Factors Influencing the Happiness of Migrant Labour Households in the Northeast, Thailand

Dusadee Ayuwat, Wanichcha Narongchai, Adirek Rengmanawong, Nattawat Auraiampai

Abstract—This article examines factors influencing the happiness of migrant workers households in the Northeast of Thailand. The quantitative research method was implemented in the study, and unit analysis was household. Data collection conducted in July, 2017 by interviewing 334 households with international migrating members in Chaiyaphum Province, where presented the second highest number of international migrating laborers. Data analysis was based on descriptive statistics and Multiple Regression technique. The results found that the use of household livelihood strategies, relationships between the migrating workers and his/her family, utilization of capital, the amount of investment from remittance sent home by the laborers, and income of households per year had influenced on the happiness of migrant workers’ households with statistical significance level at 0.01. In addition, the skipped generation households and incomes from remittance had influenced on the happiness of households with statistical significance level at 0.05.

Keywords: Happiness; Migrant Labour Households; Migrant Household

I. INTRODUCTION

Transnational migration has been a global phenomenon which widely recognize in the countries all over the world for decades. The transition of the production mode in society has brought socio-economic inequalities to society. A great number of people are looking for some ways to improve quality of life of themselves and families. This, however, is confined within the availability of the initial capital in the former locality, which is again unequal. Thus, some people attempt to seek new opportunities outside their communities or even at a new country (Chantavanich, 2001). The United Nations’ report shows the increasing number of migrants all over the world from 154.2 million in 1990 to 231.5 million and 258.7 million in 2013 and 2017 respectively. (United Nations, 2013, 2017). The Thailand National Development Plans, since the First Development Period created tremendous growth in economic sector and industrial sector of the country, especially in urban areas where material growth was obvious. While urban areas have continuously been developing, the agricultural sector of the country has failed to respond the country’s economy with the ever-decreasing number of farmers who decide migrating from their rural origins to cities (National Statistical Bureau, 2004).

Migration patterns in Thailand have been increasingly complex in recent decades, for example, from rural areas to cities, from cities to rural areas, from cities to cities, and transnational migration (College of Demography, Chulalongkorn University, 2011). People in rural areas turned themselves to interest more in transnational migration with an increasing number of international migrants in recent decades. The number of Thai worker applications to work abroad that amounted to 132,442 persons in 2013, divided into 102,605 males (77.47 percent) and 29,837 females (22.53 percent) (Office of Overseas Employment Administration, Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, 2013). International migration has been widely recognized among Thai rural people because it has brought economic outcomes to their families and the country. According to a report from National Statistics Bureau (2012), Overseas migration has brought as high as an average of 198.3 million USD of revenue to the country. The revenue from overseas migration has increased up to 2,443.3 million USD in 2015 and 3,762.0 million USD in 2017 respectively (National Statistics Bureau, 2017).

Recently, migration is used as a mechanism of the Thai-northeasterners to improve the living of the households (Ayuwat, 2006). The livings of the migrants have been related to the happiness of the households at origin areas (Ayuwat et al., 2018). If a migrant worker does not perform himself properly, the chance of success is less, and the effect will respond directly to the household back home. The behaviour of migrant workers, both living and working behaviors, become factors that affect the success of migrant workers and will result in a better living standard for migrant households (Sikder & Higgins, 2016). For instance, migration period of the workers. The workers generally leave the households for 3 to 5 years depending on working contract; i.e. the Thailand - Israel Cooperation on the Placement of Workers (TIC) and Employment Permit System for Foreign Workers (EPS), in order to achieve his/her goals (Department of Employee, Ministry of Labour, 2010).
Moreover, the households at origin areas have dealt with positive and negative outcomes from their household member’s international migration. Previous studies indicated positive outcomes from international migration. Many households at origin areas gain the remittances from international migration (Lee, 2011), or their international workers receive a social respect from neighbours (social remittance) (Engbersen, 2015). These outcomes result in happiness among the households at origin areas. However, negative outcomes are also presented. The remaining household members have to take on the burden of one missing household member. They have faced with unpredictable circumstances, for instance, a shortage of household labor-forces (Antman, 2013), the debt arisen from migration expenses (Ayuwat & Chamaratattana, 2014), the stress of the elderly and children of international migrant households (Ghimire, 2018; Scheffel, 2018). These are associated with the happiness of the family back home. These conditions inseparably relate to the happiness of migrant workers’ households at places of origin. This paper examines factors influencing the happiness of the migrant workers’ households in order to find appropriate recommendations to enhance happiness in these households.

