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**FLIGHT OF THE KIWI:
AN EXPLORATION OF MOTIVES AND
BEHAVIOURS OF SELF-INITIATED MOBILITY**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Kaye Jennifer Thorn

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ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to identify the motives for self-initiated mobility of highly educated New Zealanders across national boundaries. It further seeks to identify the relative importance of these motives and to explore relationships between motivation and mobility behaviour. This study on self-initiated mobility is opportune as an increasingly globalised market place and a demand for the skills of the highly educated result in competition for workers.

Most literature concerning mobility focuses on expatriate assignment. By comparison, self-initiated movers remain an under-researched group. Moreover, of the limited research on self-initiated mobility, most have used interviewing and narrative methods, so that the available information is detailed but restricted to individual experiences. This study used a self-report survey via the internet to collect both quantitative and qualitative data and yielded 2,608 useable responses from New Zealanders living and working throughout the world. It was highly exploratory, using the analytical marketing tool CHAID to show linkages between subjective attitudinal motives and objective measures of mobility behaviours.

The desire for cultural and travel opportunities was the dominant subjective motive, being the best predictor for the objective mobility behaviours of establishment, current spatiality and return propensity and being a secondary predictor for restlessness. Other associations were evident between the quality of life motive and the behaviour of restlessness, the career motive and cultural globalism and the relationships motive and the behaviour of latent transience. Economics and the political environment motives were not found to be significant predictors of any behaviour.

The subjective data reinforced the importance of the cultural and travel opportunities and career motives, ranking these the most important motives in a decision to be mobile. Within these motives, opportunities for travel and adventure and for career development were central. Economics was ranked as the third most important motive, contrary to extant literature, followed by relationships, quality of life and the political environment. The priority accorded to each of these six motives varies according to gender, location and life stage, creating different equations of motivation.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Aims

The focus of this study is the self-initiated mobility of highly educated New Zealanders across national boundaries. The study aims to investigate the complexity of human motivation towards self-initiated mobility and to identify various behavioural forms mobility might take. The study further seeks to explore the linkages between motivation and behaviour to lead to a greater understanding of self-initiated mobility.

There are two specific objectives:

Objective 1: To identify the subjective motives of self-initiated mobility of highly educated New Zealanders across national boundaries and to determine the relative importance of these motives.

Objective 2: To conceptualise different objective behaviours of self-initiated mobility and to develop new theory of self-initiated mobility through the linking of motives and behaviours.

This study was stimulated by earlier research undertaken while I was a member of the New Zealand Talent Flow Programme at Massey University, Auckland. This research team examined expatriate New Zealanders living overseas, focusing on their reasons for leaving, their intention to return to New Zealand, and their attitudes to New Zealand. Co-authored publications that resulted from this Programme include Carr, Inkson and Thorn (2005), Thorn, Edwards, Carr, Jackson, Allfree,

Hooks and Inkson (2005), Inkson, Carr, Edwards, Hooks, Jackson, Thorn and Allfree (2004) and Hooks, Edgar, Inkson, Carr, Edwards, Jackson, Thorn and Allfree (2007). This research provided considerable information on a previously under-researched group and was an important foundation for research on mobility. However, it also raised further questions about the relative importance of motivating factors and the relationship between motivation and mobility, and hence the focus and impetus for this study.

The need for this research is apparent on three levels – global, national and at the individual organisation level. The way the world operates has changed. Cheaper communications and transport have resulted in a recognition that distance and boundaries are increasingly irrelevant in an international marketplace (Helliwell, 1999). These trends are not restricted just to flows of materials and money (Conradson & Latham, 2005b), but also encompass the movement of people across national boundaries. Hence, these changes have substantially changed the ‘calculus of global competition’ (Thomas, Lazarova, & Inkson, 2005, p. 342). There is competition for jobs and labour, not only from developed countries but also from developing countries, as organisations harness the knowledge that is inherent in the structures and systems of business and, more importantly, the collective capabilities of their most valued and skilled employees (Birkinshaw, 2005). In this context, the importance of mobility is derived from its contribution to the formation and transfer of that knowledge (OECD, 2008).

The movement of labour across an increasingly globalised market place is inevitable as boundaries become flexible and permeable (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and as people look beyond their home countries for

career, travel and lifestyle opportunities. Searching for and securing human talent is, therefore, increasingly becoming a global industry (Birkinshaw, 2005), with highly educated people circulating between countries and contributing to the global economy (Beaverstock, 2005). Understanding who moves, and why, therefore becomes an important component of understanding the rapidly developing global labour market.

Labour mobility across national boundaries is not inherently a problem. However, in a knowledge economy, and in times of tight labour markets where competition for highly educated workers is strong, the challenge facing many countries and organisations is the retention and recruitment of labour (Mahroum, 2005). At a national level, therefore, it is inevitable that some countries will become winners in this flow of talent, receiving educated and skilled workers from around the world, while others will be losers (Cervantes & Guellec, 2002). Typically, poorer and developing economies are the sending countries, experiencing a net loss of talent, while the richer countries are the receivers (Hall, 2005). There are, however, a number of developed countries experiencing a net loss. Canada (Andres & Licker, 2002), Ireland (Barrett & Trace, 1998), Finland, Sweden and Denmark (Dumont & Lemaitre, 2005), New Zealand (Choy & Glass, 2002; Inkson et al., 2004), Australia (Australian Senate, 2005; Hugo, Rudd, & Harris, 2003) and South Africa (Kahn et al., 2004) are some of the countries that have identified the loss of highly educated workers as an issue of economic importance.

Global mobility is not a new phenomenon. Historically, labour movements were often a result of political conflict (Iredale, 2001) and economic failure (Borjas, 1989). Movements of academics out of

Germany prior to World War I (Dustmann, 1996) and from China during the Cultural Revolution (Zweig, 1997) are examples of movement in response to political conflict. Severe circumstances can also result in movement, such as the diaspora from Ireland in the mid 1840s which has been attributed to the famine and consequential economic failure (Coogan, 2000).

The interest in researching highly educated labour movement, however, only began in the 1960s with concern that British scientific brains were being lost to the United States of America (USA) (Koser & Salt, 1997). During the 1970s, research interest in the brain drain grew slowly (Portes, 1976) with the suggestion of an exodus of scientists from Britain (Adir, 1995). This emphasis on scientists, or, more recently, technology workers, has remained (Carr et al., 2005), even though there are now recognised worldwide shortages in other fields such as health (Ansley, 2003; Clark, Stewart, & Clark, 2006; MacKay, 2001), accountancy (Beaverstock, 1996b), architecture (New Zealand Department of Labour, 2007a) and the trades (New Zealand Department of Labour, 2007b).

A well-educated and well-trained population is important for the social and economic development of a country, particularly in this knowledge-driven era. A country invests in education, building its human capital, which in turn, drives competitiveness and stimulates foreign interest (Le, Gibson, & Oxley, 2003). However, with increasing mobility, there is no guarantee that the return from this investment in education will be realised. Instead, it is possible for one country to make the investment, and another to benefit from that investment (Birkinshaw, 2005). From a national perspective, therefore, retaining or recruiting the highly

educated is imperative to ensure that a country has the skills required to be competitive (Australian Senate, 2005).

Governments are responding to the global movement of labour in a number of ways. The immigration policies of major industrialised countries have changed significantly to allow open access to potential immigrants who are well educated (Mahroum, 2001). The United Kingdom (UK), USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand have all developed specific immigration policies which target such workers (Iredale, 2005). International agreements also ease the flow of highly educated people into countries with skill shortages (Koser & Salt, 1997). Citizens of the European Union (EU), for example, are able to obtain employment in other EU countries without the need for formal immigration or visas, and reciprocal agreements operate between North American countries through the North American Free Trade Agreement, and New Zealand and Australia through the Closer Economic Relations agreement (Ouaked, 2002).

Some countries have gone further than a passive encouragement of the highly educated, to an active enticement of new talent. Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands provide tax relief to foreign experts (Mahroum, 2005), while China, Israel and Malaysia have a range of benefits and scholarships to attract the highly educated (Australian Senate, 2005). France has introduced a scientific visa to fast-track scientists from outside the EU, and Germany has a green card system for expediting the movement of Information Technology workers to their country (Mahroum, 2001). Further, Lowell (2005, p. 11) suggests that skill shortages in the future will result in 'aggressive policies to attract skilled

migrants', thus predicting a more active involvement by governments in order to obtain the skills needed.

Concerns at the firm level are similar, focusing on skill shortages and the need to attract, retain and motivate sufficient staff to operate competitively (Wang & Bu, 2004). The competition for workers comes not only from other domestic companies, but also from organisations in other parts of the world (Iredale, 2001). Where free movement provisions exist, an employer is able to recruit abroad without difficulty (Koser & Salt, 1997). Within English-speaking countries, New Zealanders, Australians and South Africans are highly sought after, with well-recognised education systems (OECD, 2005b) and a *can-do* attitude (Jamieson, 1996). Several recruitment agencies in international locations specialise in finding appointments for people from these countries (see, for example, londonlegalrecruitment.com, workgateways.com and Nursing UK).

1.2 Mobility of New Zealanders

This research focuses on New Zealand as an exemplar of the motives for mobility of the highly educated and is selected for several reasons. First, New Zealand has a relatively large proportion of the population who are highly educated, with 30.9% of those aged 25–64 having attained a tertiary qualification. This places New Zealand eighth in the Organisation for Economic and Co-operation and Development (OECD), behind Canada, the USA and the Scandinavian countries, and on a par with Australia, well ahead of the OECD average of 24.1% (OECD, 2006b).

Second, the New Zealand economy has been performing strongly this decade, but has recently slowed to an average growth rate of around 3% per annum (The Treasury, 2008). New Zealand is only now re-entering the top half of the OECD Gross Domestic Product (GDP) rankings (OECD, 2007), although increases in real GDP per person have outpaced the OECD average. Unemployment has dropped to 3.4%, the lowest level on record (Statistics New Zealand, 2008b). Further, in the annual survey of quality of living of global cities in 2007, both Auckland and Wellington were ranked in the top 12 cities (Mercer Human Resources Consulting, 2008). New Zealand should, therefore, be an attractive place to live.

However, a country-by-country ranking of brain drain, calculated on the basis of whether well educated people emigrate, placed New Zealand at number 41 out of the 47 countries assessed (IMD, 2000), between China (40) and India (42). Further, a recent evaluation of OECD statistics shows that 24% of its tertiary-educated native-born citizens are currently living in an OECD country other than New Zealand (OECD, 2006a). New Zealand, therefore, has many of the characteristics that should make it a desirable place to live, and yet nearly a quarter of its highly educated citizens live elsewhere.

Third, there is clear demographic evidence, derived from permanent and long-term (PLT) arrival and departure data that New Zealanders are continuing to leave the country. In 2007, 44,273 citizens left New Zealand on a permanent or long-term basis, while only 22,145 arrived back in the country, leaving a deficit of more than 22,000 people (Statistics New Zealand, 2008a).

The magnitude of this flow of New Zealanders out of the country is heightened due to the limited size of the economy and the recent shift in focus from a primarily agricultural-led economy towards a knowledge-based one. Further, the brain drain has been brought to the attention of many New Zealanders through the national media. A selection of headlines since 2000 include 'Brain drain here to stay' (Ansley, 2001), 'Have brains will travel' (Oliver, 2001), 'Quarter of New Zealand's brightest are gone' (S. Collins, 2005b), 'Kiwi, please come home' (S. Collins, 2005a), 'Many Kiwis spreading wings overseas unlikely to return' (Gregory, 2006), 'New Zealand tops study on brain drain' (Crewdson, 2006), 'Flight to familiar territory' (Cumming, 2008b) and 'Flight of Kiwi shows unhappiness over NZ's prospects' (Kerr, 2008). Articles in the popular media such as *North and South Magazine* (Chamberlain, 2004, 2005; Legat & Quaintance, 1999) and in the *New Zealand Listener* (Helyer Donaldson, 2004; Matthews & Zander, 2000) have resulted in a populist discussion on whether New Zealand is experiencing brain drain, a brain gain, or brain waste (Myers & Pringle, 2005).

Finally, New Zealanders are renowned as a nation of travellers (Bedford, 2001). Part of this is attributable to colonial ties back to the home country (usually the UK, but also Ireland), part to the geographical isolation of the country, and part to the limited opportunities of a small country (McCarter, 2001). New Zealand also has an established culture of the Big OE – a period where young people leave New Zealand for periods of two to three years to obtain their overseas experience (Inkson & Myers, 2003). For many, this represents a 'rite of passage' (Mason, 2002 p. 93), motivated by opportunities for cultural experiences and adventure (Chadee & Cutler, 1996). Changes to legislation in the UK now permit young New Zealanders to be employed for periods of two years (Story,

2003), providing opportunities for the more career-oriented people to obtain valuable work experience. Milne, Poulton, Caspi and Moffitt (2001, p. 451) have shown that there are significant differences between those who go on an OE and those who do not with OE participants being 'better qualified, more intelligent...leaner, fitter and happier' than non-participants. Most people going on their OE intend to return to New Zealand (Inkson & Myers, 2003), but other factors such as career opportunities or the formation of personal relationships sometimes result in some of them remaining abroad.

Typically, people who leave New Zealand on their OE are aged between 20 and 29, single, and pursuing stimulation, change, adventure and new cultural experiences (Inkson & Myers, 2003). Career development is not usually a priority for these people (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997). There is, however, developing anecdotal evidence to suggest that older people may now be taking a delayed OE (Delikan & Reed, 2007; Helyer Donaldson, 2004).

New Zealand is, therefore, a useful case from which to examine the motives for mobility across national boundaries. It is a developed country, with a high percentage of highly educated people, a significant proportion of whom live in other countries, and a continuing trend of citizens leaving the country. Understanding the motives that drive these people could provide an insight into global mobility.

1.3 The Highly Educated

The target group for this research are highly educated workers who have made the decision to work abroad. In today's business climate, having international experience is increasingly important for promotion (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Similarly, many multi-national organisations are progressively realising that managing global talent and individual career paths is important in order to stay competitive in the labour market (Dickmann & Harris, 2005). Consequently, there is a need to understand more about the motivations underpinning movements across national borders for this segment of the labour market.

For the purposes of this research, a highly educated person is one who has attained a tertiary qualification taking at least two years. According to the International Standard Classification of Education (UNESCO, 1997), being highly educated is defined as including Level 5A (bachelors', honours', and masters' degrees and postgraduate certificates or diplomas) and Level 6 (doctoral studies). The qualifications are usually theoretically-based and can be preparatory for further research-based qualifications or give direct access to professions with high skills requirements (UNESCO, 1997). These levels are equivalent to Levels 7, 8, 9 and 10 on the New Zealand National Qualifications Framework (NZQA, 2006).

The OECD usually includes Level 5B (a certificated programme of at least two years duration designed for the acquisition of specific skills needed for employment in a particular trade or occupation) within its definition of highly educated (NZQA, 2006; OECD, 2006a). Severe skill shortages in the trades, both in New Zealand and abroad (see, for example, Machin,

2008; New Zealand Department of Labour, 2008; Statistics Canada, 2008), suggest that this is an essential group to include in a study on the mobility of the highly educated. In the New Zealand context, Level 5B is equivalent to Levels 5 and 6 on the New Zealand National Qualifications Framework (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2006).

1.4 Self-initiated Foreign Experiences

The focus of this research is also on those who choose to become mobile. Self-initiated foreign experiences are 'long-term individually initiated travels to other countries to pursue cultural, personal and career development experiences' (Myers & Pringle, 2005, p. 421). There is an emphasis on the length of time being long-term, meaning that the person is actually settled and living in the host country. While there is an increasing array of forms of mobility, such as short-term transfers and commuter assignments (Fenwick, 2004), the motives behind a decision to become mobile are likely to be different for the longer time period than for these shorter term periods. Short-term movements are often for the worker alone, staying in hotels or equivalent accommodation (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005), and leaving any partner or family in the home country. Thus, the focus is expressly on the job, and the challenge of establishing oneself and a family in the host country is not a consideration of the move. Similarly, holidays are explicitly excluded from this study since the focus for the movement is different.

People who undertake self-initiated foreign experiences are operating in the boundaryless career paradigm which differs from the traditional organisational career (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999). In the traditional career, individuals expected to progress through the company, achieving

seniority with time and age (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). In a boundaryless environment, individuals are responsible for their own careers, and typically move outside the company (Feldman & Ng, 2007) or country (Hudson & Inkson, 2006) for progression. Corporate intervention (and the relative security of that) is abandoned for autonomy and flexibility.

It is important to distinguish self-initiated movers from the much-researched area of expatriate assignment, in that the initiative for leaving the home country comes from the individual, not the employer (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Stahl, Miller and Tung (2002, p. 220), in a study on German expatriate managers, reveal that 69% of respondents considered that they could not refuse a posting more than once without this having a negative impact on their future career with that company. These managers often accepted postings to other countries, not from a desire to work there or a desire to do a specific job, but from fear of reprisals in the workplace. The motivation for these people is, therefore, very different from those who choose to move abroad and they are thus excluded from this study.

It is recognised, however, that some expatriation will be as a result of 'planned happenstance' (Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999, p. 116), where the employee takes the initiative to facilitate an expatriation. Harris and Brewster (1999) also discuss this, reporting that managers are more likely to be sent overseas after nominating themselves in what they refer to as the 'coffee-machine system' (p. 497) of expatriate selection. In this system, informal discussions around the coffee-machine or in the lunch room often focus on who might be interested in taking a posting, and this availability then becomes the dominant selection criterion. In

other words, the informal networks and conversations between workers play an important role in identifying willingness to take a posting. These people are, therefore, initiating their expatriation and are included in this research.

A similar situation occurs with secondment, where people are sent by their employers to international organisations, as commonly occurs in large multi-national accountancy practises (Beaverstock, 1996b). In a secondment, the initiative to be mobile often comes from the individual, but the organisation provides a job in the new location, plus assistance with the transfer. The level of risk to the individual, therefore, is considerably less, but these people are, none-the-less, choosing to be mobile and are included in this research.

This research also incorporates those highly educated people engaged in their OE. While their travels are self-initiated, they tend to be motivated by 'exploration and novelty' (Inkson, Thomas, & Barry, 1999, p.54) rather than the opportunity to improve their career opportunities (Myers & Inkson, 2003). In this case, employment tends to be *ad hoc* and casual. However, these people sometimes obtain more permanent employment as a result of serendipitous networking or opportunities.

In summary, there are four main types of self-initiated movers who are included in this research. The first group are the expatriates, who are posted by their company, but who either made themselves available for the posting or who are happy to be sent. Second, there are those on secondment who have often initiated the move, but have the security of employment with the company in the host country. Third, there are the OE movers who initiate their travel with a focus on experiencing cultural

opportunities, and finally, there are those who individually initiate global mobility as a planned career strategy.

Self-initiated foreign experience was first raised in the literature a decade ago (Inkson et al., 1997) with a discussion of the differences between those on expatriate assignment and those choosing to be mobile. Suutari and Brewster (2000) reinforced these earlier findings, calling for more research to be undertaken on the self-initiated foreign experience.

This call was reiterated five years later, highlighting 'the importance of this dearth of data and analysis [at a time when] individuals travelling abroad to find their own work is a widespread phenomenon' (Brewster & Suutari, 2005, p. 12). They subsequently joined with their colleagues, Bonache and Jokinen, to repeat this appeal for more research to be undertaken (Bonache, Brewster, & Suutari, 2007; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008). Richardson and colleagues (Richardson, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2003, 2006), in their work with academics, are some of the few researchers to respond to this challenge. Napier and Taylor (2002) have also undertaken qualitative studies of women professionals abroad, unexpectedly finding that self-initiated mobility was more common than initially believed. Vance's (2005) interviews with Americans employed in the not-for-profit sector in Asia identifies the fledgling level of research in this field and the need to examine self-initiated mobility in much more depth.

There are also few quantitative studies undertaken in the field of self-initiated mobility. Bhuian, Al-Shammari and Jefri (2001) have investigated the characteristics of people on self-initiated foreign experiences in Saudi Arabia, while in New Zealand, Inkson and

colleagues (Inkson et al., 2004; Inkson & Myers, 2003) have examined the attributes and attitudes of New Zealanders living and working abroad. Other European-based research (see, for example, Ackers, 2005a, 2005b; Mahroum, 2000, 2001) discusses the international mobility of scientists (a group who usually instigate their own movements) without examining the significance of self-initiation. In this new global environment, there is clearly a need to understand more about self-initiated mobility.

The question of what motivates a person to move to another country is frequently raised in the literature, but has often been answered with a simplistic, unidirectional view of motivation (Raghuram, 2004). As far back as 1989, Winchie and Carment were lamenting the focus on economic motives for the movement of people. They argue that 'if such factors affect everyone, why do only some move?' (p. 96). Banai and Harry (2005) highlight the need to study the characteristics, motivations and needs of those who are mobile. Ackers (2005b) developed this argument further, suggesting that not only are there a range of factors involved in a decision to be mobile, but the 'menu and significance of factors might change over time as careers develop and lives evolve' (p. 106). This would perhaps suggest that there is an equation for each person who decides to move, made up of a mixture of the motivating factors such as career, family or personal priorities. The relative importance of each of these motives to the individual therefore becomes fundamental.

1.5 Perspectives on Mobility

Within the literature, mobility across national boundaries is variously referred to as migration (Halfacree, 2004; Herman, 2006; Schaeffer, 2005), transnationalism (Conradson & Latham, 2007; Ehrkamp, 2005; Meijering & van Hoven, 2003; Vertovec, 2001) and movement (Birrell, Rapson, & Smith, 2006; Welch, 2001). Koser and Salt (1997, p. 285) argue against the term migration, suggesting that for the highly educated, 'migration [takes] many forms, capable of metamorphosis into each other and into more permanent settlement'. Their view is that migration refers to a permanent, single movement and that each movement is in isolation of any other movement. A similar connotation is transnationalism, which again suggests a single movement across nations. Mobility, on the other hand is a broader concept which allows for the consideration that any single move may be part of a wider set of movements, either to another country or a return to the host country. This study, therefore, adopts the term *mobility*.

While the paucity of literature on self-initiated mobility has already been discussed, within the broader field of movements across national boundaries, the extant literature spans many disciplines including economics, psychology, sociology, human resource management, law and politics (Kivisto, 2001). The academic significance of mobility is demonstrated by this wide range of interest (Boyle, Halfacree, & Robinson, 1998). A summary of the key focus in the area of mobility of each of these disciplines, and an example of the seminal or current authors in each area is provided in Table 1.1. A psychological perspective on mobility would, for example, focus on the thoughts,

Table 1.1
Summary of Disciplines Examining Mobility

Perspective	Cross-perspective	Focus	Examples of the focus in the context of global mobility	Examples of seminal or current papers in the field
Economic		Economic impacts, costs to the individual, family and state	Movement from developing nations to developed nations; remittances to the home country	Borjas (1989; 1990); Dustmann (2003); Portes & Böröcz (1987); Ravenstein (1885, 1889; see Grigg 1977); Todaro (1992)
Psychology		The thoughts, feelings and behaviours of individuals	Why do people move? Motivation for mobility	Berry (1990; 2001); Carr, Inkson & colleagues (2004; 2005)
	Social psychology	How people think about and influence one another	Movement to be near family and friends; OE	Myers & colleagues (2003; 2005); Tharenou (2002; 2003)
Sociology		Behaviour of the group, group dynamics	Integration following movements; acculturation	Cohen & colleagues (1996; 2000); Spoonley & colleagues (2003; 2005)
	Social Anthropology	Networks, kinships	Diaspora communities; establishment of networks, connection to the homeland	Vertovec (2001; 2003; 2004; 2005); Conradson & Latham (2005a; 2005b; 2005c)
Anthropology		Comparative studies of culture and society	Migration and ethnic conflict; migration and identity	Brettell (2000; 2003); Kearney (1986; 1995)

Table 1.1 continued

Perspective	Cross-perspective	Focus	Examples of the focus in the context of global mobility	Examples of seminal or current papers in the field
Human Resource Management	International Human Resource Management	Recruitment, selection, training, cross cultural management, performance management Impact of laws and regulations on movements	Selection, management and repatriation of expatriates; global staffing in multi-national companies Rules of entry and exit; state sovereignty and citizenship; refugees and illegal flows	Caligiuri & colleagues (2000; 2002; 2003); Selmer & colleagues (1999, 2004); Scullion & Collings (2006) Ackers (2003; 2005a); Castles & colleagues (2000, 2003)
Legal				
Politics		Role of the State	Impact of immigration policies	Iredale (2000; 2005); Mahroum (2005)
Human Geography	Population Geography (Spatial demographics)	Nature of population change	Effect of movements on population capacity or birth rates	Bedford & colleagues (2001; 2002) Halfacre & colleagues (1993, 2004); Hugo (1998; 2001; 2005; 2006); Ni Laoire (2000; 2003)
	Economic Geography	Impacts of changes in the world economy	Regional economic integration	Beaverstock (1994; 1996a; 1996b; 2002); Findlay & colleagues (1991, 2000, 2002, 2003)

feelings and behaviours at the level of the individual. Sociologists may still focus on behaviour, but view migration from a group perspective.

While there is undoubtedly overlap in the different ways in which the disciplines explore mobility, they can be divided into general categories depending on whether their focus is on who moves (sociology, anthropology and human resource management), why they move (economics and psychology), how they move (the law and politics) or where they move (spatial geography). There are also differences in the level or levels at which the disciplines address mobility, ranging from the macro or global level, through the State, then family or group, to the micro level of the individual.

The present study takes a multi-disciplinary approach to mobility reflecting the interconnectedness of work, family and leisure in today's society. It draws on literature from all these disciplines to examine the *who, why, how* and *where* of New Zealanders abroad. The research from the fields of psychology, social psychology and international human resource management are the most relevant for this study.

1.6 Summary and Overview of the Thesis

This chapter has introduced the primary aims of the research and has identified two specific research objectives to be addressed. It has highlighted the lack of research on self-initiated mobility and the need to understand who, how and why highly educated people move across international boundaries. This chapter also defined the scope of the research, and locates the study in a multidisciplinary perspective.

Chapter Two reviews the broader literature on international mobility of the highly educated, identifying the factors which influence a decision to move. Chapter Three explores behaviours of mobility and examines possible measures for these behaviours. Hypotheses are developed for later testing. Chapter Four details the participants, measures and the research process.

Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight present and discuss the research findings. Chapter Five provides general information on the characteristics of the participants and the influence these have on mobility. Chapters Six and Seven specifically address the first research objective, examining the relative importance of the subjective motives that are influential in a decision to be mobile. Chapter Eight focuses on the second research objective, exploring relationships between the motives and the behaviours to gain insight into self-initiated mobility.

Chapter Nine concludes the thesis. It provides an overview of the study before outlining the findings of the study in relation to the research objectives. The implications of these findings at the global, national and individual level are discussed. The chapter notes the limitations of the study and draws attention to further possible areas for research.

CHAPTER 2

MOTIVES FOR SELF-INITIATED MOBILITY: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF 'BRAIN'

The traditional view of mobility of the highly educated is epitomised in the concept of the *brain drain*. The image is of people using their skills and talents to move from a poorer country to a richer country to enhance their economic position. Hence, in the current level of theorisation of mobility, the *brain* has represented the subjective motive or reason for mobility. Cogent arguments have been made recently, however, demonstrating that mobility is motivated by more than just economic factors (Inkson et al., 2007; Stahl & Cerdin, 2004) and suggesting that a decision to be mobile is multifaceted (Raghuram, 2004). This chapter, therefore, presents an overview of all motives identified in the extant literature as having some influence on a decision of highly educated people to live and work abroad. As mentioned, the literature on self-initiated mobility is extremely limited, and a broader literature incorporating expatriation, migration, global careers, transnationalism and the brain drain is examined.

Jackson et al., (2005) in an earlier study of New Zealanders living abroad, undertook a principal components analysis and identified five key categories – economics, career, family/whanau¹, lifestyle and culture. For ease of discussion, this classification has been adopted here. Further, in this study, these categories are termed motives as they are the driving forces behind a decision to be mobile, and the individual components that make up these motives are labelled sub-motives. While the motives are considered as discrete entities, there is obviously some overlap

¹ Whanau is a Maori word referring to the extended family, and often including friends.

between them and as such, rather than being a strict categorical distinction, they serve as a useful differentiation from which to discuss the sub-motives.

2.1 Economic Motives

The importance of economic motives has been emphasised in the early expatriate literature and in many instances, identified as the primary, and often sole motive, for a move (see, for example, Portes, 1976; Salt, 1987; Winchie & Carmont, 1989). Generous compensation packages, including housing, schooling and cost of living allowances, are positive enticements for mobility (Reynolds, 1997; Suutari & Tornikoski, 2001).

Research undertaken on the highly educated in developing countries more recently suggests that economics and the comparative standard of living are strong sub-motives for mobility. Movements from Romania (Ferro, 2004), Slovakia (Baláz, Williams, & Kollár, 2004), India (Khadria, 2001; Robinson & Carey, 2000), Taiwan (S. Chang, 1992), Croatia (Golub, 2002) and Albania (Arrehag, Sjoberg, & Sjoblom, 2006) have all been attributed to a desire for an improved economic situation.

Even in developed countries, remuneration packages are still a significant influence on a decision to be mobile (Inkson, Carr, & Thorn, 2005), although the relative importance of these packages appears to have decreased (Dickmann, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster, 2008; Suutari, 2003). This has perhaps occurred for three reasons. First, there has been a reduction in the level of compensation allowances paid to people who move across national boundaries with their company (Stahl & Cerdin,

2004; Suutari & Tornikoski, 2001) and, therefore, other reasons are taking precedence over financial rewards.

Second, there has been an increase in the number of people finding their own employment abroad (Brewster & Suutari, 2005). Although there seems to be little difference in the average salary levels of expatriates and those on self-initiated foreign experiences, comparative data suggests that the range of salaries received by those on other forms of self-initiated foreign experience is much more diverse, with some people earning more than expatriates, and others considerably less (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). The fact that people are still prepared to be mobile even with lower salaries indicates that salaries are not the most important economic sub-motive. Further, people on self-initiated foreign experiences often do not receive the large compensation packages of expatriates (Inkson et al., 1997), which further dilutes their income.

The above suggests that a decision to be mobile consists of an amalgam of interacting sub-motives rather than one individual factor (Ackers, 2005b). The early literature highlights remuneration as the dominant motive, but in contemporary society, work-life balance and the needs of the family have increased in importance, and altered the decision-making process. The influence of remuneration packages on mobility also varies across occupations. Financial rewards tend to be less generous in the academic world, for example, and thus this sub-motive is less important for this group (Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

The importance of economic sub-motives also varies by country of origin. Stahl et al. (2002) assert that in the USA, financial rewards are consistently ranked as the most important. Some comparative research

found that French managers were more inclined to move for money than German managers (Stahl & Cerdin, 2004), explained in part by a reduction in compensation paid to German expatriate managers. In New Zealand, comparatively low salaries have been identified as the most significant sub-motive influencing New Zealanders to go abroad (Inkson et al., 2004; Jackson et al., 2005).

Taxation is another economic sub-motive which is identified as a significant influence in the literature. The level of taxation in a country can have an impact on the standard of living, and some people, therefore, move in response to this (Australian Senate, 2005; Suutari, 2003). High taxation in the Nordic countries, in conjunction with the establishment of the EU and free movement, is believed to have led to people moving from these countries (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). The tax differential between the USA and Canada is also thought to be one reason for many Canadians to seek employment in the USA (Schwanen, 2000). Some governments have specifically used the pulling power of lower tax rates to attract highly educated workers, with Sweden, Denmark and the Netherlands all providing considerable tax discounts (Mahroum, 2001, 2005).

Escaping debt is the final economic sub-motive mentioned in the literature as a possible influence on a decision to be mobile. The discussion is limited, however, with just one study identifying this aspect (Milne et al., 2001). It may, however, feature more in the literature on the movement of unskilled workers or non-voluntary movements. The impact of student loan debt on mobility does, however, receive some media attention, particularly in the New Zealand context, (see Inkson et al., 2004) where the loan scheme is a relatively recent development (1992),

and the concern about brain drain is high. There is a suggestion that student loans cause people to leave New Zealand, either to escape the burden of the debt or in an attempt to earn more money quickly to pay off the loan (Smart, 2006; Wilson, 2001), although there is no specific research on this to date.

The literature, therefore, suggests that economic sub-motives will be important in a decision to be mobile. For expatriates, these sub-motives have most often been the primary drivers. For other self-initiated movers, these sub-motives are less important. Taxation regimes have influenced people to be mobile, particularly where tax differentials are significant.

In the New Zealand context, a limited economy and a loss in relative remuneration levels, particularly when compared to Australian levels (Scanlan, 2008), may result in economic motives being particularly important. New Zealand's taxation rate, incorporating Goods and Services Tax and duties on items such as petrol and tobacco, is comparable to most Western European countries (Mourougane, 2007). Recent tax cuts in Australia, however, (Australian Government, 2007) have resulted in a considerable differential between the two countries and this may encourage people to move there. Finally, while there is anecdotal evidence and much media attention on the impact the Student Loan Scheme has had on mobility, there is no conclusive finding on this to date.

2.2 Career Motives

There are various aspects relating to careers and employment which can motivate people to be mobile. A poor work situation (Finnie, 2001), dissatisfaction with the current job (van der Velde, Bossink, & Jansen, 2005), deteriorating working conditions (Richardson & Zikic, 2007) or a lack of job opportunities (Iredale, 1999) can impact on careers and act as enticements to leave for countries with brighter employment prospects. The larger the perceived differences between the home country and the receiving country, the higher the level of movement of the highly educated (Cheng & Yang, 1998). Research from developing countries (see, for example, Ferro, 2004; Golub, 2002; Robinson & Carey, 2000) stresses the importance of these differences on the mobility of highly educated people from less developed countries.

Career progression can also be hindered by a lack of job opportunities in more developed countries. High unemployment in Finland and the ease of working in other parts of the EU have been cited as a reasons why Finnish people choose to work abroad (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), while a lack of large corporations and an associated lack of top level work experiences have explained movements from New Zealand (Inkson et al., 2004).

A small percentage of career-driven movements, however, occur as a result of a perceived negative situation in the home country. It is more common for people to identify positive opportunities for career development that can be obtained from time spent abroad. Intrinsic sub-motives such as the personal challenge of working in another country (Stahl & Cerdin, 2004), and professional development are frequently

advanced as drivers for becoming mobile (Moran, Nancarrow, & Butler, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002). Conradson and Latham (2005a), for example, in their studies on New Zealand professionals in London, found that mobility is an intentional and deliberate element of a career strategy.

The possibility of 'learning new things and testing one's limits' has an important role in the decision to be mobile (Suutari & Taka, 2004, p. 841). Scientists are one group of the highly educated who are particularly focused on professional development. They are 'drawn to competitive and innovative places to better their career development' (Millard, 2005, p. 343). Academics, on the other hand, are less likely to be influenced by professional development as a sub-motive for being globally mobile (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). While acknowledging that an overseas experience will probably enhance their career opportunities, the primary motive is more likely to be for lifestyle or family reasons (Richardson & McKenna, 2003).

Obtaining other career skills can positively motivate people to be mobile. German managers view their international experience as an opportunity to improve their managerial and intercultural skills (Stahl et al., 2002). Obtaining a wider view of the world is another value that people place on their international experience (Richardson, 2003). Tharenou's research (2003) on the propensity of Australian graduates to be mobile across national boundaries also identifies the opportunity to improve generic and transferable skills as a desirable outcome of mobility.

The expatriate literature discusses, in detail, the negative effects of international careers, emphasising the difficulties and disappointments of returning to work in the home country (see, for example, Black, 1992;

Black & Gregersen, 1992; Selmer, 1999; Selmer & Shiu, 1999). Repatriates report a lack of clarity about their job situation on return (Linehan, 2006), having either 'no serious job to do, or in a new position with clearly less authority than they had while abroad' (Suutari & Brewster, 2003, p. 1133). Recent research, however, suggests that these negative factors may have been overstated, perhaps as a result of the focus being on the expatriate returning to the original organisation and staying there. Suutari (2003) and Brewster and Suutari (2005) have suggested that repatriates may receive more external job offers on their return to their home country, and that their job prospects are definitely enhanced as a result of their time abroad. Similarly, Stahl et al. (2002) and Benson and Pattie (2008) found that many highly educated individuals believed that working abroad would have a positive influence on their future careers, particularly with other employers.

There is an interesting distinction being made between a career future within, and outside the original organisation. There seems to be recognition that although the time working abroad may not enhance careers either immediately or within the organisation, the fact that people have spent time in another country could be beneficial when seeking alternative employment at a later time. Richardson and Mallon (2005, p. 417) have generalised this finding in today's context, suggesting that international experience not only provides an edge in the labour market, but is 'essential for promotion to senior management'.

The second point of interest here is the switch from the international experience being of benefit to the organisation to the focus on individual benefits. There is a developing body of research which suggests that the focus is now on building individual social capital which is transferable

across organisations, rather than building organisational capital (Parker & Inkson, 1999; Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007). The boundaryless careerist is thus likely to value the generic skills that are transferable (Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007) rather than the specific skills which may be of benefit to the organisation.

For some professions, there is an 'expectation of mobility' for career enhancement (Morano-Foadi, 2005, p. 133). The literature on the influence of this on mobility is particularly strong for scientists (Ackers, 2003, 2005b; Mahroum, 2000; Millard, 2005), in both an academic (Ackers & Gill, 2005) and corporate research and development environment (Gill, 2005; Lola, 2004). Scientists will relocate to take advantage of prestigious institutions (Mahroum, 2000) or global centres of excellence with high quality research facilities (Ackers, 2005a) to further their personal and career development. Thus, intellectual pursuits can be a motivation for mobility (OECD, 2002b), and can result in a 'clustering' of highly educated people (Millard, 2005, p. 356).

It is relevant to note that much of the research on mobility has been undertaken on certain groups of people, usually a particular occupational group within a single industry. Beaverstock, (2002; 2005) for example, has focused on bankers in the finance industry, Ackers (2005a; 2005b) on research scientists and Richardson (2003; 2006) on academics in the education industry. There has been no cross-industry analysis or comparisons between different occupations or employment forms, and this appears as a gap in the current knowledge on self-initiated mobility.

While decisions around a career may be one motive for mobility, Schein (1978) suggested that there may be different anchors within an

individual's career that can be used to explain the pattern of decision making and development during that career. An anchor is 'a person's self-concept, consisting of their self-perceived talents and abilities, their basic values, and their sense of motives and needs as they pertain to their career' (Schein, 1996, p. 80). Based initially on a longitudinal study of graduate students and revised through subsequent career-history interviews and research by other authors, Schein identifies eight career anchor categories – technical/functional competence, general managerial competence, autonomy/independence, security/stability, entrepreneurial creativity, service, pure challenge and lifestyle (Schein, 1993, 1996).

Extending the above, research by Suutari (2003) identified people who had always been interested in having an international career. This led to further research (Suutari & Taka, 2004) to examine career anchors in the context of global managers. They conclude that a ninth anchor, Internationalism, should be introduced, consisting of those who are 'excited by working in an international environment, and who search for new experiences in unfamiliar countries and different cultures' (p. 836). A qualitative analysis by these authors suggests that Internationalism is one important anchor for global managers, but no follow-up research has been undertaken to corroborate these findings to date.

In summary, the literature suggests that career motives will be a consideration for self-initiated movers, with intrinsic sub-motives such as personal development and the challenge of a new job being of particular importance. Further, as a small economy, New Zealand has a limited range of both high-level and specialised employment opportunities. Those people in these positions are likely to actively seek positions in

larger companies in Australia or further abroad in order to continue their career progression.

2.3 Family/Whanau Motives

Family and friends, and a person's connectedness to them, can impact on mobility. This is evidenced in both the qualitative and quantitative research on global mobility carried out thus far (see, for example, Cheng & Yang, 1998; Jackson et al., 2005; Stahl et al., 2002; Willis & Yeoh, 2002). Inkson et al. (2004) suggest that it is the single most important motive determining whether or not a highly educated person will be globally mobile. This finding is reinforced by Raghuram and Kofman's (2002), Cappellen and Janssens' (2005) and Crowley-Henry's (2007) calls for more research on the impact of relationships in the theorisation of highly educated mobility.

The literature on relationships and mobility suggests that families influence the mobility decision either by hindering or facilitating it. The earlier literature on expatriate assignment highlights the negative role of the family in the decision to reject an assignment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Bonache, Brewster, & Suutari, 2001; Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; Harris & Brewster, 1999; Harvey, 1995). Some authors, however, (Adir, 1995; P. Chang & Deng, 1992; Ferro, 2004) suggest that family members in the home country can be a driving force to leave that country. Their research in Israel, China and Romania respectively, identifies professionals who wanted to break free of the constraints of their families and were moving as a result.

More recently, however, Stahl and Cerdin (2004) found that families or partners have had a positive role in motivating people to be mobile. In many instances, a partner or spouse may be of a different nationality (Banai & Harry, 2005; Ho, 2008) and this can have a significant influence. Further, the role of the family is likely to be more positive in the situation of self-initiated movement than in expatriation, where the decision to be mobile is likely to be a family-based decision rather than a straight employment decision.

There are four relationship sub-motives which may influence a decision to be globally mobile, namely marital status, children, connectedness to the extended family and friends, and ancestry.

The literature indicates that the majority of people who are globally mobile are married (Beaverstock, 2002, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002) and most will have their partners with them in the host country (Palthe, 2004). Relationships reduce the probability of remaining permanently in the host nation and increase the likelihood of returning to the home country (Dustmann, 2003), unless the marriage is to a host national (Banai & Harry, 2005; Scott, 2004). Those who are on their first international experience are also more likely to be single (Beaverstock, 2005) – a finding which probably correlates with age. The limited literature available on self-initiated movers suggests that there are proportionately more singles among this group than for expatriates (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Given the additional risks of moving without the guarantee of a job and associated benefits, this is not an unexpected finding.

Amongst the expatriate literature, a partner is often seen as a positive asset for men, but is frequently detrimental to women (Taylor, Napier, &

Mayrhofer, 2002). Reasons for this discrepancy revolve around the assumption that a male partner will have a career, and the difficulty of ensuring the progression of that career. While outside the scope of this research, the impact of the 'trailing spouse' in international mobility should not be underestimated, and it is often the partner's dissatisfaction that results in a return to the home country (Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich, 2005).

The impact of dual careers on mobility is an important issue. Dual careers, where both people in the relationship are in employment, are a major obstacle to mobility (Ackers, 2003). Complicating factors including work permit restrictions, lost promotion opportunities, the difficulty of obtaining career positions for two specialised professionals, and the financial implications of reducing to one income (Koser & Salt, 1997). Ackers (2005a) suggests that simple formulaic approaches are not appropriate for explaining the moves in dual career households. Further, although there is increasing equality between women and men in professional careers, this has yet to translate into the woman taking the lead role in mobility (Raghuram, 2004), with women more likely to give way to the careers of their male partners (Ackers, 2003).

The presence of either children or elderly dependents in a household is likely to impact on mobility. Children, in particular, have been shown to hinder mobility (Morano-Foadi, 2005; Portes, 1976). Linehan's (2002, p. 809) interviews with women managers reveals that 62% of respondents have experienced more difficulties moving internationally with children than as a single person. It is important to note, however, that these managers were transferred by the company, and would probably have had considerable support in terms of accommodation and finding schools

for children. It could be expected that this percentage would be much higher for those who self-initiated their move.

The age of the children is an important determinant in both the choice to be mobile, and the destination (Banai & Harry, 2005). Suutari (2003), for example, details the difficulties experienced by professionals taking their teenagers abroad, away from their friends and social networks. Younger children can, however, adjust quickly, and can thus facilitate the assimilation process for the parents (Dustmann, 1996).

Children impact the global mobility of men and women differently. Ackers (2003), in research on scientists, found that mobile women scientists were much less likely than men to be parents. This corroborated an earlier study on Irish academics which found that mobile male academics were twice as likely to have children as women (Barker & Monks, 1998). The conclusion that can be reached from these studies is that parenting poses a much greater challenge to women's international careers. Further, it appears that the existence of children has fewer consequences for men than women (Tharenou, 2008).

Children's education is another sub-motive which impacts a decision to move countries. Disruption to children's education is seen as a major obstacle to mobility (Collings et al., 2007; Dickmann et al., 2008). Once a family has decided to move, the children's education can again be a restraining factor. Gill (2005), in research on Italian scientists, found that having to wait while children complete their education in the host country prevented a movement home or to another country. Similarly, Khoo and Mak (2003) found that having school-age children increased the likelihood of staying in the country, whether the home or host

country. From a different educational perspective, Cheng and Yang (1998) found that perceived opportunities for the next generation were often a motivation for the highly educated to consider a move to the USA. The social networks that people have will also influence their mobility. The more connected a person feels to their family and friends in the home country, the more likely that is to act as a deterrent to mobility (Wiles, 2008). Tharenou (2003), when examining the propensity to be mobile, predicted that those with a high level of attachment to parents, friends and community would be less mobile than those with a lower level. Friends abroad however, can also be a considerable motive for mobility. Myers and Inkson's (2003) investigation into the motivations for travel abroad found that letters or emails from friends overseas, containing invitations to friends at home to join them, often planted a seed of mobility, which subsequently culminated in movement from the home country.

Cassarino (2004) discusses the role of social networks not only in the home country, but also in the host country. Strong diasporic and social networks that are developed in the host country can influence professionals to stay rather than moving back or on to another country (Rizvi, 2005). Suutari (2003) acknowledges this also, emphasising the difficulty of maintaining networks in the home country after a period of time. For those who are globally mobile, personal relationships can become 'fairly short and superficial' (p. 197).

Family links can be a force which encourage people to want to experience life in the country of their parents' or grandparents' origin. Historical links between countries of the British Commonwealth, particularly those that are geographically isolated such as Australia and New Zealand, and

the UK are a strong sub-motive for mobility (Inkson & Myers, 2003). Mason (2002, p. 92) suggests that for New Zealanders, 'there is a feeling, born from their cultural identity, that it is necessary to travel overseas, particularly to Europe'. Similarly, family ties in the host country can influence mobility (Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri, 2007), and can ease the adjustment to the new country.

New Zealanders have a well-established pattern of mobility (Bedford, 2001). Family and friends already abroad are, therefore, likely to influence others to be mobile. Having ancestors from a foreign country is possibly also a sub-motive for mobility.

2.3 Lifestyle Motives

Perceived differences in the lifestyles of people in the home and host country can be a motive for mobility (Cheng & Yang, 1998). This is particularly salient for developing countries (for a discussion on this, see Baláz et al., 2004; Ferro, 2004; Meijering & van Hoven, 2003) but is also relevant for developed countries. The sub-motives included in this motive encompass the characteristics, infrastructure and facilities of a country that improve the way life is lived (Scott, 2004).

The profile of the boundaryless career includes increasing recognition of the importance of a balance between work and home life (Arthur et al., 1999). At the same time, however, increasing communications technology, with access to the worker at all times, plus the added complication of global time zones, have created a situation in which 'the division between work life and home life becomes blurred' (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005, p. 352–353). It is interesting that in the broad field of

literature on migration, mobility, careers and expatriation being considered here, the concept of work-life balance arises only in the context of new careers and self-initiated mobility. The expatriate literature, including that on gender and expatriation, does not discuss the desirability of such a balance. One reason for this could be the focus of expatriation on the organisation and the assignment for that organisation. The self-initiated person, on the other hand, has individually determined career goals (Richardson & Zikic, 2007), and is often able to incorporate a desire for greater involvement with the family within these.

A desire for a change in the pace of life is another sub-motive that could influence mobility. The literature suggests that this change could be from a very fast pace to a slower pace, or from a slower pace to a faster pace. A study of New Zealanders, for example, showed that a better social life and a desire to live in a big city were key sub-motives in people's decisions to leave New Zealand (Milne et al., 2001). Interestingly, subsequent studies on New Zealanders abroad (Carr et al., 2005; Inkson et al., 2004) suggest that it is the slower pace of life and the sports and recreation opportunities available that are most likely to draw these same people back to New Zealand. It is clearly a sub-motive that is dependent on individual preferences and perhaps other aspects such as age and career stage.

Infrastructure and facilities can also influence a decision to relocate. The provision and quality of medical facilities and educational institutions can result in mobility (Chew & Zhu, 2002), particularly if there is a family member requiring specialised attention. In an earlier study, the current researcher found that frustration with inadequate or non-existent public transportation systems can also contribute to a move (Thorn et al., 2005).

The weather can also have an impact on mobility. Several studies (Chew & Zhu, 2002; Milne et al., 2001; Thorn et al., 2005) identify the desire for an improved climate as a relatively minor sub-motive in the decision-making process. A recent study examining New Zealanders' reasons for a move to Australia, however, finds this is more important (Green, Power, & Jang, 2008). It is, therefore, likely that climate will have more of an impact on those who have left New Zealand's inclement weather for the more predictable climate of Australia, but perhaps less important for other destinations.

The literature, therefore, suggests that lifestyle issues will be a motive for mobility. These issues will probably be more important for the self-initiated mover who has choice regarding mobility, than for the expatriate. New Zealand is a small country with a slower pace of life than the global cities and people seeking a faster pace may be motivated by this sub-motive. Issues around healthcare and transportation are likely to arise, but are probably of low importance.

2.4 Cultural Motives

For many people, a desire to see more of the world and to experience life in another country is a strong sub-motive for mobility. The challenge and adventure of overcoming difficulties and surviving in another country is welcomed (Crowley-Henry, 2007; Richardson & Zikic, 2007). For others, travelling is a time of self-discovery and assessment (Osland, 1995, 2000). Many young New Zealanders view this mobility as a *rite of passage* (Inkson et al., 1999; Mason, 2002) – a transitioning phase filled with adventure, excitement and fun (Myers & Inkson, 2003) leading towards maturity. Given the gender differences discussed earlier, it is interesting

that males and females are equally likely to seek adventure through international mobility, and there seems to be no distinction between older and younger people (Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

The desire to travel and to experience new cultures (Moran et al., 2005) or a greater variety of cultures (Inkson & Myers, 2003) are other sub-motives for mobility. Beaverstock (1994) found that bankers were attracted to global cities not only because of the concentration of jobs there, but also because of the wide range of cultural opportunities available in these cities. Similarly, in two separate studies on self-initiated movers in London, both Inkson and Myers (2003) and Conradson and Latham (2005a) found that New Zealanders proactively sought out the new and different cultural activities available. Inkson and colleagues' subsequent studies (Inkson et al., 2004; Jackson et al., 2005) found that a lack of cultural and arts opportunities was an important sub-motive for mobility from New Zealand.

This desire to experience new cultural opportunities and to expand the range of opportunities also applies to any children in the family (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Broadening children's minds and developing a tolerance for different cultures and languages are seen as desirable outcomes of mobility (Suutari, 2003).

Previous experiences of travel can also have a motivating influence. These experiences can be either as children (Cullingford, 1995), young adults (Banai & Harry, 2005) or as a previous self-initiated movement or posting. Exposure to a variety of cultures can lead to an interest in other cultures and, therefore, future global mobility.

