the life satisfaction scale *increases* the probability of reporting emigration intentions by 14 percentage points (on a scale of 1-10), which is exactly the opposite of our results. Note that it is possible that both sets of results are plausible keeping in mind that instrumental variable regressions show local average treatment effects only, which may differ both temporally and geographically. The external validity of both sets of results must be treated with caution, therefore.

5.3. Robustness Checks

As a robustness check, we also tested whether using concrete migration *plans* (as opposed to intentions) were associated with well-being.[22] Starting in 2010, the emigration plans question was asked to respondents who gave positive answers to the emigration desire question. Emigration plans are therefore defined both for respondents with emigration plans and for those who answered the emigration intentions questions. Based on the general results in Table 7, BPL is not associated with emigration plans when the variable is defined for the entire sample (Model (1)) and is positively associated with emigration plans (defined for those with emigration intentions) (Model (2)). Household income is not associated with emigration plans.

Figures 6-7 demonstrate that unlike emigration *intentions,* emigration *plans* have a clear U-shaped relationship with BPL. This variable is more precisely defined compared with the intentions measures and, as such, captures a concrete emigration decision rather than a hypothetical predisposition to emigration. However, the emigration plans question is only asked for a sub-sample of the respondents and only after 2010, thus making it less appropriate for our analysis.

We then tested the robustness of our IV estimation strategy. As with emigration intentions, we merged the emigration plans sample with the alcohol consumption data and estimated naïve OLS regressions and IV regressions for two time periods: 2010-2013 and 2010 only. The naïve OLS regressions are similar to the results presented in Table 7 and are available upon request.

---

[21] We also ran the IV regressions using IV probits and the results are available upon request. Our preferred specification is when the instrument enters linearly. When we use the squared term, the statistically significant Hansen's J-statistic implies that the instruments are not valid.

[22] Summary statistics are available in Table A3.

Based on Table 8, the instrument is again positively associated with BPL in the first stage, and the first stages are again quite strong. Again, once we correct for the endogeneity in the relationship, a one-step increase in well-being on the notional best possible life ladder is associated with a 3.8-4.3 percentage point decline in the probability of reporting emigration plans. In addition, income is positively associated with emigration plans.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Tracing international migrants across borders is costly and effort-intensive and therefore rarely undertaken. Studying emigration intentions could therefore provide important insights about the emigration decision and the push and pull factors of emigration. While many of the debates currently focus on the consequences of migration or the determinants of actual immigration flows and stocks, we take a step back and examine what motivates potential emigrants to want to move abroad.

In this paper, we provide answers to important questions related to the determinants of individual migration intentions of potential emigrants from 100 developing and transition countries expressing plans and intentions to move permanently to 35 advanced economies. We specifically focus on material well-being and perceived quality of life while also accounting for the well-being-emigration intentions relationship. Our main result is that life dissatisfaction negatively affects the emigration decision. While life dissatisfaction is relatively unimportant for the emigration intention (compared with other factors), our IV results show that a one unit increase in life satisfaction (on a 0-10 scale) decreases the predicted probability of emigration desire by about 14 percentage points and the probability of having a concrete emigration plan by about 4 percentage points. Given that happier people are more productive and beneficial for society, these results may be reassuring for sending-country governments who may want to prevent a happiness drain. In addition, in combination with some findings showing that migrants substantively improve their well-being due to migration and may moreover improve the well-being of natives, our results suggest that the potential emigration of relatively unhappy people may be a win-win-win opportunity.

Income is not a robust determinant of emigration intentions and both income and subjective well-being are relatively unimportant for emigration aspirations. Importantly, this paper's findings suggest that while theoretically important, individual well-being in the source country (both objective and subjective) is not a strong predictor of expressing migration intentions and plans. Migrant networks, satisfaction with living standards, and confidence in government, however, are pivotal for migration aspirations.

In other words, our results imply that the willingness to emigrate is related to networks, dissatisfaction with the institutional quality, and individual circumstances (one's age and socio-demographic situation) but less related to well-being per se. As such, our findings provide new insights for policymakers in sending and destination countries as they help glean insight into what moves people and skills across international borders.

References

Akay, A., Constant, A., & Giulietti, C. (2014). The Impact of Immigration on the Well-Being of Natives. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 103*, 72-92.

Bang, J. T., & Mitra, A. (2013). Civil War, Ethnicity, and the Migration of Skilled Labor. *Eastern Economic Journal, 39*(3), 387-401.

Beine, M. A., & Parsons, C. R. (2012). *Climatic Factors as Determinants of International Migration*: IRES de l'Université Catholique de Louvain Discussion Paper 2012-2, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium.

Betz, W., & Simpson, N. B. (2013). The Effects of International Migration on the Well- Being of Native Populations in Europe. *IZA Journal of Migration, 2*(12), 1-21.

Chindarkar, N. (2014). Is Subjective Well-Being of Concern to Potential Migrants from Latin America? *Social Indicators Research, 115*(1), 159-182.

Clemens, M. A., Montenegro, C. E., & Pritchett, L. (2008). The Place Premium: Wage Differences for Identical Workers across the Us Border. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 4671*.

Creighton, M. J. (2013). The Role of Aspirations in Domestic and International Migration. *The Social Science Journal, 50*(1), 79-88.

Czaika, M., & Vothknecht, M. (2014). Migration and Aspirations - Are Migrants Trapped on a Hedonic Treadmill? *IZA Journal of Migration, 3*(1), 1-21.

De Neve, J.-E., Diener, E., Tay, L., & Xuereb, C. (2013). The Objective Benefits of Subjective Well-Being. In J. F. Helliwell, R. Layard & J. Sachs (Eds.), *World Happiness Report* (pp. 54-79).

Di Tella, R., & MacCulloch, R. (2006). Some Uses of Happiness Data in Economics. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 20*(1), 25-46.

Diener, E., Lucas, R., Schimmack, U., & Helliwell, J. F. (2009). *Well-Being for Public Policy*: Oxford University Press, USA.

Durand, M., & Smith, C. (2013). The Oecd Approach to Measuring Subjective Well-Being. In J. Helliwell, R. Layard & J. Sachs (Eds.), *World Happiness Report* (pp. 112-137).

Dustmann, C., & Okatenko, A. (2014). Out-Migration, Wealth Constraints, and the Quality of Local Amenities. *Journal of Development Economics, 110*(0), 52-63.

Esipova, N., Pugliese, A., Ray, J., & Kanitkar, K. (2013). Dimensions of Migrant Well-Being: Evidence from the Gallup World Poll. In IOM (Ed.), *International Organization for Migration. World Migration Report 2013: Migrant Well-Being and Development* (pp. 104-171): International Migration Organization.

Esipova, N., Ray, J., & Srinivasan, R. (2011). The World's Potential Migrants: Who They Are, Where They Want to Go, and Why It Matters. *The Gallup Organization, http://www.imi.ox.ac.uk/pdfs/the-worlds-potential-migrants*.

Faini, R., & Venturini, A. (1994). *Migration and Growth: The Experience of Southern Europe*: CEPR Discussion Papers.

Feng, S., Krueger, A. B., & Oppenheimer, M. (2010). Linkages among Climate Change, Crop Yields and Mexico-Us Cross-Border Migration. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 107*(32), 14257-14262.

Fields, G. S. (2003). Accounting for Income Inequality and Its Change: A New Method, with Application to the Distribution of Earnings in the United States. *Research in Labor Economics, 22*, 1-38.

Fields, G. S. (2004). Regression-Based Decompositions: A New Tool for Managerial Decision-Making. *Department of Labor Economics, Cornell University*, 1-41.

Florida, R. (February 11, 2011). The Drunkenness of Nations. The Atlantic. Retrieved March 24, 2015, from http://www.theatlantic.com/business/archive/2011/02/the-drunkenness-of-nations/71509/

Graham, C. (2009). *Happiness around the World: The Paradox of Happy Peasants and Miserable Millionaires*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Graham, C., & Markowitz, J. (2011). Aspirations and Happiness of Potential Latin American Immigrants. *Journal of Social Research & Policy, 2*(2), 9-25.

