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Lynne Cohen
Edith Cowan University

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MOVING TO WESTERN AUSTRALIA: DECISION MAKING PROCESSES OF MIGRANTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM

Lynne Cohen
B.Sc (S.A.) H.E.D. (S.A.) B.Psych. (ECU) M.Psych (ECU)

This thesis is presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
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Faculty of Community Services, Education and Social Sciences
Edith Cowan University

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Abstract

International migration has assumed a new importance during the last few decades due to the volume and increase of population movement. Two important questions are relevant to the migration process. The person has to make the decision to move and to select a place of destination. In this thesis a series of studies designed to examine the factors that led to the consideration of leaving and the attributes which contributed to the choice of destination are presented. This research begins by adopting suggestions proposed by Jahoda (1981) to ask questions and thereby increase the knowledge base. The methodological framework of this research is derived from the different issues and controversies within psychology that have arisen due to a growing dissatisfaction with the traditional approaches that underpin much psychological research. Alternative philosophical and methodological approaches are drawn upon such as, substantive theorising (Wicker, 1989), the human science methodological framework (Dokecki, 1992), critical multiplism (Newbrough, 1992) and a systems perspective (Bronfenbrenner (1977) to achieve a more holistic approach to the research. A multi-method thesis is presented in four stages that incorporate triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods to serve both completeness and confirmation of the research. Each level provides more detail and specificity moving from the macro to the micro level of inquiry.

In order to address the key question of what factors influence the decision to migrate, the first stage explores the potential reasons why people leave the United Kingdom to live in Australia. The literature on possible reasons for migration is reviewed and is used as one source of information that is then further explored in this stage using qualitative semi-structured interviews that focus on the interpretive and descriptive

analysis of these reasons. Some of the possible explanations included migrating for a better life and education for the children, the climate in Australia and the better economic prospects for the future. Based on these different perspectives provided by the participants, an information decision tree was developed. The results of this first stage of the research informed the following two stages.

The second stage of the research is a specific analysis of the substantive domain that examined the information obtained from stage one in more detail. This experimental stage was ideographic and used linear regression models obtained by regression analyses to understand the basis of the migration decision and the factors which contribute to that decision. Results of this study indicated that the judgments of two thirds of the participants were well modelled by the linear model. The implications and limitations for using this approach are discussed in detail.

In the third stage of the research, the substantive domain is further explored in two studies which use a multiattribute utility model approach for conceptual clarification of the decision making process. In this stage, the additional research question was addressed which examined whether there were any differences in the decision making process between migrants from the U.K. living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K. In the first study, 446 migrants from the U.K. already living in Australia completed a questionnaire. In the second study, a group of potential migrants, who had not yet migrated but had already obtained their visas, completed a similar questionnaire. In summary, the results supported the salience of the different factors determined in the previous studies and indicated that participants could be clearly divided into three groups using cluster

analysis. The implications for understanding the results of both these studies are discussed.

The final stage of the research continues the process of exploring the substantive domain and returns to the migrants to understand their experiences through real life episodes of migration. This stage uses the approach suggested by Dewey (1929), and returns to the migrants who have the experience and are able to clarify the situation as they have the best knowledge. The results reinforced the importance and salience of the different factors determined in the previous stages. It also confirmed that one cannot focus solely on only one factor, as there are a combination of factors which play a role in the decision to move.

The final chapter reviews the results obtained in this thesis and the different methodological perspectives used in the research. The accumulation of knowledge that has resulted from this research and the contribution made to the understanding of the substantive domain of migration is discussed further. Positive suggestions for further research are proposed.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

(i) incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

(ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or

(iii) contain any defamatory material.

Signature

Date....*24 - 8 - 1999*.........

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"There will always be the dark and tangled stretches in the decision making process –
mysterious even to those who may be most intimately involved."

J. Sorenson

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The descriptions below are indicative of the importance of the decision making process of migrants and the implications of these processes going wrong. These complaints about Australia demonstrate a direct conflict between thoughts prior to migrating and impressions after arrival.

"Education is very inferior over here. My children started proper schooling at the ages of four and a half years already knowing the alphabet off by heart and spelling their own names and recognising a lot of words in text books. Here you don't start proper school until you're six years of age. So, therefore, the Australian children are very behind and backward".

"I hate all this sand which is everywhere. I hate your summer too. It's just too hot, just brings me to the boil, also your filthy flies and other insects..."

"You've no factories around here either, so as to produce stuff. You just seem to build houses and supermarket centres. Therefore, when I buy items it's far more dearer as it is usually imported".

"Incidentally, I strongly object being called a POM. I didn't come over here on a boat nearly 200 years ago as a prisoner. If anything you are probably more pommy than I am, look to your ancestors. POM stands for 'Prisoner of Mother England'. I'm no prisoner. How would you lot like to be called convicts all the time?"

"I am very happy to be going back home the sooner the better. Oh, nearly forgot – your haze and smog over Perth is just awful, no wonder nearly everyone suffers from asthma. You should get rid of those vile wood-heaters, they stink the place out, not to mention they look ugly. We have got rid of smog in the United Kingdom nearly 30 years ago by banning open fires - now there is central gas heating-clean

and effective. In fact, people cap their chimneys because they have no further use

for them"

"Have I mentioned your water? The taste and smell of the domestic water from the

kitchen taps is absolutely vile. My friends have also said this. I even phoned the

Water Authority. Also the water is very hard here and turns everything either green

or black, especially the grouting between the tiles in the showers. I've never seen

the inside of my kettle, covered in what looks like moss so I am force to clean it

with special stuff".

"Personally I can't stand the Australian accent, you don't pronounce your words

correctly because you say your vowels all wrong. It is not the Queen's English, is

it? You all speak through your noses – it's horrible"

The above comments clearly demonstrate the importance of exploring the context of

migration and in part the migrant point of view. The term migration involves movement of

individuals from a place of origin to a place of destination (Greenwood, Mueser, Plane &

Schlottmann, 1991). Migration is a social process, which results in problems that are of

concern to and have implications for migrants. Not only is migration important to the

governments determining immigration policy, but also it is significant to all residents of the

accepting country.

Most people have definite beliefs and attitudes towards migration whether an

opinion on the migration levels set by the government, or a perception that migrants find

employment to the detriment of the local population. Many people feel that migration is an

issue that personally affects their everyday lives and as such, opposing opinions with regard

to this matter may result in divisiveness in the community.

Naturally migrants increase the population of a country. They also require places to live, employment to provide an income for their families, children need to attend schools, they require access to the health system and possibly social security (Kabala, 1993). Generally migration has the potential to affect the core of society as it influences the racial, ethnic and cultural composition of a community (Kabala). Migrants may come from quite different ethnic backgrounds and contribute to the economy by bringing with them unique skills and talents. They set up businesses, provide employment and contribute to the improvement of the wider community. Ultimately they add another dimension to the destination country by increasing the scope and diversity of the citizens within it.

International Migration: An Overview

Recently the issue of international migration has assumed a new importance due to the volume and increase of population movement. Such interest has led to migration being discussed by prominent committees such as the London G-7 Summit in 1991 and in 1994 by the Joint Bank-Fund Development Committee – a branch of the World Bank. Immigration issues have been given prominence by the European Community (EC) (Wooden, Holton, Hugo & Sloan, 1994).

Indeed so great has the population movement been over the past few decades that the United Nations Population Division indicated that by the end of the 1980s more than 100 million people were residing outside their countries of birth (Russell, 1998). This included 36 million people in Asia, the Middle East and North Africa; 23 million in Eastern and Western Europe; 20 million in the United States and Canada; 10 million in Africa; 6 million in Latin America and the Caribbean; 4 million in Australia, New Zealand and surrounding areas (Teitelbaum & Russell, 1994).

When categorised, international migrants move for a number of reasons. About 19 million international migrants are refugees or from forced migration due to intolerable situations in their country of origin (United Nations High Commissioner for refugees). Demographic factors alone such as population size, age or gender have been unable to account for the large volume of migration, and no direct relationship between these factors has been established (International Labour Office, 1986). Consequently demographic variables are only one issue which needs to be considered to account for migration (Russell, 1998). Others include those who have moved voluntarily for numerous reasons such as economic factors, environmental issues or to be reunited with family and friends.

