

The Role of Migration History and Household Structure in Internal Migration: Evidence from the Netherlands, 1850-1940*

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Abstract: This study investigates the role of kin in shaping migration behavior, focusing on how the migration history of an individual's parents, their own migration experience, and the presence of household members are associated with the individual's likelihood and frequency of internal migration. Utilizing the Historical Sample of the Netherlands, which provides comprehensive migration histories of individuals from 1850 to 1940 and detailed information on the household composition at each address, we analyze internal migrations throughout the life course for multiple generations. Our findings suggest that individuals with at least one parent who had a migration background – defined as having migrated within the Netherlands – were more likely to move internally themselves, indicating the intergenerational transmission of migration behavior. Having migrated together with one's parents earlier in life was also associated with a higher likelihood of migrating later on. Parents' migration histories and individuals' own migration experience with their parents were associated with a higher frequency of internal migrations made without parents. Finally, living with a spouse, at least one parent, or extended kin was associated with a lower likelihood of migrating. This work contributes to our understanding of migration patterns from a historical perspective, highlighting the long-term role of family networks and family migration experiences on individuals' migration behavior.

Keywords: Intergenerational transmission • Internal migration • Family migration • Household composition • Extended family

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** This article has an Online Appendix with supplementary material:
<https://www.comparativepopulationstudies.de/index.php/CPoS/article/view/758/474>

1 Introduction

Many studies have analyzed the impact of kin on migration behavior, focusing on the important role family plays in migration decisions, and on how family experiences influence the migration patterns and behavior of relatives. For example, studies on the impact of family outside the household on migration have shown that people tend to follow family and stay where individuals from their kinship network are already living. This holds for both international (Boyd 1989; Choldin 1973; Garip/Asad 2016; Palloni *et al.* 2001) and internal migration (Ermisch/Mulder 2019; Hünteler/Mulder 2020; Thomas/Dommernuth 2020). However, few studies have analyzed how the migration history of kin impacts the migration behavior of individuals. Indeed, the intergenerational transmission of migration has received less attention than that of other demographic behaviors, including fertility (Anderton *et al.* 1987; Jennings *et al.* 2012; Keenan *et al.* 2025; Kolk 2014; Morosow/Trappe 2018; Murphy 2013; Requena/Reher 2023) and mortality (Broström *et al.* 2018; Minardi *et al.* 2024; van Dijk/Mandemakers 2018). However, it is reasonable to expect that migration is also transmitted across generations. This might apply both to parental migration before a child's birth and to migrations with parents during childhood.

The scarce existing research on the intergenerational transmission of migration has shown that families with a history of migration are more likely to produce subsequent generations who also migrate (Bernard/Perales 2024; Ivlevs/King 2012; de Jong/de Valk 2023 for international migration; Gagnon *et al.* 2006 for internal migration). Conversely, studies on immobility have highlighted that individuals who have the same birthplace as their parents or grandparents are more likely to remain in their birthplace (Thomassen *et al.* 2024). There is also some evidence that prior migration experience predicts subsequent moves; migration during childhood is positively associated with migration later in life (Bernard/Vidal 2020). Most of this literature, however, focuses on contemporary movements, and particularly on international migration. Little is known about how these intergenerational dynamics occur within national borders and in historical contexts.

Previous research has also considered family members within the household, by examining the role of social and family structures in shaping migration and residential mobility, or the transition out of the parental home in particular. These studies have investigated how household composition, and life course events that alter it, are related to the probability of moving (Bernhardt *et al.* 2005; Blaauboer/Mulder 2010; Clark 2013; Fischer/Malmberg 2001; Goldscheider *et al.* 2014; van den Berg *et al.* 2018). This literature has shown that childhood family structure has a substantial impact on both the timing of first home-leaving and the trajectory out of the parental home (Aquilino 1991). Individuals from disrupted families, such as those who grew up in stepfamilies or single-parent households, tend to leave the parental home earlier than other young adults (Aquilino 1991; Bernhardt *et al.* 2005; Blaauboer/Mulder 2010). Gender differences have also been found, with research indicating that women are more strongly affected by family background characteristics than men (Blaauboer/Mulder 2010). The presence of children in the household, on the other hand, is generally associated with a lower likelihood of moving (Clark 2013).

People who are settled in a local area, especially those with strong household ties, are typically less mobile (*Fischer/Malmberg* 2001; *Mulder/Malmberg* 2014). Most of this literature, however, focuses on contemporary societies. Furthermore, due to data limitations and the characteristics of contemporary household composition, we know little about the extent to which the presence of household members beyond the nuclear family influences the likelihood of moving within the country. By exploiting the richness of our historical dataset on the Netherlands, our study contributes to filling this gap by examining how household composition – including the presence of extended kin and non-kin in the household – shapes the likelihood of migrating internally.

The objectives of this paper are (1) to examine the intergenerational transmission of migration behavior by assessing how individuals' family's past migration experience and their own lived migration history during childhood are associated with the likelihood of migration, and (2) to examine the association between household composition and the likelihood of migration. We examine internal migration in the historical context of the Netherlands from 1850 to 1940, a period marked by rapid industrialization, urbanization, and population growth. This approach enables us to include multiple generations, more distant relatives, and non-kin in our analysis, and to explore their roles in shaping demographic behaviors.

The study addresses two research questions about the likelihood that an individual migrated without their parents within the Netherlands:

1. How did parents' migration histories prior to an individual's birth and the individual's own migration experience in childhood shape:
 - 1.1 the individual's propensity to migrate at all?
 - 1.2 the frequency of the individual's moves over their lifetime?
2. How was an individual's household composition – including the presence of multiple generations, extended kin, and non-related individuals within their household – associated with their likelihood of migrating without their parents?

The historical perspective offers several unique advantages. We use a unique dataset, the Historical Sample of the Netherlands (HSN), to study complete migration histories over multiple generations. Indeed, many contemporary datasets are limited by right-censoring and often cannot track individuals' movements across their full life course. This long-term, longitudinal structure enables us to observe how persistent migration behaviors and patterns are, and to identify the enduring influence of family migration experiences. Our dataset provides detailed records of individuals' moves between municipalities across their entire lifespan, as well as rich information on family relationships and household composition. These features allow us to examine how family and personal migration histories shape individuals' internal migration, and thus offer a rare opportunity to study the intergenerational transmission of migration behavior in the historical Netherlands. We perform two

analyses. The first is a discrete-time logistic regression model of migrating within the Netherlands without parents for the first time. The second is a negative binomial regression model of the number of internal migrations a person undertook without their parents. Overall, this study contributes to the literature that conceptualizes migration as being part of a life-course trajectory (Vidal/Lersch 2021) in which previous migration experiences, local ties, and changing individual characteristics shape migration behavior over time.

2 Historical context

We focus on the Netherlands between 1850 and 1940. Overall, the period from 1850 to 1920 was marked by high population and economic growth. In the second half of the 19th century, the Netherlands experienced large-scale industrialization. Consequently, employment in agriculture decreased, mainly due to the agricultural crisis and mechanization, which led to a general decline in economic opportunities in rural areas (Kok *et al.* 2014; Moenkediek *et al.* 2016). In this period, even though social mobility started to increase, the intergenerational transmission of occupation, and more broadly of social class, was widespread and opportunities for upward mobility remained limited (Bras/Kok 2005).