II. Research Objective

To examine the factors influencing the happiness of migrant workers’ households in the Northeast part of Thailand

III. Literature review

Concepts of Happiness: “happiness” is a term defined by various agencies, such as the Department of Mental Health, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand (2007), as positive living conditions. It also is a happy circumstance which caused by the ability of living problem management and ability to improve quality of life mentally and physically based on the changes in social and environmental conditions. In addition, the Office of Health Promotion Fund (2007) has determined 8 indicators of happiness including 1) happy body, (2) happy heart, 3) happy relax, 4) happy brain, 5) happy soul, 6) happy money, 7) happy family, and 8) happy society. This study applies a concept of happiness (Office of Health Promotion Fund, 2007) to study the happiness of worker migrant households.

A number of research studies have been conducted on the correlation of migration with happiness in the family. The research by De Jong, Chamratrithirong, and Tran (2002), for example, showed that at the destination place where there are a great number of migrants, the migrant workers are happier than at a place where there are fewer migrants. Some researches found that the happiness of migrants depends on the wages and incentives arising from migration (Knight and Gunatilaka, 2010). Another study found that migration of a son or daughter affects the health of mother and father at the home country (Kuhn et al., 2011). Some studies also revealed that migration affects the household back home, especially the skipped-generation family, in which the elderly have to look after the grandchildren) Narongchai & Ayuwat, 2011). All of the above are related to the happiness of the family. It can be seen that the family context and migration patterns are associated with the happiness of the individuals related to the migration process.

The study defines the household happiness as a circumstance that household members, including migrant workers, have good relationships to each other, financial security, well debt management, well stress management, good health condition among household members, and good relationships with neighbors, life and property security, and convenient life from household facilities. These terms are derived from the qualitative findings which investigate perspectives of the migrant worker households toward the happiness. (Ayuwat et al, 2018)

Measuring the happiness

Gray et al (2010) defined that the level of the happiness is a subjective measure. The happiness related to emotional senses, so the presence of the happiness is dependent on the individual’s feelings at that moment. Additionally, this kind of measurement is different from the objective measurement that focuses on measures of the objective well-being among individuals. International surveys on the subject of happiness have been conducted for decades. It appears that measuring tools designed for the surveys have both similarities and differences. Questions and answers are designed similarly, while many of questions and answers are designing differently in other surveys. Regarding answers of measuring the happiness, it is not only presenting the continuous scale answer as 0-10, but it is also found the ordinal scale answer as follows details.

A survey of the happiness level in the United States of America in 1946 (USA Gallup Polls) used a question that “currently you define yourself that you are........”

Four choices of ordinal scale answer were available, they are:
- Very happy
- Fairly happy
- Unhappy

The General Social Survey (GSS) used a question that “all things considered, how happy are you?” Three choices of answer were available, they are:
- Very happy
- Fairly happy
- Unhappy

The World Value Survey (WVS) used a question that “all things considered, you are......”

Four choices of answer were available, they are:
- Very happy
- Fairly happy
- Unhappy

According to the information above, Gray et al (2010) defined this happiness measurement as a top-down measurement. Measures happiness and life satisfaction with a single question, and then examine factors that influence happiness.

Another method of measuring happiness derived from the satisfaction of life elements called “the bottom-up measure” was also used.

Therefore, the scale used to measure the happiness of individuals consists of 2 types including:
1) If the scale is the continuous scale as 0-10, it will be able to use the average to find out the tendency of matters in different years.
2) If the scale is the ordinal scale such as very happy, fairly happy, fairly unhappy, and unhappy, the percentage of each group will be analyzed. For instance, what is a percentage of the respondents who have answered “very happy” (very happy and fairly happy)? If the tendency of an individual’s happiness (upper or lower) needs to be measured, we are able to see the percentage of the respondents who have answered “very happy”. And see how are they thinking about the changes in happiness level each year. In addition, the continuous scale is able to group into a large group. For instance, the scale 0-6 are grouped as low happiness, and the scale 7-10 is grouped as very happy.