The opportunity to learn another language has also been suggested as a reason to be globally mobile (Adler, 2001; Crowley-Henry, 2007). While being able to speak the local language is usually important for working and living in another country (Chew & Zhu, 2002; Napier & Taylor, 2002), the research on whether a desire to learn a new language is a motivating factor is infrequent and inconclusive. Inkson, et al., (1999) found that learning a new language was a valued skill New Zealanders obtained from an OE, but there was no suggestion that it might be a sub-motive for mobility. Chew and Zhu's (2002) research in Singapore found that language was not a motivating factor. Singaporeans, however, are usually at least bilingual, speaking both Mandarin and English, and are thus well equipped to cope with most of South East Asia where there are large numbers of diasporic ethnic Chinese, and all English speaking countries, which perhaps reduces the impetus to learn another language. New Zealanders, on the other hand, most commonly speak only English, and the opportunity to learn a new language through living and working in another country, may well be an incentive.

Language is just one aspect of the cultural differences between countries. Food and drink, religion and the way business operates are other components that can differ (Shenkar, 2001). Cultural distance is defined as a measure of the extent to which the new culture is similar to, or different from, the host culture (Palthe, 2004). If the distance is perceived as being large, this can result in greater stress and anxiety about the move (Chew & Zhu, 2002) and act as a deterrent from relocating to that country. A large difference will also result in an increased likelihood of a mobile person returning to their home country at a later date (Baruch et al., 2007). Women are considered to be more susceptible to a large difference in culture as their role as a female in management can be

unusual in local custom (Culpan & Wright, 2002). Some people, however, proactively seek positions in countries where the difference is large (Richardson & McKenna, 2002), enjoying the added challenge of adjusting and adapting to a new culture.

New Zealand's small size and its geographical isolation have resulted in New Zealanders wanting to experience more of the world. Opportunities for frequent travel are limited from this part of the world due to the high costs and the time required traversing the long distances. The impact of this is that New Zealanders are more likely to travel with the intention of being away for several years. It is also possible that they are more mobile than people from other countries as they travel seeking different cultural experiences.

2.5 Other Motives

The literature also identifies two other groups of motives which were not categorised in Jackson et al.'s (2005) analysis. The first group of these motives discusses the characteristics and politics of the home and host countries that may influence a decision to be mobile. The second group has the demographic variables of age and gender.

2.5.1 Characteristics and Policies of Countries

A government's influence on a decision to be mobile can be negative (as in the case of the high taxes of Nordic countries and Canada discussed previously), or positive, through the provision of incentives such as easing immigration or work permit restrictions (Mahroum, 2001; OECD, 2008), providing tax incentives (Mahroum, 2005) or promoting the

country as a desirable working and living environment (Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship, n.d.; Immigration New Zealand, 2005).

The policy objective with regard to the attraction and retention of highly educated workers in many OECD countries is three-fold – ‘to respond to market shortages, to increase the stock of human capital and to encourage the circulation of the knowledge embodied in the highly skilled’ (OECD, 2002a, p. 5). Within these objectives, Iredale (2005) posits that there are five broad approaches that countries take to attract highly educated workers ranging from expansionist (accepting all skilled workers), through exclusive protectionist (selecting individuals who meet specific criteria), to demand-driven (importing temporary skilled resources to meet specific labour market needs). Rizvi (2005, p. 176) reasserts the importance of these ‘pro-skills immigration policies’ to remain competitive in the global marketplace.

Economic integration or the establishment of regional blocs can also facilitate access and influence international mobility (OECD, 2002a). The North American Free Trade Agreement, for example, allows for the regulated movement of professionals between Canada and the USA (Iredale, 1999), while the formation of the EU, with its associated mutual recognition of educational qualifications, has resulted in an increase in the level of mobility between EU countries (Iredale, 2005). Other less formal agreements between countries, such as the Commonwealth Countries’ Working Holidaymaker Visas (UK Visas, 2006), allow for the temporary movement of people, many of whom are highly educated. Professional organisations and trade unions can hinder mobility,

however, through the maintenance of exclusionary practices such as licensing or compulsory registration for some occupations (Iredale, 2005).

The status of the globally mobile person in the host country can have a significant impact on their level of assimilation (Richardson & McKenna, 2006), and hence their preparedness to move on to another country or to return to the home country. Richardson's studies of expatriate academics further suggests that although work permits and temporary contracts limit the formation of social relationships with host nationals, they can be a good way of trying out different options and testing whether an international lifestyle is an appropriate one (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). This research, and that of Ackers (2005a), also highlight the unsettling situation inherent in having temporary work permits in countries that have very strict visa and settlement policies. People are always mindful of the risks of losing employment, and hence their partner's work permit and the right to continue living in that country.

The final issue raised in the literature relates to policies ensuring personal safety and the role this has in influencing a move from one country to another. Fear for a person's safety has long been a motivator for movement, particularly of the highly educated. This is evidenced by the large scale emigration of highly educated people in times of political insecurity (Cheng & Yang, 1998). The issue of personal safety is relevant to all who are globally mobile, but perhaps more so for those who self-initiate their movements. Richardson and McKenna (2002, p. 74) suggest these people 'walk without the support of a safety harness whereas the home country employer provides the safety harness for the assigned expatriate'.

The level of perceived risk varies according to both the host destination and the risk-taking nature of the individual. Tharenou (2003) records potentially mobile people as having a preference for working in countries that are safe, politically stable, low on corruption and with few threats to personal safety. A clear preference for living in a developed over a developing country is also evident (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). There is some indication that having children and family may restrict a person's willingness to take a *risky* assignment (Chew & Zhu, 2002), although this is not a universal finding (see, for example, Richardson & Zikic, 2007).

The published evidence is suggestive that political sub-motives can have an influence on a decision to be mobile. In the New Zealand context, the Closer Economic Relations agreement with Australia and the ability to move freely between the countries will have an impact on mobility to Australia. Citizenship has been raised as a sub-motive influencing mobility, and it is possible that obtaining citizenship of the host country suggests some permanence to that move. Political stability in New Zealand and a relatively safe environment suggests that these sub-motives will not be important drivers from this country.

Finally, the role of governments in establishing the environment for movement to or from a country is significant and yet there is little an individual can do to alter this. It is therefore probable that New Zealanders will be vocal in expressing their views of what the Government could do to retain or attract New Zealanders back to this country.

2.5.2 Demographic Sub-motives

The literature has limited information on the demographic character of highly educated global movers (Koser & Salt, 1997). There are very few large scale quantitative analyses that allow generalisation of those who are globally mobile (Ackers & Gill, 2005), although there are a number of qualitative studies which consider these demographic features and allow a picture of these people to be developed.

Age

Age has an influence on whether or not people are globally mobile. There are two key components to age – the current age of the mobile person, and the age at which this person went abroad. The literature often records the first variable, but does not always make the link with the second. It is possible to imagine a situation with two people, aged 50, living and working abroad, one who left their home country at age 30 and the other at 45. Their motivations for relocating and their propensity to remain mobile could be quite different.

Inkson et al. (2004), in their analysis of over 2,000 New Zealanders living and working abroad, found that a disproportionate number of their respondents are in the 30–49 age group (68% compared with the national population of 28%). Similarly, Zhao, Drew and Murray (2000) found that the numbers of knowledge workers filing tax returns from outside Canada are disproportionately in the 25–44 age group. In both studies, there are very few highly educated people less than age 25. This is explained by Tharenou's (2003) research on receptivity to working abroad. Her longitudinal study investigates the attitudes of new graduates to working abroad, and then contacts them again two years later. Receptivity increases over that time, suggesting that young

employees are likely to self-initiate opportunities for international work after a few years work experience.

Interviews with British expatriates in Singapore (Beaverstock, 2002), New York (Beaverstock, 2005) and Paris (Scott, 2004) shows that the majority of respondents are in the 30–40 age bracket. They are senior members of their firms, and their age reflects their seniority. Scott also discovers, however, that there are some older British people in Paris who are no longer mobile – they had, in effect, migrated to Paris, and were not intending to move again. Research on German, (Stahl et al., 2002), Romanian (Ferro, 2004) and Chinese professionals (Zweig, 1997) and of foreign professionals working in Poland (Koser & Salt, 1997) again highlights the homogeneity of those living abroad, with the majority of people within the 30–40 age group.

The characteristics of mobile scientists in the European Union have been examined by several authors (Ackers, 2005a; Millard, 2005; Morano-Foadi, 2005). They identify a bi-modal age distribution, with one peak in the mid-twenties corresponding with post-doctoral study, and another at mid-career. Palthe's (2004) research is one of the few that identifies an older age group. The examination of 196 USA citizens working in multinational corporations in Japan, South Korea and the Netherlands revealed an average age of nearly 45. There are two possible explanations for the average age being higher here. Firstly, the average length of time abroad for these people was four years which suggests that many of these people were within the usual age band when they left the USA. Secondly, Japan and South Korea are both countries which link age and seniority, valuing age as an important asset, and therefore the expectation would be that a senior manager would be older.

There are two studies which focus specifically on self-initiated expatriation. Bhuian, Al-Shammari, and Jefri (2001) surveyed professionals working in Saudi Arabia and found that the vast majority (71%) were aged between 20 and 40, a finding that is analogous to other research. Suutari and Brewster (2003), however, found that the Finnish self-initiated expatriates were more heterogeneous, with a greater proportion likely to be less than 30 years or more than 50 years. Anecdotal evidence from New Zealand (Helyer Donaldson, 2004) also suggests that there is a second wave of self-initiated travel, with an increasing number of highly educated people travelling and working abroad after age 50.

Closely associated with age is the duration of mobility. Obviously, the older the person, the more time they have had to be mobile. The length of time a person has been away from their home country can have an influence on mobility and on the propensity to return to that country. Constant and Massey (2002) show the negative relationship between time away and return – the longer the time away, the less likely the person is to return. Gill (2005) found this relationship to hold for Italian scientists also, with the scientists developing links to the new country and losing their contacts in the home country.

Social integration and cultural assimilation both occur over time (Scott, 2004). Hence, it would be expected that the longer someone has been living in a new country, the more settled they will become. Further, previous experience of living in different cultures, along with duration of mobility, combine to result in a more rapid adjustment to cross-cultural differences (Palthe, 2004). It could be expected, therefore, that a person who has moved frequently is less likely to perceive the cultural distance

of a country being less than someone who has moved less often. Beaverstock (2005, p. 252) also highlights the probability of those who have moved frequently living a 'nomadic existence', staying no more than two years in any one place.

Gender

Numerous studies have identified gender as a variable which has an impact on whether or not a highly educated person will be globally mobile (see, for example, Iredale, 1999; Kofman, 2000; Stahl et al., 2002; Tharenou, 2008). Almost as many studies identify the 'scant attention paid to gender within work on skilled transients' (Willis & Yeoh, 2002, p. 555) and call for a gendered analysis of the highly skilled (Adler, 2002; Guthrie, Ash, & Stevens, 2003; Raghuram, 2004). Few countries or international organisations collect data on the gender breakdown of the highly educated (Iredale, 2005). The OECD, in its monitoring data of international migration (OECD, 2004) has little data published by gender, and the 2001 seminar on the International Mobility of Highly Skilled Workers (OECD, 2001) contained no reference to gender.

The research that has examined the impact of gender on global mobility stems from the expatriate literature and relates to the selection of women for expatriate assignment (Fischlmayr, 2002; Taylor et al., 2002), the suitability of women as expatriate managers (Adler, 2002; Culpan & Wright, 2002; Linehan, 2002) and the difficulties for women in host countries (Janssens, Cappellen, & Zanoni, 2006; Napier & Taylor, 2002). While these studies are not directly relevant to this research, they do provide some useful information about gender.

The prevalence of men as global managers is a dominant theme in the literature, although the increasing number of women is also identified (Moore, 2002; Ouaked, 2002; Stroh, Varma, & Vally-Durbin, 2000). In a survey of German expatriates, Stahl et al. (2002) assert that the percentage of women expatriates is 10%, an increase from 3% in the early 1990s, while a survey of multi-national companies (GMAC Global Relocation Services, 2006) suggests that female expatriates has reached 23%.

A second theme that emerges from this literature is the gendered global labour market for some industries, and the impact of this on mobility. Most current research focuses on male-dominated sectors such as the financial services market (Beaverstock, 2002, 2005) and the global information technology labour market (Iredale, 2005). The welfare sectors (education, health and social services), where women are more likely to dominate, are less well researched (Raghuram, 2004). Further, Iredale (2005) suggests that significant numbers of professional women do not enter a host country through labour market channels, but as family migrants or dependents of skilled migrants, and as such, are not recorded. Kofman (2000, p. 45) refers to this as the 'invisibility of skilled female migrants'.

There are indications, however, that amid self-initiated movers, the discrepancy of mobility between the sexes is lessened. Suutari and Brewster (2000) suggest that there is likely to be a higher proportion of women amongst those who self-initiate their move. Their study, however, focuses on Finnish professionals who have moved within the EU, and it has yet to be extended to determine if their findings hold true for a more heterogeneous group. Within the scientific community, there certainly appears to be a greater proportion of women amongst

international movers. Ackers (2005a, p. 104) identifies a high level of mobility amongst early-career scientists, attributable partly to the 'expectation of mobility' discussed earlier. Previous research, however, (Ackers, 2003; Lola, 2004) recorded a significant drop in the number of women participants as their careers develop.

The literature, therefore, suggests that both age and gender will have an effect on a decision to be mobile. It is also suggested that self-initiated movers are likely to be a more heterogeneous group than expatriates.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has explored the literature on the mobility of highly educated people and has identified the sub-motives which influence a decision to move across national boundaries. The sub-motives are considered under five broad groupings – economics, career, family/whanau, lifestyle and culture. A sixth motive relating to the specific characteristics and politics of a country is identified. A total of 56 sub-motives were drawn from the literature in addition to the demographic variables.

Research on self-initiated mobility is extremely limited. The broader literature is wide and from varying disciplines. The most profound finding from this analysis is the lack of an integrated approach to the influence these sub-motives have on mobility. The research rarely considers more than one or two sub-motives at a time, and there has been limited effort to analyse the importance of these sub-motives in contributing to the decision to be mobile. This is a clear gap in the literature, and one that this research addresses.

Having reviewed the main and subsidiary bodies of literature related to this study, the next chapter will explore the behaviour of mobility.

CHAPTER 3

BEHAVIOURS OF SELF-INITIATED MOBILITY: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF 'DRAIN'

The theorisation of highly educated mobility across international boundaries has not advanced greatly since the initial *brain drain* debate of the 1970s. Mobility has been examined usually as a one-way movement from one country to another. Recently, the literature has incorporated discussion on the concept of *brain gain* or *brain exchange* (Choy & Glass, 2002; Hall, 2005; Mahroum, 2005), where highly educated people immigrating to a new country replace the brains that are lost, and *brain waste* (Carr et al., 2005), where the people who have immigrated are not able to find employment at a level appropriate to their qualifications, but these forms of mobility are again considered only as individual movements from one country to another. There has been little consideration of consecutive mobility, repeated cycles of mobility, patterns of mobility or the impact of one move on other moves. Mobility, therefore, has not often been examined in the broader context of behaviour (Iredale, 2001).

If the analogy of the *brain* representing the motivation for movement presented in the previous chapter is extended, then the *drain* represents the behavioural component or the observed mobility. In the same way that a single motive is not sufficient to explain why people are mobile, a single movement from one country to another is not adequate to explain the mobility behaviour. Past research into self-initiated mobility has provided information about the attitudes of these people and their motivations for moving (see, for example, Inkson et al., 2004; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Taka, 2004), but fails to assess these against the

movements they have actually made. A key criticism of existing research is, therefore, that it has not linked the subjective motivations with the objective mobility behaviour that has been displayed. Consequently, this chapter attempts to make that link and is an exploration of the different ways mobility might be conceptualised using objective measures, and the motives that might predict mobility behaviours. This chapter develops a model of these predicted linkages, illustrated in Figure 3.1.

3.1 Economism

The most common way in which mobility has been viewed is in terms of economic behaviour or, what is termed here, 'economism'. The first theory of migration was developed from neo-classical economics (Arango, 2000). In its simplest form, this theory proposes that people move to countries to obtain employment at a greater income level (Simon, 1999). This suggests that people move from poorer to richer countries, and from the most densely populated to the least populated countries (Castles & Miller, 2003). The movement of the highly educated, however, does not always follow this theory (Salt & Findlay, 1989). Empirical testing has shown that highly educated workers will also move from capital-rich countries to capital-poor countries, to take advantage of the high returns their skills can earn in a capital-scarce environment (Massey et al., 1998).

Mobility of the highly educated which is driven by economism could, therefore, be a move to countries that are developing, and where their skills can earn a premium. Hence, the behaviour of economism is operationally defined in this study as being located in very poor countries. There are many measures of wealth of a country including the

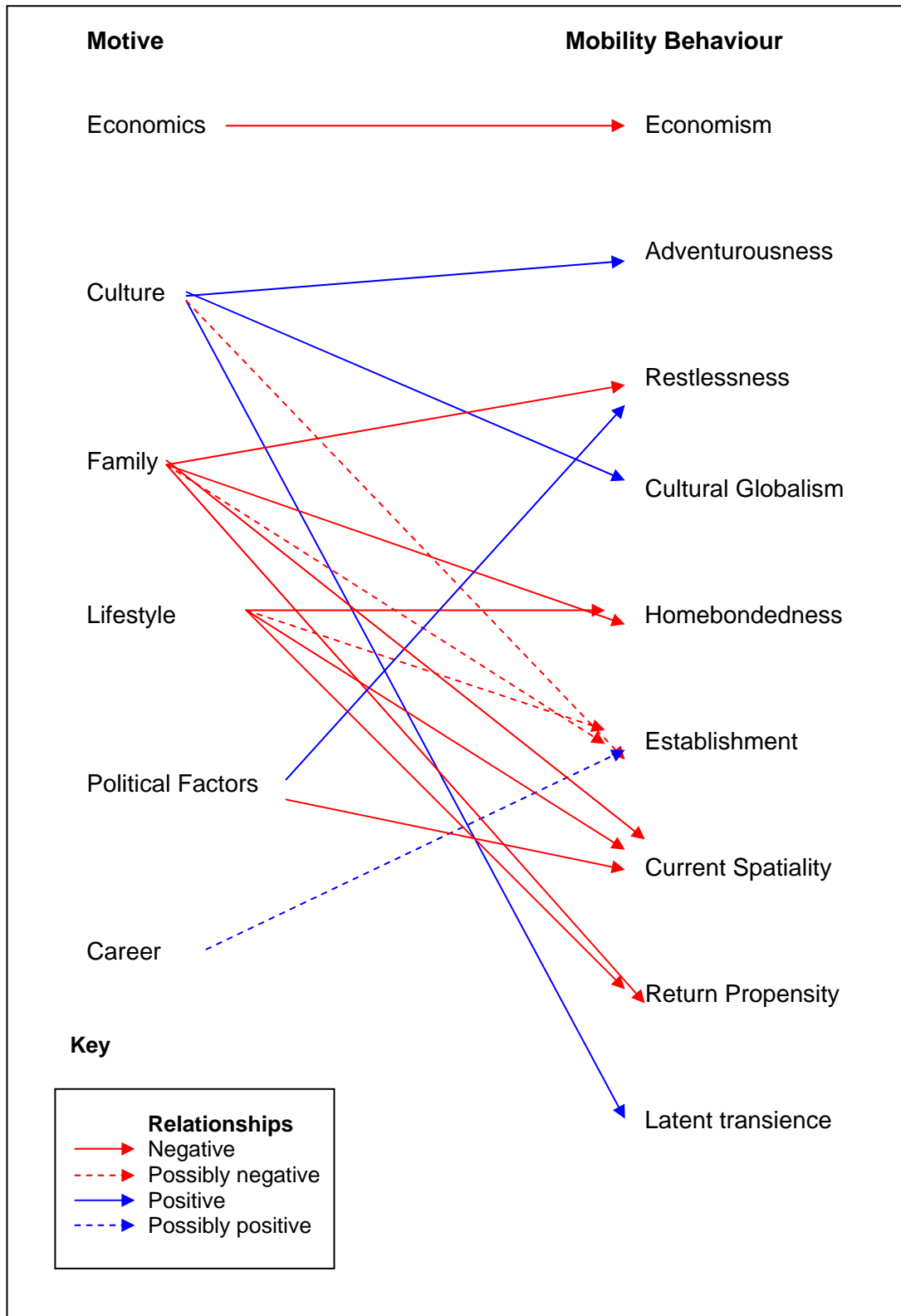


Figure 3.1. Hypothesised Relationships between Motives and Mobility Behaviour.

OECD's ranking of GDP and the Human Development Index (HDI). The OECD's database is, however, only for member countries which would exclude non-member countries from the analysis. For this reason, economism is measured in this study by the average of the HDI scores for each of the countries in which the person has resided. It is predicted that a person who displays economism will have a lower average than those who do not show this behaviour.

Not unexpectedly, and following on from the previous chapter, it is hypothesised that economic motives will predict this economic behaviour. The relationship is expected to be negative, as shown in Figure 3.1, in that those who score economic motives the highest will have the lowest average HDI.

Economism is, therefore, often about obtaining more money to achieve luxuries or a higher standard of living. In a mobility context, however, economism can also be linked to necessity and can be a driving force. But mobility, as well as being linked to luxury or necessity, can also be linked to adventurousness.

3.2 Adventurousness

'Adventurousness' is another new way in which mobility behaviours could be envisioned. Some humans have a desire to experience what is hidden or unknown (Weber, 2001), and this drive often initiates an adventure. The search to uncover the hidden or reveal the previously unknown has motivated people to explore new and foreign lands. The original concept of adventure was associated with the exploration of faraway places, in the search for new lands, wealth and scientific

discovery (Fernández-Armesto, 2006). The exploration of the Pacific Ocean by the Polynesians (Bellwood, 1978) was an adventure, as were the journeys of Magellan, Drake and Cook. In more recent times, people's adventures still include movement from one country to another, to experience something new and different. Given that adventurous behaviour appears in so many different accounts of human mobility, it would be remiss to ignore it in a study of this nature.

Osland (1995; 2000) uses the metaphor of the 'hero's adventure' to examine expatriation of businessmen. Derived from the work of anthropologist Joseph Campbell who studied heroism in many cultures (1968; 1988), the adventure of the expatriate hero has the theme of a journey across international boundaries in search of profound purpose and meaning. The hero's adventure was, therefore, more about personal fulfilment and development than career objectives. Richardson (2003) and Hudson and Inkson (2006) have extended the metaphor to the self-initiated movement of both academics and international volunteers. For many of these people also, their movement was a response to the 'call for adventure' as typified by Campbell's (1968) hero.

In a mobility context, therefore, the behaviour of adventurousness is likely to involve a move to a country that is quite different from New Zealand. The more the country differs from the home country, the more adventurous the behaviour. Further, while a single move may be sufficient adventure for some people, for others, the unknown may become the known, and the desire for subsequent adventures to more and more culturally different places may develop. Hence, adventurousness is operationally defined in this study as being located in countries with cultures that are very different to New Zealand. It is

measured as the average cultural distance of all the countries in which a person has lived. The higher the cultural distance score, the more adventurous the person.

The question then becomes which of the subjective motives discussed in the previous chapter will predict the objective behaviour of adventurousness. It is hypothesised that adventurousness will be predicted by the culture motive. The reason for the prediction is that those who value new experiences and exploring new cultures most highly are the most likely to exhibit adventurous behaviour. A desire to experience a great variety of cultures and to be exposed to other languages is all part of the adventure of international mobility. This hypothesised relationship is again shown in Figure 3.1.

3.3 Restlessness

Adventurousness is very much a pull factor, drawing people towards a new country. Most classical theories of motivation, however, also identify a push factor, where there is an intrinsic driving force coming from within which motivates a person to move. Clifford (1997, p. 1) suggests that there is a 'new world order of mobility' where society as a whole is becoming more restless and mobile, as a response to the 'relatively rigid patterns of modernity'. The restlessness seems to regenerate. It is eased by a new location and a period of assimilation to the new location, but once people have consumed the experiences offered by one place, the restlessness increases, and a new destination is sought.

Richards and Wilson (2004) discuss restlessness and mobility in the context of tourism, labelling those who move from place to place, 'Global

Nomads'. They consider backpackers epitomise these global nomads, enjoying the freedom to move on when their restlessness builds. The concept could similarly be applied to mobility, but with longer periods between movements, and with a more settled phase involving residence and employment. The concept of the global nomad as a restless wanderer is, consequently, another important inclusion in a thesis of this nature.

'Restlessness' is the term used to describe this mobility behaviour in this study. It is a behaviour that could result from such a push factor (as opposed to a pull factor), with people moving as a reaction to feeling unsettled and seeking something more or different to satisfy their restlessness. For others, the restlessness will represent a desire to get away from or escape their current situation.

Restlessness, in a mobility context, has not been defined or measured in the literature. Restlessness is, therefore, defined here as a multitude of moves to a range of different countries. For some people, this mobility could be cyclical, with movements between the home and host country. For others, the movements could be progressive, always moving to different countries. Those who display highly restless behaviour will move more frequently than those who are more settled. One archival measure of restless behaviour would be to calculate the frequency of mobility (number of countries visited) per year of mobility.

The motives hypothesised to predict restless behaviour are the family and political motives identified in Chapter Two. Restlessness represents a desire to get away or escape, whether from family members (a negative relationship), a particular political regime or insular attitudes (a positive

relationship). Those who express the greatest desire to escape are anticipated to exhibit the most restless behaviour.

3.4 Homebondedness

The strength of a person's ties to home is another way mobility behaviour could be examined. One of the most popular interpretations of what home is or where home is located involve reference to a physical structure or dwelling (Lucas & Purkayastha, 2007). For those who are mobile and living in other countries, however, the construct of home moves beyond being a physical place, and becomes a symbolic place (Mallett, 2004) representing safety, familiarity, comfort and belonging (Conradson & Latham, 2005b). From the distance of a foreign country, attachment to place can increase and a deeper sense of belonging to a wider homeland can develop (Ramji, 2006). For New Zealanders, this attachment specifically includes the natural environment (Thorn et al., 2005; Wiles, 2008).

People who feel a strong connectedness to their homeland or have strong ties to family and friends in the home country are more likely to be pulled to return to that country. Those with fewer connections, or people who perceive their roots to be in other countries, are less likely to feel the same pull. This connection to the home country, or 'homebondedness', as it is termed here, also has an influence on mobility behaviour. Operationally, homebondedness can be defined as the time spent living in the home country between moves. It can be measured as the proportion of time in the home country out of the total time mobile.

It is important to note that some people may be perceived as being strongly bonded or attached to their home country, as they may never have left. It is possible, however, that the desire to leave is strong, but financial circumstances are preventing this movement. In this study, this aspect does not need to be considered as the sample population are already living and working in another country. It is a consideration that may, however, need to be incorporated in a comparative study on who is or is not mobile.

Homebondedness will most likely be predicted by the family motive. The focus of this study is on factors which influence a decision to move to another country rather than factors which influence a return home, so the relationship is likely to be negative. In other words, those who place priority on family as a reason for moving (for example, accompanying a spouse or partner in their career) are predicted to be least bonded to the home country.

It is also hypothesised that the lifestyle motive will negatively predict homebonded behaviour. Inkson et al. (2004) found that quality of life motives were the most likely to encourage a New Zealander to return. Further, the connectedness New Zealanders feel towards their natural environment is likely to be a return pull factor.

3.5 Cultural Globalism

If homebondedness is the pull to the home country, then the opposite action, one of being attracted to other countries and away from the home country, or cultural globalism, is another way in which mobility could be conceptualised. Globalism is interpreted as the interconnectedness across

geographical boundaries, and can be across cultural, political and economic realms (Woodward, Skrbis, & Bean, 2008). Cultural globalism is the most relevant in this context, and refers to the movement of people, and with them, the movement of ideas and information across boundaries (Soder, 2007). Being culturally global combines cultural competence (a desire and an ability to interact with people from other places and cultures) with international mobility (Skrbis & Woodward, 2007). Weenink (2008, p. 1089) suggests this mobility stems from a 'curiosity of the Other'. Consequently, the ties with the home country are lessened, but there may be larger social networks in a range of other countries.

The link between cross-border mobility and cultural globalism is, therefore, well established and cultural globalism must be included in this study. The behaviour of cultural globalism has been described, but again, it has not been measured. One measure might be the proportion of time a person has spent abroad since they first became mobile. In this study, therefore, a person who is culturally global will have spent proportionately longer outside their country of origin than someone who is not. The use of an individualised, proportional measure is advantageous in a situation such as this as it immediately controls for age, and a possible correlation between age and mobility (the older a person, the longer they have had to be mobile).

While cultural globalism is the inverse behaviour of homebondedness, the motives that predict this behaviour could be different to those that predict homebondedness. Of the motives discussed in the previous chapter, it is hypothesised that the behaviour will be those associated with the desire to experience new cultures and new cultural experiences.

Hence, it is hypothesised that cultural globalism will be predicted by the culture motive. As illustrated in Figure 3.1, this relationship is expected to be positive, with those who score the cultural motive highly, displaying the most cultural globalism behaviour.

3.6 Establishment

The length of time or 'establishment' in the current country is another possible conceptualisation of mobility. The longer a person has been living in a country, the more likely they are to have assimilated to the host country, and the less likely it is that they will move again (Scott, 2004). Once they have citizenship of the host country, it becomes even less likely that they will move again, and their movement could be described as a migration (Green et al., 2008). Hence, the notion of establishment limits mobility.

There is a multitude of ways that establishment could be viewed and this presents complications for measurement. A strong economic situation or numerous career prospects in the host country could result in a person remaining in that country. Having children who are settled in the new environment could result in becoming established. Similarly, a satisfactory lifestyle could entice a person to become more established. The political environment will also have an impact on the ease of establishing in the new country. The easier it is to obtain permanent residency or citizenship, the easier it is to become established. One generic measure for establishment could, however, be the length of time in the current country, since the longer a person is in the country, the more likely it is that they will have a satisfying job, a settled family and the more anchor points holding them in that location.

It is also difficult to predict which of the motives might predict a behaviour of establishment. Family motives are likely to have a positive relationship with establishment, particularly if the reason for moving was to accompany a partner to their home country. The relationship between cultural motives and establishment is, however, likely to be negative. The reason for this is that the more people value experiencing new cultures and places, the more likely they are to want to continue moving and the less likely they are to become established. These possible relationships are shown as dotted lines in Figure 3.1.

3.7 Future mobility

One final way of viewing mobility behaviour could be through future mobility intentions. People currently living and working abroad can undertake several possible options in the future. They can plan to stay where they are, maintaining their current spatiality. They can go back to their home country, displaying their return propensity. Their final option is to move to another country altogether, exhibiting what might be termed latent transience.

The choice that is made could relate to their social identity and how 'at ease' they are in the host country or how well they consider they fit in (Reicher, Hopkins, & Harrison, 2006, p. 248). People's social identity may, therefore, frame their perception of their future mobility options. The link between mobility and identity is not new, although much of the literature relates to the ways in which migration impacts on identity (see, for example, Chambers, 1994; Chrysochoou, 2004). Of more relevance here is the much smaller body of literature that addresses how identity

impacts on a decision to be mobile (Hopkins, Reicher, & Harrison, 2006). If a move to a new place is viewed as disruptive to a person's sense of how well they fit into the new environment, they may be reluctant to move.

Alternatively, if a person identifies, for example, as a global citizen, they could be keen to move to a new destination to see how their identity develops in the new location. If a person's identity is strongly linked to the home country, or if it is in the home country that the greatest sense of ease is felt, then that could result in a return to that country (Lidgard, 2001; Lidgard & Gilson, 2002).

Future mobility behaviour, whether it is current spatiality, return propensity or latent transience, can be operationally measured by the stated intentions of where respondents expect to be living in five years time. It is hypothesised that there will be a mix of motives which will predict current spatiality. If a key motivation for a person to move to a new country was because that is where a partner was from or family were there, then there is likely to be a positive relationship with the intended behaviour of current spatiality. In other words, a move to a partner's home country or a country where family are located, is likely to be the last move those people would make, and the more likely they are to still be located in that host country in five years time. Family is, therefore, shown as positively predicting current spatiality in Figure 3.1.

Similarly, if a move was to obtain a better lifestyle or to escape certain political factors, and they feel at ease with the conditions in the new location, they are likely to remain in that country and a positive relationship would be seen. It is not anticipated that cultural motives will

predict the behaviour of current spatiality as a desire to experience new and different cultures would result in further movements.

It is hypothesised, however, that culture will predict the behaviour of latent transience, since it is the desire to experience new and different people and countries that would motivate a person to continue being mobile. Family is likely to be a motive for those who intend to return to the home country in five years time. As with homebondedness, this relationship is likely to be negative, as it is the pull of the family that is likely to be a factor in the return. It is also hypothesised that quality of life will be a motive for an intended return. Again, a negative relationship is envisaged, as the pull of the home country's quality of life would be the motivating factor.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has developed a list of behaviours that might influence mobility and that can be measured objectively. Further, it seeks to hypothesise on the motives that may result in such mobility behaviours. Before detailing the research method and the collection of data, however, it is useful to summarise the hypotheses developed.

Hypothesis 1: Economic motives will negatively predict economism.

Hypothesis 2: Cultural motives will positively predict adventurousness.

Hypothesis 3 Restlessness will be negatively predicted by family motives and positively predicted by political motives.

Hypothesis 4: Cultural and travel motives will positively predict cultural globalism.

Hypothesis 5: Homebondedness will be negatively predicted by both family and lifestyle motives.

Hypothesis 6: Family, lifestyle and political motives will all positively predict current spatiality

Hypothesis 7: Family and lifestyle motives will negatively predict return propensity.

Hypothesis 8: Cultural motives will positively predict latent transience.

Finally, it is important to note that in any analysis which aims to determine the nature of relationships between variables such as this, there will be some factors which will alter the relationship and which need to be controlled. In this study, time is likely to be a standard predictor for mobility, since the more time available to be mobile (the greater the age), the more likely multiple mobility is. This is important for the behaviours of restlessness, cultural globalism, homebondedness and establishment, so these objective measures are all devised as a proportion of the total time the respondent has been mobile.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

This chapter details the method used in this study. It begins with a description of the participants, followed by an explanation of the measures, and then details the procedure of bringing these two together. First, however, a brief rationale for the method is given.

4.1 Research Rationale

Most research to date in this area has used qualitative, narrative methods (see, for example, Richardson, 2006; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Vance, 2005), providing specific information about the individual experiences of self-initiated movers, but little about the characteristics and motivations of those who choose to be internationally mobile. The present study addresses this weakness by undertaking empirical research with a self-report survey instrument to explore these aspects in more detail. This research design integrates qualitative comments from respondents with the quantitative data to enrich the findings. The design also allows for the collection of both subjective and objective data, which enables an exploration of a number of predictors for mobility. The use of a heterogeneous sample also addresses other gaps in the mobility literature mentioned previously – the focus on specific occupations and the lack of a gendered analysis of mobility.

A cross-sectional design is used as this is a suitable strategy for descriptive and exploratory research of this nature (de Vaus, 2002; Dillman, 2000). It is an appropriate design from which to distil patterns and explore relationships.

4.2 The Participants

The research population for this study comprised New Zealanders who choose to live and work abroad, but excluded expatriates who felt they had no choice in their posting and those on short-term work-related expatriate assignments. No complete description as yet exists of this population, although a number of studies throw light on aspects of it. For example, based on a time-analysis of migration data, Bedford (2001) suggested that there are between 700,000 and 1,000,000 people in this population. Further, an OECD survey calculates that 15% of the five million people born in New Zealand (a total of approximately 750,000) are currently living in another OECD country (OECD, 2005a, p. 10) but it is not known what proportion of these fall into the self-initiated highly educated group this research targeted.

Surveys of various sub-populations of New Zealanders abroad, each with their strengths and weaknesses, have been cited in earlier chapters. This includes Inkson et al.'s (2004) survey of 2000 professional New Zealanders, with a sample weighted towards accountants and financial managers (Hooks et al., 2005). Also relevant is the *Every One Counts* survey (Kiwi Expatriate Association, 2006) which provides information on the characteristics of around 18,000 expatriates. A study of Maori expatriates has recently been released (Hamer, 2007), discussing the experiences of over 400 individuals living in Australia. In addition, underway at the time of writing is another study undertaken by the Migration Research Group at the University of Waikato, investigating the settlement and circulation of New Zealanders living in Australia. Preliminary findings from this study suggest that New Zealanders in Australia concentrate around the 25–49 age band, are male dominated,

and slightly less well educated than New Zealand residents generally (Hugo, 2004).

A recent snapshot of departures from New Zealand to Australia derived from the statistics of these countries also shows a concentration in the 25–44 age group (Scanlan, 2008). Statistics New Zealand also collates annual information on those New Zealanders leaving the country on a permanent or long-term basis (PLT). While this provides a picture of who is leaving and, therefore, also contributes to our knowledge of the total population, there is no link to the subsequent movements of these people, whether back to New Zealand or to other countries.

Table 4.1 summarises the main characteristics of people from these key sources compared to the general New Zealand population. This clearly shows that the population abroad is much younger than the population at home, as would be expected from the OE cultural phenomenon commented on earlier. It also suggests that the education level of those abroad is considerably higher than those at home.

Sampling of Participants

The development of a sampling framework, when the target population is both unknown and spread throughout the world, is extremely difficult. The sampling objective, therefore, became one of enabling as many of the targeted population as possible to participate. The present study utilised a snowball sampling approach, with the assistance of the internet, to reach as many New Zealanders living and working abroad as possible.

Table 4.1
Inkson Survey, KEA Survey Sample, New Zealand PLT Departures and 2006 NZ Census Data

Demographics	Inkson et al., 2002 n=2,002	KEA Survey 2006 n= 18,002	PLT Departures year ended 2006 n=47,616	NZ Census 2006 Usually Resident, aged 20+ n=4,027,947
Gender				
Male	63.0%	48.8%	50.9%	48.8%
Female	37.0%	51.2%	49.1%	51.2%
Age				
20-29	18.1%	33.3%	50.5%	18.0%
30-39	46.5%	38.4%	22.5%	20.2%
40-49	21.2%	14.5%	14.3%	21.2%
50-59	10.6%	9.1%	8.8%	17.0%
60+	3.7%	3.5%	3.9%	23.6%
Education				
Doctorate	4.9%	3.2%	See note 1.	0.6%
Master's Degree	13.3%	9.9%		2.2%
Postgraduate certificate or diploma	39.0%	15.3%		2.1%
Bachelor's degree	36.6%	33.5%		11.9%
Other tertiary diploma or certificate	3.7%	20.9%		10.1%
Secondary school	1.8%	17.2%		46.4%
No qualification				26.6%

1. The PLT data does not include information regarding qualifications

Contact was made with a small group of people who were relevant to the research topic and use was then made of these people to recruit others through their personal networks (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The process continued with participants from the networks then sharing the research with others in their network (Salganik & Heckathorn, 2004).

The initial contact with the population in this study was made through a variety of channels:

- Alumni organisations of tertiary institutions, schools and other organisations (for example, the New Zealand Treasury) were emailed through their internet contact person and asked if they would forward an email containing the survey web link to their members. Where international contacts for alumni members were provided, these were emailed directly. A similar process was followed for professional organisations.
- New Zealand clubs or organisations abroad (including business associations and Chambers of Commerce) were identified through a web search, and a similar email was sent.
- A press release was prepared and sent out on June 7, 2007. This resulted in articles being published in a range of national papers including *The Dominion Post*, *Timaru Herald*, *The Nelson Mail*, all Auckland suburban newspapers, *The Rodney Times*, *The North Shore Times*, *Teletext New Zealand* and *stuff.co.nz*. Radio interviews were also undertaken on Newstalk ZB and National Radio (8 June), Radio Live (9 June) and Kiwi FM (2 August). While the media is all domestically based, the approach here, as with the emails, relied on family and friends sharing the information with New Zealanders living abroad.

A full list of these contacts and the Press Release are attached in Appendices A and B.

A total of 3,404 responses were recorded through the web page administration site. However, of these:

- 18 were test pages, checking that the system was operating correctly;
- 184 people had registered with a username and password, but did not participate in the survey;
- 38 were retired and 54 were currently unemployed;
- 12 were currently students;
- 275 did not meet the definition of highly educated;
- 17 had been moved by the company and not by choice, and hence did not meet the definition of self-initiated;
- 4 were not otherwise employed, currently working in the home; and
- 14 were currently living and working in New Zealand.

These 616 were dropped from the respondent sample to give a valid response group of 2,788. A further 180 were eliminated as they had not answered either of the key questions on the relative importance of the motives or the frequency of their mobility. Thus, the maximum number of respondents used in the analysis was 2,608.

4.3 The Measures

There are four sets of measurements required by this research process – self-initiated mobility, the measures of the motives, the measures of mobility behaviour and a measure for the concept of Internationalism.

4.3.1 The Measure of Self-initiated Mobility

The dependent variable in this research is self-initiated mobility, measured by the number of movements to different countries. In the survey, mobility was measured by a combination of two separate questions. First, respondents were asked if they had had previous experience abroad. If not, then their move to their current location was their only move, and their frequency of mobility, therefore, is one. If they answered yes, they were directed to another page on which they could chart their movements from the time they first left New Zealand. Periods where respondents had returned to live and work in New Zealand were also included. Thus, an objective measure of their mobility was recorded. Frequency of mobility was, therefore, defined as the number of countries they had lived in plus their current country of residence.

4.3.2 Measures of Motives

The measures for the motives and sub-motives were all subjective in that the respondent was asked to assign a score to the level of importance of each. However, given that one of the primary aims of this research was to identify the relative importance of the sub-motives that influence self-initiated mobility, respondents needed to be able to assess the influence of one sub-motive relative to each of the other sub-motives. Simple ranking is problematic in that respondents are often very sure about the top and bottom factors, but are often unable to distinguish between the

middle items (Higgins, 2004). With 56 sub-motives to be ranked, this raised issues of validity of response, in addition to being an arduous task for the respondents.

A two-stage scoring system was, therefore, developed. Respondents were first asked to allocate 100 points between each of the six motives described above. Respondents could choose to allocate the points between all six, or could leave some motives with no allocation of points. The web-page from the survey is shown with an example entry in Figure 4.1.

13. There are a range of factors which have been identified as important considerations when deciding to live and work in another country. These have been categorised into six key areas and are explained below.

Career - these are the factors that relate to your work - your current work situation and conditions, your current and future career development and future career aspirations.

Cultural and Travel Opportunities - these are opportunities which were not available in your home country but which are available as a result of living abroad, such as experiencing greater cultural diversity, the adventure of living abroad, and greater travel opportunities.

Economic - the financial costs and benefits of living and working abroad.

Political Environment - these are the factors relating to the politics of New Zealand which may have motivated you to move abroad, or factors relating to the politics of the country you moved to which may have attracted you to that country.

Quality of Life - these factors include the characteristics, infrastructure and facilities of a country that improve the way you are able to live your life. Factors such as the weather, healthcare facilities, public transport and your work/life balance are included here.

Relationships - these are factors relating to your partner, family and friends, and your connectedness to them. This category also includes your family ancestry or roots - where you are from, and the way that may influence a decision to live and work in another country.

Imagine you have 100 points to allocate between these factors to show how important each was in your **most recent** decision to move from New Zealand. Distribute the points to reflect the relative importance of each of these factors to you. Some factors may not have been relevant to you, and these can be left blank. Please ensure that the total for all factors equals 100

Career	20
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	30
Economic	20
Political Environment	0
Quality of Life	10
Relationships	20
Total Points	100

0 points have not been allocated!

Figure 4.1. Web-page showing First Allocation of Points.

Respondents were then taken to another page detailing that particular motive, where they were reminded of the definition of that motive, and their original allocation of points to that motive was piped through. They were then asked to redistribute the points allocated to that motive to reflect the relative importance of each of the sub-motives in making their decision to move.

Figure 4.2 shows the second allocation page with the original allocation piped through and an example reallocation of the original value. Respondents were also provided with the opportunity to include factors relevant to them that had not been listed.

15. You allocated 30 points to the cultural and travel opportunities category. These were the opportunities which were not available in New Zealand but which are available as a result of living abroad.

Please distribute these 30 points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Again, not all may be relevant to your situation and these can be left blank.

Total points to be allocated is 30	
The adventure of living and working in another culture	10
A desire to experience a greater variety of cultures	0
To have greater opportunities to travel	10
Previous travels motivated you to live in other countries	2
New Zealand seemed culturally too isolated or limited	2
A desire to live in a big city	0
You wanted the opportunity to learn another language	5
To expose your children to different cultures	0
A desire to experience a greater variety of cultural activities	0
A desire to experience more classical European cultural opportunities eg the opera, ballet, theatre, concerts	0
A desire to experience countries with a longer cultural history	0
Other (Please specify) in a bigger gay society	1
Total Points	30

0 points have not been allocated!

Figure 4.2. Web-page showing Second Allocation of Points.

The analysis of this data was also staged. In the first stage, the overall motives were ranked for each respondent. The data was then separated depending on which motive had been ranked highest, so that the individual sub-motives were only considered for those respondents who had scored that motive the highest. The analysis of the career sub-motives, for example, was undertaken only on those respondents who had ranked this motive first, and the relationship sub-motives were analysed only for those respondents who had ranked that motive highest. In cases where an equal distribution of points was given to two or more motives (in, for example, a distribution such as 30 points to career and relationships, and 10 to each of the other motives), the analysis of the factors was undertaken for both highest scoring motives.

In order to ensure that the values allocated to each of the sub-motives were comparable, the allocation was converted to a proportion of the total allocated to the motive. So, for example, if one person had scored career first with an allocation of 50 points, and had then reallocated 25 of those points to remuneration, the overall score for remuneration became 0.5 or 50%. Similarly, if another person scored career first with 30 points, and allocated remuneration 15 of those points, the overall score would again be 50%.

4.3.3 Measurement of Mobility Behaviours

Chapter Three discussed possible ways of conceptualising mobility behaviours and suggested a range of constructs for these. This section details how these constructs were objectively measured.

Economism

Economic behaviour, in the context of mobility, has been defined in this study as a move to a lesser developed country where a highly educated person can earn a premium for their skills. The level of development of the respective countries was measured using the Human Development Index. This is a worldwide index which combines the normalised measures of life expectancy, literacy and educational achievement and GDP per capita to measure human development (UNDP, 2007). As a comparative tool, it is often used to distinguish between developed and developing countries.

The advantage of using the HDI over the commonly used GDP measure for country wealth is that the HDI reveals how countries turn income into education and health opportunities (UNDP, 2008) which is particularly important in the context of this study on highly educated people. Further, GDP can be biased by a small group of very wealthy people, creating disparities when comparing the indices. Italy's GDP per capita, for example, is only about two-thirds that of the USA but the two countries have similar HDI values (Gaye, 2007).

In this study, an average HDI was calculated, being the sum of the individual HDI scores for each of the countries in which the respondent had resided, divided by the total number of countries lived in. A person who had lived in a number of developing countries, therefore, would have a lower HDI than a person who had lived only in developed countries.

Adventurousness

Adventurousness is related to the desire to experience the unknown. The more a country differs from the home country, the greater the level of the unknown is likely to be. Cultural distance is a measure of this difference between countries. The construct of cultural distance used in this study is calculated from a recent, comprehensive study of cultural dimensions that attempts to quantify different cultures (Hutzschenreuter & Voll, 2008). The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness) project examines nine different dimensions of cultural distance in 62 different countries both from the perspective of how that country practises its culture (the 'as is' perspective) and its cultural values (the 'should be' perspective) (House, 2004). For this study, the perspective required is only the cultural practise – the way culture is actually experienced in the host country.

For each of the respondents, the total cultural distance over the nine dimensions is calculated for every country in which they have resided, other than New Zealand (where the difference is zero). The difference between the cultural distance score for the host country and New Zealand becomes the measure of cultural distance. In this manner, an average cultural distance can be calculated for each of the host countries in which a respondent has lived and worked. A high cultural distance value suggests that the respondent is more adventurous than a lower value.

The GLOBE data is, unfortunately, not available for every country. Several other indices of cultural distance have been developed, often derived from the seminal work of Hofstede (1980). Substantial criticism of Hofstede's original dimensions, however, (see, for example, Kirkman,

Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Shenkar, 2001) raised doubts about the validity and reliability of the earlier data. This work was subsequently replicated and expanded (Hofstede, 2001) creating a more reliable measure covering 74 countries. Where a country had no GLOBE measure, but did have a Hofstede measure, the Hofstede measure was converted to the GLOBE index. For example, Norway was not included in GLOBE but was in Hofstede's index. The cultural distance (the sum of the differences of the dimensions) between New Zealand and Norway using Hofstede's measure is 80, which is similar to the cultural distance between New Zealand and Finland (82). The GLOBE cultural distance measure for Finland is 3.41, so this is the figure used for Norway.

Twenty-five countries, including Slovakia, Chile and Samoa, are not scored on either index, so that data is excluded. In most cases, only 1 or 2 respondents had lived in each of these countries. There was also a group of countries identified by the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO, 2008) as being 'Countries in Crisis'. These are generally developing countries where food shortages and conflict impact on the stability and economic development of the country. Included in this group are Mozambique, Iraq, Zimbabwe and Afghanistan. Although not measured by either GLOBE or Hofstede, the cultural differences of these countries compared to New Zealand are likely to be higher than other countries. Further, the risks of living and working in these countries mean that the people who are there are likely to be more adventurous than those other countries. For this reason, a score of 10 (a higher cultural distance than any other on the GLOBE list) has been allocated to ensure that this higher level of adventurousness is not omitted.

Restlessness

Restlessness was defined as a multitude of moves to different countries. One objective measure of restlessness would simply be the number of moves a person has taken. However, as discussed previously, the older a person is, and the longer they have been mobile, the more opportunity there is for mobility. One way of controlling for this factor is to measure the number of moves divided by the total time mobile, giving the average number of moves per year mobile. Hence, a restless person would have a higher average than one who was less restless. Respondents who had been mobile for less than a year were omitted from this analysis, as it was too early to determine whether they have permanently settled in a new location, or if they are preparing to continue moving.

Cultural Globalism

A person who is culturally global thrives on variety. This could be interpreted as someone who wants to experience a great variety of cultures by moving countries, or someone who is settled in a global city such as London or Paris, and who enjoys the variety of cultural events available. One measure of cultural globalism which was appropriate for either interpretation was the period of time spent away from the home country. Again, there is the need to control for age, so the appropriate measure used was the time spent outside New Zealand as a proportion of the total time mobile. A person displaying the behaviour of cultural globalism would have a higher score than one who was not.

Homebondedness

A person displaying homebonded behaviour will have a desire to stay connected with and return to the home country. It is, therefore, the direct

inverse of cultural globalism and can be measured as the time spent in New Zealand as a proportion of the total time mobile.

Establishment

An established pattern of mobility suggests that mobility has temporarily, if not permanently, ceased. As mentioned earlier, there are a range of different anchors such as suitable employment, a settled family and satisfaction with life style which could contribute to establishment. In this study, length of time in the host country was used as an umbrella factor to measure mobility. Hence, the longer the time in the country, the more anchors that have been set, and the less likely a future move becomes. To control for time, the length of time in the host country as a proportion of the total time mobile was used as the specific measure. A person displaying the behaviour of establishment would have a higher score than one who was not.