Substantial internal disparities were present in the country, with wealthier urban areas diverging from more agriculturally oriented rural regions (Fedorova *et al.* 2022). These economic and geographical differences within the country stimulated considerable internal migration, with people predominantly moving from rural to urban areas. Internal differences were present within rural areas as well, due to “difference[s] in the level of commercialization, type of agriculture, and relative isolation and persistence of local dialects and customs” (Kok *et al.* 2014).

The decision to migrate or stay was often embedded in broader considerations about the family economy. Decisions about leaving the parental home were shaped by social class, regional labor market conditions, household composition, and individual characteristics (Bras/Kok 2003). More generally, social class has consistently been identified as one of the most important historical predictors of migration, with clear differences in migration behavior across socio-economic groups (Bras/Kok 2003; Kok *et al.* 2014). These class differences were also rooted in property regimes, inheritance practices, and norms regarding the training and employment of children, all of which influenced young people’s likelihood of leaving home (Kok 1997). Migration patterns differed accordingly. Individuals from elite and higher-status families were more likely to move over longer distances, whereas farmers, agricultural workers, and skilled manual workers rarely left their municipality. These differences were closely related to the motivations underlying migration. Short-distance and short-term moves were often linked to household economic coping strategies, while longer-distance moves were more frequently associated with education, training, or occupational advancement (Jennings/Gray 2015; Kok 2004). Gender and occupational background also shaped migration patterns. Girls from families of agricultural workers and unskilled laborers were often

sent into agricultural or domestic service, and domestic servants constituted the largest migratory groups among young single women in this period (*Bras* 2003). By contrast, children from upper- and middle-class families were more likely to migrate to places where they could obtain education or professional training.

Due to the developments in transportation in the early 20th century and the expansion of public and personal transportation (mostly bicycles), commuting options increased and fewer people needed to migrate to work, as they could live in their parental home and work elsewhere (*Kok* 1997, 2004; *Kok et al.* 2014). However, during our study period (1850-1940), most migrations were still related to work. In the 20th century, people also started to migrate longer distances: migration distances after 1890 were longer than in the previous period, with long-distance moves (>40 km) representing about 30-40 percent of all intermunicipal moves (*Kok* 2004; *Kok et al.* 2014). Nevertheless, most people continued to live relatively close to their original family (*Sesma Carlos et al.* 2022).

Across the Netherlands, the dominant pattern among individuals who survived beyond age 50 was to remain in their birthplace for their entire life. A smaller share experienced short-distance moves between early childhood and adolescence, with a median age at last migration of under 18 (*Sesma Carlos et al.* 2022). In a study for the province of Utrecht, the mean age of first migration was 18 to 19 years from 1850-1940. Between 30 percent and 55 percent of unmarried youths and young adults between ages 12 and 26 migrated, and most of these moves were work-related (*Kok* 1997). More generally, there was a peak in residential moves in early adulthood between 1850 and 1950, with women being more likely to move in general, and particularly earlier in their twenties (*Fedorova et al.* 2022).

Most individuals who migrated did so more than once. Migrants, or individuals whose parents had migrated, often had relatively few ties and smaller networks in the places where they settled and were therefore more likely to move again (*Bras/Neven* 2007), often after a short period of residence (*Kok* 2004). In many cases, they returned to places where they had previously lived, as they had maintained social contacts there. Having relatives or ties to other people who had migrated could also increase the likelihood of migration (*Bras* 2003; *Bras/Kok* 2003; *Bras/Neven* 2007; *Kok et al.* 2014). Such social network members could reduce the costs of migration by providing information, assistance, and support at potential destinations. However, access to information, such as knowledge about employment opportunities in other places, was not evenly distributed and likely varied across families and social classes (*Kok* 2004). Household composition also influenced migration decisions, shaping household strategies and economic outcomes. For example, differences in leaving the parental home have been observed depending on the number of siblings, the presence of both parents, the presence of extended kin in the household, and whether parents were widowed or divorced (*Bras/Kok* 2003; *Bras/Neven* 2007; *Kok* 1997, 2004; *Kok/Mandemakers* 2010; *Moenkediek et al.* 2016; *Rosenbaum-Feldbrügge* 2022).

During the 19th century, the average size of households in the Netherlands was about 4.7-4.9 persons (*Kok/Mandemakers* 2010). Among children, researchers observed a continuous increase in the percentage of those living with both their

biological parents (*van Poppel et al.* 2013). Household size and composition differed between socio-economic classes and rural and urban areas, mainly due to persistent differentials in historical kinship value systems (*Bras/van Tilburg* 2007). For instance, extended-family households were more common in rural settings.

Co-residence with kin was likely driven by family needs, for example when relatives required care, or by more strategic considerations, such as when people co-resided to improve the household income (*Kok/Mandemakers* 2010). Inheritance practices and the need to provide help to relatives further shaped these arrangements. In many cases, co-residence with kin was the most practical option after a failed migration or the death of a parent (*Rotering/Bras* 2015), particularly co-residence with siblings following a parental death. Residence with extended kin became less common over time. Through the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, there was an increase in the share of people living alone, and three-generation households became quite rare.

Living with non-related household members was common in the 19th century, when about one out of four households in the Netherlands had a live-in servant. Co-residence with non-kin was also a common arrangement for young people who left the parental home for training or work as farm hands, domestic servants, apprentices, or students. Young women spent more time living with non-relatives than men, largely because many worked as servants. After 1900, the numbers of live-in personnel declined.

3 Theoretical and research background

Our theoretical framework combines the concepts of migration capital and local ties. We also pay attention to inter-generational transmission of migration as a by-product of the inter-generational transmission of occupations and, more broadly, social class.

3.1 Migration capital

Attitudes toward migration that can be transmitted across generations through past migration experience have been defined by *Ivlevs and King* (2012) as “family migration capital.” *Bernard and Perales* (2024) further refined the concept of “migration capital,” including in the definition attitudes, skills, and resources that individuals accumulate through two distinct processes: indirectly via *family migration history*, and directly through *individual migration experiences*. Through their migration experiences, parents and other close relatives acquire valuable knowledge, skills, and attitudes that constitute migration capital, which they can then transmit to their children (*Bernard/Perales* 2024). Inherited migration capital might also be related to location-specific characteristics, rather than general migration skills (*Brunori et al.* 2026).

A first pathway to the accumulation of migration capital is the transmission of migration experience (e.g., through information sharing): individuals who have migrated can provide practical information about destinations, bureaucratic

procedures, housing, and employment opportunities, thereby reducing the barriers that first-time migrants might face. The family-specific knowledge about geographic locations has also been described as “spatial capital,” which may increase the likelihood of migrating, as it consists of general skills helpful to migrate that can be transmitted across generations (Kesztenbaum 2008). Parental migration experience also lowers the risks and costs associated with moving, as parents can offer guidance, provide contacts, and leverage their existing social networks to support the migration process of their children (Ivlevs/King 2012). During childhood, when individuals typically internalize their parents’ teaching (Perales *et al.* 2023), being exposed to parental migration experiences can normalize migration as a life strategy and positively shape children’s perceptions of mobility. When the migration experiences of their parents are positive, children may be encouraged to migrate themselves (Bernard/Perales 2024; Ivlevs/King 2012). A second pathway is direct experience. If children migrate together with their parents, often during childhood, their parents’ migration experience becomes their own direct migration experience. Such early mobility can provide children with knowledge of and familiarity with the migration process, and they may replicate these migration experiences in adulthood (Bernard/Perales 2021; Myers 1999).

