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The relationship between skills training and migration aspirations

Evidence from Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria

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The relationship between skills training programmes and migration aspirations: evidence from Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria

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Abstract:

There is strong interest amongst donors in shaping the decisions of prospective migrants from the Global South – often to steer them towards regular migration pathways but also to dissuade them from leaving in the first place. Skills training programmes are one popular policy instrument in this area and are frequently implemented with the (implicit) assumption that if people participate in them then their migration aspirations are likely to diminish. Yet there is extremely limited evidence to back up such thinking. This study sets out to address this critical knowledge gap by examining whether – and in what ways specifically – skills training programmes may be associated with migration aspirations in Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria, asking: ‘How do people’s experiences with skills training programmes influence their livelihood activity and migration aspirations?’ To answer this, we draw on original survey data from two sites within each of the three countries that captures the perspectives and experiences of both programme participants and non-participants alike. The results from the study show a positive association between participating in a skills training programme and migration aspirations, with particularly strong and consistent results for the sample from Bangladesh. Skills training participation is also positively associated with work and livelihood outcomes – in particular the likelihood of actively seeking new employment. However, the results also show that skills training participants found it difficult to find employment in their local areas. Our findings therefore show that the relationship between skills trainings, migration aspirations and work / livelihoods is far from the straightforward association that policy makers often assume when they use skills trainings as a migration management tool. On the one hand, skills trainings potentially attract those that already want to migrate or strengthen latent migration aspirations. On the other hand, if the skills learnt cannot easily be applied locally, this may make it hard for participants to find jobs in their local area and encourage them to look further afield for better options. To diminish migration aspirations, trainings must be targeted to local labour markets.

Keywords: skills training, TVET, migration aspirations, livelihoods

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1. Introduction

When people learn new skills, does it change the way they think about migration? This is the premise of an idea that has become central to externalised forms of European migration management in recent years. Under the broad if vague rubric of ‘addressing root causes’, bilateral development aid and EU funds have been increasingly poured into skills development programmes and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) schemes, across a diverse range of Global South contexts, in the hope that doing so will help prevent people from leaving for Europe by giving them better employment prospects at home.

At a general level, the ‘root cause’ logic at work here operates through a core assumption that migration from the Global South occurs primarily ‘as a response to development failures’ (Hammond et al., 2024). The role of policy intervention under this influential framing is then to fix those failures by attempting to ‘improve the economic, social and political conditions in places of origin with the aim of reducing aspirations to migrate internationally by making it more feasible and desirable to stay’ (Vargas-Silva et al., 2023). Recasting a wide range of different forms of traditional development support as ‘migration management’, these interventions target a variety of conditions and issues: from agricultural production and local corruption to basic service delivery and job creation (Carling & Talleraas, 2016; FAO, 2016; Vargas-Silva et al., 2023). In many cases, skills development is seen as the best way forward.

Rather than focusing on trying to alter contextual conditions in places of origin, skills development – when seen through a ‘root causes’ lens – is about enhancing human capacity at an individual level so that people become (or at least *feel*) more equipped to make a decent, desirable living locally without having to migrate elsewhere. Whereas job creation schemes often take decades before real effects are seen and can be extremely expensive and resource-intensive, with the creation of a single new job often requiring huge sums of investment (Vargas-Silva et al., 2023), skills training programmes and TVET initiatives represent more affordable alternatives with the potential to target high numbers of people in relatively short timeframes. They are also classic, ‘bread-and-butter’ forms of development intervention with a long track record of implementation, a perpetually strong institutional position within mainstream programming and an amenability to quantifiable output measurement (McGrath & Lugg, 2012), thus representing a relatively ‘safe bet’ for new business cases – even as these strive to achieve ever more ambitious objectives – as well as a politically useful way of demonstrating that ‘something’ is being done, visibly and tangibly, to ‘tackle’ migration.

It is partly for these reasons that skills development, delivered through targeted training programmes and TVET schemes, has become increasingly central to ‘root causes’ migration policy over the past decade or so (Talleraas, 2025). At the EU level, this started to become particularly evident with the 2015 European Agenda on Migration and, in the same year, the Valletta Summit on Migration, where the EU Emergency Trust Fund for Africa was launched with an initial backing of €1.8 billion and a goal of ‘addressing the root causes of irregular migration and promoting economic and equal opportunities, security and development’ (Juncker, 2015). A year later, the European Commission’s Partnership Framework with Third Countries signalled a further commitment to using European funds to tackle the drivers of migration towards the continent, again with a particular emphasis on stemming irregular migration (Langthaler & Gündüz, 2020).





But while the idea of deploying skills development as a form of migration management has gained considerable policy traction – and funding – in recent years, a key problem persists: we are still not sure whether such an approach actually works. The relationships between skilling, livelihoods and migration decision making represent a critically overlooked area sitting at the intersection of development studies and migration studies, attracting extremely limited empirical and / or theoretical engagement over the past decade despite their increasing prominence within the mainstream ‘root causes’ policy agenda. As Section 2 below also illustrates, whenever these relationships *do* come into focus they tend to be framed in terms of prevention and deterrence, thus implicitly reinforcing the presumed logics of orthodox ‘root causes’ thinking (i.e. ‘migration as a “failure” of development’ / ‘development as a solution to the migration “problem”’) whilst simultaneously shutting down wider, less deterministic ways of thinking about and approaching the links between these issues.

1.1 Research questions

Our paper responds to this evidence gap. Drawing on original survey data from three countries frequently positioned as major ‘countries of origin’ – Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria – it sheds new empirical light on the *possible* role of skills development as a tool of externalised migration management. Specifically, it does so through exploratory statistical analysis of the (potential) relationships between people’s participation in skills training programmes, their livelihood and employment situations and – crucially – their migration aspirations.

Applying a range of descriptive and econometric techniques to data from more than 3,000 respondents across the three countries, the paper addresses a series of research questions that drove the design and implementation of this study. Reflecting the open, exploratory nature of our approach, the overarching research question is:

How do people’s experiences with skills training programmes influence their livelihood activity and migration aspirations?

A more targeted set of sub-research questions follows, helping us to identify more concrete entry points for analysis:

1. *What are people’s perceptions of their livelihood and employment opportunities locally, nationally and internationally (including the main economic challenges they see)?*
2. *To what extent are people aware of the presence and content of local skills trainings?*
3. *To what extent are programme participants satisfied with the relevance of the content and delivery of skills trainings?*
4. *How does the awareness of, presence of, or participation in skills trainings influence people’s livelihood preferences – with a particular emphasis on the geography of these preferences?*
5. *To what extent does participation in skills trainings influence people’s thinking about specific migration pathways – with a particular emphasis on attitudes towards irregular migration options?*





By using these various sub-research questions to guide our thinking, we are able to not only generate much-needed insight into the links between skills development and migration aspirations, but also contribute new data to the question of what these training programmes actually look like in practice – that is, *after* they have been implemented. Given the dominant position of training modalities across multiple strands of mainstream development policy and practice, from youth employment programming (Flynn et al., 2017) to state capacity building (Denney et al., 2017), this represents critical information that may be used to scrutinise and refine what we might term the donor industry’s ‘training reflex’ (i.e. its perpetual recourse to training-based policy interventions).

1.2 Structure of the paper

We begin in **Section 2** by situating our study in relevant (albeit limited) literature on the relationship between skills development and migration aspirations, before laying out some core conceptual foundations and directions that we look to build on.

In **Section 3** we introduce the cross-country survey carried out as part of this study, covering key elements of its design and implementation. It should be noted here that in this paper we do not provide a detailed overview of either the socio-economic contexts in which this survey was administered or the wider policy landscapes, migration patterns and skilling initiatives relevant to Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria. For this, we refer readers to GS4S Working Paper No. 4 – see Abdel Fattah et al. (2024).

Before diving into a more detailed discussion of our analytical approach, we then turn in **Section 4** to an overview of the skills training programmes under study. Drawing on descriptive data from our survey respondents, we present core information here about how ‘non-participants’ perceive these schemes and how ‘participants’ perceive as well as experience them.

Section 5 is where we go into detail about our handling of the data. Here, we discuss: i) data cleaning; ii) our choice and application of statistical models; and iii) and our key dependent and independent variables.

In **Section 6** we present the results from our regression analysis, focusing first on the relationship between skills trainings and livelihood outcomes and second on the relationship between skills trainings and migration aspirations.

Section 7 provides a broader discussion of these results that situates the paper’s key findings within wider literature and policy debates.

Finally, in **Section 8**, we return to our overarching research question and provide concluding thoughts.





2. Literature review and conceptual framing

As outlined in the introduction to this paper, the idea that it is possible to control migration flows through skills development and TVET programming in ‘countries of origin’ has gained considerable policy traction in recent years. In terms of the available empirical evidence, however, we actually know very little about how this relationship works in practice. Writing at the turn of the decade, (Langthaler & Gündüz, 2020) point out that academic discussion of what they call the ‘migration – vocational education nexus’ is ‘only at an early stage’, highlighting the clear absence of research-based evidence in this area and calling for ‘both more data as well as a more nuanced understanding of the processes’ at work. Part of the issue, they explain, is that TVET and skills trainings are ‘hardly ever’ treated as specific variables of interest in migration studies, but instead subsumed within broader analyses of ‘education’ or ‘development’ as potential drivers of migration.

In the years since, there has been some progress on this but only to a limited extent. Representing one of the few directly relevant contributions, (Hammond et al., 2024) report on a key mixed-method study carried out by the (Research and Evidence Facility (REF), 2019) in Ethiopia and Uganda, which explicitly set out to determine the extent to which people’s thinking about, and plans for, migration had shifted as a result of their participation in TVET programming. Findings from this work reveal a far more ambiguous picture than mainstream policy framings construct, with high levels of variability across research sites. In Ethiopia, for example, relatively low shares of surveyed TVET graduates stated a greater desire to move upon completion (between 15 and 21%), compared to 70% amongst respondents in Uganda. At the same time, their insights suggest that people’s post-TVET migration plans tended to centre more around relatively local forms of mobility – such as ‘to the nearest city where they had a chance of finding employment using their new skills and education’ (Hammond et al., 2024) – than making big moves internationally. Just 6% of respondents in Ethiopia, for example, were thinking about migrating further afield to Europe, South Africa or the US. The research also found that pre-existing migration aspirations were *not* decisive in shaping people’s decision to participate in TVET programming in the first place, with only small shares of respondents linking their enrolment with the idea that participation would ‘make it easier to move’.

Slightly more recently, a review of EU-funded interventions to address irregular migration in / from Africa finds only limited evidence of any meaningful impact on migration aspirations (Talleraas, 2025). The review puts forward a number of potential reasons for this, including: short-term training modalities (which may be insufficient to generate sustained change); a predominance of top-down, funder-driven design and implementation processes (leading to interventions that are detached from local needs, priorities and interests); and the relatively minor role that small-scale interventions are likely to play in the face of deeper structural migration drivers (such as violence, corruption and lack of local labour demand). To complement the higher-level review, (Talleraas, 2025) draws on recent case study research in Ghana to drill down further into questions of TVET effectiveness in a concrete setting (carried out as part of the EFFEXT research project on externalised European migration management across Africa and the Middle East). Here, interviews with project participants show that although training interventions were generally well-received, ‘questions about their long-term effectiveness, especially in terms of sustainable income as well as migration aspirations, were widespread’ (*ibid.*: 26). The review continues:

Beneficiaries often appreciated the immediate assistance, but noted that limited follow-up, lack of material inputs and inadequate support structures left them





uncertain about the future viability of their activities. *Some had re-evaluated their migration intentions, including [for] both irregular and regular migration, but others explained that whether or not they would migrate depended on their situation in the years ahead, while not attributing major relevance to the support received (ibid.: 26, emphasis added).*

A separate review by (Fogli et al., 2025) examines EUTF interventions specifically in the Horn of Africa (HoA) region designed to address the root causes of irregular migration and displacement. Of 47 projects implemented across seven countries, 17 focused on addressing employment and livelihoods – including through TVET programming, entrepreneurship support, financial inclusion and direct facilitation of access to employment. While some form of skills training featured in 13 of these, the authors note that an assessment of impact, both in relation to livelihood outcomes and migration governance, was made difficult ‘due to limited evidence at our disposal: in the vast majority of projects the impact of training was in fact not assessed in the medium to long term and in no case linked to an actual impact on employment, whether formal or informal’ (Fogli et al., 2025). Reflecting this, project reports tended to focus on outputs (such as number of participants enrolled) and participants’ perceptions of training quality, but rarely provided any information ‘on the extent to which those who received training were able to access new or better forms of employment’ (*ibid.*: 19).

Nonetheless, the EUTF review provides a few key insights into the links between training, employment and migration aspirations. There is a notable tension, for example, between the stronger sense of employability that some trainees develop through the course of their participation in skills trainings (including through trainings that target soft skills), and the limited job opportunities in their surrounding area which these trainings are unable to directly affect. Across a number of projects, participants gained confidence in facing the labour market and were stimulated to engage in job searches; however, their ability to actually secure employment was often constrained by a ‘significant gap between demand and supply of skills at the local level’ (*ibid.*: 19). Though the authors do not say it explicitly, this raises interesting questions about the potential for unintended consequences from a mobility perspective. Specifically, to what extent might the tension between improvements in subjective employability on the one hand and still-limited local access to material employment on the other generate new frustrations that then drive participants to seek work elsewhere? Along similar lines, the review draws on a final evaluation of one training project in Uganda to show that, because local employers only had limited capacity to absorb new workers, graduates of the project could only be hired on a seasonal basis, ultimately leading to ‘more casual employment opportunities than permanent positions’ (*ibid.*: 19). In situations like these, to what extent might the quality of subsequent employment – in this case, seasonal and casual – likewise drive newly-emboldened project participants further afield in search of better forms of work?

In addition to these cross-project insights, the EUTF review also directly (if briefly) addresses the relationship between skills trainings and migration aspirations by drawing on evaluation findings from one project in Ethiopia targeting refugees and their host communities. In contrast to what is often implicitly assumed to happen, evaluators found that ‘despite any economic advancement, increased sense of belonging or a bigger social network, the overwhelming majority of refugees [participating in the project] would still take the chance to move to a third and ideally more prosperous country if they had the opportunity’ (*ibid.*: 19, emphasis in original), with a similar finding even applying to members of the host community who had also participated in the project. Skills





training in this particular case appears to have primarily served ‘as a mitigating measure [for] alleviating hardships and improving well-being while refugees wait to leave for a more promising environment’ (*ibid.*: 19), thus reaffirming the idea that such programming may have only limited dampening effects on people’s migration aspirations in contexts with weak local economies and poor jobs prospects (see also (Mallett et al., 2017). It is against this backdrop of seemingly inevitable (onward) migration that the review’s authors ask ‘whether skills development interventions for locals and displaced persons should also focus on creating talents that are employable in other countries’ (Fogli et al., 2025).

Moving on, there are two broader points to make here that set up the remainder of this section. The first is that, these recent contributions notwithstanding, focused literature on the ‘migration – vocational education nexus’ (Langthaler & Gündüz, 2020) remains extremely thin. Despite their central placement in EU migration and development policy, discussions of skills training programmes continue to lack any real migration or mobility angle; no doubt partly a reflection of what data gets generated and subsequently made available through project completion reports (see Fogli et al., 2025). Though we continue to gather ever more valuable insights into the nature, limits, biases and underlying drivers of skills training programmes across the global South (Brown & De Neve, 2024; Fox & Kaul, 2018; Harris, 2023; McKenzie et al., 2025), our understanding of their effects on migration dynamics remains woefully underdeveloped. Put simply: the problem here is not that we know ‘they don’t work’ in shaping migration aspirations, but rather that we still largely in the dark about this question.

The second point is that when the mobility angle *does* feature as part of these discussions, we continue to find this framed in ways that emphasise the potential of skills development to *reduce* or *prevent* migration (Dempster & Ricou, 2026), rather than to consider the wider range of possibilities and processes that may be at work. Writing specifically about TVET, Dempster and Ricou (2026) observe not only that ‘TVET programs are largely judged by their placement rates *within* the country of implementation’ (emphasis in original), but also that ‘mobility is often seen as a *failure* of TVET to adequately prepare people for the local labor market and connect training programs with employer needs’ (emphasis added). This narrow, one-dimensional way of approaching the mobility question forecloses more open lines of enquiry that have the potential to contribute a richer set of insights – and which we hope to at least partly address through this study.

2.1. Towards some conceptual foundations and directions

Following this, our conceptual starting point in this paper is to frame the relationship between skills development and migration aspirations as an open question leading in multiple possible directions. We do not see the ‘nexus’ as taking a fixed, universal or predetermined form, but are rather more interested in prising open aspects of how it may work in particular contexts and under particular conditions. This reflects in turn an understanding of migration as a complex, multi-faceted and non-linear phenomenon; irreducible to a single cause or predictable decision-making dynamics, and difficult (if not impossible) to control fully through specific policy interventions (Carling et al., 2024). Whilst we acknowledge the important role of individual agency in driving migration journeys, at the same time we also recognise the wider social, economic and political structures in which acts of agency occur – and which frequently, and in all manner of ways, closely shape not just the nature of migration but the likelihood of it happening at all (Bakewell, 2010; Van Hear et al., 2018).





Relatedly, there is also a distinction between migration *aspirations* and migration *capabilities/abilities* (Carling, 2002; Carling & Schewel, 2018; De Haas, 2021). People may harbour a strong desire to migrate abroad for, say, better employment opportunities (aspiration), but they may lack the means to do so or struggle to access the right kind of migration ‘infrastructure’ (capability/ability). For the purpose of our study, this distinction is important to bear in mind: even where we may detect a change in some people’s aspirations to migrate as a result of their participation in a skills training programme, there are no guarantees that this psychological change will materialise into actual movement. Conversely, in situations where we may find very little evidence of any relationship between migration and skills trainings, migration may still take place further down the line in response to other kinds of drivers or openings.

Reflecting the open-ended, exploratory nature of our research approach, there are a range of possible relationships – and indeed, *non*-relationships – between migration aspirations and skills trainings that we may plausibly expect to see in the data. Though we do not adopt these as formal hypotheses as such, and therefore do not set out to either confirm or falsify them through specific statistical tests, they are nonetheless useful for framing our subsequent analysis and discussion.

