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Migration and Economic Well-being:

Insights from the CHAMPSEA III Survey

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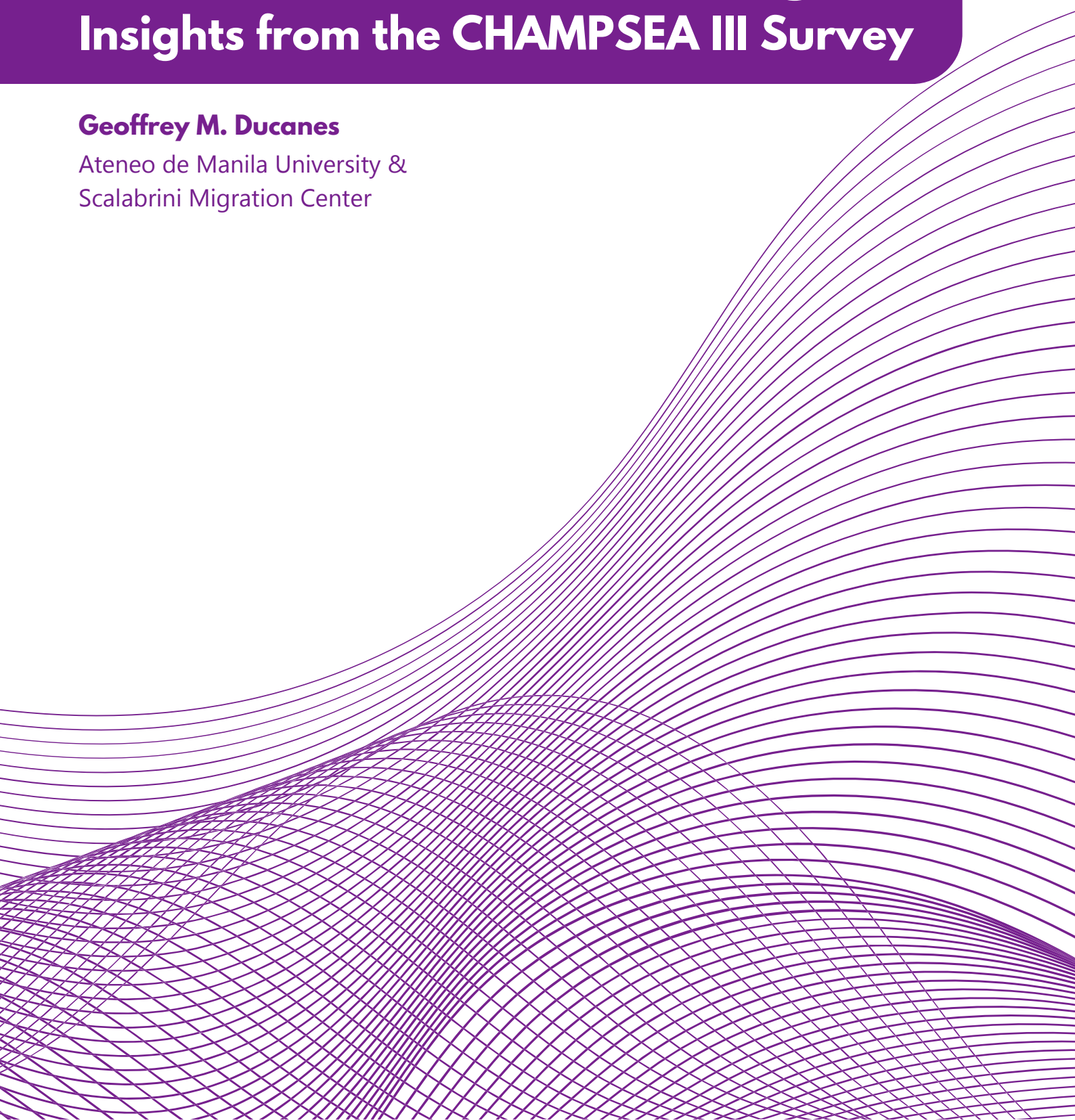

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Background and methodology

International migration is costly and risky for individuals and their households, but many Filipinos choose to take the leap for the chance at better employment opportunities and, consequently, improved economic conditions for their families. According to the 2018 National Migration Survey, about 9 out of every 10 Filipinos who have moved internationally have done so for employment or economic reasons (Tabuga et al., 2021, p.40).