Graham, C., & Nikolova, M. (2015). Bentham or Aristotle in the Development Process? An Empirical Investigation of Capabilities and Subjective Well-Being. *World Development, 68*(0), 163-179.

Hatton, T. J., & Williamson, J. G. (1998). *The Age of Mass Migration: Causes and Economic Impact*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hatton, T. J., & Williamson, J. G. (2002). *What Fundamentals Drive World Migration?* : National Bureau of Economic Research.

Helliwell, J. F., & Barrington-Leigh, C. P. (2010). Viewpoint: Measuring and Understanding Subjective Well-Being. *Canadian Journal of Economics, 43*(3), 729-753.

Helliwell, J. F., & Wang, S. (2013). World Happiness: Trends, Explanations and Distribution. In J. F. Helliwell, R. Layard & J. Sachs (Eds.), *World Happiness Report* (pp. 8-37).

IMF. (2014). Frequently Asked Questions: World Economic Outlook (Weo). Retrieved October, 23, 2014, from https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/faq.htm#q4b

IOM. (2013). *World Migration Report 2013: Migrant Well-Being and Development*: International Migration Organization.

Israeli, O. (2007). A Shapley-Based Decomposition of the R-Square of a Linear Regression. *The Journal of Economic Inequality, 5*(2), 199-212.

Ivlevs, A. (2014). Happiness and the Emigraiton Decision. *IZA World Of Labor*, from http://wol.iza.org/articles/happiness-and-the-emigration-decision-1.pdf

Ivlevs, A. (2015). Happy Moves? Assessing the Link between Life Satisfaction and Emigration Intentions. *Kyklos (forthcoming)*.

Kahneman, D., & Deaton, A. (2010). High Income Improves Evaluation of Life but Not Emotional Well-Being. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 107*(38), 16489-16493.

Kahneman, D., & Krueger, A. B. (2006). Developments in the Measurement of Subjective Well-Being. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 20*(1), 3-24.

Lovo, S. (2014). Potential Migration and Subjective Well-Being in Europe. *IZA Journal of Migration, 3*(24), 1-18.

Massey, D. S. (1988). Economic Development and International Migration in Comparative Perspective. *Population and development review, 14*(3), 383-413.

Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. E. (1993). Theories of International Migration: A Review and Appraisal. *Population and Development Review, 19*(3), 431-466.

Massin, S., & Kopp, P. (2011). Alcohol Consumption and Happiness: An Empirical Analysis Using Russian Panel Data.

Nikolova, M., & Graham, C. (2015). In Transit: The Well-Being of Migrants from Transition and Post-Transition Countries. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 112*(0), 164-186.

Nowok, B., van Ham, M., Findlay, A. M., & Gayle, V. (2011). Does Migration Make You Happy? A Longitudinal Study of Internal Migration and Subjective Well-Being. *IZA Working Paper 6140*.

O'Donnell, G. (2013). Using Well-Being as a Guide to Policy. In J. Helliwell, R. Layard & J. Sachs (Eds.), *World Happiness Report* (pp. 98-111).

OECD. (2013a). International Migration Outlook 2013, OECD Publishing. Retrieved from Doi:10.1787/Migr_Outlook-2013-En

OECD. (2013b). *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-Being*: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD Publishing.

Polgreen, L. A., & Simpson, N. B. (2011). Happiness and International Migration. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*(5), 819-840.

Rode, M. (2013). Do Good Institutions Make Citizens Happy, or Do Happy Citizens Build Better Institutions? *Journal of Happiness Studies, 14*(5), 1479-1505.

Rutledge, R. B., Skandali, N., Dayan, P., & Dolan, R. J. (2014). A Computational and Neural Model of Momentary Subjective Well-Being. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*.

Shorrocks, A. F. (2013). Decomposition Procedures for Distributional Analysis: A Unified Framework Based on the Shapley Value. *Journal of Economic Inequality*, 1-28.

Simmons, A. (1985). Recent Studies on Place-Utility and Intention to Migrate: An International Comparison. *Population and Environment, 8*(1-2), 120-140.

Stalker, P. (2000). *Workers without Frontiers: The Impact of Globalization on International Migration*: International Labour Organization.

Stark, O., & Jakubek, M. (2013). Migration Networks as a Response to Financial Constraints: Onset, and Endogenous Dynamics. *Journal of Development Economics, 101*(0), 1-7.

Stark, O., Micevska, M., & Mycielski, J. (2009). Relative Poverty as a Determinant of Migration: Evidence from Poland. *Economics letters, 103*(3), 119-122.

Stillman, S., Gibson, J., McKenzie, D., & Rohorua, H. (2015). Miserable Migrants? Natural Experiment Evidence on International Migration and Objective and Subjective Well-Being. *World Development, 65*(0), 79-93.

Stone, A. A., & Mackie, C. (2014). *Subjective Well-Being: Measuring Happiness, Suffering, and Other Dimensions of Experience*: National Academies Press.

Tilly, C. (2011). The Impact of the Economic Crisis on International Migration: A Review. *Work, Employment & Society, 25*(4), 675-692.

van Dalen, H. P., & Henkens, K. (2008). *Emigration Intentions: Mere Words or True Plans? Explaining International Migration Intentions and Behavior* (Discussion Paper): Tilburg University, Center for Economic Research.

van Dalen, H. P., & Henkens, K. (2013). Explaining Emigration Intentions and Behaviour in the Netherlands, 2005-10. *Population Studies, 67*(2), 225-241.

Vogler, M., & Rotte, R. (2000). The Effects of Development on Migration: Theoretical Issues and New Empirical Evidence. *Journal of Population Economics, 13*(3), 485-508.

Warner, K., Ehrhart, C., Sherbinin, A. d., Adamo, S., & Chai-Onn, T. (2009). In Search of Shelter: Mapping the Effects of Climate Change on Human Migration and Displacement.

In search of shelter: mapping the effects of climate change on human migration and displacement.

Figures and Tables

Table 1: Countries and Regions Included in Main Analyses

Region	Countries Included
EU Transition	Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania
Western Balkans	Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia
Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) + Mongolia	Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Mongolia, Nagorno-Karabakh Republic, Russia, Ukraine
Southeast Asia	Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam
South Asia	Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka
Latin America and the Caribbean	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay, Venezuela
Middle East and North Africa (MENA)	Egypt, Iraq, Morocco, Palestinian Territories, Tunisia, Turkey, Yemen
Africa	Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo (Kinshasa), Congo Brazzaville, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somaliland region, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe

Source: Authors based on Gallup World Poll Data Documentation

Table 2: Variables Included in the Analyses

Variable	Explanation
Dependent Variables	
Migration Intent	Ideally, if you had the opportunity, would you like to move PERMANENTLY to another country, or would you prefer to continue living in this country?
Migration Plan	Are you planning to move permanently to another country in the next 12 months, or not? (Asked only of those who would like to move to another country)
Focal Independent Variables	
Best Possible Life (BPL)	Please imagine a ladder with steps numbered from 0 at the bottom to 10 at the top. Suppose we say that the top of the ladder represents the best possible life for you, and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible life for you. On which step of the ladder would you say you personally feel you stand at this time, assuming that the higher the step the better you feel about your life, and the lower the step the worse you feel about it? Which step comes closest to the way you feel?
Life Satisfaction	All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days? Use a 0 to 10 scale, where 0 is dissatisfied and 10 is satisfied.
Income Per Capita	Household income in international dollars divided by the number of household members
Other Controls	
Children Grow/Optimism	Do most children in this country have the opportunity to learn and grow every day?
Freedom	In this country, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your freedom to choose what you do with your life?
Living Standard	Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your standard of living, all the things you can buy and do?
Confidence in Government	In this country, do you have confidence in each of the following, or not? How about national government?
Network	Constructed using a series of questions related to whether the respondent has friends or relatives on whom they can count when they need them, whether household members or relatives work abroad, and whether the respondent's household has received remittances
ICT Index	An index of access to TV, landline, cell phone, and internet, based on principal component analysis results. Ranges from 0 to 100.
Demographic Variables	Age, age squared, gender, education, employment status, child in the household, religiosity, marital status, urban/rural location. Note that religiosity is a binary indicator for whether religion is important in the respondent's life.
Instrument	
Alcohol Consumption	Recorded alcohol per capita (15+ years) consumption in liters of pure alcohol in a calendar year, sum of recorded and unrecorded