1. *Participation in skills training programmes reduces people’s aspiration to migrate*
 - This represents the orthodox policy position / narrative (i.e. ‘addressing root causes of migration’).
 - The underlying logic is that by participating in skills trainings and developing new vocational / technical skills, participants (i.e. ‘would-be migrants’) become better equipped either to navigate their local labour market and find productive, rewarding and higher paid work within it or to set up their own business.
 - Key / illustrative references: (European Commission, 2015); (UN General Assembly, 2019).
2. *Participation in skills training programmes strengthens people’s aspiration to migrate*
 - This represents the key counter-position to the orthodox policy narrative; we might think of it as the ‘unintended consequences’ framing.
 - The underlying logic is that by developing new vocational / technical skills and / or gaining a stronger subjective sense of employability, training participants feel better equipped and more confident to pursue a livelihood elsewhere – in a different labour market, either within their own country or abroad, offering more prosperous or aspirational opportunities. Upskilling may also be linked to a kind of ‘horizon shift’, in which the acquisition of new knowledge and expertise expands one’s perception of what sort of future might be possible / attainable.
 - Key / illustrative references: (Migali et al., 2018); (Research and Evidence Facility (REF), 2019).
3. *Participation in skills training programmes has the potential to influence people’s migration aspirations in different ways and directions, but only under certain conditions*
 - This represents a more nuanced perspective on the ‘migration – vocational education’ nexus that frames the relationship as ‘indeterminate and conditional’.
 - The underlying logic is that, because migration aspirations / decision making are complex and multi-faceted, it is impossible to ascribe a fixed, universal effect to skills trainings. Instead, there may be some influence (either way) under certain contextual conditions, such as: the content, relevance and quality of the training programme; local





labour market conditions, including the availability of well-paid, decent work; the relative local presence or absence of things like corruption, security and violence; and people's access to migration infrastructure.

- Key / illustrative references: (Abdel Fattah et al., 2024); (van Diemen, 2019).
4. *Participation in skills training programmes has no impact on people's migration aspirations*
 - This represents something akin to a 'null finding' framing.
 - The underlying logic is that migration aspirations, decisions and movements are primarily driven by broader, deeper structural factors in combination with highly subjective individual-level dynamics, and that narrow, intervention-based attempts to alter – let alone control – them are largely futile.
 - Key / illustrative references: (Castles, 2004); (Talleraas, 2025).
 5. *Migration aspirations shape people's participation in skills training programmes*
 - This represents the 'reverse causality' framing.
 - The underlying logic is that many of the alternative framings already described have essentially got their causal chains back to front. Rather than skills acquisition and development driving migration, the idea here is that people self-select into skills training programmes when they already hold strong aspirations to migrate. This may be because they believe having a stronger skillset and qualification portfolio will benefit them in the places they are already planning to head, or that they think participation may expose them to new contacts or opportunities that may open doors abroad – i.e. participation helps people *realise* pre-existing aspirations. On the other hand, it might be possible that having strong migration aspirations is simply symptomatic of greater openness to trying new things and taking risks more broadly.
 - Key / illustrative references: (Czaika & Weisner, 2025); (Fargues, 2017).





3. Survey design and implementation

Methodologically, this study is based on data generated through an original cross-country survey implemented between June and December 2025. In this section we discuss the design of this survey and our sampling strategy, before briefly covering some practical points regarding its implementation.

3.1. Survey design and sampling

The overall objective of the survey was to understand how people's awareness of or participation in skills trainings influences their livelihood and migration preferences – across a range of sites in Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria. This meant that we wanted to interview those that have participated in skills trainings (i.e. 'participants') and compare them to a similar population of 'non-participants'.

The three countries had all been included in the GS4S project as key migration countries of origin. Bangladesh is currently the eighth-largest labour-sending country globally, with the majority of migrants going to the Gulf region; approximately 1.13 million workers migrated officially in 2025 (Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training, 2025). Egypt, meanwhile, has a long history of emigration, with numbers in recent years being close to a million departures per year (Abdel Fattah et al., 2024). Migration, both internal and international, has long been a defining feature of Nigeria, and the country has a diaspora of approximately 17 million (Okunade, 2026).

To allow for potential regional variation within these countries we opted to have two sites per country, selecting these on the basis of migration trends, locations of skills trainings and livelihood profiles (drawing on insights shared by key informants to aid our choices). In Bangladesh, the two sites were Dhaka Division (Dhaka district) and Khulna Division (Khulna district); in Egypt, they were 6th October City (in Greater Cairo) and Fayoum City; and in Nigeria, Ikorodu (in Lagos) and Ekpoma (in Edo State). Our aim was to achieve a sample size of 500 per site / 1,000 per country, with an approximately 50:50 split between participants and non-participants, thus allowing for a 'between-group' analysis that can detect statistically significant differences.

Given the time and budget available for the survey, it was not possible to design it as a longitudinal or RCT study, which means the survey is not able to account for the specific *impact* of having participated in a skills training. To partially compensate for this, we used two techniques to try and make the control group as similar as possible to the 'treatment' (i.e. participant) group. First, by administering the survey to non-participants living in the same area where trainings were conducted; and second, to only sample respondents within the same age frame as training participants (18-39 for Egypt and Nigeria, 18-60 for Bangladesh¹).

However, despite these efforts, when comparing participant and non-participant groups post-data collection, we realized that there are some observable differences in terms of demographic characteristics (see

¹ In practice, respondents are of similar ages in practice, across all groups: Bangladesh: 31.65 years; Egypt: 30.97 years; Nigeria: 33.34 years.





Table 13, Table 14, Table 15) On the one hand, participants were more likely to be younger than non-participants, while also less likely to be married, to be the household head, or to live in the same household as children under the age of 17. On the other hand, participants were more likely to have higher education levels. As access to trainings is not randomly allocated within the population, these differences make sense: participants are generally expected to meet certain criteria to apply (e.g. minimum education level) and are theoretically more likely to take part in trainings if they do not have pre-existing family commitments. Fortunately, we are able to control for these observable differences – and others such as some personality traits that we included in the survey – in the analysis.

In terms of selecting training programmes for inclusion in the survey, we originally determined a specific set of criteria, including a minimum duration of at least three months and a mix of interventions that either facilitate legal migration, discourage migration or have no explicit migration focus. In practice, however, it was not possible to find interventions across all countries that met these criteria. Due to the nature of skills training programmes, poor post-training monitoring and data protection requirements, in some cases it proved extremely challenging to find training providers / leads that agreed to support the survey (as our sampling strategy required the use of participant lists). We therefore had no choice but to adapt some of our criteria. In Egypt, for example, we ended up including a majority of participants with short training durations (some of the trainings in the other two countries were also much shorter than we had originally anticipated).

Table 1 below provides an overview of the trainings we ultimately included, and for which we were able to access participants.

Table 1. Overview of skills trainings covered in the survey

Name of training	Objective	Migration focus	Sectors	Duration	Number of participants
Technical Training Centre (TTC) (Bangladesh)	Enhance technical skills for local and international markets.	Some centres also offer migration preparation trainings	Construction, IT, Care	1-6 months	50,000+
Integrated Technology Education Cluster - (Intermediate Technological College (ITEC) (Fayoum) (Egypt)	Pilot Model of Technical Education to serve the industrial sectors of national priority.	No	Mechatronics, technology, and industrial automation	Up to two years	215
School of Continuing Education (SCE) (Egypt)	Skilling program covering a range of topics from teaching methods, classroom management, IT and gamification in teaching, psychological health of	No	Teacher training	90 hours taught over 8 weeks	170





	learners, and assessment methods.				
National Academy for Science and Skills (NASS) Academy (Egypt)	Upskill Egypt's workforce to meet the growing needs of different industries in the local market	No	ICT	350 hours	10,000+ (across all sectors)
SAIL Innovation Lab (Ikorodu) (Nigeria)	Build technology, business and digital skills of youth (various programmes)	None	ICT	3-6 months	5,000 +
Skills Development for Youth Employment (SKYE) II (Ekpoma) (Nigeria)	Access to the labour market for current and future trainees and job seekers in selected Nigerian states has improved.	Discourage migration	agriculture, construction, film industry, fashion, and ICT.	3-6 months	30,000+

As much as possible, we wanted to adhere to random sampling principles so that our sample is approximately representative of the overall population. For the participants sample we randomly selected participants off the participant list, either doing this ourselves or having the training provider perform the task instead.² For non-participants we sampled households using a 'systematic random walk' in randomly selected clusters within the research area as developed by (Hagen-Zanker et al., 2023). Once at the household level, a respondent was randomly surveyed amongst all adults within the specified age range. For non-participants we sampled household using a systematic random walk, in randomly selected clusters within the research area, as developed by (Hagen-Zanker et al., 2023). Within households, a respondent was randomly surveyed amongst all adults within the specified age range.

The survey instrument itself was primarily designed by the ODI Global team, drawing on lessons and survey items from existing surveys (particularly the MIGNEX survey – see Hagen-Zanker et al., 2023), and extensively reviewed by the AUC, NEST and OKUP teams. It was revised repeatedly to keep it to a duration of no more than 45 minutes per interview and for country-specific sensitivities. The vast majority of survey instrument content remained the same across all countries to allow for comparability in analysis, with minor country-specific tailoring where needed. We carefully followed a process of blind double translation from English, comparing translations and then selecting the most adequate translation, to ensure a clear, non-jargony interview and to ultimately improve data quality. All survey instrument content, as well as protocols surrounding its implementation, were reviewed and signed off by both the ODI Internal Review Board and the ethics officer at Radboud University.

3.2. Data collection

In Bangladesh and Nigeria, data collection was implemented by GS4S partners OKUP and the NEST. In Egypt, the survey was delivered by DevGate with support from AUC. ODI Global provided

² We gave them instructions, such as give us every xth person on the list.



oversight and practical inputs to data collection across all countries. To prepare the teams for implementation, ODI Global facilitated a training of the survey leads in Cairo in April 2025 and prepared in-depth training materials. Survey leads from all teams also took part in the Egypt enumerator training. The Bangladesh and Nigeria trainings were then delivered by OKUP / the NEST, with ODI Global providing online contributions.

Data collection for the survey took place throughout the course of 2025. In Egypt, it started in June 2025 and finished in December 2025 (with several month-long breaks while the teams attempted to find further training centers / programmes willing to share participant lists). Data collection in Nigeria took place between June and October 2025, with some delays due to adverse weather and insecurity. The Bangladesh survey was implemented between November and December 2025, again with some minor delays due to political unrest. The survey was administered in the following languages: Bangla (Bangladesh), Arabic (Egypt) and Pidgin English (Nigeria). In all cases, English was always available as a second language in case this was ever preferable.

We used the SurveyCTO data collection platform, which allowed us to monitor data collection and to programme in automatic quality checks. In all three countries, 10% of interviews were randomly selected for a back-check: where re-interviews were inconsistent with the original interview, interviews were excluded or completely redone. Additionally, any interviews that did not meet certain basic requirements – for example, in terms of expected minimum duration – were excluded.

While we aimed for a sample size of 1,000 respondents per country – with approximately 500 per site and a 50:50 participant / non-participant split – after data cleaning the numbers were somewhat lower, and the proportions not always evenly split. In Egypt, for precautionary quality reasons we decided to drop some interviews that were less than 20 minutes in duration. We were also required to recode some participants and non-participants. This was either because some non-participants sampled as part of the random walk had actually participated in a skills training, or because some respondents sampled from participant lists stated they had *not* in fact taken part in a training programme (possibly due to the short duration of the training). Table 2 provides an overview of participant and non-participants per country.

Finally, we also see some variation in terms of the gender balance of the sample across countries. In Bangladesh we ended up with more male respondents compared to female respondents, while the ratio is almost 50:50 in Egypt and Nigeria (Table 2).

Table 2. Overview of the sample

	Participants	Non-participants	Women	Men	Total N
Bangladesh	63.94% (665)	36.06% (375)	37.12% (386)	62.88% (654)	1,040
Egypt	34.91% (302)	65.09% (563)	49.02% (424)	50.98% (441)	865
Nigeria	59.26% (685)	40.74% (471)	46.63% (539)	53.37% (617)	1,156

Source: GS4S skills training survey



4. Skills training programmes: core data on awareness, participation and experiences

Before delving into the detailed statistical analysis, in this section we present some core descriptive statistics on respondents' perceptions and experiences of skills training programmes. Based on conversations with various donors and training providers across the different survey contexts, we learnt that although these kinds of trainings are being routinely implemented in high numbers – often with short-term donor objectives in mind – in practice few of them appear to be consistently evaluated or reviewed (at least not in a way that is generating publicly available information). Our hope is that the core data and analysis presented here might provide some valuable insights for those interested in this broader skills training landscape – both from the perspective of those who have not participated in a programme before (4.1), as well as from a 'participant perspective' (4.2)

4.1. Perceptions of non-participants

Surveyed non-participants were first asked if they know of any skills training programmes in their local area. While awareness amongst the Bangladesh sample was high (73%), it was much lower in Egypt (13%) and Nigeria (23%) (Table 3). What makes this noteworthy is that non-participants were sampled in the same geographical areas as participants – i.e. in sites where skills training programmes *do* exist.

Table 3. Non-participants' perceptions of skills training programmes: core descriptive data

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Aware of skills trainings in local area (% yes)	73% (N=272 / 375)	13% (N=71 / 563)	23% (N=109 / 471)
Such programmes seem relevant to their skill needs (% yes)	59% (N=223 / 375)	49% (N=278 / 563)	21% (N=98 / 471)
Those that participate have a better chance of finding work (% yes)	79% (N=295/375)	77% (N=435/563)	45% (N=214/471)
Would participate if relevant to your needs and interests (% yes)	52% (N=196/375)	64% (N=358/563)	65% (N=306/471)
Seems difficult to get enrolled (% yes)	22% (N=81/375)	22% (N=122/563)	13% (N=59/471)

Source: GS4S skills training survey

We then asked non-participants if the kinds of skills trainings they were aware of seemed relevant to their needs, finding that relatively high shares disagreed with this (Table 3). Although in Bangladesh 59% felt the trainings on offer were relevant to their needs, the respective share for Bangladesh was 49% and, for Nigeria, just 21%.

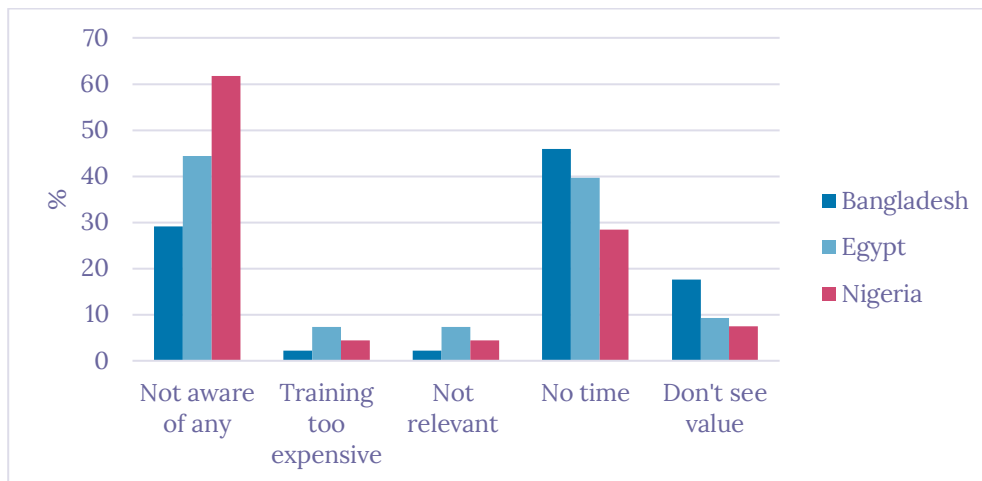
We also asked from a hypothetical perspective whether non-participants would consider enrolling in a training if it suited their needs and interests. Across each of the countries around 1-in-2 said 'yes', hinting at some reluctance (Table 3).

In terms of why non-participants had not previously enrolled in any skills training programme, the same two reasons dominated people's responses across the three countries: lack of awareness and no time (Figure 1).





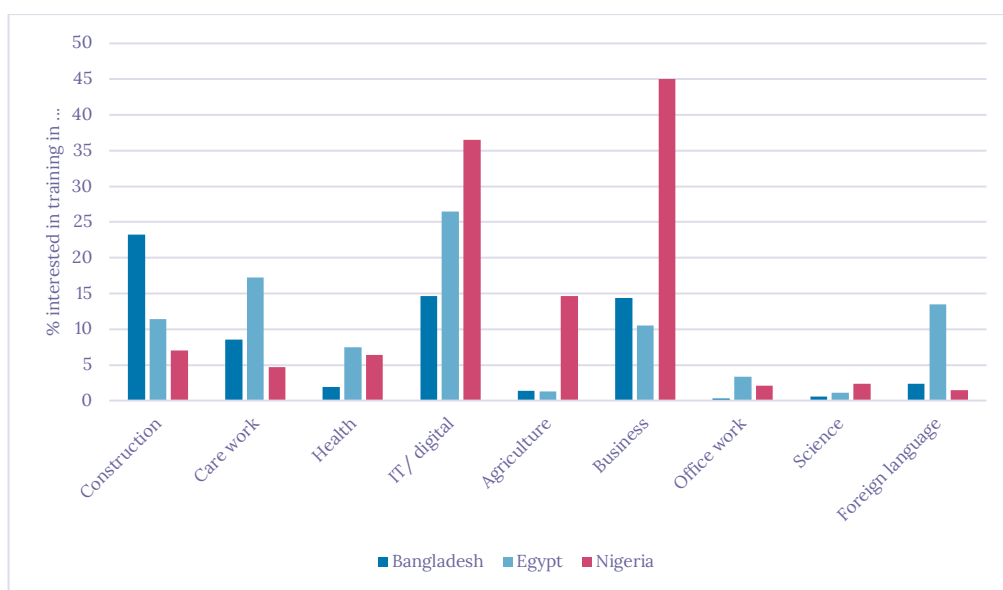
Figure 1. Reasons for not enrolling in skills training



Source: GS4S skills training survey

What kinds of skills training would people like to see implemented? For the Nigeria sample, IT / digital and business were by far the most popular (see Figure 2 below) – perhaps not surprising given that both research sites are youthful and dynamic places, with Ikorodu in greater Lagos known as Nigeria’s tech hub. IT / digital and business were also of interest to the Bangladesh sample, but with construction in fact proving the most popular. This is interesting given that Bangladeshis still largely migrate to the Gulf, where construction is a major sector of employment (Abdel Fattah et al., 2024). Could this embedded feature of the labour migration landscape be part of what shapes people’s views towards domestic training programmes and their content? This could be one valuable avenue for future research. In Egypt, meanwhile, the sample showed greatest interest in care work, foreign language and IT / digital – again, with the possibility that these preferences could feasibly be linked to migration prospects.