Future Mobility Intentions

Three possible future mobility behaviours were identified – current spatiality, return propensity and latent transience. The measure for these mobility intentions was derived directly from a question asking respondents where they thought they would be living in five years time. The original question provided three possible answers – in the current country (current spatiality), in New Zealand (return propensity) or in another country (latent transience). This was transformed into a binomial response, so that someone who thought they would be in the current country would register a ‘yes’ (a value of 1) for that response, and a ‘no’ (a value of 0) for the other responses.

4.3.4 A Measure of Internationalism

Suutari and Taka (2004) suggested that a ninth career anchor of Internationalism should be added to Schein's (1993) list. Internationalism incorporates a desire to work with different cultures, a focus on the location of the work rather than the specific nature of the work, and a desire to work in an international environment. Suutari (2003) also identifies that some people had always been interested in an international career, while Stahl and Cerdin (2004) discussed the desire of global managers to expand their professional skills in an international environment. These five concepts were, therefore, converted into items that would identify Internationalism for the Career Anchor instrument as follows:

- From a young child, my dream was to work abroad.
- I am most fulfilled working with people from a range of cultures in an international environment.
- I seek out work opportunities by the country they are in rather than the specific nature of the job.
- I feel successful in my career only if I continue to develop new professional skills that can be utilised in an international context.
- Having a career that permits me to experience different cultures is important to me.

Care was taken to ensure that the wording of the items was similar to the existing instrument. The full Career Anchor scale, with 40 items, was considered too lengthy to incorporate in this survey, so just the five new Internationalism items were included with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Strongly Agree* (1) to *Strongly Disagree* (7). Each of the items received the full range of scores. For this analysis, scores have been reverse coded to provide more intuitive information, with 7 now

representing strong agreement, and 1 strong disagreement. Thus, the higher the score, the greater the level of agreement with the statement.

4.4 Research Procedure

This section details the procedure followed to bring the participants and the measures together.

4.4.1 Development of Motives

There were a number of steps involved in the identification of motives and sub-motives, their categorisation and description, their incorporation into the survey and the final distribution of the survey. These steps are discussed in a chronological fashion and shown in the summary diagram (Figure 4.3).

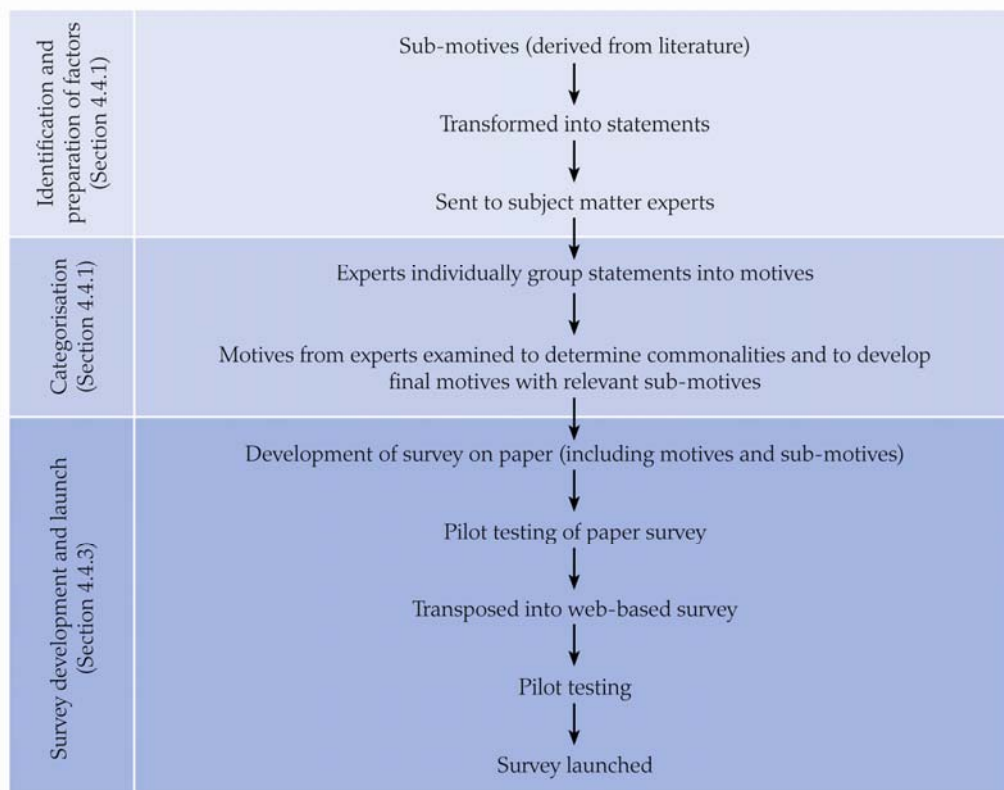


Figure 4.3. The Research Process.

Identification of Motives

As discussed in the introductory chapters, a number of sub-motives were identified from the literature as potentially influencing self-initiated mobility. Inkson et al. (2004) in their study of over 2000 New Zealanders living and working abroad, had already identified 25 sub-motives which led to the decision to leave their home country. A principal components analysis subsequently undertaken on these divided them into the five key motives utilised in Chapter Two – lifestyle, whanau/family, career, cultural, and economic (Jackson et al., 2005). This analysis accounted for 48% of variance, suggesting that there were other sub-motives to be incorporated.

An examination of the literature identified a further 31 potential influences on mobility, giving a total of 56 factors. Many of these additional sub-motives could be grouped according to Jackson et al.'s categories, but some motives, particularly those relating to the distinctive characteristics of the host country, would not fit. It also became apparent that the overlap between the motives was significant, and that subjectively defining the motives was too arbitrary and, hence, a more objective methodology was adopted.

Transformation of Sub-motives into Statements

The sub-motives identified in the literature were often vague and open to multiple interpretations. For example, cultural differences were cited as having an impact on a decision to be mobile, but these differences could be perceived as either positive or negative, and could refer to either cultures or cultural activities. The sub-motives were, therefore, converted into measurable, relative statements that people could clearly understand and provide a response. The sub-motive *cultural differences*

was, for example, translated into a range of specific statements of sub-motives – a desire to experience a greater variety of cultures, a desire to experience a greater range of cultural activities, and to move to a less culturally isolated country.

Categorisation of Sub-motives

These statements could then be categorised. They were randomly sorted using an Excel spreadsheet and emailed to seven highly educated New Zealanders living and working variously in Australia, the United Kingdom, France and Indonesia, who were known to the researcher and who had each lived in a number of different countries. These people were, therefore, subject matter experts in that they had all made the decision to be mobile.

The experts were asked to sort the sub-motive statements into categories or motives which they felt had a connecting theme. This was done as a free sort in that there was no limit to the number of categories developed or the number of sub-motives per motive (D. Collins, 2003; Meulman, 1996). The experts were also encouraged to add any factors that may have had an influence in their decision to move, but which were not included in the original list. A copy of instructions given to the experts is included in Appendix C. Six responses were received yielding five different categorisations (one couple completed the task together). Table 4.2 shows the motives developed by each person along with the original categories developed by Jackson et al. (2005).

The motives of *career* and *economics* received strong agreement, with little variation in both the motive title and the sub-motives included. Similarly, the motive of *family* was common to all experts and contained

similar sub-motives. The exception was Expert 3 who had formed two new motives, partner-related and escape from difficult situations, which others had incorporated within the broader motive *family*. The concept of lifestyle or quality of life was common across all experts, although there was less agreement on the sub-motives within this group.

Table 4.2
Categorisation of Motives by Subject Experts

Jackson et al. (2004)	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Experts 4 & 5	Expert 6
Lifestyle	Lifestyle	Pace of life	Quality of life	Lifestyle	Quality of life
Whanau/ Family	Family	Family Driven	Proximity to family and friends	Family ties	Family
Career	Career	Career Driven	Career	Career opportunities	Career
Economics	Economics	Economic and financial	Economic and financial	Economic drivers	Economics
Cultural	Other	Cultural experience	Cultural and travel opportunities	Live overseas	Cultural driven
		Political environment	Political environment		Political environment
		Next generation	Escape from difficult situations		Social driven
		Health and Wellbeing	Partner related		Distance
		Social experience			
		Timing window			

The concepts of culture and cultural opportunities were also present in various forms in each of the experts' motives. Living overseas and ease of travel were associated factors that were sometimes integrated with culture and at other times were identified as separate motives. The *political environment* motive emerged from three of the experts, interestingly labelling the motive exactly the same and incorporating similar sub-motives.

Development of Final Motives

Overall, therefore, there was unanimous agreement for the labels of the *career*, *economics* and *political environment* motives. *Quality of life* was the label used to amalgamate the motives labelled by all experts as either lifestyle or pace of life. *Cultural and Travel Opportunities* was the motive developed to incorporate the sub-motives relating to both culture and travel. The final motive was entitled *relationships* and included the categories identified by the experts as relating to family, friends and partners. The motives, their description and the sub-motives that comprise the grouping are listed below. These motives are used from this point in the study.

Motive: Career

Description: these are the factors that relate to your work – your current work situation and conditions, your current and future career development and future career aspirations.

Sub-motives:

- New career challenges
- Professional development
- To take up a specific job
- To improve job satisfaction
- To obtain better job security

Frustration with work and management
Broader career choices
To improve working conditions
Better opportunities for career advancement
Career choice was in international arena
Further education
To work in a specific institution

Motive: Cultural and Travel Opportunities

Description: these are opportunities not available in your home country but which are available as a result of living abroad, such as experiencing greater cultural diversity, the adventure of living abroad, and greater travel opportunities.

Sub-motives: Adventure

A desire to experience a greater variety of cultures
Greater opportunities to travel
Previous travels motivated you to live abroad
New Zealand culturally isolated
A desire to live in a big city
An opportunity to learn another language
To expose your children to different cultures
A desire to experience a variety of cultural activities
A desire for more European cultural activities
A desire for a country with a longer cultural history

Motive: Economics

Description: the financial costs and benefits of living and working abroad.

Sub-motives: Better remuneration
To live in a country with a larger economy
To pay of a student loan more quickly
Improve economic situation
Improve standard of living
Improve taxation position
Unemployed
Avoidance of economic liabilities (debts, fines)

Motive: Political Environment

Description: these are the factors relating to the politics of New Zealand which may have motivated you to move abroad, or factors relating to the politics of the country you moved to, which may have attracted you to that country.

Sub-motives: Greater freedom
New Zealand is too far away from political activity
To be in a safer country
To escape a particular political environment
To take advantage of immigration policies
To take advantage of working holiday visas
New Zealand too insular
New Zealand too 'politically correct'

Motive: Quality of Life

Description: these factors include the characteristics, infrastructure and facilities of a country that improve the way you are able to live your life. Factors such as the weather, healthcare facilities, public transport and your work-life balance are included here.

Sub-motives: To achieve a better work-life balance
A desire for a more relaxed way of life
Better climate
To enjoy outdoor life more
To obtain a higher level of healthcare
To live in the 'fast lane'
To experience a more social lifestyle
To live in a country with better public transportation

Motive: Relationships

Description: these are factors relating to your partner, family and friends, and your connectedness to them. This motive also includes your family ancestry or roots – where you are from, and the way that may influence a decision to live and work in another country.

Sub-motives: Partner wanted to come
To accompany partner in their career
To be closer to family and friends
A change in relationship
To be further away from family
Better education for children
All your friends had gone overseas
Partner is from this country
Family came from this country originally

4.4.2 The Research Instrument

The instrument selected for use in this research was a self-report survey administered via the internet. This was chosen because:

- It is a more cost-effective method of contacting a large and more dispersed respondent group than that provided by interviews (Denscombe, 2006), enabling a snapshot of the target population to be developed.
- A web-based questionnaire can cover wide geographical areas rapidly (Simsek & Veiga, 2000). In this instance, the target population was resident overseas and this was the most practical means of contacting them.
- Internet surveys enable faster data collection than other self-administered methods (Simsek & Veiga, 2001).
- Internet surveys provide more flexibility in the way respondents are recruited (Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001). The ease of forwarding an internet link onto numerous people concurrently, all with a specific interest in the subject matter (snowball sampling), enhances the opportunity for wider distribution to the target population.
- Internet surveys facilitate interaction between the respondent and the researcher, allowing for clarification or elaboration of issues (Simsek & Veiga, 2000). They also result in fewer errors in responding to questions and fewer skipped questions than paper surveys (Hayslett & Wildmuth, 2004) as the respondent can be guided through the survey. These factors contribute to the accuracy of the data collected.

More specifically, the advantages of a web-based survey for the collection of data in this study included:

- Branching (skipping questions that are not relevant to the respondent)
- Piping (feeding earlier answers into later questions)
- Pop-ups to prompt respondents about mistakes they may have made
- The interactive nature of the internet survey is more engaging than a paper survey and can increase response and completion rates.
- Some sample control is possible
- The data being fed directly into an Excel spreadsheet, and then imported into SPSS, eliminating data entry error.

In addition, due to the complex double allocation of points system used in the survey, a *return* button was included to allow respondents to go backwards through the survey to change their allocation of points.

4.4.3 Development of the Survey

As with any research method where all data are collected at the same time using self-completion measures, there is potential for bias and error, arising for example, from common-method variance, question order, social desirability responses, and errors in interpretation from both respondents and the researcher (Deming, 2006; Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To minimise the potential for such artefacts, the survey questionnaire was designed following the recommended procedures of Czaja and Blair (2005), de Vaus (2002), Dillman (2000), Iarossi (2006), Sills and Song (2000) and van Selm and Jankowski (2006) including:

- A front information page detailed what the study was about, its importance, how the results would be used, and contact details were provided.
- A log-in page provided confidentiality plus the opportunity to log-in subsequently to complete the survey if interrupted.
- The first set of questions was one that the respondent should find relatively easy to answer, requiring little thought. The more complicated questions followed, with the demographics being the last set of questions asked.
- A clear definition of each of the motives was provided, and these definitions were repeated on the follow-up pages so that respondents knew the factors being considered at each stage.
- A logical flow was developed, with different sets of questions being separated with individual explanatory notes giving the purpose of each set.
- A variety of question and response formats was used (radio buttons, requiring respondents to simply click on the appropriate response, entering numbers, and drop down boxes allowing rapid selection of the response) reducing the time needed to respond (thereby reducing the chance of respondent fatigue) and hopefully keeping the survey interesting.
- The provision of a comment space on the penultimate page allowed the respondent to add any thoughts not previously covered.
- A final page with no questions which thanked the respondents was included. The option of seeing a brief summary-to-date of the main findings was also given, providing immediate feedback to the respondent.

The survey was designed as a paper survey first and piloted in this form to assess interpretation of the questions' meanings and the adequacy of response alternatives (D. Collins, 2003). The piloting involved six New Zealand academics, all who had lived and worked abroad, answering the survey with reference to their last move. Several issues of clarification were addressed at this stage such as ensuring the two-stage point allocation system was clearly explained. The survey was only then transposed from paper into the internet survey so that the restrictions and limitations of computer programming did not interfere with the objectives of the survey (de Vaus, 2002).

A second round of piloting then took place with the link to the webpage being sent to eight New Zealanders living and working abroad. The focus of this round was to again assess interpretations and the adequacy of coverage, but also included the time taken to complete the survey and the appearance of any bugs in the programming. Responses from this second phase suggested that the survey took around 15–20 minutes to complete, and no programming bugs were apparent. One feature that was added to the survey after this piloting was the development of an automated report which allowed respondents to see a summary of results to date. A full copy of the survey is included in Appendix D.

The survey was operational from May 23, 2007 until September 10, 2007. By this latter date, responses had been only trickling in for a period of a month and there had been no new responses for a week. The initial emails were sent out to the contacts over the period May 23–25, 2007 with the Press Release on June 7, 2007. Figure 4.3 graphs the responses.

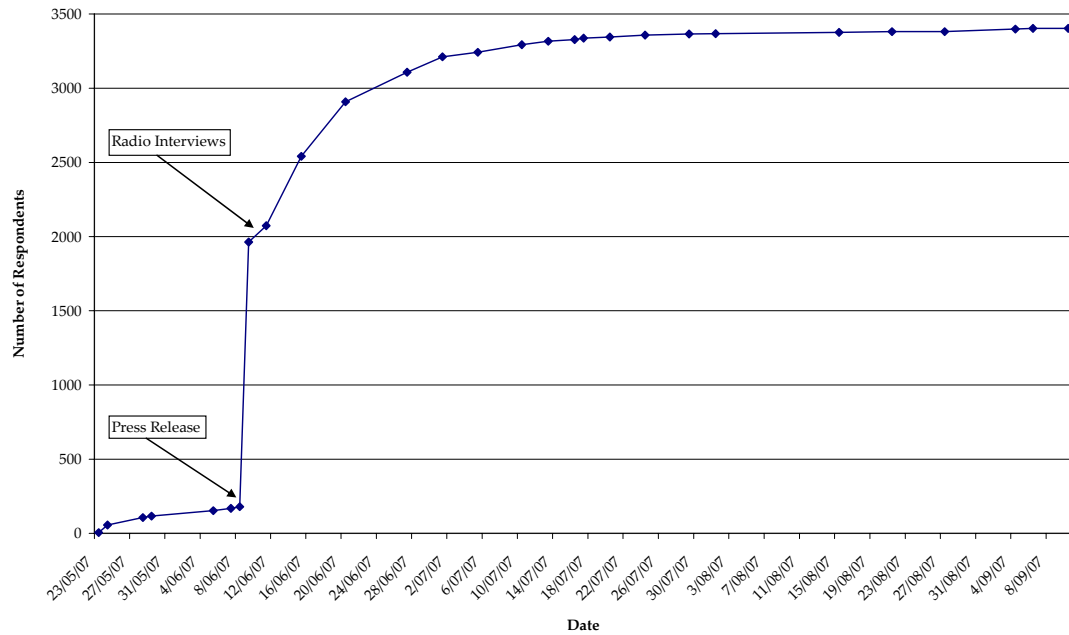


Figure 4.3. Number of Responses against Time.

The data was automatically collected into an Excel spreadsheet and then imported into the SPSS database. Respondents who had looked at the survey but not answered any questions were removed from the database. The data was then checked for obvious errors (for example, respondents were asked to enter the year of their birth in the form yy but entered it as yyyy). SPSS was used as it facilitates the transformation and sorting of factors, and allows for different sections of the database to be examined separately. Computations were performed to develop additional factors (for example, to derive age from date of birth, or rankings for the relative importance of the motives).

4.4.5 Data Analysis

As the research is descriptive and exploratory, the initial analysis consisted primarily of frequency data and cross-tabulations, distilling statistically significant trends and patterns that could contribute to theory. Most statistical analyses rely on the distribution of variables

approximating a normal curve, derived from random probability. However, because of the use of an ipsative scale for the motives in this research, the data was ordinal or ranked and statistical tests assuming a normal distribution were not suitable (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2007). Non-parametric approaches are the most appropriate in this case. These methods make fewer assumptions and have more robustness than parametric approaches (Norusis, 2005) which is advantageous in highly exploratory research such as this. The disadvantage of non-parametric tests is that they are not as powerful as parametric tests, although this problem is mitigated in this study with a large sample size (Higgins, 2004).

A range of non-parametric tests were used to examine the data in more detail. The Mann-Whitney U Test was used to determine if differences exist between two independent samples. Friedman's two-way analysis of variance by ranks was used to determine if differences exist between three or more related factors (Siegel & Castellan, 1988). This test is appropriate for distinguishing differences between the ipsative measures because of the related nature of the measures (for example, if 40 points is allocated to the career motive, there are only 60 points left to allocate to the other motives). The Kruskal-Wallis test is the non-parametric alternative to a one-way between groups analysis of variance and allows comparison on a continuous variable for three or more groups (Pallant, 2007).

The use of ipsative data also meant that the usual parametric methods of determining the relationships hypothesised in Chapter Three were not appropriate. Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) was, therefore, the non-parametric approach used to initially examine correlations within

and between the motives and the behaviours. Following this, a Chi-Squared Automatic Interaction Detector (CHAID) analysis was undertaken to determine if the independent variables (the motives) predicted the dependent variable (the mobility behaviour).

CHAID is a method of database segmentation which has been found to be an effective approach for obtaining meaningful segments that can predict a variable (like regression analysis) or for the detection of interaction between variables (McCarty & Hastak, 2007). It has been used primarily in marketing to segment customer databases and to predict how one variable will impact on another (Galguera, Luna, & Mendez, 2006; van Diepen & Franses, 2006). Recently, however, its application has been extended into medicine with the prediction of outcomes from a range of symptoms or treatments (Ture, Kurt, Kurum, & Ozdamar, 2005) or demographic data (Frank, Kerr, Sallis, Miles, & Chapman, 2008).

CHAID divides a population into mutually exclusive and exhaustive nodes that have similar characteristics, generating a decision tree that is visual and easy to read (Hsu & Kang, 2007). A series of predictor variables are progressively assessed to see if splitting the sample based on these predictors leads to a statistically significant discrimination in the dependent variable (McCarty & Hastak, 2007). The CHAID algorithm is a stepwise progression (Kass, 1980). In the first step, the best predictor is chosen from all of the predictors using a chi-squared test of independence. The *best* predictor is the one with the most significant *p* value. Second, this predictor is partitioned into two or more subsets based on the number of categories in the predictor. All subsets that are not significantly different are combined. Third, each subset is then partitioned further based on the same criterion as the first step. This is

repeated for each subset until it can no longer be split into significantly significant subsets.

One of the advantages of CHAID is that it can detect interactions between nominal, ordinal and continuous variables (Kleppin, Pesch, & Schröder, 2008). It does, however, require a large sample size to work effectively as otherwise the nodes quickly become too small for reliable analysis (Magidson, 1994; Magidson & Vermunt, 2005).

The subjective motive data was collected as a score out of 100, which was an effective method for determining the relative importance of the motives. However, the use of these values in further analysis raises issues of test-retest reliability. A respondent could, for example, have allocated 40 points to career and 25 points to economics, but if they were asked to apportion the 100 points again a month later, it is possible that the exact values allocated could change. It is less likely, however, that the ranking of the motives would change. The ranked data is, therefore, more reliable and was used in the CHAID analyses, with one being the top ranked motive, and six being the least important motive. Where the same value was allocated, the rank value was also equal.

Missing data was excluded from all of these analyses, and hence the number of respondents may vary from analysis to analysis depending on available data.

4.5 Ethical Issues

Most professional codes researching humans rely on an ethical protocol to inform their research practise (Bell & Bryman, 2007). These protocols stress the responsibility of the researcher towards the participants in five key areas – voluntary participation, informed consent, no harm, confidentiality and anonymity, and privacy (de Vaus, 2002, p. 59). This research focused on people and for this reason, full ethical approval was obtained from the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (see Appendix E). This section discusses the manner in which this research addressed each of these areas.

Voluntary Participation and Informed Consent

The web page based survey was self-administered, and as such, the respondents choose to go to the URL and to participate. The first page of the survey was an Information Sheet explaining the purpose of the survey and the intended use of the information obtained, giving an indication of time involvement and providing contact addresses should there be any questions. Respondents were also advised that completion and submission of the survey implied consent. The survey was specifically designed so that a participant was free to withdraw at any time or could choose not to answer any particular question.

No Harm

Given the nature of the research topic, it was considered unlikely that there would be any physical, psychological or social harm resulting from the completion of the survey.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

The issues of confidentiality and anonymity in the age of the internet have been raised by numerous authors (Dillman, 2000; Gosling, Vazire, Srivasta, & John, 2004; Nosek, Banjani, & Greenwald, 2002; Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2002). Web based surveys are seen to offer many advantages over email surveys in this respect, although *cookies* can be used to log the details of respondents (Tolich, 2001). Respondents were therefore assured in the Information Sheet that replies were confidential, and that no one other than the researcher would view the individual responses. To ensure this, the administration page of the survey where the data was retrieved was both username and password protected. In this way, only the researcher was able to access the data.

The second page of the survey was a log-in page where the respondent was asked to choose a username and password. The username was unique to the respondent and the password protected the data they entered. These also gave the participant the option of returning to the survey if interrupted at any time. While the username was linked to the responses, there was no way of identifying the respondent.

Respondents were, however, asked if they would be willing to be contacted further about some of the issues raised in the research, and if so, to provide a contact email address. Thus, respondents were given the option of relinquishing their anonymity. Around 60% of respondents did provide a contact address.

Privacy

The ethical principle of privacy is linked to both informed consent and confidentiality, but extends to include the right to be free from intrusion

(de Cew, 2004). Although some participants did provide contact addresses, this information remains available only to the research and would not be provided to others.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has described the details of the approach involved in this cross-sectional study. It has discussed the target population, the measures and the research process followed. Finally, the ethical procedures followed throughout the research were detailed.

The next four chapters will focus on the analysis and discussion of the data. The following chapter, Chapter Five, examines the characteristics, location and employment of the respondents.

CHAPTER 5

SELF-INITIATED MOBILITY

This chapter is the first of four chapters that present the key findings of the survey. As in most surveys of this nature, a considerable amount of information on a wide variety of factors has been collected. The present study is no exception and endless evaluations and cross-tabulations could be conducted. However, the research objectives for this study focus on mobility and the motives that influence mobility, so these aspects will be central to the analyses.

This particular chapter introduces the respondents, describing both personal and work-related information, and examining the influence of these demographic and employment factors on mobility.

5.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

Gender

A total of 2,608 usable responses were received. Of these, 52.5% were male and 47.5% female. This is a similar breakdown to the Permanent and Long Term departures for the year ended 2007. Expatriation figures show a clear dominance of men being mobile (GMAC Global Relocation Services, 2006), although Suutari and Brewster (2000) predicted that self-initiated movement would result in a less distinct distribution of men and women. The breakdown in this research certainly provided evidence for this prediction.

Further, it is suggested that for self-initiated movers, women may be at least equally represented. The focus of this research is on people who are employed in the workforce which excludes those people looking after children in the home – most often women. It may, therefore, have been anticipated that women would be under-represented in this study, reflecting Kofman's (2000) invisibility of skilled women, but this was not the case. If an allowance was to be made for women who are living abroad, but who were currently working in the home, the percentage of women would be increased.

The literature also identified the man as having the lead role in mobility (Harvey, 1995) making it more difficult for the trailing spouse to obtain employment. The unemployed are also excluded from this research; so again, women could expect to be underrepresented. The finding of a fairly equal split, even with the focus on employed people, provides clear support for Suutari and Brewster's (2000) proposition of a self-initiated population with a more even gender distribution.

Figure 5.1 shows a breakdown of mobility by gender. These differences between men and women were statistically significant ($p < .01$). Nearly half of the respondents had moved only once. Women were more likely than men to have moved only once, and men dominate those who have moved more than three times.

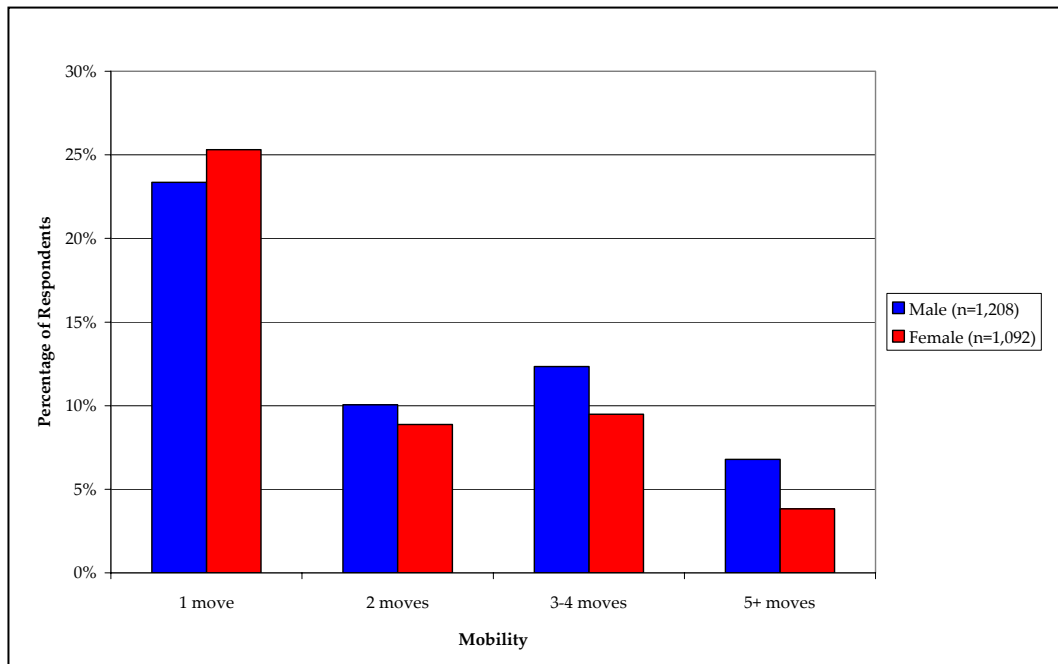


Figure 5.1. Mobility of Respondents by Gender.

Age

The mean age of the respondents is 36.93 years ($SD=9.85$, $n=2,297$). Men are, on average, older than the women, with respective ages of 38.77 years ($SD=10.19$, $n=1,208$) and 34.91 years ($SD=9.05$, $n=1,092$, $p<.01$). The age ranges from 20–74, with a median age of 34. The median age for the current New Zealand population living in New Zealand at the last census (2006) was slightly higher than this at 35.9 years.

The distribution by age group for this population is shown in Figure 5.2. It shows an higher representation in the 20–29 and 30–39 age groups, with the 30–39 age group being disproportionately large, representing 43.9% of total respondents. This age distribution is similar to those in both the Inkson et al. (2004) and the KEA (2006) surveys, reinforcing the finding that international movements are most common in the early age groups.

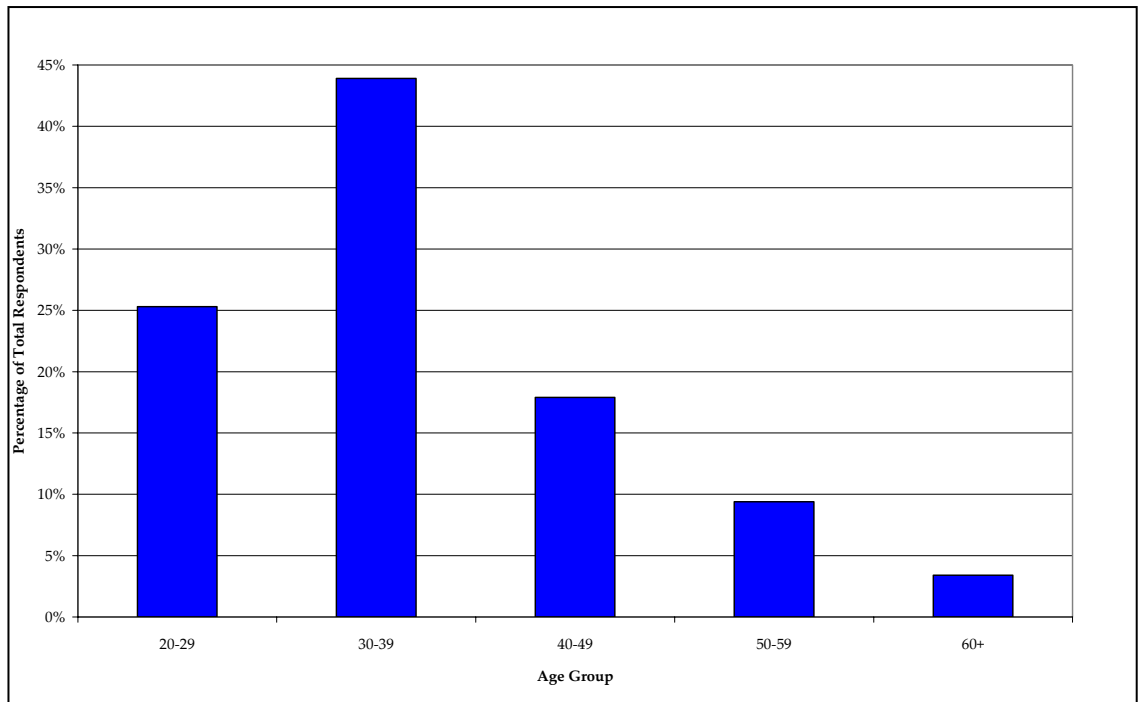


Figure 5.2. Age Groups of Respondent Population.

A breakdown of age groups by mobility (Table 5.1) indicates that younger respondents tend to be less mobile with most having only moved once, perhaps reflecting the OE-type of mobility where people go to one central destination and take the opportunity to travel from there.

Mobility increases with age, with older people more likely to have moved more times. The most mobile groups are those in the 40–49, 50–59 and 60+ age groups with 9.2%, 13.9% and 14.1% respectively having moved five or more times.

Table 5.1.

Mobility within Age Groups

Age Group	Number of Moves			
	1 move	2 moves	3–4 moves	5+ moves
20–29	60.5%	19.4%	19.2%	0.9%
30–39	47.3%	19.2%	27.1%	6.4%
40–49	40.8%	19.4%	30.6%	9.2%
50–59	41.2%	18.5%	26.4%	13.9%
60+	42.3%	11.5%	32.1%	14.1%

Age was found to be strongly positively associated with length of time mobile ($r=0.702$), with the number of years spent away from New Zealand increasing as age increases (Figure 5.3). Length of time mobile, however, relies heavily on the recollection of the respondent and is not as reliable as age. Age is, therefore, the variable that is used in these analyses.

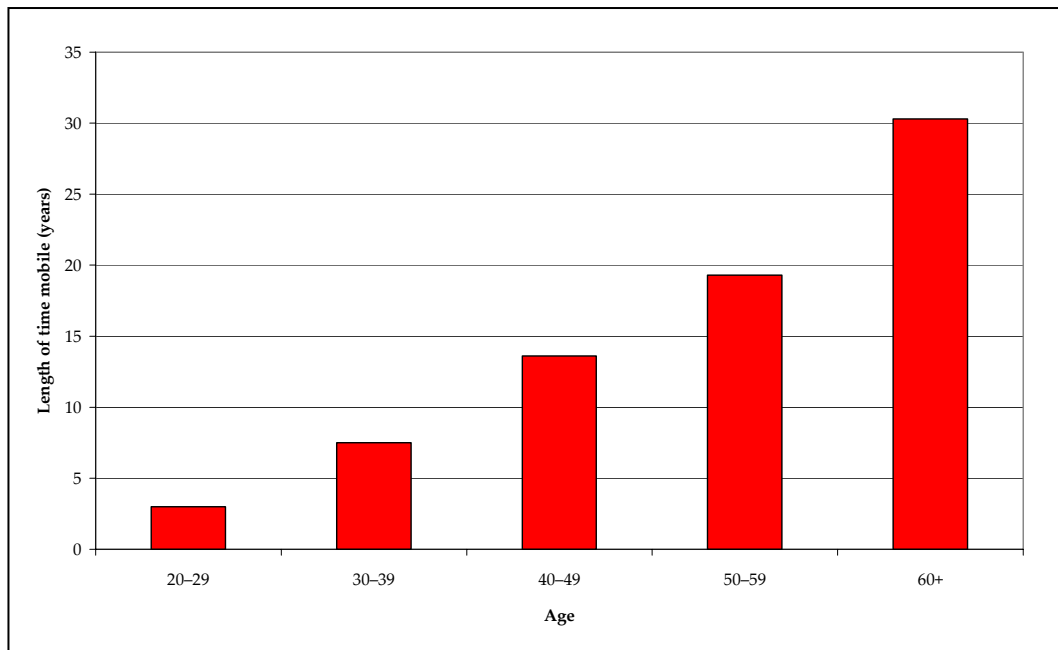


Figure 5.3. Total Time Mobile by Age.

Education Levels

This research targeted highly educated New Zealanders. Previous studies had shown that New Zealanders abroad are highly educated (Inkson et al., 2004; Kiwi Expatriate Association, 2006; Milne et al., 2001), and it was therefore anticipated that the education levels in this group would be high. Table 5.2 shows the findings from this study. The astounding factor here is that 8.3% of the population have a PhD and a further 27.9% a postgraduate qualification, totalling 36.2%. In the New Zealand resident population at the last census, the equivalent statistic is 4.9% (Statistics New Zealand, 2007a).

Table 5.2.
Education Levels of Respondents

Education Level	% (<i>n</i> =2,575)
Doctorate	8.3
Postgraduate degree or diploma	27.9
Bachelor's degree	44.5
Certificate or diploma from tertiary institution	9.3
Advanced trade or advanced national certificate	5.6
Trade certificate or national certificate	4.4

A breakdown of mobility by education level (Figure 5.4) showed a relatively consistent effect across all education levels. A Kruskal-Wallis analysis revealed that the differences in education levels by mobility are not significant ($p > 0.05$ for all mobility groups). The lack of variation in this breakdown indicates that amongst the highly educated, the actual level of education is not important for mobility. No further analysis by education will, therefore, be undertaken.

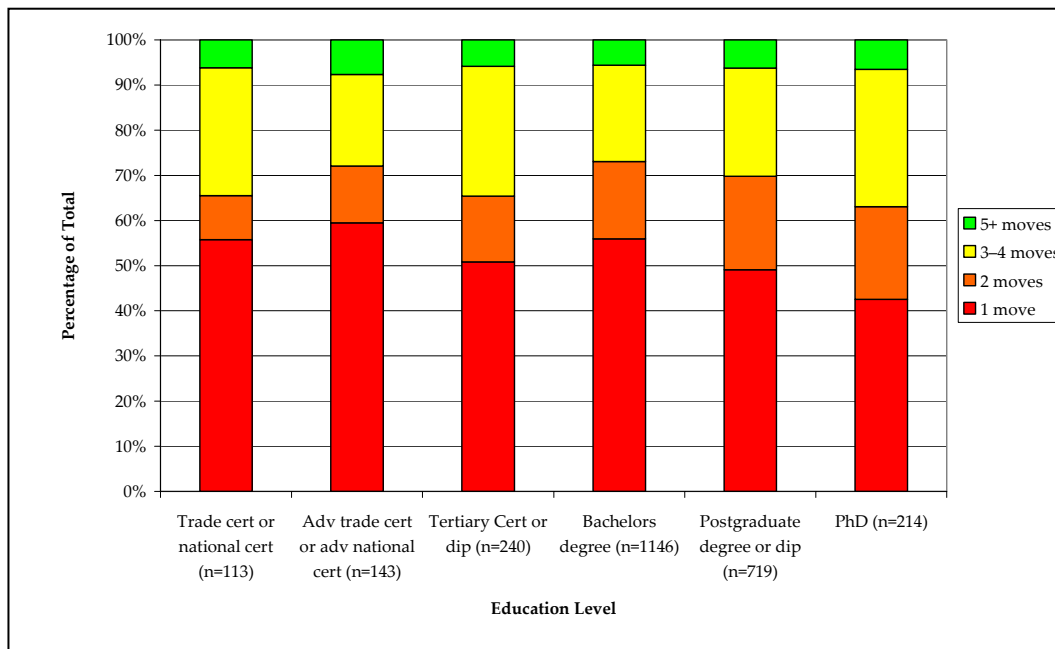


Figure 5.4. Educational Levels by Mobility.

Country of Birth

The majority of respondents (90.2%, $n=2,322$) were born in New Zealand, with a further 4.3% born in the UK, 1.2% in Australia and 0.6% in the USA. The remaining 4% were born in 38 different countries spanning the world from Macedonia to Ethiopia and Nepal. Most have retained New Zealand citizenship (96.2%, $n=2,198$), with 36.4% of these holding dual citizenship (New Zealand and another country).

Marital Status

Most respondents were married or partnered (67.8%, $n=2,320$) with the remaining 32.1% being single. Marital status also has little impact on mobility ($p>.05$), with the patterns of mobility of the two groups being very similar (Figure 5.5).

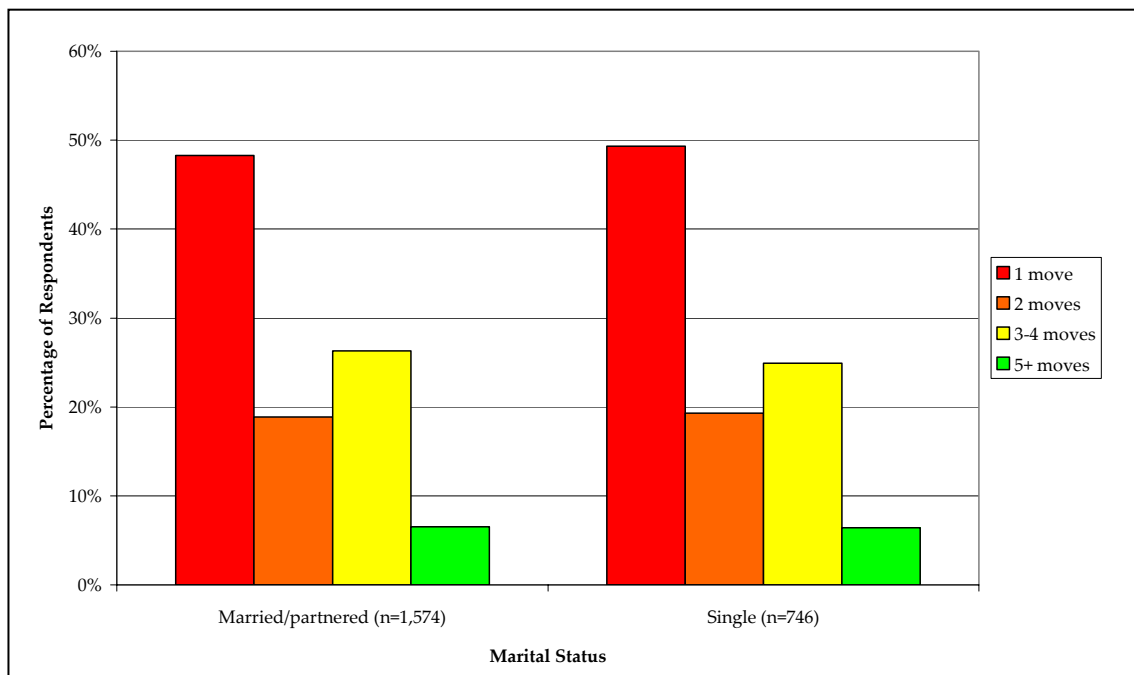


Figure 5.5. Marital Status by Mobility.

Of those who are partnered, the partners are often New Zealand citizens (65.3%, $n=1,195$), although nearly a third of these also hold dual

citizenship. The remaining 34.7% of respondents were partnered with someone from a country other than New Zealand. Banai and Harry (2005) and Scott (2004) found that marriage to a host national reduced the likelihood of a return to the home country and this may have implications for a return to New Zealand. As some respondents commented:

I would really love to return home to New Zealand; however my English wife prefers living in the UK so I have made the sacrifice to stay living here in the UK. If I wasn't married I would be living in New Zealand.

The main reason I am still in the UK is because my husband is English and I have not yet persuaded him to return.

Dependants

The impact of dependants on mobility is more pronounced. Only 29.2% of respondents had dependants living with them. For those who did have dependants, the number ranged from one to eight, with a mean of 1.85 (SD=.982, $n=631$). The fact that such a small percentage of respondents had dependants may, in itself, reflect an impact of dependants on mobility – that having dependants limits mobility. Figure 5.5 shows the frequency of mobility by the number of dependants.

Respondents with no dependants are more likely to be on their first move – a factor that probably correlates with age. Having up to three dependants appears to have very little impact on mobility at all ($p>.05$), with the breakdown by number of movements closely reflecting the total mobility (far right hand column). The key impact on mobility, however, is whether or not there are dependants ($p<.01$).

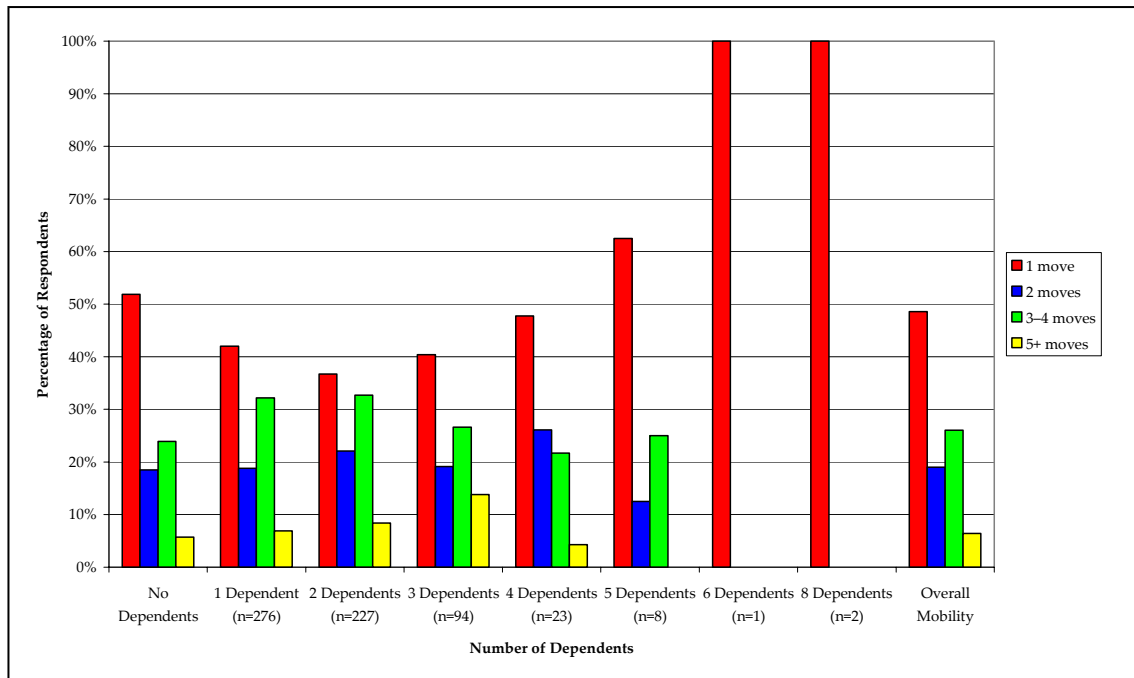


Figure 5.6. Frequency of Mobility by Number of Dependants.

Earlier European research suggests that dependants may limit mobility more for women than for men (Ackers, 2003; Barker & Monks, 1998). To investigate this further, a breakdown of the average number of dependants by frequency of mobility and gender was undertaken. The first finding from this breakdown is that these men who are mobile are twice as likely to have dependants as women (38.3%, $n=1,138$ compared with 19.0%, $n=1,020$).

The second finding, illustrated in Table 5.3, is that within each mobility group, the average number of dependants for women is less than for men ($p<.01$ for each mobility group). In other words, of these mobile respondents who have dependants, men are likely to have more, providing reinforcement for Ackers' and Barker and Monks' research.

Table 5.3.

Average Number of Dependants by Frequency of Mobility and Gender

Mobility	Male (n=435)		Female (n=194)	
	M	SD	M	SD
1 move	1.94	1.14	1.80	1.01
2 moves	1.92	0.95	1.68	0.58
3 - 4 moves	1.85	0.86	1.57	0.84
5+ moves	2.02	0.99	1.29	0.48

5.2 Location of Respondents

The respondents are spread over 93 countries including Mongolia, Sudan, Andorra and Uzbekistan, although the majority were resident in the predominantly English-speaking countries of the UK (40.7%), Australia (20.6%), the US (11.8%), Canada (3.8%) and the Republic of Ireland (2.2%). Appendix F shows a full list of countries in which respondents are living.

Figure 5.7 shows a breakdown of distribution by continent. This split reflects the dominance of the countries above, with nearly 50% currently resident in Europe, and around 21% in Oceania. Of this latter group, 99.9% are located in Australia. South America and Africa both have less than 1% of the total respondents, although there are nine and eight countries respectively represented in each of these continents.

Nearly all respondents are working in the same country as they were residing. Some, however, are commuting across national boundaries. In these instances, the latter country is often a developing nation, or a nation where there is considerable development and construction. For example, people living in Australia are working in Indonesia, South Korea, Papua

New Guinea and the United Arab Emirates. They are often employed in the construction industry or as aid workers.

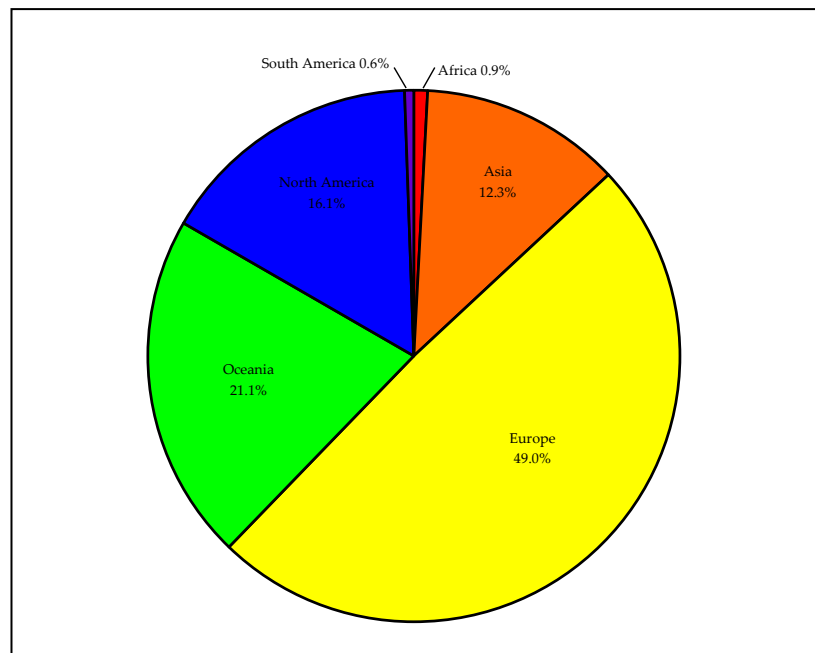


Figure 5.7. Distribution of Respondents by Continent.

The impact of economic integration, particularly in the EU, is also evident. People resident in the UK are working in the Czech Republic, Poland and Hungary and of the 11 respondents living in Spain, five of these are working outside the country in Norway, Australia, Ireland and the UK, reflecting either the difficulty of obtaining work in Spain, or the desirability of Spain as a country in which to live.

Nearly 80% of respondents who have moved only once are based in just three countries, with 46.6% in the UK, 21.1% in Australia and 10.6% in the USA. The range of countries respondents are resident in increases with three or more moves, incorporating countries which have more difficult living conditions and increased risks. These countries include Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo, East Timor, Israel, Kyrgyzstan and Sri

Lanka. A few people on their first move, however, have gone to countries that could be considered high risk with respondents in Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Iraq and Mozambique.

On average, respondents have lived in their country of residence for nearly six years (mean=71.1 months, SD=84.2). Figure 5.8 shows the decade respondents were last living and working in New Zealand.