Causes of International Migration

Many explanations have been proposed to account for this large-scale international migration. However, it is unclear as to why this process occurs. Economic and social explanations mainly propose that individuals migrate because the demand for labour at the place of destination is greater than at the place of origin (Massey, 1993). In other words, labour markets regulate international migration whereby individuals move because of the potential benefit to increase their income. Other approaches have tried to explain migration as a result of political factors or environmental issues such as Suhrke (1994). What appears to be the case is that there is not one single explanation, but many reasons for this migration. Russell (1998) suggested that:

> Understanding those causes, identifying what-if any-issues they raise for migrants and their countries of origin and destination, and determining appropriate and effective policy options for addressing such issues needs to be done on a country-by-country basis.(p.9)

Establishing the Context

Australia is a country largely built on immigration. Initially founded as a British colony for the purpose of establishing a convict settlement (Jupp, 1991), Australia soon developed into a nation in its own right. The period after the Second World War was significant in terms of immigration to Australia. It was not only the impact that migrants had on the political, social and economic spheres of the country, but for the first time migrants came in larger numbers from places other than Britain (Wooden, Holton, Hugo & Sloan, 1994). Australian immigration policies until the end of the 1960s ensured that Australia remained White and British (Jupp). However, with the abolition of the 'White Australia' policy in 1973, Australia was set to become a diverse nation of immigrants, and paved the way for the present policy of multiculturalism that encourages all ethnic groups to preserve and maintain their culture and heritage.

From an Australian perspective, the international migration situation has changed enormously. The diversity, numbers and patterns of migration to Australia have altered considerably in line with the increase in international migration within the Asian region. Australia has recognised the importance of these changes with the result that the Bureau of Immigration Research was established in 1989 (now the Bureau of Immigration and Population Research, BIMPR) and, together with the Office of Multicultural Affairs, initiate further research into immigration issues (Wooden, Holton, Hugo & Sloan, 1994). In the context of present international migration, Australian immigration over the next few decades is likely to be influenced by global developments. Consequently, research and policymaking needs to concentrate on developments and issues affecting Australia if we are to better understand the processes and impact of immigration in this context. Australian

researchers and policy makers need to be aware of the developments of international

migration in other developed and developing countries.

The emergence of official interest in population issues can readily be seen with the

growing proliferation of literature on migration and major international and Australian

journals concerned with the issue of migration. Examples include The International

Migration Review, International Migration, and the Pacific Migration Journal. Discussion

and research on international migration has involved many disciplines with interest

demonstrated by demographers, economists, historians, sociologists, geographers and other

social scientists. Much of the research has focused on specific aspects of migration, for

example the numbers of people that move in a specific period of time (McHugh, 1984), the

adjustment of migrants to a new country (Hertz, 1993) and rural to urban migration

(Mueser, 1989). Other studies have examined the effects of demographic characteristics on

migration such as age and gender (Rogler, 1994).

Methodological Issues

Research on migration provides a valuable contribution to the theoretical nature of

the area. Researchers have employed a variety of analytical processes and formulated

different theoretical models. Many studies have aimed at describing migration flows from

one area to another which has been useful to examine initially the determinants and

consequences of migration (Greenwood, Mueser, Plane & Schlottmann, 1991). Yet despite

the importance of this research, disciplines involved in migration research such as

sociology and geography, rely on a single method rather than different methods to gather

the information. Most of the studies use aggregate data such as the Annual Housing Survey

in the U.S.A. The prior discussion of international migration and its relevance to Australia

suggests that different approaches in studying migration need to be considered.

Alternative directions for research

It is important to use appropriate methodologies and analyses irrespective of the research domain. In this way not only is the researcher gathering empirical evidence but also increasing the knowledge base (Jahoda, 1981). No longer is it adequate to only consider one approach. It is also important to consider the context of the migration. The substantive domain needs to be explored fully to gain a better understanding of the elements involved as well as providing a better process for dealing with the different phenomena of migration (Wicker, 1989). If the suggestions proposed by Jahoda are to be realised, then it is imperative to determine the most appropriate methodologies for understanding migration decision making. To this end, different methodological tools may be used to study the central issue of migration decision making.

Migration research will benefit from this approach, as broader research strategies will create better and more productive implementation of the migration policies (Newbrough, 1992). For example, by employing both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the research, migration decision making may be better understood not only by researchers but also by governments and communities at large. Factors that contribute to the migration decision making process may also be better understood if they are interpreted in the context within which the migration occurred and from the microperspective of the individual.

As a result of this discussion, it appears that to fully understand the factors that contribute to the decision-making process of migrants, these factors need to be located and interpreted in the context within which they occurred. The research described in this thesis draws upon different methodologies in order to provide an appropriate framework to model

the preferences of migrants which will lead to the understanding of the basis of migration

decisions when they occur.

Plan of the thesis

In order to provide an historical context, a brief history of how immigration has

played a large part in the development of Australia since colonisation in 1788, is presented

in Chapter two. The original colony of Australia from 1788 was mainly made up of convict

transportation from the United Kingdom and Ireland. Until 1868, about 160,000 convicts

were brought to Australia, 85 percent were male, less than 3 percent were not of British

origin (Nicholas & Shergold, 1988). This was followed by a period of free migration and

assisted passage for migrants. This early history emphasises to the reader that the major

source of new settlers to the Australian colony was from the United Kingdom. There were,

however, a small number of Chinese immigrants who together with indigenous Australians

were regarded as racially and culturally different to the mainstream population at the time.

Even the establishment of the Australian Federation towards the end of the nineteenth

century was accompanied by an attempt to keep Australia 'British' (BIMPR, 1996). There

was a definite perception as to the type of migrant that was considered acceptable. This

was to the detriment of most non-Europeans, but to the benefit of Northern Europeans who

were encouraged to migrate.

Until 1940, the majority of settlers that came to Australia were born in the United

Kingdom. Those migrants from non-English-speaking backgrounds were encouraged to

assimilate and learn English as quickly as possible. In 1947, 90 percent of Australia's

population were either immigrants or descendants of immigrants from the United Kingdom.

From 1945, even with an official policy to encourage immigration, priority was still given to migrants from the United Kingdom. This period of immigration is also discussed in Chapter one. Finally the debate shifts to the abandonment of the 'White Australia' policy to one of non-discrimination on the basis of race, colour or nationality. Presently the government implements a policy of multiculturalism and encourages migrants to retain their traditions, language and culture. Historically the reader is made aware that although there has been a significant shift in the composition of the Australian population in the last ten years, migrants from the United Kingdom still represent the largest English-speaking group in Australia.

People who are contemplating migration need to make the decision to migrate and decide to which country to migrate. There may be a number of characteristics of the place that a person will consider when migrating as well as several other preferences in the migration decision. In Chapter three a review is given of different studies that investigated alternative viewpoints, identified many variables which seemed to determine the importance of various attributes and factors which contribute to migration, are presented. Also, different approaches are presented which researchers have proposed such as the distinction between economic and noneconomic reasons for moving.

One of the difficulties with migration research is the way in which the data used in the different studies has been obtained. Traditionally the use of aggregate data such as the Annual Housing Survey in the U.S.A. has been used to infer the importance of factors, which contribute to the migration decision-making process. An appropriate methodology could be *judgment analysis*, which is a research method that has been used in the decision-making area. However, the application of human judgment research to discover the complexities of the migration decision making process appears to have been ignored by

researchers. Chapter four explains how the research method of judgment analysis may be used to investigate the migration decision making process of migrants. The emphasis is on examining real life situations rather than only laboratory experiments. This chapter also reviews two examples of linear models, which have widespread application to represent human judgment. This thesis uses two modelling techniques: multiattribute utility models (MAU) and a regression approach, both of which have provided alternative ways of explaining the judgment process. Although linear models do have limitations and may not capture all of the human judgment process (Brehmer, 1994), considerable research has provided evidence as to their usefulness. This is also reviewed in Chapter four.

Judgment analysis is used in this thesis as one of a number of different methods used to study the decision making process of migrants. The use of multiple procedures and triangulation allows the researcher to explore several methods to identify the reasons for migration or destination choice. There has also been a debate about different issues and controversies within psychology due to the dissatisfaction with the experimental approaches to psychological research. Alternative approaches such as Newbrough's (1992) critical multiplism, Dokecki's (1992) methodological framework for community psychology both advocated the use of multiple methods in psychological research. Wicker (1989) suggested a research paradigm called substantive theorising whereby both the substantive domain and the conceptual framework determined the methodology. This literature is also reviewed in Chapter five. A four-stage methodology is proposed. Each stage represents a different type of analysis to inform the researcher about the factors that contribute to the decision-making processes of migrants. The first stage informed the research by providing a tentative exploration of the substantive domain. It also draws on the work of Bronfenbrenner (1977) and Dokecki (1992) and the scope of the inquiry is

qualitative semi-structured interviews. Stages two and three represent specific analyses of the substantive domain. They are more detailed than the first stage. Stage four also provides an analysis of the substantive domain but is more specific in that it offers individual detailed descriptions of the decision making process from migrants.