Figure 2. Preferences for skills training focus



Source: GS4S skills training survey

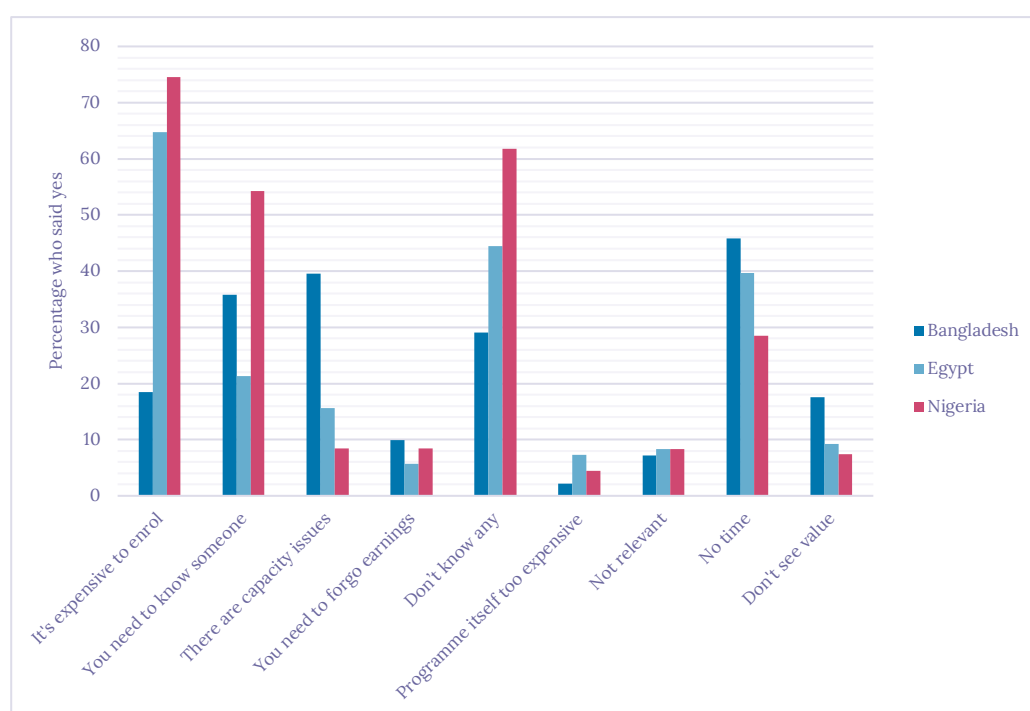




To further gauge the extent to which skills trainings are perceived as useful, we asked non-participants whether they thought that those who participate in them have a better chance of finding work. While there is strong agreement with this in Bangladesh (79%) and Egypt (77%), in Nigeria the equivalent share was considerably lower – at 45% (Table 3).

Finally, we asked non-participants about their perceptions of training scheme enrolment processes. While most did not seem to think that enrolling would be difficult, 22% of non-participants in both Bangladesh and Egypt felt this could prove problematic alongside 13% of non-participants in Nigeria (**Error! Reference source not found.**). As Figure 3 illustrates, the reasons for this varied across the sample. For Nigerian respondents, the cost of enrolment, the perceived need to have contacts and lack of time were commonly raised, while just over 60% again stated that they just do not know any skills training programmes. For Bangladeshi respondents, lack of time, capacity issues, and not having contacts were the three most commonly cited reasons. For the Egypt sample, not being aware of any programmes, lack of time and perceived cost of enrolment were stated most frequently. It is interesting that (perceived) cost of enrolment was consistently stated across Egypt and Nigeria (and to a much lesser degree for Bangladesh), given that – on paper at least – most of the training programmes in the areas under study should be free to participate in.

Figure 3. Reasons why enrolment is difficult



Source: GS4S skills training survey

4.2. Perceptions and experiences of participants

We now move on to the perceptions and experiences of *participants*.

As mentioned above, there were some concerns amongst non-participants about the cost of enrolment in trainings. Reflecting this, a third of participants in Bangladesh and Egypt reported





that they had to make a payment to enroll. For the TTC programme in Bangladesh, there is indeed an enrolment cost – so it is surprising that *only* a third of participants flagged this. Interestingly, while close to 80% of *non*-participants in Nigeria raised enrollment costs as a concern, only 9% of participants stated that they actually made a payment, hinting at the presence of some critical information gaps in terms of how training programmes and communicated and understood (Table 4).

Table 4. Participants’ perceptions and experiences of skills training programmes: core descriptive data

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Payment required to participate (% yes)	34% (N=225 / 665)	31% (N=92 / 302)	9% (N=61 / 685)
Completed the whole training (% yes)	81% (N=540 / 665)	82% (N=248 / 302)	72% (N=494 / 685)
Didn’t complete as training is still ongoing (% yes)	61% (N=76/125)	38% (N=20/53)	65% (N=110/169)
Didn’t complete as other commitments (% yes)	61% (N=76/125)	38% (N=20/53)	65% (N=110/169)
Training objectives were clear (% yes)	92% (N=613 / 665)	94% (N=284 / 302)	92% (N=681 / 685)
Training objectives were achieved (% yes)	84% (N=517 / 665)	93% (N=264 / 302)	95% (N=598 / 685)
Learnt new skills that can be used to find a new job (% yes)	71% (N=470 / 665)	85% (N=255 / 302)	84% (N=576 / 685)
Having participated, feel more prepared to find a job elsewhere in the country (% yes)	63% (N=421 / 665)	81% (N=245 / 302)	81% (N=554 / 685)
Having participated, feel more prepared to find a job in another country (% yes)	54% (N=359 / 665)	65% (N=196 / 302)	73% (N=497 / 685)

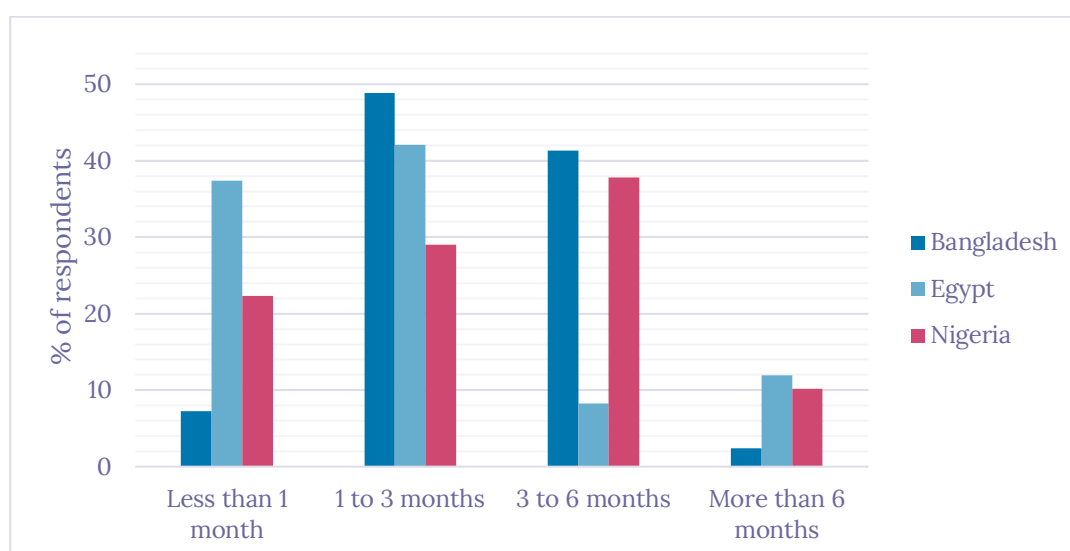
Source: GS4S skills training survey

On the duration of trainings, we see a varied picture across countries. Close to 40% of participants in Egypt stated their trainings took less than a month, with another 42% at 1-3 months (

Figure 4). For Bangladesh, the duration of trainings was much longer: close to 50% stated their training was 1-3 months, whilst over 40% reported a duration of 3-6 months. For Nigeria there is no clear pattern: just over 20% reported less than one month, almost 40% reported 3-6 months, and 10% more than six months.



Figure 4. Duration of trainings



Source: GS4S skills training survey

Around 80% of participants in Bangladesh and Egypt had completed their training at the time of interview, compared to 72% of those in Nigeria (Table 4**Error! Reference source not found.**). Of those who had not yet finished, this was mostly either because the training was still ongoing or because participants had other commitments to focus on. There were very few participants who found the training too hard, boring or not interesting.

Across all three countries, the overwhelming majority of participants felt that training organizers made it clear what they were supposed to learn in the training. Likewise, most also felt that these objectives were achieved (with a slightly lower but still strong level of agreement with this in Bangladesh).

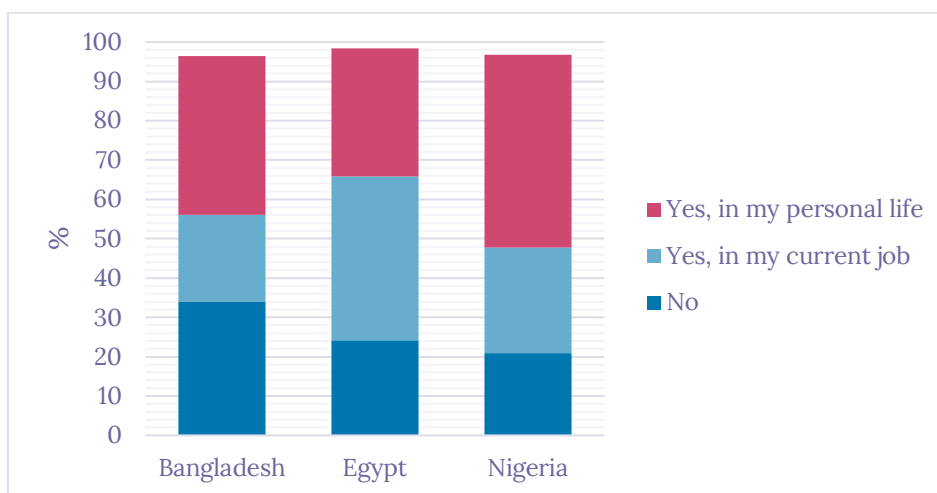
Participants were also generally positive about the new skills they learnt through their trainings. Most felt that their newly acquired skills could be used to find a new job (Table 4**Error! Reference source not found.**) – at 71% for Bangladesh and around 85% for the other two countries. However, when prompted to ask whether and how they had applied these new skills, fairly substantial shares



noted that they had in fact not yet done so: around one-third in Bangladesh, one-quarter in Egypt and one-fifth in Nigeria (

Figure 5). Interestingly, a relatively sizeable share across all three countries noted they had applied their new skills in their personal life – and for Bangladesh and Nigeria this share was larger than those using the new skills in their current job.

Figure 5. Application of new skills learnt



Source: GS4S skills training survey. Chart has omitted other and don't know responses.

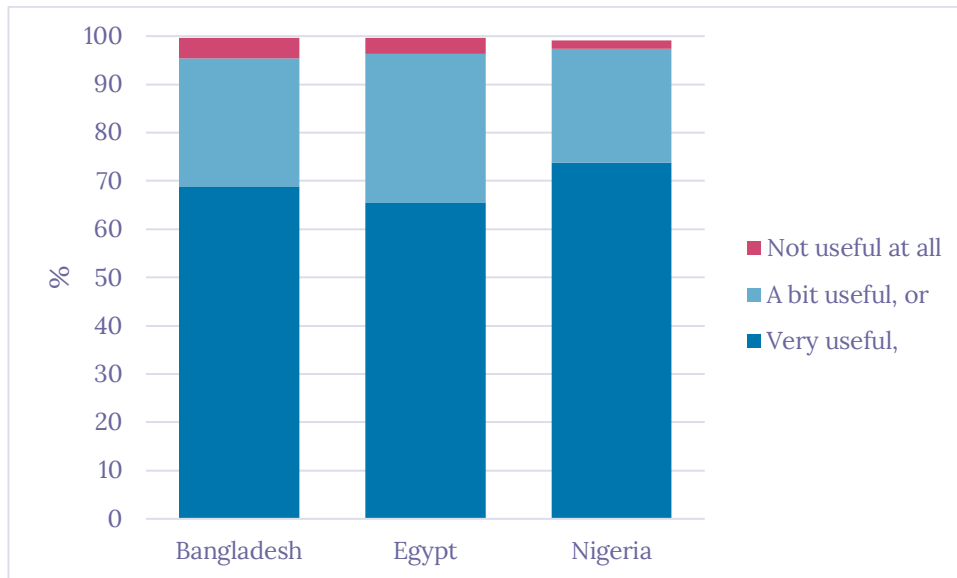
In terms of securing a job, a majority of participants said they felt more prepared to find a job elsewhere in the country having done their training, with fewer – but still more than half – saying they also felt more prepared to find a job in *another* country (Table 4). Meanwhile, on perceived usefulness and satisfaction, participants were on the whole very positive across all countries (Figure 6 and Figure 7). In each country, around two-thirds found their trainings to be ‘very useful’, with hardly any respondents reporting them to be ‘not useful at all’. More than 50% in each country said they were ‘very satisfied’ with their training (with satisfaction levels highest for Bangladesh), while most of the remainder felt ‘a bit satisfied’. It is worth noting that even for Egypt, where





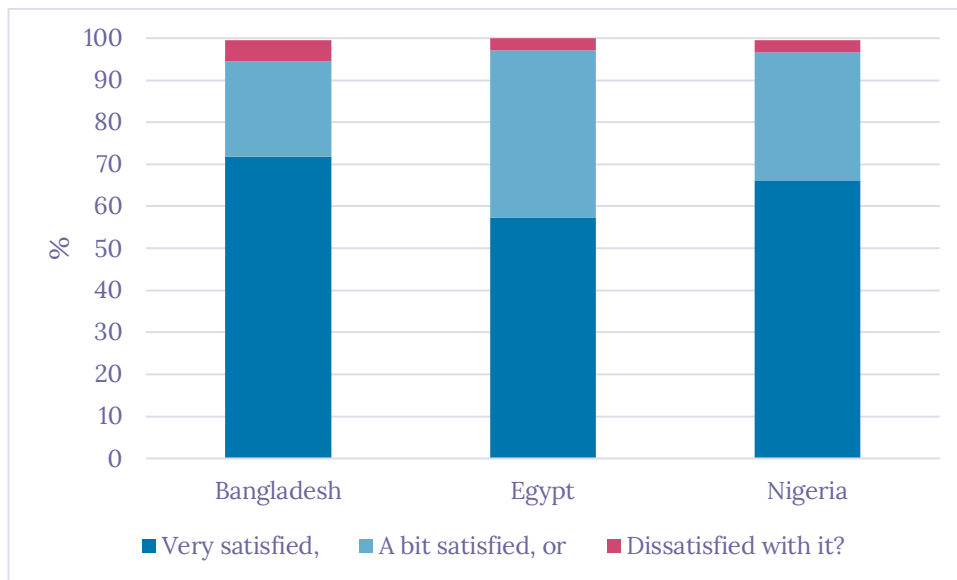
trainings were shortest, satisfaction levels and perceptions of usefulness are still on the whole very positive.

Figure 6. Perceptions of usefulness of training



Source: GS4S skills training survey. Chart has omitted other and don't know responses.

Figure 7. Satisfaction with training



Source: GS4S skills training survey. Chart has omitted other and don't know responses.



5. Methodological approach

5.1. Data cleaning and preparation

Data collection teams for each of the three countries prepared a survey execution report which, alongside email exchanges with team members, helped us clean and prepare the data. We downloaded the raw data from SurveyCTO in Excel format, before importing it into Stata where all data cleaning took place. This involved renaming and labelling variable names to ensure consistency across countries. We then converted non-numeric characters (also known as string variables) to numeric variables so that they can be read and analysed in Stata. We dropped interviews that were part of the enumerator trainings, pilot or practice stages (Table 5). As earlier indicated, we also dropped surveys that were less than 20 minutes in Egypt, and less than 25 minutes in Bangladesh and Nigeria for precautionary quality reasons.³

Table 5. Overview of the sample

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria	Total N
Number of interviews post data collection	1,166	1,155	1,513	3,834
Number of pilot interviews dropped	34	86	21	141
Number dropped due to insufficient length	92	202	335	629
Number dropped for other reasons		2	1	3
Remaining interviews	1,040	865	1,156	3,061

During the data preparation process, we re-coded and re-labelled variable values to allow for easier interpretation and analysis, such as recoding 1 for “Yes” responses and 0 for “No” responses. We kept “Don’t Know” and “Refuse to answer” responses unchanged. The treatment of these responses depends on the question being asked and is different on a case-by-case basis. As such, at the data cleaning stage we left them unchanged, instead keeping the changes for the analysis stage where we anticipated that in some cases responses could be re-coded.

³ In addition, we further dropped some variables that were deemed not useful for further analysis. These variables include automatically generated device information, device ID, latitude and longitude, among others. Removing these types of variables allowed us to only keep necessary variables while making the dataset less heavy. We also checked for duplicates in the data. One duplicate was found in Egypt, which was dropped after clarification with the data collection team. The interviews with the same ID were started by two enumerators at the same time and on the same day, but one interview was outside the designed GPS cluster location for non-participant interview, hence this was dropped.





Some survey questions had options for “Other: specify” responses, which in most cases were responded to in the local language⁴. Each country team provided a list of English translations for these responses. We then re-coded these responses in the data, changing them from local language to English. In some cases, the number of responses in the “Other: specify” response category was large enough to warrant creation of a separate additional category. This was done at the analysis stage, on a case-by-case basis. At the end we also checked for duplicates in the data (see also Footnote 3).

Data cleaning was done separately for each country, while keeping variable details (such as names, values and labels) the same. We then appended the country datasets to each other to create one large, pooled cross-sectional dataset to be used for analysis – though, as discussed below in greater detail, all analysis presented in this paper was carried out at the country level.

5.2. Modelling strategy

The aim of this paper is to examine the relationship between: on the one hand, people’s awareness of, participation in and experience with skills training programmes; and on the other, their livelihood activity and migration aspirations. The dependent and independent variables are discussed below. We aim to draw information from this unique survey data that captures the perspectives and experiences of both programme participants and non-participants alike. To estimate these relationships, we employ several techniques, including differences between means and regression analysis.