If adjusting new measuring scale in order to compare with a Japanese-survey under the project entitled “Asia Barometer Survey (ABS)” in 2006. Five choices of answer were available including (Inoguchi & Fujii, 2009):

**Lowest happy**  
**Moderate happy**  
**Fairy unhappy**  
**Fairy happy**  
**Very happy**

In addition, the 2008 Survey on Socio-cultural Dimension determined that

- 0 and 1 mean Lowest happy
- 2, 3 and 4 mean Fairly unhappy
- 5 and 6 mean Moderate happy
- 7 and 8 mean Fairly happy
- 9 and 10 mean Very happy

**Cross-national Migration in Thailand**

Migration of laborers from the Northeast to foreign countries began long time ago. The initial period of cross-national migration were those with skills, and hence such migration was referred to as ‘brain drain’. Migration of unskilled laborers started to become obvious in 1973 when the Department of Labor sent Thai laborers to England. In the same year, the United States withdrew the army from Thailand, leading to unemployment in those areas, especially in Udon Thani and Nakhon Ratchasima where the US army was stationed. In 1975, therefore, when the Department of Labor sent Thai laborers to the Middle East, the laborers in the Northeast were greatly interested to go.

The number of cross-national migrants consistently rose, especially in the 5th National Social and Economic Development Plan (1982-1986), when the Government set the Labor Export Policy. The year 1982 accounted for the highest number of migrants to the Middle East through the Department of Labor, i.e., 105,186 migrants. The reason was that Saudi Arabia had the policy to import foreign laborers to work in their country. Then in 1990, Thai laborers were rescinded of visa to Saudi Arabia because of the homicidal of an officer of the Saudi Arabian Embassy in Thailand (Development and Promotion Section, Office of Overseas Thai Labor Administration, Department of Labor Skills, 1992). During the same period, Thai laborers started to change their destination to Southeast Asia and Far-East Asia including Taiwan, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, Japan, etc.

The situation in Thailand nowadays as the origin country according to the data of Thailand Overseas Employment Administration, Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor had a somewhat decreasing trend from 2007-2010. The decrease of overseas migrants workers resulted from the world’s economic recession, which in turns impacted business and service sector resulting in less need of foreign workers. In addition, the wages or remuneration at the destination countries were lower than in Thailand. Nevertheless, in 2011, the number of overseas migrant laborers increased again at 17.7 percent or 147,623 persons. Within the number, the migrants to the Asian region (not including ASEAN) accounted for the highest (51.1 percent of the total laborers). The country of destination with the greatest number of Thai migrants was Taiwan - 47,839 people (Thailand Overseas Employment Administration, Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, 2011). In 2017, the number of Thai migrant who received work permits was 61,874. Categorizing by country of destination, 23,544 of Thai migrants worked in Taiwan, 7,429 of Thai migrants worked in Japan, and 6,057 of Thai migrants worked in the Korea Republic respectively.

In Thailand, as the origin country sending laborers overseas, 22,547 laborers were sent to work in ASEAN countries or 15.3 percent of the total Thai overseas migrants. ASEAN countries were considered the third biggest labor market from Asia and the Middle East. Singapore was the country accepting the most laborers. In 2011, there were 11,461 migrants or 50.8 percent of the total number of migrants in ASEAN. The second was Malaysia and Brunei. Most of the laborers migrating overseas were skilled laborers or sub-skilled in the construction sector such as welder, electrician, carpenter, mason; and in the service sector such as cook, masseger, server, and seamstress. Some worked in the agricultural and food industries of companies in Thailand.

According to the 2016 Thai Migration Report, generally Thai migrants were the unskilled labour (89.0 percent), who worked in agriculture, fisheries, and industrial sectors. While only 11.0 percent of Thai migrants were the skilled workers who were senior officers, or those who have specific working skills such as doctors, scientists, or technical-task labours (Thematic Working Group on Migration in Thailand, 2016).