Many previous studies have documented the association between international migration and household economic outcomes (for example, see Ducanes, 2015; Ang et al., 2009; Pernia, 2008). The typical findings of such studies are that international migration enables households, on average, (1) to earn more than they would have without migration, (2) to climb the income ladder, (3) to increase household spending, including on education and healthcare and (4) to invest or invest more, including in real estate properties.

The current study is part of an update of a previous study published in 2011 on the impact of parental migration on the health and well-being of Filipino children using Child Health and Migrant Parents in South-East Asia (CHAMPSEA) data (Asis & Ruiz-Marave, 2011). That study analyzed the first implementation of the CHAMPSEA survey in the Philippines, which was collected in 2008 and 2009 from about 1,000 children and other members of their households in two provinces of the Philippines (Bulacan and Laguna). Among the findings of that study related to economic well-being are that migrant households tend to come from higher wealth quintiles, receive more frequent remittances and a greater amount of remittances, the latter especially if the migrant is the father.

This study focuses on the association between international migration and economic well-being, utilizing the third wave of data collection of CHAMPSEA in the Philippines (also referred to as CHAMPSEA III), which included about 800 children and other members of their households. CHAMPSEA III was conducted in 2023 (see appendix for further information about the project).

This study expands on the previous study not just by using more recent data but also by looking at a greater array of economic outcomes that could be linked to international migration, including housing outcomes, ownership of durable goods, livestock, income, savings, debt and experience of hunger. Findings only reveal associations between migration and economic well-being rather than causation because the dataset used is only at one point in time and is non-experimental in nature.

It is easy to imagine channels, however, through which international migration could cause improvements in household economic well-being. Migration allows individuals to earn more, sometimes substantially more than they could earn working in their home country, even in the same occupation. Higher earnings remitted to households directly translates to higher household income. More indirectly, higher income from remittances could lead to more financial investments, greater engagement in entrepreneurial activities and also more spending on human capital, all of which could lead to even higher income for the migrant households and improved economic well-being.

This study employs bivariate analysis, relying mainly on cross-tabulations and comparisons of means and medians between migrant and non-migrant households. Statistical tests were employed to test associations between migration status and economic outcome variables. To test the association between migration status and categorical economic outcome variables, we used the Likelihood Ratio Chi-square test, which is a statistical method used to test if observed frequencies differ significantly from expected frequencies. To test the association between migration status and cardinal economic outcome variables, we use either the *t-test* (for testing

differences in means) or the Kruskal-Wallis test (for testing differences in medians).

In the analysis, migrant households refer to households that reported having at least one parent who was working abroad at the time of the survey. Non-migrant households refer to households that reported both parents living with their children. Non-migrant households are further divided into two subgroups: one group comprises households that never had a migrant parent (never-migrant households) and another group where at least one parent was previously a migrant (previous-migrant or ever migrant or returnee households). Because a history of previous international migration could have also affected economic outcomes, we test differences including and excluding the previous-migrant or returnee subgroup. In the sample, there were 501 non-migrant households and 321 migrant households. Of the 501 non-migrant households, 425 were never-migrant households and 71 were previous-migrant households (five households cannot be classified into either never-migrant or previous-migrant households).

Survey findings

Housing characteristics

Table 1 shows the comparison of migrant and non-migrant households in terms of housing outcomes. Migrant households were significantly more likely than non-migrant households to own the land on which their houses were built (77 percent vs. 63 percent). Migrant households were not significantly more likely than non-migrant households in total to own the house where they live, although they are marginally more likely than never-migrant households to do so (84 percent vs. 80 percent).

Migrant households lived in houses that were significantly bigger in size and had more rooms compared to non-migrant households. They were also more likely to live in houses that had stronger wall materials (94 percent vs. 90 percent). Migrant households were also significantly more likely to have bottled or mineral water as the main source of drinking water than non-migrant households (86 percent vs. 79 percent), who were more likely to rely on water piped into their dwelling, yard or plot. Migrant households were also significantly more likely than non-migrant households to have a hygienic toilet, specifically a flush toilet or one with a septic tank (95 percent vs. 88 percent).