Prior to examining the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, we produced detailed descriptive statistics to conduct an initial assessment of whether there are statistically different responses in the data between participants and non-participants. This is important because it allows us to gain an initial understanding of the data and to observe patterns across these two groups. We utilize a standard two tailed t-test method to compare the means of the two groups and to determine if they are statistically different. We then assess the statistical relationship between the dependent and independent variables using regression analysis.

Our starting point is a Linear probability model (LPM). We estimate the LPM with ordinary least squares (OLS) to analyse the direction of the relationship between participation in skills training programmes (independent variable of interest), and migration aspirations and livelihood (dependent variables). The binary nature of the dependent variable implies that it has only two possible values: 0 or 1. The LPM, however, assumes a linear relationship between the independent variables and the probability of migration and livelihood outcomes being equal to 1. The LPM, which uses OLS, fits a linear equation to the data by minimizing the sum of squared differences between the predicted probabilities and the actual binary outcomes.

Despite being easy to use, the LPM has some drawbacks (Gujarati, 2004). First, it violates the properties of the disturbance term as the error term follows a Bernoulli and not a normal distribution. Hence the results from this model cannot be used for inference. Second, the model suffers from heteroscedasticity – errors terms are not constant, hence can lead to incorrect

⁴ All “Other, specify” responses from Nigeria were responded in English.





standard errors. A third key drawback is that there is a possibility that the estimated probability can lie outside the 0-1 bounds, thus making it unsuitable for probability estimation.

We use a logistic regression model (Logit) as our main models to assess the relationship between participation and livelihood and migration aspirations. Logit and probit models are the most commonly used when estimating models with functional forms whose probabilities lie between 0 and 1. They are invariably better than LPM. The choice between logit and probit model depends on the assumption we make about the error terms. For all practical purposes, there is little difference between the results from Logit and Probit model; hence, we adopt Logit model in this analysis.

While both LPM and Logit models are able to predict the probability of migration and livelihood outcomes, they cannot tackle the issue of endogeneity that may arise from, potentially, non-random selection of participants in the skills training programmes. Given that participants who apply for such programmes potentially have traits that non-participants do not, and the differences we observed in our participant and non-participants groups, we likely face this selection bias in our survey. There are number of methods that have been used to provide solutions to issues of endogeneity. These include the use of propensity score matching (PSM). The Inverse Probability Weighting (IPW) is a hybrid of the traditional matching techniques, such as PSM. It changes the distribution of the non-participant group to resemble those of the participant group, hence reducing bias in estimation (Hirano and Imbens, 2001). Unlike traditional PSM, which matches observed characteristics between non-participants and participants and then discards the unmatched variables, IPW applies weights to individual observations and retains all the data. The IPW first estimates factors affecting participation in the training programme, then predicts propensity scores of programme participation (say, x). The propensity score is used to generate weights. The weighting function adopts 1 if the observation is in the participant group and get $1/(1-x)$ if it is in the non-participant group. The weights are used as a probability weight for modelling the relationship between participation in a training programme and migration and livelihood outcomes. The weighting enables us to control for observable bias, such that the variations in the outcome (dependent variable) would only exist due to participation in the programme (Hirano & Imbens, 2001).

A well-known drawback in using PSM and IWP methods is that they tend to focus on biases resulting from observable differences. However, some differences are not observed. In these cases, some studies have used the traditional instrumental variables, which effectively find exogenous variations in programme participation that shift the outcome of interest on satisfaction of two crucial assumptions. First, the chosen instrument should be orthogonal to errors of the outcome equation (exclusion criteria). Second, the chosen instrument produces a significant change to the participation in the programme (instrument relevance). In this paper we adopt a less traditional instrumental variable such as the Lewbel approach to internal instruments identification (Lewbel, 2018). The Lewbel method identifies the effect between independent and dependent variables by exploiting heteroscedasticity in the data without external instruments. Finding external instruments has increasingly become a bone of contention in modern literature; the Lewbel approach helps to deal with this.

In summary, we estimate using four different models – LPM/OLS, Logit model, IPW, and Lewbel IV method – for each of the six dependent variables (see below) within each of the three countries. This estimation helps us to assess how the coefficients and significance levels change as we switch between models and functional form specifications.



5.3. Dependent variables

For this study, we use a total of six dependent (or outcome) variables across our two outcome areas of interest:

- Measures of work and livelihoods (two variables)
- Measures of migration aspirations (four variables)

Measures of work and livelihoods

Module B of the survey focused specifically on work and livelihoods, and primarily in relation to the respondent themselves. Questions focused on: the respondent's current work situation; the nature of their current work; and what respondents think about employment opportunities in (first) their local area, (second) other areas in their country, and (third) abroad. In this paper we focus on the following two survey items to measure how an individual's work and livelihood situation potentially responds to participation in training programmes. 1) *Are you (respondent) actively looking for new work at the moment?* and 2) *How easy or difficult is it to find a good job in your area: would you say it is very easy, easy, difficult or very difficult?*

The first survey item has binary or dichotomous responses of 0. 'No' and 1. 'Yes', with two additional response options of 'Don't know' and 'Refuse to answer'. In our analysis we re-code all 'Don't know' responses as 0. 'No' since we can safely assume they are not looking for work if they do not know, while all 'Refuse to answer' responses are coded as missing.

The second survey item has four types of responses: 1. 'Very easy'; 2. 'Easy'; 3. 'Difficult'; 4. 'Very difficult'. The multilevel nature of this variable would require us to employ econometrics models that consider the different layers. However, in this analysis we seek to use logistics regression models, which work best when the dependent variable is binary in nature. We therefore generate a new variable that takes value 1 when respondents said it is 'very easy' or 'easy' to find a good job in their area. When respondents said they find it 'very difficult' or 'difficult', the new variable takes the value 0.

Besides these main components, this second survey item again has responses for 'Don't know' and 'Refuse to answer'. While 'Refuse to answer' is easily categorised as missing data, the same cannot be said about the 'Don't know'. The 'Don't know' can mean that the respondent is not actively looking for work, is new to area or is in some way not currently in the labour force. However, between finding it difficult or easy to find a job, the 'Don't know' response is closer to 'difficult' regardless of the situation of the respondent. Therefore, we re-code these responses to 'difficult'.

As already mentioned, one of the aims of this paper is to estimate the extent to which work and livelihood variables change due to participation in training programme. Therefore, it is imperative to show how the dependent variable is distributed across the participant and non-participant groups – particularly in relation to how different the dependent variable is between participants and non-participants, and whether that difference is statistically significant. Table 6 and Table 7 below show these two measures of work and livelihoods across participants and non-programme participants.

What is immediately clear is that, across all three countries, participants are more likely to be seeking new employment. This difference is statistically significant and especially large for



Bangladesh and Nigeria. Meanwhile, there is no clear pattern for perceptions of ease of finding a good job in the local area. While participants' perceptions in Egypt and Nigeria are somewhat more positive in this regard, the difference is not statistically significant. For the Bangladesh sample, on the other hand, participants deem it less easy to find a good job in the area – a statistically significant difference. These initial descriptive statistics already hint at the relationship between training and work being less than straightforward.

Table 6. Percentages of participants and non-participants who are actively seeking new employment

	Full Sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	45.29	56.69	25.07	31.62***	1040
Egypt	52.02	57.28	49.2	8.08*	865
Nigeria	58.99	68.38	45.44	22.94***	1151

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Table 7. Percentage of participants and non - participants who said they found it easy to find a good job in the area.

	Full Sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	21.88	18.99	27.05	-8.06**	1040
Egypt	40.56	45.07	38.16	6.91	865
Nigeria	15.79	16.48	14.81	1.67	1151

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Measures of migration aspirations

As conceptually developed in Carling et al. (2023), we consider three dimensions of migration aspirations: 1. migration consideration, 2. migration preference and 3. migration readiness. Each of these three dimensions are assessed through a specific binary question in the survey:

- **Consideration:** whether or not the respondent has seriously considered migrating to another country. (Survey item: *During the past year, have you thought seriously about leaving [Country] to live or work in another country?*)
- **Preference:** whether the respondent would prefer to move to another country or stay in the country where they live. (Survey item: *Would you like to go and live in another country some time during the next five years, or would you prefer to stay in [Country]?*)
- **Readiness:** whether the respondent would seize an opportunity to migrate to another country. (Survey item: *If someone were to give you the necessary papers to live and work in*





a richer country, would you go, or would you stay in [Country]?). Note that 'readiness' in this sense is about state of mind, rather than about already having made preparations.

As shown in Table 8 below, there is variation across the country samples in terms of consideration, preference and readiness – though aspirations appear generally strongest for Nigeria, where more than half of respondents have considered migration, would prefer leaving to staying and would take the opportunity to leave if offered. It is also noteworthy that readiness levels are generally higher than consideration and preference levels for all three country samples, indicating that migration is not necessarily something that is considered or preferred, but too good an opportunity to forfeit when offered. For all three variables, we also find that aspirations are stronger for participants relative to non-participants (to a statistically significant degree), though at this initial stage we cannot say anything about the potential causal relationship behind this (see Section 6 for more advanced analysis and discussion of this).

In addition to the three separate dimensions, we also consider an additional variable which uses all three of these together. This is the **resolute migration aspiration**: it refers to when an individual 1) has seriously considered migrating, 2) would prefer to leave rather than stay, *and* 3) feels ready to seize the opportunity to do so (Carling et al. 2023). This type of migration aspiration is the strongest expression of determination to migrate. It takes the value 1 if an individual responds 'Yes' to all questions outlined above.

Resolute migration aspirations are again strongest for the Nigeria sample, where almost half of respondents expressed strong wishes to migrate. For Bangladesh, this was the case for one-third of respondents; and for Egypt, for one-quarter of participants. This is noteworthy given both are countries with high levels of emigration – a reminder that not everyone wants to migrate. Again, we find higher levels of resolute migration aspirations amongst participants relative to non-participants – though this difference is not statistically significant for Egypt.

Table 8. Migration aspirations for participants and non- participants

Form of aspiration	Country	Full Sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Consideration	Bangladesh	40.19	50.68	21.6	29.08***	1040
	Egypt	33.53	41.06	29.48	11.58***	865
	Nigeria	55.45	65.69	40.55	25.14***	1156
Preference	Bangladesh	42.21	57.59	14.93	42.66***	1040
	Egypt	50.87	61.26	45.29	15.97***	865
	Nigeria	72.81	80.65	61.41	19.24***	1156
Readiness	Bangladesh	52.31	66.32	27.35	38.97***	1040
	Egypt	62.04	71.52	56.94	14.58***	865



	Nigeria	82.67	87.99	74.95	13.04***	1156
Resolute migration	Bangladesh	32.88	44.66	12	32.66***	1040
	Egypt	24.86	28.81	22.74	6.07	865
	Nigeria	47.4	57.23	33.12	24.11***	1156

5.4. Independent variables

In this section we present an overview of the various independent variables used in the analysis. These are respectively used to measure the potential effects of: programme participation; migration-related variables; personality traits; and individual-, household -and community-level variables.

Programme participation. This is our main independent variable of interest. We intend to understand how this variable relates to work / livelihood and migration aspirations. There are two survey items that capture programme participation: a) E1 *Have you ever participated or are you currently participating in any kind of skills training programme?* and b) K4 *Does the respondent belong to the participant or non-participant group?*

For survey item (a), responses included: No; Yes – previously; Yes – currently; Don't know; Refuse to answer. We create a programme participation variable that takes the value 1 if response is either 'Yes – previously' or 'Yes – currently' and value 0 if the response is 'No' and 'Don't know' as we assume that they did not participate in a training if they can't remember. All 'Refuse to answer' responses are re-coded to missing.

For survey item (b), responses included: i) *participant group* and ii) *non-participant group*. These responses were filled in at the beginning of the interview by enumerators according to whether the respondent had been sampled from a training participant list (i) or through the random walk (ii). In principle, respondents who are in the participant group are supposed to have participated or are participating in a skills training programme, overlapping entirely with the newly created participation variable. However, this was not always the case in practice. There are some individuals initially assigned as 'non-participants' who had in fact participated in a training ($n=256$); this is to be expected as it is possible that randomly sampled individuals have also participated in a training. However, there were also 251 instances of 'participants' stating that they had not participated in a training; this was more likely due to coding errors, but it is also possible that some of these respondents felt they had not participated in a 'proper' training (e.g. because it was very short). Following conversations with in-country teams and further analysis, a new participant variable was created. For this we recoded respondents who were originally in the 'participant' group but said they had not participated in the training programme as 'non-participants'. For those who were originally in the 'non-participant' group but said they had in fact participated in a training programme, these were recoded as 'participants'.⁵

⁵ In the end this was also a pragmatic decision, given that only those who said they participated in a skills training programme were asked the detailed questions about the training.





Table 9 below shows the distribution of the programme participation variable across the sample. While we had originally aimed for a 50:50 distribution of the sample, participants ultimately accounted for 35% of our sample in Egypt, 59% of the sample in Nigeria and 64% in Bangladesh. The share is lower in Egypt due to the challenges in accessing training participants, as explained above.

Table 9. Percentage of programme participation across Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria

	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	63.94	36.06	1040
Egypt	34.91	65.09	865
Nigeria	59.26	40.74	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey

Migration-related independent variables. There are three types of migration-related variables that we include in this analysis as they may affect migration aspirations. First, those related to experiences of living abroad. We use a survey item that asks whether the respondent has lived in another country for at least one year to establish this. This is a binary variable that takes the value 1 for those with migration experience and 0 without. All respondents who have neither been abroad nor have lived abroad for at least a year are not considered as having migration experience. As Table 10 shows, across all countries, few people have experience of living abroad: less than 10% throughout. For Bangladesh, we see that participants are statistically significantly more likely to have lived in another country.

Table 10. Percentage of respondents who have experience living abroad

	Full sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	6.82	8.87	3.20	5.67***	1040
Egypt	7.40	6.62	7.82	-1.19	865
Nigeria	3.81	3.65	4.03	-0.38	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: *p < .1, **p < .05, ***p < .01

Second, we include variables related to transnational networks and remittance receipt. We use two binary-response survey items for this: first, whether respondents know a family member or a close relative who has migrated and lived abroad or not; and second, whether respondents have received remittances from a family member or someone who lives abroad (only asked to those who had responded 'Yes' to the previous question). In all countries, more participants than non-participants knew either a family member or a close relative abroad, with this being particularly strong for Bangladeshi respondents (Table 11). However, there is no statistical difference between





participants and non-participants in terms of receiving remittances. Comparatively, a large proportion of participants (74%) in Nigeria received remittances, while only 23% and 26% did so Bangladesh and Egypt, respectively.

Table 11. Percentage of respondents who know a migrant and who have received remittances

		Full sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Knows a migrant	Bangladesh	81.44	84.36	76.27	8.09**	1040
	Egypt	63.93	70.20	60.57	9.63**	865
	Nigeria	63.67	70.66	53.50	17.16***	1156
Received remittances	Bangladesh	22.79	23.17	22.03	1.14	847
	Egypt	22.46	26.42	20	6.42	552
	Nigeria	74.35	75.68	71.83	3.85	733

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Third, there are also variables related to respondents' knowledge of / proximity to failed migration. We create an index for failed migration and another for exposure to migration messaging. The failed migration index is a binary variable generated from a series of specific 'failed migration' survey items. It takes the value 1 if respondents say they either know someone who: has been injured on their way to another country; lost their life on the way to another country; has been detained on their way to another country; tried to move to one country but has been stuck in another one; or has been deported. As we are trying to capture personal knowledge of failed migration, which may deter future migration aspirations, we also code those respondents that may have experienced any of these 'failures' themselves as 0. As Table 12 shows, there are no statistically significant differences across participants and non-participants in this regard. Knowledge of failed migration is highest amongst Bangladeshi respondents (44%) and lowest amongst Nigerian respondents (19%).

We also created a binary variable for exposure to migration information campaigns, given they are quite common across all three countries and are explicitly designed to influence migration aspirations. This variable takes the value 1 if respondents say they had seen or heard information about migration through: a TV advert or programme; a workshop or event; a radio programme or advert; social media or website; a poster or newspaper advert. For respondents who have not heard or seen information on migration through any of these channels, the value is set to 0. We can see in Table 12 that exposure to campaigns is indeed quite high, ranging from 71% for Bangladesh to 44% for Nigeria.



Table 12. Percentage of respondents who know of failed migration and who have been exposed to migration messages

		Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Failed migration index	Bangladesh	43.94	42.86	45.87	-3.01	1040
	Egypt	27.28	23.84	29.13	-5.29	865
	Nigeria	18.77	19.42	17.83	1.59	1156
Migration information campaign index	Bangladesh	70.96	76.09	61.87	14.22	1040
	Egypt	49.02	55.30	45.65	9.65	865
	Nigeria	43.94	42.86	45.87	-3.01	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

We also create a variable for exposure to migration messages by generating a binary variable. This variable takes the value 1 if respondents report seeing or hearing information about people moving from one country to another either: on a TV advert or programme; from a workshop or event; from a radio programme or advert; from social media or website; or from a poster or newspaper advert. For respondents who have not heard or seen information from either of the above categories, the value is set to 0.

Individual-, household- and community-level variables. A number of individual-, household- and community-level variables are included, some of which are mere control variables whilst others we are also interested in intrinsically. These variables, particularly those regarding individual- and household-level characteristics, provide key information needed to estimate an inverse propensity score matching, as these are the observable characteristics upon which matching is based. We include age and age squared. They are both continuous variables. Age squared is created to capture the convex nature of the relationship between age and livelihood and migration variables⁶. The average age for respondents as a whole is early 30s, but as

Table 13 below shows, those in the participant group are markedly younger. We also control for gender (discussed in Section 3, with men coded as 1) and marital status (taking the value of 1 for those married, and 0 otherwise). As

Table 13 shows, 65% of the sample in Bangladesh is married (and almost 90% of non-participants), whereas for the other two countries close to half of the sample is married.

⁶ This is not included in the table below as the interpretation does not mean anything on its own.