Source: Authors based on Gallup World Poll, WHO Global status report on alcohol and health 2014

Table 3: Summary Statistics, Migration Intent Sample

Variable	Overall			No Intent			Intent to Migrate		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Intent to Migrate (1=Yes)	0.17	0.37	250,539	0.00	0.00	209,120	1.00	0.00	41,419
BPL (0-10 scale)	5.07	2.20	250,539	5.08	2.19	209,120	5.02	2.26	41,419
Log household income (in ID)	8.33	1.38	250,539	8.33	1.36	209,120	8.37	1.45	41,419
Freedom Satisfaction (1=Yes)	0.71	0.46	250,539	0.71	0.45	209,120	0.66	0.47	41,419
Children Can Grow/Optimism (1=Yes)	0.65	0.48	250,539	0.66	0.47	209,120	0.55	0.50	41,419
Living Standard Satisfaction (1=Yes)	0.55	0.50	250,539	0.56	0.50	209,120	0.47	0.50	41,419
Confidence in Government (1=Yes)	0.54	0.50	250,539	0.57	0.50	209,120	0.39	0.49	41,419
Age	37.48	16.60	250,539	38.88	16.88	209,120	30.48	13.04	41,419
Primary Education (1=Yes)	0.49	0.50	250,539	0.52	0.50	209,120	0.38	0.48	41,419
Secondary Education (1=Yes)	0.43	0.49	250,539	0.41	0.49	209,120	0.53	0.50	41,419
Tertiary Education (1=Yes)	0.08	0.27	250,539	0.08	0.26	209,120	0.10	0.30	41,419
Religiosity/Religion Important (1=Yes)	0.85	0.36	250,539	0.85	0.36	209,120	0.83	0.38	41,419
Female (1=Yes)	0.51	0.50	250,539	0.51	0.50	209,120	0.47	0.50	41,419
Married or Living with Partner (1=Yes)	0.58	0.49	250,539	0.61	0.49	209,120	0.43	0.50	41,419
Child in Household (1=Yes)	0.65	0.48	250,539	0.65	0.48	209,120	0.67	0.47	41,419
Household Size	3.93	2.06	250,539	3.89	2.05	209,120	4.12	2.12	41,419
Employed Full-Time (1=Yes)	0.22	0.41	250,539	0.21	0.41	209,120	0.22	0.42	41,419
Self-Employed (1=Yes)	0.16	0.37	250,539	0.17	0.37	209,120	0.13	0.34	41,419
Voluntary Part-Time (1=Yes)	0.08	0.27	250,539	0.08	0.27	209,120	0.06	0.24	41,419
Unemployed (1=Yes)	0.08	0.26	250,539	0.07	0.25	209,120	0.12	0.32	41,419
Involuntary Part-Time (1=Yes)	0.08	0.27	250,539	0.08	0.27	209,120	0.11	0.31	41,419
Out of the Labor Force (1=Yes)	0.39	0.49	250,539	0.39	0.49	209,120	0.36	0.48	41,419
Urban Location (1=Yes)	0.35	0.48	250,539	0.33	0.47	209,120	0.42	0.49	41,419
Network (1=Yes)	0.34	0.47	250,539	0.31	0.46	209,120	0.50	0.50	41,419
ICT Index (0=100)	50.68	29.54	250,539	49.97	29.45	209,120	54.26	29.73	41,419

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data

Notes: The reported statistics were weighted using the Gallup-provided survey weight. Best Possible Life measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. Household income log-transformed and is in international dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions.

Table 4: Migration Intentions, Logit Regression Estimates, Average Marginal Effects

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
		EU-Transition	Western Balkans	CIS + Mongolia	Southeast Asia	South Asia	LAC	MENA	Africa
	Overall								
BPL	-0.003***	-0.011***	-0.012***	-0.003*	-0.003**	-0.001	-0.004***	-0.003*	-0.002**
	(0.000)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Log household income (in ID)	0.002**	-0.012**	-0.005	0.000	0.007**	0.006**	-0.001	-0.005*	0.004***
	(0.001)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.001)
Freedom	-0.012***	-0.041***	0.013	-0.017***	-0.009	-0.013***	-0.007	-0.006	-0.016***
	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)
Children Grow/Optimism	-0.023***	-0.048***	-0.037***	-0.041***	-0.022***	-0.009**	-0.011***	-0.023***	-0.027***
	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Living Standard	-0.042***	-0.038***	-0.076***	-0.041***	-0.020***	-0.003	-0.051***	-0.026***	-0.054***
	(0.002)	(0.010)	(0.013)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Confidence	-0.053***	-0.088***	-0.119***	-0.055***	-0.055***	-0.008**	-0.052***	-0.043***	-0.058***
	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Age	-0.004***	-0.007***	-0.007***	-0.004***	-0.001***	-0.001***	-0.004***	-0.003***	-0.005***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Secondary Education	0.028***	0.010	0.005	0.014*	0.027***	0.038***	0.019***	0.007	0.050***
	(0.002)	(0.012)	(0.014)	(0.008)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.004)
Tertiary Education	0.024***	0.002	-0.009	0.028***	0.044***	0.041***	0.007	0.036***	0.016*
	(0.003)	(0.015)	(0.019)	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.010)	(0.008)
Religiosity	-0.010***	-0.028***	-0.045***	-0.013**	-0.020**	-0.001	-0.007	-0.028***	-0.000
	(0.003)	(0.009)	(0.013)	(0.005)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.005)	(0.011)	(0.008)
Female	-0.025***	-0.005	0.017	-0.011**	-0.003	-0.014***	-0.018***	-0.073***	-0.034***
	(0.002)	(0.008)	(0.011)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Married or Living with Partner	-0.032***	-0.028***	-0.011	-0.016***	-0.016***	-0.023***	-0.027***	-0.038***	-0.044***
	(0.002)	(0.010)	(0.015)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)
Child in Household	0.006***	0.008	0.001	-0.003	0.004	-0.005	0.001	0.006	0.013***
	(0.002)	(0.010)	(0.013)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.004)
Household Size	0.002***	0.006	0.006	0.006***	-0.001	-0.000	0.001	0.001	0.003***
	(0.000)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Self-Employed	-0.008***	0.005	-0.058***	-0.009	-0.002	-0.003	-0.002	0.006	-0.021***
	(0.003)	(0.018)	(0.021)	(0.009)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.009)	(0.006)
Voluntary Part-Time	-0.021***	-0.013	-0.006	0.004	-0.016**	-0.005	-0.025***	-0.004	-0.038***
	(0.003)	(0.022)	(0.028)	(0.010)	(0.008)	(0.010)	(0.008)	(0.013)	(0.006)
Unemployed	0.032***	0.068***	0.011	0.024**	0.000	0.002	0.042***	0.063***	0.021***

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
	(0.003)	(0.017)	(0.022)	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.012)	(0.007)
Involuntary Part-Time	0.021***	0.053**	0.055**	-0.000	0.007	0.023**	0.028***	0.044***	0.011*
	(0.003)	(0.023)	(0.027)	(0.011)	(0.008)	(0.011)	(0.007)	(0.015)	(0.006)
Out of the Labor Force	-0.003	0.013	-0.011	-0.006	0.004	-0.007	-0.011**	0.006	-0.007
	(0.002)	(0.011)	(0.016)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.005)
Urban Location	0.025***	0.043***	0.008	0.022***	0.025***	0.015***	0.031***	0.009	0.028***
	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.004)
Network	0.075***	0.112***	0.104***	0.061***	0.044***	0.035***	0.103***	0.089***	0.074***
	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)
ICT Index	0.001***	0.000*	0.000	0.001***	0.000***	0.001***	0.000**	0.000***	0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Country and Year Dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	250,539	12,534	6,822	25,593	19,659	30,809	56,021	18,973	80,128
Pseudo R2	0.191	0.196	0.174	0.173	0.216	0.167	0.177	0.165	0.181

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data

Notes: The table shows the average marginal effects from logistic regression estimates. Robust standard errors are reported in parentheses. The dependent variable in all models equals 1 if the individual expressed willingness to move permanently to another country. Best Possible Life measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. Household income is log-transformed and is international dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. The omitted category for education is elementary; and the omitted category for employment is full-time employees. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions.