In Chapter six, the substantive domain is investigated and information on the factors which contribute to the decision making process of migrants are identified. In this stage, individual migrants are interviewed to gain a rich understanding of the factors that influence decision-making. The context within which the migration decision is made has also been considered.

To study the contribution of these factors more quantitatively, Chapter seven describes an experimental study to explore the substantive domain. The purpose of this study is to explore the importance of these factors to the decision process as well as determine significant combinations of the attributes. The experimental approach used in this study reflects Wicker's (1989) suggestion that it is unnecessary to reject totally the scientific, empirical approach if it aids conceptual clarification. The study in Chapter eight elucidates the results obtained in the previous study. Two studies were conducted here which used the multiattribute utility model approach for conceptual clarification of different aspects of the decision making process.

The previous stages explored the substantive domain in detail. The research continues this process but returns to the individuals to understand their experiences through real life episodes of migration. The belief at this stage from Dewey (1929) is that as the investigations have been completed, one needs to take this knowledge and not "isolate them from continuity with the natural world" (p. 230). Chapter nine responds to this challenge

that individuals who have the experience and are able to clarify the situation authenticate

the best knowledge.

The above review has focused attention on the research in this thesis. An

integration of the results from the perspective of the different methodologies used in the

research is discussed in Chapter ten. The idea that some researchers have examined the

determinants of migration in an arbitrary manner is suggested. This chapter asserts that this

research fills an identifiable gap in the literature and makes a noticeable contribution to

previous studies. It provides the reader with an understanding of the substantive domain

and offers a framework for conducting migrant research.

Research Questions

This research addresses the following main questions:

1. What factors influence the decision to migrate? What are the most important variables which migrants take into account when they are making the decision to migrate? Do migrants consider all the relevant characteristics of potential destinations and then decide on one, which is more suitable?

2. Are there any differences in the decision making process between migrants from the U.K. living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K.?

Subsidiary Questions

1. How satisfied are migrants living in Australia? This is to establish whether the supposed decision making processes have resulted in a satisfactory move for the migrants.

2. What are the major sources of information for migrants prior to migration? This is to determine where migrants obtain their information on the potential destination. A complete description of the different methods is necessary for future planning.

3. Are there any covariates (e.g., age, gender) associated with the migration decision? In other words, is there any relationship between demographic variables and the migration decision.

The proposed multi method framework addresses each of these questions within an integrated approach so that a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal of the issue may be presented (Stage & Russell, 1992).

CHAPTER 2

History of Migration to Australia

Aims of the chapter

This chapter describes the history of migration to Australia since colonisation in 1788. The history of migration provides a useful organising framework from which one can understand Australia's population growth over the last 200 years. For the purposes of clarification, the history is divided into four broad sections: Firstly, a review of migration from 1788 to 1900 which emphasises the major role played by British immigration; secondly, a description of immigration from 1900 to 1945 which included not only British migrants but also saw an increase in migration from other countries such as Italy, Greece and Poland; thirdly, after 1945 where those from the U.K. still remained the dominant group. However, there was a marked change in the ethnic composition. The fourth section describes the changing viewpoint in migration policy from the time the White Australia Policy was abandoned focusing on the movement towards Multiculturalism. In the final analysis, a summary of international migration to Australia indicates that the composition of migrants has been dominated by those from the United Kingdom with a shift occurring in the last ten years.

History of Immigration: An Overview

Immigration has played a large part in Australia's development. Prior to the first

British immigration just over 200 years ago, there were an estimated 300,000

Indigenous people. Since that time immigration has been one of the major

characteristics of Australian development. In 1788, 1,030 British people arrived in

Australia in prison transport ships. Since then there has been a steady stream of mainly

white Caucasian migrants into Australia, especially from Britain.

Generally, immigration will increase the number of people living in a country.

All these people will need homes to live in, jobs to provide for themselves and their

families, education for their children, health care and welfare assistance if required as

well as affecting many areas of social and public life. The very core of society may be

altered by changing the racial, ethnic and cultural composition of the population

(Kabala, 1993). The existing society may be threatened by these structural changes

creating a basis to question the immigration policy (Rimmer, 1992). Immigration policy

may reflect certain concerns such as a shortage of labour or it may be controlled by the

attitudes, values and prejudices held by the community (Kabala). Historically Australia

has had carefully planned immigration policies and an analysis of these will help to

understand the changes and developments of the past and the future.

As Australia enters its third century since British occupation, the population

continues to change and develop. Today Australia is a country which includes people

from many different countries, a true multicultural society, a nation where one person in

every five was born overseas (North, 1984). These people from some 100 countries

speak over 50 different languages, not including the Indigenous population (Jayasuriya,

1997). This increase in the non-Indigenous population of Australia has been the result

of large-scale immigration that has continued since the end of the eighteenth century

(Kelley & McAllister, 1984).

There is a need to place this immigration into a political and social context as

well as considering the current government policy of multiculturalism and the changing

patterns of immigration in the 1990's. Therefore this chapter is designed as an historical

overview of the past two centuries, to aid in developing a basis for understanding the

immigration policies that have characterised Australian society since early colonisation.

Immigration to Australia

The history of Australian immigration may be examined during different time

frames. Consequently, Australian immigration policy can be divided into four phases.

Prior to 1945 there were three main stages followed by a period of post war migration

(Jupp, 1991). Firstly, 1788 to 1840 was characterised by convict transportation from the

United Kingdom and Ireland; secondly, from the 1840s to the 1890s there was mainly

free migration and assisted passage for settlers; and finally, from the 1890s to 1945 the

immigration policy was restrictive and non-British migration was limited except during

certain times such as the goldrush in the 1850's. Another exception to this policy was

the acceptance of Jewish refugees from Nazi Germany who were accepted into Australia

under the Evian agreement in 1938 (Jupp, 1992). After 1945 to the present time

immigration continued some of the previous trends but also attained some special

distinguishing features.

Immigration to Australia: States to Federation 1788-1900

New South Wales was colonised in 1788 as a British penal settlement resulting

from a British foreign policy decision to settle the country (Harris, 1993). Prior to 1788

there was thought to be about 350,000 Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (Jupp,

1984). However, the accuracy of these figures is uncertain because of the inadequacy in

collecting relevant data at the time (Official Year Book of the Commonwealth of

Australia, 1965). From 1788 to 1868 the main white settlement was through English

convict transportation (Freeman & Jupp, 1992), which lasted until 1852 in the Eastern

States. In Western Australia most convict migration occurred between 1850 and 1868.

By the 1880's free settler schemes were implemented and these attracted a significant

number of immigrants from Britain and Ireland. These pioneers formed the first

settlement of Western Australia in 1829, and contributed to the development of South

Australia in 1836.

Many different ways of attracting immigrants to Australia were used, including

free passage, loans and employer sponsorship. A big advantage of these schemes was

that they enabled the British and Colonial governments to choose the desired type of

settlers. By 1851, there were 187,000 free immigrants in Australia (Lucas, 1987). By

this time, there were English immigrants in all parts of Australian society including the

mining industry, on the farmlands, in the manufacturing industry and in commerce

(Jupp, 1991). However, from the 1880's to 1910 with a downturn in the Australian

economy, South Australia was too poor and unable to fund assisted passage settlers and

discontinued the program between the mid-1880s until 1910. Similarly in Western

Australia and Tasmania the scheme was withdrawn for a period of time. Consequently,

towards the end of the nineteenth century, most English immigrants went to New South Wales and Queensland (Jupp).

Convict influence on the fabric of early Australian society was important as they formed the basis of early Australian white society. As many of the convicts came from London, one of their various influences on the settlement was on the accent of the English language. Jupp (1991) described these early settlers as being mainly from the cities, literate, young, and flexible. Few were involved in political activity, and most were not interested in pursuing any political activism in Australia. At the height of transportation to Australia, these convicts made up nearly half the white populations of New South Wales, Tasmania and Western Australia (Jupp). The remainder of the population at the time came from officials and soldiers sent to administer the colony as well as some assisted migrants who came to settle in New South Wales. Once they were freed, many convicts became settlers or labourers and started to move to Victoria and Queensland (Jupp).

The greatest relative increase in the Australian population took place in the decade between 1850 and 1860, which saw a rise in the population from 405,000 to 1,145,000. This was partly in response to the gold rushes in the 1850s where many immigrants came from countries such as Germany and America. This period also saw mass Chinese immigration constituting the largest non-British immigrant group during the latter half of the nineteenth century. However, anti-Chinese sentiment was so rife that by 1896 policy makers at an intercolonial conference decided to restrict the entry of non-Europeans to all Australian colonies except South Australia and Queensland (BIMPR, 1994). Subsequently the Commonwealth Immigration Restriction Act of 1901 excluded all non-Europeans and set in motion the White Australia Policy, which saw Australian immigration policy encouraging only British immigrants. This meant that

until 1947 it was mainly British subjects who received assisted passage, and until 1973,

it was the British who were permitted to settle in Australia free from any restrictions

provided that they had no criminal record (Freeman & Jupp, 1992). This ensured that

the dominant component of the population continued to be British.