Table 13. Mean age for respondents and percent of response who are married

		Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Age (mean)	Bangladesh	31.65	28.60	37.04	-8.44***	1040
	Egypt	30.97	26.03	33.62	-7.60***	865
	Nigeria	33.34	30.99	36.76	-5.77***	1151
Married (% yes)	Bangladesh	64.52	51.13	88.27	-37.14***	1040
	Egypt	49.25	26.16	61.63	-35.47	865
	Nigeria	49.83	39.94	64.12	-24.18	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Education level is also controlled for. This is a categorical variable with several options to choose from, including: no education; primary; secondary; and tertiary. For ease of interpretation, we generated a binary variable for tertiary education taking the value 1 if respondents said they have bachelors, masters, PhD, or Diploma. For all other education levels, including no education, the tertiary education variable is set to 0. As Table 14 shows, two-thirds of the Nigerian sample has tertiary education,⁷ whereas for Bangladesh and Egypt the share is closer to one-third of the sample. For all countries, we see that participants have statistically significantly higher education levels – potentially linked to participation requirements. This is one of the observable differences we can indeed control for.

Table 14. Percentage of respondents who have tertiary education level

	Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	28.08	39.40	8.00	31.40***	1040
Egypt	32.60	43.05	27.00	16.05***	865
Nigeria	68.60	76.93	56.48	20.46***	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

⁷ According to the World Bank, only 11.3% of Nigerian youth have higher education.





We include two other variables that capture dependency levels in the household. These variables are: a) whether the respondents have a child under 17 years living with them in their home (not necessarily their own); and b) number of children under 17 years of age living in the respondent's home. The first variable (a) is a binary response variable, taking the value 1 for a 'Yes' response, and 0 for a 'No'. The second variable (b) is a count variable. Around two-thirds of respondents have a child living with them at home (Table 15). This share is lower for participants in Bangladesh and Egypt, and the difference is statistically significant. The average number of children ranges from 5.31 in Nigeria to 7.14 in Egypt. Egypt is the one country where we find a statistically significant difference, with non-participants having a lower number of children.

Table 15. Percentage of respondents who have children under 17 years and average number children under 17 years

		Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Has children under 17 years (% yes)	Bangladesh	66.76	62.50	74.39	-11.89***	1040
	Egypt	74.19	71.85	75.44	-3.59	865
	Nigeria	64.97	62.20	68.94	-6.74*	1156
Number of children under 17 mean)	Bangladesh	6.76	6.75	6.78	-0.03	1040
	Egypt	7.14	7.62	6.88	0.75***	865
	Nigeria	5.31	5.24	5.41	-0.17	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: *p < .1, **p < .05, ***p < .01

We also control for financial wellbeing in the analysis, including through a wealth index and a subjective assessment of perceived financial situation. For the latter, respondents were asked to assess their own current financial situation and say if they think they are finding it difficult to get by, coping or living comfortably. We created a variable for 'Finding it difficult' that takes the value of 1 if respondents thought they are finding it difficult to get by, and 0 otherwise – i.e. coping or living comfortably. As

Table 16 shows, 15% of the Nigerian sample stated they are finding it difficult to get by, compared to 23% of the Egyptian sample and 32% of the Bangladeshi sample. This pattern is not correlated with average income levels of those countries, demonstrating the value of also considering subjective assessments. Interestingly for Bangladesh and Egypt, we find a statistically significantly lower share of participants struggling to get by; however, this finding doesn't tell us anything about causality.



Table 16. Percentage of respondents who are finding it difficult to get by

	Full sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	32.31	28.42	39.20	-10.78***	1040
Egypt	23.35	8.28	31.44	-23.16***	865
Nigeria	14.88	13.80	16.45	-2.65	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

We then create a wealth index from multiple household assets that include ownership of a television, refrigerator, car, bicycle, chair, radio, washing machine, moped motorcycle, air conditioner, computer and a mobile phone. We use principal component analysis (PCA), a fundamental statistical method used in data analysis to transform high dimensional data into lower-dimensional data (Kumar et al., 2025) – or in this particular instance, to help reduce multiple household asset indicators into a single continuous score. Using PCA, we create a single continuous score called the wealth index. The higher the value for wealth index, the wealthier the household is; the lower the index, the less wealthy the household. The average household has a score of 0, poorer household have negative scores, and richer households have positive scores. The further a household is from 0, the further it is from the average household.

As Table 17 below shows, participants are wealthier than non-participants in all three countries and the differences are all statistically significant. While this table does not tell us anything about the causal relationship, it is more plausible that wealthier participants take part in the training (for instance, because they can afford the enrolment fee or time off work) rather than the training having made them wealthier.

Table 17. Average wealth index

	Full Sample (%)	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Bangladesh	-0.575	-0.498	-0.713	0.215***	1040
Egypt	0.609	1.122	0.334	0.789***	865
Nigeria	0.062	0.142	0.334	0.194**	1156

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$





Trust and safety in respondents' local area also forms part of our analysis. The variable on trust is a binary response variable taking the value 1 if respondents say that most people in the area can be trusted, and 0 otherwise (including if they say they cannot rely on anybody). As we can see in Table 18, there is quite some variation between countries for this variable, with 28% of Nigerian respondents agreeing with the statement, compared to 57% of Bangladeshi respondents. Interestingly, Egyptian participants appear to be significantly more trusting relative to those in the Egyptian non-participant group.

We also include a variable on fear of violence. This is a binary response variable that takes the value of 1 if the respondent says they have personally feared any form of violence from anyone in their area over the past five years, while a value of 0 is taken otherwise. Across the sample as a whole, around one-in-five respondents feared violence in the past five years, with Nigeria having the highest share at 29%. We also created an additional variable for experience of violence. This variable takes the value 1 if respondents say they or other household members have either experienced violence, theft, burglary, robbery, assault or physical violence; and 0 otherwise. Experience of violence ranges from 27% for the Egypt sample to 37% for the Nigeria sample.

Table 18. Perceptions of trust and violence in their community and experience of violence

		Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Most people in the area can be trusted (%)	Bangladesh	57.30	57.10	57.64	-0.54	1040
	Egypt	31.64	43.34	25.41	17.93***	865
	Nigeria	28.12	26.94	29.82	-2.88	1156
Fear of violence (% yes)	Bangladesh	19.25	20.60	16.84	3.76	1040
	Egypt	22.80	18.87	24.91	-6.04	865
	Nigeria	28.57	31.29	24.63	6.66	1156
Experience of violence (% yes)	Bangladesh	30.77	32.63	27.47	5.16	1040
	Egypt	27.40	22.19	30.20	-8.00***	865
	Nigeria	37.11	38.39	35.24	3.15	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Finally, we include several variables on personality traits. The first variable we include here relates to how respondents react when they are faced with a task that is difficult, boring or time consuming. We create a 'perseverance' variable that assigns the value of 1 if respondents say that, when faced with the above situation, it is important to finish something once started even if it is more difficult than originally expected; and 0 otherwise. As Table 19 shows, for Bangladesh we find that participants have statistically significant higher levels of perseverance (measured in this way) relative to non-participants; there is no equivalent difference in the other two countries.





The second variable we include relates to ‘sense of adventure’. Respondents are asked about the extent to which they agree that in life it is important to try new things and seek out unfamiliar experiences. We create a new variable that takes the value 1 if respondents agree, and 0 if they ‘neither agree nor disagree’ or simply disagree. Table 19 below shows that there is a statistically significant higher sense of adventure among programme participants compared to non-participants across all three countries. This difference is particularly high in Bangladesh, where over 95% of participants agree that it is important to try new things in life compared to 78% of non-participants. There may be a relevant link here with the likelihood of signing up to a training programme.

The third variable is ‘acceptance of uncertainty’. For this, respondents were given three scenarios: one that involves receiving a certain set amount right now, or instead choosing to play a game where they will receive three times more if they win the game, or nothing if they lose; a second scenario in which they can receive a certain amount now, or receive three times that amount in the future (specifically, in one year’s time); and a third that involves them receiving a certain amount right now, or instead choosing to play a game where, if they win, they will receive six times that amount in the future (again, in one year’s time). The response options are: ‘a) Take the certain amount’ or ‘b) Play the game’. These survey items are measured as a binary response, whereby playing the game corresponds to 1 and taking the certain amount corresponds to 0.

Following Carling et al. (2023), we also create a measure of uncertainty by adding up the responses to these three survey items. As a result of this summation of values, our measure ranges from 0 (when the respondent is not willing to play any of the three risk games) to 3 (when the respondent is willing to play all three risk games). We rescale this measure to 1-4 to aid interpretation. Each category has the following values: 1) Would never accept uncertainty; 2) Would sometimes accept uncertainty; 3) Would often accept uncertainty; and 4) Would always accept uncertainty. This variable can be utilized either as an ordinal variable – where the higher the value, the higher the level of uncertainty that respondents are willing to accept – or as a categorical variable. In the regression, we choose to use the former for simplicity of interpretation. In Table 19 below, we combine the three levels of acceptance to create a dummy variable. This dummy variable takes the value 1 if respondents have any of responses from 2-4 and takes the value of 0 when the response is 1 or missing. Overall and across all three countries, a higher proportion of programme participants accept uncertainty compared to non-participants. However, this difference is only statistically significant in Egypt and Nigeria.

Table 19. Percentage of respondents and their personality traits

		Full sample	Participants (%)	Non-Participants (%)	Difference (%)	Observations (No.)
Perseverance (%)	Bangladesh	70.26	75.45	61.07	14.38***	1040
	Egypt	58.19	61.87	56.23	5.64	865
	Nigeria	68.95	71.16	65.74	5.42	1156
	Bangladesh	89.02	95.02	78.40	16.62***	1040



Sense of adventure (% yes)	Egypt	78.01	85.43	74.02	11.41***	865
	Nigeria	81.06	87.30	71.97	15.33***	1156
Acceptance of uncertainty	Bangladesh	45.48	45.71	45.07	0.64	1040
	Egypt	38.03	52.98	30.02	22.96***	865
	Nigeria	35.99	42.92	25.90	17.02***	1156

Source: GS4S skills training survey Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

6. Regression results

This section presents the results from our regression analysis. As previously discussed in Section 5.1.2, these results are derived specifically from the logit regression model. Results from the LPM, IPW and Lewbel models are presented in the Annex, and will only be incorporated here on a selective basis where we deem it relevant to do so.

Across the six sub-sections below, we focus on each of our six core dependent variables in turn – looking first at our two livelihood / work dependent variables, before moving on to our four dependent variables for migration aspirations. In each case, our primary focus is the extent to which participation in a skills training programme is associated with variation in these dependent variables across our three country samples. Once this element has been covered, we then discuss other independent variables where these appear statistically significant or are especially relevant to the analysis.

A broader discussion of these statistical results, in reference to wider literature and policy debates, follows in Section 7.

6.1. Skills training participation and seeking new employment

What do our results tell us about the relationship between **skills training participation** and seeking new employment? As Table 20 below shows, the key takeaway here is that respondents who participated in a training programme are more likely to seek new employment. Participation increases the likelihood of seeking new employment by 19 percentage points in Bangladesh and 12 percentage points in Nigeria – both significant at the 1% level. While the coefficient for Egypt is positive, it is not statistically significant. The same pattern also holds for the LPM and IPW model, while for the Lewbel model, the participation coefficient in the Nigeria regression turns negative and statistically significant.

In terms of the other independent variables of interest, the following are worth noting:

- **Gender.** Male respondents are 8 and 16 percentage points more likely to seek new employment in Bangladesh and Egypt, respectively. These results are statistically significant at 1%.





- **Age.** The older individuals are, the higher the probability that they seek new employment. The results show that age is associated with a 3 percentage point increase in the probability of seeking new employment amongst Nigerian respondents. Respondents with tertiary education are 18 percentage points more likely to seek new employment in Bangladesh and 9 percentage points more likely in Nigeria.
- **Migration networks.** Knowing a migrant increases the probability of seeking new employment by 12 percentage points in Nigeria only.
- **Wealth and financial wellbeing.** Here, we see a pattern of less well-off respondents seeking new employment. In Nigeria, those who subjectively rank themselves as rich are less likely to seek new employment, and the wealth index follows a similar pattern. For Bangladesh and Egypt, wealthier individuals are 4 percentage points less likely to seek new employment, whilst in Nigeria they are 2 percentage points less likely. Meanwhile, respondents who are finding it hard to get by in their community are 7 percentage points more likely to seek new employment in Bangladesh and 13 percentage points more likely in Nigeria.
- **Personality traits.** There is not a great deal of statistical significance for these independent variables. Perseverance is not statistically significant at all. More adventurous respondents are more likely to seek new employment in Egypt and Nigeria. For Nigeria, we see that one of the measures of accepting uncertainty is positively correlated with seeking new employment.

Table 20. The relationship between participation in skills training programmes and seeking new employment

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.189***	0.044	0.117***
	(0.041)	(0.042)	(0.033)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.009	0.075	0.037
	(0.062)	(0.068)	(0.078)
Has a family member migrant (Yes)	-0.015	0.004	0.097**
	(0.043)	(0.040)	(0.045)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	-0.001	-0.039	0.119***
	(0.037)	(0.058)	(0.041)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.063	0.086*	-0.059
	(0.041)	(0.052)	(0.043)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	-0.016	-0.004	-0.091**
	(0.033)	(0.041)	(0.040)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.052	-0.001	0.046
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.037)
Age of respondent	0.004	-0.007	0.029**
	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.012)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.015	-0.030	-0.083*
	(0.045)	(0.056)	(0.050)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.082**	0.164***	0.006





	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.030)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	0.181***	0.006	0.091**
	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.036)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.038	-0.067	0.096**
	(0.051)	(0.056)	(0.047)
Number of children under 17	0.022	0.030	0.015
	(0.024)	(0.018)	(0.012)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.005	-0.008	-0.047***
	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	0.067*	0.070	0.132***
	(0.035)	(0.047)	(0.044)
Wealth Index	-0.040**	-0.041***	-0.021**
	(0.017)	(0.015)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.004	-0.024	-0.014
	(0.033)	(0.039)	(0.033)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.059	0.006	-0.075**
	(0.043)	(0.044)	(0.037)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.087**	0.034	-0.009
	(0.037)	(0.042)	(0.034)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.034	0.052	-0.046
	(0.035)	(0.037)	(0.032)
Adventurous (Yes)	0.059	0.103**	0.075*
	(0.058)	(0.045)	(0.042)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.037	0.002	0.038
	(0.038)	(0.045)	(0.037)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.045	0.014	0.077
	(0.049)	(0.052)	(0.054)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.004	-0.057	0.149**
	(0.049)	(0.083)	(0.064)
Sample size	884	780	995

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses

6.2. Skills training participation and ease of finding employment

Does **participation in a skills training programme** make it easier for individuals to find employment in their local area? As outlined in Section 2, this is one of key underlying assumptions of the 'tackling root causes of migration' policy agenda. However, our regression results paint a rather different picture, suggesting that in short: no, it does not.

As Table 21 below shows, we find a negative and statistically significant relationship between these two variables in Bangladesh (which holds for all regressions), while the relationship is not significant at all in the two other countries⁸. More specifically, Bangladeshi training participants have a 13 percentage point reduction in the 'ease of finding employment' variable – statistically significant at the 1% level.

In terms of some of the other independent variables:

⁸ There is a positive, statistically significant coefficient for the Lewbel Egypt regression.





- **Migration networks.** Results point in two opposing directions for the relationship between knowing a migrant and ease of finding a job in Bangladesh and Egypt. For Bangladeshi respondents, knowing a migrant is associated with an 11 percentage point increase in the 'ease of finding a job' variable; by contrast, there is a 15 percentage reduction amongst Egyptian respondents, statistically significant at 10% level.
- **Wealth and financial wellbeing.** Individuals who say they are finding it difficult to get by are 11 percentage points less likely to say it is easy to find a job in Bangladesh, and 13 percentage points less likely in Egypt.
- **Local trust.** We see a positive association between trust and ease of finding a job for the Bangladesh and Nigeria samples. Individuals who trust other people in the community have an increased probability of deeming it easy to find a job in the community: on this measure, there is a 12 percentage point increase amongst Bangladeshi respondents and a 14-percentage point increase amongst Nigerian respondents.
- **Local safety and security.** There is a negative relationship between experience of violence and ease of finding a job amongst respondents in Bangladesh and Egypt. Those who have experienced violence are 8 and 9 percentage point less likely to state that it is easy to find a job in Bangladesh and Egypt, respectively (significant at the 1% and 5% levels, respectively).
- **Marriage.** For Bangladeshi respondents, being married is associated with a 10 percentage point reduction in the 'ease of finding a job' variable, at 5% level of significance. There is no statistically significant difference for Egyptian and Nigerian respondents.
- **Personality traits.** While perseverance is associated with a 5 percentage point increase in finding it easy to find a job in one's local area in Bangladesh (significant at 10%), amongst Nigerian respondents this particular trait is associated with a 9 percentage point reduction (significant at 1%). For the Bangladesh sample, more adventurous individuals are 14 percentage point less likely to report it easy finding a job in their local area (significant at 1%).

Table 21. The relationship between programme participation and ease of finding a job within the area

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	-0.128*** (0.036)	0.013 (0.043)	0.002 (0.026)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.043 (0.057)	0.101 (0.074)	0.002 (0.062)
Has a migrants family member (Yes)	0.018 (0.035)	0.008 (0.041)	-0.048 (0.040)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.106*** (0.033)	-0.147*** (0.054)	-0.029 (0.032)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.027 (0.033)	0.036 (0.056)	0.027 (0.036)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	-0.011	0.014	-0.036





	(0.028)	(0.043)	(0.031)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.022	-0.048	-0.051
	(0.030)	(0.037)	(0.031)
Age of respondent	0.015	-0.003	-0.011
	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.009)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.098**	0.017	-0.036
	(0.042)	(0.058)	(0.038)
Gender of respondent (Male)	-0.018	0.011	-0.018
	(0.033)	(0.040)	(0.024)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.009	-0.031	0.032
	(0.034)	(0.043)	(0.028)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.015	0.007	-0.002
	(0.041)	(0.058)	(0.037)
Number of children under 17	0.035*	0.023	-0.009
	(0.018)	(0.018)	(0.010)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.004	-0.003	-0.003
	(0.009)	(0.011)	(0.009)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.114***	-0.127***	-0.037
	(0.027)	(0.047)	(0.033)
Wealth Index	0.014	0.029*	0.011
	(0.014)	(0.015)	(0.008)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.121***	-0.026	0.143***
	(0.027)	(0.040)	(0.030)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.023	-0.016	0.014
	(0.039)	(0.045)	(0.030)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	-0.081***	-0.096**	-0.018
	(0.029)	(0.043)	(0.028)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.052*	-0.061	-0.086***
	(0.029)	(0.037)	(0.028)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.137***	0.022	0.036
	(0.051)	(0.045)	(0.030)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.009	0.024	0.045
	(0.031)	(0.046)	(0.030)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.042	-0.019	0.052
	(0.043)	(0.054)	(0.047)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.074*	-0.097	0.090
	(0.042)	(0.083)	(0.064)
Sample size (N)	865	737	934

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

6.3. Skills training participation and migration consideration

For the remainder of this section, we focus on our second outcome area of interest – migration aspirations – and begin by looking at the ‘migration consideration’ dependent variable.