Evidence from contemporary studies shows that the descendants of international migrants are themselves more likely to move. In the Netherlands, for example, second-generation immigrants from Western Europe exhibit a higher likelihood of moving abroad compared to individuals without a migration background (de Jong/de Valk 2023). Similar findings have been reported for the Turkish second generation in the Netherlands (de Jong 2022). Evidence from other European contexts reinforces this pattern. Results from Latvia, for example, indicate that the children of migrants are more likely to migrate (Ivlevs/King 2012). Bernard and Perales (2024), analyzing data from 15 European countries, reported that individuals with foreign-born parents show a higher probability of moving abroad. This association is not limited to voluntary migration. Brunarska and Ivlevs (2024) found that the descendants of people who experienced forced displacement are also more likely to express intentions to migrate than individuals in similar circumstances but without a family history of forced migration (Brunarska/Ivlevs 2024).

A positive association between family migration history and individual likelihood of migrating has also been found in studies on internal migration and residential mobility. Several studies on the Dutch historical context found evidence of this association in some subpopulations and in some specific provinces. In her studies about the migration patterns of female domestic servants from the province of Zeeland, Bras (2003) found that servants with family migration experience, measured through their parental migration history and the previous moves they made with their parents, were more likely to leave the province. Similarly, a historical study on youth migration in the province of Utrecht (Kok 1997) and another on migration in the Dutch rural population (Kok *et al.* 2014) showed that both individuals’ parental migration history and their own prior migration experiences increased their likelihood of leaving their place of residence. Contemporary studies have also demonstrated continuity between childhood and adult migration, identifying prior mobility as a

strong predictor of subsequent mobility. Individuals who have moved previously are generally more likely to move again and thus tend to move more frequently, both internally (Bernard 2023; Bernard *et al.* 2022; Bernard/Perales 2021; Bernard/Vidal 2020; Myers 1999) and internationally (Bernard/Perales 2021, 2024), and thus tend to move more frequently. For instance, Myers (1999) observed that in the United States, experiencing family moves while young increases the number of moves an individual undertakes in adulthood.

3.2 Local ties

Local ties constitute location-specific capital that binds individuals to a particular place and is difficult to transfer elsewhere (DaVanzo 1981; Mulder/Malmberg 2014). Individuals who have previously migrated, or whose parents have migration experience, might have weaker local ties to their place of residence, as their parents originated elsewhere and/or they may have left relatives behind. People tend to exchange emotional, instrumental, and practical support most frequently with those who are living close by. Geographical proximity facilitates regular emotional interactions, as well as physical exchanges of care, assistance, and resources (Heylen *et al.* 2012). Because of these benefits, individuals embedded in strong local networks may be reluctant to move away, as close ties to family and to their residential environment represent constraints to migration and major determinants of immobility (Fischer/Malmberg 2001; Thomassen *et al.* 2023). Moreover, the greater the density of an individual's local network, the more socially and emotionally rooted they become, which fosters a sense of belonging to the community. This rootedness increases the benefits of staying and raises the costs of leaving, thereby anchoring individuals to their current location and making them less inclined to relocate. The deterring effect of local ties to family, and the attraction of destinations where family members live, constitute the core hypotheses of the family ties perspective (Mulder 2018; Mulder/Cooke 2009).

A growing body of literature emphasizes the importance of such family ties in shaping internal migration and immobility behavior (Mulder/Cooke 2009; Mulder/Gillespie 2024). Studies consistently show that local family ties can anchor individuals to their place of residence and deter migration, whereas relatives at potential destinations can act as attractions by providing valuable information, practical assistance, and support that facilitate migrating. A study in Norway found that the nearby presence of adult children and siblings acts as a deterrent to migration (Thomas/Dommermuth 2020). Similar findings have been also reported for Sweden, where family ties have been shown to significantly influence internal migration (Mulder/Malmberg 2014). Deterring effects are likely to be stronger when close kin, such as a partner, parents, siblings, or adult children, are involved, as these ties tend to be more emotionally significant and behaviorally influential than relationships with more distant relatives (Wellman/Wortley 1990). Because geographical proximity makes it easier to exchange support and resources (Heylen *et al.* 2012), co-resident household members typically constitute particularly strong ties. Daily interactions

and shared routines facilitate more frequent and direct exchanges of care, help, and emotional support, which can increase the cost of moving away.

Life course events and changes in the availability of kin can also trigger residential moves and shape the timing and frequency of moves, particularly during the transition out of the parental home. Positive relationships with parents are generally associated with a lower likelihood of moving, whereas living in a one-parent family tends to accelerate home-leaving (*Aquilino 1991; Goldscheider et al. 2014; van den Berg et al. 2018*). Evidence from the Netherlands has shown that individuals living in extended households were less prone to migrate, likely because they had denser local ties and greater access to support within their immediate environment (*Kok/Mandemakers 2010*). Gender differences in the role of family in leaving home have also been observed in some contexts. Compared to men, women generally maintain stronger relationships with family members and appear to be more sensitive to variations in the household structure (*Aquilino 1991; Blaauboer/Mulder 2010*). For example, *Blaauboer and Mulder (2010)* found that in the Netherlands, family background characteristics such as parental relationship quality have a particularly strong effect on women's likelihood of leaving the parental home.

3.3 Occupations and migration

The intergenerational transmission of migration may partly be a by-product of the intergenerational persistence of occupation and social class. People's occupational outcomes are strongly shaped by family background: parents' status and education matter (*Blau/Duncan 1967*). As a result, individuals often enter occupations similar to those of their parents and remain in the same socio-economic class (*Hout 2018*). This pattern of intergenerational class persistence was even more common in the past, when opportunities for upward mobility were more limited (*Kok 2004*). Migration behavior also differs strongly by socio-economic status: moves are often economically motivated, and some occupations have characteristic mobility patterns, with workers in certain jobs being more likely to move and to move repeatedly (*Bras/Kok 2003; Kok 2004; Kok et al. 2014*). In contexts where occupational and class reproduction is widespread, this implies that migration can be transmitted indirectly across generations. Beyond inheriting the social class, children may be more likely to enter the same types of jobs as their parents. If those jobs are associated with high (or low) mobility, children may end up displaying similar migration patterns.

3.4 Hypotheses

We propose three hypotheses. Regarding the inter-generational transmission of migration, we hypothesize that

- 1.1) having parents with a migration history and having previous migration experiences together with one's parents increased an individual's likelihood of moving without their parents.

We further hypothesize that, when examining the number of internal migrations individuals made without their parents in the Netherlands,

- 1.2) individuals with parental migration histories and own migration experience moved more frequently over their lifetime.
- Regarding household composition, we hypothesize that
- 2) living with close relatives reduced the likelihood of internal migration.