By 1851 the population of Australia was 525,000; made up predominantly of

white British people. This group had increased to over one million by 1861 (Jupp,

1984). However, despite the primary source of migrants being British and Irish, there

were small ethnic communities such as the Lutherans, which had established themselves

in South Australia. As suggested by Kabala (1993, p.4) "...Australia until 1973 did not

allow non-white immigration, specifically aiming at the 'White Australia' idea". The

introduction of the assisted passage scheme for these British settlers ran from 1831 to

1947 and brought 1,068,000 immigrants to Australia (Jupp, 1992).

By the end of the nineteenth century, migrants mainly of British origin had

settled Australia. Most of the major cities had been connected by rail and there was

access to remote areas of the country even to the Kimberley area in northern Western

Australia. As suggested by Jupp (1991), this was all achieved by a small population of

which the British were the dominant group totalling 380,000 by 1901. By the end of the

nineteenth century, those born in the United Kingdom comprised the largest group in

Australia (10.4% of the Australian population) besides those people born in Australia.

Immigration policy still favoured the British who continued settling in large numbers

(Jupp) (See Figure 2.1)
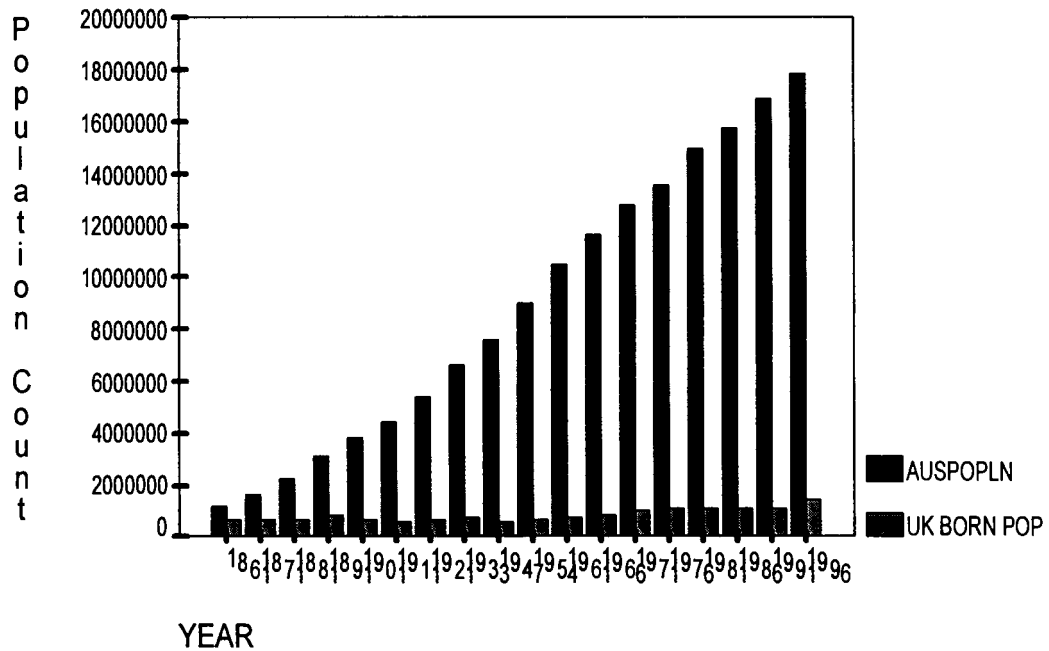
Figure 2.1 Comparison between the total Australian and the United Kingdom

immigrant population

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the movement towards Australian

Federation was gaining momentum and the Commonwealth was established in 1901. At

this time there was the perceived need to keep the Commonwealth of Australia

predominantly British and to exclude all non-Europeans from settlement (BIMPR,

1994). This view to encourage migrants of British or northern European descent was

held by the Commonwealth until after the Second World War.

Immigration to Australia: 1900-1945

A census conducted by the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901 reported a

population of 3.85 million of which 3 million (77%) were born in Australia (See Figure

2.2). This census did not take into account the Indigenous population, as the colonial

government was especially interested in the number of white settlers in Australia and

other minority groups, but did not consider the Indigenous population as part of the

population at that time. There were difficulties in collecting data on the Aboriginal

population and figures were only available for those Aboriginals in close contact with

white communities. Traditional Aboriginals were under represented (Official Year

Book of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1927). The difficulties of the data collection

at that time limit the usefulness of this data and considerable caution is required when

interpreting this data. Of the 857,576 people born overseas, 79% were from the United

Kingdom or Ireland. This suggests that about 90% of the non-Indigenous population of

Australia was of British or Irish descent. The remainder of the overseas population

came mainly from places such as Germany (38,352), China (29,907), New Zealand

(25,788) and the Scandinavian countries (16,144). A small number of people came

from countries such as India, the USA, Italy, Japan, France, Russia, Canada,

Switzerland and South Africa (BIMPR, 1994).
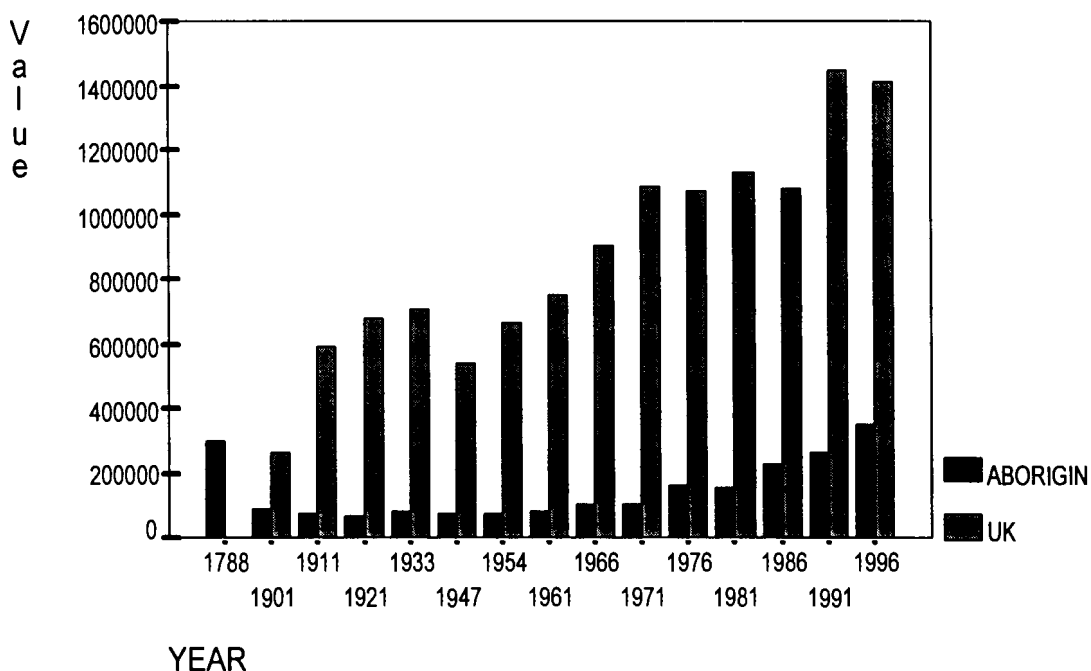
Figure 2.2 Comparison between the Indigenous Aboriginal and the United Kingdom
immigrant population

With the onset of an economic depression at the end of the nineteenth century and World War One, the rate of immigration to Australia started to decline. Between 1900 and 1930 what immigration did occur was primarily due to the continuing recruitment and settler assistance schemes conducted by the States and the Commonwealth. However, the downturn within the coal mining industry, industrial unrest and post-war anxiety all contributed to another decrease in immigration. It was at its lowest point at this time (Jupp, 1991).