Here, we find a strong, positive association between **participation in a skills training programme** and migration consideration amongst Bangladeshi and Nigerian respondents. As Table 22 below shows, participants in Bangladesh are 16 percentage points more likely to have migration





considerations (significant at 1%), while participants in Nigeria are 7 percentage points more likely (significant at 5%). The result is not statistically significant for Egypt. These findings hold for the LPM and IPW model, while for the Lewbel model the coefficient is only statistically significant for Bangladesh (significant at 1% for all regressions for Bangladesh).

On the other independent variables:

- **Migration networks.** As perhaps to be expected, there are some positive associations between migration networks and migration considerations. Amongst Nigerian respondents, those who have a migrant family member are 13 percentage points more likely to have migration considerations (significant at 1% level). Meanwhile, knowing a migrant is associated with an increased probability of migration considerations of 9 percentage points for Bangladeshi respondents.
- **Failed migration.** Perhaps surprisingly, personal knowledge of failed migration is associated with a 7 percentage and 12 percentage point increase in migration considerations amongst Bangladeshi and Egyptian respondents, respectively (both significant at 1%).
- **Migration messaging.** For Bangladeshi respondents, exposure to migration related messages is positively associated with migration considerations: those exposed to such messaging are 15 percentage points more likely to consider migrating relative to those who have not been.
- **Age.** For Nigeria, the results point to a convex relationship between age and migration considerations. As individuals grow older, they are 5 percentage points more likely to consider migration. At the same time, however, the variable for age squared has a negative coefficient. This implies that the relationship between age and migration aspirations is convex in nature: that is, the number of older people aspiring to migrate increases at a decreasing rate until it reaches a (maximum) point where it starts to decline.
- **Gender.** Male respondents are more likely to have higher migration considerations relative to female respondents. Male respondents are 19 and 15 percentage points more likely to consider migration than female respondents in the Bangladesh and Egypt samples, respectively (both significant at 1%). These results are not significant for the Nigeria sample.
- **Education.** We see a mixed picture here. While having tertiary education is associated with a reduced likelihood of 9 percentage points of having migration considerations amongst Bangladeshi respondents, for Nigerian respondents it is associated with an increased likelihood of 11 percentage points (both significant at 5%).
- **Local safety and security.** Experiences of violence in one's community are positively associated with having migration considerations. The results show that, for Bangladesh and Egypt, experiences of violence are associated with an 8 and 17 percentage point increase in having migration considerations, respectively. This result is significant at 5% in the Bangladeshi case and at 1% in the Egyptian.





- Personality traits.** Results suggest that personal traits are strongly associated here, but only in the case of Nigeria. Having a sense of adventure is associated with an 18 percentage point increase in having migration considerations (significant at 1%). Additionally, individuals who ‘sometimes’ accept uncertainty have a 7 percentage point higher probability of considering migration, while those who ‘often’ accept uncertainty have an 11 percentage point higher probability.

Table 22. The relationship between programme participation and consideration of migration

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.159***	0.041	0.073**
	(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.032)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.349***	0.032	0.038
	(0.053)	(0.065)	(0.076)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.033	0.032	0.129***
	(0.041)	(0.038)	(0.046)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.092***	0.089	0.072
	(0.036)	(0.054)	(0.045)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.035	0.080	0.005
	(0.040)	(0.050)	(0.043)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.071**	0.121***	0.006
	(0.032)	(0.040)	(0.039)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.146***	0.029	0.050
	(0.035)	(0.033)	(0.036)
Age of respondent	0.009	0.014	0.045***
	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.012)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.008	-0.058	-0.121**
	(0.041)	(0.052)	(0.050)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.190***	0.154***	-0.008
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.030)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.087**	0.050	0.106***
	(0.036)	(0.039)	(0.037)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.030	-0.013	0.061
	(0.048)	(0.052)	(0.045)
Number of children under 17	0.008	0.005	-0.009
	(0.023)	(0.017)	(0.010)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.016	-0.005	0.015
	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.011)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.014	0.072	0.015
	(0.034)	(0.046)	(0.045)
Wealth Index	0.014	0.011	0.005
	(0.016)	(0.014)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	-0.004	-0.000	-0.017
	(0.031)	(0.036)	(0.033)



Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.008	-0.001	0.026
	(0.040)	(0.041)	(0.036)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.083**	0.169***	0.050
	(0.035)	(0.041)	(0.034)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.008	0.021	-0.046
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.031)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.030	0.038	0.181***
	(0.058)	(0.041)	(0.041)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.016	0.042	0.072**
	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.037)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.053	0.016	0.114**
	(0.047)	(0.047)	(0.054)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.030	-0.058	0.003
	(0.045)	(0.070)	(0.068)
Sampl size (N)			

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

6.4. Skills training participation and migration preference

Migration preferences refer to whether someone would *prefer* to move to another country or stay in the country where they currently live. While we do not find any statistically significant results for the Egypt sample, we do in Bangladesh and Nigeria. For Nigerian respondents, **participation in a skills training programme** is associated with a 6 percentage point increase in preferring to move to another country (significant at 5%), while for Bangladeshi respondents the equivalent increase is particularly large at 27 percentage points (significant at 1%). These results are consistent across all regression models, though the Nigeria coefficient loses statistical significance under the Lewbel model.

In terms of other independent variables of note:

- **Migration history.** Having previously lived abroad is associated with a 36 percentage point increase in the probability of preferring to migrate for Bangladeshi respondents, significant at 1%. This relationship is not statistically significant for Egypt and Nigeria.
- **Migration networks.** Individuals who have a migrant family member have an 8 and 10 percentage point higher probability of migration preference in Egypt and Nigeria, respectively (significant at 5%). Knowing a migrant family member is not statically significant in Bangladesh. Meanwhile, knowing a migrant is associated with an 8 and 12 percentage point increase in the probability of migration preference for Bangladeshi and Egyptian respondents, respectively. Remittance receipt also appears important here: while there are no significant results in the Nigeria sample, for Bangladeshi and Egyptian respondents the receipt of remittances is associated with a 9 and 10 percentage point increase in the probability of preferring to migrate, respectively.
- **Migration messaging.** Exposure to migration messages is associated with a 17 and 11 percentage point increase in the probability of preferring to migrate for Bangladeshi and Egyptian respondents, respectively (both significant at 1%).





- **Gender.** Male respondents are 20 and 15 percentage points more likely to prefer to migrate than female respondents in Bangladesh and Egypt, respectively.
- **Education.** Having tertiary education is associated with a 7 percentage point lower probability of preferring to migrate amongst Bangladeshi respondents.
- **Wealth and financial wellbeing.** Egyptian respondents who are finding it difficult to get by are 8 percentage points more likely to prefer to migrate elsewhere.
- **Local trust.** Meanwhile, having trust in the community reduces Egyptian respondents' migration preference by 6 percentage points.
- **Personality traits.** Only for Nigeria do we see that being adventurous is associated with an 11 percentage point higher preference for migration.

Table 23. The relationship between programme participation and migration preference

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.268***	-0.011	0.058**
	(0.037)	(0.039)	(0.028)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.363***	0.038	0.080
	(0.045)	(0.067)	(0.055)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.001	0.078**	0.104**
	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.041)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.084***	0.124**	-0.012
	(0.032)	(0.059)	(0.040)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.089**	0.103**	-0.000
	(0.036)	(0.052)	(0.039)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.042	0.031	-0.010
	(0.029)	(0.039)	(0.035)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.172***	0.112***	-0.011
	(0.032)	(0.034)	(0.031)
Age of respondent	0.005	-0.004	0.013
	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.011)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.038	-0.056	-0.094**
	(0.038)	(0.054)	(0.046)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.196***	0.152***	-0.022
	(0.034)	(0.038)	(0.026)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.070**	0.006	0.003
	(0.032)	(0.039)	(0.031)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.008	-0.020	-0.032
	(0.044)	(0.054)	(0.040)
Number of children under 17	-0.001	-0.000	-0.005
	(0.021)	(0.017)	(0.009)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.019**	0.002	-0.012
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)





Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.008 (0.031)	0.078* (0.043)	-0.054 (0.042)
Wealth Index	0.014 (0.015)	0.034** (0.014)	-0.005 (0.010)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.013 (0.028)	-0.064* (0.037)	-0.047 (0.030)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.029 (0.037)	-0.044 (0.041)	-0.022 (0.033)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.059* (0.032)	0.037 (0.040)	0.022 (0.030)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.009 (0.030)	-0.028 (0.034)	-0.008 (0.028)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.048 (0.054)	0.041 (0.042)	0.111*** (0.037)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.016 (0.033)	0.023 (0.043)	0.047 (0.032)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.043 (0.043)	0.060 (0.049)	0.018 (0.051)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.041 (0.041)	0.089 (0.080)	0.026 (0.065)
Sample size (N)	884	780	997

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

6.5. Skills training participation and migration readiness

Migration readiness captures a person's willingness to seize an opportunity to migrate to another country (even if they might not have considered migrating previously, or do not have a preference for migration relative to staying). Our results in Table 24 show a positive and significant relationship between **participation in skills training programme** and migration readiness – but only for the Bangladesh sample. Amongst these respondents, participation is associated with a 21 percentage point increase in the probability of being ready to migrate (significant at 1%). This is consistent too across the other three regression models.

Other independent variables of note here include:

- **Migration history.** The results further show that having lived abroad previously has a positive and significant effect on migration readiness for Bangladesh (a 32 percentage point increase) and Nigeria (a 7 percentage point increase), but a negative and significant effect for Egypt (an 11 percentage point decrease). It is not clear what is driving this negative coefficient amongst Egyptian respondents. Knowledge of failed migration, which could be one potential explanation, is statistically insignificant. However, it is possible that because Egyptian migrants tend to stay abroad for protracted periods, in some cases they may be less willing to migrate again once returning home.
- **Migration networks.** We see some consistent patterns here. For Egypt and Nigeria, having a family member abroad increases the probability of being ready for migration by 13 and 9 percentage points, respectively. While there is no such result for Bangladesh, knowing a migrant increases the probability of migration readiness for Bangladeshi respondents by 11





percentage points. The results further show that receiving remittances has a significant and positive relationship with migration readiness for the Egypt sample by 10 percentage points.

- **Migration messaging.** Receiving migration messaging is found to be a strong predictor of migration readiness across all three countries. When individuals are exposed to such messaging regarding, results show a 15, 13 and 8 percentage point increase in migration readiness for Bangladeshi, Egyptian and Nigerian respondents, respectively – all statistically significant at 1%.
- **Gender.** Being male is associated with a 25 and 17 percentage point increase in the probability of migration readiness for Bangladesh and Egypt, respectively.
- **Education.** Having tertiary education has contrasting results. For Bangladeshi respondents, tertiary education is associated with a 9 percentage point decline in migration readiness, while for Egyptian respondents it is associated with an 8 percentage point increase.
- **Dependents.** For Egyptian respondents, having children under the age of 17 reduces the probability of being ready to migrate by 7 percentage points.
- **Wealth and financial wellbeing.** People who are finding it difficult to get by are more likely to be ready to migrate in the Egypt sample, where we see an 8 percentage point increase in readiness. Amongst Nigerian respondents, however, we see a 7 percentage point reduction in migration readiness for people who are finding it difficult to get by. This potentially reflects the idea that migration is not just about the desire to migrate but also the ability to migrate as well (Carling, 2024), requiring as it often does significant financial capital.
- **Personality traits.** We see positive results here amongst Egyptian and Nigerian respondents. People with a sense of adventure are 9 and 12 percentage points more likely to be ready to migrate in the Egypt and Nigeria samples, respectively. For Egypt in particular, individuals who are always willing to accept uncertainty are 23 percentage points more likely to be ready to migrate relative to those who are not always willing to accept uncertainty.

Table 24. The relationship between skills training programmes and migration readiness

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.206***	0.009	0.025
	(0.039)	(0.039)	(0.024)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.319***	-0.110*	0.065*
	(0.045)	(0.066)	(0.037)
Has a migrant family member	-0.035	0.127***	0.093**
	(0.038)	(0.038)	(0.040)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.111***	0.064	-0.012
	(0.034)	(0.059)	(0.033)



Has received remittances (Yes)	0.042	0.103**	-0.055
	(0.039)	(0.051)	(0.036)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.009	-0.011	-0.037
	(0.030)	(0.037)	(0.031)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.152***	0.125***	0.085***
	(0.034)	(0.033)	(0.029)
Age of respondent	-0.004	-0.020*	0.009
	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.008)
Age squared	-0.000	0.000	-0.000*
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.031	-0.024	-0.029
	(0.041)	(0.049)	(0.037)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.245***	0.169***	0.018
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.022)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.093***	0.077**	-0.001
	(0.035)	(0.038)	(0.026)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.020	-0.086*	0.000
	(0.047)	(0.050)	(0.035)
Number of children under 17	0.001	0.025	0.001
	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.008)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.006	-0.003	-0.011
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.008)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.008	0.079**	-0.070*
	(0.032)	(0.040)	(0.038)
Wealth Index	-0.002	0.006	-0.018**
	(0.016)	(0.014)	(0.008)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.042	-0.011	-0.019
	(0.030)	(0.036)	(0.024)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.010	-0.059	-0.013
	(0.039)	(0.039)	(0.027)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.069**	0.049	0.006
	(0.034)	(0.038)	(0.025)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.012	-0.028	-0.027
	(0.031)	(0.033)	(0.023)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.002	0.090**	0.120***
	(0.053)	(0.041)	(0.034)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.026	0.021	-0.025
	(0.035)	(0.042)	(0.028)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.037	-0.004	-0.035
	(0.045)	(0.048)	(0.044)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.020	0.230***	0.016
	(0.044)	(0.068)	(0.051)
Sample size (N)	882	779	997

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.





6.6. Skills training participation and resolute migration aspirations

Finally in this section, we look at resolute migration aspirations – a cumulative condition where someone has seriously considered migrating, prefers to leave rather than stay, *and* feels ready to seize the opportunity to do so.

Our results show that **participation in a skills training programme** has a significant and positive relationship with resolute migration aspirations, but only for Bangladesh. Here, we see that participation is associated with a 22 percentage point increase in the probability of having resolute migration aspirations (significant at 1%) Participation does not have an influence on resolute migrate aspirations for the Egypt and Nigeria samples; although for the IPW and Lewbel regression models, the coefficient for Nigeria is positive and statistically significant.

On the other independent variables:

- **Migration history.** Having lived abroad previously is associated with a 35 percentage point increase in the probability of having resolute migration aspirations amongst Bangladeshi respondents, but is not significant amongst Egyptians and Nigerians.
- **Migration networks.** Having a migrant family member is associated with a 14 and 7 percentage point increase in the probability of having resolute migration aspirations for the Egypt and Nigeria samples (both significant at 1%). While the equivalent result is not statistically significant for Bangladesh, we do find that knowing a migrant – i.e. regardless of kinship – is associated with an 11 percentage point increase amongst Bangladeshi respondents. Meanwhile, remittance receipt is significantly associated with resolute migration aspirations but in different directions for Egypt and Nigeria. For Egypt, remittance receipt is associated with a 9 percentage point increase in the probability of having resolute migration aspirations; while for Nigeria, it is associated with a 5 percentage point reduction.
- **Migration messaging.** Having been exposed to migration messaging is a strong, positive determinant of resolute migration aspirations across all countries – and all significant at 1%. Such exposure is associated with a 15, 13 and 7 percentage point increase in the probability of having resolute migration aspirations for Bangladeshi, Egyptian and Nigerian respondents, respectively.
- **Age.** The results show a convex relationship between age and resolute migration aspiration for Nigeria, but a concave relationship for Egypt. As individuals grow older, resolute migration aspirations decrease by 2 percentage points in the Egypt sample (significant at 10%). For Nigeria, there is a 2 percentage point increase in resolute migration aspirations (significant at 5%).
- **Gender.** For the Bangladesh and Egypt samples, male respondents are 25 and 17 percentage points more likely to hold resolute migration aspirations relative to women, respectively (both significant at 1%).
- **Personality traits.** Being adventurous is positively associated with resolute migration aspirations for Egypt and Nigeria, with effects of 10 and 14 percentage points, respectively.





Egyptian respondents who are always willing to accept uncertainty are 22 percentage points more likely to have resolute migration aspirations than those who are not.

Table 25. The relationship between programme participation and resolute migration aspirations

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.216***	0.013	0.031
	(0.037)	(0.038)	(0.024)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.353***	-0.099	0.077
	(0.060)	(0.065)	(0.057)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.039	0.139***	0.086***
	(0.040)	(0.037)	(0.033)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.106***	0.045	-0.005
	(0.035)	(0.053)	(0.033)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.053	0.088*	-0.053*
	(0.039)	(0.049)	(0.032)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.015	-0.017	-0.042
	(0.031)	(0.038)	(0.029)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.152***	0.128***	0.087***
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.027)
Age of respondent	-0.006	-0.022*	0.020**
	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.009)
Age squared	-0.000	0.000	-0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.037	-0.022	-0.022
	(0.043)	(0.051)	(0.037)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.247***	0.169***	0.022
	(0.035)	(0.036)	(0.022)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.087**	0.082**	-0.000
	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.027)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.013	-0.083	0.008
	(0.047)	(0.052)	(0.034)
Number of children under 17	0.003	0.026	0.002
	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.008)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.005	-0.003	-0.011
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.008)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.013	0.086**	-0.064*
	(0.033)	(0.044)	(0.034)
Wealth Index	-0.006	0.008	-0.019**
	(0.016)	(0.014)	(0.008)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.044	-0.020	-0.023
	(0.031)	(0.036)	(0.025)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.012	-0.057	-0.026
	(0.040)	(0.041)	(0.027)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.069**	0.053	0.009
	(0.035)	(0.039)	(0.025)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.016	-0.030	-0.024
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.024)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.006	0.102**	0.138***
	(0.051)	(0.041)	(0.030)





Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.029 (0.036)	0.023 (0.042)	-0.020 (0.027)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.037 (0.046)	-0.004 (0.048)	-0.027 (0.041)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.016 (0.045)	0.216*** (0.077)	0.013 (0.050)
Sample size (N)	882	779	997

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.