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, *
p<0.1

Table 5: Migration Intentions, Naïve OLS results, Alcohol Consumption Matched Subsample

	(1) 2006-2013	(2) 2008-2010	(3) 2009-2013	(4) 2010
BPL	-0.007***	-0.007***	-0.005***	-0.005***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Log household income (in ID)	-0.006***	-0.006***	-0.006***	-0.006***
	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)
Freedom	-0.007***	0.000	-0.008***	-0.003
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.006)
Children Grow/Optimism	-0.029***	-0.018***	-0.031***	-0.029***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Living Standard	-0.044***	-0.043***	-0.042***	-0.046***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Confidence	-0.059***	-0.058***	-0.060***	-0.063***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Age	-0.006***	-0.006***	-0.006***	-0.006***
	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.001)
Age^2	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Secondary Education	0.020***	0.020***	0.020***	0.022***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.006)
Tertiary Education	0.019***	0.017***	0.019***	0.005
	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.010)
Religiosity	0.002	-0.003	0.004	0.009
	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.007)
Female	-0.020***	-0.022***	-0.021***	-0.021***
	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Married or Living with Partner	-0.032***	-0.038***	-0.030***	-0.036***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.006)
Child in Household	0.011***	0.003	0.009***	0.002
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.005)
Household Size	0.004***	0.003***	0.003***	0.001
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)
Self-Employed			0.001	0.003
			(0.003)	(0.008)
Voluntary Part-Time			-0.017***	-0.022**
			(0.004)	(0.010)
Unemployed			0.037***	0.044***
			(0.005)	(0.012)
Involuntary Part-Time			0.039***	0.032***
			(0.005)	(0.012)
Out of the Labor Force			0.003	0.003
			(0.003)	(0.007)
Urban Location	0.028***	0.032***	0.027***	0.027***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.006)
Network	0.111***	0.140***	0.108***	0.131***
	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.006)

ICT Index	0.000***	0.000***	0.001***	0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Region Dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	204,343	72,323	177,454	33,261
R^2	0.103	0.117	0.104	0.122

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data merged with WHO Alcohol Consumption Sample

Notes: All models are estimated OLS using different sample years. Robust standard errors are reported in parentheses. The dependent variable in all models equals 1 if the individual plans to move permanently to another country in the next 12 months. Best Possible Life measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. Household income is log-transformed and in international dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. The omitted category for education is elementary; and the omitted category for employment is full-time employees. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table 6: Migration Intentions, 2SLS Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	First Stage 2006-2013	Second Stage 2006-2013	First Stage 2008-2010	Second Stage 2008-2010	First Stage 2009-2013	Second Stage 2009-2013	First Stage 2010	Second Stage 2010
BPL		-0.135***		-0.149***		-0.147***		-0.145***
		(0.010)		(0.016)		(0.013)		(0.033)
Log household income (in ID)	0.182***	0.020***	0.165***	0.020***	0.172***	0.020***	0.158***	0.018***
	(0.006)	(0.002)	(0.009)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.003)	(0.013)	(0.006)
Freedom	0.141***	0.011***	0.177***	0.026***	0.126***	0.010***	0.143***	0.019**
	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.020)	(0.006)	(0.013)	(0.003)	(0.027)	(0.008)
Children Grow/Optimism	0.119***	-0.014***	0.083***	-0.007	0.117***	-0.015***	0.062**	-0.021***
	(0.011)	(0.003)	(0.018)	(0.005)	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.026)	(0.007)
Living Standard	1.130***	0.101***	1.156***	0.119***	1.117***	0.117***	1.058***	0.102***
	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.027)	(0.035)
Confidence	0.087***	-0.048***	0.056***	-0.050***	0.094***	-0.047***	0.055**	-0.056***
	(0.011)	(0.003)	(0.018)	(0.005)	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.026)	(0.007)
Age	-0.029***	-0.010***	-0.033***	-0.011***	-0.030***	-0.010***	-0.027***	-0.010***
	(0.002)	(0.000)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.004)	(0.001)
Age^2	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Secondary Education	0.180***	0.045***	0.213***	0.052***	0.169***	0.046***	0.214***	0.052***
	(0.013)	(0.004)	(0.021)	(0.006)	(0.014)	(0.004)	(0.031)	(0.010)
Tertiary Education	0.424***	0.071***	0.446***	0.075***	0.401***	0.074***	0.536***	0.077***
	(0.019)	(0.006)	(0.031)	(0.010)	(0.021)	(0.007)	(0.045)	(0.021)
Religiosity	0.034**	0.004	0.037	-0.003	0.050***	0.009**	0.082**	0.018**
	(0.014)	(0.003)	(0.023)	(0.006)	(0.015)	(0.004)	(0.034)	(0.009)
Female	0.062***	-0.012***	0.036**	-0.016***	0.067***	-0.011***	-0.002	-0.020***
	(0.011)	(0.002)	(0.017)	(0.004)	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.025)	(0.006)
Married or Living with Partner	0.082***	-0.023***	0.094***	-0.026***	0.074***	-0.021***	0.104***	-0.022***
	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.020)	(0.005)	(0.013)	(0.003)	(0.029)	(0.008)
Child in Household	-0.159***	-0.012***	-0.156***	-0.022***	-0.151***	-0.014***	-0.137***	-0.019**
	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.020)	(0.005)	(0.013)	(0.004)	(0.028)	(0.008)
Household Size	0.004	0.003***	0.007	0.002*	0.007*	0.004***	0.018**	0.003
	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.008)	(0.002)
Self-Employed					-0.133***	-0.020***	-0.117***	-0.015
					(0.018)	(0.005)	(0.041)	(0.011)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Voluntary Part-Time					-0.054**	-0.026***	0.005	-0.023**
					(0.024)	(0.005)	(0.050)	(0.012)
Unemployed					-0.397***	-0.020**	-0.442***	-0.020
					(0.026)	(0.008)	(0.057)	(0.021)
Involuntary Part-Time					-0.235***	0.004	-0.241***	-0.003
					(0.024)	(0.007)	(0.055)	(0.017)
Out of the Labor Force					-0.114***	-0.015***	-0.063*	-0.009
					(0.016)	(0.004)	(0.035)	(0.009)
Urban Location	0.056***	0.035***	0.075***	0.042***	0.069***	0.036***	0.093***	0.038***
	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.020)	(0.005)	(0.013)	(0.003)	(0.028)	(0.007)
Network	0.027**	0.111***	0.021	0.139***	0.015	0.107***	-0.028	0.125***
	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.019)	(0.005)	(0.012)	(0.003)	(0.028)	(0.007)
ICT Index	0.013***	0.002***	0.012***	0.002***	0.012***	0.002***	0.013***	0.002***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.000)
Instrument								
Alcohol Consumption	0.049***		0.059***		0.044***		0.042***	
	(0.002)		(0.004)		(0.002)		(0.005)	
Region Dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	204,343	204,343	72,323	72,323	177,454	177,454	33,261	33,261
R^2	0.254		0.266		0.262		0.291	
Regressor endogeneity test p-value		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000
Anderson-Rubin Wald test statistic	245.410		132.780		200.69		27.14	

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll and WHO alcohol consumption data

Notes: All models are estimated using 2SLS, robust standard errors in parentheses. In all first stages, the dependent variable is BPL (Best Possible Life), which measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. In all second stages, the dependent variable equals 1 if the respondent would like to emigrate and 0 otherwise. Household income is log-transformed and is in International Dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. The omitted category for education is elementary; and the omitted category for employment is full-time employees. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions. The instrument is the per capita alcohol consumption (ages 15+).