4 Data and methods

4.1 Data

We utilize the Historical Sample of the Netherlands Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01 (<https://hdl.handle.net/10622/PCM0ZX>) (*Historical Sample of the Netherlands (HSN)* 2020; *Mandemakers/Kok* 2020), a rich dataset comprising detailed life course information for a sample of 37,137 individuals born between 1850 and 1922 based on birth, death, and marriage certificates and dynamic population registers. Individuals in the Historical Sample were initially selected randomly from birth certificates dating from 1812 to 1922 and subsequently linked to their marriage and death certificates as well as to population registers, allowing researchers to follow individuals across the life course. Standardized civil registration of births, deaths, and marriages in the Netherlands began in 1812. Population registers were introduced in 1850 and provide continuous household records. These registers are the primary source of time-varying information, including marital status, occupation, place of residence, and relationships to the head of the household. From 1940 onward, household registers were replaced by “personal cards”, and the individual, rather than the household, became the basic registration unit in all municipalities.

The HSN is a representative sample of the entire Dutch population of the historical period it covers. This feature, in a period for which it is rare to have access to reliable data sources and historical registers, enables us to discuss our findings without considering selection biases in the creation of the dataset. However, some biases may still be present due to temporary gaps in observations over the life course, reliance on administrative categories that may not perfectly reflect historical realities, inaccuracies in the information provided, and the population registers’ reliance on addresses (*Mandemakers/Kok* 2020). For example, individuals may have forgotten to report a change of address, or the reporting of occupations may have been inaccurate.

The HSN provides comprehensive and detailed data on individuals’ residential histories, allowing for an in-depth analysis of internal migration patterns across the life course. The availability of detailed lifetime address histories is uncommon in both contemporary and historical datasets and allows us to examine the association between parents’ migration experiences and internal migration patterns. Additionally, up to 1940, the dataset includes information on the people living with the sampled individuals, including extended family members. This information enables us to explore with whom individuals were migrating, such as whether they were moving alone or with family members.

We will refer here to each sampled individual, randomly selected from the certificates and registers, as a research person (RP). As the dataset was created from the perspective of the RP and their household, we can only follow the life and migration trajectories of people within the household who moved with the RP and lived in different households with the RP. The dataset does not allow us to trace movements of relatives, or more generally the migrations of household members that occurred without the sampled RP.

4.2 Sample selection

Our study covers the period 1850-1940. In 1940, “personal cards” replaced population registers, meaning that information on household structure is no longer available (*Rosenbaum-Feldbrügge* 2022). To allow a sufficient time window to observe individuals and trace their movements, we restrict our analysis to people born between 1850 and 1889. We also restrict our sample to people with available information on their municipality of residence and the municipalities of birth of their parents (see Fig. A1 in the Online Appendix for sample sizes and sample selection stages). We then restrict our sample to individuals who survived beyond age 12. We choose age 12 as the threshold after which we observe the RP’s migration behavior, based on evidence that in some areas of the Netherlands in the 19th century, migration rates increased after age 12. Indeed, most young people left school at that age (*Kok* 1997). We end the observation of a RP’s movements and life trajectories at age 50, because this was the age of the youngest people from the latest birth cohort (1880-1889) at the end of the observation period in 1940.

For the first analysis, we create a longitudinal person-year dataset. The observation ends at age 50 or with the first migration if occurring before that age. This gives us information on the residence address and the household composition of the RP for each year. This new dataset configuration allows us to consider time-varying variables in our analysis. For the second analysis, we use the original data structure with one observation per RP.

4.3 Variables

Following *Kok et al.* (2014), we define internal migration as a change of municipality within the Netherlands covering a distance greater than 10 kilometers. In this way, we disregard local moves, as they have less important consequences in terms of losing connections with the family and one’s local network. We define our outcome for the first analysis as the individual’s first internal migration (>10 km) without their parents after age 12. To measure the frequency of internal migrations for our second analysis, we compute the total number of internal migrations (>10 km) an individual made without their parents after age 12.

Parental migration background is defined by comparing the municipality of birth of each parent with the first municipality of residence of the sampled individual. This approach ensures that only the parents’ moves prior to the child’s birth are considered when assessing their migration experience. In this way, we distinguish

parental migration background from individual migration background. We classify parental migration background into four categories: (1) neither parent migrated; (2) only the mother migrated; (3) only the father migrated; and (4) both parents migrated. Individual past migration experience is defined as a binary variable indicating whether a person experienced at least one migration with at least one parent, which likely occurred in childhood. We consider household composition through a categorical variable denoting whether parents lived in the household and a binary variable for each additional type of household member present. Parents' presence in the household is classified into four categories: (1) neither parent (2) only the mother; (3) only the father; and (4) both parents. The binary variables denote whether the research person was living with that household member: spouses, grandparents, children, siblings, extended kin, and unrelated individuals. Extended kin are relatives other than parents, grandparents, children, and siblings.

We also include data on individuals' gender, age (both linear and squared), duration of residence, geographical region of residence, municipality size, and socioeconomic conditions. Duration of residence is measured as the number of years individuals have lived in the municipality of residence. Following previous research using this dataset (*Sesma Carlos et al.* 2022), we divide the Netherlands into four broad regions (North, South, West, and East) based on the municipalities and provinces of residence. We do this to take into account cultural and economic differences within the country (*Rosenbaum-Feldbrügge* 2022). To cover the differences between rural and urban areas, and smaller and larger municipalities, we construct a variable measuring municipality size based on the annual number of inhabitants of that municipality. We then classify the Dutch municipalities into three categories: rural (<10,000 inhabitants), medium (10,001-50,000), and large cities (>50,000 inhabitants). We incorporate the father's occupation at the individual's birth to indicate the social class of the family of origin, which has been identified as one of the most important predictors of migration. The occupations are classified according to the Historical International Standard Classification of Occupations (HISCO) (*van Leeuwen et al.* 2002) and HISCLASS (*van Leeuwen/Maas* 2011) schemes. We draw six occupational groups from these classifications: elite, lower middle class, farmers, skilled workers, unskilled workers, and unknown (*Kok et al.* 2014).

Table A1 in the Online Appendix reports the frequencies of the variables in our samples, for person-years and for individuals at age 12. About two-thirds of individuals did not migrate internally without their parents after age 12, while just over 12 percent migrated once, about 8 percent migrated twice, and roughly 12 percent migrated three or more times. Approximately 37 percent of individuals had at least one parent with a migration background, and 13 percent had two parents with migration experience. Around 22 percent of individuals had previously migrated with their parents. Calculated over person-year observations, nearly 41 percent of the participants in our sample were living with both parents, 45 percent were living with neither parent, and 14 percent were living with only one parent, most commonly the mother (approximately 12 percent). Around 30 percent of individuals

were living with at least one extended family member, and more than one-sixth were living with at least one non-relative. The sample is evenly split between females and males. More than 60 percent of the individuals were living in the western region of the Netherlands, and about half were residing in rural municipalities with fewer than 10,000 inhabitants. Regarding the father's occupation at birth, the majority were skilled or unskilled workers, constituting about two-thirds of the individuals in the sample.