Restrictive Immigration Government Policies

Due to the decrease in British immigration, policies were implemented which were designed primarily to control the type of immigrants coming to Australia. This restrictive immigration was not new. It dated back to Federation in 1901. For example the Immigration Restriction Act (1901), the Pacific Islanders Labourers Act (1901) and the Naturalisation Act (1901) all of which ensured that the British were to remain the main immigrant group and that non-Europeans were to be restricted from entering Australia. Some of the restrictive immigration policies were outlined by Cronin (1993). For example, the British Secretary of State for the Colonies convinced the Colonial government to adopt the "Natal Formula" which had originally been devised in the Natal Province in South Africa to exclude free Indian immigrants. This plan involved an English dictation test to ascertain proficiency in the English language but sole judgment and interpretation of who passed the test was left to the discretion of the immigration officer. The test could be given to any immigrant when entering the country or within five years after entry. This was primarily to restrict the entry of non-Europeans. For example, in Queensland, the Pacific Islanders were forced to return to

the New Hebrides and the Solomon Islands; while non-Europeans were not permitted to

become citizens of Australia. The Act of 1901 gave uncontrolled power to immigration

officers to decide who was allowed to remain in Australia (Cronin).

Unfortunately the Act did not specify which migrants were permitted to enter

and remain in the country. Citizenship of Australia was only introduced in 1949

(Cronin, 1993). Because of the inadequate legislation, the High Court became involved

to determine who could enter and remain in Australia. Cronin suggested that many

cases came before the High Court and they determined that "...a given person is an

immigrant or not and whether he is or is not at that time a constituent part of the

community known as the Australian people" (p.89). These factors indicate how difficult

it was for anyone not of British or European descent to become accepted by Australia

and to become citizens of that country.

From 1900 - 1945, there were 850,000 migrants entering Australia with the

majority coming unassisted from Britain or Ireland (BIMPR, 1994). During this period

there was an increase in people coming from Italy, Greece, Poland and Malta as

indicated by a census in 1933. By 1945, these groups were augmented by people from

Yugoslavia, Lebanon and Germany (Freeman & Jupp, 1992). In general, the period

between 1900 and 1945 was marked by low levels of immigration and population

expansion, primarily due to low economic growth (Jupp, 1991). Although many

migrants (850,000) did enter the country during this period, the numbers would have

been far greater if not for the Great Depression in the 1930s and the intervention of

World War Two between 1939 and 1945.

During 1900 to 1945, immigrants from non-English-speaking backgrounds were

expected to learn English and adapt to the white, dominant Australian way of life

(BIMPR, 1994). This however, did not augur well for the Indigenous population. They

were regarded by the general population as a dying race to be found mainly around the missions and reserves and worked primarily for the cattle industry (Jupp, 1991). There were certain industries that were unable to find skilled labour and special dispensation was given to those industries to employ such people. For example the pearling industry in the northwest of Western Australia was unable to find people skilled in pearl diving so Asian and Pacific people were allowed to be employed as this was vital to the pearling industry.

Other non-British groups such as the Yugoslavs were involved in mining, the Italians in the sugar industry, the Greeks and Chinese in the food industry and Jews in retailing and clothing. As a consequence, the social climate at this time presumed migrants were assimilating, however, they were constantly subjected to racist attacks in favourite magazines such as Smith's Weekly and the Bulletin (Jupp, 1991). During this time Australian policy-makers reflected the views of the dominant population as many of the public servants and politicians were locally born Australians and not immigrants from the United Kingdom (Jupp, 1984). These discriminatory policies towards minority groups represented the viewpoint of the dominant, white Anglo-Celtic background of the Australian population (Ramondo, 1991).

Immigration to Australia since 1945

Prior to the beginning of the Second World War in 1939, Australia was a nation of seven million people. During the years 1939 to 1945, Australia had been threatened by Japan, who did not enter the war until 1941, and had also reached and dominated Southeast Asia and New Guinea effectively excluding Britain, Holland and France from the area (BIMPR, 1994). As Jupp (1991) suggested, neither Britain nor America was able to prevent this from occurring. Also since Australia had suffered decreased

immigration since the 1900s, it still had a relatively small population and low birth rate,

and was regarded as being in a vulnerable situation. Consequently there was growing

support for Australia to embark on a policy of increased migration. It was argued that

firstly, as there was the perception that an increased population would better be able to

defend the country if needed; and secondly, immigration was needed to increase

economic development which through a manufacturing source would help raise living

standards, provide additional employment for workers and reduce the importance of

primary exports (BIMPR, 1994). After World War Two, Australia initiated a large-

scale immigration program to help build the required work force (Jayasuriya, 1997).

The new immigration policy was developed by the Curtin and Chifley

governments and instituted by Arthur Calwell, as the Minister for Immigration. There

were two basic premises to the new policy: that the annual intake of migrants was not to

exceed 1% of the population and preference was to be given to encourage British

migrants (Appleyard, 1988). In 1947, arrangements for free and assisted schemes for

immigrants were made with the British government and more than 23,000 people

arrived in Australia (BIMPR, 1994). Under the United Kingdom Assisted Passage

scheme, migrants could come to Australia for ten pounds each, with children receiving

free fare. At the beginning of the scheme, tradespeople were encouraged to migrate but

by 1957, there was a campaign to recruit as many Britons as possible (Jupp, 1991). The

number of people from the United Kingdom increased by 460,000 between 1947 and

1971. Jupp indicated that by 1965 more than 80% of the British migrants were arriving

under a settlement scheme. The government encouraged families to migrate and many

people were either in professional, administrative or clerical positions. Migrants came

mainly from London, Manchester and Glasgow and could enter Australia under different

categories such as Commonwealth nominees, as personal nominees, as industrial

recruits, as Bring out a Briton nominee, as relatives of settlers, or as 'nest egg' settlers who had enough money for a housing deposit (Jupp, 1992).

By 1973, the then Minister for Immigration, Al Grassby had initiated an immigration policy no longer based on short term labour demands, but gave priority to the reunion of family members while simultaneously assessing the qualities and employment potential of the prospective applicants. Finally in 1973, the White Australia policy was discarded and there was a move towards an immigration policy of non-discrimination on the basis of race, colour and nationality and ethnic groups were encouraged to sponsor their families (Shergold, 1984). The Government therefore officially relinquished the policy that migrants to Australia would be discriminated against on the basis of race, colour or nationality. The ethnic composition of the migrant intake did not change immediately and although British migrants were still the largest group coming to Australia, the family reunion category helped to encourage non-European migrants to settle in Australia (Shergold). People of different ethnic groups, who had already settled in Australia, were now able to sponsor family members to migrate.

Although the White Australia Policy had been discarded, the government did not actively canvas migrants from Asian or other non-European countries. However, the assisted passage program could now be applied to all races. A points system was introduced whereby the application of the migrant was quantified and through this tried to eradicate the race based migrant selection. However, the ability to speak English gained extra points but no points were awarded for colour or birthplace (Shergold, 1984). Even with changes in government, there was never a return to the discriminatory selection procedures of migrants. The continued increase of British migration, which had characterised settlement in Australia, was not sustained (see Table 2.1). As such,

between 1975 and 1981, only 166,786 migrants were received and this number started to

decline. This was mainly due to the cut in immigration by the Whitlam government,

which began in 1973, and the withdrawal of assisted passages in 1982 by the Fraser

government. However, British migrants still continued to be the largest immigrant

group coming to Australia.

Table 2.1

Comparison as a percentage between the United Kingdom born and Total Australian

born Population of Australia

Census Year	Total Australian Population	U.K.-Born	U.K.-Born as % of Total Australian Population
1861	1145600	630107	54.7
1871	1647800	673517	40.5
1881	2231500	689642	30.6
1891	3151400	826419	26.0
1901	3774000	679159	18.0
1911	4425100	591729	13.3
1921	5411300	674471	12.4
1933	6629839	713422	10.8
1947	7579358	541961	7.2
1954	8986530	635035	7.1
1961	10508186	718345	6.8
1966	11599000	870548	7.5
1971	12755600	1046356	8.2
1976	13548500	1070232	7.9
1981	14926800	1086625	7.5
1986	15788300	1083150	6.9
1991	16852258	1107119	6.6
1996	17892423	1415419	7.9

At times, the British settlers were not able to meet the needs of Australia, and

therefore immigrants from Italy, Greece and Yugoslavia had to be recruited. Together

with the refugees arriving from Europe after the war, the number of non-English

speaking European migrants increased from 3% in 1947 to 20% in 1981 (Jayasuriya,

1997). Due to the number of refugees in Europe after the Second World War, Arthur

Calwell, the Minister for Immigration, signed an agreement in 1949 with the

International Refugee Organisation to accept refugees who had been refused repatriation

to their countries of birth. With the help of the International Refugee Organisation,

Australia accepted 75,000 displaced persons from Europe, and by 1952 more than

180,000 refugees from Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Hungary, Ukraine,

Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia arrived in Australia. Agreements were also made with

the governments of Malta, the Netherlands, Italy, Greece and Austria, among others, for

different immigration assistance for refugees and free settlers from these countries. A

high rate of immigration was maintained during the 1950s and 1960s and the number of

countries from which migrants were accepted continued to expand and by 1971 Italians

and Greeks were the largest non-British groups in Australia. Between 1947 and 1972,

Australia's population increased to 13 million (Kunz, 1988).