*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$

Table 7: Migration Plans, Logit Regression Estimates, Average Marginal Effects

	(1) All Emigration Desire Respondents	(2) Only Those With Emigration Desires
BPL	0.000	0.003**
	(0.000)	(0.001)
Log household income (in ID)	0.000	-0.000
	(0.000)	(0.002)
Freedom	-0.004***	-0.014***
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Children Grow/Optimism	-0.002***	-0.000
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Living Standard	-0.004***	0.007
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Confidence	-0.006***	-0.003
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Age	-0.000***	0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)
Secondary Education	0.004***	0.008*
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Tertiary Education	0.004***	0.019**
	(0.001)	(0.008)
Religiosity	-0.003**	-0.013*
	(0.001)	(0.007)
Female	-0.004***	-0.011***
	(0.001)	(0.004)
Married or Living with Partner	-0.006***	-0.013**
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Child in Household	-0.002*	-0.013**
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Household Size	0.001***	0.003**
	(0.000)	(0.001)
Self-Employed	0.001	0.015**
	(0.001)	(0.008)
Voluntary Part-Time	-0.004***	-0.004
	(0.001)	(0.010)
Unemployed	0.009***	0.032***
	(0.002)	(0.008)
Involuntary Part-Time	0.006***	0.028***
	(0.002)	(0.008)
Out of the Labor Force	-0.002	-0.011*
	(0.001)	(0.006)
Urban Location	0.005***	0.015***
	(0.001)	(0.005)
Network	0.024***	0.098***
	(0.001)	(0.004)
ICT Index	0.000***	0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)
Country and Year Dummies	Yes	Yes
Observations	223,492	34,001
Pseudo R^2	0.190	0.107

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data

Notes: The table shows the average marginal effects from logistic regression estimates. Robust standard errors are reported in parentheses. The dependent variable in both regressions is emigration plans, coded as 1 if the respondent reported such plans and 0 otherwise. In Model (1), the variable is defined based on all respondents who gave a valid answer to the emigration desire question. In Model (2), the variable is defined based on respondents who expressed emigration desires only. Best Possible Life measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. Household income is log-transformed and is in International Dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. The omitted category for education is elementary; and the omitted category for employment is full-time employees. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions. See Table A2 for summary statistics

*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$

Table 8: Migration Plans, 2SLS Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	First Stage 2010-2013 All Emigration Desire Respondents	Second Stage 2010-2013 All Emigration Desire Respondents	First Stage 2010 Only Those With Emigration Desires	Second Stage 2010 Only Those With Emigration Desires
BPL		-0.038***		-0.043***
		(0.005)		(0.012)
Log household income (in ID)	0.177***	0.005***	0.158***	0.007***
	(0.006)	(0.001)	(0.013)	(0.002)
Freedom	0.128***	0.001	0.143***	0.001
	(0.014)	(0.001)	(0.027)	(0.003)
Children Grow/Optimism	0.120***	0.000	0.062**	-0.002
	(0.013)	(0.001)	(0.026)	(0.002)
Living Standard	1.092***	0.038***	1.058***	0.041***
	(0.013)	(0.005)	(0.027)	(0.012)
Confidence	0.092***	-0.003***	0.055**	-0.002
	(0.013)	(0.001)	(0.026)	(0.002)
Age	-0.028***	-0.001***	-0.027***	-0.001**
	(0.002)	(0.000)	(0.004)	(0.000)
Age^2	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Secondary Education	0.161***	0.009***	0.214***	0.010***
	(0.015)	(0.001)	(0.031)	(0.003)
Tertiary Education	0.408***	0.019***	0.536***	0.022***
	(0.023)	(0.003)	(0.045)	(0.007)
Religiosity	0.051***	0.001	0.082**	0.001
	(0.016)	(0.001)	(0.034)	(0.003)
Female	0.069***	-0.001	-0.002	-0.002
	(0.012)	(0.001)	(0.025)	(0.002)
Married or Living with Partner	0.079***	-0.003***	0.104***	-0.006**
	(0.014)	(0.001)	(0.029)	(0.003)
Child in Household	-0.155***	-0.007***	-0.137***	-0.008***
	(0.014)	(0.001)	(0.028)	(0.003)
Household Size	0.009**	0.001***	0.018**	0.002***
	(0.004)	(0.000)	(0.008)	(0.001)
Self-Employed	-0.132***	-0.001	-0.117***	-0.002
	(0.019)	(0.002)	(0.041)	(0.004)
Voluntary Part-Time	-0.049**	-0.004**	0.005	-0.003
	(0.025)	(0.002)	(0.050)	(0.004)
Unemployed	-0.387***	-0.002	-0.442***	-0.005
	(0.027)	(0.003)	(0.057)	(0.008)
Involuntary Part-Time	-0.242***	-0.000	-0.241***	-0.001
	(0.026)	(0.003)	(0.055)	(0.006)
Out of the Labor Force	-0.114***	-0.005***	-0.063*	-0.006*
	(0.017)	(0.001)	(0.035)	(0.003)
Urban Location	0.058***	0.010***	0.093***	0.015***
	(0.014)	(0.001)	(0.028)	(0.003)
Network	0.018	0.030***	-0.028	0.033***
	(0.013)	(0.001)	(0.028)	(0.003)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
ICT Index	0.013***	0.001***	0.013***	0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.000)
Instrument				
Alcohol Consumption	0.044***		0.042***	
	(0.002)		(0.005)	
Region Dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	156,589	156,589	33,261	33,261
R^2	0.259		0.291	
Regressor endogeneity test p-value		0.000		0.000
Anderson-Rubin Wald test statistic	87.960		17.43	

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll and WHO alcohol consumption data
Notes: All models are estimated using 2SLS, robust standard errors in parentheses. In all first stages, the dependent variable is BPL (Best Possible Life), which measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. In all second stages, the dependent variable equals 1 if the respondent plans to emigrate and 0 otherwise. In Models (1)(-2), the variable is defined based on all respondents who gave a valid answer to the emigration desire question. In Models (3)-(4), the variable is defined based on respondents who expressed emigration desires only. Household income is log-transformed and is in International Dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. The omitted category for education is elementary; and the omitted category for employment is full-time employees. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions. The instrument is the per capita alcohol consumption (ages 15+).
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table A1: Migration Intentions, by Year and World Region

Year	Overall	EU Transition	Western Balkans	CIS+ Mongolia	Southeast Asia	South Asia	China	LAC	MENA	Africa
2006	0.220							0.104	0.333	
2007	0.244	0.250		0.152	0.150	0.160		0.261	0.216	0.351
2008	0.150	0.182		0.104	0.137	0.095	0.092	0.220	0.150	
2009	0.165	0.136	0.232	0.093	0.115	0.110	0.075	0.202	0.104	0.263
2010	0.163	0.143	0.247	0.115	0.121	0.069	0.065	0.199	0.124	0.261
2011	0.152	0.184	0.263	0.108	0.100	0.071	0.060	0.181	0.108	0.201
2012	0.136	0.183	0.224	0.109	0.053	0.076	0.062	0.173	0.131	0.195
2013	0.146	0.189	0.248	0.113	0.080	0.074	0.055	0.181	0.119	0.178

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data

Notes: The table shows the proportion of respondents reporting migration intentions based on all available observations in the Gallup World Poll but excluding immigrants. Note that China is also included in this table, although it does not appear in the main regressions due to lack of observations on the control variables.