4.4 Analytical methods

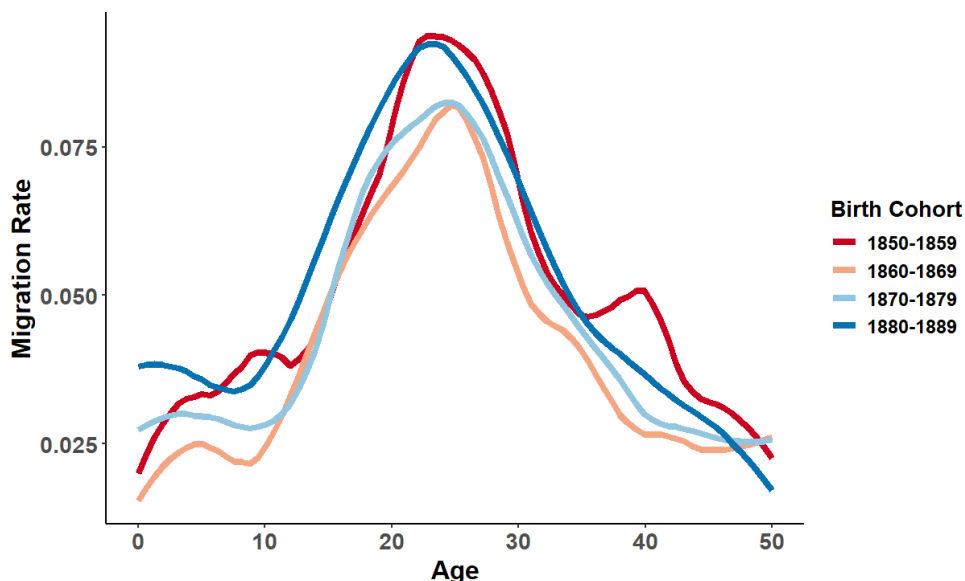
As a first step, we construct migration age profiles to examine how migration rates varied by age in the historical Netherlands. We create an age profile for all internal migrations observed in the dataset, including those taking place before age 12. We then compute the age distribution of the first internal migration that occurred without parents. Both profiles are constructed for 10-year birth cohorts of individuals born between 1850 and 1889.

Next, we employ a combination of discrete-time event-history analysis (that is, logistic regression of person-years) and negative binomial regression models. We estimate a logistic regression model on the person-years dataset to study the first internal migration without parents. Standard errors are clustered by the RP's individual ID to account for repeated observations of the same RP. We use this model to analyze the role of parents' migration background, own migration experience, and household composition in shaping the likelihood of a migration event. Thanks to the configuration of the dataset, we can include time-varying variables for the presence of household members, age, duration of residence, geographical area of residence and municipality size.

To study the frequency of moves without parents, we use a negative binomial regression model. The negative binomial model is preferred over the more common Poisson model due to the presence of overdispersion in our data, where the variance exceeds the mean, violating the assumptions of the Poisson distribution. This is driven by most RPs not experiencing any moves. We estimate the model on the sample with the original dataset structure, with one row for each sampled research person. Therefore, we cannot include time-varying variables in this model. For these variables, we include the value at age 12, which is the age after which we start observing the migration trajectories.

For the logistic regression model, we conducted several additional analyses. First, we estimated models separately by occupational group and historical period. Second, we tested alternative definitions of migration: any intermunicipal move, and intermunicipal moves >40 km. Finally, as additional robustness checks, we re-estimated the model using alternative age thresholds – 14, 16, and 18 years – as the starting point for observing migration events without parents.

Fig. 1: Internal migration age profile by birth cohort. Smoothed proportion of people moving within the Netherlands at each age



Note: Each color refers to a different ten-year birth cohort.

Source: Own calculation based on the HSN Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01.

5 Results

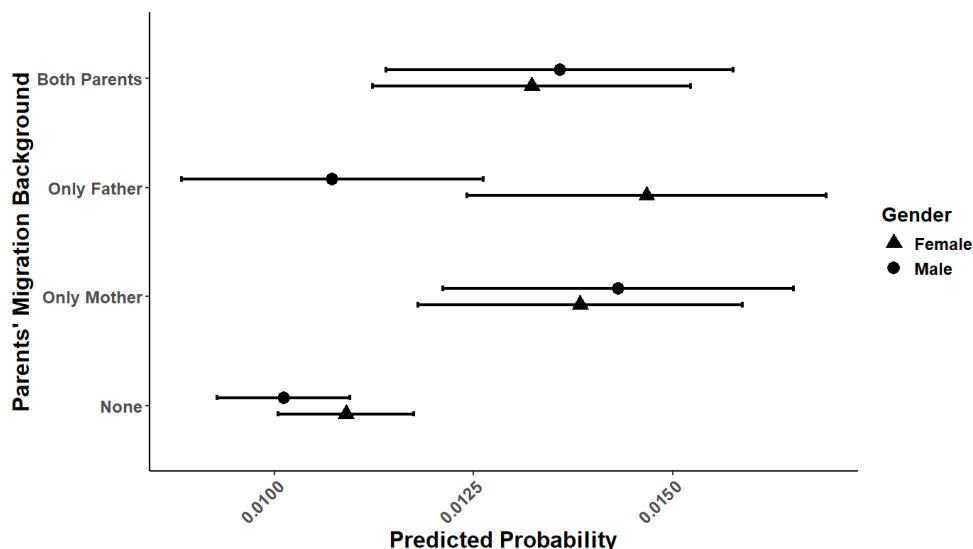
5.1 Migration age profile

The migration age profile in Figure 1 aligns closely with contemporary migration patterns (Bernard *et al.* 2016). Migration rates peaked at around age 25 and were highest among the earliest cohorts, particularly among those born between 1850 and 1859. First migrations without parents peaked earlier (around age 25), after which they declined steeply (see Fig. A2 in the Online Appendix).

5.2 Parental migration history and childhood migration

In line with our first hypothesis, our results from the logistic regression analysis (Fig. 2 and column "Logistic" in Table 1) reveal a strong association between the migration background of an individual's parents and their likelihood of migrating without their parents after age 12. Individuals with at least one parent who had migrated were more likely to migrate themselves. The association appears to be stronger when only the mother migrated than when only the father migrated or when both parents migrated. Individuals whose mother had migration experience had 35 percent higher odds of migrating than individuals whose parents had no migration background (calculated as $(e^{0.296} - 1) \times 100$). In contrast, when both

Fig. 2: Average predicted probability of moving for the first time within the Netherlands (>10 km) without parents after age 12, by the parents' migration background and the research person's gender



Note: Estimates are derived from the model with an added interaction between gender and parental migration background to obtain gender-specific predictions.