At the beginning of the 1980s, the new Liberal Government increased the

migration intake and by 1981-1982 there were 120,000 arrivals. By now there was

general acceptance of a non-discriminatory immigration policy that laws should be

applied similarly to all potential migrants regardless of race, colour, nationality, descent,

national or ethnic origin or gender (Shergold, 1984). This coincided with the social

changes of the 1970s and the acceptance of multiculturalism by the 1980s. Stewart

West became Minister for Immigration in 1983 and significantly reduced immigration

on the basis that there was no longer any shortage of labour that could not be filled by

resident Australians. This reduction of numbers affected the entry of skilled migrants

and businessmen, but the intake of refugees remained stable at 17,000, while the family

reunion was expanded slightly (Shergold).

Since the reversal of the White Australia Policy, Australia has increased

immigration from Asian countries with the largest groups coming from Vietnam, China,

Hong Kong, Philippines, Malaysia, India, SriLanka and Hong Kong. Also the number

of migrants from the Middle East, the Pacific Rim and South America has also

increased (BIMPR, 1994). Because of the growth in the number of migrants entering

Australia from non-English-speaking backgrounds, the 1980s are significant for non-

white immigration to Australia. Consequently, since 1947 more than 5 million people

from over 100 countries have immigrated to Australia (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2

Summary of Migration Policies from 1788 to the present

1788-1900	New South Wales colonised as a British penal settlement
1788-1867	English convict transportation
1840-1890	Free unrestricted migration
	Assisted passage for settlers e.g., loans, employer sponsorship
1890-1910	Assisted passage withdrawn in South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania
	Assisted passage available to New South Wales and Queensland
1901	Establishment of Federation
	Commonwealth Immigration Restriction Act excluded all non-Europeans from migrating to Australia
	Pacific Islanders Labourers Act restricted entry to Australia
	Naturalisation Act prevented non-Europeans from becoming citizens of Australia
	Uncontrolled power given to immigration officers
	Implementation of the Natal Formula
1890-1945	Restrictions on migration
	Free unrestricted British migration
	Restricted non-British migration
1947-1971	Preference to British migrants
	Implementation of the United Kingdom Assisted Passage Scheme (Ten pound migrants)
1973	White Australia Policy abandoned
	Immigration policy of non-discrimination
	Priority given to reunion of family members
	Assisted passage program applied to all races
1975-1981	Decrease in British migration
	Immigration numbers cut by Whitlam government
1981-1982	Increase in migration intake by the Fraser government
1982	Withdrawal of assisted passage scheme by the Fraser government
1983	Reduction in migration
1984-1997	Multicultural policy
1990s	Assessment of migrants on the basis of Family Migration, Skill Migration. Refugees, Humanitarian and Special Assistance and Special Eligibility

Table 2.3

Composition of Australian population by Birth Country

Number of persons per selected year

Country of birth	1921	1933	1947	1961	1966	1984	1993	1996
United Kingdom	676387	713422	541961	755402	908664	1189400	1224200	1124031
Danish	1216	1279	482	Unknown	Unknown	4900	9300	Unknown
French	2088	1647	1321	Unknown	Unknown	15000	15300	Unknown
Germany	3555	3672	2361	109315	108709	120800	119300	110331
Greece	2817	5652	4504	77333	140089	150000	145900	126520
Italy	4903	17658	7172	228296	267325	278500	266900	238246
Japanese	2639	2084	78	Unknown	Unknown	9000	22500	Unknown
Netherlands	1617	915	2001	102083	99549	102000	99000	87898
New Zealand	38611	Unknown	Unknown	47011	52485	189000	284500	291388
Norwegian	1025	1238	745	Unknown	Unknown	4900	9300	Unknown
Poland	500	1757	1560	60049	61641	70400	68600	65113
Russia	2317	2055	543	Unknown	Unknown	49500	46500	Unknown
Swedish	1479	1370	595	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
Yugoslavia	609	2826	2096	Unknown	Unknown	157700	172100	Unknown
Chinese	13799	7792	4858	Unknown	Unknown	31700	91500	111009
USA	3257	2557	3351	Unknown	Unknown	36700	53100	49528

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1997. Missing data designated as unknown.

Immigration policy: From the White Australia Policy to Multiculturalism

Australia still remains one of the most migrant populated countries in the world, where more than 20% of the population were born overseas and more than 40% have at least one parent who was born overseas (Shergold, 1984). The levels of immigration have declined both in relative and absolute numbers since the 1960's (see Table 2.3). For example, between 1966/67 to 1971/72 the net gain in settlement was 131,000 whereas in the years between 1972/73 to 1982/83 it was 71,500. The current policy on immigration favours careful selection of migrants with little expenditure on advertising and assistance schemes (Kabala, 1993). Potential migrants are all assessed according to the same criteria regardless of ethnic origin. There are five main categories under which immigrants can be admitted to Australia. These are Family Migration, Skill Migration, Refugees, Humanitarian and Special Assistance and Special Eligibility. The only anomaly to this policy relates to New Zealanders, who are permitted to work and settle in Australia without having to apply for a visa (Shergold).

Current immigration policy favours social and humanitarian principles rather than purely economic criteria (Kabala, 1993). As a result of these changes, the number of migrants from Asia and the Middle East has risen. Therefore, as indicated by the ethnic composition of the population and the number of British migrants arriving in Australia, British dominance is declining (Kabala). In the 1960's, British migrants represented over half the number of migrants coming to Australia, but by the 1990's the proportion was as low as 18%. The United Kingdom still remains the largest single country from which migrants arrive (Department of Immigration and Multicultural

Affairs, 1997). In Australia, by the 1990's the number of people born in the United

Kingdom was at its highest level at 1,107,119.

The United Kingdom migrants have been well represented in both Western

Australia and South Australia which are regarded as being more preferential for

settlement than the Eastern states. In Western Australia there were twice as many

English born persons (17.2%) as compared to the national proportion (8.7%), whereas in

South Australia there were 14% as compared to 8.7% (BIMPR, 1994).

The population of Australia in 1997 was 18,289,100 (see Table 2.3). The

number of migrants varies considerably from year to year, and has reached a high of

185,000 in 1969/70 to a low of 52,700 in 1975/76. Within the last decade, the high of

145,300 in 1988/89 was succeeded by a reduced migrant intake in 1993/94 of 69,800.

The number of settler arrivals increased from 87,400 in 1994/95 to 99,100 in 1995/96

with these increases mainly due to the family component of the Migration Policy.

Immigrants from the United Kingdom in 1997 comprised 11% of total settler arrivals.

The number and proportion of United Kingdom and Ireland born migrants declined

slightly from 7.5% in 1985 to 6.7% of the total population in 1996. Since 1965, the

United Kingdom headed the top ten list of source countries of settlers to Australia while

continually being the major source country for immigrants (see Table 2.4). Only once in

1995/96 did immigrants from New Zealand (12,265 or 12.4%) exceed those from the

United Kingdom (11,268 or 11.4%) (Department of Immigration and Multicultural

Affairs, 1997).

Multiculturalism

Historically, Australian immigration policy was characterised by a preference for

British and European migrants which continued well into this century. Prior to the

1960's, the British were able to enter Australia without a visa or entering any selection

process until the introduction of the Commonwealth Immigrants Acts of 1962 and 1968.

The discriminatory policies were consistent with previous migration policies to ensure

that Australia remained essentially white and British (Jupp, 1991). By the end of the

1960's, due to changes and restrictions in British immigration policy, Australia reacted

with changes to alter its own immigration policy. This new policy began with the

abolition of the White Australia Policy in 1973 (Hawkins, 1989). The entry of only

British and European migrants and barriers to non-white migrants were replaced by a

non-discriminatory policy whereby migrants were accepted regardless of their race,

colour or nationality. From a nation composed mainly of British migrants in 1945, the

effect of non-British migration on the composition of the Australian population from

1973 was now noticeable (Wooden, Holton, Hugo & Sloan, 1994).

One of the interesting outcomes of large-scale immigration, which occurred in

the 1960's, was a recognition that forcing migrants to assimilate into the dominant white

society may not be as beneficial as previously thought this worked adversely for society

(Jayasuriya, 1997). Modification of this policy became known as integration and was

introduced before multiculturalism. The term integration meant the recognition of the

social and cultural diversity of different ethnic groups but the ethnic groups also

accepted the culture of the dominant white group. It was assumed that within a

generation, these migrants would become integrated into the dominant society

(Jayasuriya).