7. Discussion of key findings

7.1. Work and livelihoods

The first measure of work / livelihoods is whether individuals are actively looking for new employment. The regression findings show that individuals who participated in a skills training programme are more likely to seek new employment. These results are consistent with previous literature in Bangladesh (Das, 2021), as well as broader literature (Kluve et al., 2019), that show increased labour force participation following a skills training programme.

The second measure is the ease of finding a good job in one's local area. The findings show that participating in a skills training programme actually increases the probability of finding it *difficult* to find a good job. This is perhaps contrary to what we would expect from the results. The *a priori* expectation is that individuals who participate in a skills training programme will improve their employability skills and market value (Beber et al., 2025; Kluve et al., 2019), and hence find it easier to get a job that requires their skillset. However, it is for the very same reason that the negative relationship that we observe in the data can potentially be understood. Most of the participants indeed upskill, but some of these skills trainings – especially in Bangladesh – are designed with a particular focus on potential migration destinations, and are therefore not necessarily geared towards local markets. As such, participants' new skills may be lower in demand or less well-remunerated in the local area relative to labour markets abroad. Another explanation for Egypt in particular could be that trainings are often short in duration, and may therefore not result in substantial skill acquisition and substantial changes in labour market outcomes.

For the Bangladesh and Nigeria samples, our findings also show a positive association between the ease of finding a good job and local trust. This finding perhaps speaks to the ability of individuals to build social capital: to trust someone in the community, one requires a certain level of connection. Hence, individuals who trust others in the community may be more likely to build social capital and connections which could then make it easier for them to find better employment (or at least employment-related information).

Again for the Bangladesh and Nigeria samples, individuals who have experienced violence in the community are more likely to find it harder to secure a good job. This may be linked to continuing to feel unsafe in one's local area, thus discouraging the pursuit of alternative work options, or because such experiences may have negative consequences for generating the kind of social capital that may help them negotiate the local job market.

The findings from this study further show that married individuals in Bangladesh find it difficult to find a good job in their respective local areas. An initial expectation here may be that married individuals would seek more employment opportunities to support their families. However, existing evidence from Bangladesh highlights the rigid social and cultural norms that can make it difficult for married women in particular to participate in many sectors of the labour market, beyond relatively small-scale and informal family businesses (Bridges et al., 2011; Heintz et al., 2018; Salway et al., 2005).

On personality traits, we find no clear or consistent picture in terms of finding a good job. While other studies suggest that perseverance and sense of adventure are traits that are particularly present amongst individuals looking to start and run a business (Esha et al., 2026; Pekkala Kerr



et al., 2017), our results are more mixed. This may be a valuable area for further, more detailed data analysis.

7.2. Migration aspirations

There are four migration aspiration measures that we look at in this analysis: consideration, preference, readiness and resolute migration aspirations. On the whole, there is a positive relationship between participation in skills training programmes and migration aspirations. This is particularly true for Bangladesh, with consistent results across the regression models. In Nigeria, this relationship is only true for migration considerations and migration preference. In Egypt however, this relationship is not statistically significant across any of the models – a finding that could be attributed to the type, quality and length of training programme.

In Section 2.1 we laid out a number of potential links between skills training participation and migration aspirations. Our findings here partly align with three of them. First, that ‘participation in skills training programmes strengthens people’s aspiration to migrate’. Second, that ‘participation in skills training programmes has the potential to influence people’s migration aspirations in different ways and directions, but only under certain conditions’. And then potentially also third, ‘migration aspirations shape people’s participation in skills training programmes’. Some follow-up in-depth qualitative research would help to further unpack and specify the precise nature of these links, including how they might vary across context and conditions.

It bears noting here that although our findings are fairly consistent across regression models (including those with a stronger identification strategy), we still cannot be certain about causality. For instance, the very consistent findings for Bangladesh – where some training centres additionally offer pre-departure trainings and information on migration – could be an indication that it is migration aspirations themselves that drive people to participate in a training programme. On the other hand, our Egypt findings suggest that the specific design and delivery of skills training programmes might help to explain why there is no statistically significant effect.

Coming to other variables, the findings also show a positive association between previous migration experience and migration aspirations. This finding is only significant for Bangladesh, but across all measures of migration aspiration. Literature on the relationship between previous migration experience on re-migration is mixed and context-specific. On the one hand, for example, experience living abroad can be positively associated with re-migration: individuals who initially went for migration are faced with challenges of re-integration, stigma, weak support and limited resources back home (Uddin et al., 2024), thus making migrating again relatively attractive. Some return migrants also view returning as a strategy to accumulate financial capital in order to finance re-emigration (Bossavie et al., 2025). On the other hand, some return migrants tend to experience successful entrepreneurial activities and improved performance of household firms in Egypt (Bensassi & Jabbour, 2022; Marchetta, 2012) – this may support successful reintegration and reduce re-migration pressure.

Having a migrant family member or knowing a migrant is positively associated with migration aspirations. Knowing family member in migration is associated with increased migration aspiration for Egypt and Nigeria across all migration aspiration variables, except for consideration. However, this relationship is not significant in Bangladesh. In Bangladesh, knowing any migrant increases migration aspirations across all migration aspiration variables. This pattern demonstrates a well-





established distinction between strong and weak ties in migration networks. While migration in Nigeria is embedded in strong kinship and social capital (Kastner, 2010; Pekkala Kerr et al., 2017), in a country where there is strong government support for migration and institutionalised recruitment networks, like in Bangladesh (Government of Bangladesh & ILO, 2015), such kinship support may play a smaller role.

The finding shows a mixed relationship between remittance receipt and migration aspirations. Across three⁹ measures of migration aspirations, there is a positive relationship between receiving remittances and migration aspirations for Egypt. These findings confirm results from the existing literature showing that people who receive remittances have a higher chance of holding migration aspirations (Aslany et al., 2021; Hagen-Zanker et al., 2025). For Nigeria, however, this relationship is negative for resolute migration aspiration and not statistically significant for the other outcomes. This may be as a result of remittances mostly being used for consumption smoothing (Fonta et al., 2015) rather than migration financing. Additionally, remittances can also improve household livelihoods, thus making household more financially stable and reducing the need to migrate in the first place.

Perhaps one of the surprising results here is that knowledge of failed migration is associated with increased migration aspirations in Bangladesh and Egypt. This is surprising considering that knowledge of failed migration can act as deterrent factor, for example by heightening a sense of fear amongst those who may be considering migrating. However, several other factors can also come into play, including individuals' perceived risk tolerance as well as their ability to learn from failed migration processes (Carling et al., 2023; Hagen-Zanker et al., 2025).

Exposure to migration messaging is a strong predictor of migration aspirations. Our findings here show that the coefficient for exposure to migration messaging is consistently positive and significant for all countries¹⁰ and across all migration aspiration measurements. These results are consistent with existing literature that highlights the positive relationship between migration aspirations and migration messaging (Bakewell & Sturridge, 2021; Caso & Carling, 2024; Grubanov-Boskovic et al., 2021). Individuals with knowledge of migration messages – whether indeed these messages emphasise the risks / failures of migration or instead focus on successful migration stories – are better positioned to assess their situation, assess their risks and opportunities, and more likely to consider migration. This can often be despite the risks at hand, as for some high risk may open up new possibilities (Bakewell & Sturridge, 2021).

The finding also show relatively consistently that male respondents are more likely to hold migration aspirations – this is the case across all migration aspiration measures and for all countries apart from Nigeria. These findings are consistent with the broader literature on migration as being male has been found to be associated with higher probability of migrating (Aslany et al., 2021; Migali & Scipioni, 2019). More specifically, Hagen-Zanker et al., (2025) found a statistically significant reduction in migration aspirations for women respondents in nine of 25 communities in Africa, Asia and the Middle East.

⁹ Migration preference, readiness and resolute migration aspirations.

¹⁰ With a few exceptions, the results are not significant for migration consideration in Egypt and Nigeria and for migration preference in Nigeria.





A sharp contrast in the results is seen on the relationship between tertiary education and migration considerations. The results show that having tertiary education is associated with a reduced probability of migration consideration for Bangladesh, and an increased probability for Nigeria. The result in Bangladesh is supported by some of the literature. Ahsan et al. (2026), for example, study how psychosocial integration shapes non-migration aspiration in Bangladesh. They found that psychosocial integration – encompassing place attachment, social capital and institutional ties – is the predominant predictor of immobility among non-migrants. Households with higher educational attainment and economic resources exhibit stronger place attachment, and are hence less likely to consider migration. The result in Nigeria is more consistent with migration theory detailing that capabilities – such as education, income and social networks – mainly work to facilitate migration by broadening opportunity horizons (De Haas, 2021). Several studies in Nigeria have shown a positive relationship between higher education and migration aspirations (Adeyanju & Olatunji, 2022; Oyedokun et al., 2025).

The findings further show a positive association between experience of violence and migration aspirations. The positive coefficient is significant across all migration aspirations measurements for Bangladesh. In all other countries, this relationship is not statistically significant except for Egypt, where experience of violence has a positive and significant relationship with migration considerations. Having experienced violence may continue to make individuals feel unsafe further down the line, with previous studies from Bangladesh showing that violence and existing social insecurity may drive migration aspirations (Haque & Rahman, 2025).

Finally, the findings also hint at a positive relationship between certain personal traits, such as perceived sense of adventure and ability to accept uncertainty, and migration aspirations. While this relationship is not always significant across different measures of migration aspirations, the general finding that certain personality traits may be associated with migration aspirations is consistent with some of the existing literature: amongst Syrians in Turkey, for example, subjective risk-taking attitudes significantly predict migration aspirations (Kiriscioglu, 2026).





8. Conclusions

This study set out to ask: *How do people's experiences with skills training programmes influence their livelihood activity and migration aspirations?* Using survey data collected from more than 3,000 respondents across six research areas in Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria, in this paper we described the perceptions of participants and non-participants of such trainings and then used regression analysis to examine the relationship between participating in skills training programmes and livelihood outcomes and migration aspirations. Our findings show that the relationship between skills trainings, migration aspirations and work / livelihoods is far from the straightforward association that policy-makers often assume when they use skills trainings as a migration management tool.

Overall, the evidence from this study suggests that participation in skills training programmes is associated with *higher* migration aspirations rather than lower ones. However, this relationship appears to be conditional, context-specific and shaped by general labour market realities. For the Bangladesh sample, participation in training programmes was consistently associated with stronger migration aspirations across multiple measures and econometrics models. For the Nigerian sample, the relationship was evident for migration considerations and preferences. For the Egyptian sample, however, the relationship was not statistically significant at all, indicating that skills trainings do not affect migration aspirations in either direction.

Our findings suggest that programme design, duration of training, quality and labour market conditions may mediate outcomes. The majority of training programmes in Egypt were short-term, and while participants were generally satisfied with them, their effectiveness in truly changing employment opportunities for participants is questionable. The Bangladeshi training centres also offer pre-departure trainings, indicating that either those with strong migration aspirations may either sign up for trainings – especially those that could open up opportunities abroad – or learn about the possibility of migrating while participating in the training. More broadly, policy makers should ensure that programmes offered consider demands of both local and international labour markets.

Beyond migration alone, our findings from Bangladesh and Nigeria also show that participating in a skills training is associated with an increased likelihood of seeking new employment. However, even though participation may in some cases lead to a greater likelihood of seeking new employment, it does not necessarily make it easier to find a good job in one's local area. If demand for someone's upgraded skills does not exist in local labour markets, faith in local futures may further deteriorate amongst participants. This dissatisfaction may then result in participants looking elsewhere for opportunities to benefit from their upgraded skills. This means that for skill training programmes to realize their objectives, they should be accompanied by a restructuring of the domestic labour markets towards creating jobs for upskilled workers¹¹.

¹¹ Many thanks to Ibrahim Awad for this important suggestion.





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10. Annex

10.1. Inverse Propensity Weight Model (IPW)

10.1.1. Actively seeking new employment

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.211*** (0.045)	0.054 (0.048)	0.103*** (0.034)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	-0.017 (0.076)	0.015 (0.112)	-0.026 (0.078)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.060 (0.058)	-0.016 (0.059)	0.074 (0.052)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	-0.043 (0.046)	0.004 (0.078)	0.135*** (0.043)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.080 (0.054)	0.011 (0.067)	-0.063 (0.049)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	-0.067 (0.046)	-0.021 (0.062)	-0.116*** (0.043)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.027 (0.054)	-0.061 (0.050)	0.054 (0.043)
Age of respondent	0.025 (0.022)	-0.029 (0.021)	0.029** (0.014)
Age squared	-0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.000** (0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.102** (0.050)	0.044 (0.078)	-0.093 (0.057)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.218*** (0.055)	0.120** (0.052)	-0.028 (0.034)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	0.039 (0.058)	0.034 (0.060)	0.131*** (0.041)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.023 (0.071)	-0.153** (0.076)	0.038 (0.056)
Number of children under 17	-0.032 (0.036)	0.047 (0.029)	0.026** (0.012)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.018 (0.015)	0.008 (0.016)	-0.053*** (0.014)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	0.102** (0.045)	0.180*** (0.069)	0.115** (0.054)
Wealth Index	0.001 (0.029)	-0.036* (0.020)	-0.007 (0.012)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	-0.026 (0.046)	-0.012 (0.053)	0.027 (0.038)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	-0.067 (0.058)	-0.010 (0.065)	-0.066 (0.043)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.181***	-0.035	-0.007





	(0.056)	(0.064)	(0.039)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.012	-0.016	-0.005
	(0.048)	(0.053)	(0.036)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.065	0.094	0.057
	(0.094)	(0.074)	(0.048)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.019	0.080	0.073*
	(0.054)	(0.059)	(0.043)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.082	0.018	0.121**
	(0.068)	(0.068)	(0.060)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.023	0.078	0.149**
	(0.059)	(0.112)	(0.068)
Sample size (N)	884	780	990

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.1.2. Ease of finding a job in the area

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	-0.069*	0.050	-0.012
	(0.037)	(0.048)	(0.033)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.045	-0.001	-0.031
	(0.067)	(0.109)	(0.075)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.037	-0.061	-0.060
	(0.044)	(0.061)	(0.053)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.108***	-0.153**	-0.036
	(0.038)	(0.073)	(0.040)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.005	0.045	0.059
	(0.034)	(0.067)	(0.046)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.032	0.084	0.014
	(0.033)	(0.062)	(0.043)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.134***	-0.070	-0.098**
	(0.039)	(0.051)	(0.042)
Age of respondent	-0.003	0.005	-0.010
	(0.016)	(0.021)	(0.015)
Age squared	0.000	-0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.091*	-0.026	-0.042
	(0.048)	(0.088)	(0.050)
Gender of respondent (Male)	-0.035	0.123**	-0.005
	(0.043)	(0.049)	(0.032)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	0.029	0.019	0.035
	(0.040)	(0.059)	(0.035)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.083*	0.135*	-0.008
	(0.044)	(0.078)	(0.050)
Number of children under 17	0.025	-0.035	0.006
	(0.020)	(0.028)	(0.009)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.015	-0.017	-0.020





	(0.010)	(0.017)	(0.013)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.099***	-0.168**	-0.023
	(0.033)	(0.068)	(0.045)
Wealth Index	0.009	0.061***	0.030**
	(0.017)	(0.020)	(0.012)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.192***	-0.134**	0.145***
	(0.034)	(0.052)	(0.036)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.092*	-0.019	0.001
	(0.048)	(0.064)	(0.045)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	-0.075**	-0.067	-0.013
	(0.032)	(0.063)	(0.037)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.018	-0.058	-0.094**
	(0.039)	(0.053)	(0.037)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.029	0.076	0.048
	(0.058)	(0.067)	(0.039)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.066*	0.046	0.042
	(0.039)	(0.063)	(0.038)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.017	-0.016	0.037
	(0.046)	(0.069)	(0.065)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.072	-0.114	0.076
	(0.050)	(0.090)	(0.074)
Sample size (N)			

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.1.3. Migration aspirations: Considerations

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.133***	0.055	0.057*
	(0.040)	(0.046)	(0.034)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.350***	-0.094	0.011
	(0.065)	(0.085)	(0.080)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.018	0.037	0.173***
	(0.042)	(0.059)	(0.054)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.117***	0.158**	0.091*
	(0.043)	(0.079)	(0.048)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.055	0.056	-0.013
	(0.052)	(0.065)	(0.048)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.014	0.145**	-0.005
	(0.038)	(0.062)	(0.047)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.182***	0.085*	0.053
	(0.040)	(0.050)	(0.044)
Age of respondent	0.028	0.001	0.036***
	(0.019)	(0.022)	(0.013)
Age squared	-0.001**	-0.000	-0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.044	0.125	-0.099*





	(0.047)	(0.083)	(0.054)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.248***	0.078	-0.034
	(0.044)	(0.052)	(0.033)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.167***	0.044	0.103**
	(0.041)	(0.059)	(0.041)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.025	-0.014	0.082*
	(0.059)	(0.078)	(0.050)
Number of children under 17	-0.013	-0.014	-0.005
	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.011)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	0.017	0.001	0.010
	(0.013)	(0.019)	(0.014)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.005	0.041	-0.035
	(0.040)	(0.075)	(0.054)
Wealth Index	0.018	-0.005	0.010
	(0.021)	(0.020)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	-0.101***	-0.006	-0.054
	(0.039)	(0.050)	(0.038)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	-0.012	0.012	0.007
	(0.046)	(0.073)	(0.044)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.008	0.130**	0.077**
	(0.042)	(0.066)	(0.039)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.077*	0.038	-0.055
	(0.043)	(0.050)	(0.036)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.019	0.069	0.172***
	(0.059)	(0.061)	(0.049)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.005	0.005	0.057
	(0.045)	(0.057)	(0.042)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.020	-0.012	0.111*
	(0.053)	(0.067)	(0.060)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.079*	0.004	-0.010
	(0.046)	(0.108)	(0.071)
Sample size (N)	884	780	993

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.1.4. Migration aspirations: Preference

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.222***	-0.017	0.066**
	(0.033)	(0.042)	(0.031)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.391***	0.019	0.074
	(0.051)	(0.092)	(0.059)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.029	0.036	0.112**
	(0.043)	(0.056)	(0.046)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.130***	0.107	-0.035
	(0.040)	(0.071)	(0.051)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.094**	0.054	-0.001





	(0.047)	(0.061)	(0.048)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.001	0.035	-0.044
	(0.034)	(0.058)	(0.042)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.188***	0.135***	0.011
	(0.037)	(0.048)	(0.037)
Age of respondent	0.035*	-0.023	0.007
	(0.020)	(0.019)	(0.013)
Age squared	-0.001**	0.000	-0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.000	0.103	-0.066
	(0.045)	(0.067)	(0.055)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.257***	0.152***	-0.010
	(0.043)	(0.052)	(0.031)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.141***	-0.056	-0.026
	(0.038)	(0.057)	(0.033)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.024	-0.078	-0.041
	(0.053)	(0.076)	(0.050)
Number of children under 17	-0.014	-0.011	-0.010
	(0.027)	(0.026)	(0.011)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	0.016	-0.013	-0.013
	(0.013)	(0.016)	(0.011)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	0.023	0.083	-0.114**
	(0.037)	(0.062)	(0.052)
Wealth Index	0.024	0.031	-0.009
	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	-0.098***	0.003	-0.064*
	(0.034)	(0.048)	(0.034)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	-0.002	0.006	0.005
	(0.040)	(0.067)	(0.043)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.018	0.000	0.001
	(0.036)	(0.061)	(0.040)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.064*	-0.032	-0.006
	(0.038)	(0.050)	(0.034)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.031	-0.004	0.097**
	(0.054)	(0.062)	(0.042)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.003	-0.011	0.006
	(0.041)	(0.060)	(0.040)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.007	0.031	0.062
	(0.047)	(0.061)	(0.053)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.010	0.062	0.040
	(0.043)	(0.100)	(0.063)
Sample size (N)	884	780	992

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.