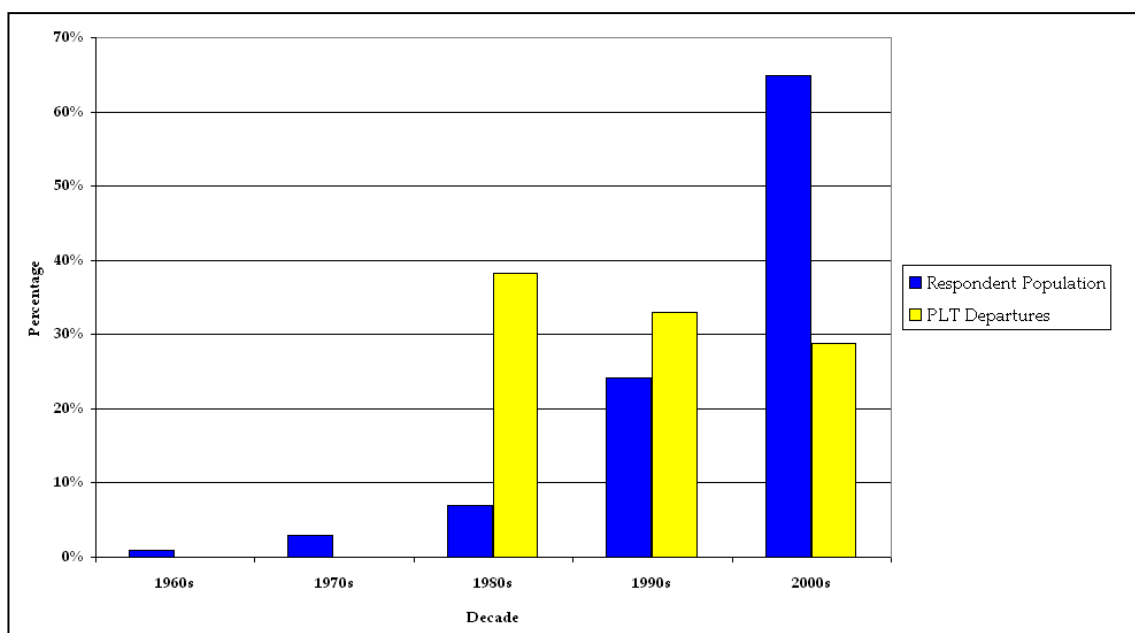


Figure 5.8. Decade in which Respondent Last Lived and Worked in New Zealand against Total PLT Citizens Departing New Zealand.

Nearly a quarter left in the 1990s, with a further 65% leaving this decade. While the graph shows an exponential increase in the numbers who left over time, this rate of increase is not echoed in the numbers of New Zealand citizens who have left on a permanent or long term (PLT) basis since the records began in 1979. The national statistics show a much more even flow out of the country as is also shown on the graph (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). The exponential growth probably, therefore, represents the level of interest in New Zealand, with those who

have left most recently being more connected to New Zealand and more interested in participating in this research.

Finally from a geographical perspective, respondents were asked where they thought they would be living in five years time and the findings are shown in Figure 5.9. This shows that there was intention to return to New Zealand by 35% of the respondents. Around 22% still intended being mobile, living in another country, while the remaining 43% anticipated being in their current country.

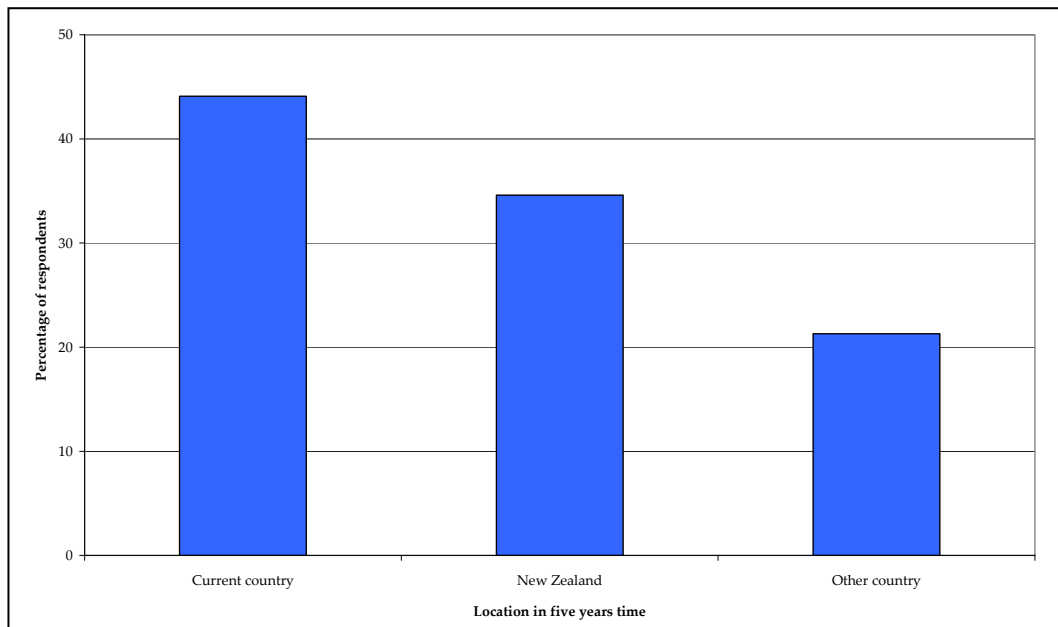


Figure 5.9. Where Respondents think they will be living in Five Years

The proportion anticipating return is noticeably lower than the 46% found by Inkson et al. (2004) which could be explained by the tighter time frame for return in this research. The Inkson study did not specify a time frame, so people anticipating retiring in New Zealand, for example, would have indicated an intention to return.

When location in five years is analysed by mobility, an interesting distinction arises (Table 5.4). Those who have moved just once were more likely to envisage living in either their current country (45.2%, $n=1,104$) or New Zealand (37.5%) in five years time and less likely to consider another country. At the other end of the spectrum, those who have moved five or more times thought they were likely to be living in their current country (35.3%) or in another country (34.3%). They were least likely to be planning a return to New Zealand.

Table 5.4.

Where Respondents will be Living in Five Years Time by Mobility

	Current Country	New Zealand	Other Country
1 move	45.2%	37.5%	17.3%
2 moves	39.7%	33.4%	26.9%
3–4 moves	44.6%	32.3%	23.1%
5+ moves	35.3%	30.7%	34.0%

The literature also suggested that citizenship would have an impact on mobility, and those with citizenship of the country in which they were living would be less mobile than those who do not. Figure 5.10 graphs mobility and the expected country of residence in five years time by citizenship. Respondents who are citizens of their new country of residence are more likely to have moved only once, than those who are not, confirming that citizenship limits mobility.

Further, those who are not citizens of their country of residence were more likely to have moved more often than their counterparts. They are also more likely to expect to be living in another country in five years time, and hence they do not anticipate that their travels are over. Those who are citizens of their host country anticipate being there still in five

years time. Interestingly, exactly the same percentage of each group anticipates being in New Zealand in five years time, suggesting that while citizenship of the host country may restrict mobility, it does not rule out the possibility of a return to the home country. All respondents had maintained their New Zealand citizenship alongside the one from their host country.

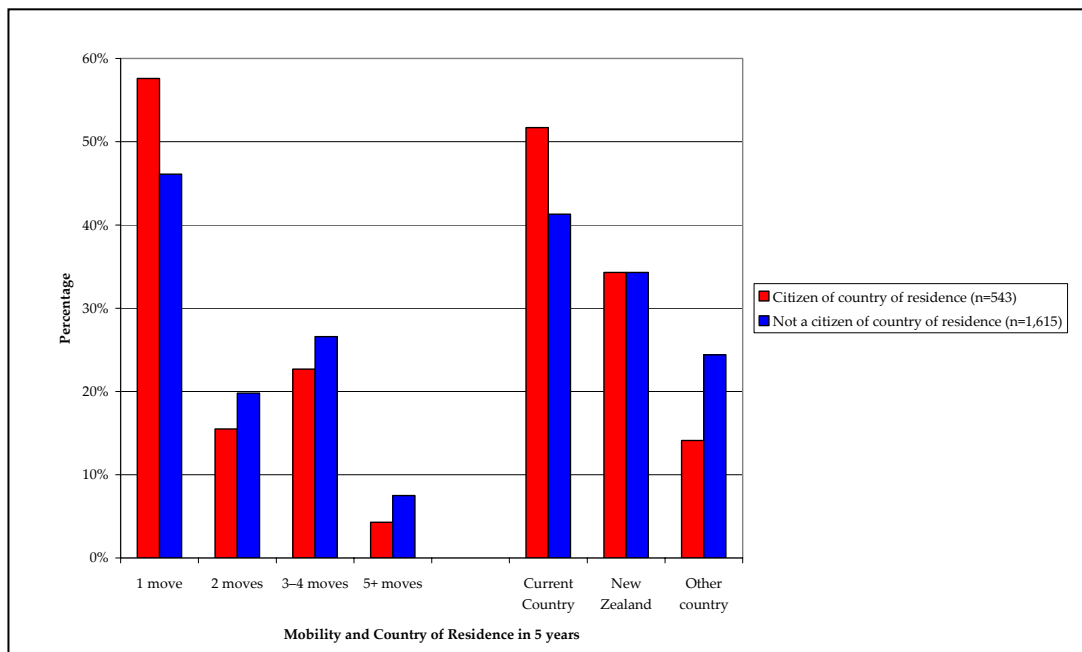


Figure 5.10. Citizenship by Mobility and Country of Residence in five years.

5.3 Mobility Patterns

Respondents were asked to record each country they had lived and worked in. Amongst the highly mobile (those who have moved five or more times), two key patterns of movement are discernible. The first key pattern is those who move between countries, with little revisiting. These people fit the description of Citizens of the World, a term referring to people who have ‘intense international contacts’ and who consider

themselves as part of a unified world (Frenk & Gomez-Dantes, 2002, p. 160). Movements are viewed as being from one part of the world to another as opposed to being across national boundaries. Of the 252 respondents who were highly mobile, 122 fit this pattern. Figure 5.11 shows an example of this pattern from one of the respondents, illustrated in what Beaverstock (2005) refers to as ‘spatial trajectories’, and in this instance, spanning a period of 23 years.

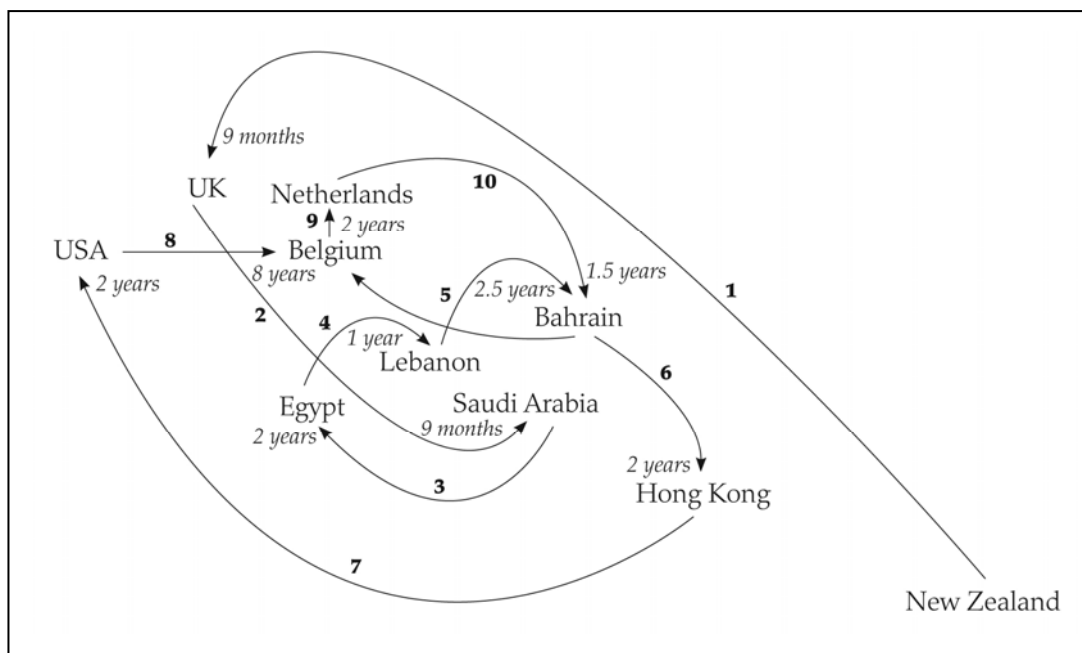


Figure 5.11. Spatial Trajectory of a Citizen of the World.

The second key pattern has not been identified previously, and is labelled the Boomerang Mover. This pattern is one of returns to the home country (as a boomerang returns to its sender) interspersed with moves to other countries and 109 respondents displayed this movement. An example of this pattern of movement from one of the respondents is shown in Figure 5.12. This respondent’s movements cover a period of 27 years, and, with

one exception, show a return to New Zealand between movements to other countries.

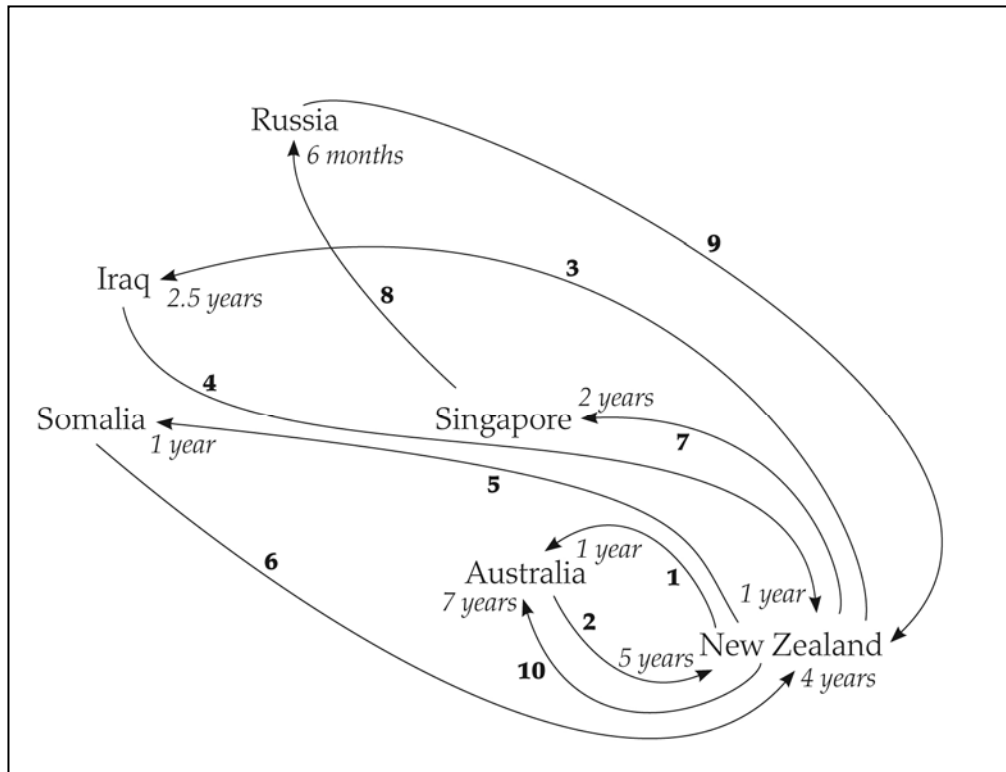


Figure 5.12. Spatial Trajectory of a Boomerang Mover.

The remaining 21 respondents displayed elements of both patterns and could not be classified.

An examination of the characteristics of the Citizens of the World and the Boomerang Movers (Appendix G) reveals few distinguishing features between respondents. The noticeable differences are:

- The Citizens of the World category are more likely to be male with only 29.6% of respondents being female. Boomerang Movers are more evenly divided with 56.7% male and 43.3% female. The average age for both groups is similar at 42.5 (SD=10.4) and 41.5 (SD=11.0) years respectively ($p>.05$).

- Boomerang Movers are more likely to be employed in a professional occupation (66.1% compared with 56.2%). They are also more likely to have applied for their current position from another country. The Citizens of the World, on the other hand, has an over-representation of managers (31.4% compared with 22.9%), who are more likely to have been sent by their company to their present position. These people are more likely than Boomerang Movers to have used networks and contacts to find their position.
- Nearly one quarter of the Boomerang Movers are employed in the education sector, being either academics or teachers. While the mobility of academics has been discussed by a number of authors (Dowd & Kaplan, 2005; Morano-Foadi, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2002, 2006; Richardson & Zikic, 2007), the pattern seen here of repeat returns to the home country has not previously been discussed. Further, the education sector was under-represented amongst Citizens of the World suggesting that this boomerang pattern may be the usual movement for New Zealand education workers.
- The manufacturing and construction industries are over-represented in the Citizens of the World category implying that these people move to where the work or next project is located. Citizens of the World are also more likely to be employed in temporary positions and on contracts.
- Only 21.5% of the Citizens of the World considered that they would be living in New Zealand in five years time, with a further 39.7% thinking they would be living in a different country. This clearly suggests that they have not yet finished their global travels. The Boomerang Movers, however, are more

evenly divided between being in the current country or back in New Zealand in five years time. Just over a fifth (20.8%) thought they might be in another country.

Overall, therefore, although there are two major and distinct patterns of mobility, it is difficult to differentiate between the demographic characteristics of the two groups of people. The analysis undertaken suggests that the main distinctions are the nature of the industry of employment and in the differing focus on the reasons for working and living abroad. Further investigation into the way these patterns of movement suit the individual's lifestyles and priorities is needed.

5.4 *Employment of the Respondents*

The survey included a range of questions regarding respondents' occupations, employment situations, industries, the organisations they work for and how they had obtained their positions.

Most of the respondents are in permanent positions (Table 5.5). A further 23.2% are employed in temporary positions. An examination of these temporarily-employed people against the length of time they have spent in their country of residence shows that two-thirds of these have been there less than three years. The breakdown by age also reveals a higher proportion of temporary workers amongst the youngest age group. It is likely, therefore, that this group encompasses those on their OE seeking temporary employment to fund travel.

Table 5.5.
Employment Situation of Respondents

	Employment Situation (%)		
	Permanent	Temporary	Self -Employed
Total	65.9	23.2	10.9
Gender			
Male	66.6	19.8	13.5
Female	65.2	26.9	8.0
Age			
20–29	63.4	33.2	3.5
30–39	69.5	21.5	8.9
40–49	66.8	16.2	17.0
50–59	62.0	18.8	19.2
60+	47.4	17.1	35.5

Men are more likely to be self-employed than women. Self-employment also shows a positive relationship with age, with the older age groups more likely to be self-employed than the younger groups. Of the self-employed respondents, nearly two-thirds have been living in that country for five or more years, suggesting an establishment time is necessary before setting up a business in a new country.

Figure 5.13 shows the current occupational category for the respondents. The population targeted is highly educated New Zealanders, so it is not surprising that over 82% are employed as either managers or professionals. What is surprising, perhaps, is the very low capture rate of technicians and trade workers (4.5%), a group which was also targeted. This could be explained by the fact that trade workers are required to deregister from their trade organisation when they leave New Zealand and reregister in their host country. Tracing these people was, therefore, not as easy as it is with professions, who remain affiliated with their New Zealand organisation.

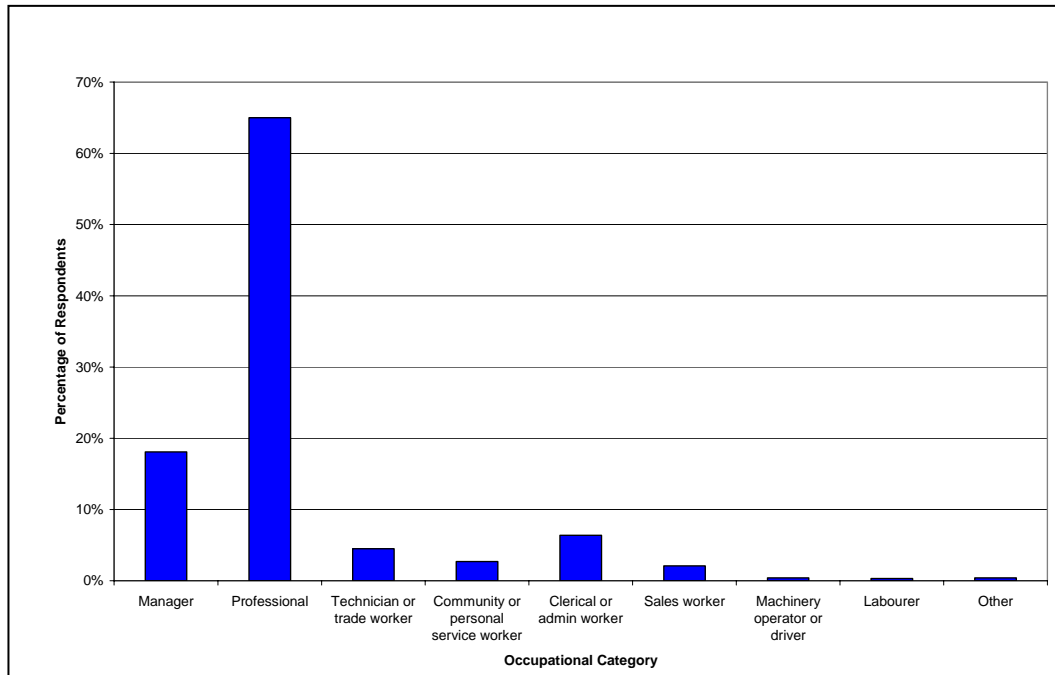


Figure 5.13. Occupational Category of Respondents.

Temporary workers are more likely to be employed as community, clerical or sales workers. They are also over-represented in the highest mobility group suggesting that these may be contract workers moving from job to job and country to country.

Table 5.6 shows the type of organisation the respondents work for. Just over 40% work in a privately-owned company, with a further 15% in companies listed on the stock exchange. The surprising finding is that 21.5% work for government departments, perhaps reflecting the high level of secondments that occur between different countries' government departments, particularly between New Zealand and Australia and the UK. Of the 557 people working for government departments, 45.9% of these were in the UK with a further 20.9% in Australia.

Table 5.6.
Frequency Distribution of Organisation Type

Organisation Type	% (n=2,590)
Privately owned company	40.1
Government department	21.5
Company on stock exchange	15.1
Local government	11.0
Publicly funded organisation	9.3
Not-for-profit organisation	2.9

Fewer than 3% work for not-for-profit organisations, mostly in paid positions, but a few respondents specifically mentioned that they were volunteers.

Respondents are working across the full range of industries as shown in Table 5.7. The education sector includes both teachers and academics and is the largest industry represented here. The high numbers of managers and professionals are reflected in the finance and insurance and property and business services categories.

A surprisingly high number of respondents are involved in the mining and utilities industries. The latest available census data indicates that around 0.2% and 0.3% of the New Zealand population respectively are employed in these industries (Statistics New Zealand, 2007b). It is likely, therefore, that these people may have left New Zealand to find employment in their specialised field. This is reflected in some of the comments made by respondents –

I have developed a career in the Mining Industry which is difficult to transfer to New Zealand and most probably impossible to transfer to New Zealand and earn the same salary.

I work in the oil and gas industry. Opportunities at home are a bit limited in this field, and the pay rates are low, but we'll get home sometime!

Table 5.7.

Industry of Employment

Industry	% <i>n</i> =2,583
Education	15.6
Finance and insurance	14.2
Property and business services	14.0
Health and community services	9.9
Communication services	6.2
Construction	4.8
Manufacturing	4.8
Government administration and defence	4.6
Transport and storage	3.6
Cultural and recreation services	3.4
Information communication technology	3.2
Personal and other services	2.5
Mining	2.5
Retail trade	2.4
Electricity, gas, water or other utility	1.9
Hospitality	1.7
Wholesale trade	1.4
Farming, forestry and fishing	1.2

The impact of employment, the type of organisation and industry of employment on mobility are also examined (Appendix H) but the effects are not significant. The key observations are:

- Those least likely to have moved more than once include clerical or administration workers. The age, education level and length of time in the country of residence for these people suggest that many of these are OE-type travellers in their first position.

- The employing organisation has little impact on mobility. The exception is publicly-funded organisations (including research and academic institutions and hospitals) which are over-represented amongst the most mobile. This may be a reflection of the ‘expectation of mobility’ (Ackers & Gill, 2005; Morano Foadi, 2006) in academic and science careers.
- The industry the respondent is employed in has no impact on mobility. The only finding of potential interest is in the most mobile group, where respondents are more likely to be employed in the transport and storage or electricity, gas and water industries. The respondent numbers are low, however, and care must be taken not to overstate the significance of this finding.

As occupation, organisation and industry of employment have limited impact on mobility, no further analysis will be undertaken on these characteristics.

Respondents were asked how they obtained their current position and Table 5.8 shows their responses. The most common method is to apply for the specific position while residing in that same country (41.2%). A further 9.7% also applied for the specific position, but while living in a different country. Networks and contacts are used by around 21.0% of respondents, perhaps drawing on family or friends already abroad. Other methods mentioned by respondents included door knocking, being elected to the position or through a spouse or partner.

Table 5.8.
How Respondents Obtained Current Position

Method Utilised	Total % <i>n</i> =2,608*
Applied for the specific job from within current country	41.2
Through networks and contacts	21.0
'Headhunted' or asked to apply	19.0
Applied for the specific job from within another country	9.7
Obtained a contract	9.2
Your company asked you to take this position and you were happy to do so	6.8
Serendipity/chance	6.2
Through recruitment agencies	5.3
Self-employment	2.1
Your company asked you to take this position and you felt you had to take it	0.6

* Numbers will not add to 100 as multiple responses were possible

Only 17 respondents (0.6%) are in the situation of having been sent overseas by their company as expatriates and felt that they were not in a position to refuse the posting. This is surprising given the emphasis in the literature on expatriation and clearly highlights the dominance and importance of self-initiated mobility for New Zealanders. While these people are not included in the analysis, this finding reinforces Harris and Brewster's (1999) assertion that most international postings are either subtly or overtly initiated by the individual and are, therefore, positively received.

Figure 5.14 shows a breakdown of how respondents obtained their current position by mobility. There are few significant differences between the mobility groups. Those who have moved five or more times are least likely to use recruitment agencies and least likely to have applied for a specific job in the current country.

The less mobile respondents all show a similar breakdown with nearly 50% of each mobility group either applying for specific positions or obtaining their position through recruitment agencies. As there is little impact on mobility, this factor will not be analysed further.

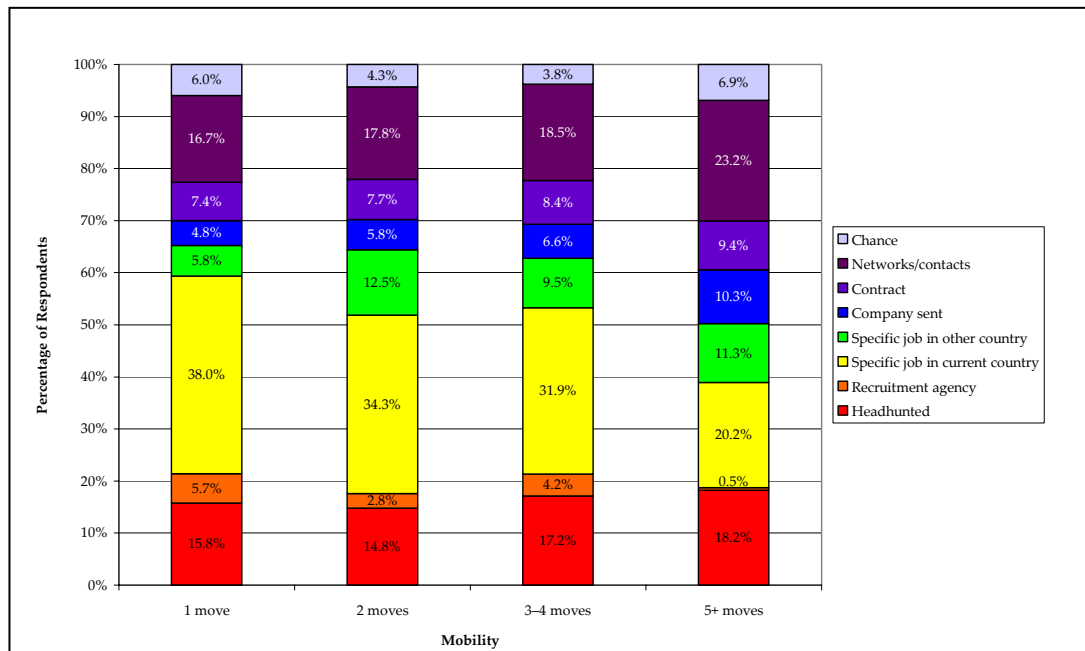


Figure 5.14. Breakdown of How Respondents Obtained Current Position by Mobility.

Just over half of the respondents (51.3%, $n=2,400$) have previous experience working abroad, while the remaining 48.7% are on their first move. Not unexpectedly, the younger the respondent, the less likely that they had worked abroad previously.

Respondents were asked at what stage they considered their career to be at, and this is shown with age in Figure 5.15. Those aged less than 40 consider they are in either the early career or mid career phases, those between 40 and 59 in the mid or late career phases, and those over 60 split fairly evenly between late career and career disengagement.

Overall, 49.5% consider they are mid career, 23.0% early career, and 15.7% late career. Only 2.7% consider they are disengaging or phasing into retirement while the remaining 9.1% are transitioning into a different career. The correlation between career stage and age is strong ($r=.61$), with those who are oldest, most likely to be in late career stage and also most likely to have been the most mobile. As age is the most objective measure, career stage will not be examined further.

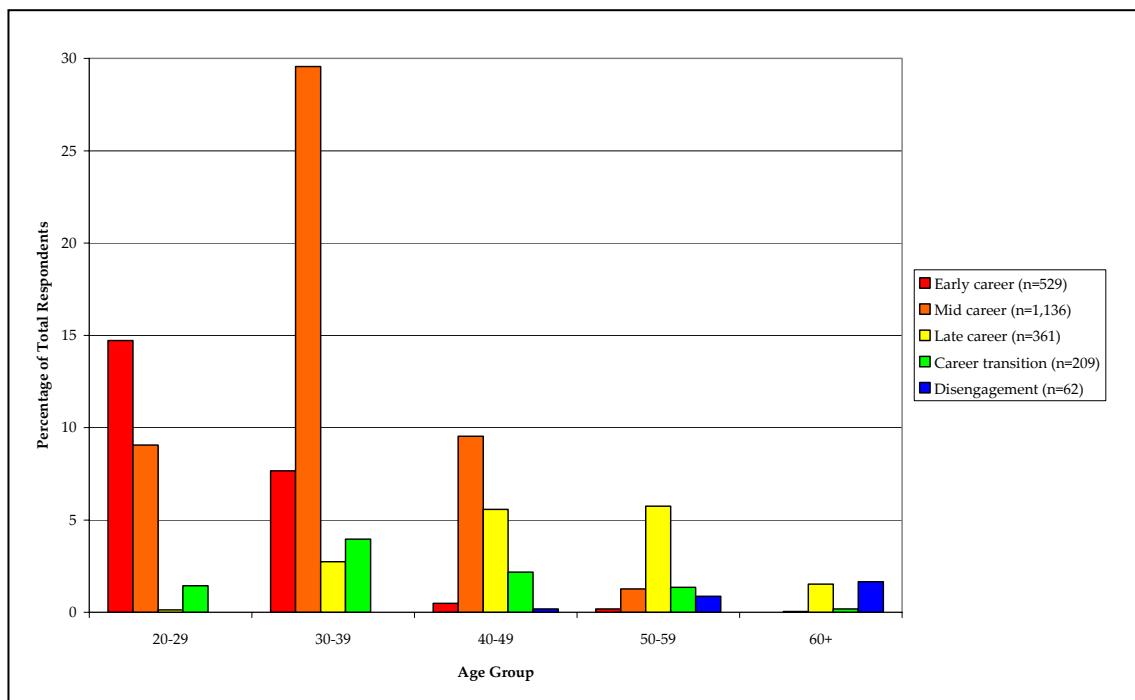


Figure 5.15. Age Group by Career Stage.

5.5 Internationalism as a Career Anchor

As discussed earlier, Suutari (2003) and his colleague (Suutari & Taka, 2004) proposed that the existence of another career anchor, Internationalism, should be investigated. Their interviews with global managers had raised the possibility that some people had always wanted to work in an international environment, and that their focus always had been global. This concept is succinctly summed up by one respondent –

...I blame (read 'thank') my headmaster at primary school in New Zealand who had taught in Tonga back in the 60s for putting the travel bug in me! I was just fascinated by the fact that there were other people in the world who spoke another language or ate different things to us. I didn't believe it after coming from Nelson (which incidentally I just love) where everyone looked like me, ate like me and lived like me. I just couldn't wait to go and see the world!

Table 5.9 shows the mean scores for each of the items for the total population, and by gender. The higher the score, the greater the level of agreement with the statement.

Table 5.9.
Internationalism Means

	Total <i>n</i> =2,297		Male <i>n</i> =1,206		Female <i>n</i> =1,091	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
From a young child, my dream was to work abroad	4.14	1.97	3.87	1.91	4.44	1.98
I am most fulfilled working with people from a range of cultures in an international environment	4.88	1.42	4.84	1.44	4.93	1.39
I seek out work opportunities by the country they are in rather than the specific nature of the job	3.37	1.72	3.32	1.72	3.42	1.71
I feel successful in my career only if I continue to develop new professional skills that can be utilised in an international context	4.42	1.73	4.55	1.74	4.27	1.69
Having a career that permits me to experience different cultures is important to me	4.82	1.57	4.79	1.61	4.86	1.52

Overall, none of the items received strong agreement, with most of the scores being in the slight agreement range (a score of 4). The exception is seeking work opportunities by country which tends towards slight disagreement. As one respondent specifically commented –

My contract work takes me all over the EU and I seldom work in London. The job opportunities appeal to me based on the nature of the assignment, and the contract period, rather than the location.

The differences between the genders are only significant for the first and fourth items ($p < .01$). Women are more inclined to agree with having dreamed of working abroad, although this is not the case for feeling successful through the development of skills in an international context.

In response to calls for a broader analysis of career anchors (Yarnall, 1998), the results are analysed by age, mobility, location and where the respondent thought they might be in five years time. Figure 5.14 shows a breakdown by the age of the respondents. There are several factors revealed in this graph.

- The concept of seeking jobs by the country in which they are located stands out as the item most people were either neutral or show slight disagreement about.
- In most cases, the highest level of agreement to the statements was for the 20–29 age group.
- The scores for the items ‘being fulfilled working with a range of cultures’ and ‘having a career that provides the opportunity to experience different cultures’ are relatively consistent across all age groups.
- The item ‘from a young child, my dream was to work abroad’ showed a steady decrease by age. It is not surprising that the younger age groups have had a concept of the rest of the world and a desire to be part of it, having been exposed to this by both virtual and perhaps through actual travel, with the benefits of cheaper air travel. One respondent’s comments exemplify this item –

I had always wanted to travel overseas – I dreamt about it, and expected it. As a child, our family was regularly visited by people from overseas so my view of what lay out there to be explored was quite

expansive. My parents have travelled a lot for both work and travel/adventure.

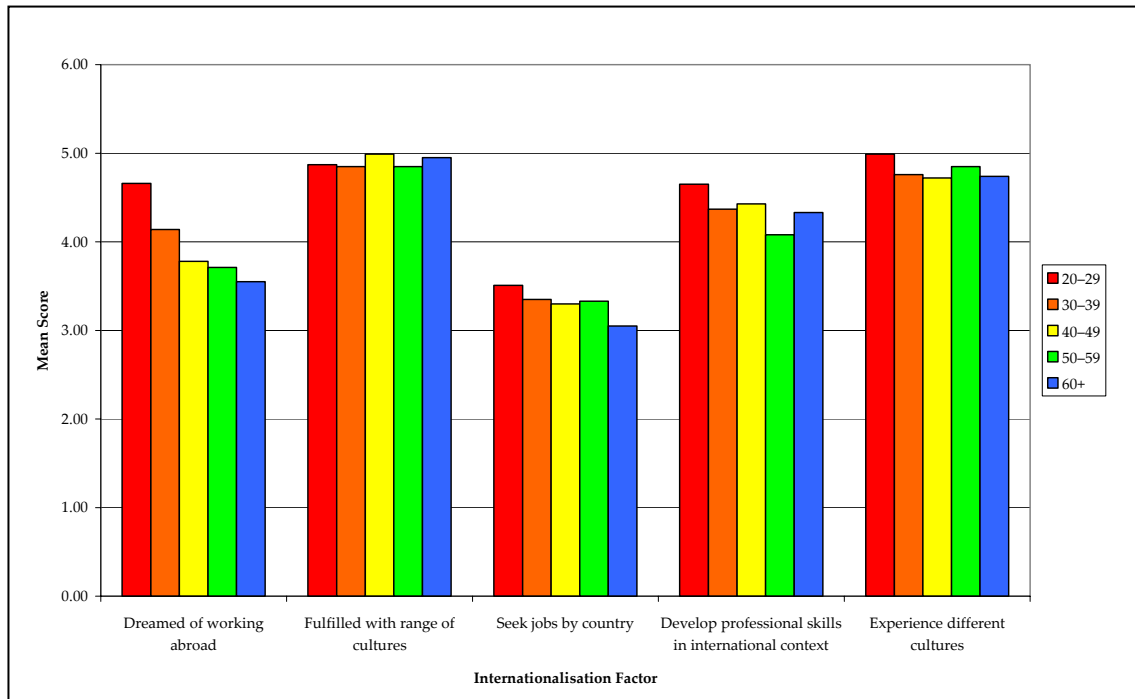


Figure 5.16. Internationalism Items by Age.

The breakdown by the number of times moved also shows some interesting features (Figure 5.17). First, the differences between the mobility groups are statistically significant ($p < .01$) for all but the item 'developing professional skills in an international context'. Second, the 'seeking jobs by country' item again shows the lowest score across all mobility groups. Third, there is a definite trend towards more agreement to the items as mobility increases. Fourth, the mean for the 'dreamed of working abroad item' is neutral for those who have only moved once, but received agreement from the other groups. There is clear evidence here to suggest that these items receive more agreement from those who are most mobile, and thus, that Internationalism may be an important career anchor for those who are frequent or multiple movers.

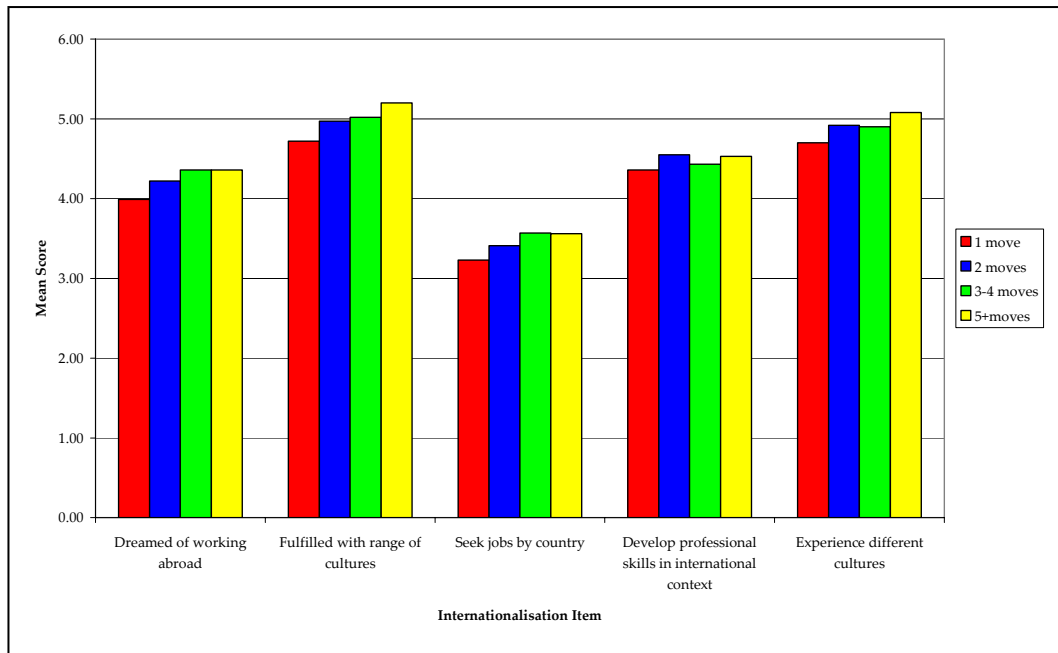


Figure 5.17. Internationalism Items by Mobility.

Suutari and Taka's (2004) proposition was that people for whom Internationalism may be important as an anchor are searching for new experiences in unfamiliar countries. They are most likely, therefore, to have moved to destinations different to their country of origin. The average score for the Internationalism items was, therefore, examined by the continent in which the respondent was currently living (Figure 5.18). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the differences between continents for each item are statistically significant ($p < .01$).

While the small sample sizes for both Africa and South America must be taken into account, there were still some interesting observations to be made. The means for Oceania (almost entirely Australia) and North America (predominantly the USA) are similar and the items show similar relativity with each other. The means for Europe are higher, showing a greater level of agreement for the Internationalism items and reflecting

perhaps the broader cultural diversity of Europe over North America or Oceania.

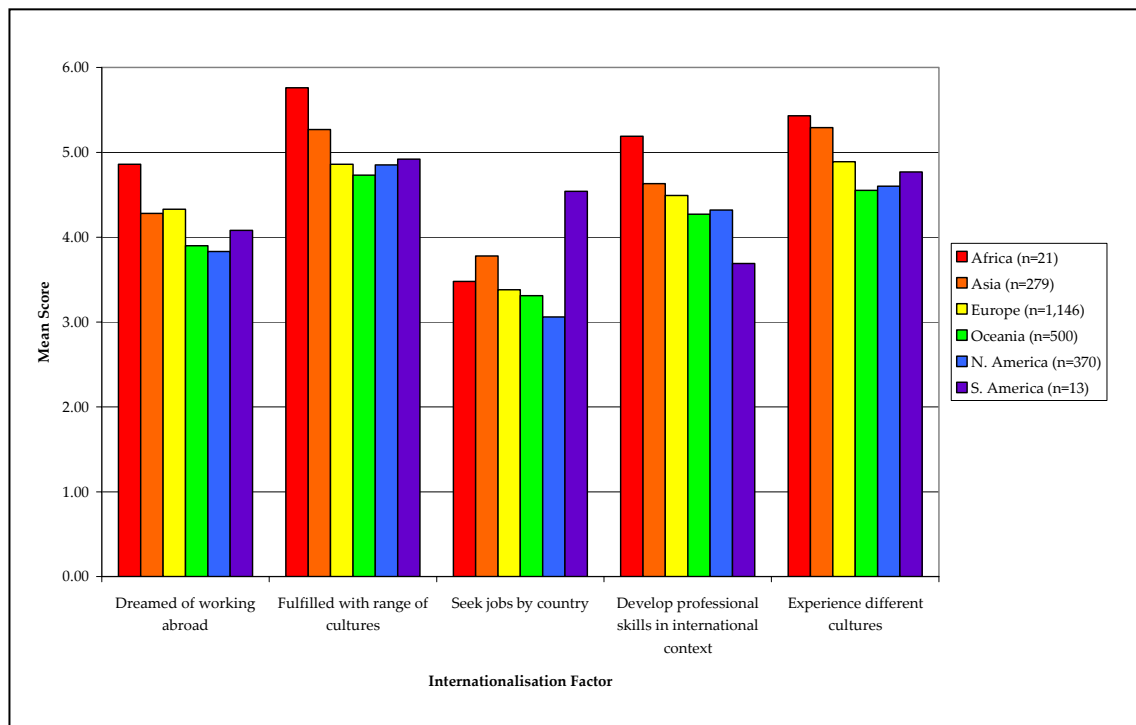


Figure 5.18. Internationalism Items by Continent of Residence.

There is a further increase in the means for Asia and again for Africa. A particularly high level of agreement for fulfilment working with a range of cultures is evident for Africa. The results from South America show a few inconsistencies with the other continents. The ‘development of professional skills in an international context’ item receives less agreement, while there is some agreement to the item on ‘seeking jobs by country’. This suggests that these respondents are more interested in experiencing a new country than in career progression.

A final breakdown by the location in which the respondents thought they might be living in five years time is shown in Figure 5.19. This determines if those who thought they would be mobile within this time

frame were more inclined to agree with the Internationalism items. All differences in the Figure are significant ($p < .01$).

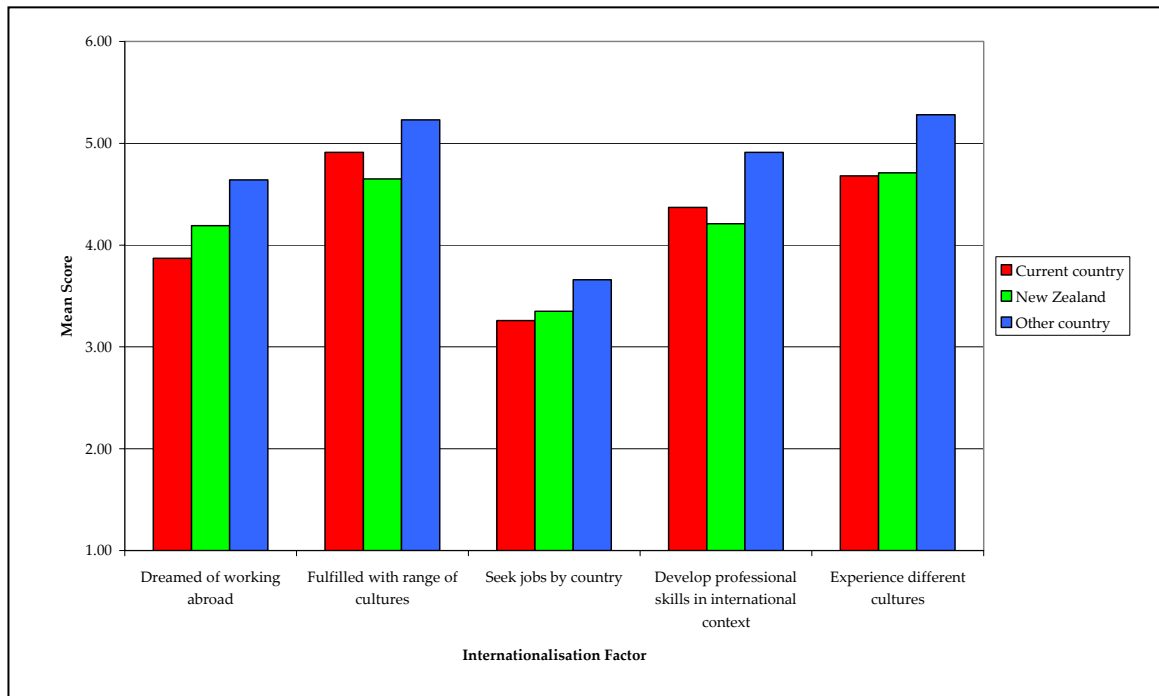


Figure 5.19. Internationalism Items by Location in Five Years.

Those who anticipate being in a different country to the one in which they are now living, clearly show higher agreement to the Internationalism items. The level of agreement to these items from those living in the current country or living in New Zealand is similar.

Overall, therefore, this analysis suggests that there may be a slight difference in men and women's receptiveness to Internationalism. Further, while it is recognised that this is not a longitudinal analysis, the trend of decreasing agreement with Internationalism evident in the age breakdown in this research shows support for Derr's (1986) theory that an anchor can change over time, and suggests that Internationalism might be a younger person's anchor. There is also clear support for Suutari and Taka's (2004) proposition in that those who are in most

agreement with the Internationalism items are located in countries with different cultures. This analysis also shows that those who are most mobile are most in agreement with the concept of Internationalism, suggesting that multiple mobility may well be a characteristic of this anchor.

The research also raises additional issues about both the Internationalism anchor and career anchors in general. First, it is suggested that the item regarding a focus on the location of the work rather than the specific nature of the work is out of synchrony with the other items. This could be because it does not accurately reflect the process of making a decision to be mobile. When faced with such a singular item, a respondent is likely to also consider the influences of family or the level of remuneration, and thus their level of agreement with the statement will be less. Rewording the statement to reflect the positive challenge of working in unfamiliar countries may provide more opportunity to address the specific issue. Hence, it is suggested that this item be changed to ‘the challenge of working in new and different countries is exciting for me.’

Second, empirical research is now required to determine how Internationalism stands in a full career anchor analysis against the other eight anchors. There is a need to examine whether an Internationalism anchor is recognised by enough people to stand as a primary career anchor in a discrete category, or whether it is secondary to, or overlapping with, existing anchors.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has contributed new empirical data about self-initiated movers, their personal characteristics, employment, location and previous movements. It has examined the influence of factors such as gender, age, marital status and dependants on mobility. The geographical location of the host country has been identified. The nature of the respondents' employment in the host country and the industry they are working in has also been considered to determine if there is a relationship between employment forms and the decision to be mobile.

Specifically, the results from this chapter suggest that women are, at least, equally likely as men to be self-initiated movers. Men, however, are more frequent movers, being over-represented amongst the highly mobile. Self-initiated mobility is also more likely to occur across the spectrum of ages, rather than focusing in a narrow band as for expatriates or OE movers.

Marital status has little impact on mobility, with both partnered and single people being mobile. Dependants do limit mobility somewhat, although it is the presence or absence of them that makes the difference. The actual number of dependants has little impact on mobility. However, there is a discernable difference in the influence of dependants by gender. Dependants limit mobility more for women than for men, and women who are mobile have fewer dependants than men.

An examination of the movements of those who are highly mobile reveals two clear patterns. Those who moved from one country to another, often with the countries having increasingly dissimilar cultures, are termed as

Citizens of the World. The Boomerang Movers on the other hand, tend to return to New Zealand in between postings to other countries. Analyses of the characteristics of these two groups, however, show no real distinction. The reasons why people choose to be mobile in these different patterns and whether there are other patterns of mobility are, therefore, identified as areas requiring further research.

The results do not show any clear relationship between the nature of employment and mobility. The occupational group, industry of employment and organisation type have little influence on mobility and will not be considered further.

Finally, this section provides clear empirical evidence to support the concept of Internationalism as a career anchor. Future research should focus on the integration of this anchor with other career anchors. The next chapter (Chapter 6) will examine the relative importance of the six motives that subjectively influence a decision to be mobile.

CHAPTER 6

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE MOTIVES

This chapter is the first to address Objective 1, examining the overall relative importance of the motives in relation to each other. It further examines the data for differences in the priorities of the motives between demographic characteristics such as age, gender and marital status.

6.1 Ranking of Motives

Six motives were developed out of the literature review of all sub-motives that might influence a decision to be mobile. This chapter examines the relative importance of these motives, using the data from the first allocation of points. Each of the motives scored the full range of points, from zero through to 100, and the figure used in this chapter is the average allocation of points to that motive.

Table 6.1 shows the relative importance of these motives. A Friedman test entailing all six repeated measures indicates that these allocations have not occurred by chance ($p < .01$). A post-hoc pair-wise analysis was then undertaken to determine where the differences between the motives lie. Starting at the bottom of Table 6.1, there are significant differences between each of the following motives - the political environment, quality of life, relationships and economics. There is also a significant difference between economics and the top two motives of cultural and travel opportunities, although there is no significant difference between these latter two motives ($p > .05$). Overall, therefore, it is concluded that cultural and travel opportunities and career are too similar to distinguish

between, but that together they differ from the other motives, and each of these latter ones differs from each other.