The term multiculturalism has been acquired from Canada and refers to cultural

pluralism and ethnic diversity which has developed over the past two decades

(Jayasuriya, 1997). The term multiculturalism signifies that different cultures can live

harmoniously and peacefully side by side (Zubryzcki, 1982) provided that this is

accepted by society and enshrined in both the political and legal system (Jayasuriya, 1984). From the outset, multiculturalism was seen by most members of society as having some positive value and not a threat to Australian society (Shergold, 1984). This meant that migrants and their descendants belonging to different ethnic groups were encouraged to maintain their traditions, customs, culture and language that reflected their heritage (BIMPR, 1996). Integration was encouraged but it was no longer assumed that these migrants would automatically surrender their culture and adopt the white Anglo-Saxon dominant culture (Shergold). This resulted in greater tolerance by Australian society of non-European migrants and the mental as well as bureaucratic restrictions were slowly disappearing. Multiculturalism embodies the beneficial aspects of equality of respect, tolerance and understanding of different ethnic groups.

However, in the 1980's with a change in the economic and political conditions in Australia, the theory and practice of multiculturalism became widely debated through such forms as the Blainey debate in 1984 and racist immigration issues concerning prejudice, racism, injustice and fanatical nationalism were canvassed (Sawer, 1985). Yet, in spite of a debate against non-discriminatory policies and other related issues, the recent immigration experience has shown a decided move away from the discriminatory policies of the past towards a commitment of non-discrimination and multiculturalism. These historical and contemporary events have provided the context for Australian immigration policy choices in the 1990s (Birrell, 1992).

Summary

There have been four main features of Australian immigration policy (Webber, 1992). First, immigration policy has concentrated on achieving permanent settlers in Australia. Second, people from English speaking backgrounds and countries have been

the dominant force in immigration to Australia. Third, although immigration has been

continuous, there have been periods of high and low immigration although the largest

numbers have always been from English-speaking countries. Fourth, the different

countries of birth of the immigrants have resulted in distinct settler categories such as

the skilled migrants.

Australia's population growth has depended significantly on international

migration over the past 200 years. The period between 1890 and 1947 saw a decrease in

immigration due to periods of severe economic depression and two world wars. Over

five million migrants have settled in Australia since the end of the Second World War,

which represents the second highest intake per capita after Israel (Newton & Bell,

1996). Migration has been characterised by distinct patterns of migration and

historically migrants from the United Kingdom have been the dominant group. There

has been a shift in the composition of migrants to Australia especially in the last ten

years. Notwithstanding this fundamental change, migrants from the United Kingdom

still represent the largest English-speaking group settling in Australia. It is for this

reason that migrants from the United Kingdom were chosen as the participant group for

this thesis.

Table 2.4
Top ten source countries of settler arrivals

	Number of persons per selected period							
Country of birth	1965/66		1975/76		1985/86		1995/96	
United Kingdom	74749	United Kingdom	16687	United Kingdom	14709	New Zealand	12265
Greece	15153	New Zealand	2921	New Zealand	13284	United Kingdom	11268
Italy	11420	Cyprus	2855	Vietnam	7168	China	11247
Yugoslavia	8081	Chile	1905	Philippines	4128	Hong Kong	4361
Malta	4298	Yugoslavia	1804	China	3138	India	3700
Germany	3751	Lebanon	1519	South Africa	3132	Vietnam	3567
USA	2326	Greece	1489	Hong Kong	3118	Bosnia-Herzegovina	3405
New Zealand	2200	USA	1432	Lebanon	2757	Philippines	3232
Netherlands	2146	Italy	1365	Malaysia	2284	South Africa	3190
Lebanon	1625	Malaysia	1201	India	2135	Iraq	2617

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1998.

CHAPTER 3

Trends in International Migration Theory

Aims of the Chapter

This chapter examines how people make the decision to move and determine the selection of their destination. It examines migration as a worldwide phenomenon and suggests that mobility is a characteristic of modern society. Various definitions of migration are examined including that of Lee (1966) which is used as the operational definition for this thesis. He defined migration as a permanent change of residence, whereby every act of migration involves an origin, a destination, and an intervening set of obstacles which always includes the distance of the move.

Different approaches to the study of migration are examined. These include economic factors where migration is regarded as an investment in human capital; sociological factors, psychological-motivational issues such as satisfaction; proposed mathematical models which have been used to explain migration; a value expectancy model; and push-pull factors.

The chapter also considers the migration decision process literature. It emphasises that the most common methodology is to make deductions from census data and immigration statistics.

An Overview

Migration is by no means a new phenomenon, but renewed interest in this subject by both the media and the community has caused an influx in the attention it is receiving. Estimates submitted by the United Nations Population Division based upon census data from the 1980s suggested that there are in excess of 100 million people no longer living in their country of birth or citizenship (Russell, 1998). Reasons for this movement include that people migrate due to different locational needs and preferences of individuals, households, firms and governments (Newton & Bell, 1996). To determine the reasons for population movements and their theoretical basis, is of concern in the migration area. Consequently, as a result of population growth, demographers, sociologists, city planners and politicians have all examined the results of international and internal population distribution. The overall finding is that although international migrants represent a small percentage of the world's population, the result of this migration can be important relative to the numbers who move (Russell).

The future consequences of current immigration trends is intrinsically tied because of its impact on the nation, the individual States and Territories, government sectors, local communities, employment opportunities, and the environment (Newton & Bell, 1996). Policy development and an adequate provision of services are both of concern, which can be addressed by both the private and public sector to make more informed decisions.

The Interest in Migration

The potential for international migration is increasing, but would be qualitatively and quantitatively different if countries allowed individuals the freedom to choose whether they wanted to remain in the country, to leave or return and permitted entry to all those people who desired to migrate to that country (Tabbarah, 1984). "As long as a discrepancy exists between the economic levels of nations it is difficult to stop the flow of migration movements" (Conde, 1982, p.66). He further suggested that migration for non-economic motives ranging from political instability to personal preferences should also be considered. Although Tabbarah supported the view that the potential for international migration is great, he commented that it was dependent on continually changing government laws regulating both emigration and immigration. Consequential restrictive governmental policies potentially were stifling to migration (Tabbarah).

It is difficult to definitively characterise international migrants. They include people who have moved through choice and may range from unskilled labourers to skilled professionals. They may also include those who moved involuntarily such as refugees, asylum seekers or those who moved for environmental reasons. Poverty or lack of employment in their home country may also contribute to people migrating (Russell, 1998). The constant movement of individuals voluntarily or involuntarily has led to a large amount of statistical data based on political, economic and social research, as well as literature on migration available from both governmental and non-governmental agencies which indicates how importantly migration is viewed (Kubat & Hoffman-Nowotny, 1981). The upsurge in migration analysis is partly due to the visibility of migrants within administrative, socioeconomic or cultural areas. As

suggested by Kubat & Hoffman-Nowotny, this awareness of migrants allows

government agencies to determine whether resources are being optimally used and

whether the distribution of the migrant population is being optimally maintained.

Further intervention may be required to achieve the desired population redistribution

and this may occur at different levels, for example, local, regional or international.

Migration is also one of the main factors in population redistribution and plays a

vital role in the phenomenon of increased urbanisation in many countries of the world.

This is important, as the movement of people is not always in accordance with the

economic conditions in a country. Many developed countries, such as Australia, restrict

their migrant intake. Migration may also play a role in influencing the balance between

the population and available resources with implications for the natural environment

(Fawcett, 1986). As well, the increase in the rate of migration worldwide may also be

used to study the biological differences among different human populations (Hertz,

1993). Not surprisingly, demographers and government policy makers have turned their

attention to the issue of migration to help them in determining future policy (Glick,

1993).

Due to the complexity of migration decision-making processes, various

explanations and theoretical bases are available for analysis (Carlisle-Frank, 1992).

Questions that characterise interest in the area focus on the voluntary two level process

which includes the decision to move and where to move. Both of these may be

influenced by different factors. As part of the migration decision-making process,

people need to make a decision as to whether they will migrate and to what place they

will go. Although the migrant makes both these decisions, they may occur in any order.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the various factors linked to

decision-making process of migration as proposed by the literature.

Definition of Migration

The term migration has been used differentially in various studies suggesting it is conceptually ambiguous. Consequently, there has not been one accepted definition of migration by researchers in the area. As early as 1947, Isaac (cited in Kaul, 1983, p.133) defined migration as the "movement of free individuals with the intention of effecting a lasting change in residence". This definition though did not take into account whether the migration was internal or international. Other researchers such as Bach and Smith (1977), defined migration "as a change of residence across a county border" and used the term residential mobility "as a change of household within a county" (p.147). Both the previous definitions assume that all migration is voluntary and ignores the plight of refugees forced to migrate involuntarily. This is also evident in a definition by Ramey and Cloud (1987) who used the term migration as synonymous with relocation which they refer to "as a change of residence from one geographic location to another" (p. 151). Again this ignores the difference between internal and international migration and treats them both as the same process (De Jong, Root, Gardner, Fawcett & Abad, 1986).