10.1.5. Migration aspirations: Readiness

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.097** (0.039)	-0.003 (0.039)	0.033 (0.026)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.326*** (0.046)	-0.122 (0.085)	0.075** (0.034)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.038 (0.044)	0.102* (0.053)	0.093* (0.050)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.129*** (0.045)	0.042 (0.065)	-0.023 (0.037)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.141*** (0.053)	0.064 (0.059)	-0.059 (0.047)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.029 (0.038)	-0.015 (0.051)	-0.060* (0.034)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.224*** (0.049)	0.141*** (0.047)	0.072** (0.032)
Age of respondent	-0.019 (0.017)	-0.033* (0.018)	0.004 (0.009)
Age squared	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.066 (0.052)	0.070 (0.065)	0.017 (0.041)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.149*** (0.049)	0.150*** (0.048)	-0.013 (0.025)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.066 (0.043)	0.048 (0.048)	-0.008 (0.029)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.091 (0.060)	-0.130** (0.064)	0.001 (0.038)
Number of children under 17	-0.017 (0.030)	0.033 (0.025)	-0.006 (0.008)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.006 (0.013)	0.000 (0.014)	-0.017* (0.009)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	0.007 (0.040)	0.122*** (0.047)	-0.157*** (0.057)
Wealth Index	0.027 (0.021)	-0.016 (0.020)	-0.016** (0.008)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.020 (0.038)	0.051 (0.044)	-0.026 (0.026)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.024 (0.046)	-0.040 (0.060)	0.010 (0.035)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.050 (0.042)	-0.001 (0.055)	-0.004 (0.032)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.032 (0.041)	-0.040 (0.044)	-0.006 (0.029)
Adventurous (Yes)	0.075 (0.057)	0.118* (0.066)	0.111*** (0.034)





Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.038	-0.025	-0.049
	(0.041)	(0.055)	(0.033)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.068	-0.043	0.007
	(0.064)	(0.057)	(0.046)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.126**	0.171**	0.027
	(0.052)	(0.073)	(0.047)
Sample size (N)	882	779	992

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.1.6. Migration aspirations: Resolute

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.168***	0.003	0.084**
	(0.037)	(0.044)	(0.036)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.299***	-0.106*	0.111
	(0.069)	(0.058)	(0.078)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.022	-0.031	0.193***
	(0.041)	(0.057)	(0.053)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.115***	0.143*	0.028
	(0.042)	(0.078)	(0.053)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.087*	0.095	-0.046
	(0.052)	(0.062)	(0.048)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.034	0.053	-0.014
	(0.035)	(0.060)	(0.049)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.204***	0.098**	0.058
	(0.033)	(0.046)	(0.044)
Age of respondent	0.044**	0.006	0.043***
	(0.021)	(0.021)	(0.014)
Age squared	-0.001***	-0.000	-0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.019	0.140	-0.105*
	(0.047)	(0.085)	(0.057)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.221***	0.088*	-0.020
	(0.043)	(0.048)	(0.035)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.135***	0.024	0.059
	(0.038)	(0.054)	(0.041)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.001	-0.015	0.049
	(0.056)	(0.076)	(0.057)
Number of children under 17	-0.007	-0.019	-0.007
	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.015)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	0.021	0.004	0.013
	(0.013)	(0.019)	(0.014)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.007	0.151**	-0.141**
	(0.037)	(0.076)	(0.056)
Wealth Index	0.014	0.011	-0.005
	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.012)





Trust people in the community (Yes)	-0.105***	0.011	-0.097**
	(0.035)	(0.048)	(0.039)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	-0.019	0.017	0.016
	(0.041)	(0.072)	(0.045)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.016	0.118*	0.049
	(0.038)	(0.064)	(0.042)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.058	0.048	-0.039
	(0.039)	(0.047)	(0.038)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.031	0.031	0.154***
	(0.059)	(0.057)	(0.050)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.019	-0.020	0.061
	(0.043)	(0.052)	(0.044)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.044	0.008	0.124*
	(0.052)	(0.065)	(0.063)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.059	0.035	-0.036
	(0.043)	(0.104)	(0.071)
Sample size (N)	884	780	993

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2. Lewbel Instrumental Variable Model

10.2.1. Actively seeking new employment

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.139*	0.083	0.014
	(0.081)	(0.075)	(0.106)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.022	0.076	0.040
	(0.077)	(0.069)	(0.069)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.016	0.005	0.104**
	(0.042)	(0.041)	(0.045)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.001	-0.037	0.134***
	(0.039)	(0.059)	(0.043)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.067	0.086	-0.060
	(0.043)	(0.054)	(0.043)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	-0.021	-0.003	-0.087**
	(0.034)	(0.041)	(0.039)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.052	-0.004	0.049
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.036)
Age of respondent	-0.002	-0.007	0.026**
	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.012)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.007	-0.025	-0.085*
	(0.047)	(0.053)	(0.049)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.080**	0.161***	0.005





	(0.037)	(0.039)	(0.030)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	0.198***	0.001	0.106***
	(0.043)	(0.042)	(0.039)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.043	-0.068	0.093**
	(0.052)	(0.055)	(0.043)
Number of children under 17	0.021	0.029*	0.014
	(0.025)	(0.017)	(0.009)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.003	-0.009	-0.050***
	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.012)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	0.067*	0.072	0.114***
	(0.035)	(0.047)	(0.041)
Wealth Index	-0.038**	-0.043***	-0.020*
	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.006	-0.028	-0.010
	(0.033)	(0.040)	(0.033)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.062	0.006	-0.066*
	(0.045)	(0.044)	(0.036)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.087**	0.034	-0.014
	(0.038)	(0.042)	(0.034)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.027	0.054	-0.044
	(0.035)	(0.036)	(0.032)
Adventurous (Yes)	0.057	0.102**	0.090**
	(0.052)	(0.045)	(0.042)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.040	0.001	0.036
	(0.039)	(0.046)	(0.038)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.051	0.009	0.088
	(0.050)	(0.052)	(0.055)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.006	-0.061	0.171***
	(0.049)	(0.089)	(0.064)
Sample size (N)	884	780	995

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2.2. Ease of finding a job in the area

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	-0.181***	0.149**	0.017
	(0.066)	(0.076)	(0.076)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.063	0.094	0.001
	(0.060)	(0.072)	(0.069)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.013	0.011	-0.044
	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.036)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.112***	-0.147**	-0.030
	(0.032)	(0.058)	(0.034)
Has received remittances (Yes)	-0.027	0.035	0.022
	(0.035)	(0.056)	(0.033)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	-0.018	0.016	-0.032





	(0.028)	(0.043)	(0.029)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.021	-0.053	-0.051
	(0.030)	(0.037)	(0.032)
Age of respondent	0.015	-0.002	-0.011
	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.010)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.092***	0.032	-0.034
	(0.035)	(0.060)	(0.040)
Gender of respondent (Male)	-0.015	0.004	-0.018
	(0.030)	(0.041)	(0.023)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	0.002	-0.050	0.027
	(0.036)	(0.044)	(0.029)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.000	0.001	-0.019
	(0.043)	(0.060)	(0.036)
Number of children under 17	0.040*	0.024	-0.004
	(0.022)	(0.019)	(0.007)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.004	-0.005	-0.002
	(0.009)	(0.012)	(0.011)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.109***	-0.114**	-0.035
	(0.028)	(0.048)	(0.035)
Wealth Index	0.019	0.020	0.013
	(0.016)	(0.017)	(0.009)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.119***	-0.041	0.139***
	(0.026)	(0.041)	(0.030)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.027	-0.020	0.010
	(0.033)	(0.046)	(0.029)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	-0.076**	-0.090**	-0.019
	(0.030)	(0.043)	(0.026)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.057**	-0.054	-0.081***
	(0.028)	(0.038)	(0.027)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.134**	0.019	0.028
	(0.054)	(0.047)	(0.031)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.011	0.016	0.042
	(0.031)	(0.048)	(0.031)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.043	-0.037	0.045
	(0.043)	(0.056)	(0.049)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.069	-0.112	0.081
	(0.044)	(0.081)	(0.065)
Sample size (N)	865	737	934

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2.3. Migration aspirations: Considerations

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.174**	0.099	0.059





	(0.071)	(0.070)	(0.101)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.363***	0.029	0.033
	(0.068)	(0.065)	(0.067)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	0.024	0.033	0.135***
	(0.038)	(0.038)	(0.047)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.093**	0.113**	0.066
	(0.037)	(0.057)	(0.042)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.042	0.086*	0.006
	(0.041)	(0.052)	(0.043)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.081**	0.126***	0.005
	(0.032)	(0.040)	(0.039)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.139***	0.027	0.050
	(0.033)	(0.034)	(0.037)
Age of respondent	-0.002	0.014	0.044***
	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	0.000	-0.053	-0.118**
	(0.046)	(0.048)	(0.050)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.180***	0.149***	-0.012
	(0.034)	(0.036)	(0.029)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.095**	0.040	0.113***
	(0.042)	(0.040)	(0.039)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.039	-0.018	0.061
	(0.048)	(0.052)	(0.044)
Number of children under 17	0.011	0.004	-0.010
	(0.022)	(0.018)	(0.011)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.015	-0.006	0.015
	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.012)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.022	0.069	0.016
	(0.033)	(0.042)	(0.045)
Wealth Index	0.014	0.006	0.006
	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.010)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.005	-0.004	-0.019
	(0.031)	(0.037)	(0.033)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.010	-0.006	0.024
	(0.043)	(0.041)	(0.036)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.083**	0.169***	0.048
	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.034)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.005	0.020	-0.049
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.031)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.042	0.033	0.182***
	(0.043)	(0.038)	(0.042)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.016	0.035	0.076**
	(0.038)	(0.043)	(0.037)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.051	0.009	0.116**





	(0.044)	(0.051)	(0.056)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.026	-0.068	0.012
	(0.043)	(0.075)	(0.071)
Sample size (N)	884	780	998

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2.4. Migration aspirations: Preferences

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.213***	0.068	0.098
	(0.067)	(0.069)	(0.100)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.423***	0.036	0.095
	(0.062)	(0.063)	(0.064)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.008	0.086**	0.103**
	(0.036)	(0.039)	(0.041)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.086**	0.117**	-0.014
	(0.035)	(0.052)	(0.040)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.102***	0.098**	-0.009
	(0.037)	(0.049)	(0.038)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.050*	0.031	-0.008
	(0.030)	(0.040)	(0.036)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.165***	0.111***	-0.012
	(0.030)	(0.035)	(0.033)
Age of respondent	-0.010	-0.005	0.022**
	(0.010)	(0.012)	(0.011)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.072	-0.051	-0.082*
	(0.045)	(0.054)	(0.046)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.184***	0.151***	-0.017
	(0.033)	(0.038)	(0.026)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.054	-0.002	0.002
	(0.041)	(0.041)	(0.035)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.004	-0.026	-0.031
	(0.044)	(0.053)	(0.040)
Number of children under 17	-0.001	0.000	-0.005
	(0.019)	(0.017)	(0.011)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.017	-0.000	-0.009
	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.010)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.017	0.082*	-0.057
	(0.030)	(0.044)	(0.043)
Wealth Index	0.012	0.030*	-0.006
	(0.015)	(0.015)	(0.009)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.024	-0.070*	-0.048
	(0.029)	(0.037)	(0.029)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.033	-0.047	-0.029





	(0.037)	(0.042)	(0.032)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.057*	0.040	0.024
	(0.032)	(0.040)	(0.032)
Perseverance (Yes)	0.014	-0.028	-0.006
	(0.030)	(0.034)	(0.028)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.053	0.043	0.112***
	(0.039)	(0.042)	(0.040)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.013	0.018	0.046
	(0.035)	(0.044)	(0.031)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.034	0.054	0.014
	(0.040)	(0.050)	(0.051)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.040	0.088	0.011
	(0.041)	(0.085)	(0.059)
Sample size (N)	884	780	997

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. **Notes:** * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2.5. Migration aspirations: Readiness

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.248***	-0.029	-0.047
	(0.072)	(0.063)	(0.083)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.343***	-0.098	0.078
	(0.061)	(0.061)	(0.050)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.039	0.137***	0.093***
	(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.033)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.104***	0.044	0.002
	(0.035)	(0.046)	(0.032)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.054	0.088**	-0.055*
	(0.037)	(0.045)	(0.031)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.017	-0.018	-0.040
	(0.030)	(0.038)	(0.030)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.152***	0.130***	0.092***
	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.030)
Age of respondent	-0.007	-0.023**	0.020**
	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.010)
Age squared	-0.000	0.000	-0.000***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.032	-0.026	-0.030
	(0.045)	(0.052)	(0.038)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.246***	0.171***	0.021
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.022)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.093**	0.088**	0.012
	(0.041)	(0.039)	(0.029)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	0.013	-0.081	0.008
	(0.047)	(0.051)	(0.033)
Number of children under 17	0.004	0.025	0.003





	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.009)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.006	-0.002	-0.014*
	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.008)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.014	0.083**	-0.065*
	(0.033)	(0.041)	(0.037)
Wealth Index	-0.006	0.011	-0.019**
	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.008)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.044	-0.016	-0.023
	(0.030)	(0.035)	(0.026)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.011	-0.056	-0.022
	(0.040)	(0.040)	(0.028)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.069**	0.053	0.007
	(0.034)	(0.038)	(0.027)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.019	-0.030	-0.022
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.023)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.012	0.103**	0.149***
	(0.046)	(0.042)	(0.037)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.031	0.026	-0.018
	(0.037)	(0.041)	(0.027)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.038	0.001	-0.020
	(0.044)	(0.048)	(0.044)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.014	0.219***	0.031
	(0.043)	(0.065)	(0.048)
Sample size (N)	882	779	997

Data source: GS4S skills training survey. Notes: * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$, Standard errors in parentheses.

10.2.6. Migration aspirations: Resolute

	Bangladesh	Egypt	Nigeria
Training participation (Yes)	0.206***	0.056	0.172*
	(0.066)	(0.067)	(0.102)
Ever lived abroad more than 1 year (Yes)	0.301***	0.026	0.123*
	(0.069)	(0.061)	(0.068)
Has a migrant family member (Yes)	-0.004	0.001	0.153***
	(0.036)	(0.034)	(0.047)
Knows a migrant (Yes)	0.096**	0.116**	0.038
	(0.037)	(0.057)	(0.045)
Has received remittances (Yes)	0.072*	0.130**	-0.041
	(0.040)	(0.050)	(0.045)
Knows of failed migration [Index] (Yes)	0.086***	0.042	0.023
	(0.031)	(0.037)	(0.040)
Seen or heard migration messages [Index] (Yes)	0.155***	0.039	0.047
	(0.029)	(0.031)	(0.036)
Age of respondent	-0.002	0.019*	0.049***
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.011)
Age squared	-0.000	-0.000**	-0.001***





	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Is married (Yes)	-0.023	-0.051	-0.108**
	(0.045)	(0.046)	(0.052)
Gender of respondent (Male)	0.153***	0.151***	-0.015
	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.030)
Has tertiary education (Yes)	-0.066	0.016	0.058
	(0.042)	(0.038)	(0.038)
Has a child under 17 years (Yes)	-0.003	0.003	0.018
	(0.045)	(0.050)	(0.047)
Number of children under 17	0.004	0.000	-0.010
	(0.020)	(0.017)	(0.012)
Subjective Poverty (Rank on scale)	-0.010	-0.005	0.017
	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.012)
Is finding it difficult to get by (Yes)	-0.035	0.097**	-0.045
	(0.031)	(0.039)	(0.044)
Wealth Index	-0.002	0.022	-0.005
	(0.016)	(0.013)	(0.011)
Trust people in the community (Yes)	0.029	-0.037	-0.054
	(0.030)	(0.034)	(0.033)
Is afraid of violence (Yes)	0.013	-0.021	0.014
	(0.041)	(0.038)	(0.036)
Has experienced violence (Yes)	0.061*	0.146***	0.037
	(0.034)	(0.037)	(0.034)
Perseverance (Yes)	-0.011	0.021	-0.059*
	(0.031)	(0.030)	(0.032)
Adventurous (Yes)	-0.054	0.039	0.148***
	(0.042)	(0.034)	(0.042)
Sometimes accept uncertainty (Yes)	-0.014	0.014	0.077**
	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.038)
Often accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.069	-0.014	0.082
	(0.043)	(0.046)	(0.061)
Always accept uncertainty (Yes)	0.007	-0.047	-0.050
	(0.043)	(0.074)	(0.076)
Sample size (N)	884	780	998





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Evidence from Bangladesh, Egypt and Nigeria

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