Ownership of durable goods and livestock

Table 2 shows the comparison of migrant and non-migrant households in terms of ownership of durable goods and livestock. Migrant households were significantly more likely to own televisions (92 percent vs. 83 percent), satellite dishes or cable TV (32 percent vs. 21 percent), computers (48 percent vs. 32 percent), landline telephones (34 percent vs. 20 percent), refrigerators (88 percent vs. 66 percent), air-conditioners (57 percent vs. 25 percent) and electric ovens (97 percent vs. 94 percent). Migrant households had significantly more cars, on average, than non-migrant households. Migrant households were also marginally more likely to own asset in the form of land, property, stalls or shops than non-migrant households, although significantly much more likely compared only to never-migrant households (32 percent vs. 23 percent). A possible explanation is that previous-migrant or returnee households have already invested in these assets at a time when they were migrant households.

There was no significant difference between migrant and non-migrant households in ownership of mobile telephones and in the number of motorcycles owned. Almost all households have at least one mobile telephone, regardless of group. In the provinces, even in more urbanized areas, motorcycles are the primary means of transportation, and their relative affordability has moved them closer to being necessities than luxuries. There was also no significant difference between migrant and non-migrant households in terms of farm

Table 1. Migration status and housing characteristics.

	Non-migrant					Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant	Migrant	Overall		
Ownership of land on which house is built (%)						0.000	0.000
No	39.3	23.9	37.1	23.1	31.6		
Yes	60.7	76.1	62.9	77.0	68.4		
Ownership of house (%)						0.211	0.072
No	20.5	8.5	19.0	15.6	17.6		
Yes	79.5	91.6	81.0	84.4	82.4		
Mean size of house (square meters)	67.5	90.7	71.1	88.8	78.0	0.000	0.000
Median size of house (square meters)	60	80	60	77	70	0.000	0.000
Mean no. of rooms in the house	2.3	2.7	2.1	2.9	2.4	0.039	0.031
Median no. of rooms in the house	2	3	2	2	2	0.000	0.000
Main wall material (%)						0.028	0.015
Brick/concrete/ galvanized iron	89.3	94.4	90.16	94.4	91.8		
Others	10.7	5.6	9.84	5.6	8.2		
Roof material (%)						0.902	0.789
Concrete cement/ galvanized iron	95.5	97.1	95.77	96.0	95.8		
Others	4.5	2.9	4.23	4.1	4.2		
Source of drinking water (%)						0.023	0.012
Bottled/ mineral water	78.4	84.5	79.2	86.3	82.0		
Piped into dwelling/ yard/plot	15.8	9.9	14.8	8.7	12.4		
Other source	5.9	5.6	6.0	5.0	5.6		
Type of toilet (%)						0.001	0.001
Flush toilet / septic tank	88.0	88.7	88.2	95.0	90.88		
Pit latrine	12.0	11.3	11.8	5.0	9.12		
Total N	425	71	501	321	822		

Notes: (a) Five non-migrant households cannot be categorized into never-migrant or previous-migrant;
(b) Associations between categorical variables are tested using the Likelihood Ratio Chi-square test;
(c) Differences in means are tested using the t-test;
(d) Differences in medians (distribution) are tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 2. Migration status and ownership of durable goods and livestock.

	Non-migrant						
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant	Migrant	Overall	Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
Farm equipment (%)						0.185	0.368
No	96.9	93.0	96.2	97.8	96.8		
Yes	3.1	7.0	3.8	2.2	3.2		
Boat with motor ownership (%)						0.017	0.020
No	97.2	97.2	97.2	99.4	98.1		
Yes	2.8	2.8	2.8	0.6	2.0		
Land/property/stalls/ shops ownership (%)						0.057	0.012
No	76.9	62.0	74.7	68.5	72.3		
Yes	23.1	38.0	25.4	31.5	27.7		
Mean no. of cars	0.11	0.31	0.14	0.26	0.19	0.001	0.000
Mean no. of motors	0.77	0.97	0.80	0.85	0.82	0.423	0.212
Working TV ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	18.8	9.9	17.4	8.1	13.8		
Yes	81.2	90.1	82.6	91.9	86.3		
Satellite dish/ cable TV ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	79.7	78.9	79.4	67.6	74.8		
Yes	20.3	21.1	20.6	32.4	25.2		
Working computer ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	71.3	47.9	67.7	51.7	61.4		
Yes	28.7	52.1	32.3	48.3	38.6		
Working landline telephone ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	81.4	70.4	79.6	65.9	74.3		
Yes	18.6	29.6	20.4	34.1	25.7		
Working mobile telephone ownership (%)						0.552	0.458
No	0.7	0.0	0.6	0.3	0.5		
Yes	99.3	100.0	99.4	99.7	99.5		
Working refrigerator ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	37.9	12.7	34.1	11.8	25.4		
Yes	62.1	87.3	65.9	88.2	74.6		
Working air-conditioner ownership (%)						0.000	0.000
No	78.1	59.2	75.5	43.3	62.9		
Yes	21.9	40.9	24.6	56.7	37.1		
Working electric/gas oven/stove/cooker ownership (%)						0.017	0.008
No	7.1	2.8	6.4	2.8	5.0		
Yes	92.9	97.2	93.6	97.2	95.0		
Mean no. of cattle	0.01	0.09	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.774	0.381
Mean no. of sheep/ goats/pigs	0.16	0.10	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.927	0.879
Mean no. of poultry	0.80	2.09	0.97	0.49	0.78	0.245	0.432