Table 6.1.
Relative Importance of Motives

Motive	Mean	SD
1 Cultural and Travel Opportunities	26.9 ^a	22.2
1 Career	25.1 ^a	20.7
3 Economics	20.4	18.2
4 Relationships	15.6	23.2
5 Quality of Life	8.9	12.5
6 Political Environment	3.0	8.3

^a These scores were not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

These findings contradict the earlier expatriate literature which rated economic factors as being most important in a decision to be mobile. Cultural and travel opportunities and career motives are clearly the most important for self-initiated mobility. At the other end of the scale, the political environment scored lowest, with an average of just 3.0.

Having identified the relative importance of the motives, the question then becomes whether there are differences in the importance of the motives between group variables. The next section examines this question.

Gender

The call for a gendered analysis of self-initiated mobility was noted in Chapter Two. The large sample size in this study provided the opportunity to address this issue. Table 6.2 shows a breakdown of the importance of the motives by gender. The Mann Whitney U Test which examines possible differences between two unrelated samples confirms

Table 6.2.
Relative Importance of Motives by Gender and Marital Status.

	Male (n=1,208)		Female (n=1,092)		Partnered (n=1,574)		Single (n=746)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	23.66	20.44	30.68	23.71	24.63	22.03	31.79	22.12
Career	27.37	21.51	23.05	19.84	24.82	21.34	26.67	20.06
Economics	22.30	18.79	18.61	17.73	20.40	18.71	20.75	17.58
Relationships	13.39	20.70	17.73	25.64	18.25	25.31	9.52	16.64
Quality of Life	9.35	12.64	8.09	12.27	8.89	12.83	8.49	11.88
Political Environment	3.98	9.97	1.84	5.69	3.01	8.34	2.85	8.13

Table 6.3.
Relative Importance of Motives by Number of Dependents.

	0 Dependents (n=1,533)		1 Dependent (n=276)		2 Dependents (n=226)		3 Dependents (n=94)		4 or more Dependents (n=34)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	30.87	22.64	18.12	17.29	17.04	20.44	16.26	17.43	17.21	17.07
Career	24.86	20.18	26.58	21.54	25.95	22.27	29.15	26.38	23.68	18.06
Economics	20.33	18.36	21.78	19.04	21.43	18.18	19.46	18.80	20.97	17.42
Relationships	13.81	21.58	19.77	26.81	17.66	25.85	20.89	29.60	18.53	23.50
Quality of Life	7.71	11.44	10.06	13.80	13.50	15.83	10.61	14.52	12.85	12.63
Political Environment	2.46	7.43	3.69	9.56	4.40	10.59	3.64	8.70	6.76	10.51

that there are significant differences between the men's and women's allocations ($p < .01$ for each motive). Men score career motives as being most important over cultural and travel opportunities. While economics remains the third highest motive, men rate this as more important than women. Cultural and travel opportunities are more important for women, as are relationships. Another difference is that although the political environment still scored lowest for both men and women, concerns about the political environment are more likely to influence a man's decision to be mobile.

Marital Status

Chapter Five indicated that there was a higher proportion of single people amongst self-initiated movers. An analysis by marital status, therefore, provides the opportunity to determine if the motives are different for these groups of people. Table 6.2 shows that there are some differences in the priorities of these motives when analysed by marital status. The differences are significant for three motives – career, cultural and travel opportunities and relationships ($p < .01$). Cultural and travel opportunities are more important to single people than partnered, perhaps reflecting the OE-type travel of younger people. Not surprisingly, relationships are more important to those who are partnered. However, those who are single still allocated some points to this motive, suggesting either that having family abroad had an influence on their decision, or they were in a relationship when they left New Zealand. Careers are more important to single people than to those who are partnered suggesting that not all single people fit into stereotype of the young, carefree OE-mover.

Dependants

The literature suggested that dependants can hinder mobility, so an analysis was undertaken to see if the motives for mobility were different. The impact of dependants on the priority of these motives is shown in Table 6.3. The Kruskal-Wallis Test which examines possible differences between more than two groups showed that the only significant differences are between those who have dependants and those who do not. The number of dependants does not significantly change the priorities. Further, the only motives impacted by dependants ($p < .01$) are cultural and travel opportunities (less important with dependants), relationships, quality of life and the political environment (all more important with dependants). Career and economic motives remain consistent whether or not there are dependants.

Age

Chapter Two suggested that self-initiated movers would have a wider spread of ages than expatriates. An analysis of the relative importance of the motives is, therefore, undertaken to see if the motives vary by age group. Table 6.4 shows the breakdown by age and reveals some interesting trends. The differences between the age groups for the motives of career, economics and relationships are not significant ($p > .05$) and will not be considered further. The differences between the various age groups and the other motives are, however, significant ($p < .01$).

The cultural and travel opportunities motive is scored higher by the 20–29 year age group, and decreases with increasing age, clearly showing the priorities of the OE-type mover. In a contrary trend, the importance of the political environment motive shows a strong trend of increasing with increasing age, being as important as the quality of life motive for those

Table 6.4.
Relative Importance of Motives by Age.

	20–29 (n=582)		30–39 (n=1,009)		40–49 (n=412)		50–59 (n=216)		60+ (n=78)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	35.80	22.44	26.97	21.23	19.45	20.24	20.61	22.75	19.26	21.89
Career	23.39	17.42	25.74	20.16	27.01	22.24	24.50	24.86	27.82	30.03
Economics	19.67	16.24	21.10	18.47	20.82	18.12	19.24	21.06	21.79	24.73
Relationships	12.91	19.30	15.41	23.20	17.08	25.55	19.04	26.61	16.28	26.95
Quality of Life	6.57	10.14	8.36	11.73	11.42	14.41	11.93	15.67	7.56	13.14
Political Environment	1.67	5.38	2.48	7.25	4.23	9.33	4.69	11.28	7.28	16.51

Table 6.5.
Relative Importance of Motives by Decade Left New Zealand.

	1960s (n=27)		1970s (n=75)		1980s (n=170)		1990s (n=627)		2000s (n=1683)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	26.8	26.9	18.9	22.0	20.1	22.6	23.4	21.2	29.3	22.1
Career	33.1	33.4	26.6	28.6	28.3	24.5	28.0	22.1	23.5	18.9
Economics	10.0	14.1	12.5	18.0	17.4	17.0	19.9	17.3	21.5	18.7
Relationships	21.2	29.1	27.3	30.5	20.1	26.9	16.4	23.6	14.1	21.9
Quality of Life	4.6	7.5	10.4	17.0	11.7	15.4	9.1	12.4	8.7	12.0
Political Environment	4.3	12.8	4.2	10.8	2.5	5.6	3.2	8.8	2.9	8.1

aged 60 or more. The respondents have, however, been away from New Zealand for a wide range of time, and the age at which they made the decision to leave the country will not necessarily correspond to the age they are now. For example, a person in their 60s may have left the country 30 years ago when they were in their 30s. It is also useful, therefore, to examine the data by the decade in which they left New Zealand and this is shown in Table 6.5.

The difference between the various scores allocated to careers is significant ($p < .01$) when considered by the decade the respondent left New Zealand. Career motives were a major part of the decision to be mobile for those who left in the 1960s. The diminishing importance of career as a motivating influence can be seen over time as the more recent the departure, the more likely it was to be an OE with an emphasis on travel and adventure. Conversely, economic motives have increased in importance over time ($p < .01$), being relatively unimportant for those who left in the 1960s with just 10.0% of the allocation, to the 2000s where they receive 21.5%. One component which may be contributing to this increasing importance is the perceived need to work abroad to pay back student loans and to earn money for a house deposit.

The difference between the relationship motive for each of the decades is also significant ($p < .01$). It is of most importance for those who left New Zealand in the 1970s. Cross-analysis of the data suggests that this is primarily New Zealanders moving to the home country of their partner. Interviews with these people would reveal more about the exact reasons for moving and the social environment at the time.

Throughout the decade, the political environment motive has remained relatively unimportant and the differences are not statistically significant ($p > .05$). It is interesting though, that this motive scores lowest during the 1980s – a time when major political change and restructuring was being undertaken in New Zealand (Henderson, 1996).

Previous Experience

Banai and Harry (2005) suggest that previous experience of mobility could impact on the reasons for future mobility. An analysis of the relative importance of the motives by mobility is, therefore, undertaken to identify if there are any significant differences (Table 6.5). Cultural and travel opportunities are most important to those on their first move, and decrease with increasing mobility ($p < .01$). Conversely, the economic motive increases in importance with increasing mobility ($p < .01$). Career is more important for the second move ($p < .05$). This is logical, as it could be expected that the first move would be for adventure and travel, and the second could be to obtain more permanent employment. There is no significant difference between the other motives.

Table 6.6.
Relative Importance of Motives by Mobility.

	1 move (<i>n</i> =1,386)		2 moves (<i>n</i> =455)		3-4 moves (<i>n</i> =515)		5 or more moves (<i>n</i> =252)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	29.46	23.35	26.55	22.23	23.30	18.96	20.58	19.04
Career	24.08	20.04	27.11	21.42	26.29	21.35	24.54	21.53
Economics	19.16	17.48	20.54	18.45	20.70	17.85	26.54	21.29
Relationships	15.56	23.67	14.64	21.09	16.34	23.66	16.37	23.79
Quality of Life	9.04	12.71	8.24	11.75	9.70	12.80	8.52	11.57
Political Environment	2.77	7.55	2.92	7.74	3.66	10.29	3.46	8.56

6.2 *An Equation of Motives*

Chapter One alluded to the possibility of an individual equation of motives that could influence an individual's decision to be mobile. The suggestion was that this could change depending on country of residence, career stage, life stage, or other personal priorities. A practical application of the data collated here is the comparison between different locations or different groups of people.

In order to determine if different destinations attracted people who had particular priorities, an analysis of the motives by the continent of residence was undertaken (Figure 6.1). Significant differences ($p < .05$) are identified for four of the motives, career, cultural and travel opportunities, economics and relationships. In addition, the quality of life value for Oceania is significantly different to the other continents.

The differences between the continents include–

- The economic motive is most important for those currently living in Asia, while career factors are relatively unimportant.
- Cultural and travel opportunities dominate the equation for those living in Europe.
- For respondents in Oceania, the career motive is the most important. As noted above, quality of life is also more important here than for any other destination.
- People living in North America also score careers as the most important, although relationships are also highly rated.

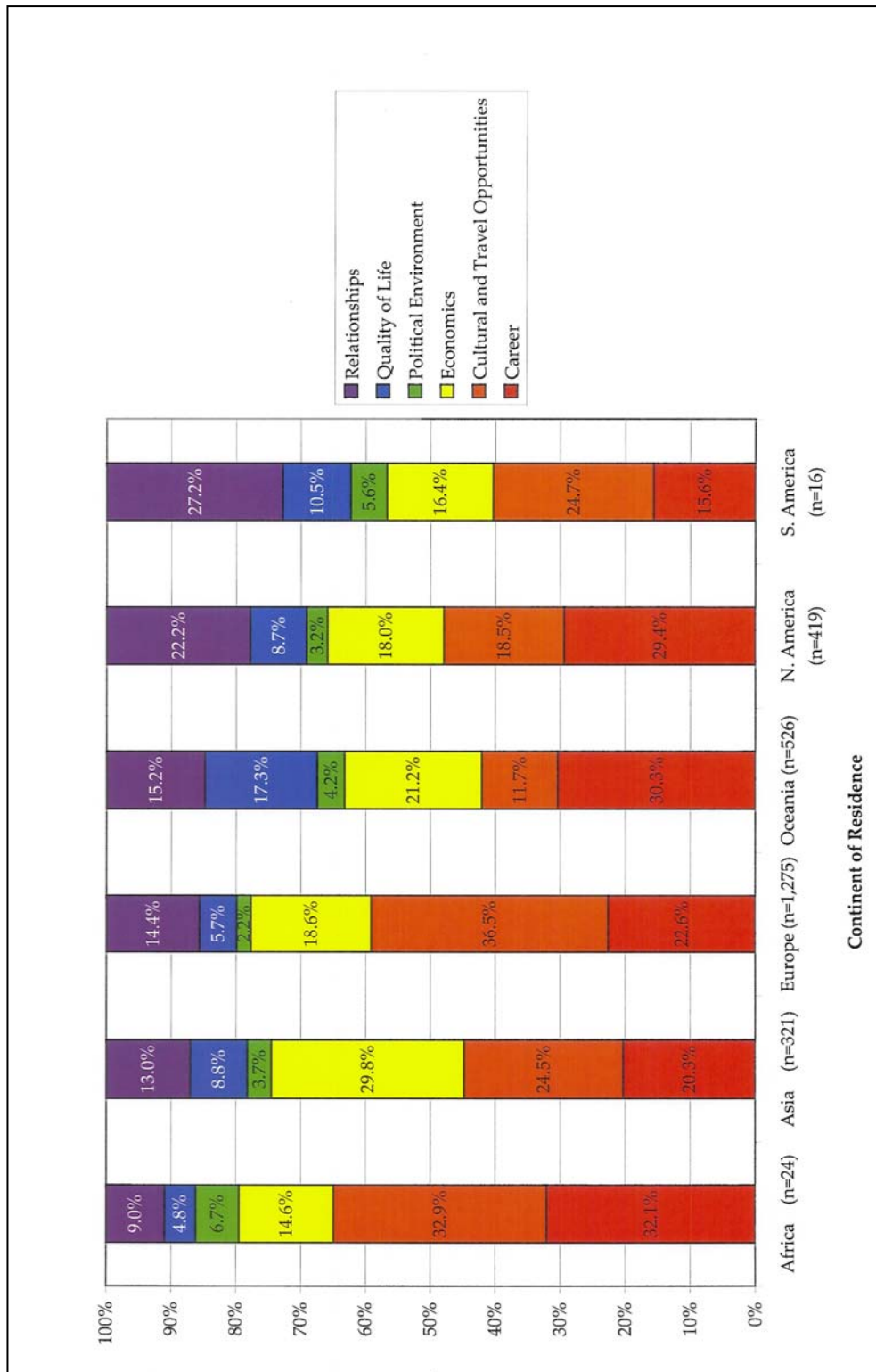


Figure 6.1. Relative Importance of Motives by Continent of Residence.

- The comparison between those in Africa and South America, both continents with many developing nations, is particularly curious. While those in Africa perceive the career motive to be very important, these are significantly less important in South America. Relationships dominate the equation for those in South America, but they barely featured for Africa. The other categories, however, are all very similar. Low respondent numbers may contribute to these differences and interviews with individuals could reveal more about the personal situations.

Figure 6.2 is a breakdown of the relative importance of the various motives by frequency of mobility. A visual inspection of the graph shows some clear distinctions between the different mobility groups, and a Kruskal-Wallis test confirms that the differences of the values for the career, culture and travel opportunities and economics motives are statistically significant ($p < .01$). Quality of life, relationships and the political environment show no significant differences.

There is a positive relationship between career and economic motives and the number of times moved, with importance increasing with increasing mobility. The reverse pattern is evident for cultural and travel opportunities. It was hypothesised in Chapter Three that highly educated people would move to less developed countries to take advantage of the premium incomes they could earn. Further, as discussed in the previous chapter, people who have moved more frequently are more likely to be located in less developed countries. These two factors, together with the priority given to economics by this group, provide support for this hypothesis.

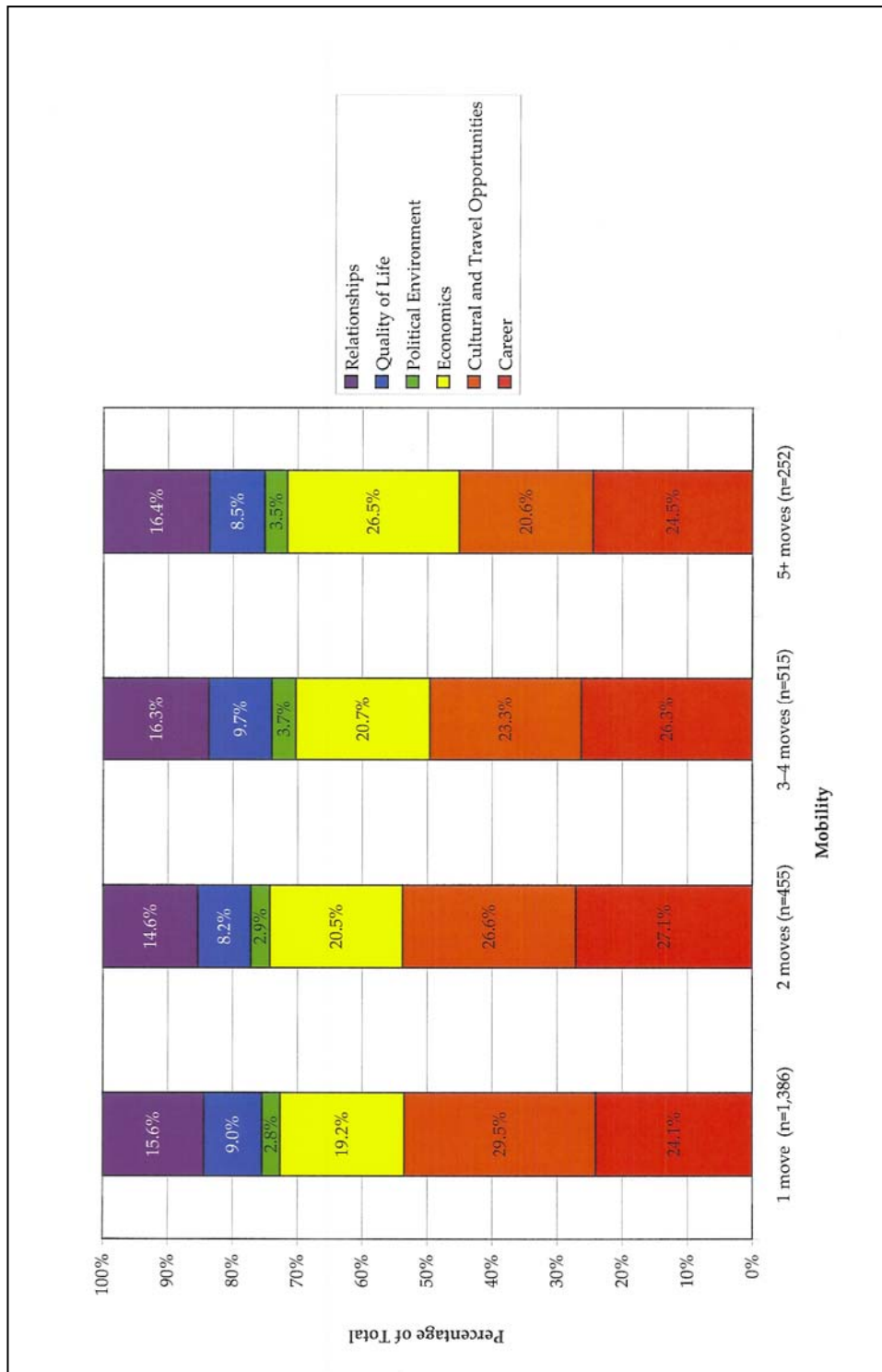


Figure 6.2. Relative Importance of Motives by Mobility

Two distinct patterns of mobility amongst the highly mobile, Boomerang Movers and Citizens of the World, were identified in Chapter Five. There were few distinctions in the personal characteristics of the people who demonstrated the various patterns. The next analysis (Figure 6.3) is a breakdown of the relative importance of the motives that influenced their decisions to be mobile in an attempt to see if the motives are different.

A Mann-Whitney U Test shows significant differences only between the motives of career ($p < .01$) and economics ($p < .05$). Career is more important to the Citizen of the World group, while economics is more important to the Boomerang Movers. This suggests that the Boomerang Movers may be taking project-based positions which pay well, returning to the home country between assignments. Nearly one quarter of this group (24.8%) were employed in education and they may well be seeking higher paying opportunities teaching English in other countries.

Unfortunately, this analysis also does little to explain the very different patterns of movement displayed by these highly mobile people. The need for a separate research programme to identify the individual reasons for the movement is required to further develop this finding.

The data can also be manipulated to examine differences in the allocations of individuals. The next two figures illustrate how the equations were indeed very different for sub-groups of the respondents. Figure 6.4 shows a comparison of the equation for men and women at different phases of the life cycle. A Mann-Whitney U Test indicated that the only significant difference ($p < .05$) between young, single men and women is in the political environment motive. The cultural and travel

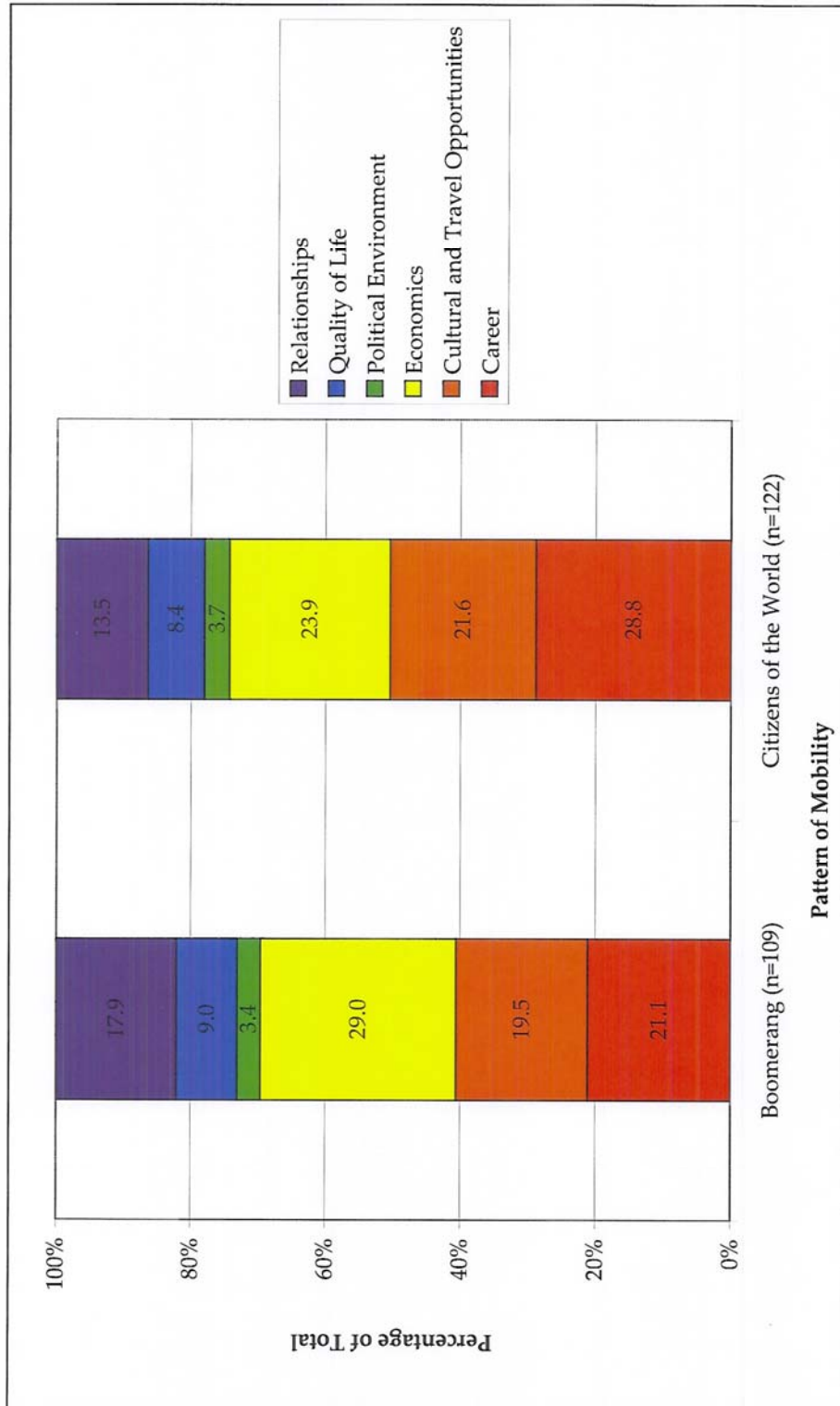


Figure 6.3. Relative Importance of Factors by Mobility Pattern.

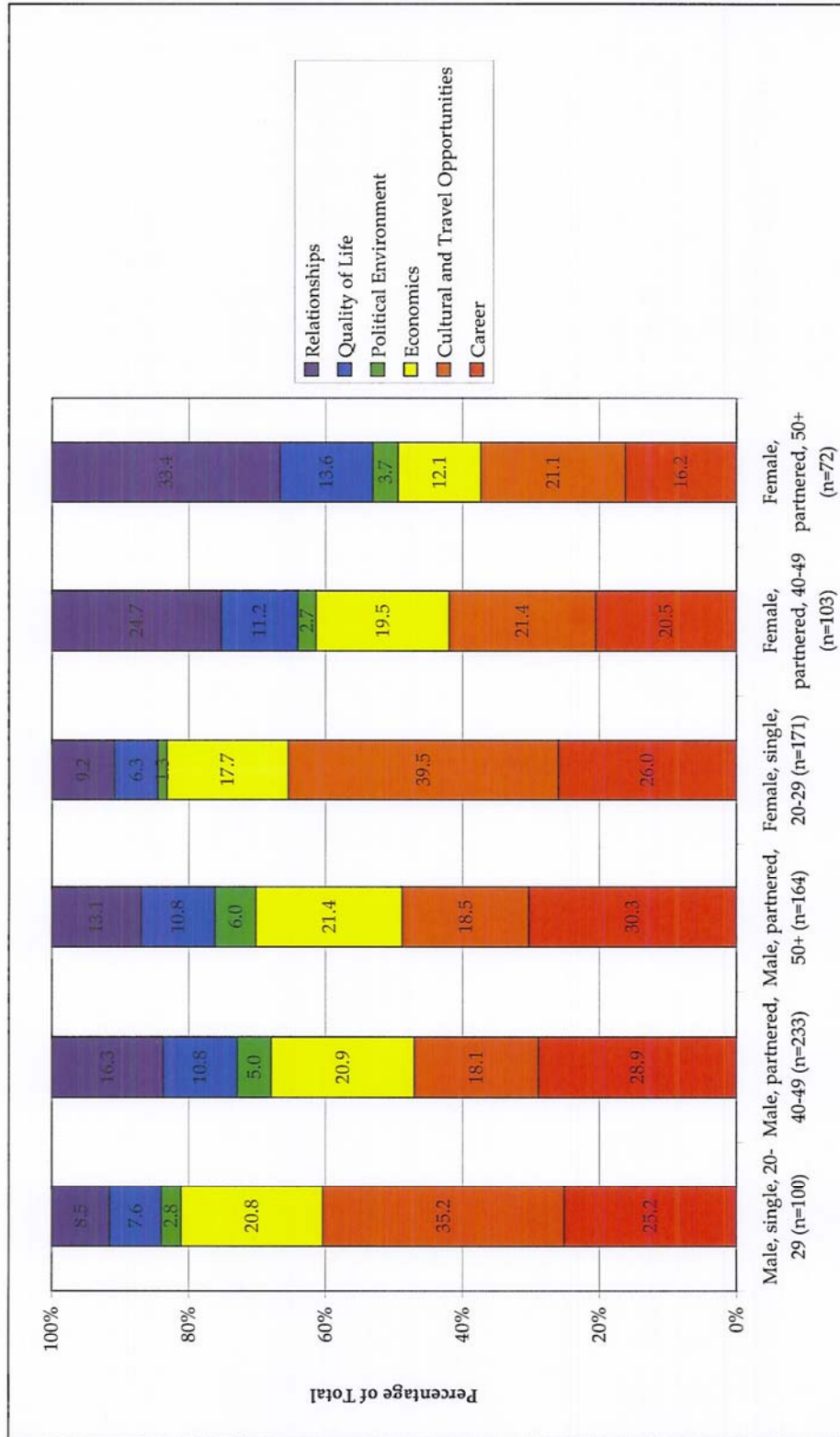


Figure 6.4. Comparison of the Relative Importance of Categories

opportunities motive was a major driver, although the career motive is also important to this group. Relationships, quality of life and the political environment are all of low priority.

The difference between men and women in their 40s is significantly different for careers, relationships and the political environment ($p < .01$). The relative importance of careers has dropped off for women in this group, being replaced with relationship priorities. This pattern is even stronger in the 50+ age groups, with career quite clearly the most important motive for men, followed by economics ($p < .01$). For women, the relationship motive dominates ($p < .01$), and quality of life gains in importance.

Across the age spans, there are also visible changes. Young men and women both place more importance on cultural and travel opportunities than the older respondents. While career becomes more important to men as they age, it becomes less important to women. The political environment is of more importance to men than to women throughout, but particularly as they get older.

Figure 6.5 shows a comparison of late career stage men living in either Australia or the United Kingdom. These represent considerable human capital, being both highly educated and experienced. A Mann Whitney U Test showed that some significant differences are apparent between the economics, quality of life ($p < .01$) and career motives ($p < .05$). For those in Australia, the career motive is a large part of the decision to be mobile, although the quality of life motive is also important. The cultural motive is relatively unimportant for this group, reflecting the similar cultures between the home country and Australia. For those in the UK, however,

the cultural motive is on a par with economic and career factors. The quality of life motive is unimportant. Both groups rank the political environment at around seven percent, much higher than the overall total for this motive.

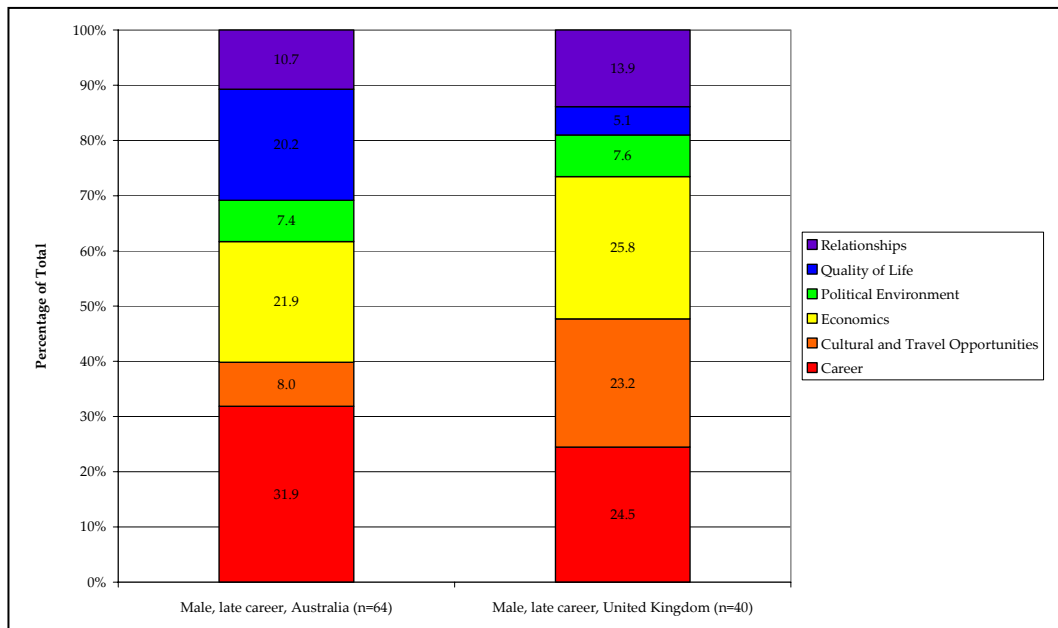


Figure 6.5. Comparison of the Relative Importance of Motives between Late Career Males living in Australia and the UK

Analyses such as these could be useful for policy makers trying to either retain highly educated people in New Zealand or to attract them back to the country. If an understanding of the motives which influenced the decision to move away can be obtained, policy makers can better appreciate the factors which may entice them to return to New Zealand. An analysis by occupational group could, for example, allow policy makers to target areas with particular skill shortages.

6.3 Summary

This chapter has specifically examined the relative importance of all the motives in relation to each other. The most important motives for these New Zealanders currently living and working in other countries are cultural and travel opportunities and career. The political environment was the least important motive.

Numerous analyses were undertaken to demonstrate how the importance of the motives varied. A summary of the motives which have the most influence on the various subgroups is shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7.

Summary of the Motives that have the Most Influence on Mobility

Subgroup	Motives having most influence
Gender	
Men	Career/Cultural and Travel Opportunities
Women	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Relationships
Age Group	
20–29	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
30–39	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
40–49	Career/Relationships
50–59	Career/Relationships
60+	Career/Economics
Decade Left NZ	
1960s	Career/Cultural and Travel Opportunities
1970s	Relationships/Career
1980s	Career/Relationships
1990s	Career/Cultural and Travel Opportunities
2000s	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
Marital Status	
Partnered	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career/Relationships
Single	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
Continent of Residence	
Africa	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
Asia	Economics/Cultural and Travel Opportunities
Europe	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
Oceania	Career/Relationships
North America	Career/Relationships
South America	Relationships/Culture and Travel Opportunities

Table 6.7 continued

Subgroup	Motives having most influence
Mobility	
1 move	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
2 moves	Cultural and Travel Opportunities/Career
3–4 moves	Career/Cultural and Travel Opportunities
5–7 moves	Career/Economics
8+ moves	Career/Economics

While several studies have examined the motives that influence a decision to be mobile, this research design has enabled the motives to be considered in relation to each other, and to examine the mix of motives that comprise the decision. This insight appears to be new to the literature on self-initiated mobility and mobility in general. The next chapter takes the examination to another level, exploring the relative importance of the individual sub-motives which are involved in the decision to be mobile.

CHAPTER 7

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF SUB-MOTIVES

This chapter again specifically addresses Objective 1 which is to identify the subjective motives that influence self-initiated mobility across national boundaries. The previous chapter examined the relative importance of the motives. The focus in this chapter is the relative importance of the individual sub-motives that comprise each motive. While Chapter Six assessed the data from the first stage of analysis (the first allocation of points) and integrated the responses from all respondents, this chapter examines the data from the second stage of analysis, when it has been separated depending on which motive was ranked first by the respondent. The individual factors are only considered for the motive which the respondent rated first. The data is shown in this chapter as an average of the proportion of the total number of points allocated to that motive.

7.1 The Cultural and Travel Opportunities Sub-motives

Cultural and travel opportunities are an important motive for this population of New Zealanders, with 35.4% ($n=2,608$) of respondents ranking this their top motive. Table 7.1 shows the sub-motives in order. As in the previous chapter, a Friedman test indicates that the differences between the sub-motives could not have occurred by chance ($p<.01$). A post hoc pairwise analysis reveals that the first three sub-motives, travel opportunities, adventure and a variety of cultures are statistically different from each other and the other sub-motives. These are followed by two bands of sub-motives, which, while different from each other, are not statistically different from the sub-motives within that band. At the

bottom of the Table, the final two sub-motives are different from each other and all other motives.

Table 7.1

Relative Importance of the Cultural and Travel Opportunities Sub-motives

	Culture Sub-motives	Mean <i>n</i> =924	SD
1	Travel opportunities	33.5	22.1
2	Adventure	19.5	16.1
3	To experience a variety of cultures	11.4	11.6
4	New Zealand too isolated	7.6 ^a	12.6
4	Longer cultural history	6.1 ^a	8.8
4	Motivated by previous travels	5.7 ^a	9.7
7	Variety of cultural opportunities	4.2 ^b	7.5
7	To live in a big city	4.0 ^b	8.3
7	European cultural opportunities	3.5 ^b	7.6
10	To learn another language	2.0	6.1
11	To expose children to other cultures	0.9	4.6

^{a,b} These scores are not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

Cultural and travel opportunities are the sub-motives that are most closely connected to the New Zealand culture of the ‘big OE’ (Inkson & Myers, 2003; Jamieson, 1996), and numerous respondents linked comments about their decision to be mobile to this –

Of the friends (10–15 people) I attended university with (in New Zealand), all of us have ventured overseas, most are still living offshore. Certainly, amongst this group right from 1st year university the expectation was that we would go overseas. For many of us, the motivation was travel experience ‘the big OE’. It wasn't until many of us got overseas (the UK), we realised just how much more opportunity there is – not only in travel but career, economically and (to some extent) quality of life.

I left to travel in Europe and had no desire to go to the States but I met an American, married her and have been living in the USA ever since. I

had always intended to do a 2 year OE and return but it didn't work out that way.

Chapter Two suggested that travel opportunities would be a dominant theme amongst self-initiated movers and the results clearly showed that this sub-motive has the most subjective influence of the cultural and travel motive on a decision to be mobile with a mean allocation of 33.5% of the total points allocated. Nearly all respondents allocated at least some points to this factor (91.1%), and the comments from respondents were numerous –

My original intention for living abroad was to travel and see more of different cultures/countries with longer histories.

Travel has been a large motivating factor, as has been the experiencing of different cultures.

My decision to leave New Zealand was largely down to travel opportunities and the chance to have new experiences.

The adventure of working and living abroad was identified by Myers and Inkson (2003) as a major component of the 'big OE' and certainly the influence of adventure in a decision to be mobile is important to these respondents. The following comments from respondents typified the OE-type mover -

I left New Zealand for the UK wanting adventures, feeling bored as my friends were all getting married/pregnant and settling at age 19 or 20!

We initially left and went to the Pacific Islands where we lived and worked for three years – initially for the adventure.

I left New Zealand when I was 21, and I was leaving for adventure first and foremost.

Consistent with Richardson and Mallon's research (2005), the findings show the importance of adventure-seeking on cross-national mobility, with an average allocation of 19.5% of total points in this motive and 79.9% of respondents scoring this sub-motive.

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two also suggested that cultural factors will have an influence on a decision to be mobile. Respondents were given four different sub-motives directly related to cultural opportunities – a desire to experience a variety of cultures, a range of cultural activities, more classical European cultural activities and a country with a longer cultural history than New Zealand. Of these, a desire to experience a variety of cultures ranks third in the motive, with 11.4% of the points allocated by 62.9% of the respondents. As one respondent commented –

It's hard to say one reason for leaving New Zealand. Really it came down to just wanting a change; to see different things, different cultures and experience a little of the *real* world.

A desire to experience countries with a longer cultural history than New Zealand is ranked fifth, with 6.1% of the motive's points. It was also a factor that people commented on –

The attraction of living in Europe is that many other countries are within easy travelling distance and the lengthy history and cultures are of interest to me.

My original intention for living abroad was to travel and see more of cultures and countries with longer history.

Experiencing a variety of cultural opportunities is ranked seventh overall, with 4.2% of the allocation. The range of activities available in the bigger cities appeal to this group.

What keeps us here? Being in Europe of course! Popping over to Paris for the weekend! And the cultural opportunities, for example being able to go see your favourite, most idolised band for a tenner on the weekend.

My main initial reason for coming was to travel and, along with the cultural aspects associated with history, music, sports events etc., it still is a big part of why I remain in the UK. It's the easiest place in the world for an English speaking Commonwealth citizen to live, work and travel from.

A desire to experience more classical European culture is also a sub-motive, receiving 3.5% of the allocation from 27.4% of the respondents. The low allocation from just over a quarter of the people indicates that this was not a key sub-motive, although people did consider that it had been at least a small part of their decision to be mobile. It was also an incentive for those on their first move –

My primary reason for leaving New Zealand was to experience European culture first hand, having studied classical music and European languages (namely German and Spanish).

New Zealand is also a long way away from a variety of cultural activities and things of historical interest. Therefore to see and

participate in these things (art museums, shows, theatre, concerts) one needs to leave [New Zealand] and work and then participate in the cheap opportunities offered.

Previous travel opportunities were identified by Cullingford (1995) and Banai and Harry (2005) as a motivating influence. This research confirms this aspect, with this sub-motive receiving 5.7% of the motive points from 34.9% of respondents, giving this sub-motive a ranking in the motive of sixth. Respondents commented specifically on the effect of their previous travels, either as a child, or older person –

I travelled extensively with my parents as a child, and as a consequence developed a passion for the wider world.

I grew up travelling – when I left New Zealand in 2002 I'd already spent half my life living overseas which could have an effect.

I travelled to the USA as a nanny in 1976 with my neighbours. I loved what I saw and returned in 1979 on my own, travelled extensively around the USA. I saved up each year and returned again in 1980 (travelled through Canada), 1981 and in 1982 on a six month visas each time. I met my now husband and we married in Las Vegas, the end of November, 1982, and have lived in sunny Southern California since with our daughter.

Consistent with Suutari (2003) and Richardson and Mallon (2005), this current study finds that providing children with the opportunity to experience cultural opportunities is an influence in a decision to be mobile. This is, however, the lowest ranked of the cultural and travel opportunities motive with 0.9% of the allocation (Table 6.5), due in part to the fact that only 14.5% of those who ranked this motive first have

dependants. The findings here also suggest that parents are consciously thinking about their children and planning to provide them with cultural opportunities.

We plan to move back to New Zealand so that our children will have the benefit of growing up in 'clean, green New Zealand'. Once the children are older (i.e. in 10 years or so) we will look again at working abroad so that our children have the benefit of experiencing new cultures.

The present study also shows the importance of a partner's citizenship in influencing a decision to move to allow the children to experience life in the other country –

I came here to follow my spouse, and to give my child exposure to my spouse's culture.

I came to this side of the world because my ex-partner asked if she could take the kids to England for a year to experience that side of their culture.

The evidence from the literature on whether or not a desire to learn a new language is a sub-motive for mobility has been inconclusive. Learning another language has been identified as a valuable skill obtained by New Zealanders on an OE (Inkson et al., 1999). This research, however, clearly shows that learning a new language does influence a decision to be mobile, with 123 respondents (13.3%, $n=924$) allocating at least some points to this sub-motive.

I went to France for a month to learn French. I stayed on after that, moving into University studies the following year up until a PhD in

French linguistics and computational linguistics in 1990. I have been working in Montpellier, France ever since.

Respondents also indicate that exposure to different languages becomes an expected part of their environment.

One day I'd like to return to New Zealand or at least Australia, however it'd be very difficult now as we have a great life here, earn very well and I think I'd be bored with just one language and culture.

It also can't provide me with the vast cultural differences I experience not by living in Ireland but by being able to travel to France, Belgium, and Poland for a weekend, and be completely immersed in another language and culture.

The final two sub-motives in this motive relate to the location and size of New Zealand. This is aptly summed up by one respondent –

New Zealand is too small and too far away. It's no place to be 20-something.

McCarter (2001) suggested that the isolation and small size of the country contributes to flows abroad. The current study confirms these findings. Respondents agree that New Zealand is too culturally isolated and rank this as the fourth most important cultural or travel motive influencing a decision to be mobile. As one respondent comments –

And just being in such a depth of culture and history has shown me what we are seriously lacking in our corner of the world. There's nothing we can do about it, so it's just as well we can come here and appreciate both the unique things New Zealand provides us, but also the worldliness which we lack.

However, the respondents did see some positive features of living in New Zealand, and nearly half (48.6%) of the respondents who rank culture and travel opportunities as their most important motive for leaving New Zealand intend to be back living in New Zealand in five years time. One reason for this might be a strong feeling of returning for children's education. There are numerous comments on this, but the following are typical –

I would say that most kiwis do intend to return – particularly once their children reach school age, as we can offer a much better quality of life.

...That said, when my son reaches school age we may well decide to come back for educational reasons.

It will be our last big adventure before getting locked into the New Zealand school system, and the money earned here means that we can afford to give the children a private education.

The expectation of returning to New Zealand could mean that things New Zealand lacks, such as proximity to a wide range of cultures, would be viewed less negatively.

A desire to live in a big city is ranked in the seventh band with experiencing a variety of cultures, and receives an average allocation of 4.0% of the motive. The excitement and opportunities available in a big city encapsulate the OE experience, and hence this group could be expected to be the younger respondents on their first move, although some returning New Zealanders missed the excitement of larger cities –

When I returned [to New Zealand] from the UK, I was still in international/adventure mode and still wanted to be in a big city and couldn't leave NZ fast enough so I came to Brisbane where some of my UK friends were to continue my party lifestyle.

Australia – and in particular Sydney has more people of varying cultures – I love the restaurants, the shops, the theatre, the whole big city thing.

Respondents were given the opportunity to allocate points to cultural factors relevant to their decision to be mobile which were not covered by the above sub-motives. The majority of the other factors identified here are extensions of sub-motives previously mentioned. For example, respondents specifically mentioned a desire to see famous bands and music festivals, to experience more contemporary music and to be close to the paintings of the Spanish Masters. One respondent expressed a desire to taste beer in other countries! All of these sub-motives fit within the broader factor of experiencing a greater variety of cultural activities.

Some sub-motives are mentioned here that had not been discussed previously in the literature. These included religious callings to live and work in the new country, either as missionaries or as paid employees, and a desire to live in a larger gay community. Some respondents stated that self discovery and self-sufficiency are influential in a decision to be mobile. This echoes Osland's (1995; 2000) metaphor of the hero's journey where travel across national boundaries provides an opportunity to reassess and discover one's self.

Eight respondents consider that perceived problems with the New Zealand culture had driven them to other countries. This shall be discussed in detail in the section on the political environment.

7.1.1 Summary of the Cultural and Travel Opportunities Sub-motive

This motive is the most important of the six. It is this motive that most accurately reflects the OE-type mover – those people seeking adventure, travel and new cultural experiences. Travel opportunities are the key sub-motive in this motive, followed by a desire for adventure. Cultural opportunities are also important, both in terms of experiencing a variety of cultures and a broader range of cultural activities. Previous research had been equivocal concerning learning a new language as a motivating factor for mobility. For some New Zealand respondents, however, this is definitely a factor which influenced their decision to be mobile.

The cultural and travel opportunities sub-motives are clearly important to New Zealanders who have chosen to be mobile. It is probable that the geographical isolation of New Zealand resulted in an increased importance of this motive. An interesting comparison would be to determine if these sub-motives are as important to, for example, a young British person, with cheap and easy travel options and a wide range of cultures in close proximity.

7.2 The Career Sub-motives

This section identifies the sub-motives relating to careers that are important in a decision to be mobile. It continues to address Objective 1 in identifying the sub-motives influencing highly educated New Zealanders to be internationally mobile.

The career motive receives an average of 25.1% of the initial allocation of 100 points. There are 12 sub-motives that comprised this motive, and the relative importance of these are shown in ranked order in Table 7.2. A Friedman analysis with all 12 sub-motives showed that this allocation had not occurred by chance ($p < .01$), so a post hoc pairwise analysis was undertaken to identify individual differences. This shows that professional development is the most important sub-motive, followed by a band incorporating career challenges and advancement.

Table 7.2.
Relative Importance of the Career Sub-motives

Rank	Career Sub-motives	Mean <i>n</i> =839	SD
1	To further your professional development	19.6	18.5
2	A desire to experience new career challenges	16.5 ^a	17.0
2	Better opportunities for career advancement	14.9 ^a	17.6
4	To experience a broader range of career choices	10.1	14.0
5	To further your education	6.5 ^b	17.3
5	To take up a specific job	5.8 ^b	16.6
5	Your career choice was in the international arena	5.7 ^b	13.3
8	An opportunity to work in a specific institution or centre of excellence	5.0	10.6
9	To improve your level of job satisfaction	4.3	11.5
10	You were frustrated by work and management systems which limited your effectiveness	3.9	10.5
11	To improve your working conditions	2.5 ^c	7.3
11	To obtain better job security	1.9 ^c	7.2

^{a,b,c} These scores were are significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

Two further bands are evident, one including furthering education, a specific job and a career in the international arena, and the other at the bottom of the Table and including working conditions and job security. All other sub-motives are different from these bands and each other.

Career motives are clearly important, with 32% ($n=2,608$) of respondents ranking this motive highest. The impact of careers on mobility is significant, especially in the context of the limited New Zealand economy, as expressed by one respondent –

One thing that I hope that this survey proves is that some New Zealanders leave New Zealand or do not return after an OE not because they earn more overseas, but because of the career opportunities that are available in large countries such as the UK that are simply not available in New Zealand. I am planning to return, but the opportunity to work on a fundraising project for a respected arts institution is simply not available to the same extent in New Zealand.

While important to many respondents, the career motive is not a priority for everyone –

...I was not particularly concerned about my career prospects as I was more interested in enjoying living here, meeting new people and enjoying the different lifestyle.

The career is still incidental to travel and cultural opportunities.

It was suggested in Chapter Two that self-initiated movers would be interested in the development of their skills, and this is confirmed with the furthering of professional development ranking as the most important career-related sub-motive. It was awarded points by 70.0% of

the respondents ranking career as the most important motive and received an average of 19.6% of the total. The concept of professional and personal development is exemplified in the following comments of respondents –

The potential to develop a solid career that will provide both personal growth through achievement and increasing financial reward is limited by the small size of the New Zealand market. New Zealand is also rather insular in its perceptions and concerns. My career began working in the civil service and after 3 months it was clear to me that I had to wait for someone to retire or die before advancement was possible. Having headed overseas, I have subsequently worked in the Japanese civil service, in private enterprise for a Japanese conglomerate in the UK and for a German multinational. I now work for a Swedish multinational. I feel the expectations and level of professionalism in international companies far exceeds that of New Zealand enterprises. The relaxed 'she'll be right' attitude of New Zealanders can work against them in the international business arena.

When I originally left New Zealand it was for what you would consider the typical OE – the opportunity to travel and earn the pound to fund travel/lifestyle when back in New Zealand. I was lucky enough to get a good job for a company with offices across Europe that offered a lot of development and opportunity. My decision to stay longer was because of these opportunities.

Lack of work opportunities in New Zealand was also proposed as a motivation for leaving, and this is confirmed with new career challenges (16.5% of allocation), opportunities for career advancement (14.9%) and a broader range of career choices (10.1%) being the second and joint third most important career sub-motives. One respondent summarised these concerns -

New Zealand is home, but it will always be a little small to fulfil my career potential. If I came back, it would have to be because quality of life factors exceeded career factors (e.g. the need to raise kids in a nice place).

The next band includes moving for further education, taking up a specific job, and having a career in an international arena. Moving for further education was allocated only 6.5% of the points in the career motive, but again yielded numerous comments –

I am working in Australia while studying towards a Masters' degree. This degree is essential for professional development and I would not be able to progress without it, but there is no course of any similar kind available to do in New Zealand. I moved to Australia solely in order to undertake this study. I do not particularly wish to stay here for very long, but it depends on the jobs that are available.

I originally left New Zealand to undertake graduate study that was not available (at the time) in New Zealand. Subsequently I worked in Asia and have returned to university to do a PhD to enable a career change.

I came to the USA with my wife to do my PhD thinking we would stay in the USA for just 3 years. I'm still here almost 20 years later. The career opportunities are what kept me here ... that and the weather/lifestyle.

These comments led to the development of the idea that, while not important to everyone, some of these sub-motives would be particularly salient for individuals. To investigate this further, the average proportion of points allocated against the proportion of people scoring each career sub-motive in ranked order was graphed (Figure 7.1), giving the salience of the sub-motive. The four sub-motives highlighted, moving for further education (5), moving for a specific job (6), having an international career

(7) and moving to a specific institution (8) are all out of sequence on the graph which indicates that these particular sub-motives are more important to fewer people.