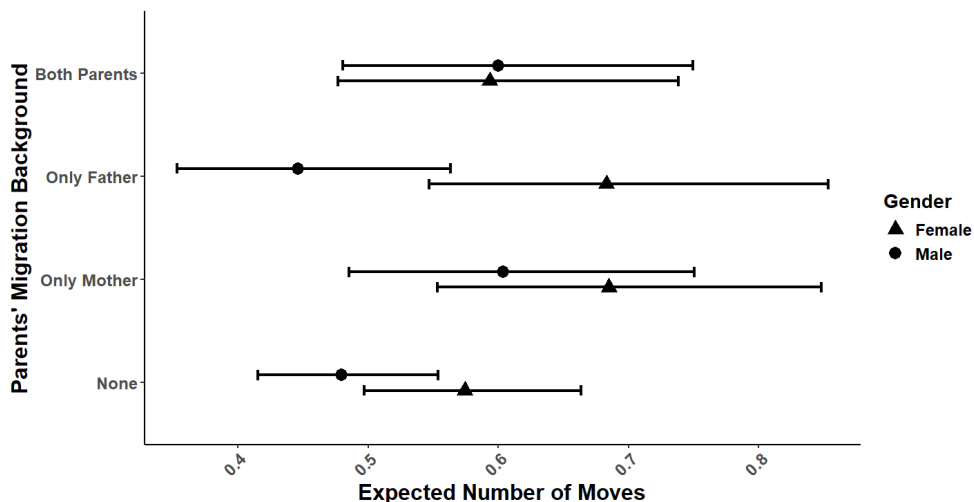
Source: Own calculation based on the HSN Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01.

parents had migration experience or only the father did, the odds of migrating were 28 percent and 21 percent higher, respectively. Having two parents who migrated did not increase the likelihood of migrating compared to having a mother who migrated. These patterns remain almost consistent when we look at differences by individuals' gender. Additionally, individuals who had previously migrated with their parents had 83 percent higher odds of migrating later in life without their parents than individuals without a prior migration history.

The results from the negative binomial model (Fig. 3 and column "Negative binomial" in Table 1) show that individuals whose mother had a migration background had a higher expected number of moves than individuals for whom this was not the case. However, no such association was found for individuals who had a father or two parents with migration experience. By contrast, individuals' own migration experience was strongly linked to the frequency of internal migrations. Individuals with previous migration experience had an expected number of moves that was 3.36 ($e^{1.211}$) times greater than those without migration history.

Overall, the results from the two models suggest that individuals with a parental migration history and personal migration experience were more likely to move within the Netherlands. Indeed, we find that parental migration histories and individuals' own migration experience were associated with a higher likelihood of moving for the

Fig. 3: Expected number of moves within the Netherlands (>10 km) without parents after age 12, by the parents' migration background and the research person's gender



Note: Estimates are derived from the model with an added interaction between gender and parental migration background to obtain gender-specific predictions.

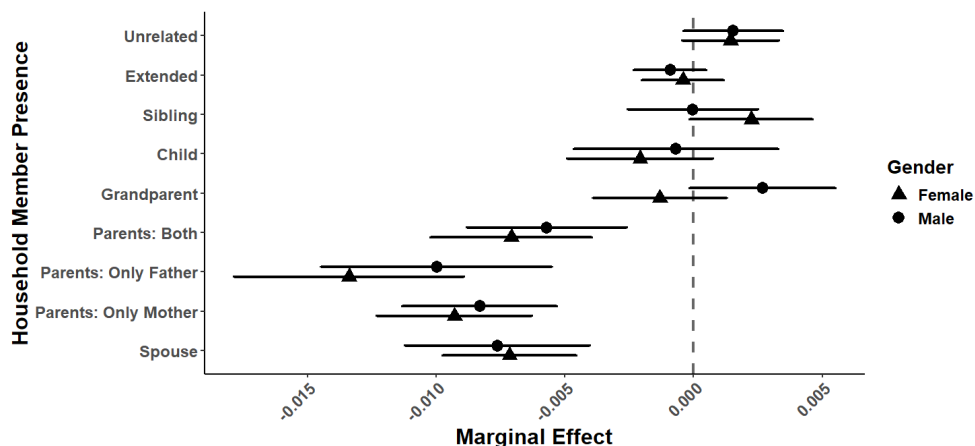
Source: Own calculation based on the HSN Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01.

first time without parents and with more frequent moves, in line with Hypotheses 1.1 and 1.2. However, it was primarily an individual's own migration history – rather than their parents' migration history – that predicted the number of moves they made over their life course.

5.3 Household composition

Our findings reveal an association between an individual's household composition and their likelihood of migrating without their parents for the first time (Fig. 4 and left column of Table 1). Living with a spouse and living with at least one parent showed the strongest negative associations with internal migration. In particular, individuals living with a spouse had 51 percent lower odds of migrating within the Netherlands compared to individuals living without a spouse ($(e^{-0.706} - 1) \times 100$). Individuals living with their father had 70 percent lower odds of migrating than individuals living with neither parent. Individuals who were living with their mother only or both their parents also had a lower likelihood of migrating, at 53 percent and 39 percent, respectively. Similarly, co-residence with children or extended kin was linked to slightly lower odds of migration – 14 percent, and 6 percent lower, respectively. By contrast, living with siblings and non-related individuals was associated with 11 percent and 13 percent higher odds of migrating. Although not

Fig. 4: Marginal effects of household composition on the probability of moving for the first time within the Netherlands (>10 km) without parents after age 12, by the research person's gender



Note: Each household member term indicates whether that person is present in the research person's household. Estimates are derived from the main model with an added interaction between gender and household composition to obtain gender-specific predictions.

Source: Own calculation based on the HSN Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01.

all effects¹ were statistically significant, we observed meaningful gender differences (see Fig. 4). For females, living with at least one parent, or with a grandparent, had a stronger deterring effect on migration than for males. Overall, our findings suggest that co-residing with close kin – especially a spouse, mother, children, or extended family member – reduced the likelihood of migrating within the Netherlands, though the magnitude of this effect varied by gender. Conversely, living with non-kin appears to have increased the likelihood of migration.

5.4 Control variables

Females tended to migrate more frequently than males. Furthermore, we observe a slightly higher likelihood of moving without parents among individuals from earlier cohorts. Our analysis also confirms heterogeneity in migration behavior across occupations and the territorial disparities that characterized the Netherlands. Individuals originating from the North, where municipalities were more remote and farther from the main economic centers, had higher odds of migrating. Consistent with this, residents of rural municipalities were more likely to move, whereas residing in a large city (more than 50,000 inhabitants) reduced the odds of

¹ For readability, we occasionally use the term "effect" in the paper. Throughout, this term refers to associations rather than causal relations.

Tab. 1: Results of the logistic regression model of moving for the first time within the Netherlands (>10 km) without parents after age 12 and of the negative binomial regression model of the total number of moves within the Netherlands (>10 km) without parents after age 12

Variable	Logistic Coefficient (SE)	Negative Binomial Coefficient (SE)
<i>Gender (ref.: male)</i>		
Female	0.075 (0.044)	0.168*** (0.048)
Age	0.169*** (0.014)	
Age ²	-0.003*** (0.0003)	
Duration of residence	-0.009*** (0.003)	
<i>Geographical region (ref.: East)</i>		
North	0.287** (0.090)	0.258** (0.098)
South	-0.269** (0.088)	-0.238** (0.092)
West	0.126 (0.072)	0.176* (0.076)
<i>Birth cohort (ref.: 1850-1859)</i>		
1860-1869	-0.229* (0.091)	-0.352*** (0.102)
1870-1879	-0.206* (0.088)	-0.321** (0.100)
1880-1889	-0.045 (0.086)	-0.231* (0.097)
<i>Parents' migration background (ref.: neither migrated)</i>		
Both parents migrated	0.246*** (0.068)	0.131 (0.073)
Only father migrated	0.190** (0.068)	0.057 (0.076)
Only mother migrated	0.296*** (0.063)	0.206** (0.072)
<i>Previous migration experience (ref.: no)</i>		
Previous migration experience	0.604*** (0.063)	1.211*** (0.054)
<i>Father's occupation (ref.: skilled workers)</i>		
Elite	0.282* (0.138)	0.284 (0.157)
Lower middle class	0.190** (0.067)	0.150 (0.077)