Table 2. Migration status and ownership of durable goods and livestock. (continued)

	Non-migrant						
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant	Migrant	Overall	Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
Total N	425	71	501	321	822		

Notes: (a) Five non-migrant households cannot be categorized into never-migrant or previous-migrant;
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equipment ownership. For both groups, ownership of farm equipment was very low, possibly reflecting the more urban nature of the survey areas, where farming as an occupation is not as important. Relatedly, there is no significant difference in the number of cattle, poultry, pigs, goats or sheep owned by migrant and non-migrant households. Ownership of a boat with a motor was also very low for both groups and significantly higher for non-migrant households. Like farming, fishing does not seem to be an important occupation in the survey areas.

Household income

Table 3 shows the comparison of migrant and non-migrant households in terms of sources of household income in the past six months. Migrant households are significantly less likely than migrant households to receive income from local waged work or employment (48 percent vs. 81 percent). They are also less likely to receive income from self-employment (35 percent vs. 44 percent). There is no difference between migrant and non-migrant households in terms of receipt of money from government benefits. There is also no difference between the groups in terms of receipt of money from religious, charity or nongovernment organizations, which hardly any type of household reported receiving. Migrant households were marginally less likely to receive money from the Conditional Cash Transfer program of the government or the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) (4 percent vs. 7 percent).

As would be expected, migrant households were significantly more likely to receive money from individuals inside or outside the household (94 percent vs. 17 percent), which includes remittances. Note that it is possible in the survey responses for non-migrant households to receive remittances and for migrant households not to receive remittances. A non-migrant household can receive remittances from relatives who are not part of the household or from friends; a migrant household can also have periods when it does not receive any remittances, especially if the migrant has just left or only sends occasionally.

Among households that reported receiving remittances, the average monthly remittances received was 28,100 Philippine Pesos (PHP) for migrant households, which was significantly higher than the PHP 11,000 reported by non-migrant households. This was also higher than the average monthly amount of money received by non-migrant households from waged work (PHP 15,300) and self-employment (PHP 15,100), which is indicative of the higher income opportunities afforded by migration.

Savings, debt and social insurance

Table 4 shows the comparison of migrant and non-migrant households in terms of savings, debt and social insurance. Migrant households are significantly more likely to have savings than non-migrant households (40 percent vs. 23 percent). Comparing only households that reported having savings and reported an

Table 3. Migration status and household income.

	Non-migrant					Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant	Migrant	Overall		
Received money from waged work/ employment (%)						0.000	0.000
No	15.8	36.6	19.4	51.7	32.0		
Yes	84.2	63.4	80.6	48.3	68.0		
Received money from working for self / self-employed (%)						0.017	0.030
No	57.2	53.5	56.5	64.8	59.7		
Yes	42.8	46.5	43.5	35.2	40.3		
Received money from government benefits (%)						0.845	0.667
No	89.9	85.9	89.2	88.8	89.1		
Yes	10.1	14.1	10.8	11.2	11.0		
Received money from payments/benefits from religious/charity/ NGO organization (%)						0.965	0.901
No	99.3	100.0	99.4	99.4	99.4		
Yes	0.7	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.6		
Received money from individuals inside/outside the household, including family or friends (including remittances) (%)						0.000	0.000
No	85.7	71.8	83.4	5.9	53.2		
Yes	14.4	28.2	16.6	94.1	46.8		
Received money from CCT (%)						0.073	0.098
No	92.7	91.6	92.6	95.6	93.8		
Yes	7.3	8.5	7.4	4.4	6.2		
Received money from other sources (%)						0.409	0.403
No	98.4	98.6	98.4	99.1	98.7		
Yes	1.7	1.4	1.6	0.9	1.3		
Mean amount of money received from waged work/ employment (in PHP)	14,638	20,624	15,297	18,893	16,267	0.007	0.001
Mean amount of money received from self-employment (in PHP)	10,855	39,031	15,130	12,591	14,263	0.643	0.296
Mean amount of money received from individuals inside/outside the household, including family or friends (including remittances) (in PHP)	8,585	17,237	11,018	28,118	24,515	0.000	0.000