Table A.2. Per Capita Alcohol Consumption, IV Estimation Sample

Country	Alcohol Consumption Per Capita	BPL Score (2010)	N
Angola	7.50	5.07	1,111
Argentina	9.30	6.51	3,759
Armenia	5.30	4.29	2,137
Belarus	17.50	5.54	1,614
Belize	8.50	6.11	113
Benin	2.10	3.55	2,138
Bhutan	0.70	5.66	845
Bolivia	5.90	5.64	3,571
Bosnia and Herzegovina	7.10	5.31	1,206
Botswana	8.40	4.26	3,145
Brazil	8.70	7.00	3,946
Bulgaria	11.40	4.07	2,297
Burkina Faso	6.80	4.18	2,919
Cameroon	8.40	4.50	4,426
Central African	3.80	3.64	1,661
Chad	4.40	4.14	2,302
Chile	9.60	6.61	3,536
Colombia	6.20	6.33	4,925
Congo (Kinshasa)	3.60	4.56	2,249
Congo Brazzaville	3.90	3.86	666
Costa Rica	5.40	7.21	2,446
Croatia	12.20	5.96	794
Dominican Republic	6.90	4.83	5,180
Ecuador	7.20	5.66	3,227
El Salvador	3.20	5.90	4,004
Ethiopia	4.20	4.60	750
Gabon	10.90	4.31	784
Georgia	7.70	4.15	3,545
Ghana	4.80	5.11	3,114
Guatemala	3.80	6.10	3,069
Guyana	8.10	6.17	132
Haiti	6.40	4.33	1,066
Honduras	4.00	5.24	4,847
Hungary	13.30	4.72	3,274
India	4.30	5.04	16,234
Ivory Coast	6.00	4.17	1,624
Jamaica	4.90	5.63	533
Kenya	4.30	4.33	3,316

Lesotho	6.50	5.21	413
Liberia	4.70	4.49	789
Lithuania	15.40	5.48	2,766
Macedonia	6.70	5.08	1,002
Madagascar	1.80	4.10	2,304
Malawi	2.50	4.45	2,745
Mauritius	3.60	5.54	874
Mexico	7.20	7.04	2,583
Moldova	16.80	5.65	2,614
Mongolia	6.90	4.77	3,311
Montenegro	8.70	5.28	1,166
Mozambique	2.30	5.15	878
Nepal	2.20	4.42	3,230
Nicaragua	5.00	5.34	4,134
Nigeria	10.10	5.11	2,656
Panama	8.00	7.06	4,163
Paraguay	8.80	5.71	3,634
Peru	8.10	5.79	3,133
Philippines	5.40	4.97	5,890
Poland	12.50	5.77	2,971
Romania	14.40	5.09	2,981
Russia	15.10	5.49	5,593
Serbia	12.60	5.00	1,159
South Africa	11.00	4.83	4,377
Sri Lanka	3.70	4.48	4,483
Suriname	6.60	6.39	224
Swaziland	5.70	5.25	507
Tanzania	7.70	3.89	4,155
Thailand	7.10	6.19	5,759
Togo	2.30	3.21	550
Trinidad & Tobago	6.70	6.48	612
Uganda	9.80	4.56	2,103
Ukraine	13.90	5.11	2,483
Uruguay	7.60	6.32	3,115
Venezuela	8.90	6.79	2,940
Vietnam	6.60	5.59	1,909
Zambia	4.00	5.39	1,639
Zimbabwe	5.70	4.89	1,993
Total	**7.28**	**5.25**	**204,343**

Sources: Authors' calculations based on the Gallup World Poll (2006-2013) and WHO Alcohol Consumption Data

Table A3: Summary Statistics, Migration Plans Sample

Variable	Migration Plan (All Emigration Desire Respondents)			Migration Plan (Only Those With Emigration Desires)		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Intent to Migrate	0.02	0.14	223,492	0.131	0.337	34,001
BPL	5.03	2.19	223,492	4.978	2.250	34,001
Income	8.33	1.38	223,492	8.361	1.453	34,001
Freedom	0.65	0.48	223,492	0.556	0.497	34,001
Children Grow/Optimism	0.70	0.46	223,492	0.664	0.472	34,001
Living Standard	0.54	0.50	223,492	0.466	0.499	34,001
Confidence	0.54	0.50	223,492	0.392	0.488	34,001
Age	37.44	16.58	223,492	30.443	13.074	34,001
Primary Education	0.50	0.50	223,492	0.383	0.486	34,001
Secondary Education	0.42	0.49	223,492	0.523	0.499	34,001
Tertiary Education	0.08	0.27	223,492	0.093	0.291	34,001
Religiosity	0.85	0.36	223,492	0.829	0.376	34,001
Female	0.51	0.50	223,492	0.473	0.499	34,001
Married or Living with Partner	0.58	0.49	223,492	0.428	0.495	34,001
Child in Household	0.65	0.48	223,492	0.671	0.470	34,001
Household Size	3.94	2.07	223,492	4.118	2.126	34,001
Employed Full-Time	0.22	0.41	223,492	0.222	0.416	34,001
Self-Employed	0.16	0.37	223,492	0.134	0.340	34,001
Voluntary Part-Time	0.08	0.27	223,492	0.061	0.240	34,001
Unemployed	0.08	0.27	223,492	0.123	0.328	34,001
Involuntary Part-Time	0.07	0.26	223,492	0.095	0.294	34,001
Out of the Labor Force	0.39	0.49	223,492	0.365	0.481	34,001
Urban Location	0.34	0.47	223,492	0.408	0.491	34,001
Network	0.34	0.47	223,492	0.505	0.500	34,001
ICT Index	50.62	29.62	223,492	54.129	30.033	34,001

Source: Authors' Calculations based on Gallup World Poll Data

Notes: The reported statistics were weighted using the Gallup-provided survey weight. In the first instance, the emigration plan variable is defined for all respondents who answered the emigration desire question. In the second instance, the emigration plan variable is defined only for those who stated that they had emigration desires. Best Possible Life measures the respondent's assessment of her current life relative to her best possible life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is the worst possible life and 10 is the best possible life. Household income is log-transformed and in international dollars (ID), which allows comparisons across countries and over time. See Table 1 for the list of countries included in each region and Table 2 for variable definitions.

Appendix

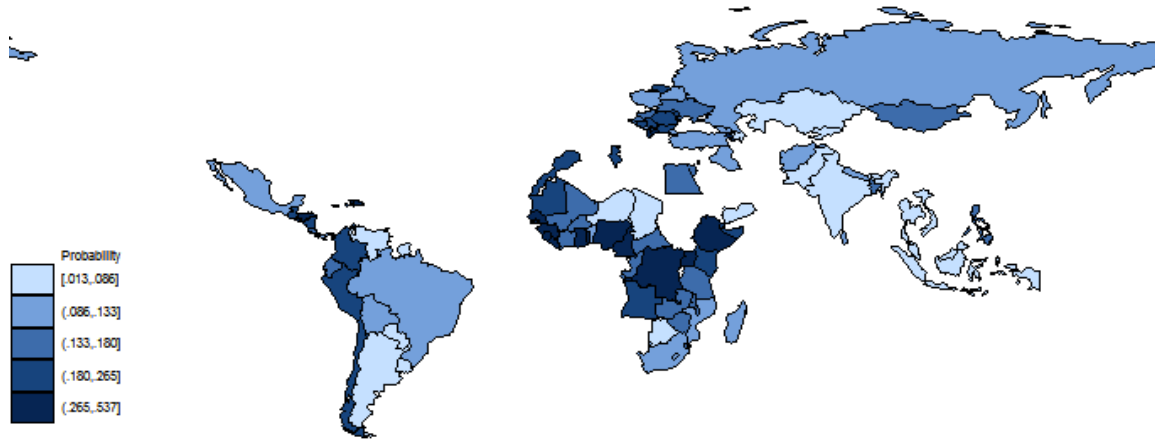**Figure 1: Emigration Intentions Map for the Analysis Sample**