**Major Concepts Popularly Used to Study Labour Migration**

The important concepts usually used to explain migration can be classified according to groups based on the factors to explain migration as follows:

1) **Economic Factor** – Economic necessity is extremely important for living with happiness. However, not all humans achieve this target. Therefore, a number of people refer to depend on economic grounds as the major reason behind the decision of migration in developing countries. The migration theory in the Dual Societies of Rasis and Fei (1961) explains the causes of migration in developed countries, explaining that there are excessive laborers. The economy of developing countries comprises 2 streams: (1) Subsistence agriculture – low productivity is...
the cause of excessive labor; (2) Urban industry – high productivity accepts excessive laborers from rural areas and from the agricultural sector to work. Additionally, industrial development and higher wages in the city motivate rural laborers to migrate into town (College of Population Studies, Chulalongkorn University, 2011). Likewise, Thailand laborers also migrate from the country into big cities, especially the greater Bangkok for high-paid jobs.

Additionally, there is An Unexpected Income’s Model of Rural-Urban, the theory developed by Sjaastad (1962) and Schultz (1962). Initially, the theory aimed to define migration as the circulation of human capital that increases production capability of human resources. Migration is an investment that requires two types of expenses, one is cash for traveling and the other is loss of opportunity in terms of mental capital owing to change of social and environmental conditions. Later Harris (1969) and Todaro (1969) extended this theory with an emphasis on the migration decision, which is the function of the difference between urban and rural incomes and opportunity to work in town. Todaro believed that urban labor market comprised 2 sectors. The first was a non-formal labor market which was usually big, consisting of private employment, work in a small enterprise, disclosed unemployment, and low wages based on labor competition in the market. The second sector was the modern industry which was smaller than the non-formal sector. Laborers received higher wages set by the Labor Union and strong organizations. Later, Todaro developed an additional concept by considering multiplicity of rural labor qualities which meant the chances of rural laborers to be recruited into the industrial sector were partial, depending on many factors related to human capital such as age, education, and experiences. It can be seen that economic factors influenced decision for migration. Laborers saw the importance of employment and good earnings in urban society, which were the factors behind their decision to migrate from rural to urban areas.

2) Social Factor – The social factor is another factor influencing the individual's decision to migrate. The Micro Level Decision-Making Framework theory explains migration in terms of social and demographic psychology factors. Migration depends on expectation towards the outcome of migration, which in turn depends on 2 elements: (1) values and target of each person, namely social wealth and convenience; and (2) selfness. If there are good opportunities of these two elements, the chance for the individual to migrate will be high. Migration within this circumstance is referred to as ‘Instrumental Behavior’ that leads a person towards the thing he wants (Dejong & Fawcett, 1981).

Migration for employment of Thai laborers, mostly Isan people, can be explained by the Migrant Network Theory (Massey et. al., 1993). Network of former migrants, non-migrants, employers, or even an agent from an employment company partly contributes to the increase of cross-national migration. These social networks assist in lessening risks, reducing both monetary and psychological costs, facilitating the process until the day of departure. Meanwhile, some networks may bring about problems causing failure to migrate, including deception or exploitation of the wages. Although the social network of migration has these weaknesses, overseas migration of Isan laborers still sees the social network as very important and relies on it since the characteristics of the migrants do not fall into the selective category but are unskilled, completing only elementary education.

3) Individual and Household Factor - This is another important factor for individuals' decision to migrate. This factor involves satisfaction or dissatisfaction of an individual or of the household towards the benefits to receive from different destinations. The concept of “Place Utility” which was developed by Brown and Moore (1970) states that if a person or a household is not satisfied with a place, migration will take place. On the contrary, when a person or a household is satisfied with a place, they will live there and no migration takes place.

In addition, Stark (1991) added by placing importance to different factors at the household level such as incomes and risks that influence migration. If a household needs the highest income from all household activities with minimal risks from those activities, they would use these as the rational for deciding whether or not to allow a member to migrate. This concept agrees with the Location Specific Capital concept, which is a tying factor resulting in each individual’s different migration behaviors from others. Davanzo and Morrison (1981) explained that normally, migration takes place after the comparison of benefits to receive between the place of origin and the destination. An individual with reputation and a lot of assets does not usually move away. If it is necessary to do so, he or she will move back because staying away for too long can lead to deterioration of things that exist. Those having fewer tying items, either assets or reputation, have a greater chance to move. It can be said that migration is self-adjustment of a residence in order to find satisfaction and benefits from the area. (Figure 1)
IV. Research Methodology

The Quantitative Methodology was applied in this research to obtain the factor influence to the happiness of the migrant worker households. The analytical unit was at the household level. The research population comprised rural households in the Northeast that had overseas migrating laborers whose period of overseas stay was 6 months and over.