Table 3. Migration status and household income. (continued)

	Non-migrant			Migrant	Overall	Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant				
Total N	425	71	501	321	822		

Notes: (a) Five non-migrant households cannot be categorized into never-migrant or previous-migrant;
(b) Associations between categorical variables are tested using the Likelihood Ratio Chi-square test;
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amount, migrant households also have a significantly higher mean amount of money savings than non-migrant households (PHP 113,800 vs. PHP 66,600), although they do not differ significantly in terms of non-money savings. Migrant households are also significantly less likely to have a debt compared to non-migrant households (20 percent with debt for migrant households and 27 percent for non-migrant households), even if the act of international migration itself entails substantial costs.

Migrant households are also more likely than non-migrant households to have a parent or a carer who is a member of the Social Security System (SSS) (75 percent vs. 60 percent), PAG-IBIG (62 percent vs. 50 percent) and PhilHealth (82 percent vs. 71 percent), all suggesting greater access of migrant households to social insurance.

Hunger and the pandemic's effect on income

Table 5 shows the comparison of migrant and non-migrant households in terms of the experience of hunger and the impact of the pandemic on household income. Migrant households were significantly less likely than non-migrant households to experience having no food to eat of any kind because of a lack of resources to get food in the past 30 days (3 percent vs. 13 percent experienced at least once). Migrant households were also significantly less likely than non-migrant households to experience having at least one member go to sleep at night hungry because there was no food to eat in the past 30 days (2 percent vs. 7 percent experienced at least once). And finally, migrant households were marginally less likely than non-migrant households to have a member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food in the past 30 days (1 percent vs. 4 percent experienced at least once). Combined, these indicate that migrant households are significantly less likely to experience any form of food hunger than non-migrant households.

The income of migrant households was also more resilient to the pandemic than non-migrant households. A larger share of migrant households than non-migrant household reported their income either not changing significantly or even increasing from the pandemic up to the time of the CHAMPSEA survey (22 percent vs. 15 percent).

Table 4. Migration status and household savings, debt and social insurance.

	Non-migrant			Migrant	Overall	Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant				
Households with savings (%)						0.000	0.000
No	80.3	59.2	77.5	60.0	70.7		
Yes	19.7	40.9	22.5	40.0	29.3		
Mean amount of money savings (in PHP)	42,352	123,352	65,618	113,751	89,812	0.044	0.003
Mean amount of non-money savings (in PHP)	41,280	81,296	52,774	88,874	70,919	0.299	0.231
Debt status (%)						0.005	0.000
No debt	46.3	66.2	49.5	61.1	54.0		
Yes, formal	25.1	18.3	23.9	19.1	22.0		
Yes, informal	28.6	15.5	26.7	19.8	24.0		
Active membership of the parent/ carer in SSS						0.000	0.000
No	42.2	29.6	40.4	24.1	34.1		
Yes	57.8	70.4	59.6	75.9	65.9		
Active membership of the parent/ carer in PAG-IBIG						0.001	0.000
No	51.4	41.8	50.4	38.0	45.6		
Yes	48.6	58.2	49.6	62.0	54.4		
Active membership of the parent/ carer in PhilHealth						0.001	0.000
No	30.6	21.4	29.2	18.2	24.9		
Yes	69.4	78.6	70.8	81.8	75.1		
Total N	425	71	501	321	822		

Notes: (a) Five non-migrant households cannot be categorized into never-migrant or previous-migrant;
(b) Associations between categorical variables are tested using the Likelihood Ratio Chi-square test;
(c) Differences in means are tested using the t-test;
(d) Differences in medians (distribution) are tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 5. Migration status, hunger and the impact of the pandemic on income.