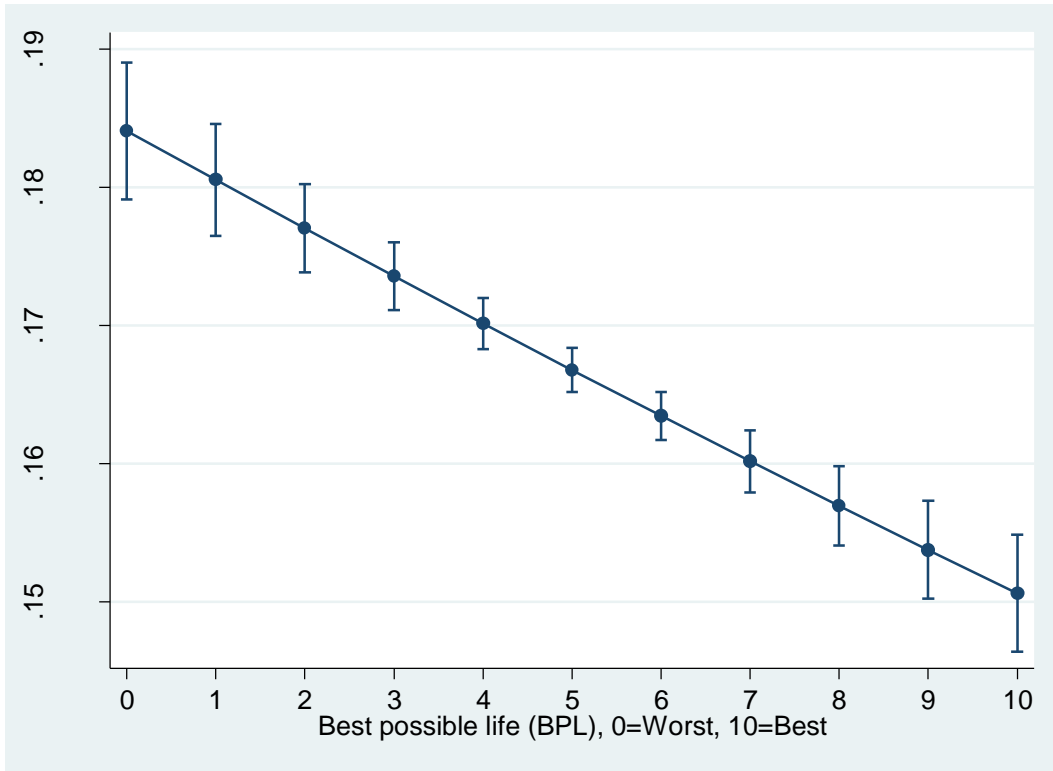**Figure 2 BPL and Emigration Intentions, Linear Fit, Predictive Margins, with 95% CIs**

Figure 3 BPL and Emigration Intentions, Quadratic Fit, Predictive Margins, with 95% CIs
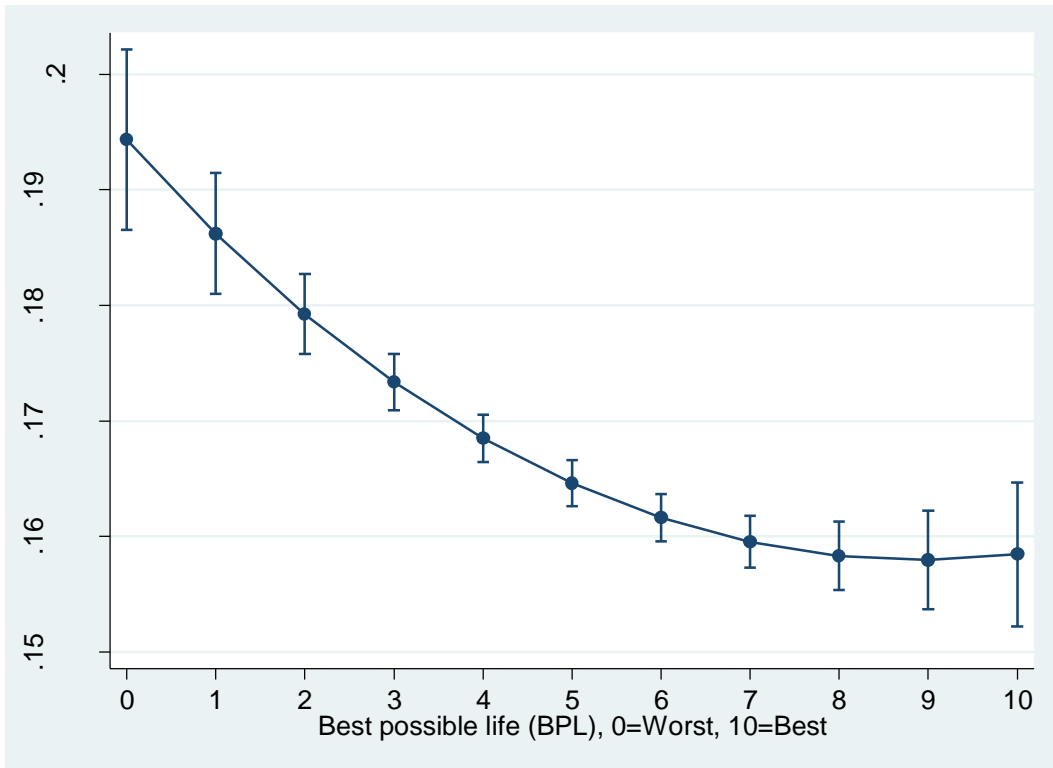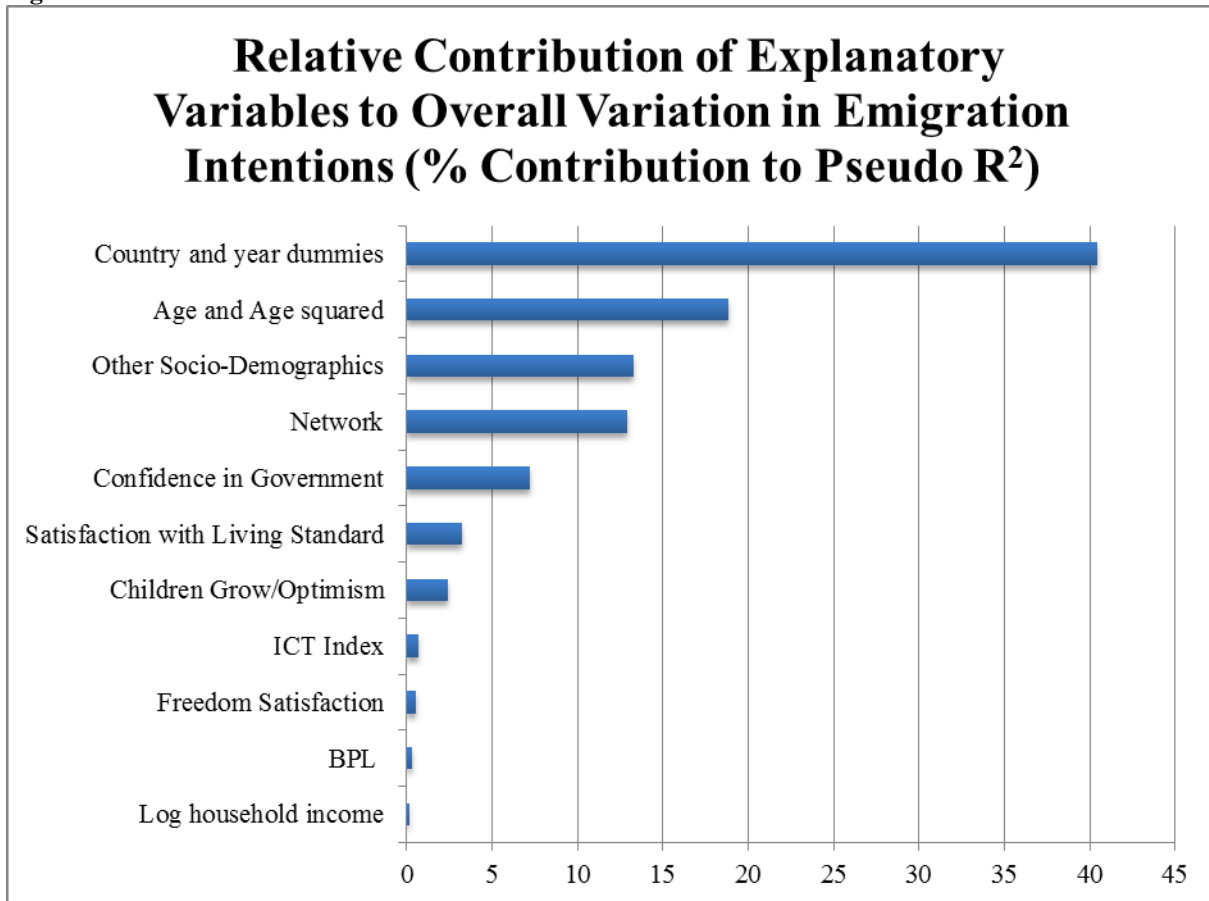
Figure 4