Tab. 1: Continuation

Variable	Logistic Coefficient (SE)	Negative Binomial Coefficient (SE)
Self-employed farmers	-0.454*** (0.080)	-0.335*** (0.086)
Unskilled workers	-0.230*** (0.057)	-0.113 (0.062)
Unknown	-0.141 (0.086)	-0.102 (0.092)
<i>Municipality size (ref.: rural)</i>		
Medium	-0.047 (0.057)	0.170** (0.064)
Large	-0.607*** (0.061)	-0.245*** (0.066)
<i>Parents in the household (ref.: none)</i>		
Only father	-1.206*** (0.293)	-0.719 (0.378)
Only mother	-0.761*** (0.090)	-0.799*** (0.157)
Both	-0.490*** (0.081)	-0.840*** (0.141)
<i>Household composition</i>		
Living with spouse	-0.706*** (0.109)	
Living with siblings	0.104 (0.079)	0.236 (0.139)
Living with grandparents	0.064 (0.082)	-0.053 (0.074)
Living with children	-0.146 (0.106)	
Living with non-related individuals	0.126* (0.056)	0.137* (0.061)
Living with extended kin	-0.060 (0.048)	0.071 (0.051)
<i>Intercept</i>	-5.628*** (0.227)	0.036 (0.149)
<i>Theta</i>		0.364*** (0.013)
<i>Observations</i>	193,220	7,508
<i>Log-likelihood</i>	-11,718.240	-8,696.444
<i>AIC</i>	23,498.600	17,444.890

Note: Standard errors are shown in parentheses. For the logistic regression model, standard errors are clustered by individual ID. "Geographical region," "Municipality size," "Parents in the household," and "Household members" in the negative binomial model are recorded at age 12.

Source: Own calculation based on the HSN Data Set Life Courses Release 2010.01.

migrating. Socio-economic status also mattered. Individuals in higher-status groups (elite and lower middle class) had higher odds of migrating, whereas individuals whose fathers were self-employed farmers or unskilled workers had lower odds. The differences in mobility among individuals in different social classes suggests that inter-generational transmission of migration might be a by-product of inter-generational persistence in socio-economic status. When distinguishing moves by distance (see Table A4 in the Online Appendix), this negative association became stronger for longer distances: farmers and unskilled workers were especially unlikely to undertake long-distance moves (>40 km).

5.5 Additional analyses

The results of the separate analyses by occupational group and historical period are reported in Tables A2 and A3 in the Online Appendix. Beyond the large social class differences in the propensity to migrate discussed above, the stratified models reveal additional occupational specificities. Among individuals from unskilled worker backgrounds, females are significantly more likely to move than males. Among skilled workers, being born in more recent cohorts is strongly associated with a lower likelihood of moving. For individuals originating from farmers and unskilled worker backgrounds, cohort differences in the likelihood of moving are not statistically significant. Finally, among individuals whose father was a farmer, living with the mother only is associated with a particularly strong reduction in the likelihood of migrating, stronger than living with the father only, whereas in the other occupational groups, the strongest association for living with a parent is observed when only the father is present.

Across all periods and occupational groups, childhood migration experience was strongly and positively associated with the likelihood of migrating again within the Netherlands, this time without one's parents. Associations with parental migration histories were positive in all models, although their magnitude and statistical significance varied. Similarly, living with one or both parents and living with a spouse were consistently associated with lower migration odds, while living with non-relatives was associated with slightly higher odds and living with extended kin with lower odds. These patterns for childhood migration experience, parental migration histories, and household composition were robust to alternative distance thresholds (any intermunicipal move, >10 km, and >40 km) (see Table A4 in the Online Appendix). As shown in Table A5 in the Online Appendix, the results for the main independent variables were also consistent across alternative age thresholds, with no significant changes in the magnitude or direction of the effects, confirming the robustness of our findings.

6 Discussion

This study has investigated the intergenerational transmission of migration behavior in the historical context of the Netherlands through the lenses of migration capital and

family ties, while also recognizing the intergenerational transmission of migration as a by-product of the intergenerational persistence in social class. We examined these dynamics by assessing the effect of individuals' and parents' migration histories in a historical setting, and specifically for internal migration. Moreover, the study extends existing evidence on the relationship between migration history and the likelihood of subsequent moves to cover the entire historical Netherlands from 1850-1940, rather than focusing on specific subpopulations or provinces. Finally, our work assesses the role of all household members, beyond the nuclear family, in individuals' internal mobility by considering the influence of close kin, more extended kin, and non-related household members.

We found that parents' migration histories and individuals' own migration experience with their parents increased both the individual's propensity to move without their parents within the Netherlands and the frequency of individuals' internal migrations made without their parents. These findings might suggest that the experiences and knowledge acquired by parents through their own internal migration were transmitted to their children, thereby increasing the likelihood of subsequent internal migration across generations. What seems to matter was the presence of at least one parent with a migration background, as we do not observe a larger effect if both parents had moved in the past. Our findings further reveal a stronger influence of the mother's migration experience, which showed the largest association with the likelihood of moving internally. Moreover, having experienced an internal migration with a parent in the past increased both the likelihood of moving again later in life without one's parents and the frequency of internal migrations. This may suggest that direct exposure to migration not only familiarized individuals with the migration process, but also shaped their attitudes and lowered the barriers to mobility later in life.

The association with migration histories we found might also point to the importance of family ties in shaping migration, potentially encouraging or deterring it. Individuals who have migrated before, or whose parents have migration experience, may be more likely to move because they have accumulated less place-specific capital in their current location, which would otherwise anchor them. In that sense, prior movers may have weaker local ties in their current place of residence and thus be less likely to stay than long-term residents with strong local ties. At the same time, having one's own or parents' migration experience implies exposure to multiple places and may create or maintain family connections elsewhere. Such ties elsewhere can act as pull factors, making people more likely to migrate to destinations where they have relatives or other social connections that can provide information and support.

We found that having local family ties in the household – specifically, the presence of close kin or a spouse – was associated with a lower likelihood of migrating without parents within the Netherlands. Among all ties to co-resident household members, living with at least one parent and living with a spouse exerted the strongest deterrent effect on an individual's residential mobility. These kinship ties served as powerful local anchors, reinforcing the individual's attachment to their current place of residence. This effect was not limited to close relatives; the presence

of extended kin also strengthened these local ties and might have acted as an additional deterrent to migration. Conversely, having non-kin in the household was associated with a higher likelihood of migrating. Our results suggest that family ties within a household contributed to residential stability, highlighting the importance of local ties in shaping internal migration patterns. These findings also highlight the importance of considering not only close kin, but also more distant relatives and other household members, including non-related individuals.

Our findings may also be consistent with viewing the intergenerational transmission of migration as a by-product of the intergenerational transmission of socio-economic status. Our analysis showed that social class, proxied here by the father's occupation, shaped individuals' likelihood of migration within the Netherlands. Indeed, between 1850 and 1940, migration varied substantially by occupation. Given the well-established intergenerational persistence of occupation and social class, the association between parental migration and individual migration may partly reflect the fact that children often entered the same occupational groups – characterized by more or less migration – as their parents, rather than being a direct effect of parental migration per se. Similarly, higher lifetime move frequency may have been driven by occupations that required exceptionally frequent moves. For example, female domestic servants often changed residence repeatedly (*Bras* 2003; *Kok* 1997).