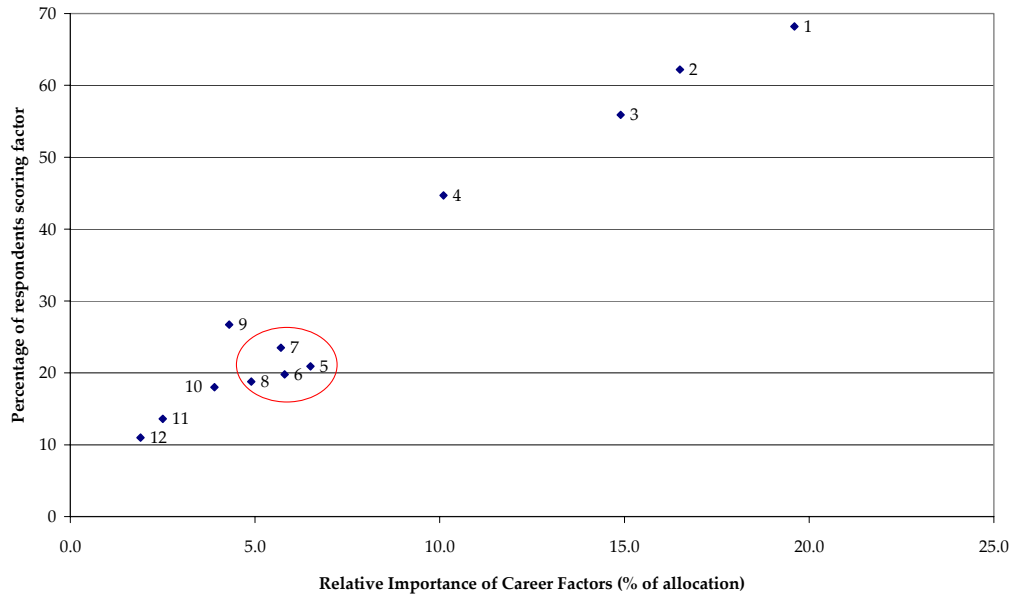


Figure 7.1. Salience of Career Sub-motives

People who moved to a specific institution are likely to be scientists or academics, where the reputation of the institution is important for career enhancement (Ackers, 2005b). The ‘expectation of mobility’ discussed in the literature (Morano-Foadi, 2005) is also evident –

For me, a major driver to work and study overseas was that it was all but expected experience for leading practitioners. I am sure some aspect of this involved a sense of cultural cringe, that to prove one was good enough one needed to be tested in an international environment.

The final four career sub-motives relate to dissatisfaction with previous employment. A recent survey in New Zealand stated that 41% of people are unhappy with their job (McNaughton, 2008) leading to the suggestion that this would contribute to brain drain (Seek NZ, 2008). Richardson

and Zikic (2007), however, suggested that dissatisfaction explained only a limited number of movements from a country and it is this finding that is reiterated in this research. The negative career sub-motives of improving job satisfaction and working conditions, obtaining better job security, and frustration with work and management systems score the lowest of all the career sub-motives. One respondent, however, explains why he moved –

My situation is no doubt the same as many other Kiwis in the same position, stuck in a mediocre job, pay not the best, and looking for something better. The idea of travelling and working, and making far more money than doing the same job in New Zealand appeals to me, I have also found that I have more contacts and prospective opportunities have opened up now which could take me and my family and career anywhere in the world.

These comments were rare, and the low rankings suggest that people are not so much moving away from a bad existing employment situation, as moving to something more challenging or with broader opportunities.

7.2.1 Summary of the Career Sub-motives

The career motive was an important motive overall. Moving abroad for further professional development has the highest rank in this motive. A desire for new career challenges and better opportunities for career advancement are also important. People are more inclined to focus on positive career reasons for moving with the negative sub-motives being least important.

7.3 The Economic Sub-motives

The economic motive is ranked first (or first equal) by 627 respondents (25.2% $n=2,608$). There are eight sub-motives identified from the literature that comprise the economic motive. The relative importance of these factors is shown in Table 7.3. A Friedman analysis entailing all eight sub-motives indicated that these allocations did not occur by chance ($p<.01$), and a post hoc pairwise analysis again reveals the individual differences between the sub-motives. The first three sub-motives are different from each other and from the other sub-motives. Two bands are evident - one in the middle of the Table, incorporating student loans and a larger economy, and at the bottom incorporating unemployment and debt. Taxation is statistically different to both these bands.

Table 7.3.

Relative Importance of the Economic Sub-motives

Rank	Economic Sub-motives	Mean ($n=657$)	SD
1	Better remuneration	36.7	28.0
2	To improve economic situation	27.2	24.2
3	To improve standard of living	10.8	15.0
4	Student Loan	8.1 ^a	17.7
4	To live in a larger economy	7.3 ^a	14.2
6	To improve taxation situation	4.5	11.4
7	Unemployment	0.9 ^b	6.1
7	Avoid debts	0.5 ^b	3.1

^{a,b} These scores are not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

It was proposed in Chapter Two that issues around remuneration would be a frequent theme for self-initiated mobility and this has certainly been shown to be the case. Remuneration is the most important economic sub-motive subjectively influencing a decision to be mobile with an average of 36.7% of the points allocated to the economic motive. One person allocated all of their 100 points to this sub-motive, indicating the high

level of importance of this to them. Comments from respondents centre on the poor salaries in New Zealand compared to other countries.

My reason for leaving New Zealand is pretty simple. The pay is appalling. In my field I can command at least double and usually triple what I'd earn in New Zealand if I live overseas (even in Malaysia). I desperately want to move home, but I will be living hand to mouth if I do. It's a ridiculous paradox that I can only afford to buy a house back home if I don't live there.

My main reason for being in this country is the money. If New Zealand paid us what we get here, a lot of New Zealanders would still be at home.

One of the major determining factors for me other than relationships is salaries. There must be something done in New Zealand about this if New Zealand is ever going to succeed in attracting people back – specifically key workers such as teachers and medical professionals.

One respondent was more succinct –

Pay me and I will come back.

While remuneration receives the highest total allocation for this motive, it is by no means an important factor for all respondents, with 18.1% of the motive respondents scoring this sub-motive zero. A few of these respondents are volunteers, receiving no remuneration –

I work for a not for profit, non government organisation and do not receive a wage. I am able to be here because of the generous support of people in New Zealand. Because of my own personal faith I am interested in assisting people to see transformation within their own

communities – as a nurse this means in regards to their health and wellbeing, however I am also interested in more 'holistic' transformation as well. I also believe that my experiences here will help in any future employment in New Zealand.

I originally came to Cambodia as a VSA volunteer. My partner and I originally came for a two year posting and have continued to stay on - this is not unusual in Cambodia. Cambodia is unsanitised, it is constantly changing and there are constant challenges. There is no current 'in your face' consumerism, there are few rules, there is heat and sunshine.

Another respondent had different priorities –

My partner and I are planning on returning to New Zealand and starting up a small business, although we know that we will not be earning as much money as we do in the UK, we both agree that we would have more opportunities in New Zealand and a better lifestyle. We would have moved over already but we have tickets to the [2007] Rugby World Cup and plan on returning after that.

Remuneration has been cited as a major sub-motive for the mobility of Americans (Stahl et al., 2002), Germans and the French (Stahl & Cerdin, 2004) and the current study establishes it as the most important economic sub-motive for New Zealanders. Comments from respondents identified the lack of comparability of New Zealand salaries with those obtained elsewhere – a finding which reinforces Jackson et al.'s (2005) research. There is also clear evidence provided here to dispute Portes' (1976) and Salt's (1987) earlier suggestions of remuneration being the sole motive for a move with a significant share of respondents giving remuneration a score of zero.

Improvement of the overall economic situation is the second-most important economic sub-motive influencing a decision to be mobile with a mean of 27.2%. While the factor is similar to remuneration, it takes into account other components such as cost of living and comparative economic situations. This sub-motive is allocated some points by 77.3% of respondents in this motive, indicating a high level of importance.

Improving the standard of living is identified as the next most important economic sub-motive with 10.8% of the total points allocated to the motive, although the points for this sub-motive compared to the previous two shows it to be considerably less important. Comments from respondents highlight the lack of comparability in the standard of living between New Zealand and their host country –

I would move back to New Zealand if my partner could obtain a position in interior design in the South Island which was remunerated appropriately and if I could obtain a nurse education position which paid well. I believe that New Zealand's greatest problem is its poor pay scale compared to other countries around the world and its high cost of living. My family all live in New Zealand and struggle – they all work full time and seem to find it difficult to make ends meet.

There is absolutely no way that my husband would be in an equivalent economic position if we had stayed in New Zealand. Salaries for the jobs that we do are significantly lower than in the UK. Even taking into account the higher cost of living in London, we are much better off here financially and intend to stay here until we have saved enough money to have a good standard of living in New Zealand.

The next two items, student loans and a desire to live in a larger economy are not significantly different ($p > .05$). Anecdotal evidence suggested that

student loans may have an influence on people moving overseas. Inkson et al. (2004) found indications of this in their research, although the numbers who had student loans were not high. This research clearly shows the importance of student loans in influencing a decision of highly educated New Zealanders to be mobile. A desire to pay off a student loan more quickly is the fourth highest ranking economic sub-motive with an average of 8.1%, scoring slightly less than standard of living ($p < .01$). However, while standard of living is allocated points by 281 respondents (44.8% of respondents in this motive), paying off student loans was only allocated points by 160 people (25.5%), indicating that for those whom this was motivating factor, it was considerably more important than standard of living. The student loan scheme was instigated in 1992, so would have had most impact on respondents aged 35 or less. Of these, 44.0% ($n=268$) rate student loans as having some influence on their decision to leave New Zealand.

Of the total comments provided by respondents, 22 specifically mentioned moving abroad to pay off student loans. Examples include –

I had to leave New Zealand to afford to pay back my student loan. Once overseas, I could see no good reason to move back as career, money, education and life style prospects were so much better in many other countries.

I left New Zealand as I was under a tremendous strain to pay off my student loan and afford a house. As a finance student, I looked at things in economic terms. If I stayed in New Zealand, would I ever pay off my student loan and be able to afford a house? The answer was no. I packed by bags and moved to Australia, where I met my wife. From there, we have come to the United Kingdom, to give us greater financial

stability. We would move back to New Zealand, if the opportunities improved.

Fiscal considerations would, however, appear to be only one aspect of the student loan issue. There are other aspects that come through strongly in the comments of a further 12 respondents. First, there is considerable bitterness at the student loan scheme and the perceived effect that it has had on these people's lives.

I feel that the burden of a student loan has partly influenced my decision to live overseas. I feel quite bitter about having to pay for my education but also sad in some ways that I have now taken my skills and knowledge to an overseas workplace because I don't feel I 'owe' New Zealand my skills (odd way to think I know) because I've had to pay for acquiring these.

I would rather not be in Korea, but the possibility of paying off my student loan in 2–3 years was too tempting. My student loan is like a millstone around my neck. I have currently paid off half and have \$20,000 to go. If I didn't have a student loan I would travel and work casually, enjoying many different countries, rather than being tied to one unfulfilling, useless job. I feel that the burden of paying back my student loan has destroyed my early 20s and part of me wishes I had never been to university but went overseas as soon as I left high school. As soon as the last dollar is paid off I am out of Korea without a backward glance.

Currently New Zealand moans about [the] 'brain drain'. This is obviously happening due to the fact of the student loan fiasco in the past. The Government needs to introduce incentive schemes for the brain trust to stay in New Zealand.

Second, the burden of repaying student loans, particularly as they continue to accrue interest while abroad, would appear to be actively keeping people from returning to New Zealand.

I love Britain but will probably get sick of the overcrowding in the next few years. Unfortunately, as it stands, I will never return to New Zealand due to my large student loan. It's highly likely my wife and I will eventually end up living in Australia.

...However, given my career choice, I am strongly disabled by student loan issues, and while that hasn't been clear in my answers to this questionnaire, it is important to get across that the student loan ensures I live over here in much less financial security than if I was in New Zealand, and the irony is that they want me to come back (reverse the brain drain) and penalise me for staying away acquiring the skills that would enable me to come back. Not to start ranting, but it is very frustrating and I hope your survey will be taken seriously by the policy makers.

There is also suggestion that the impacts of the student loan are far reaching, having consequences well into the future -

I find that there is no way I can ever move back to New Zealand and live a comfortable life. I love New Zealand very much and would love to return but cannot due to financial difficulties. At the age of 17, I was convinced to take out a student loan (not knowing the financial implications of this, I readily agreed). Now at age 30 I find that I am still unable to pay this back and it has now reached a level of extreme debt. How am I ever supposed to save for a house, have a baby AND pay back the student loan?

The issue of student loans being a causal factor in a decision to move overseas is, therefore, confirmed. As the anecdotal evidence suggests (Wilson, 2001), highly educated young New Zealanders are leaving the country in an attempt to earn more money, more quickly, to pay back these loans. Recent policy changes to the Student Loan Scheme (Inland Revenue Department, 2007) have removed some pressure by allowing repayment holidays for New Zealanders while abroad, but continuing interest and compulsory paybacks when back in New Zealand do little to encourage return. As evidenced in the comments of respondents, these highly educated people are staying abroad to avoid having to pay back the ever-increasing debt, and will never bring their human capital back to New Zealand. The impact of student loans in changing the social fabric of society will no doubt be the subject of retrospective studies in the future, but the early indication from the present study is that it may delay both childbirth and house ownership.

A desire to live in a country with a larger economy is in the same band as student loans ($p > .05$), with 7.3% of the allocation and 29.2% scoring this sub-motive. The following extract exemplifies this factor –

New Zealand is but one small city in comparable world terms. Four million people is a very small economy (especially so because of geographic isolation), hence the migratory move to Australia which is in effect the people 'creating' an economic union ahead of the Governments' talk of the same.

There is another significant drop in the overall importance of the next economic sub-motive – a desire to improve the taxation position. This sub-motive scored just 4.5% of the total allocation. Like the student loans

issue, however, this is one topic that impassioned respondents resulting in 71 additional comments on taxation. These comments focus on the high level of taxation in New Zealand –

My total taxation in New Zealand is close to 70% – taking all factors into account – where I work now – my total tax liability is 7% of total income. Obviously, living in New Zealand leaves me with far fewer dollars in my pocket for personal expenditure. Where I live now – anything I want – I can afford – when in New Zealand – I go without many things. This is entirely due to the tax regime of New Zealand.

It's too difficult to get ahead in New Zealand what with income tax, GST, student loan etc. I'm losing 60% of my income, as opposed to around 5% in Korea. I'd love to be able to afford to live in New Zealand, but I can't do that again unless I manage to make enough money to bring back so I can live comfortably.

TAX REGIME MAJOR GRIPE WITH NEW ZEALAND [emphasis in original].

The comments do not specifically address the tax differential between New Zealand and Australia as most responses had been received prior to the latest Australian tax cut in 2007. Further, if this differential was a significant influence in a decision to move, it could be expected that the proportion of these people living in Australia would be high, and this is not the case. The present study, therefore, suggests that a tax differential has not, as yet, been an important influence in decisions by New Zealanders to move to Australia, although recent commentators are certainly suggesting this will occur (Johnstone, 2008b). However, the tax environment may be an influence in a decision to move to other countries. Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, both of which

have no personal income tax, and South Korea, Hong Kong and Singapore with maximum individual rates of 7%, 16% and 20% respectively (World Bank, 2007, pp. 287–290), are destinations over-represented amongst those who are concerned about taxation rates.

Being unemployed and avoiding debts are relatively unimportant reasons to leave New Zealand with an average of less than 1% of the total points allocated to this motive ($p > .05$). Only 20 people allocated any points to this sub-motive and it is of little influence in a decision to be mobile. Avoidance of economic liabilities receives an allocation from only 18 people (2.9% of respondents in this motive) and just 0.5% of the allocation. Again, while relatively unimportant overall in a decision to be mobile, some people feel strongly enough to comment –

A broken marriage and payments were crippling me under New Zealand system, so I chased dollars to meet my obligations and earn enough for my children's education. This is a theme I find with a number of males I know living out of New Zealand. (Note, they are not running away, they simply find it better to finance their commitment from overseas, and distance helps avoid conflict with ex-spouses.)

I left to travel and experience new cultures with my girlfriend. I also left because the amount of child support I was paying in New Zealand was crippling me financially. The mother of my daughter doesn't allow me to have access to my daughter, so I was paying \$180 a week child support and getting nothing in return. My marginal tax rate was 33 per cent + 18 per cent (child support) = 51 per cent. So half the cash I was earning was going to the government. Here in Korea, I earn much less than what I was earning in New Zealand. But I'm saving 3 times as much because my tax rate is only 3 per cent and my apartment is free.

Respondents were also given the opportunity to identify other economic factors that had influenced their decision to be mobile and this accounted for the final 2.1% of the allocation. Four key themes that are not specifically discussed in the literature emerged. These are to save money/pay off the mortgage more quickly, fund travel, obtain better superannuation schemes and to take advantage of better student scholarships. Clear age distinctions are apparent here, with the younger respondents interested in both funding travel and better student scholarships, and the older respondents interested in the superannuation schemes available in the host countries. Saving money and paying off the mortgage are consistent across all age groups.

7.3.1 Summary of the Economic Sub-motive

This section has examined the economic sub-motives which influence a decision to be mobile. Remuneration was found to be the most important sub-motive followed by improving the economic situation and standard of living. The impact of student loans on a decision to be mobile was pronounced and is ranked the fourth highest sub-motive in this motive. It is, however, only relevant to those aged 35 or less, and of these, 44% cited it as a motivation for leaving New Zealand. There are also indications that student loans may be delaying childbirth and home ownership and this warrants further attention.

Taxation is another issue which received numerous comments and is obviously a bone of contention with many respondents. Recent tax cuts in Australia are likely to compound the tax differential and encourage more New Zealanders to move across the Tasman.

7.4 The Relationship Sub-motives

The impact of relationships in a decision to be mobile has been identified as an area requiring more research (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005; Raghuram & Kofman, 2002). This section examines relationships in more detail to investigate the influence they have in cross-national mobility. The relative importance of the nine sub-motives that comprise this motive are shown in ranked order in Table 7.3. The Friedman test indicates that while these allocations did not occur by chance, the individual differences between the sub-motives were not all statistically significant. The post hoc pairwise analysis distinguishes having a partner from the country as the most important, and education for children as the least important, but shows the other sub-motives grouped in three bands.

Table 7.4.

Relative Importance of the Relationships Sub-motives

Rank	Relationship Sub-motives	Mean ($n=477$)	SD
1	Partner from this country	42.6	42.9
2	Partner wanted to come	14.6 ^a	28.9
2	Partners career	14.2 ^a	30.0
4	Closer to family and friends	8.1 ^b	20.9
4	Change in relationship	5.7 ^b	16.7
6	Family from this country	3.5 ^c	12.7
6	Further from family	2.9 ^c	13.5
6	Friends all overseas	2.8 ^c	9.8
9	Better education for children	1.3	7.2

^{a,b,c} These scores are not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

The relationships motive is not as important as the previous motives, with only 18.2% ($n=2,608$) of total respondents ranking this their top motive. However, the influence of a partner in a decision to be mobile is still clearly shown in this Table as having a partner from another country is the predominant relationship sub-motive with an average of 42.6% of the total points allocated to this motive. As one person comments –

...However, we're now applying for New Zealand residency for my partner (hereditary health issues are slowing our application) and hope to be back living in New Zealand by the end of 2007. If the health issue means my partner can't get residency in New Zealand, I will be happy to stay in UK as my relationship is more important than my country of residence.

The motives ranked second also relate directly to a partner either wanting to move to a different country or to follow a partner in their career. The other sub-motives relating to family and friends are considerably less important.

Chapter Two suggested that relationship issues would be more important to those who are partnered than those who are single, and partnered people do represent 84.6% of those who rated this motive their most important. Consideration of the partner's wishes, career options and the needs of the dependants all add complexity to a decision to be mobile. However, for those in this group who are single, having a partner from the host country still ranked as the most important relationship sub-motive motivating a decision to move. This implies that these people travelled to the host country in a relationship with a former partner, and remained there once that relationship had ended. This is supported by a respondent's comment –

My original reason to come to Australia was to follow my partner of the time who got a job here. I have since married a different person who is Australian who already had teenage children so we were committed to remain in Australia until they were independent.

The issue of dual careers and the complications that can arise from seeking two positions in a new country was not specifically addressed in this research. However, several self-initiated movers clearly indicated that both careers are considered in a decision to be mobile –

If a job in mine and my partner's current careers with the same or similar remuneration was available in New Zealand, we would move back to New Zealand no question.

These days I know I'd be fine job/career wise, but am more concerned about my wife's options.

While men and women were equally represented in this motive ($n= 204$ and $n=241$ respectively), their allocation of points differed significantly. Ackers (2003), in research on the scientific community, found that women tend to give way to the careers of their male partners, and will follow them to new positions abroad. In this study, women gave 21.6% to this sub-motive compared with 5.8% of the men's allocation, confirming that women are much more likely than men to have followed their partners abroad. Further, in the unsolicited comments, 14 women comment that they have specifically moved abroad because of their partner's careers. In most instances, this move is viewed positively.

We moved to the USA for my husband's career as a helicopter pilot as there were very few jobs in the industry in New Zealand.

I came here to the USA because my husband accepted an 18-month contract. I've had to wait 4 months to obtain a work permit, but I consider the international experience and travel that we've gained worth the wait...Here in San Francisco I have the opportunity to work for internationally known Silicon Valley PR firms rather than the

limited pool in Wellington. (I was about to start a PR role in Wellington before my husband was reassigned.)

In the broader, highly educated labour market studied in this research, however, there are clear indications that men had also followed their partners abroad.

I left New Zealand to find work and adventure in PNG with an Australian girl I met in New Zealand. We married in PNG and lived there for 8 years. My wife was transferred with her company to Queensland, Australia and we settled in Cairns for 20 years. My wife retired in 1999 when we moved to Queensland where we remain and operate a taxi and invest in real estate.

My initial travel was to experience different cultures. After that, I was head-hunted internationally for most of my projects. Recently I have been travelling with my partner, going to where she wants to go for her career.

Thus, Acker's (2003) contention that women do give way to the careers of their partners is countered by a finding that for some of these dual-careered, self-initiated movers, men will also follow their partner's career. Further, this suggests that Raghuram's (2004) assertion that men still take lead role in mobility may not be as true for self-initiated movers as for expatriates. The inference here is that the developing equality in careers of highly educated men and women is beginning to be translated into an equality in taking or sharing the lead role in mobility.

There is a range of ways in which the partner influenced a decision to be mobile, including increasing employment opportunities and being near family as exemplified in the following comments –

As my husband is 60 yrs old, it is difficult for him to work in our home town in the provinces. The opportunity to work and travel at our time of life, now the kids are grown, is excellent for us.

Basically, my partner didn't want to leave her parents or career in Germany, and wanted our children to grow up in the German culture, so although I love New Zealand, I had to move.

Broader family and friends also have an influence on a decision to be mobile. Being closer to family and friends is ranked fourth out of the relationship sub-motives with an average allocation of 8.1%. Typical comments from respondents included –

I am living in the UK at the moment as we wish to be close to my husband's mother.

Marriage to a non-New Zealander to a large extent is responsible for my decision to come here. New Zealand is too far from her family and we would not be able to afford to visit them if I was on New Zealand wages and with the tax regime.

While being closer to family and friends is certainly important to many people, escaping family was a factor of influence for others with 2.9% of the motive's points. Some respondents specifically mention this in their comments –

Basically I moved to Sydney for two reasons, to get away from my family for a while and to find a job.

My parents were having marital difficulties at that time and this increased my desire to move out.

[We left New Zealand] to force two sons in their 20s living at home to take a greater responsibility for their own living situation, and to give us an opportunity to have time out after 20+ years of parenting!

A desire to visit the birth countries of ancestors was proposed as a sub-motive for some New Zealanders and this study confirms this factor. Meeting or visiting family in the country of origin, or a wish to see where ancestors came from, are motives for 12.0% of respondents and is ranked sixth in this motive. It is also a factor that respondents chose to comment on –

...There was also a desire to see some of the places where my grandfather fought during the war.

Both my parents were born and grew up in England. So I grew up listening to their tales of travelling about Europe. The desire to travel about Europe, using the UK as a base, was the main reason I left New Zealand. I also had relatives living in the UK, who I wanted to get to know better.

The influence of friends already overseas was also proposed as a reason for leaving New Zealand and is ranked eighth in the relationship motive, scoring 2.8% of the total relationship allocation from 54 respondents (11.3%). This sub-motive is most important to young respondents, and is verbalised in the comments –

One of the reasons we left New Zealand is because all our friends had moved to the UK! They are all young professionals and the majority of them have bought houses here (as have we) and are planning on staying a reasonable length of time. The reason most of our friends go back to New Zealand is to have children.

I have 20 of my closest friends from my [New Zealand] school years in London, probably about 3 in New Zealand.

Myers and Inkson (2003) suggested that letters and emails from friends abroad can plant seeds of mobility. This study confirms this and also identifies the influence of a visit back home from friends living abroad. One respondent, for example, clearly associates her decision to move abroad with a visit from a friend –

I am a vet, and worked in New Zealand for ten years before being lured to the UK by one of my best friends from university. She came to visit me after working in London, spent 10 minutes watching me getting harassed at work by the clients, and insisted that I come stay with her. She organised me to get a job with her locum agency, applied for a visa, and I was away.

A change in a relationship such as breaking up with a partner can also be an impetus for a move. Overall, this sub-motive is ranked in the band with being closer to family and friends, and received 5.7% of the points. Two men describe their reasons for leaving New Zealand.

I initially intended to work overseas for a short period after a relationship break-up, and was offered a position in my current field. I am now earning more than double what I was in New Zealand, and although I would dearly love to move back home, it is hard to find enough reasons to return under the current economic and political climate.

My decision to leave New Zealand and venture to the UK in 1998 was due to a failed personal relationship at University.

The final and least important sub-motive in this motive is a move to obtain better education for children. Perceived educational opportunities for the next generation have been acknowledged as a motivating factor to the USA (Cheng & Yang, 1998), particularly when moving from less developed countries. New Zealand's educational system is generally well recognised internationally (OECD, 2007), but 21 respondents still allocated some points to this sub-motive. Further, although outside the scope of this research, respondents generally considered the New Zealand education system to be commendable, suggesting that it may be a factor encouraging a return to New Zealand rather than something which made them leave. Numerous respondents state this view –

I may consider returning in about 5 years for the sake of my child's education if the numbers stack up.

Why would we come home?? The only reason that we will return home is because of our child. We believe that New Zealand has an excellent education system and the outdoor life is appealing.

I am looking to make the most of the opportunity to travel and see the world while I can, however when kids are on the way and at an age to go to school requiring stability etc., I will be looking towards New Zealand again.

Respondents were again given the opportunity to list other relationship sub-motives which had an influence in their decision to be mobile and the remaining 4.4% of points were allocated to this option. The majority of cases were subsets of the main sub-motives already listed (for example, respondents stated that family from New Zealand living in the host country was a reason, which fits with being closer to family and friends), but there is one distinct new sub-motive which arose. Part of the decision

to leave New Zealand was to provide wider opportunities to meet more people and to develop new relationships. Some of these people have specific requirements, for example, to be in a larger gay community or to find a Jewish partner, while others wanted to meet a wider range of people. Several women comment on the shortage of single men in New Zealand, using terminology such as ‘man drought’, with one woman explaining her situation more fully –

...Secondly, I am 33 and would like one day to meet someone new and have children – in an ideal world this future man would come from New Zealand or Australia, so that there is less geographical strain on the relationship, but I felt that I would have more chance of meeting an educated, single man of my age in London than I would in New Zealand. Finally, I felt that my friends in London, as opposed to my friends who have remained in New Zealand, were closer aligned to my current social situation – i.e. they have international experience and many of them are still single women in their 30s – to fall into this category in New Zealand somehow seems a little depressing but in London there are many of us! I have talked to other singles here (men and women) and they say this is one of their reasons for not returning home to New Zealand – many see this as what you do once you have a partner and want to start a family.

The shortage of men, particularly in the 30–39 age group, has been officially recognised in a 2005 Population Growth Report (KPMG, 2005) and in the 2006 Census (Phare, 2006). The labour market implications of more women than men in the workforce has also been examined (Callister, Bedford, & Didham, 2006). The factor not previously identified is that this shortage is contributing to the number of people leaving New Zealand.

7.4.1 Summary of the Relationship Sub-motives

The relationships motive is the most important motive to nearly 20% of respondents. The influence of a partner is significant, whether it be because the partner is from the host country, wants to go to the host country or is accompanying a partner in their career transfer. Together, these sub-motives account for 71.4% of the points allocated to this motive. Women are more likely than men to accompany their partner, although there are clear indications that men will also put their partner's career first.

The wider family is also an influence on a decision to be mobile, both in terms of attracting respondents to the host country and being a motivation for leaving New Zealand. Having family and friends already living overseas is also a draw card for some respondents.

One new sub-motive is identified here – many respondents left New Zealand to provide wider opportunities to meet people and develop new relationships. This is particularly cited as a motivating factor by women, reflecting the perceived 'man drought' in New Zealand.

7.5 The Quality of Life Sub-motives

The published literature suggests that quality of life sub-motives such as weather, work-life balance and a desire for a change in the pace of life could influence a decision to be mobile. This section continues the exploration of sub-motives by discussing the relative importance of the quality of life motive.

It was proposed in Chapter Two that people who initiate their own movement across national boundaries would take the quality of life in the prospective host country into consideration. Quality of life was not, however, as important as the other motives examined to date, ranking fifth out of the six, and with just 196 respondents ranking this motive top. Inkson et al. (2004) found that the quality of life was more of a pull factor, attracting people back to New Zealand, than a push factor. Certainly the comments of some of the respondents support that notion the people perceive quality of life to be higher in New Zealand, as exemplified in the following comment –

I scored 'political situation' and 'quality of life' negatively because the situation is much better in New Zealand.

The sub-motives within the motive are shown in ranked order in Table 7.4. As with the other motives, these rankings could not have occurred by chance ($p < .01$). The post hoc pairwise Friedman test on the individual differences between sub-motives is, however, often not significant, creating just four bands of importance out of the eight sub-motives. There is no distinction between a better climate and work-life balance, although these two factors differ significantly from a more social lifestyle. This sub-motive differs from the next band which incorporates enjoying

outdoor life, being more relaxed, living life in the fast lane and better public transport. Finally, better healthcare is significantly different to all the other sub-motives.

Table 7.5.

Relative Importance of the Quality of Life Sub-motives.

Rank	Quality of Life Sub-motives	Mean ($n=2,608$)	SD
1	Better climate	23.6 ^a	26.4
1	Better work-life balance	22.1 ^a	25.6
3	More social lifestyle	12.0	19.5
4	To enjoy outdoor life more	7.3 ^b	11.8
4	More relaxed	7.0 ^b	12.5
4	Life in the fast lane	6.3 ^b	13.6
4	Better public transport	5.9 ^b	12.8
5	Better healthcare	4.9	13.2

^{a,b}. These scores are not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

A desire for a better climate and a better work-life balance are the most important sub-motives in this motive. To experience a better climate received an average of 23.6% of the total allocation to this motive. Several respondents comment on moving for a warmer, more consistent climate –

My family and I shifted from New Zealand to Australia as the climate in New Zealand was impacting to such a degree my husband's health that he was unable to work and was barely able to walk. In Queensland (because of the warmer climate) not only can he work but he is walking or on his feet for at least eight hours per day. Thank you Brisbane – perfect one day, spectacular the next!

We loved Wellington, but the idea of living in a new country, and with a warmer climate was appealing.

Others, however, sought a different climate –

I love the Canadian climate and the opportunities which I have to ski and explore the mountains which are so close to where I live.

Of those who allocated at least some points to climate, 77.0% are currently living in Australia. The USA and Canada account for 7.4% of the total, and the UK for 3.3%. Thailand and Vietnam accounted for 2.5% and 1.6% respectively. The other countries had only one respondent in each, but were in the Mediterranean, Asia or the Middle East where climates are warmer.

Obtaining a better work-life balance receives an average allocation of 22.1% of the points in this motive and more than half of the respondents (58.2%) allocated at least some points to this sub-motive. The desire for more balance is exemplified in the following comment –

We basically came to Australia to have a better quality of life i.e. better climate, earn more money and have the ability to spend more quality time together as a family.

The next sub-motive, seeking a more social lifestyle, along with wanting to live in life in the so-called *fast lane*, reflects a desire for something more exciting than New Zealand can offer. One respondent highlighted what she saw as the problems of New Zealand -

We moved to Sydney after the UK because career opportunities were better here, although I wanted to go back to New Zealand. If you want a bit of excitement in New Zealand the main option is Auckland, the problem is Auckland's major issue, transport – there is no public transport, and traffic jams are worse than Sydney or London. The alternative is Wellington, great city, but the weather is awful. Where next? Hamilton... dull/boring. Tauranga, has a nice beach but it's not

exactly a thriving city, it's being filled up with retirees. The sad fact is the only option is Auckland but it simply doesn't compare to Sydney and Melbourne.

A more social lifestyle and faster pace of life are allocated at least some points by 37.8% and 21.9% of respondents in this motive respectively.

The opposite situation, enjoying more of the outdoors and seeking a more relaxed lifestyle are allocated 7.3% and 7.0% of this motive's points. Carr et al. (2005) suggested that seeking a more relaxed lifestyle and enjoyment of the outdoor recreational opportunities available in New Zealand may actually be factors which would draw people back to the country rather than push them away. The low proportion of points allocated to these sub-motives supports this suggestion. The comments received from respondents on these sub-motives certainly reinforce this finding. Typical comments include –

I do miss my family enormously and recognise New Zealand's seriously superior quality of life (outdoors wise).

I do intend to return to New Zealand to live but that will be when I retire from my current profession (which will be in my early 50s) in part so as to give our children a taste of secondary schooling and the Great Outdoors in New Zealand.

New Zealand provides a great lifestyle, great outdoors activity, beautiful scenery and will always be where I choose to bring up my family...

The importance of these sub-motives for residents of other countries would be interesting to determine if they rank higher or lower than the scores of the New Zealanders.

The final two sub-motives in the quality of life motive are moving to a location with better public transportation and better healthcare. These are amongst the in the least important with an allocation of 5.9% and 4.9% respectively. While the level of importance was low, these results do indicate that they are considered when making a decision to be mobile. These are factors that have an impact depending on individual circumstances. For example, one respondent had a particular interest in transportation issues –

If New Zealand was truly committed to the environment they would build better public transportation. Being in the private transportation industry, I can tell you that we cannot handle transportation issues better than public bodies. Rail is undoubtedly the most efficient means of carriage yet many years ago the train lines to Nelson were torn up. As to buses, the current system has public and private buses in competition. The result seems to be transportation along the lines of Tijuana, Mexico.

For other respondents, quality healthcare was of prime importance. One respondent focuses her comments on this aspect –

Both my spouse and I love New Zealand and always were considering returning. Our 4 year old son has been diagnosed with Cerebral Palsy and living/working in California provides our son the best opportunities for medical therapy and advanced treatments. We read New Zealand papers everyday via the web and are extremely concerned by the problems faced in the New Zealand healthcare

industry and specific stories on web discussion boards detailing the lack of care available to CP parents in New Zealand. Work/life balance and healthcare are extremely important to us and we cannot see ourselves returning in the near term.

As with the other motives, respondents were given the opportunity to list other quality of life sub-motives that they felt were important in their decision to be mobile. Forty-one factors were listed, most of which were covered by other sub-motives (for example, better surfing, which could have been included under enjoying outdoor life more) or which were included in other motives (for example, to experience cultural diversity). However, one new sub-motive has clearly emerged and this is a move to a location where there is a greater level of choice – both in terms of consumer goods (clothes, vehicles and food) and activities. This was raised primarily by those who left New Zealand prior to the 1990s, when this limited range of products was particularly evident.

7.5.1 Summary of the Quality of Life Sub-motives

The quality of life motive ranks fifth out of the six motives. Moving to a better climate scores the highest in this motive, with the majority of people who desired this now living in Australia. Some respondents sought a faster, more social existence, while others sought a slower pace of life with more focus on outdoor activities. Healthcare and infrastructural issue are mentioned in this motive, but are not very important sub-motives influencing a decision to be mobile. A new sub-motive which emerges from the analysis of this motive is a desire for a greater level of choice, although this is most relevant for those who left New Zealand some time ago.

7.6 The Political Environment Sub-motives

This section examines the sub-motives influencing a decision to be mobile in the final motive, the political environment. This motive incorporates factors relating to both the politics of New Zealand that may have motivated a person to leave and the politics of the host country that may have drawn a person to that country. With New Zealand being a relatively safe and stable country, it was proposed in Chapter Two that these sub-motives would not be particularly important for self-initiated movers, and this is confirmed with only 68 people (2.6%) rating this motive first.

It is important to note though, that for some people these sub-motives are very important. One respondent allocated the entire 100 points to the sub-motive ‘to escape a particular political environment’. The intensity of feeling behind this allocation is obvious in the comments he wrote –

I left New Zealand like many of my educated professional friends because of the way our lives had been so negatively affected by the left wing liberal government of Helen Clark and the Labour Party, loss of personal freedom and the pervasiveness of the Nanny State. Coupled with this we just cannot stand the hysterical political climate that has developed – namely the femmo-nazi culture that has spread throughout local government and the education system.

This respondent is not the only person to express strong views. Other unsolicited comments refer to politics and the policies of the current Government. These shall be explored more as the individual sub-motives are discussed.

The sub-motives that comprise this motive are ranked in Table 7.6. These mean scores did not occur by chance ($p<.01$) and a post hoc pairwise analysis indicates a significant difference between each of the first five sub-motives. The last three sub-motives shown in the Table are not significantly different to each other, and form a band at the bottom.

Table 7.6

Relative Importance of the Political Environment Sub-motives.

Rank	Political Environment Sub-motive	Mean (n=68)	SD
1	New Zealand too politically correct	32.5	27.9
2	To escape a particular political environment	21.0	24.7
3	New Zealand too insular	15.1	20.3
4	Greater freedom	9.4	17.1
5	New Zealand too far away	2.6	6.6
6	To take advantage of immigration policies	1.1 ^a	4.5
6	To move to a safer country	1.1 ^a	7.0
6	To take advantage of working holiday visas	1.0 ^a	4.8

^a These scores are not significantly different from each other and have been ranked together

A total of 49 respondents (73.1%) feel that New Zealand is too politically correct, and nearly a third of the points for this motive are allocated to this sub-motive. While the respondents who allocated points to this sub-motive are spread throughout the world, there is a disproportionate number currently living in Australia (35.3% as opposed to 20.4% of the total respondents). Several people explain the draw of Australia in terms of the political correctness of New Zealand –

Clearly the weather was a major drawcard to come to Australia. That said, that fact the Aussie aren't at all PC is great news! Kiwi's need to get over ourselves – the liberal trends in politics makes it easier to leave [New Zealand] and a whole lot easier to stay!

...Both of us were sick and tired of New Zealand's 'issues' - especially the PC MAORI issues [emphasis in original]. Together with the Gold Coast climate, the political and social environment over here is, for me,

everything New Zealand isn't! Australia is by no means perfect but its flaws are very easy to live with, thanks!

The response to the next ranked sub-motive, to escape a particular political environment, suggests that for many, the move may be temporary and could alter with a change in circumstances. For numerous people, that change needed to be the former Labour Government –

I am still a angry at the Labour Government for turning the place into a PC hippy paradise, and I am sad we are slowly selling our country to the highest bidder and becoming a nation of employees for foreign (mainly Australian) companies. I will not return to NZ while the current Labour Government is in power.

Politically I had also had enough of the Labour Government. As far as I was concerned, New Zealand was going backwards especially when compared to other first world countries including Australia. Too much time is spent on being politically correct without focusing on serious issues such as the most recent rise in the Official Cash Rate. The environment was simply not conducive to staying. I found the general attitudes to be those of small-minded, isolationist views.

One of the most compelling reasons for us leaving New Zealand was the current political party and in particular its leadership ... All in all the picture is not one that invites our return, yet New Zealand is 'home' and one day we are likely to return, hoping of course for different political leadership.

The next two sub-motives are ranked equally. New Zealand being too insular is allocated 15.1% of the motive's points. A specific comment from one respondent shows how important this is for him –

You hit the nail on the head with the comment 'New Zealand is too insular'. It certainly was when I left in 1979. Thankfully it has 'grown' commercially and technologically since then. The parts of New Zealand that remain stuck in the past (small country towns etc.) are to its benefit now, not its detriment, I feel. However, my career and personal life have become established here, and like so many other ex-pat Kiwis I know here, we love to return to New Zealand for a visit, but our 'lives' are over here now.

A desire for greater freedom is a motivating factor for 34.3% of respondents in this motive, and received 9.4% of the total points. This is expressed by several people as a desire to be anonymous –

A real appealing aspect of life here is the anonymity – you can dress how you want, go where you want, do what you want. You're far less likely to see people you know.

My friends and I would rather lose ourselves in a large city with an element of anonymity and freedom to do what we want without the same element of consequence or expectations, than to trudge along with all the same people in good old New Zealand forever.

The remaining four sub-motives in the political environment motive score comparatively low scores, making it difficult to derive meaningful information. There are, however, a few areas which are highlighted in the comments. Although New Zealand is generally regarded as a safe country (Mayhew & Reilly, 2007), there is concern about rising levels of crime and this has been an impetus for moving for some people -

We feel safer living here – my wife especially – than we ever did living in New Zealand. Much less crime in our neighbourhood; no graffiti for miles; no unkempt and intimidating thugs walking the streets; fantastic

sense of community; polite, helpful and courteous locals; rules and laws that people actually obey; much less alcohol-fuelled mayhem...

The USA is a very varied place – not all areas are the same. The area I am in is very safe for a family. Crime is less common than in New Zealand. People leave their cars running, windows down, there is limited vandalism...

Taking advantage of the working holiday visas is a motivating factor for those aged in their twenties and thirties. While the British Working Holiday Visa is only valid until 30 years of age (Workgateways, 2008), respondents sometimes got a taste for life in another country and subsequently return to it. One respondent explains how this worked for him –

After living in the UK on a working holiday visa 1997–99, I returned to New Zealand to live and work in Wellington for seven years. But I became increasingly bored with life in New Zealand, and eventually secured a Highly Skilled Migrant Visa to return to London.

Another respondent sees the visa as an opportunity she would not have again –

I have come over to the UK much later than most, as I never actually had the desire to work or live overseas. I had done a lot of travelling but loved NZ. I am 31 and was very happy with my job and life back home but one day realised that if I didn't take the opportunity to get a visa now, I would not have another chance. I sold up everything I owned, quit my job and jumped on the plane, and have been here since.

Other visas, such as the UK Ancestry Visa, provide opportunities for work and travel without the limitations of the Working Holiday Visa –

My main reason for leaving New Zealand was that I had a UK Ancestry Visa which gave me the ability to work overseas. I was uncertain about my future career path after university, so took some time off to work and travel. The UK seemed like a good place to travel to the rest of the world.

The initial attraction of 'visit, travel and experience' unhindered by two year visa restrictions has meant I've never had a fixed timetable. My "dual citizenship" status has lent itself to a more leisurely absorption of life and experiences here (cultural, travel etc.,) and has meant I've experienced European life in more depth through friends and colleagues.

As with the other motives, respondents had the opportunity to identify other political environment factors which had a part in their decision to be mobile. A total of 103 people provided an additional reason, many of which, such as taxation, have been covered in other motives. There is strong negative feeling about the most recent Labour Government and its leaders. Although this was discussed previously, it is mentioned again here as there were 36 individual comments recorded, such as –

Dislike Labour Government in general.

To escape an arrogant Labour Government.

To get away from a country ruined under a Labour Government.

Dissatisfaction with the Government was not something that was limited to those who have left New Zealand recently –

I am one of those who departed New Zealand as a result of [National leader] Muldoon's rampage.

Instability of the country in the late 1970s under Muldoon.

To escape New Zealand labour laws in the 1990s under the National Government.

The politics and policies of governments are, therefore, clearly a sub-motive for some people to leave the country.

Racial issues and concerns surrounding the Treaty of Waitangi are motivating factors for some other respondents to leave New Zealand. Some respondents consider that Maori people are given beneficial treatment over other citizens –

My political reason for leaving New Zealand: The reverse racism in New Zealand is very frustrating - the favouritisms and constant hand-outs of millions of dollars that the country really can't afford that are given to Maori. Every New Zealander should be given the same healthcare/education etc. etc. regardless of ethnic background, but the Government doesn't seem to listen to the public on this issue. The Waitangi settlements should be given a final date of completion and that should be in end of it.

One of the main reasons for leaving was the frustrations with the government creating apartheid by offering favours, handouts and special treatments to Maoris, with the money only going to a select few in the iwi [tribe] and lots of stories of the money being wasted.

I left New Zealand simply because I was sick and tired of all the Treaty business and 'one rule for Maoris'. I feel it's reverse apartheid.

This is clearly an area that needs to be further investigated – why are these people so negative towards the indigenous Maori population? Have their personal experiences in New Zealand contributed to these

strong feelings? Interestingly, most of the respondents who made these comments have moved to Australia, where there are similar racial problems. As one respondent countered –

From a cultural perspective, however, the New Zealand Government has done a wonderful job over many years of really trying to better integrate Maori into society so that they, if they so choose, can benefit from educational and career opportunities available to all citizens. The indifference of the Australian Government and Australians in general, towards Aborigines, breaks my heart. I think that the main factor is Maori are a significant minority of the population whereas Aborigines are an insignificant proportion of the population ... so Australians can forget about them and it doesn't matter politically. And it doesn't matter socially either since most of them are out of sight (therefore out of mind).

While the respondents commenting on racial matters are certainly strong in voicing their opinions, it needs to be emphasised that these comments are expressed by only a minority of people.

7.6.1 Summary of the Political Environment Sub-motives

The political environment motive is the least important overall. The so-called political correctness of New Zealand is a sub-motive for many respondents to leave the country. There is also concern expressed for the future of children in such a politically correct environment. A disproportionate number of those who felt this sub-motive is important have moved to Australia.

Dissatisfaction with governments and government policy has driven people out of New Zealand over the decades. There is some strong

feeling about the leadership and policies of the former Labour Government. Similarly, there are some strong opinions about reverse racism and favouritism for Maori from a small percentage of respondents.

In the next chapter, the results of the exploration into mobility behaviours and the linkages with the motives are discussed.

CHAPTER 8

CONNECTING ‘BRAIN’ AND ‘DRAIN’

The purpose of this chapter is to test whether the six motives outlined in Chapter Two can be used to statistically predict the nine behavioural indicators outlined in Chapter Three. It specifically addresses Objective Two. There are two main layers to the analysis. The first is simple correlations which are used to get an overall impression of whether there are any linkages. Because the original measure for the motives was ipsative and ordinal, Spearman’s Rank Order Correlations Coefficient has been used. This ranks the data, thereby eliminating the issue of test-retest reliability. The second layer uses the CHAID analysis outlined in Chapter Four to infer which motives are the best predictors for the mobility behaviours, whilst controlling, statistically, for the motives set as a whole. In keeping with the research agenda, the mode of analysis is relatively exploratory.

8.1 Simple Correlations

The correlations between the motives are shown in Table 8.1. As expected with ipsative measures, there is some correlation between the motives but none are particularly high, and no two motives stand out as being either strongly correlated, or as not linked at all. Correlations between behaviours are also shown in Table 8.1. The correlations between cultural globalism and homebondedness are the exact inverse of each other. In retrospect, as cultural globalism is the proportion of the total time mobile that the respondent has spent out of the home country,

Table 8.1.
Simple Correlations of Motives and Behaviours

	Career	Culture	Economics	Political envt	Quality of life	Economism	Restlessness	Adventurousness	Cosmopolitanism	Homebondedness	Establishment	Current spatiality	Return propensity
Career	-												
Culture	-.183(****)	-											
Economics	-.073(****)	-.180(****)	-										
Political Environment	-.068(****)	-.189(****)	.086(****)	-									
Quality of Life	-.080(****)	-.232(****)		.269(****)	-								
Relationships	-.352(****)	-.249(****)	-.318(****)			-							
Economism							-						
Restlessness						-.140(****)	-						
Adventurousness						-.859(****)	.139(****)	-					
Cosmopolitanism						.135(****)	-.141(****)		-				
Homebondedness						-.135(****)	.141(****)		-.100(****)				
Establishment						.174(****)	-.312(****)	-.093(****)	.599(****)	-.599(****)	-		
Current spatiality						.183(****)	-.271(****)	-.225(****)				-	
Return propensity						-.124(****)	.174(****)	.124(****)	-.053(**)	.053(**)		-.536(****)	-
Latent transience						-.078(****)	.152(****)	.100(****)			-.162(****)	-.391(****)	-.331(****)

****Correlation is significant at the .001 level or **at the .01 level. Non-significant correlations have been suppressed.

and homebondedness is the proportion of the total time mobile spent in the home country, they are the same measure, so from this point in the study only cultural globalism will be retained. The correlation between economism and adventurousness is high ($r = -.859$). Wealthier countries tend to be more 'Western' in cultural values (Hofstede, 2001; House, 2004), and thus, those who move to poorer, rather than richer countries (and who will have a low economism score), tend also to be moving to cultures that are different to New Zealand.

More central to the study are the correlations between the motives and the mobility behaviours. From Table 8.2, the overall pattern is again no clear 'winners' or 'losers'. Statistically, the motives do predict mobility behaviour, but none of the links is either very strong or non-existent, each and every predictor motive having at least one statistically significant relationship with one behavioural variable. There are no clear signs, therefore, about which motives, precisely, to carry forward to a next round of analysis. Hence, and consistent with the exploratory nature of the research, in subsequent CHAID analyses, for each of the eight mobility behaviours, all six motives will be entered as potential predictors.

8.2 CHAID Analyses

Validity is limited by reliability (Bobko, 2001). Because it is based on chi-square testing, CHAID analyses are more reliable if the predictor or criterion variables are either nominal or ordinal rather than continuous (Gumbel, 1943; Koehler & Gan, 1990). Also, asking respondents to allocate 100 points may introduce temporal unreliability (people forget

Table 8.2
Correlations Between Motives and Mobility Behaviours

	Career	Culture	Economics	Political Environment	Quality of Life	Relationships
Economism	.054(***)	-.212(****)	-.041(*)	-.041(*)	.137(****)	.047(*)
Adventurousness	-.050(*)	.270(****)		-.065(****)	-.166(****)	-.041(*)
Restlessness		.173(****)	.095(****)		-.058(****)	
Homebondedness		-.106(****)	.084(****)			
Establishment		.112(****)	-.087(****)			
Current Spatiality	.068(****)	-.292(****)	-.070(****)	.086(****)	.187(****)	.069(****)
Return Propensity	-.114(****)	.256(****)		-.125(****)	-.204(**)	
Latent Transience	.079(****)	.063(****)	.069(****)		-.054(**)	-.096(**)

****Correlation is significant at the .001 level or *** at the .05 level or ** at the .01 level or * at the .05 level. Non-significant correlations have been suppressed.

exactly how many of the 100 points they allocated from one time to the next). However, a rank ordering is more reliable (people will maintain their overall rank preferences from one time to another). Hence, the predictor variables were all converted to ranks, from 1 (most preferred motive) to 6 (least preferred motive) for all CHAID analyses.