Relative Contribution of Explanatory Variables to Overall Variation in Emigration Intentions (% Contribution to Pseudo R^2)

Source: Authors' calculations based on GWP Data, 2009-2013
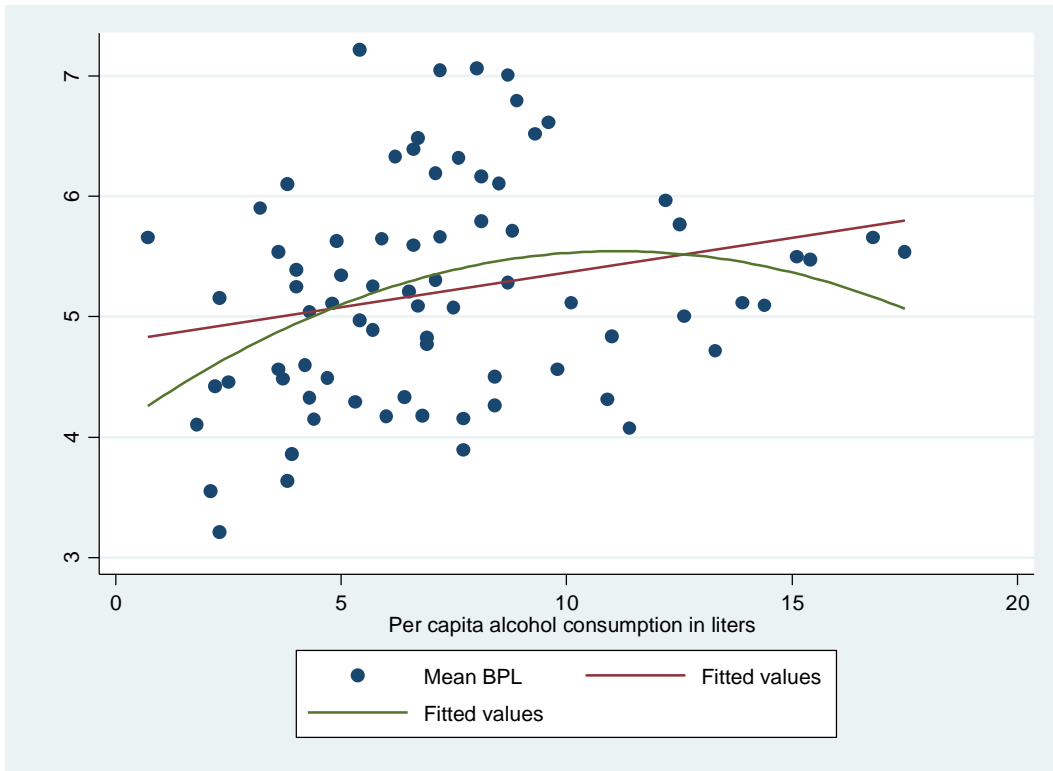Notes: Based on Shapley-based variance decompositions. Pseudo R2=0.19

Figure 5

Figure 6

Note: The emigration plan variable is defined for all respondents who answered the emigration desire question.
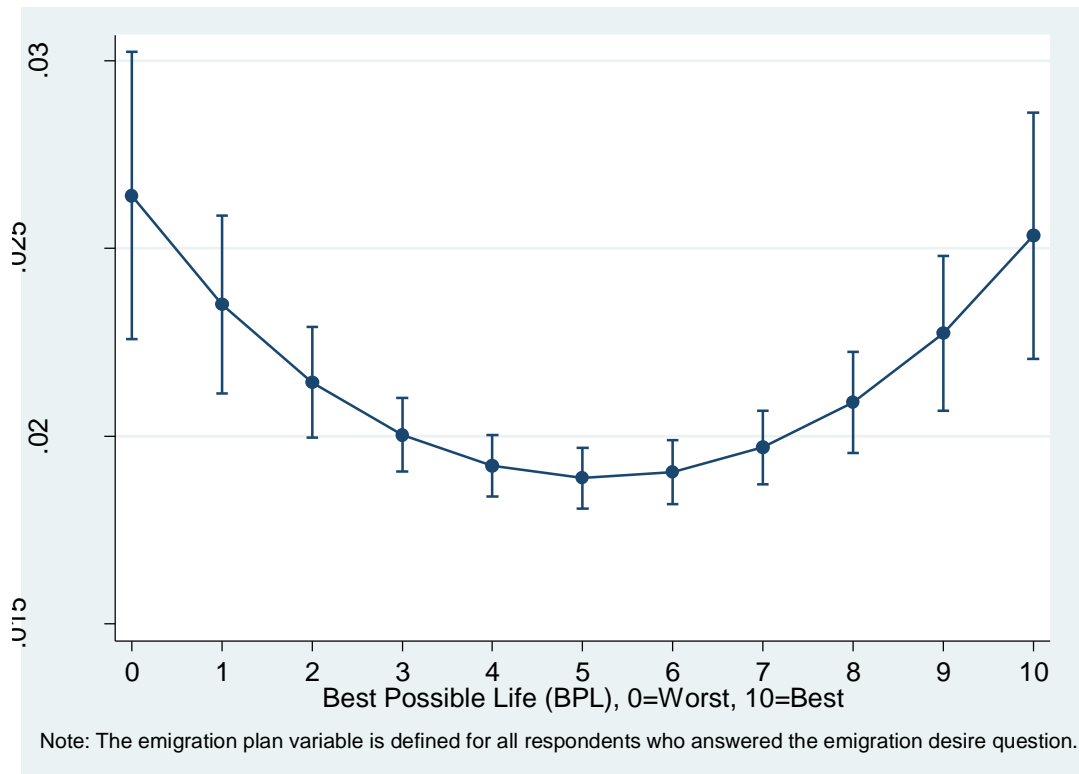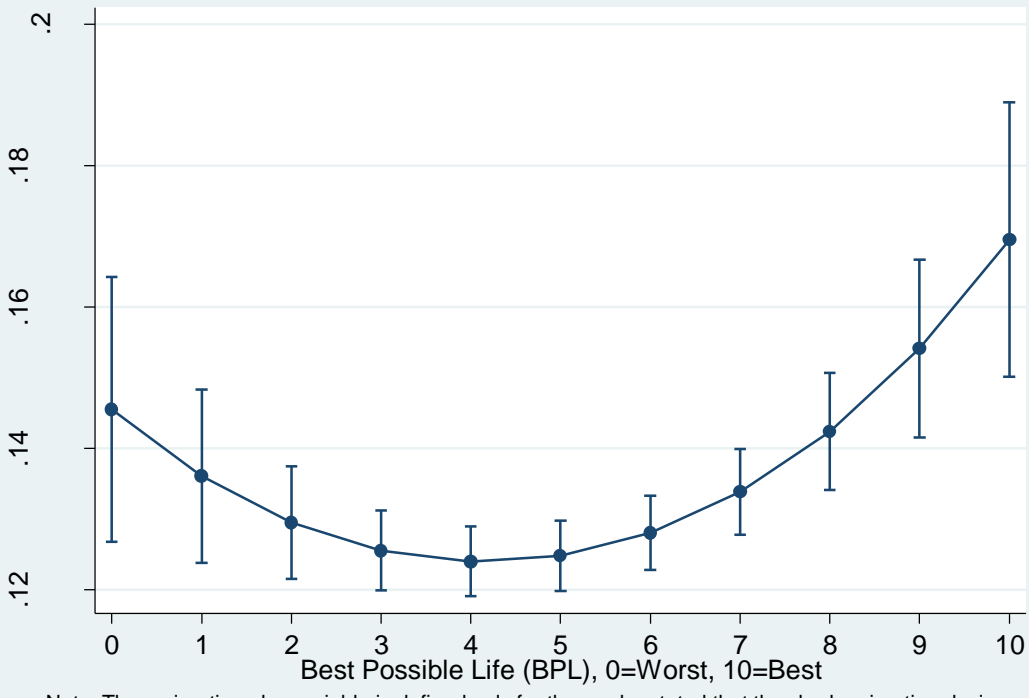
Figure 7

Note: The emigration plan variable is defined only for those who stated that they had emigration desires.

Figure A1

Scree plot of eigenvalues after PCA