In our study, we observed substantial gender differences in internal mobility behaviors. Overall, females were more likely than males to move without their parents. Many of these women likely moved as servants (*Bras* 2003). For both genders, having a mother with a migration history exerted a larger effect than having two parents with previous migration experience. A plausible explanation for this finding is that mothers often act as primary caregivers and spend more time with their children than fathers, and thus exert greater influence during socialization. Parents transmit attitudes, knowledge, and preferences about migration during this stage, and the mother's stronger involvement may explain why the mother's migration background was shown to be a better predictor than the father's.

We observed additional gender differences when examining household composition. Living with at least one parent reduced the likelihood of moving more strongly for females than for males, with the largest gender gap being observed when the father was the only parent in the household. The presence of a grandparent also acted as a deterrent for females but slightly encouraged mobility for males, although this difference was not statistically significant. These findings highlight how household structure constrained female mobility, likely due to women's caregiving responsibilities and closer affective ties. The anchoring role of women's local family ties was most evident when the father was the sole parent, which suggests that the daughters may have taken on maternal roles within the household. These results are consistent with previous evidence showing that daughters tend to remain geographically closer than sons coming from single-parent households (*Leopold et al.* 2011), that women are generally more strongly affected by family background characteristics than men (*Blaauboer/Mulder* 2010), and that variations in childhood

family structure have a greater impact on daughters' than sons' home-leaving patterns (Aquilino 1991).

Our results are partly consistent with previous findings on the role of parental migration in contemporary internal and international migration (Aquilino 1991; Bernard/Perales 2024; de Jong 2022; de Jong/de Valk 2023; Fischer/Malmberg 2001; Ivlevs/King 2012). Furthermore, the observed strong link between past and current migration experience is consistent with existing research linking childhood migration and adulthood migration, highlighting the importance of viewing mobility as a cumulative process that takes place over the entire life course (Bernard/Vidal 2020). This aligns with recent work (Bernard/Perales 2021; Bernard/Vidal 2020) that conceptualizes migration as a learning process in which previous migration experiences provide individuals with knowledge, skills, and attitudes that lower the costs of and barriers to subsequent moves. In addition, previous migration experiences can weaken local ties, making people less likely to stay.

Our findings on the presence of close kin within the household are also consistent with a substantial body of literature showing that family ties in the household act as deterrents to internal mobility (Aquilino 1991; Blaauboer/Mulder 2010; Clark 2013; Fischer/Malmberg 2001). In particular, our results are consistent with existing evidence about the presence of siblings, children, a partner, and parents in the local network.

Furthermore, our findings suggest that historical patterns identified in Dutch subpopulations can be extended to the entire Netherlands. Indeed, previous research has documented the importance of kin migration histories and individuals' own migration experience for subsequent mobility among female servants and rural populations, and in specific provinces such as Zeeland and Utrecht (Bras 2003; Kok 1997; Kok *et al.* 2014). Finally, our findings confirm what Kok and Mandemakers (2010) observed in the Dutch historical context, using the same data as we did: Living in an extended family reduces the likelihood of migrating.

The Historical Sample of the Netherlands contains exceptionally rich data, including detailed information on the household composition of the sampled research persons at each household, and thus at each residential address. This information allowed us to obtain a broader and more nuanced picture of the likelihood of moving from a household depending on who the people living in the household were. The dataset enabled us to study migration over the life course and as an intergenerational process, linking childhood migration and parental migration histories to the likelihood of migration in adulthood and the number of moves in adulthood. The richness of our dataset allowed us to look at relatives in the household beyond close kin and at non-kin living in the household.

While migration contexts and patterns may change over time, many of the underlying mechanisms – such as the influence of family migration history and the role of local ties – may be consistent over time. By studying the past, we can better understand these foundational mechanisms and provide insights that remain relevant for explaining migration patterns today. The Historical Sample of the Netherlands enabled us to investigate patterns that have usually been overlooked due to data limitations. Thus, we believe that historical datasets represent useful

tools for overcoming the data limitation issues of contemporary datasets, as they can provide complete migration histories over multiple generations, allowing researchers to test the enduring influence of individuals' own and parental migration experiences on their migration behavior.

6.1 Limitations and future work

We identify three main limitations in our study. First, since the only information available about a parent's location prior to their child's birth was their municipality of birth, we approximated the parent's migration experience by comparing their place of birth with their child's first place of residence. However, this approach likely underestimates parental mobility, as it does not account for parents who migrated but later returned to their municipality of birth, where they subsequently had children and settled. As a result, we may have underestimated the actual number of children with parents who had a migration background. This, in turn, may have led to an imprecise estimation of the differences in mobility between children of migrant and non-migrant parents.

Second, our proxy for socioeconomic status – based on the father's occupation at the child's birth – may not have perfectly captured the association between an individual's socioeconomic characteristics and their likelihood of moving without their parents. If an individual's first move without their parents occurred in adulthood, their own occupation might be a more accurate indicator. However, because most first moves without parents occurred before age 20, we believe that the father's occupation remains a meaningful measure of family background.

Third, regarding kin outside the nuclear family, this study focused on whether they were present in the household, and how their presence shaped the likelihood of migrating. As our data did not allow us to look at movements of individuals that occurred without the sampled research person, we could not trace the migration behavior of relatives, both close and distant, outside the research person's household. Because we lack information on relatives' locations, relatives that are not present within the household are not observed, even though they may live nearby and could constitute a local tie due to their geographical proximity. Furthermore, the lack of data on relatives' locations prevents us from assessing whether individuals tend to move closer to family members living far away. Existing literature suggests that faraway family attracts migration, but we cannot investigate this attraction factor.

Further research could, first, try to investigate the impact of the migration experiences of co-resident kin other than parents. Second, studies could examine kin outside the household, considering both their presence and migration histories, to better understand how these factors shape an individual's likelihood of moving. In the same way that relatives beyond the parent-child dyad have an influence on other demographic behaviors, we also expect that the migration of more extended kin can affect the migration patterns of their kinship network. Since this information is absent from most existing datasets, data collection efforts should prioritize gathering it in order to better exploit links beyond the nuclear family. Future work could further explore why the mother's migration background has the strongest influence on an

individuals' likelihood of migrating, and why individuals with two migrant parents are not more likely to migrate than those with only a migrant mother. Lastly, future research should continue to investigate the underexplored mechanisms underlying the intergenerational transmission of migration, extending current knowledge and evidence across different geographical and historical contexts, and considering both internal and international migration.

Availability of data and code

The data used in this study are available from the International Institute of Social History, Amsterdam, the Netherlands (<https://iisg.amsterdam/en/hsn>). Restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used under license for this study. The code to reproduce the tables and figures in the paper is available online: https://github.com/a-colasurdo/ParentsMigration_HouseholdComposition_Netherlands.

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Author contributions

A.C. conceptualized the study, conducted the analysis, and wrote the manuscript. A.C. and C.H.M. developed and designed the methodology. A.C., C.H.M., and D.A.G. reviewed and edited the manuscript.

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