The dependent variable was the happiness of migrant worker households and the independent consisted of the household members, the dependency members, the laborer age members, the relationship between households and migrant worker, the annual household income, the remittance per month, the level of investment from remittance, the capital utilization, the use of livelihood strategies, those variables were measured in interval and ratio scale, and the type of household that was measured by nominal scale. In process of data analysis, the nominal variable was modified as the dummy variable (David, 1980).

Data was collected by the questionnaire developed from the concepts, theories, and results of primary qualitative study. The questionnaire was composed of 7 parts: household characteristics, information of overseas migrating workers, patterns of investment from remittance, relationships between the family and the worker, household’s access to capital, livelihood strategies, and happiness of the household having overseas migrating laborers.

The questionnaire had been examined in terms of content validity by qualified experts and tried out with 30 households that had overseas migrating workers in O-Lo Sub-District, Phu Khiaow District, Chaiyaphum Province. The reliability level of the questionnaire was found to be at 0.910, which indicates quality and appropriateness for use to collect data. Data collection was conducted during June 2017 with the sample group consisting of 334 households, which randomized by systematic random sampling technique. The sample size was achieved by means of Roscoe’s approach (Roscoe, 1975). The data was analyzed based on descriptive statistics and multiple regression in order to find factor influence to the happiness of households having overseas migrating workers. The data was then presented by description.

V. Research results

The research results comprise characteristics of the migrant worker households and migrant worker, social factors, happiness of migrant worker households and factors influenced to happiness of migrant worker households as follows:

**Characteristics of migrant worker households and migrant worker**

Characteristics of migrant worker households indicated that most households had number of household not over 3 members (47.6 percent). 79.6 percent of households had members who were at worker age (15-59 years old), and 16.5 percent of households had no member who were at worker age. 45.2 percent of household was the extended household which 3 generations of household members have lived together, and 20.1 percent of household was the skipped-generation household which consisted of grandparents and grandchildren, while parents of children were working abroad. This output was confirmed by Narongchai and Ayuwat (2011). 60.2 percent of migrant worker household engaged in agriculture, and 41.0 percent of household had average annual income over 150,000 Thai Baht (4,545 USD). It is higher than the minimum income of rural households in the Northeast which is 30,000 Thai baht (960 USD) per year (Department of Community Development. Ministry of Interior, 2017).

More than half of migrant worker household (56.8 percent) had the average annual income less than 20,000 Thai Baht (606 USD). Regarding the remittance, most households had low level of investment (45.8 percent).
Regarding characteristics of migrant workers, data was explored by household member at place of origin. It was found that the majority of migrant workers were male (68.9 percent), and 61.4 percent of them were Generation Y (under 37 years old). Most of migrant workers have migrated to work abroad for 1-5 years (62.2 percent). Most of migrant workers have worked in Southeast Asia and East Asia countries, such as South Korea, Taiwan (73.2 percent). Most of migrant workers used employment service through private recruitment company or labor brokers (39.8 percent), while 24.3 percent of them used service from state agencies such as the Department of Employment, and 17.1 percent of them went directly to abroad legally. However, it was found 14.7 percent of migrants migrated to work illegally. Regarding financial source for migration, a major financial source was household savings (37.7 percent) and informal loans (26.3 percent) respectively. The findings confirm Ayuwat & Chamaratana (2014) who reported that some migrant workers had to make a loan for traveling expenses. In addition, 56.2 percent of migrant workers engaged in industrial tasks, and followed by agricultural task (24.9 percent).

**Social factor Level of investment from remittance**

It was found that 45.8 percent of migrant worker household invested at a low level from remittance money. It was found that those migrant worker household used the remittance to invest in education of children and bought household facilities (53.6 percent and 37.1 percent respectively). This finding is consistent with Ayuwat, Boonkwang, & Chumnanmak (2016). Nevertheless, households did not invest in buying land as property and bought land for engaging agriculture 87.1 percent and 79.0 percent, respectively, because households lacked labor to farm.

**Relationship between migrant worker household and migrant**

The analysis showed that 58.4 percent of the households had moderate level of relationship with the migrating laborer. It should be noted that the household members never consulted the migrating laborer related to household decision-making. This indicates the fact that the migrating laborers did not take part in different decision making of their households.