	Non-migrant			Migrant	Overall	Test of difference between Migrant and Non-migrant (p-value)	Test of difference between Migrant and Never-migrant (p-value)
	Never-migrant	Previous-migrant	Total Non-migrant				
How often household had no food to eat of any kind because of a lack of resources to get food in the past 30 days						0.000	0.000
Not at all	86.4	90.1	87.0	96.9	90.9		
Rarely (1-2 times)	8.0	5.6	7.6	1.6	5.2		
Sometimes (3-10 times)	5.2	4.2	5.0	1.3	3.5		
Often (more than 10 times)	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.4		
How often household or any household member went to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food in past 30 days						0.005	0.003
Not at all	92.0	95.8	92.6	97.8	94.7		
Rarely (1-2 times)	5.4	1.4	4.8	1.3	3.4		
Sometimes (3-10 times)	2.1	2.8	2.2	0.9	1.7		
Often (more than 10 times)	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.2		
How often any household member went a whole day and night without eating anything at all because there was not enough food in the past 30 days						0.069	0.072
Not at all	95.8	95.8	95.8	98.8	97.0		
Rarely (1-2 times)	3.5	2.8	3.4	0.9	2.4		
Sometimes (3-10 times)	0.5	1.4	0.6	0.3	0.5		
Often (more than 10 times)	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1		
Has household income changed significantly since the beginning of the pandemic up to the time of the survey?						0.016	0.015
No	10.6	12.7	11.0	18.1	13.8		
Yes, decreased	85.9	83.1	85.4	78.2	82.6		
Yes, increased	3.5	4.2	3.6	3.7	3.7		
Total N	425	71	501	321	822		

Notes: (a) Five non-migrant households cannot be categorized into never-migrant or previous-migrant;
(b) Associations between categorical variables are tested using the Likelihood Ratio Chi-square test;
(c) Differences in means are tested using the t-test;
(d) Differences in medians (distribution) are tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Conclusion

Using Wave 3 of the CHAMPSEA survey, this study compares the economic well-being of migrant households with non-migrant households. The findings from this study provide suggestive evidence of the economic advantages associated with international migration. We found migrant households compared to non-migrant households to:

- have better housing conditions
- own more durable goods
- receive higher income, primarily due to remittances
- be more likely to have savings and have higher savings
- be less likely to have debt
- be more likely to have a social insurance membership
- be less likely to experience hunger, and
- be less likely to have their income negatively affected by the pandemic.

These findings underscore the importance of international migration as an economic strategy for Filipino families. International migration is fraught with risks, such as the risk of trafficking and falling into debt, but it also serves as a pathway to a better life for many Filipino households. Even as the Philippine economy has been growing consistently, with Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth averaging five percent per year from 2008, when Wave 1 of the CHAMPSEA survey was done up to the present, and even as the overall unemployment rate in the country has declined from 7.4 percent to 3.8 percent in the same period, Filipino worker deployment abroad is unabated. In 2023, for example, roughly half a million Filipinos were deployed abroad as new hires (Department of Migrant Workers, 2023).

For a minority, labor migration is permanent, such as for those who transfer permanent residence abroad or even those who spend their whole working life abroad but return home to retire, but for many, it is just temporary. For the latter, there is danger that the economic benefits of international migration could also be just temporary and remain only for so long as they continue to receive remittances. In this regard, the importance of providing migrant workers and their households with financial education, especially for financial planning and the use of remittances remains very important.

Fortunately, the evidence from this study is positive, with migrant households allocating more to items that could have a longer-term impact on household well-being, such as housing, social insurance, savings and food. Children's education is another form of long-term investment. Another study using an earlier wave of CHAMPSEA found that children in migrant households, particularly those where it is the father who works abroad and the mother who stays home as carer, have positive school outcomes when it comes to school pacing and school achievement (Asis & Ruiz-Marave, 2014).

The economic impact on families is just one aspect of migration, however, and one should also look at its other aspects, including its social impact and broader national impact. For instance, the reduced participation in the local labor market of skilled Filipino professionals, such as nurses and other healthcare workers, suggests potential opportunity costs and community-level implications that need to be further examined. The continuing challenge is how to maximize the benefits of migration while strengthening local economic and employment opportunities and ensuring that the gains from overseas employment contribute to broader regional and national development.

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Appendix

About CHAMPSEA

As in other parts of the world, in Southeast Asia, many parents leave their families to work abroad in the hopes of providing a better, brighter future for their children. However, parental absence has fueled concerns about children growing up without one or both parents, casting doubts on the hoped-for benefits from working abroad.