When conducting a CHAID analysis, there is a risk of over-fitting the data (van Diepen & Franses, 2006). This means that the CHAID tree might fit the analysis data well, but its ability to correctly classify other populations is not good. Validation of the tree is, therefore, necessary to assess how well the structure generalises to a larger sample. This can be done in two ways – through split-sample validation or cross validation (SPSS, 2004). In split sample validation, the model is generated using a training sample (usually 50% of the total sample) and tested on a holdout sample. In this study, splitting the sample results in split sample sizes of 1,304, close to the minimum sample size for CHAID of 1,000 (Kass, 1980; Van Middelkoop, Borgers, & Timmermans, 2003) and, therefore, cross validation is more appropriate.

Cross validation divides the sample into a number of subsamples (usually 10). The algorithm is then run nine times, excluding the data from one subset each time, essentially simulating a repeated split sample validation, but without the problem of the minimum sample size. The tree model is then generated from the amalgamated analyses. The chance that the tree classifies the data incorrectly (the risk estimate) is calculated as the average of the risks for all these trees (Ture, Tokatli, & Kurt, 2008).

8.2.1 Economism

Economism was operationally defined in Chapter Three as the average of the most contemporary Human Development Index for each of the various countries in which the respondents had lived. Hypothesis 1 predicted that economic motives will predict economism, and that relationship would be negative. Hence, people who rank economics as an important motive (a rank of 1 being the most important), are more likely to go to *lesser* developed countries with a lower HDI, and where their skills will earn a premium. The CHAID analysis (Figure 8.1) shows that the economics motive is not a predictor for economism and Hypothesis 1 is not supported. In fact, none of the motives predict economism as currently defined.

Model Summary		
Specifications	Growing Method	CHAID
	Dependent Variable	economism
	Independent Variables	career (ranked), culture (ranked), economics (ranked), polenvt (ranked), QOL (ranked), relnship (ranked)
	Validation	Cross Validation
	Maximum Tree Depth	3
	Minimum Cases in Parent Node	100
	Minimum Cases in Child Node	50
Results	Independent Variables Included	No Independent Variable Included
	Number of Nodes	1
	Number of Terminal Nodes	1
	Depth	0

Figure 8.1. CHAID Analysis of Predictors of Economism.

The CHAID results indicate that there is no one group which stands out as demonstrating strong economism behaviour, and it is concluded that economism, defined in this research as a move to a developing country to take advantage of high returns, may be a mobility behaviour exhibited by only a few respondents. A contrary pattern could be visualised where the movement of highly educated people is to specific locations within particular countries.

Earlier discussion focused on the 'expectation of movement', particularly as it applies to scientists and academics. This suggested that not only was there a perception of having to move, but that the movement would be to a specific institution. Extending this concept, it is posited that the movements of these highly educated people could be to highly specific locations. Straubhaar (2000, p. 16), for example, argues that the highly educated 'gravitate towards a central core', often financial centres such as London or New York. Similarly, Beaverstock (1994; 2002), in research on bankers and financial workers, identifies a series of global cities towards which skilled workers congregate. Hence, for these highly educated people, moving to improve an economic situation may be based more on the destination city than the country, and the macro, country-based measurement of the HDI would not distinguish at this micro, city level. Further research incorporating the exact location of respondents would be required to test this proposition further.

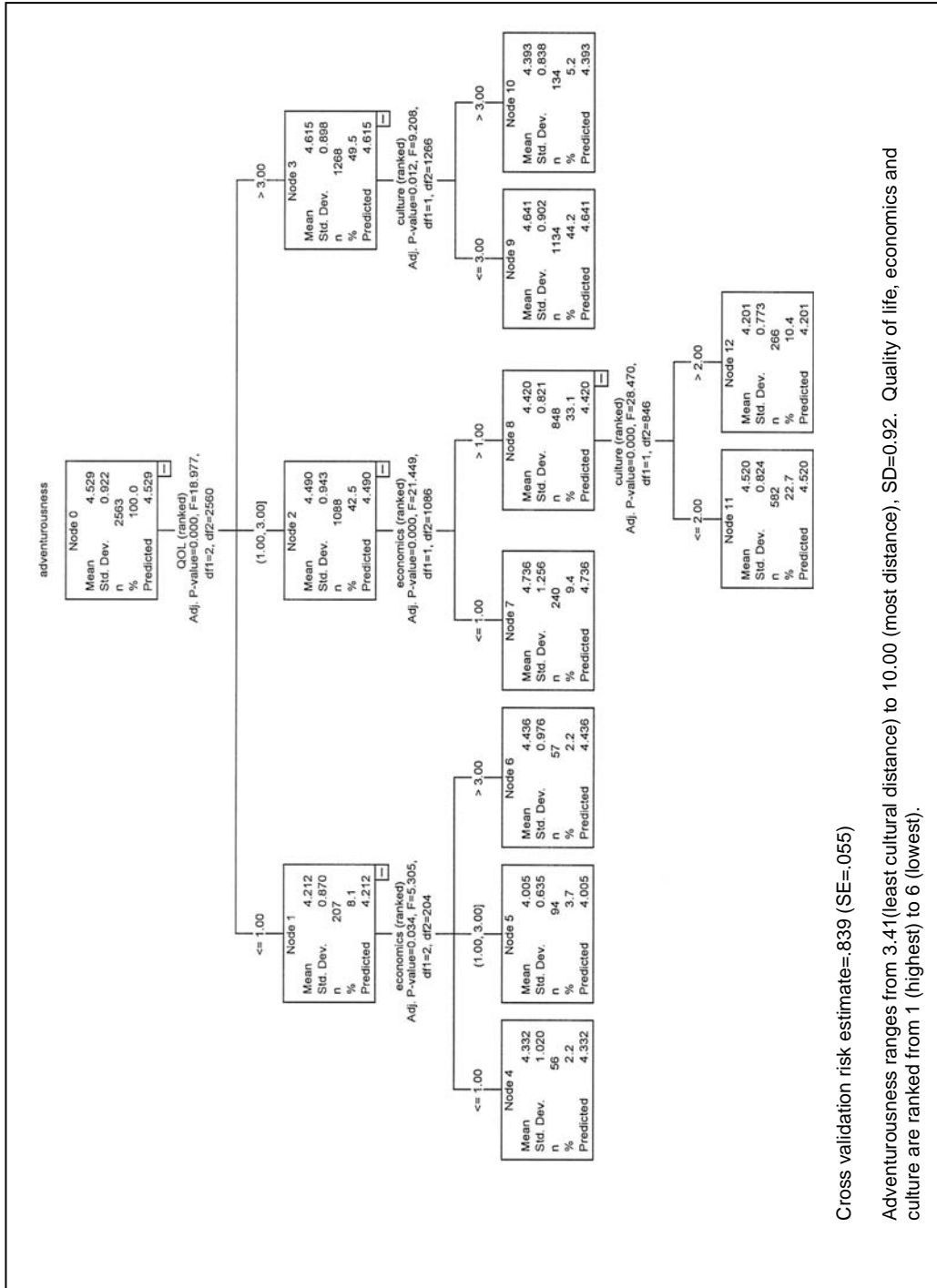
8.2.2 Adventurousness

Adventurousness was defined as the average cultural distance between New Zealand and each of the countries in which people had lived. Hypothesis 2 stated that cultural and travel opportunities would positively predict adventurous behaviour, so the higher culture is ranked, the greater the distance, and the more adventurous the respondent would be. The CHAID analysis tests this.

Figure 8.2 shows that the predictor motive that best divides the respondents and covaries with actual adventurous behaviour is not culture but *quality of life*. Specifically, the more highly ranked the quality of life motive, the less adventurous the participant is likely to be.

In general terms, the tree shows that there are three predictors for adventurousness – quality of life, economics and culture. The cross validation risk estimate, however, is 0.839 (standard error=.055), indicating that 16.1% of cases (1-0.839) will be classified correctly by using the decision rules of the tree. This cross validation rate is poor, and confidence that the tree would correctly predict adventurous behaviour for a generalised population is low. On this basis, further analysis is not undertaken.

Future research might incorporate a weighting for the amount of time spent in each country, rather than just the number of countries visited. In this way, a person who lived for five years in a country such as Mozambique could be considered more adventurous than someone who was there for just a month or two.



Cross validation risk estimate=.839 (SE=.055)

Adventurousness ranges from 3.41(least cultural distance) to 10.00 (most distance), SD=0.92. Quality of life, economics and culture are ranked from 1 (highest) to 6 (lowest).

Figure 8.2. CHAID Analysis of Predictors of Adventurousness.

8.2.3 Restlessness

Restless behaviour was operationally defined as the average number of moves per year of mobility. Hypothesis 3 states that restlessness will be negatively predicted by the relationship motive, and positively predicted by the political environment. In other words, the higher a person ranks the political environment and the lower they rank relationships as motives for leaving the home country, the more restless the behaviour. The CHAID tree results are shown in Figure 8.3. The tree yields two sets of information. First, the tiers or levels show the predictors for restlessness (the best predictor being quality of life in the first tier). Second, the terminal nodes (those that are not separated out further) are the most important as they represent the best classification predictions for the model (SPSS, 2004). The cross validation risk estimate for this tree is .097 (standard error = .006), meaning that 90.3% of the cases will be classified correctly by the model.

Figure 8.3 shows that the best predictor of restless behaviour is *quality of life*, and this motive splits the respondents into three distinct groups. People who rank the quality of life motive in their top three (Node 1) tend to be less restless (more sedentary) than those who rank it fourth (Node 2). These in turn are more sedentary than those who ranked it fifth or sixth (Node 3). In short, the more respondents value quality of life, the *less* likely they are to display restless behaviour. Quality of life is, therefore, a proxy for a comfortable life.

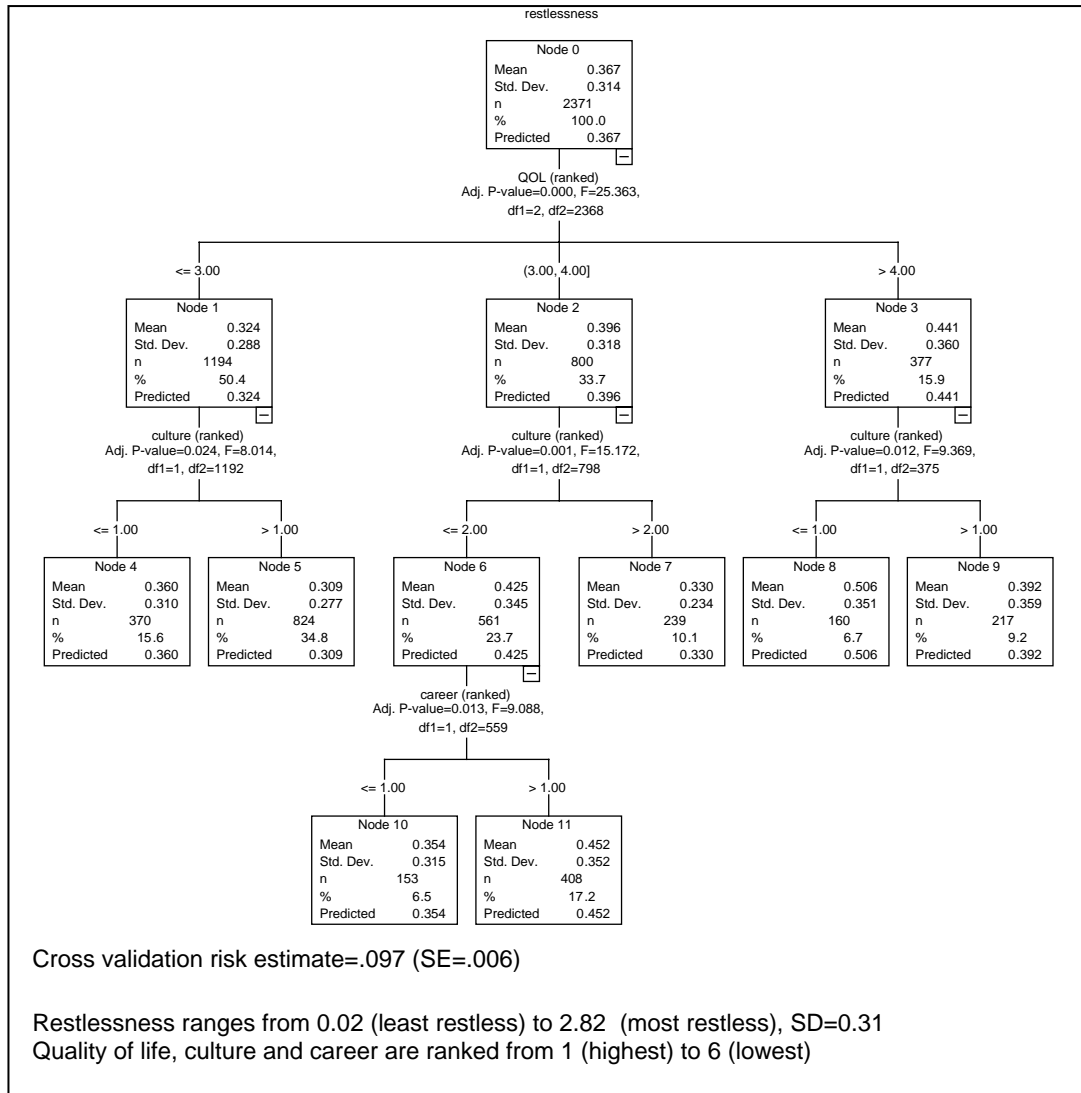


Figure 8.3. CHAID Analysis of Predictors for Restlessness.

Within each of these segments, the cultural and travel motive is a predictor, too. People who rank culture higher tend to be more restless than those who rank it lower. Finally, for those who rank quality of life third and culture first or second, career becomes a tertiary predictor. The relationship is negative, with those who rank career highest being less restless than the others.

In Figure 8.3, the participants displaying the highest restlessness of all are those for whom quality of life is least important, but culture is most

important (Node 8). Those who are most sedentary are those who value quality of life and place less emphasis on culture (Node 5).

Contrary to expectation, restless behaviour is not predicted by either relationships or the political environment. Restlessness, therefore, does not seem to be associated with escape from family or from an existing political situation and Hypothesis 3 is not supported. Rather, restlessness is linked negatively to quality of life, implying that quality of life is a 'pull' rather than a 'push' factor (Inkson et al., 2007). People who move to obtain a better quality of life are less likely to demonstrate restless behaviour. A person displaying a high level of restless behaviour seems to combine a desire to travel to new countries and to experience new cultures, with a relatively low level of concern about quality of life in general. This combination fits with the mobility pattern of the Boomerang Mover identified in Chapter 5. People could complete a project in one country, return to the home country, become restless again, and head off for a new project in perhaps a developing or high risk setting.

8.2.4 Cultural Globalism

Cultural globalism was operationally defined as the proportion of total time mobile spent out of the home country. Hypothesis 4 is that the cultural motive will positively predict this behaviour. People who value experiencing different cultures, and who rank this highly, will display the behaviour of cultural globalism more than those who do not have diversity of experience as a priority.

Figure 8.4 shows the CHAID tree. *Career* and *economics* are predictors of the behaviour of cultural globalism, not culture. The cross validation risk estimate implies that the tree will correctly classify cases 97.6% of the time. People who rank career as their first or second motive display the most culturally global behaviour. Economics is not important to this group but becomes a secondary predictor for those who rank career third or lower.

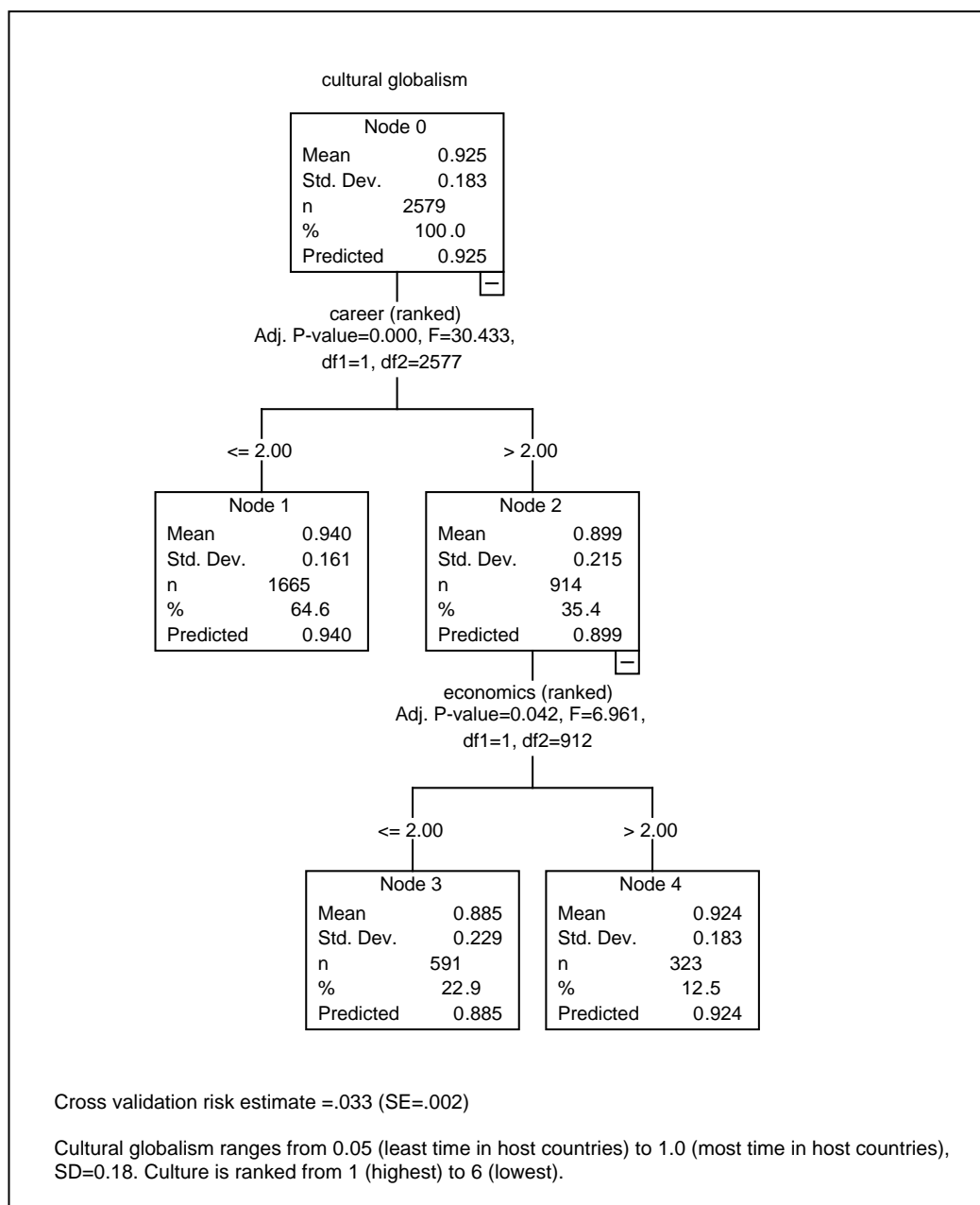


Figure 8.4. CHAID Analysis of Predictors of Cultural Globalism.

From Figure 8.4, the lower economics is ranked by these groups, the more culturally global their behaviour becomes (Node 4). For these individuals, it is neither career opportunities nor money which appears to motivate them away from home; nor, indeed, any of the other motives sampled. For these individuals therefore, perhaps the reasons for mobility are less planned or more determined by happenstance and external influences.

The segment that is the least culturally global in behaviour, or the most homebonded, rank career third or less, and put economics first or second (Node 3). It is conceivable that these people obtain high paying contracts in other countries, and then return to the home country at the completion of these. This could explain both the homebonded behaviour and the high ranking of the economics motive. Travelling mainly for the money is an essentially extrinsic motive with the real attraction continuing to be home.

8.2.5 Establishment

Establishment, in this study, is defined as the length of time in the current location as a proportion of the total time mobile. It was difficult to envisage which motives might predict this behaviour, and as a result, no hypotheses were developed. From Figure 8.5, there are three tiers of predictors, being culture, economics and career. The cross validation risk estimate is .112 (standard error .003), so the classification based on the decision tree will be correct in 88.8% of cases.

The terminal nodes reveal four clear segments. There are those who rank culture top and who are most established offshore (Node 1). There are those who rank economics first and who have a low level of establishment (Node 3). Those who rank career in the top half are quite highly established (Node 5) while those who do not rank these motives highly are the least established (Node 6).

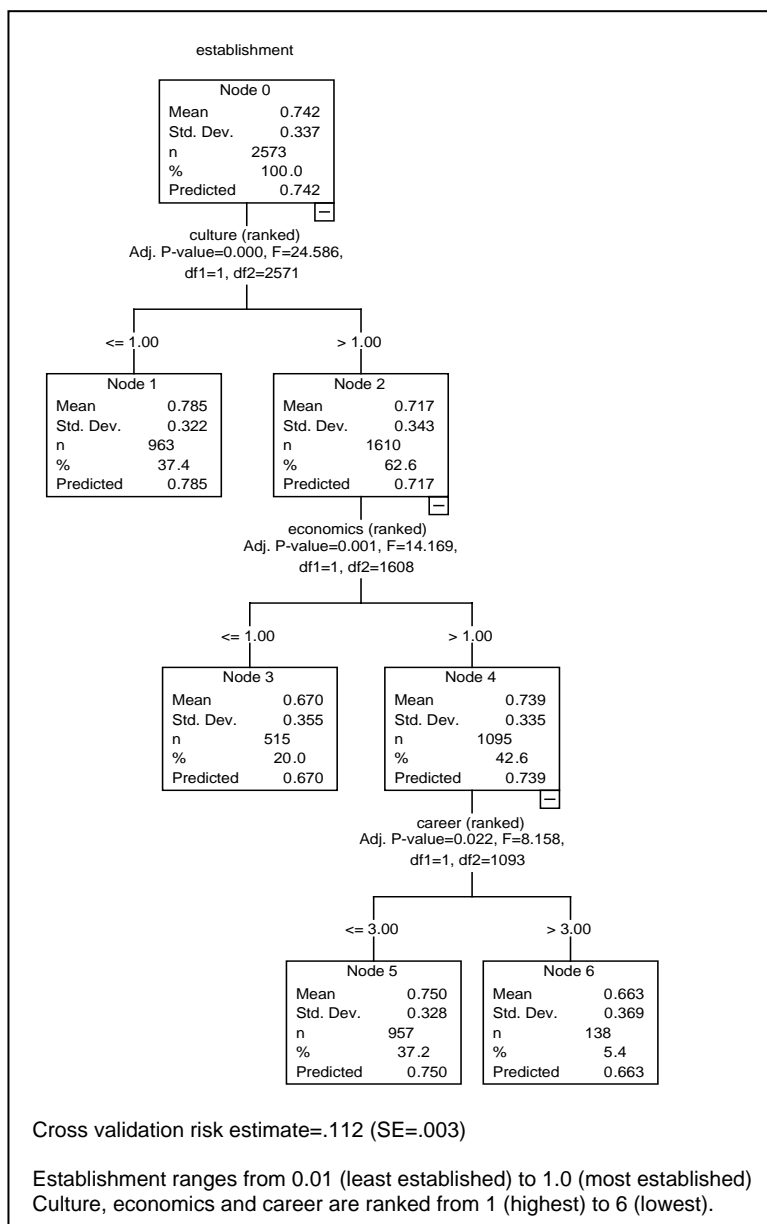


Figure 8.5. CHAID Analysis of Predictors of Establishment

The negative relationship between economics and establishment is logical. It could be expected that a person who was seeking to improve their economic situation and who had already moved at least once for this reason, would be prepared to move more frequently, and would, therefore, display less established behaviour. People who are least established are, therefore, prepared to 'follow the money'. Career becomes a third tier predictor for those who do not rank either culture or economics first. This relationship is positive, that is, those who were motivated to move for their careers display more established behaviour perhaps being anchored in a career-enriching or satisfying location.

Ackers (2005a) had also suggested that temporary work permits could have an unsettling effect on people, perhaps leading to an early return to the home country. Maybe having citizenship of a host country leads to the opposite behaviour, that is, establishment. A simple post hoc CHAID analysis using citizenship of the host country as a single predictor for establishment indicates that citizenship does indeed predict establishment (Figure 8.6) and that those who have citizenship of the host country display a higher level of establishment behaviour (Node 2) than those who do not have citizenship. This confirms that citizenship of the host country does result in decreased mobility.

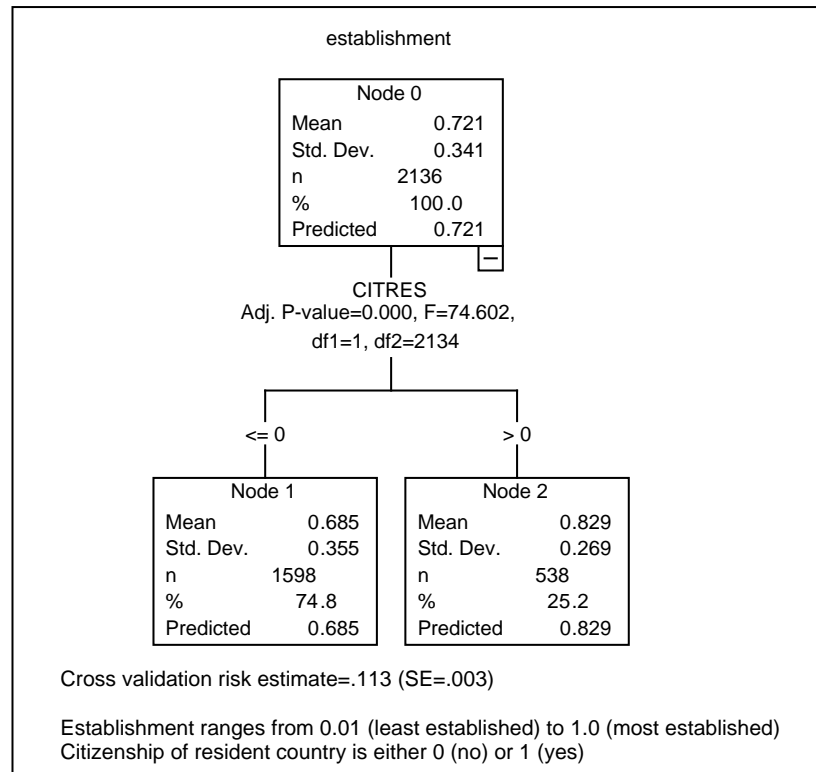
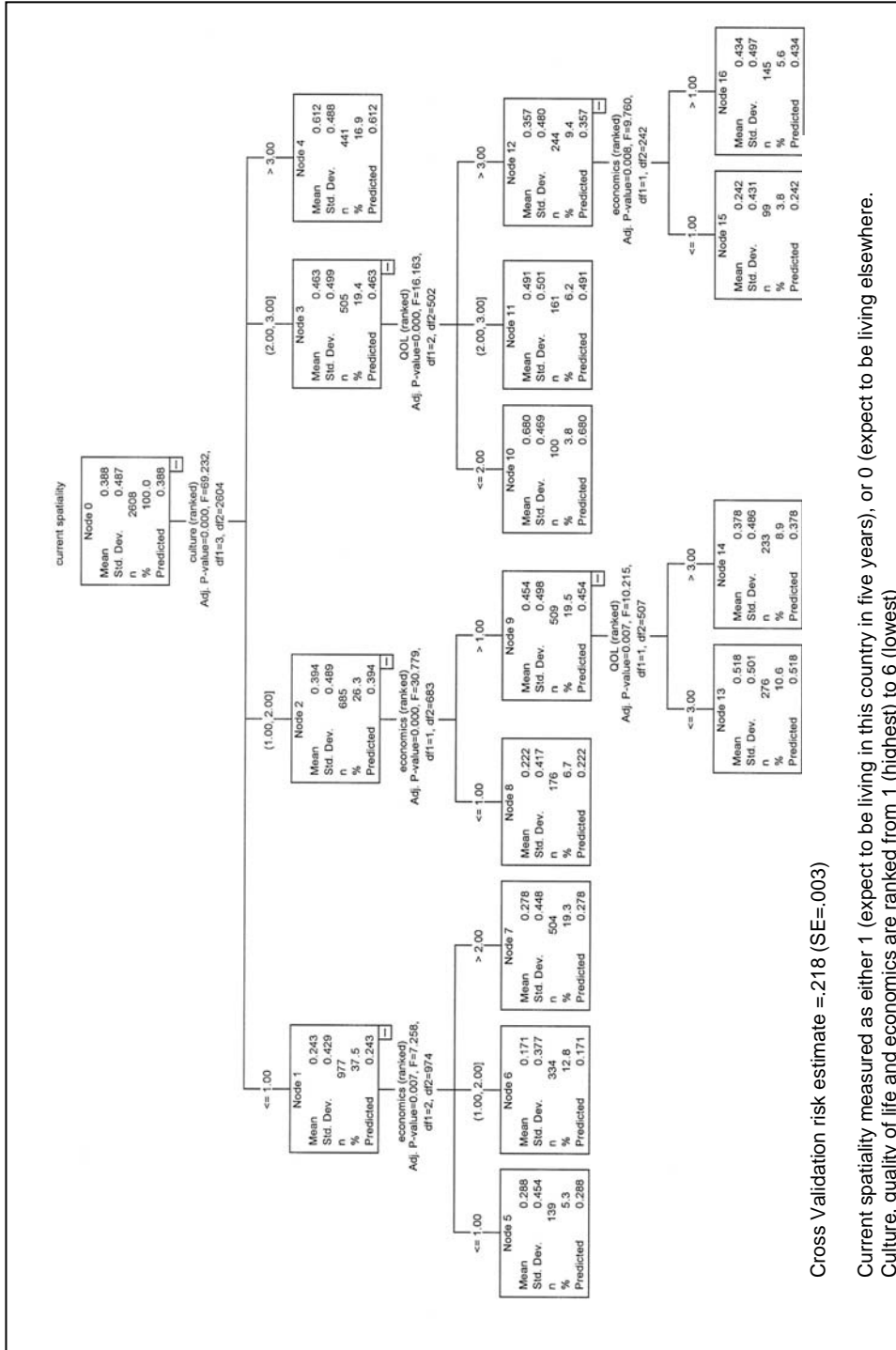


Figure 8.6. CHAID Analysis of Citizenship as a Predictor of Establishment.

8.2.6 Current Spatiality

Current spatiality is measured as a stated intention to be living in the current host country in five years time. Hypothesis 6 predicted that relationships, quality of life and political motives would positively predict current spatiality. The CHAID analysis sought to test this hypothesis, using all six motives. That expectation was not borne out in the data. Overall, from Figure 8.7, the most informative predictor of current spatiality is the *cultural and travel opportunities* motive. Economics and quality of life are subsidiary predictors. The cross validation risk estimate is .218 suggesting that the tree rules will classify correctly in 78.2% of cases.



Cross Validation risk estimate =.218 (SE=.003)

Current spatiality measured as either 1 (expect to be living in this country in five years), or 0 (expect to be living elsewhere).
 Culture, quality of life and economics are ranked from 1 (highest) to 6 (lowest)

Figure 8.7. CHAID Analysis of the Predictors of Current Spatiality.

The analysis distinguishes between those who rank the cultural and travel motive first (Node 1), second (Node 2), third (Node 3), and the rest (Node 4). The mean score for current spatiality behaviour increases as culture becomes less important. The more important culture was as a motive to leave the home country, the less likely they are to continue living in their host current country. They will either continue to move to new countries, or return to the home country.

Overall, the most likely group who intend to stay offshore in the present country are those who rank culture as their third most important motive and quality of life either first or second. Quite clearly, those who respond to the pull of a more comfortable life are least likely to return to the home country. People with the least intention of being in the current country rank culture first and economics second.

8.2.7 Return Propensity

Return propensity was objectively measured as the intention to return to the home country within five years. Hypothesis 7 states that relationships and quality of life motives will negatively predict return propensity. The respondents most likely to return will rank relationships and quality of life as least important (at the time when they made the decision to be mobile). All six motives were entered as predictor variables, with return propensity being the dependent variable. The CHAID analysis is shown in Figure 8.8. The cross validation risk estimate of .207 (standard error = .004) means that 79.3% of cases will be classified correctly.

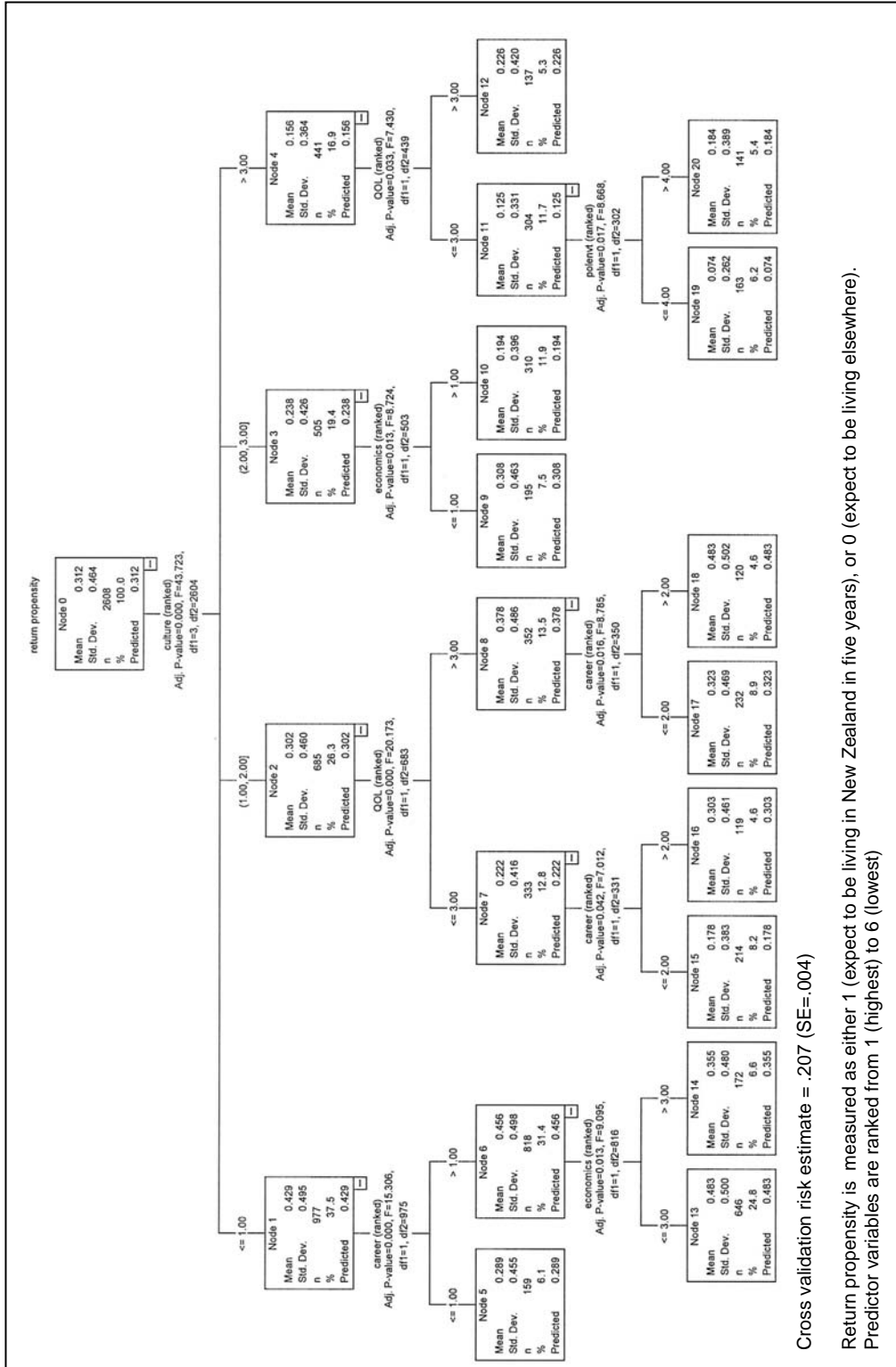


Figure 8.8. CHAID Analysis of the Predictors of Return Propensity.

This is a very complicated tree, with five of the six motives being predictors at some stage. Again, however, the best predictor for return propensity is the motive *culture and travel opportunities*. Quality of life, career and economic motives all emerge as second tier motives and the latter two motives, along with the political environment are also third tier predictors.

As the tree is complex, the key patterns only will be identified. First, the higher the rank accorded to the *cultural and travel opportunities* motive, the greater the number of people intending to return to the home country. Second, a greater propensity to return is also indicated by a high rank for economics. Third, the higher career is ranked the less likely a person to return to the host country. Finally, and also indicating a lower return propensity, is a high ranking for quality of life.

Overall, the two groups displaying the highest level of return propensity are those who rank culture first, career not first and economics in the top half of the motives (Node 13) and those who rank culture second, quality of life in the lower half of the motives and career third or lower (Node 18). The people least likely to display the behaviour of return propensity are those who rank culture in the lower half of the motives, and quality of life in the upper half (Nodes 4 and 11). Those who ranked the political environment as one of their top four motives for moving are the least likely of all to return (Node 19).

Hypothesis 7 is, therefore, partially supported by the CHAID analysis showing a negative relationship between quality of life and return propensity. People who most value quality of life are the least likely to return to the home country in five years. Earlier findings of this study

indicated that climate was the most important quality of life sub-motive, so it is not surprising that those who moved to a country seeking a preferable climate would be unlikely to return. There is no association evident between the relationship motive and return propensity.

The CHAID analysis reveals a new relationship between the *cultural and travel opportunities* motive and return propensity, being the best predictor of return propensity. The relationship is positive, suggesting that the higher the ranking of this motive, the more likely the person is to return to the home country within five years. This finding initially seems counter-intuitive to previous findings which highlighted the importance of cultural motives in a decision to be mobile. It also seems contrary to many of the comments expressed by respondents, about the desire to experience other cultures, people and countries. However, what the relationship could be showing is that those who leave the home country primarily for cultural motives are likely to return at a later date. The younger, OE-type movers, for example, who tend to value cultural and travel opportunities most highly, will potentially return. A post hoc CHAID analysis entering culture and age as the predictor variables was undertaken to determine if age has an impact on return propensity (Figure 8.9).

The analysis shows that age is indeed the best predictor for return propensity with those aged 40 and above being the least likely to return to the home country. At the other end of the spectrum, those aged 20–29 are more likely to return. The second tier predictor for those aged under 40 is the culture and travel opportunities motive. For both the 30–39 and the 20–29 age groups, those who rank culture first are most likely to return. The younger people who leave to experience different cultures

and cultural activities abroad, have a clear intention of returning to the home country in the next five years.

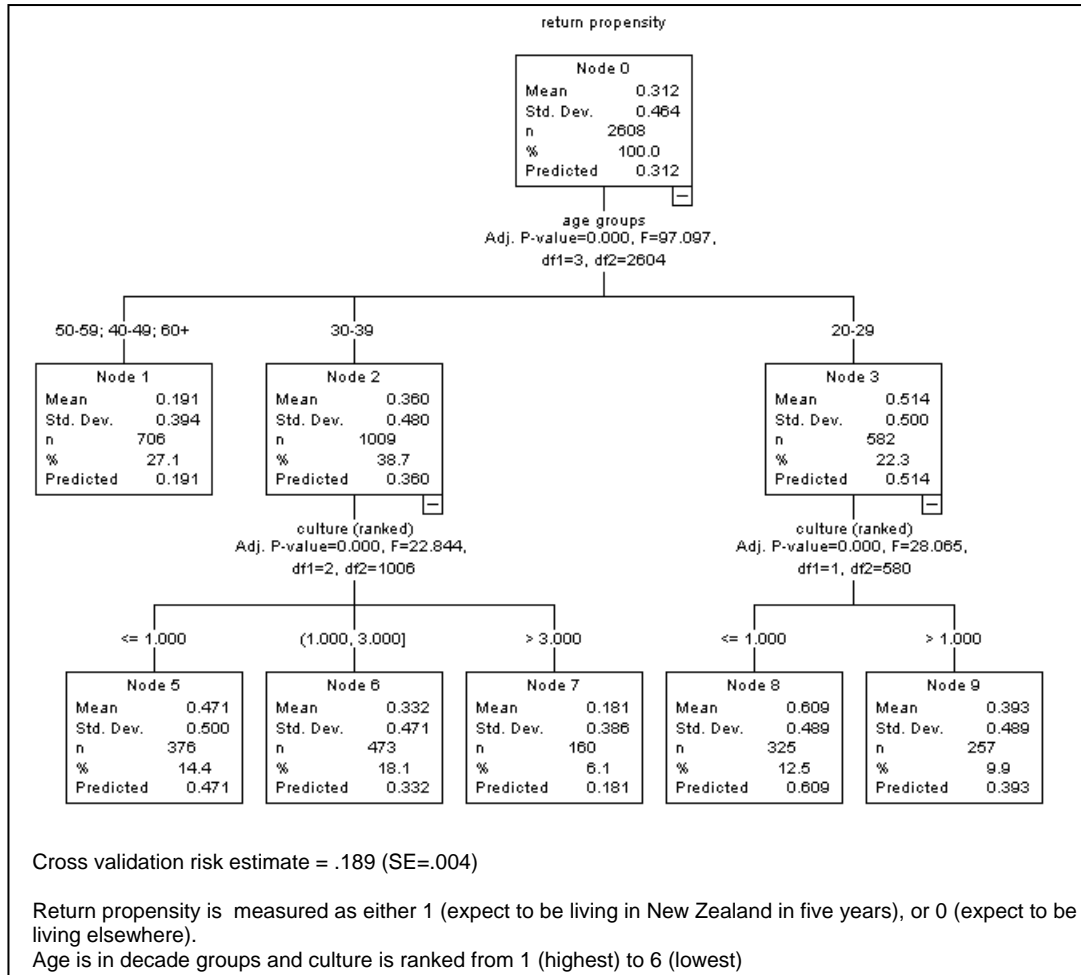


Figure 8.9. CHAID Analysis of the Impact of Age on Return Propensity

8.2.8 Latent Transience

Latent transience was operationally defined as a stated intention to be living in a country other than the host or current country in five years time. The cultural and travel opportunities motive was hypothesised to positively predict this behaviour (Hypothesis 8), so the higher the motive is ranked, the more likely a person is to say they will be living in another country. The CHAID analysis is shown in Figure 8.10. The cross

validation risk estimate is .156 (standard error .005), meaning that the decision tree would correctly assign cases to these categories 84.4% of the time.

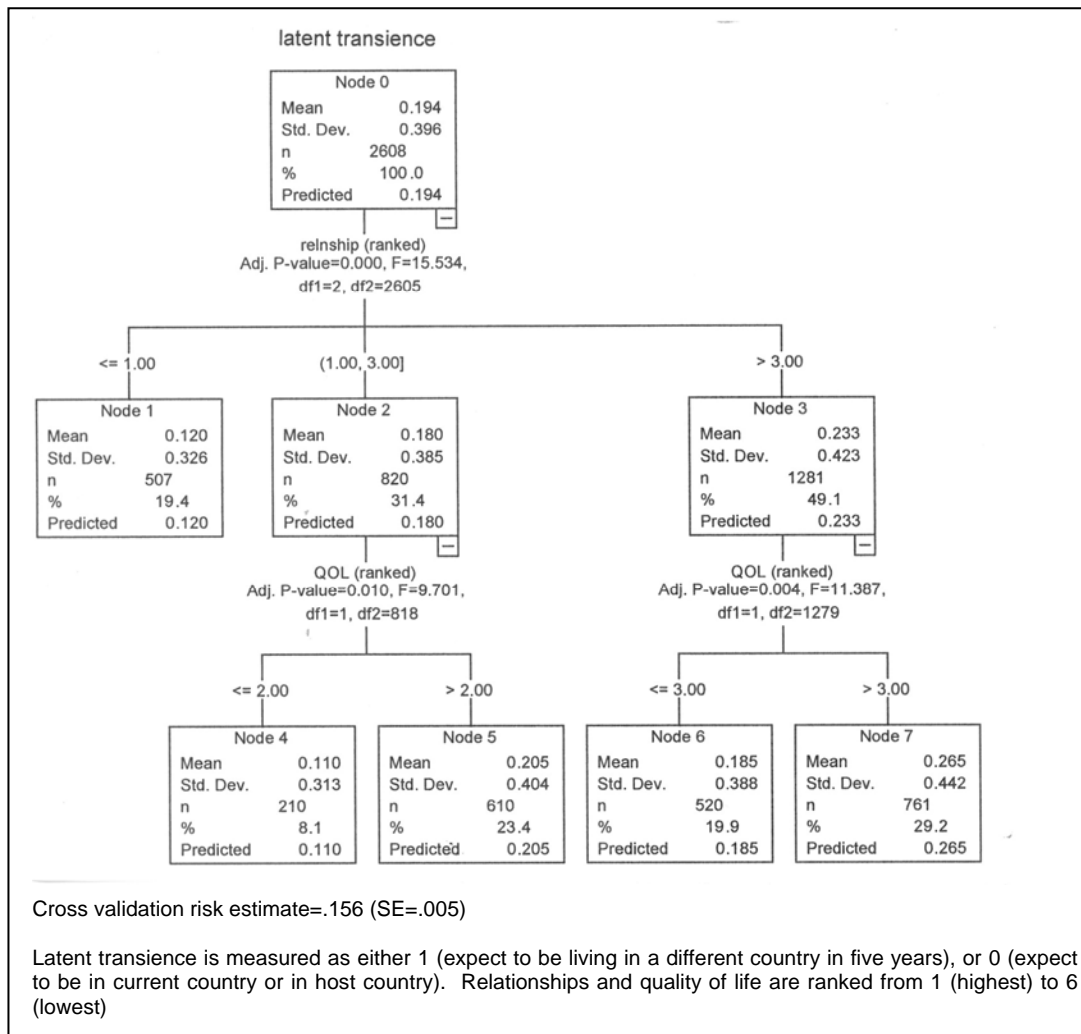


Figure 8.10. CHAID Analysis of Predictors of Latent Transience

From Figure 8.10, relationships are the best predictor of latent transience. The higher relationships are ranked as a motive, the less likely that person is to be living in a country other than the current location. The relationships motive is the most important motive for those in Node 1, and these people are relatively unlikely to move from where they are now. Perhaps they have found the cultural experiences they were

looking for when they left the home country. Those who value relationships less (Node 3) are at the other end of the spectrum, and are more likely to be living somewhere else. Those whose relationship motive is in-between (Node 2) will also tend to be intermediate in latent transient behaviour. Relationships may therefore be a significant anchoring factor for staying offshore in a host country.

Quality of life is a second tier predictor for those who do not rank relationships first. Overall, the people most likely to display latent transience are those who rank both relationships and quality of life in the lower half (Node 7).

8.3 Summary

The predictors for each of the mobility behaviours are summarised in Table 8.3. Motives in the first tier are the best predictors for the behaviour, and the direction of the relationship is also indicated. The behaviour of economism was not predicted by any of the motives. The analysis for adventurousness had a high risk of misclassification, and the predictors that were identified have limited reliability and are shaded in the Table.

There are clear 'winners' and 'losers' in the predictive stakes. On the losing side, economic utility fails to predict any mobility behaviour. Political motives are, at best, a minor predictor.

On the winning side, quality of life, career and cultural and travel opportunities are clearly predictors of the mobility behaviours. Quality of life negatively predicts restlessness, and is a secondary predictor for

Table 8.3.
Summary of Predictors of Mobility Behaviours

Mobility Behaviour	Predictors		
	FIRST TIER	Second Tier	Third Tier
Economism	NONE		
Adventurousness	QUALITY OF LIFE	Economics, cultural and travel opportunities	Cultural and travel opportunities
Restlessness	QUALITY OF LIFE	Cultural and travel opportunities	Career
Cultural Globalism	CAREER	Economics	
Establishment	CULTURAL AND TRAVEL OPPORTUNITIES	Economics	Career
Current Spatiality	CULTURAL AND TRAVEL OPPORTUNITIES	Economics, Quality of life	Economics, Quality of life
Return Propensity	CULTURAL AND TRAVEL OPPORTUNITIES	Economics, Quality of life, career	Economics, Quality of life, political environment
Latent transience	RELATIONSHIPS	Quality of life	

Key	
Red	Negative relationship
Blue	Positive relationship
Shaded	Relationship uncertain

the future mobility behaviours. It positively predicts current spatiality and negatively predicts return propensity and latent transience. Career is a top tier predictor of cultural globalism. Cultural and travel opportunities are, however, the most consistent and informative predictor of the behaviours of establishment, current spatiality and return propensity.

The media in New Zealand has often advanced a range of motives for global mobility including remuneration and tax disparities (Cumming, 2008a), job dissatisfaction (McNaughton, 2008) and a poor working environment (Johnstone, 2008a). What Table 8.3 shows, however, is that the popular understanding of mobility may sometimes be displaced. What connects 'brain' and 'drain' for these New Zealanders is primarily the desire to travel and to experience new cultures. The call to adventure (Osland, 1995, 2000) and the culture of New Zealanders undertaking an OE are powerful drivers of mobility. The prospect of career development also leads people abroad, and being in a relationship with a person from another country tends to keep them there.

The next and final chapter reviews the study and its key findings in relation to the research objectives.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

Chapter Nine concludes the current investigation on the self-initiated mobility of highly educated New Zealanders. It begins with an overview of the study and a review of the significant research findings from Chapters Five to Eight in relation to the research objectives. It presents the theoretical implications of the data, the limitations of the investigation and suggestions for future research. The chapter begins with an overview and then each of the research objectives is addressed.

9.1 Overview

This was an exploratory study with the general aim being to investigate the complexity of human motivation towards self-initiated mobility and to identify various behavioural forms mobility might take. The literature on self-initiated mobility is sparse and is not well developed empirically. Further, the literature has tended to examine motives in isolation. This study attempts to fill this gap by examining the relative importance of motives and sub-motives in a decision to be mobile. It also develops constructs for mobility behaviours.

The development of theory on self-initiated mobility is also not well advanced. There has been recognition that self-initiated mobility differs from expatriation (Suutari & Brewster, 2003), that it is increasing (Brewster & Suutari, 2005) and that it is valuable to both the individual and the organisation (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Any further insights are limited. This study took an highly exploratory approach theorising

that self-initiated mobility was a range of behaviours and looking for links between the motives and these behaviours.

9.2 Self-initiated Movers

Self-initiated mobility is a recent field of academic interest, having first been mooted by Inkson et al. (1997). Chapter One noted the dearth of literature in this field, especially in the light of an increasingly global labour market (Brewster & Suutari, 2005). This study contributes by providing empirical data on self-initiated mobility as a relatively under-researched group. It also contributes through the focus on the highly educated – a group of workers who are of escalating value in a knowledge-driven era. Chapter One also noted the paucity of information on the characteristics and motivations of self-initiated movers (Banai & Harry, 2005). The use of a quantitative methodology, supported by the individual comments of respondents, has enabled these to be captured.

A total of 2,608 useable responses were obtained. A key finding from this empirical data was the confirmation of Suutari and Brewster's (2000) premise that there would be a higher proportion of women amongst self-initiated movers than was observed with expatriates. This study shows that the ratio is more even, with women being as likely as men to be abroad. Men, however, are more likely to have moved more frequently as were single people. Most respondents were partnered, and accompanied by their partner in the host country. This study indicated that the past trend of a woman trailing after her partner on an international move may be changing, with men showing a willingness to also accompany their partners abroad. Less than 30% of respondents had

dependants living with them, and the presence of dependants did restrict the mobility of those people.