**Capital utilization of migrant worker households**

The results showed that most migrant worker households engaged in capital utilization at a medium level (60.8 percent). It was noted that 26.0 percent of the households utilized benefits from access to capital at a low level, especially the natural capital, i.e., subsistent land, where over 30 percent could not have access because some households with migrating laborers were not able to hold farming occupation due to shortage of labor and so rented out their land. Migrant worker households accessed to natural food sources at a high level (44.3 percent), and 44.3 percent of them could not access to transportation facilities to go outside the community. The migrant worker household had a regular income from agricultural occupation (59.2 percent), but only 48.2 percent of migrant worker household had savings for emergency expenses. 29.0 percent of migrant worker household had household members who engaged in a higher education (higher than secondary school) and 62.5 percent of migrant worker household could not access to occupational training. It was found that no member from migrant worker household was at a high-ranked position (group leader/committee) in community groups (71.5 percent).

**Livelihood strategies**

When considering livelihood strategies from the households’ actions for survival with multiple choices, struggle, solving of problems, survival, and sustainability (Chambers, & Conway, 1991), it was found that most of these households (64.7 percent) had a moderate level of livelihood strategies. One out of four of the households was found to have a low level of livelihood strategies, especially when dealing with struggle. As high as 70 percent of these households never claimed their rights of fairness nor did they make a request for budget support to mitigate their troubles.

**Happiness of migrant worker households**

The analysis found that the average score of overall happiness (from 9 dimensions) of migrant workers household was 223.1 scores (S.D. = 21.9), the lowest was 152.0 and the highest was 277.0 scores respectively. More than half of household sample assessed their households had the happiness at a medium level, and only 31.7 percent of them assessed their happiness at a high level. While 17.7 percent of them assessed their happiness at a low level. Comparing to each dimensions of happiness, it was found that percentage of mean of social dedication and responsibility was 89.0 percent and 85.8 percent respectively, but financial security and relaxation were only 67.5 percent and 65.7 percent respectively (Figure 2). The results of this study are consistent with Martin (2012) studied that describes happiness as a good life. While Boyce, Brown, & Moore (2010) said that income is needed to provide people with access to living resources that affects the happiness in life. Therefore, migrant households should be developed to be happier in terms of relaxation, knowledge, and financial security.

![Figure 2 Comparison happiness dimensions of migrant households (Percent)](image-url)
Factors influencing happiness of migrant worker households

This chapter implemented multi-variate analysis, specifically the multiple regression analysis, in the study under a condition that all the independent variables and the dependent variable must be interval-scaled variables and ratio-scaled variables. In case nominal-scaled variables and ordinal-scaled variables appear, those variables must be adjusted as dummy variable, and the reference group must be identified. Variables that input in the multiple regression analysis must not correlate each other more than 0.75 in order to avoid the presence of multi-collinearity which might degrade the significance of predicting equation. This paper also analyzed the correlation coefficient in order to test relationships of the paired variables, which input in the multiple regression analysis. It was found that all the variables had degree of correlations lower than 0.75. Therefore, it considered that all the variables enabled to input in multiple regression analysis to analyze factors that influenced happiness of migrant worker households.

During the multiple regression analysis, All variables were analyzed by the enter method. The results found that some independent variables influenced happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand (table 1). The influenced factors were as per following details.

Household factor

1) Skipped generation households with migrant worker, this variable had positive influence on the happiness of migrant workers’ households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 6.835. The value represents skipped generation households with migrant workers being happier than nuclear households (the reference group) by 6.835 unit because skipped generation households had household members who were grandparents and grandchildren. They have positive relationships with each other, and it represent a healthy condition for household members.

2) The relationships between the household and the migrant workers this variable had positive influence on happiness of migrant workers households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 0.386. The value indicates that when the relationships between the households and the migrant worker is increased by 1 unit, happiness of the household would increase by 0.386 unit, since household members shares a sense of well being together, and they always support each other. This result supported Joarder, Harris & Dockery (2016) and Layard (2011) who mentioned that positive relationships among household members would lead to higher happiness of household members.