The Child Health and Migrant Parents in South-East Asia (CHAMPSEA) research project was launched to examine the impact of parental migration on the health and well-being of the children remaining in the origin communities. Since destination countries in Asia do not allow migrant workers in less skilled occupations to bring their families with them, migrants and their families are separated, with the latter being left behind in the origin countries. CHAMPSEA collected data in four origin countries—Indonesia, the Philippines, Vietnam and Thailand—to provide a comparative perspective on how the absence of parents due to migration affect the children who remain at home. The longitudinal and mixed methods design and the comparison between migrant and non-migrant households add to the unique and strong features of the project. For the baseline survey, the children of interest to CHAMPSEA (referred to as the index child per household) were young children in the formative years (3-5 years old) and children in middle childhood (9-11 years old), an age group that is under-researched compared to young children and adolescents. These children and their families were tracked, revisited and reinterviewed in two further rounds of data collection in Indonesia and the Philippines.

The first wave or baseline survey, CHAMPSEA I, was conducted in 2008, covering circa 1,000 households in each country, followed by qualitative interviews with a small number of households in 2009. In 2016, CHAMPSEA II tracked and reinterviewed 756 households in the Philippines, supplemented by qualitative interviews with selected households in 2017. CHAMPSEA III was carried out in 2023, reinterviewing the tracked households and drawing a new sample of 506 households with young children. Combining the tracked households from the previous surveys and the new sample, 1,506 unique households were enrolled in CHAMPSEA in the Philippines

For each Wave, 2 to 3 face-to-face interviews were conducted in each sampled household involving a responsible adult (a person who is knowledgeable about household matters), a carer (someone who was identified as the main carer of 3-5 years old and 9-11 years old children), the index child aged 9-11 years old or the young adult (the index child aged approximately 17-21 years old) at the time of the follow-up survey. An overview of how the children were followed up at different points in time and the respondents per sampled household are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. Research participants in CHAMPSEA I, II and III.

Age of index child (at first interview)	2008 CHAMPSEA I	2016 CHAMPSEA II	2023 CHAMPSEA III
3-5 years old	3-5 years old (2 interviews: Responsible adult; Carer)	11-13 years old (3 interviews: Responsible adult, Carer, Index child)	17-21 years old (2 interviews: Responsible adult; Young adult)
9-11 years old	9-11 years old (3 interviews: Responsible adult; Carer; Index child)	17-19 years old (2 interviews: Responsible adult; Young adult)	-
3-6 years old (new sample)	-	-	3-6 years old (2 interviews: Responsible adult; Carer)

In the Philippines, CHAMPSEA was implemented in two high out-migration provinces in Luzon, Laguna (San Pablo City and Bay) and Bulacan (Malolos City and Calumpit). As in the other countries, the project adopted a flexible quota sampling design to ensure a sufficient number of migrant households with key features. The sample is not nationally representative. The sampling considered two-parent households, the migration status of the household, the gender of the migrant parent, and the gender and age of the index child (3-5 years old and 9-11 years old) in the first survey. The project defined an international or transnational migrant household as one where the father, mother or both parents have been working abroad continuously for at least six months prior to the survey, while a usual resident or non-migrant household means both parents and the index child were living together continuously for at least six months prior to the survey. In the recruitment of a fresh sample of households with young children in CHAMPSEA III, the Philippines adopted the same adjustments that were made in Indonesia: the six months of continuously working abroad to define international migration was reduced to one month, and the age range of young children was extended to 3-6 years old from 3-5 years old.

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For a list of journal articles, reports and multi-media knowledge products from CHAMPSEA, see https://ari.nus.edu.sg/champseapublications/

Filipinos have gone global in the search for employment opportunities and higher incomes for more than five decades. The family is the reason why migrants leave the comforts of home, the site of migration decision-making, the direct beneficiary of the benefits of migration, and the all-around safety net of its members throughout their individual and family life stages. The Child Health and Migrant Parents in South-East Asia (CHAMPSEA) research project inquires into the impact of transnational labor migration on the families and children left-behind in origin communities while fathers, mothers or both parents work abroad. Conducted in the Philippines and Indonesia in three waves—in 2008, 2016 and 2023—findings from the CHAMPSEA project provide insights on the family as it strives to meet the economic, social, care and emotional needs of its members amid the changing geography of family life.

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