Not surprisingly, there was a strong positive correlation between age and mobility, with mobility increasing with age, and the length of time mobile increasing with age. The older a person is, the more opportunity they have had to be mobile.

These New Zealand respondents were spread throughout the world, currently living in 93 countries in every continent except Antarctica. Nearly 50% were currently located in Europe, reflecting the influence of the OE and heritage on destination choice. A further 21% were located in Australia, a country New Zealanders can live in without the constraints of visas or working permits. Eighty percent of people on their first move were located either in the UK, Australia or the USA. Highly mobile respondents were more likely to be located in less developed countries.

Further examination of these highly mobile respondents revealed two distinct patterns of mobility. The first pattern was one of continuous moves to new countries, termed Citizens of the World. The other pattern was one of repeat visitation to the home countries, alternated with a period in a different country. This pattern was termed Boomerang Movers. While the patterns of movement are distinct, there was little to distinguish between the individuals displaying these movement patterns, and more detailed individual information is required to obtain an understanding of each mobility pattern.

Respondents were asked where they intended to be living in five years time, and 35% showed an intention to return to their home country

within this time frame. Others clearly had not finished moving, with 22% intending to be living in a country other than their home or current country, while the remaining 43% thought they would still be in their current country.

Some factors had no impact on mobility. Amongst the highly educated, the specific educational qualification has no impact on mobility. Further, this research suggests that neither the nature of the organisation nor the industry of employment have any real influence on mobility.

A subsidiary aim of this study was to investigate the existence of a career anchor, Internationalism. The findings of this investigation suggest that Internationalism was a key motivation to leave the home country, and that there was a higher level of agreement by younger people, and by those who were most mobile. People who intended to be living in a country other than their current or home country in five years time were also in more agreement with the concept of Internationalism. People who intended returning to their home country had the lowest level of agreement to this concept. These findings provide support for the further examination of Internationalism as a primary career anchor.

9.3 Objective 1

One of the key tenets of this study has been the need for an integrated consideration of the influence of the various motives and sub-motives in a decision to be mobile. This research contributes to existing knowledge by specifically addressing the relative importance of these motives.

Objective 1: To identify the subjective motives of self-initiated mobility of highly educated New Zealanders across national boundaries and to determine the relative importance of each of the sub-motives.

A total of 56 sub-motives were identified throughout the broader literature and were classified into six motives. Respondents allocated points to each of these motives, providing an assessment of the importance of each motive relative to each of the other motives. Cultural and travel opportunities and career motives are the most important motives, followed by economics and relationships. Quality of life and the political environment were the least important motives.

When examined by gender, some differences in allocation were noticeable. Men scored career motives higher than cultural motives, and women placed more emphasis on relationships. There were also differences depending on marital status, with culture and travel opportunities and career motives being important to single people, and relationships being more important to those who were partnered.

A breakdown by age clearly showed the priorities of the young OE-type mover. Cultural and travel opportunities score highly for the youngest group, but decrease in importance with increasing age. While still the least important motive, concern about the political environment increases with increasing age.

Differences in the relative importance of the motives were also apparent by mobility. Cultural and travel opportunities were most important to those on their first move, reflecting perhaps the OE-type mover, and decreasing with increasing mobility. A contrary pattern was evident for

the economic motives, being most important to those who had moved five or more times

The data collected provided the opportunity to examine whether there was an equation of motives for different groups of people. Exploratory analyses by location of residence, mobility, patterns of mobility, life stage and career stage clearly indicated that there were different equations of motives. This practical application of the data could be useful to policy makers trying to retain highly educated workers.

The research design made it possible to also examine the relative importance of the individual sub-motives within each motive. In the cultural and travel opportunities motive, the chance to travel and to have an adventure were the most important sub-motives. These were the motives that most clearly link to the established New Zealand culture of the OE. Experiencing a cultural diversity and a range of cultural activities were also important.

The importance of careers as a motive for a move abroad was also noted. Seeking further professional development was the most important sub-motive within the careers motive, followed by a desire to broaden career challenges and opportunities. Contrary to the findings of a recent survey (Seek NZ, 2008), dissatisfaction with current employment was a relatively unimportant reason to move abroad. The expectation for certain highly educated workers, particularly academics and scientists, to be mobile and to move to specific institutions of repute was also evident in the findings.

The Seek Survey did, however, highlight the issue of people seeking higher remuneration, and this was identified in this study as the most

important economic sub-motive. Closely related were the desire to improve the overall economic situation and standard of living. The influence of student loans on a decision to be mobile was marked, ranking the fourth highest in the motive overall, and with 44% of respondents in the relevant age group citing this as a reason for mobility. The nature of the comments received about the Student Loan Scheme suggested that the impact was not only economic but also sociological, with long term ramifications for New Zealand.

The influence of a partner in a decision to be mobile was dominant in the relationships motive. The most important sub-motive was having a partner from the host country. One of the implications of this OE culture is that New Zealanders form relationships while living abroad and then do not return as they might have intended. A New Zealand partner's desire to travel or moving for a partner's career are other important reasons for leaving the home country.

This research identified one new sub-motive connected to relationships - the desire to meet more people and the opportunity to develop relationships with like-minded people. In particular, the perceived man drought had led to people moving off-shore.

The quality of life motive was ranked fifth overall, with the most important individual sub-motives being a better climate and a better work-life balance. A desire for better public transport and better healthcare were the least important in this motive, but they were particularly salient to some respondents. As with the previous motive, one new sub-motive was identified – the desire for a greater level of

choice. This sub-motive was particularly important for those people who had left the home country prior to the 1990s.

The political environment motive was the least important overall, but there was still some strong feeling for some of the sub-motives. New Zealand was viewed as too politically correct by some respondents which had led to them leaving the country. Others had left to escape a particular government, naming Muldoon's National Government, the National Government of the 1990s and the former Labour Government as motivating factors. Respondents' comments also raised issues with what they perceived to be reverse racism in the treatment of the Maori people and the Treaty of Waitangi Settlements. These issues were strongly worded, although only from a minority of the respondents.

9.4 Objective 2

The second research objective focused on the theoretical contribution to a theory of self-initiated mobility. Behaviours of mobility were conceptualised in Chapter Three, along with objective measures for each of these. This led to the development of hypotheses regarding which motives might predict these behaviours which were subsequently tested in Chapter Eight.

Objective 2: To conceptualise different objective behaviours of self-initiated mobility and to develop theory on self-initiated mobility through the linking of motives and behaviours.

The key contribution of these chapters is the connection that has been made between the subjective allocation of points to the motives by

respondents, and their behaviour of mobility as measured objectively. In other words, the motives that had resulted in the last move from the home country were used to predict the mobility pattern they had actually undertaken.

CHAID analyses incorporating all six motives were undertaken for each of the eight mobility behaviours. Predictor variables were identified for the behaviours of restlessness, cultural globalism, establishment, current spatiality, return propensity and latent transience. The predictors for adventurousness had a high risk of misclassification, and no predictors emerged for economism.

The importance of the cultural and travel opportunities motive as a predictor of mobility behaviour was highlighted, being the best predictor for establishment, current spatiality and return propensity. Career motives, which were subjectively rated as important as cultural motives, predicted only cultural globalism. Quality of life was the best predictor for restlessness, and was a secondary predictor for current spatiality, return propensity and latent transience. Economics motives were not the best predictor for any of the behaviours, although they were secondary or tertiary predictors for four of the behaviours. The original hypothesised model of the associations between the motives and the behaviours is redrawn in Figure 9.1.

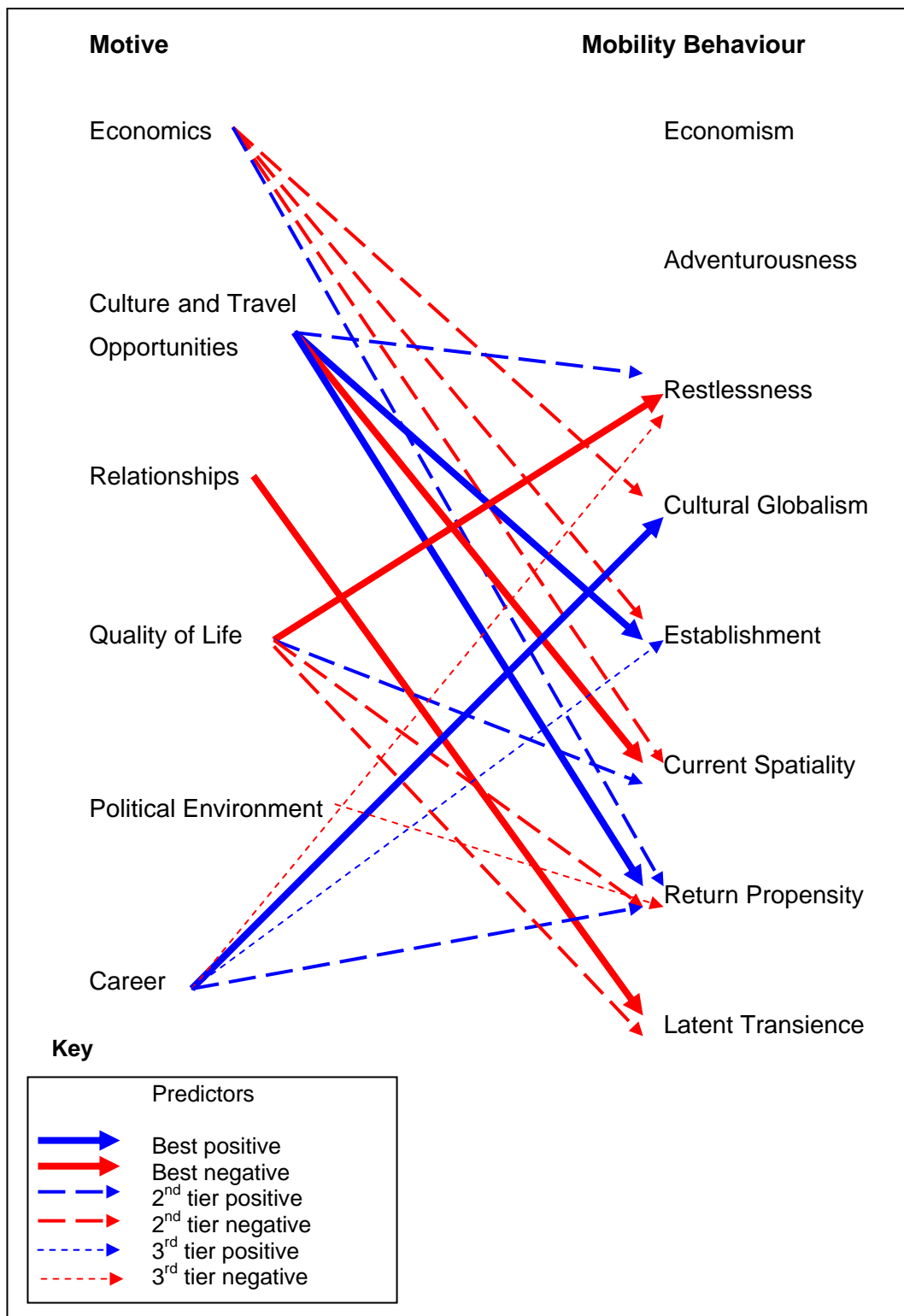


Figure 9.1. Relationships between Motives and Mobility Behaviours.

9.5 Implications of the Study

This study raises several implications for the management of highly educated, self-initiated movers at the individual, organisation, national and global levels.

For the individual, there is clear evidence that some international experience is both beneficial and desirable. Although not a focus of this research, respondents commented on the benefits of their time abroad, listing skills such as self-confidence, adaptability, flexibility and independence, and reiterating the findings of Inkson and Myers (2003) and Edwards et al., (2005). Further, and as suggested by Stahl et al. (2002), it is probable that these skills and the overall experience of having worked abroad, will be viewed positively by employers should they choose to return to their home country. Hence, for the individual, mobility results in benefits, both in terms of personal and future career development.

For the organisation, the key implication is competition for these highly educated workers from overseas organisations, and the possibility of increased job turnover and its associated temporary impacts on productivity. In a knowledge-led economy, it is the human capital that leads to competitive advantage. Equally, however, organisations have the opportunity to identify desirable workers in other countries, and to target them for their organisations. Settlement programmes and in-house mentoring could ease the transition of these people in the country and into the organisation.

Increased competition is also a major implication at both the national and global levels. People with the most valued skills and with a willingness to be mobile will continue to be in demand throughout the world. Continual loss of skills can result in a decrease in a country's competitiveness. The focus of nations must, however, move away from concern about a brain drain, and focus on the country's ability to attract and develop highly educated workers. Mobility works in two directions and there are benefits to encouraging bi-directional flows. The outflow of highly educated people can be valuable, in terms of increasing awareness of the country and creating personal networks overseas. International experience often results in developing many personal and professional skills which are sometimes returned to the home country. Inflows of highly skilled people are also valuable, bringing new competencies and ideas.

The highly educated global market place is competitive, and countries need to develop policies to attract these workers. Tax breaks are already being used in some countries to draw people. Expediting the Work Permit process may remove unnecessary obstacles. The desirability of also providing work permits for partners, even before they move to the new country, may resolve some of the issues around mobility for dual career households.

The concept of living and working in other countries seems to have considerable appeal to many people, and, in a global market place, the ease of doing so means the phenomenon of mobility is set to continue in the foreseeable future. Ensuring that a country has the necessary number of workers and the appropriate mix of skills will contribute to its competitiveness.

The findings of this study have wider implications for the research area of self-initiated mobility. First, in response to the call for research, and as a result of a high level of response to the survey, there is a wide range of empirical data on self-initiated movers. The characteristics and motivations of these people have been identified and the heterogeneity noted.

The second implication is the value of the database to inform policy. Again, the number of respondents and the level of detail in the answers provide an opportunity for analysis of the data by sub-groups. For example, there is the option of analysing the motives for mobility of a particular occupation which may be experiencing skill shortages, or of particular demographic characteristics in an attempt to target these people for return to New Zealand. These analyses could be useful for Government agencies dealing with the labour market, migration and economic development.

Finally, the model of self-initiated mobility contributes to the theorisation of self-initiated mobility. Previous research has examined the intention to move and the possible motives for that move, but it has not examined the actual mobility behaviour. The model developed here shows that there is a link between what people say motivates them to move and their actual mobility behaviour.

9.6 Limitations of the Study

This study is exploratory in nature and the primary purpose was descriptive and theoretical rather than prescriptive. The difficulty of

identifying the total population of highly educated self-initiated New Zealanders currently living and working abroad limits generalisability of results to this population, but the high number of respondents does allow for the identification of trends and patterns.

This study focuses only on New Zealanders in other countries. While this focus provides clear insights on self-initiated mobility, some of the results suggest that there may be some country characteristics specific to New Zealand which have resulted in some factors being particularly relevant to New Zealanders but which may be less so to people from other countries. Caution must be used when applying the findings to self-initiated movers from other countries.

Considerable use was made of responses to the open-ended survey question to exemplify issues being discussed. While care was taken not to take these comments out of context, interpretation of the comments was left to the researcher's judgement. Nevertheless, these comments do provide a richer context for the quantitative data and assist in understanding the motivations for moving.

The conceptualisation of mobility behaviours and their measures was exploratory and the hypothesised outcomes were not often supported by the CHAID analysis. Further refinement of the behaviours, through, for example, the inclusion of specific locations for the measure of economism, or the length of time in the country for adventurousness, may result in the identification of predictor variables for these behaviours. Further, and in retrospect, some of the labels used to describe the behaviours are not as self-evident as they might have been,

and in further analyses, these could be clarified. Additional examination of actual mobility might also reveal other behaviours not observed here. The final limitation relates to the respondents' answers and accuracy of recall. Some respondents left New Zealand over 40 years ago, and the research was focused on discovering their motivations for leaving at that time. People may have found it hard to accurately recall the exact motives that influenced their decision to leave so long ago. This raises another issue in that the reasons people have stayed away from New Zealand may be different to the reasons they actually left. It is difficult to determine the level of influence the reasons for staying away has had on their responses. However, there are many comments from respondents highlighting the difference in their reasons for leaving New Zealand and for staying away which implies that this distinction may have been realised.

9.7 *Suggestions for Future Research*

Exploratory studies such as this often point to new areas of research. The following are some suggestions which would further the theorisation of self-initiated mobility.

- Following on from the final limitation, some respondents highlighted the difference in the reasons they left New Zealand and remain in the host country. Other respondents wanted to discuss the factors that would entice them to return to New Zealand. A study similar to this one, but focusing on these other reasons, could provide interesting comparisons.
- A similar study undertaken in, for example, a country in Central Europe or a developing country could provide useful cross-country analysis.

- A longitudinal study examining how factors influencing a decision to be mobile changes over time would contribute to theory development. Further, interviews with these mobile people could provide rich data on each subsequent move.
- The concept of different mobility patterns is a new finding from this research. It would be interesting to delve further into this concept, interviewing people to investigate how these movements fit in with their lifestyle.
- This research suggests that there may be more equality around who takes the lead in a decision by a couple to be mobile. Research on this and the issue of dual careers self-initiated movers would be informative.
- The development of the mobility behaviours and the measurements of these were purely exploratory. Refinement of some of the behaviours and the development of other measures may result in the identification of further relationships.
- Finally, this study provides evidence for the existence of a career anchor geared around Internationalism. The scope for further research on the applicability of this anchor is broad.

9.8 Concluding Comments

As I write the final paragraphs of this study, concerns are again being raised in the New Zealand media about the number of citizens leaving and the implications of this for the future of the country. The exodus to Australia in 2008 is the highest it has been for 20 years and shows increasing trends (Johnstone, 2008b; One News, 2008). There are concerns about the shortage of doctors (Johnstone, 2008a; Masters, 2008b) and the increasing numbers leaving for better pay in Australia

(Johnstone, 2008c; NZPA, 2008). Top New Zealand scientists have written an open letter to the Minister of Science highlighting the lack of scientific research funding and suggesting there is a need for proactive policies if young New Zealand scientists are to be retained in this country (Borley, 2008). There are also suggestions that a high level of job dissatisfaction in the country could result in further brain drain (McNaughton, 2008) and New Zealand emigrants are offering the Government advice on how to stem the flow out of the country (Gower, 2008; Masters, 2008a). Finally, there are fears that the offered tax cuts may not be as generous as anticipated, fuelling speculation that this could result in even more people moving across the Tasman (Oliver, 2008).

The findings of my research, therefore, will make depressing reading for policymakers already concerned about the brain drain and the retention of highly educated people in New Zealand. With people leaving for cultural and travel opportunities and for career development, there is very little a government can alter to prevent that mobility. There is nothing that can be done, for example, to change people's desire for travel opportunities or their selection of a foreign partner.

A change in orientation is, therefore, required. Young people must be encouraged to travel abroad and to experience a wide range of cultural activities. The development of a *cultural visa* may be one approach. A limited number of these visas could be issued which would allow a person to leave New Zealand and travel and/or work abroad for a period of up to two years, with their job held open for them, but with appropriate recognition for their international experience. Encouraging organisations to provide secondment opportunities and sabbaticals may

also satisfy this desire to travel while increasing the likelihood of a return home.

Furthermore, my findings suggest that there is also potential to attract these highly educated people back to New Zealand. This study shows that 35% of respondents anticipated being back in New Zealand in five years time. This was particularly relevant for the young people who had left to experience different cultures and travel. Resettlement grants and tax breaks equivalent to any offered to foreigners could provide added incentive for a return. Proactive, targeted approaches to highly skilled individuals could also be fruitful. Such a strategy, however, would be more successful with New Zealanders in the UK or USA than in Australia. The much higher value placed on quality of life (particularly climate) by those in Australia indicates this enticement back to New Zealand could be more difficult.

I consider, however, that there are two areas specifically identified in this study where a change in policy may make a difference in the number of people leaving. The first of these is the policy on student loans. I might add that this is not a personal issue as I was educated in the pre-student loan era! However, over 44% of the respondents in this study who were of the age to have had a student loan stated this was a consideration in their decision to be mobile.

There is a range of ways in which the debilitating factors of the loan could be countered. People could, for example, be given the option of working in New Zealand for, say, three years, and then have a significant proportion written off. The new National Government has, in late November 2008, proposed a similar strategy with the development of a

voluntary bonding scheme aimed to encourage graduates to go to hard-to-staff geographical areas, with the reward of a reduction in their student loan (Trevett, 2008). Another alternative is that tax breaks could be offered to those with a student loan, encouraging them to stay in New Zealand to earn credits with which to pay back their loans. This may reduce the need to work overseas to earn higher incomes that many respondents felt and would at least provide New Zealanders the return on their education investment for that period. The cultural visa, secondments and sabbaticals, as mentioned above, could provide the opportunity to undertake an OE without losing this intellectual capital completely.

The second factor which could impact on movements out of the country is the income, standard of living and taxation differential, particularly between New Zealand and Australia (One News, 2008). While there is obviously a need for the Government to balance expenditure with income, considerable operating surpluses over the last few years, with little return to residents, has led to disenchantment. It is clear that a tax cut, as any of the suggested changes above, have financial ramifications, but there is a need to think beyond the balance sheet to the future survival of the country. How long, for example, can New Zealand afford to educate its citizens to a very high standard, and at considerable expense, only to lose them to another country before that investment is returned? Surely it makes more economic sense to harvest the costs already invested in these people, than to start again with settling, re-educating and employing new immigrants.

Finally, I could not help but be touched by the level of emotion many of the respondents expressed. These people clearly love New Zealand and

miss living here. The ties they have with the country are strong. Some plan to return to bring their children up, but others feel caught, either by marital relationships or career aspirations. The emotional turmoil they feel, living their lives away from their homeland where they wish to be, must be considerable. My next research journey, therefore, will be to talk with these people to gain an understanding of how their mobility is integrated with, or determined by, life's circumstances.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – List of Contacts

Universities

University of Auckland Alumni
AUT Alumni
Waikato Alumni
Massey Alumni
Victoria Alumni
Canterbury Alumni
Lincoln Alumni
Otago Alumni
New Zealand Universities Graduates' Association

Other Tertiary Institutions

AIS-St Helens
Manukau Institute of Technology
Nelson Marlborough Institute of Technology
Open Polytechnic of New Zealand
Unitec
Universal College of Learning (UCOL)
Waiariki Institute of Technology
Whitireia Polytechnic
Eastern Institute of Technology Hawkes Bay
Otago Polytechnic

Chambers of Commerce

Philippines
Japan
America
Taipei
Canada Australia New Zealand Business Association
Malaysian Australian New Zealand Association

Trade Organisations

Electrical Engineers assoc
NZ Building News
Building Today
Building Industry Federation
Certified Builders Association of NZ
Electrical Contractors Association of NZ
Illuminating Engineering Society of Australia and NZ
Master Plumbers, Gasfitters and Drainlayers NZ Inc
NZ Master Masonry Trades Federation
Registered Master Builders
Marine Industry Association

Professional Organisations

Arbitrator's and Mediators Institute of NZ
 NZ Institute of Architects
 Royal Australian Institute of Architects
 International Union of Architects
 Royal Institute of British Architects
 The Institution of Professional Engineers New Zealand
 NZ Institute of Landscape Architects
 The Accounting & Finance Association of Australia and New Zealand Ltd
 NZ Institute of Chartered Accountants (Syd, Mel & UK branches)
 NZ Teachers Council
 Human Resources Institute of NZ
 Corporate Lawyers Association of New Zealand
 Criminal Bar Association of New Zealand Inc
 NZ Law Society
 NZ Computer Society
 New Zealand HealthCare Pharmacists' Association
 NZ Dental Association
 NZ Association of Optometrists
 New Zealand Dietetic Association
 New Zealand Medical Association
 New Zealand Nurses Organisation
 New Zealand Association of Optometrists
 The Royal Australian and NZ College of Radiologists
 ANZCA (College of Anaesthetists)
 Australian Medical Association
 The Royal Australasian College of Physicians
 Royal Australasian College of Surgeons
 Royal Australian and New Zealand College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists
 Royal Australian and New Zealand College of Psychiatrists.
 Royal Australian and NZ College of Ophthalmologists
 Australasian College for Emergency Medicine
 Library and Information Association of NZ Aotearoa
 NZ Veterinary Association
 NZ Airline Pilots Association
 Australia New Zealand Regional Science Association International Inc

Other Alumni

Treasury
 Deloitte
 St Cuthbert's College
 Auckland Diocesan
 Auckland Boys Grammar School

Other

Kiwi Expatriate Association (KEA)
Kiwi Café, London
Gumtree - london's online community
e big OE.com
Australian and NZ Science Connection
Kiwis Abroad
Kiwis in LA
Kiwis in Montreal
Downunder Club of Winnipeg
Australian and New Zealand Association (ANZA) in Singapore
Kiwi Physicists Abroad
The New Zealand Edge
The Colorado Springs Aussie/Kiwi Club
Oxford University Australia New Zealand Society
Cambridge University Australia New Zealand Society
Maori-in-Oz
Kiwi Club of New York City
NZ American Association
New Zealand American Association of San Francisco
NZ News UK
kiwi-link
The Koru Branch
Ngati Ranana London Maori Group
Specific
Global Kiwis
NZ Social Work Forum
SANZA
NZ Ireland Association
TNT magazine
NZ Society

APPENDIX B – News release



Massey University
News release
 Auckland • Palmerston North • Wellington • Extramural

Helen Vause
 09 433 9799
 027 563 4733
h.e.vause@massey.ac.nz
<http://news.massey.ac.nz>

Te Kunenga
 ki Pūrehuroa

Monday, May 28, 2007

Why do so many New Zealanders live abroad?

Researcher launches online survey of kiwis living overseas

New Zealanders living overseas are sought to take part in a wide ranging survey of why they left and why they stay away from their homeland.

Kaye Thorn, a lecturer in the Department of Management at Massey's Auckland campus is seeking answers from this growing offshore group of New Zealanders. She's hoping New Zealanders both at home and overseas will help enlist participants in her survey.

With an estimated 24 percent of New Zealand-born people now living in an OECD country other than their own, she says we now have one of the highest levels of exodus from the homeland. Her research will pose a wide range of questions examining reasons for this exodus to help stem this country's brain drain.

"Most research focuses on just one key reason for mobility – economic motives. This is a simplistic view. The reality is that factors influencing a decision to live and work in another place are multi-faceted and complex. The factors involved are career, economics, cultural and travel opportunities, the political environment, quality of life and relationships," says Ms Thorn.

"This research seeks to explore the relative importance of the factors that influence the self-initiated mobility of New Zealanders across national boundaries. Until we know this, we have little opportunity to either retain or entice back our essential talent."

She says she would expect the mix of factors that influence this group to move away would differ according to, for example, life stage or gender.

"I would expect a single 40 year old male is going to have different considerations than a woman of the same age with children and a partner, for example".

She is seeking at least 1000 participants and is asking New Zealanders to forward the link to the online survey to kiwis abroad - <http://www.massey.ac.nz/~kthorn>

Contact k.j.thorn@massey.ac.nz, mobile 021 335 742

APPENDIX C – Instructions given to Experts

Sorting the Variables

My research explores the variables that influence the mobility and motivations of New Zealanders to work offshore. My aim is to identify the relative importance of these variables in a decision to be mobile. The literature currently describes a range of variables which have been listed on the attached spreadsheet. I would be most grateful if you could assist me to categorise these variables.

Instructions

1. Please sort the attached variables into categories or groups which you feel have a connecting theme.
2. Please label the categories or groups created with the term that you think describes the theme. You can have as many categories as you think appropriate. Some of the categories may have many variables in them and others may have a few, or even just one. There is no “one right way” to do this!
3. Feel free to add any variables that may have been appropriate to your movement, but have not been included here.

There are a number of ways to sort the variables:

In excel -

- For those who are familiar with excel, it may be possible to do this on screen by typing a category number or letter into column A. By selecting all (clicking in the top left corner of the spreadsheet above the 1 and beside the A) and sorting (Data>sort>column A), the categories you have identified will be grouped together, allowing you to check these categories. If you change the category number or letter, a resort will again group the variables. Please let me know what the category numbers or letters represent though!
- For those who are more kinaesthetic and like to actually ‘do’ something, another approach may be to print out the sheet, cut out the individual variables, spread the variables out and then sort them manually. At the bottom of the spreadsheet, you will notice a tab labelled “Printout Sheet”. This has the variables in a bigger font and

with bigger spaces between each variable, to make it easier for cutting up. Once you have sorted the categories and labelled them, I would be grateful if you could place the category name or a category number or letter into column A beside each of the variables, so that it can be emailed back to me. Again, please let me know what the numbers or letters represent!

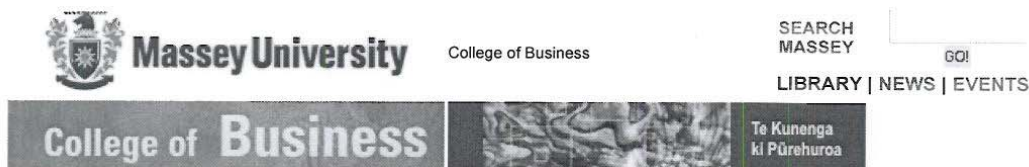
In word –

- The attached word document has the variables listed in text boxes. You can click on these boxes to highlight them, and then move them to sit beside others that have a similar theme. The boxes can sit on top of each other until a space is cleared. Again, please provide a label for the categories you decide on.

I would be grateful if you could email your sorted variables and categories back to me. I am in the final stages of questionnaire preparation, and these categories form a key component of that.

Many thanks

APPENDIX D – Web-based Survey



Flight of the Kiwi:

International Experiences of New Zealanders Working Abroad

WELCOME

This research explores the variables that influence self-initiated mobility and the motivations of New Zealanders to work offshore. The research aims to provide detailed information on work mobility and inform on policies or management practices that might result in a more desirable environment to which people wish to return.

Please complete as many of the questions as are relevant to your current work and location. Depending on how many questions apply to you, it should take no more than 20 minutes. You can, of course, choose not to answer any particular questions.

All replies are confidential, and no one other than the researcher will see your individual responses. A summary report of key findings to date will be automatically generated at the completion of this questionnaire.

Thank you for visiting this site. I appreciate your interest and your participation will ensure this research is successful. Please feel free to refer this site to any other New Zealanders you know who are living and working overseas.

With thanks

Kaye Thorn
Lecturer in Management
Massey University (Auckland)

Email: k.j.thorn@massey.ac.nz
Phone: +64 9 414 0800 ext 9580


Click to start questionnaire

To learn more about the key findings to date, click on the button below. You can revisit this site at any time to see updated findings.

[FINDINGS](#)


This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application 04/068. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate Professor Ann Dupuis, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, telephone +64 9 414 0800 extension 9054, or email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz. Completion and submission of this questionnaire will imply consent. The data collected will be used in publications and seminars.

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Please choose a username and password. This retains your anonymity while ensuring that no-one else can access your responses. The username and password can also be used to re-enter and continue the survey if you are interrupted.

If you have a user name already, please enter it and your password to continue on with your incomplete survey. Thanks.

Username: Password: 

You have started the survey successfully. Your username is *testpage* and password is *testpage*

Questionnaire Instructions - For each question, please select your answer either by choosing the most appropriate response from the drop-down box, by indicating your answer with the most appropriate button, or by filling in the space provided.

PART 1 - The first part of this questionnaire deals with your current location and employment

1. What country are you currently resident in?
Country
2. Are you also working in this country?
 Yes (skip to Q4)
 No (next question)
3. What country are you currently working in?
Country
4. How long have you been working in that country?
 years months
5. In what year were you last living and working in New Zealand? (yyyy)
6. Which of the following best describes your current employment situation?
--- Please choose one ---
7. Which of the following occupational categories best describes your current work?
--- Please choose one ---
8. Please give a brief description of your current position. For example, hospital administrator, doctor, nurse, policy analyst, public sector manager, education administrator, teacher.
9. What type of organisation do you work for?
--- Please choose one ---
10. Which industry group are you employed in?
--- Please choose one ---
11. How did you get this position? Please indicate as many as are relevant
 "Headhunted" or asked to apply
 Approached international recruitment agencies, and applied for this position from New Zealand

- Applied for specific position from within current country
- Applied for specific position from within another country
- Your company asked you to take this position and you were happy to do so
- Your company posted you to this position and you felt you had to take it
- Obtained a contract
- Through networks and contacts
- Serendipity/chance (for example, I was travelling and took a casual job which subsequently turned into permanent employment)
- Other

12. Where were you living when you accepted this position?

- In New Zealand
- Within the current country
- In another country



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13. There are a range of factors which have been identified as important considerations when deciding to live and work in another country. These have been categorised into six key areas and are explained below:

Career - these are the factors that relate to your work - your current work situation and conditions, your current and future career development and future career aspirations.

Cultural and Travel Opportunities - these are opportunities which were not available in your home country but which are available as a result of living abroad, such as experiencing greater cultural diversity, the adventure of living abroad, and greater travel opportunities.

Economic - the financial costs and benefits of living and working abroad.

Political Environment - these are the factors relating to the politics of New Zealand which may have motivated you to move abroad, or factors relating to the politics of the country you moved to which may have attracted you to that country.


Quality of Life - these factors include the characteristics, infrastructure and facilities of a country that improve the way you are able to live your life. Factors such as the weather, healthcare facilities, public transport and your work/life balance are included here.

Relationships - these are factors relating to your partner, family and friends, and your connectedness to them. This category also includes your family ancestry or roots – where you are from, and the way that may influence a decision to live and work in another country.

Imagine you have 100 points to allocate between these factors to show how important each was in your **most recent** decision to move from New Zealand. Distribute the points to reflect the relative importance of each of these factors to you. Some factors may not have been relevant to you, and these can be left blank. Please ensure that the total for all factors equals 100

Career	0
Cultural and Travel Opportunities	0
Economic	0
Political Environment	0
Quality of Life	0
Relationships	0
Total Points	0
100 points have not been allocated!	






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14. Each general factor influencing decisions about living and working abroad contains a number of specific components. The next part of this questionnaire is aimed at finding how influential these variables were to your decision to leave New Zealand.

You allocated **10** points to the career category. This category included the factors that relate to your work - your current work situation and conditions, your career development and future aspirations.

Please distribute these **10** points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Not all may be relevant to your situation and these can be left blank. If you wish to revise your original allocations, the "Back" button below will return you to that page.

Total points to be allocated is 10	
A desire to experience new career challenges	0
To further your professional development	0
To take up a specific job	0
To improve your level of job satisfaction	0
To obtain better job security	0
You were frustrated by work and management systems which limited your autonomy and effectiveness	0
To experience a broader range of career choices	0
To improve your working conditions	0
Moving provided better opportunities for career advancement	0
Your career choice was in the international arena	0
To further your education	0
An opportunity to work in a specific institution or centre of excellence	0
Other (Please specify)	0
Total Points	0
10 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to return to your original career point allocation, click here



15. You allocated 10 points to the cultural and travel opportunities category. These were the opportunities which were not available in New Zealand but which are available as a result of living abroad.

Please distribute these 10 points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Again, not all may be relevant to your situation and these can be left blank.

Total points to be allocated is 10	
The adventure of living and working in another culture	10
A desire to experience a greater variety of cultures	0
To have greater opportunities to travel	0
Previous travels motivated you to live in other countries	0
New Zealand seemed culturally too isolated or limited	0
A desire to live in a big city	0
You wanted the opportunity to learn another language	0
To expose your children to different cultures	0
A desire to experience a greater variety of cultural activities	0
A desire to experience more classical European cultural opportunities eg the opera, ballet, theatre, concerts	0
A desire to experience countries with a longer cultural history	0
Other (Please specify) <input type="text"/>	0
Total Points	10
0 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to alter your original cultural and travel opportunities allocation, click here

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16. You allocated **50** points to the economics category. These were the economic and financial costs and benefits of living and working abroad.

Please distribute these **50** points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Any which are not relevant to your situation can be left blank.

Total points to be allocated is 50	
To obtain a better total remuneration package	10
To live in a country with a larger economy	0
A desire to pay off a student loan more quickly	0
To improve your economic situation	0
To improve your standard of living	0
To improve your taxation position	40
You were unemployed	0
To avoid economic liabilities eg debts, fines	0
Other (Please specify)	0
Total Points	50
50 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to alter your economics points original allocation, click here [Back](#)

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17. You allocated **10** points to the political environment category. These are the factors relating to the politics of New Zealand which may have motivated you to move abroad, or factors relating to the politics of the country you moved to which may have attracted you to that country.

Please distribute these **10** points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Not all may be relevant to your situation and these can be left blank.

Total points to be allocated is 10	
A desire to live in a country with greater freedom to do as you wish	0
New Zealand is too far from the main centres of political activity	0
To be in a safer country	0
To escape a particular political environment	0
To take advantage of immigration policies	0
To take advantage of working holiday visas	0
You found New Zealand to be too insular	10
New Zealand is too "politically correct"	0
Other (Please specify)	0
Total Points	10
10 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to alter your original political environment points allocation, click here [Back](#)

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18. You allocated **10** points to the Quality of Life category. These factors include the characteristics, infrastructure and facilities of a country that improve the way you are able to live your life.

Please distribute these **10** points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Any that are not relevant can be left blank.

Total points to be allocated is 10	
A desire to achieve a better work/life balance	0
A desire to have a more relaxed, less rushed way of life	0
To live in a country with a better climate	0
To enjoy the outdoor life more	0
To obtain a higher level of healthcare for yourself or a family member	0
A desire to live life in the "fast lane"	0
To experience a more social lifestyle	0
To live in a country with a better public transport system	0
Other (Please specify)	0
Total Points	0
10 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to alter your original quality of life points allocation, click here [Back](#)

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19. You allocated **10** points to the relationship category. These are the factors relating to your partner, family and friends, and your connectedness to them, and also includes your family ancestry.

Please distribute these **10** points to reflect the relative importance of the following in making your decision to move. Leave blank any that are not relevant to your situation.

Total points to be allocated is 10	
Your partner wanted to come here	0
To accompany your partner in their career	0
A desire to be closer to family and friends	0
A change in your relationship inspired you to look at options in other countries	0
A desire to be further way from family	0
You considered this country had a better education system for your children	0
All your friends had gone overseas	0
Your partner is from this country	0
Your family came from this country originally	0
Other (Please specify)	0
Total Points	0
10 points have not been allocated!	



If you wish to alter your original relationship points allocation, click here

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PART 2 - This part of the questionnaire seeks to explore more about the country you are living in compared to New Zealand.

20. This next question examines the differences and similarities between the country you are currently working in and New Zealand. Using the rating scale below, please indicate how similar or different your current country is to New Zealand for each of the following factors.

	Scale
The dominant language spoken	
The extent to which religion impacts on everyday life	
The food and drink typically consumed	
The extent to which politics impacts on everyday life	
The existence and relative importance of status differences in business relationships	
The clothing worn by people in business	
The style of greeting/address/introductions	
The overall efficiency of the public transport system	
The extent to which everyday life revolves around the family	
The importance of education	
The importance of keeping appointments and meetings on time	
The extent to which legal formalities appear to influence business negotiations	
The quality of public sector healthcare provision	
Standards of ethics and morals in business	
The use of gestures, eye contact and body language	
The patterns of mealtimes	


Scale	
1	Exactly the same
2	Fairly similar
3	More similar than different
4	More different than similar
5	Fairly different
6	Totally different

Scale	
1	Exactly the same
2	Fairly similar
3	More similar than different
4	More different than similar
5	Fairly different
6	Totally different

The importance of historical tradition in society		Scale	
The patterns of working e.g. working day/hours etc.		1	Exactly the same
The behaviour of men toward women in business		2	Fairly similar
The availability of leisure and entertainment facilities		3	More similar than different
The level of personal safety you feel		4	More different than similar
The relative importance of social networks and contacts in business relationships		5	Fairly different
The degree of corruption and nepotism in business		6	Totally different
The influence of corruption on everyday life			
The extent to which a sense of "community" pervades everyday life			
The expectation to give tips or gratuities for service			

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22. Please chart your cross-national employment mobility, and the length of time in that country, from the first time you left New Zealand, to your current position. For example, if you left New Zealand for Australia, then came back to New Zealand, then went to the United Kingdom and onto Singapore where you are now, please show each of these moves and the length of time at each location. Exclude those times you held only casual employment or were on holiday in that country.

1. New Zealand to: Length of time there:
 years months

2. Then from Australia to: Length of time
there: years months

Delete one country

Next country





23. This next question examines your preferences for work in an international environment. Using the rating scale below, please indicate how you feel about each of the following statements.

	Scale
From a young child, my dream was to work abroad.	
I am most fulfilled working with people from a range of cultures in an international environment.	
I seek out work opportunities by the country they are in rather than the specific nature of the job.	
I feel successful in my career only if I continue to develop new professional skills that can be utilised in an international context	
Having a career that permits me to experience difference cultures is important to me.	

Scale	
1	Strongly agree
2	Agree
3	Slightly agree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Slightly disagree
6	Disagree
7	Strongly disagree



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24. Which of the following career stages best describes your current career situation?

- Early career** - You are becoming established in your chosen career
- Mid career** - you have developed an array of skills, experiences and accomplishments in your chosen career
- Late career** - you are well established in your chosen career
- Career transition** - you are phasing into a different career
- Disengagement** - you are phasing into retirement



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25. Where do you think you will be living in five years time?

- In current country
- In New Zealand
- In a country other than your current country or New Zealand


Please state if known



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PART 4 - This section contains the last few questions. Remember, all replies are confidential. The purpose of these questions is to help interpret the results.

26. In what year were you born?
19 _____
27. What is your gender
 Male Female
28. Where were you born?
New Zealand
29. What citizenship/s do you currently hold? Please include all you have, separating them with a semicolon (;).

30. Are you married/partnered?
 Yes (go to next question)
 No (skip next question)
31. What citizenship/s does your spouse/partner hold? Please include all he/she has, separating them with a semicolon (;).

32. How many dependents do you currently have living with you in your household?

33. What is your highest level of education?
-- Please choose one --
34. Finally, which of the following do you belong to? Please indicate as many as are relevant .
- University Alumni Organisation
-- Please specify --
- Professional organisation (eg NZAA, NZNO, IPENZ)
Please specify:
- Trade organisation (eg ECANZ, Master Builders, Master Plumbers)
Please specify:
- Expat association (eg Singapore expats, expats in Indonesia)
Please specify:
- New Zealand clubs or societies (eg SANZA, Kiwi Club of New York City, Maori in OZ)
Please specify:
- Other

Please specify: _____

35. If you would like to add any comments, or expand on or qualify any of your answers, please do so in the space below.

If you don't have any comments, please leave the box blank and continue.



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If you would be willing to take part in a telephone, email or weblog conversation about some of the issues in this research, please provide an email address here.

Email:

To learn more about the key findings to date, click on the button below. You can revisit this site at any time to see updated findings.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Your time and help are much appreciated.

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APPENDIX E – Ethics Approval



30 August 2004

Kaye Thorn
College of Business
Massey University
Albany

Dear Kaye

**HUMAN ETHICS APPROVAL APPLICATION – MUAHEC 04/068
"The Emigration of Highly Skilled New Zealanders"**

Thank you for your application. It has been fully considered and approved by the Massey University, Albany Campus, Human Ethics Committee.

If you make any significant departure from the Application as approved then you should return this project to the Human Ethics Committee, Albany Campus, for further consideration and approval.

Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, a new application must be submitted at that time.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Kerry Chamberlain".

Associate-Professor Kerry Chamberlain
Chairperson,
Human Ethics Committee
Albany Campus

OFFICE OF THE
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR - AUCKLAND
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore MSC
Auckland
New Zealand
T Deputy Vice-Chancellor - Auckland
64 9 414 0800 extn 9517
Regional Registrar - Auckland
64 9 414 0800 extn 9516
F 64 9 414 0814
www.massey.ac.nz



APPENDIX F – Country of Residence

Country	Frequency	Percent	Country	Frequency	Percent
Afghanistan	1	0.04%	Kyrgyzstan	1	0.04%
Andorra	1	0.04%	Luxembourg	2	0.08%
Argentina	1	0.04%	Malaysia	17	0.66%
Australia	535	20.63%	Mexico	2	0.08%
Austria	9	0.35%	Monaco	1	0.04%
Azerbaijan	2	0.08%	Mongolia	1	0.04%
Bahamas	4	0.15%	Morocco	1	0.04%
Bahrain	5	0.19%	Mozambique	2	0.08%
Belgium	8	0.31%	Nepal	1	0.04%
Bermuda	4	0.15%	Netherlands	27	1.04%
Bolivia	1	0.04%	Nigeria	1	0.04%
Brazil	5	0.19%	Norway	10	0.39%
Brunei	4	0.15%	Oman	3	0.12%
Bulgaria	1	0.04%	Other	14	0.54%
Cambodia	5	0.19%	Papua NG	2	0.08%
Cameroon	1	0.04%	Philippines	2	0.08%
Canada	99	3.82%	Poland	1	0.04%
Cayman Islands	1	0.04%	Qatar	8	0.31%
Chile	3	0.12%	Russia	3	0.12%
China	27	1.04%	Samoa	2	0.08%
Colombia	3	0.12%	Saudi Arabia	3	0.12%
Congo	1	0.04%	Sierra Leone	1	0.04%
Czech Republic	2	0.08%	Singapore	34	1.31%
Denmark	9	0.35%	South Africa	8	0.31%
East Timor	1	0.04%	Spain	10	0.39%
Egypt	2	0.08%	Sri Lanka	1	0.04%
Finland	1	0.04%	Sudan	2	0.08%
France	20	0.77%	Sweden	7	0.27%
Germany	25	0.96%	Switzerland	23	0.89%
Hong Kong	35	1.35%	Syria	1	0.04%
Hungary	3	0.12%	Taiwan	6	0.23%
Iceland	2	0.08%	Tanzania	2	0.08%
India	2	0.08%	Thailand	16	0.62%
Indonesia	13	0.50%	Uganda	2	0.08%
Iraq	2	0.08%	Ukraine	1	0.04%
Ireland	58	2.24%	UAE	33	1.27%
Israel	2	0.08%	United Kingdom	1,044	40.26%
Italy	6	0.23%	United States	305	11.76%
Jamaica	1	0.04%	Uruguay	1	0.04%
Japan	48	1.85%	Uzbekistan	1	0.04%
Kazakhstan	1	0.04%	Vanuatu	2	0.08%
Kenya	2	0.08%	Vietnam	8	0.31%
Korea, South	25	0.96%	Total	2,593	100.0

APPENDIX G – Characteristics of Citizens of the World and Boomerang Movers

Characteristic	Citizens of the World <i>n</i> =122	Boomerang Movers <i>n</i> =109
Gender		
Male	71.4%	56.7%
Female	28.6%	43.3%
Mean Age	42.5 years	41.5 years
Employment Situation		
Permanent	53.7%	60.2%
Temporary	31.4%	28.7%
Self-employed	14.9%	11.1%
Occupation		
Manager	31.4%	22.9%
Professional	56.2%	66.1%
Technical or trade worker	7.4%	4.6%
Community or personal worker	1.7%	1.8%
Clerical or admin worker	2.5%	3.7%
Sales worker	0.8%	0.0%
Industry of Employment		
Mining	2.5%	1.8%
Manufacturing	8.4%	5.5%
Electricity, gas, water or other utility	1.7%	4.6%
Construction	7.6%	2.8%
Wholesale trade	2.5%	0.9%
Retail trade	1.7%	2.8%
Hospitality	5.9%	1.8%
Transport and storage	6.7%	4.6%
Communication services	4.2%	8.3%
Finance and insurance	11.8%	13.8%
Property and business services	13.4%	8.3%
Government administration/defence	6.7%	8.3%
Education	13.4%	24.8%
Health and community services	5.9%	2.8%
Cultural and recreation services	5.0%	0.9%
Personal and other services	0.8%	2.8%
ICT	0.8%	5.5%

Characteristic	Citizens of the World	Boomerang Movers
	<i>n</i> =122	<i>n</i> =109
Current position obtained through: ¹		
Headhunted	22.1%	23.9%
Recruitment agency	3.3%	1.8%
Applied for specific job from current country	30.3%	29.4%
Applied for specific job from other country	9.0%	13.9%
Company sent me but happy to go	12.3%	8.3%
Contract	11.5%	9.2%
Networks	32.8%	22.9%
Chance	7.4%	6.4%
¹ Numbers will not add to 100, as multiple responses were possible		
Career Stage		
Early career	6.6%	11.2%
Mid career	46.7%	45.8%
Late career	28.7%	26.2%
Transitioning	13.1%	13.1%
Disengaging	4.9%	3.7%
Living in five years?		
Current country	39.7%	37.7%
New Zealand	21.5%	41.5%
Other country	38.8%	20.8%

APPENDIX H – Employment, Type of Organisation and Industry of Employment by Mobility

Occupational Category by Mobility

<i>Occupational Category</i>	<i>Total %</i>	<i>1 move</i>	<i>2 moves</i>	<i>3–4 moves</i>	<i>5+ moves</i>
Manager	17.7	15.0	19.2	20.1	27.1
Professional	65.8	66.0	68.8	64.3	62.2
Technician or trade worker	4.4	5.3	2.0	3.8	5.6
Community or personal service worker	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	1.6
Clerical or admin worker	6.4	7.7	4.6	6.4	2.8
Sales worker	2.0	2.4	1.1	2.0	0.4
Machinery operator or driver	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.3	0.0
Labourer	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0
Other	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.4
Total	2,608	53.4	17.3	23.4	9.7

Organisation by Mobility

<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Total %</i>	<i>1 move</i>	<i>2 moves</i>	<i>3–4 moves</i>	<i>5+ moves</i>
Privately owned company	37.7	37.3	37.3	39.3	36.9
Company on the stock exchange	14.2	13.7	15.3	13.8	17.3
Government Department	20.2	20.2	22.4	17.8	21.7
Publicly funded organisation	8.7	9.1	6.4	9.7	10.0
Local Government	10.3	9.4	11.6	12.7	7.2
Not-for-profit	2.7	3.3	1.8	2.6	1.2
Other	6.1	7.1	5.1	4.1	5.3
Total	2,590	53.2	17.4	23.5	9.7

Industry of Employment by Mobility

Industry	Total %	1 move	2 moves	3-4 moves	5+ moves
Farming, forestry and fishing	1.2	1.3	0.4	1.8	0.8
Mining	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.8
Manufacturing	4.8	3.9	5.3	5.6	6.4
Electricity, gas, water or other utility	1.9	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.8
Construction	4.8	5.2	4.4	3.6	4.8
Wholesale trade	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.6
Retail trade	2.4	2.8	2.4	1.7	2.0
Hospitality	1.7	1.5	1.1	2.5	3.6
Transport and storage	3.6	3.3	3.6	4.3	5.2
Communication services	6.2	6.8	4.9	6.0	6.4
Finance and insurance	14.2	14.4	15.1	14.4	12.4
Property and business services	14.0	14.5	13.6	14.4	11.2
Government administration and defence	4.6	4.4	4.0	4.6	7.2
Education	15.6	14.7	17.1	15.7	19.3
Health and community services	9.9	10.5	10.9	9.6	4.0
Cultural and recreation services	3.4	3.6	2.7	3.5	3.2
Personal and other services	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.0
ICT	3.2	2.6	4.0	3.3	3.6
Other	2.1	2.4	2.2	1.7	0.4
Total	2,583	53.2	17.3	23.4	9.6