Economic factor

1) Annual household income; this variable had positive influence on happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 1.885. The value indicates that when annual household income is increased by 1 unit, happiness of the household would increase by 1.885 unit. It noted that remittance of migrant worker excluded annual household income. Migrant worker households spent their time in the capitalist mainstream, so they need more money to sustain their living. Therefore, high annual household income would allow the households to maintain the positive living condition. The result supports Boyce, Brown, & Moore (2010) who suggested that income is a crucial contributes in accessing resources for the maintenance of positive living and happiness of the households.

2) Remittance per month; this variable had positive influence on the happiness of migrant workers’ households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 9.365. The value suggests that when remittance per month is increased by 1 unit, happiness of the household would increase by 9.365 unit. This allowed the households to have more conveniences in household expenses. The result supports Joarder, Harris & Dockery (2016) who found that remittance of migrant worker influence the happiness of households at places of origin.

3) Level of investment from remittance; this variable had negative influence on the happiness of migrant workers’ households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was -5.039. The value indicates that when migrant workers’ households had an increased level of investment from remittance by 1 unit, happiness of the household would decreased by 5.039 unit because the households had to save some money in order to invest in some economic activities which takes times to see are on investment. As a result this leads families to worry about the investment, and in turns lowers the happiness of the household.

Livelihoods and use of resources factor

1) Capital utilization; this variable had positive influence on happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 0.265. The value shows that when the access of five livelihood capitals, which are: economic capital, human capital, social, capital, physical capital, and natural capital, among migrant worker households increase by 1 unit, happiness of the household would increase by 0.265 unit. It shows that the access and utilization of capital contribute to more options of livings to migrant worker households, and it resulted in higher happiness of migrant worker households.

2) Use of livelihood strategies; this variable had positive influence the on happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand. The unstandardized regression Coefficient (b) was 0.953. The value indicates that when the use of livelihood strategies was implemented in migrant worker households by 1 unit, happiness of the household would increase by 0.953 unit. The implementation of livelihood strategies among migrant worker households would allow the households to have an appropriate living guideline which contributed to the happiness of migrant worker households. This result supports DFID’s statement (1999) which suggested that livelihood strategies is a practical guideline which contributes higher well-being among the households.
However, it is noticed that variables entitled household members, dependency members, and worker age members were not influenced happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand with statistical significance level at 0.05 (table 1).

Comparing all seven variables that influenced happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand based on the standardized regression Coefficient (Beta), found that use of livelihood strategies contributed the most happiness to migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand (Beta=0.331). The following variables include the relationship between the household and the migrating worker (Beta=0.202), capital utilization (Beta=0.265), level of investment from remittance (Beta=0.138), annual household income (Beta=0.134), skipped generation household (Beta=0.127), and remittance per month (Beta=0.116) respectively. In addition, all the independent variables were able to explain variation of happiness of migrant worker households in northeastern Thailand with statistical significance level at 0.01, and percentage of happiness of migrant worker households was 53.4 (R² = 0.534) (table 1).

The output of analysis also showed that household factors including household members, dependent members, worker age members, and extended household did not affect the happiness of migrant worker households, and thus rejected the hypotheses. The reason was that those household variables were only household characteristics information, including household members, dependent members, worker age members, and extended household. Regardless of how many members there are in a family, if the relationships are positive happiness is possible. (Katewongsa, Chuanwan, & Churat, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Order</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Household members</td>
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<td>Labour age members</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Annual household income</td>
<td>1.885</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remittance per month</td>
<td>9.365</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Level of investment from remittance</td>
<td>-5.039</td>
<td>-0.138</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livelihood and use of resources factors</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Capital utilization</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of livelihood strategies</td>
<td>0.953</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = 143.452

R² = 0.534\(F = 23.968\) \(\text{Sig. of } F= 0.000\)

Remark: (1) Reference group is single household

VI. Conclusions and recommendations

According to research results, it concludes that the use of livelihood strategies, the relationships between the households and the migrating workers, capital utilization, level of investment from remittance, annual household income, skipped generation household, and remittance per month are factors that influence happiness of migrant workers households in northeastern Thailand, and the results confirm the hypotheses.

Research recommendations suggest that the related agencies should support migrant worker households to use more livelihood strategies in order to empower happiness of migrant worker households, which also cover relationships between household members and relationships between household and migrant worker. Moreover, development guideline to increase household income should be provided to migrant worker households. If this development issue is improved, it will eventually lead to more happiness and sustainable livings among migrant worker households.

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References