There are various other definitions that regard migration generally while ignoring specific details of the process. These include Brunn (1977, p.6) who regarded migration "as a social process that involves the movement of people to new locations"; Bailey (1993, p.319) suggested a "migration event occurs when an individual terminates a residential sojourn in one labour market and moves to another labour market"; Hertz (1993, p.205) proposed that migration is "the more or less permanent movement of persons or groups over a significant distance" whereas Boekestijn (1988, p.83) referred to "people who voluntarily leave their country of origin and plan to settle in a new

country with a more or less different culture". By examining the above definitions, it is

evident that defining migration is a complex issue. Lee (1966) did however, identify

permanency of the migration move as well as acknowledging the difference between a

move which involves a change of residence in the same town or country and moving to

another country when he defined migration as a permanent change of residence. He

concluded that "every act of migration involves an origin, a destination, and an

intervening set of obstacles. Among the set of intervening obstacles, we include the

distance of the move as one that is always present".(p. 49) This operational definition of

migration is adopted for the present study.

Approaches to the Study of Migration

There is a considerable body of literature that examines the methodological and

theoretical constructs in migration which attempts to provide explanations of migration

(Kubat & Hoffman-Nowotny, 1981). Much of this literature on migration originates

from different social science disciplines, particularly within the domain of demographic

or population-related sociological publications. However, given that migration has been

studied from a multidisciplinary perspective by scholars such as geographers,

economists, and historians, research in the area offers varying analytical and empirical

data (Greenwood, Mueser, Plane & Schlottmann, 1991). But most of the research in

migration has not drawn upon the psychological literature except for some interest in

adjustment of migrants (Rogler, 1994) and migration intention and behaviour by

researchers such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980).

'The Laws of Migration' presented in 1885 and 1889 by Ravenstein have served

as the initial point for work in migration theory (Lee, 1966). Ravenstein suggested that

as the distance between places increases the likelihood of people migrating to those

places decline; if people migrate long distances it is more likely that they would go to

major urban centres; people may not migrate directly to large centres but may do so in

stages and move from the farm to the village to the town and then the city; and finally,

he suggested that if migrants were moving into one specific area then there was the

likelihood that there would be people moving out of that area (Helweg, 1987). Lee

(1966) further suggested that there has been little theoretical development in the decades

since Ravenstein's work was published, eventhough much literature has been published

on migration. Lee's investigation of Ravenstein's premises of migration concluded that

migration was dependent on the amenities of an area; the range of occupations, skills,

race and ethnicity in an area as well as the range in economy, technology and

development of the region. He also suggested that migrants from a particular place

usually migrate to a limited number of destinations to which other migrants have already

migrated.

In contrast, Harbison (1981) proposed that there has been a shift of emphasis in

model development because the processes of migration requires people to make

decisions as to whether they should move, when they should move and to which place

they should move. Migration research needs to address the question as to why some

people stay in their land of origin and others leave. These migrants are different from

the refugees who move from their countries of origin involuntarily.

There have been a number of structural frameworks proposed to conceptualise

this migratory process. An historical approach (Liaw & Kanaroglou, 1986) was

suggested by Zelinsky (1971) where he proposed that migration was one of the

irreversible processes required for society to advance. For example, an area or country

may have moved through periods of high migration and changed from a mainly rural to

an urban area, before becoming a more modernised society. This may have been aided

by industrialisation of the area. Lee (1966) proposed a schematic approach based on the work of Ravenstein (1885). He classified migration factors into four groups: origin factors, destination factors, intervening obstacles and personal factors. Other researchers such as Lowry (1966) used this model to indicate that the economic variables at the original place of residence were not as important as the economic variables at the place of destination. The difference in these two variables has been investigated in other studies (Flynn, 1980; Winchie & Carment, 1988). An examination of these studies has suggested that if only economic factors were responsible for migration, then these economic theories would predict large flows in the population, which have not yet occurred. Therefore a more detailed examination of many of these factors is required as origin and destination factors may be different despite their importance (Haberkorn, 1981).

Some approaches have emphasised economic factors (Sjaastad, 1962). These consider migration as a rational decision in human capital investment (Liaw & Kanaroglou, 1986). The main advantage of this approach stresses that the full benefit of migration occurs some time after the migration has occurred and not necessarily immediately afterwards. The belief is that the economic benefits at the place of destination are eventually better than at the place of origin. These economic theories provide a substantial contribution to the literature on migration, which is dominated by labour market considerations and will be discussed later (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1992; Zlotnick, 1992). Part of the economic approach is the view that it is a rational individual who migrates and considers the costs and benefits of the intending move to improve their quality of life (Landale & Guest, 1985). This means that a person will move only when the benefits at the destination are greater than at the place of origin.

Another approach to migration has an underlying behavioural framework. This means that concepts such as changes in life cycle, which may include divorce, marriage, retirement or death of a spouse, may influence the decision to move (Liaw & Kanaroglou, 1986). This implies the existence of sociological factors (Harbison, 1981) and motivational issues (Sell & DeJong, 1978). Speare (1974) developed a model that incorporated the concept of satisfaction. He suggested that the first reason why people consider moving is dissatisfaction with the characteristics of the residential location that includes individual or household characteristics, location characteristics of housing, job and neighbourhood, and social interactions. It is suggested that this model be primarily used with a change of residence which occurs within the same community and not when referring to international migration (Ritchey, 1976).

An alternative method to explain migration has been the development of mathematical models (Judson, 1990) where symbols and mathematical formulae are used to explain migration. For example, the following formula was proposed by Fields (1979) to represent migration:

$$M_{ij} = f(E_i, E_j, C_{ij}), f_1 < 0, f_2 > 0, f_3 < 0$$

In this representation, i represents the place of origin, j the place of destination. M_{ij} is the rate of migration between places i and j, C_{ij} is the cost of moving between i and j and E represents the economic attractiveness of the different places.

These mathematical models do provide a way of modeling migration behaviour and have some explanatory power to explain migration. However, the idea that migration should be explained in pure mathematical terms has been opposed by researchers such as Kubat & Hoffmann-Nowotny (1981). They suggested that explanations of migration should be sought in a social context whereby individual decisions to migrate and the impact of migration on communities should not be ignored.

Another general explanation of migration was provided by DeJong and Fawcett (1981) who purported to explain migration through a "value-expectancy" model. They asserted that the prospect of accomplishing certain goals, such as moving to be near family or friends by the migrant would encourage the migration process. This is essentially a cognitive model that deals with personality profiles and mainly requires details of highly valued individual goals that may be accomplished through migration. It also encompasses an assessment of the connection between actually moving and migrating to another destination and the likelihood of accomplishing those goals. In essence, it views migration as an underlying desire of individuals or families to improve their quality of life.

A related approach in characterising movement from one country to another has been through "push" or "pull" factors (Glick, 1993). Different reasons such as overpopulation or crowding in an area has pushed people away from those areas whereas better economic opportunities has pulled people into those countries where the economic reality appears to be more promising (Yaukey, 1985). More recently, Luthke and Cropley (1990) suggested that migration discussions have been limited to a rational choice perspective which asserted the premise that migrants move to improve their living conditions, earn more money, greater political or religious freedom or better prospects for their children. The authors suggested that although this rational choice model may be of some value in examining migration, but it is restricted when examining the decision making processes in migrants. This perspective may apply to refugees but does not apply to emigrants moving from one affluent country to another. The model also cannot explain why migration is selective and that only a few people who are exposed to unfavourable conditions actually migrate (Lee, 1969). It is merely an attempt by researchers to explore the decision-making processes of migrants.

Research of the Migration Decision Process

After making the decision to migrate, Gustavus and Brown (1977) suggested a two stage process. Firstly, the migration process involves identifying a set of alternative destinations. Secondly, a destination is chosen. The authors did not propose these stages of migration as a model but rather as a description of their importance in the context of migration decision making. Furthermore, the literature does not readily distinguish between internal and international migration. Rather results from both types of studies are used for describing migration in general. Consequently migration is used as an overriding concept whereby there may be a difference in a person moving from one city to another (internal migration) and a person moving from one continent or country to another (international migration).

There has also been a paucity of original empirical studies, in which the traditional demographic methodology involved making inferences, because large numbers of people migrated to a specific area. For example, referring to the issue of weather, it is inferred that people preferred a warmer climate because of a large number who migrated to the Sunbelt states of the United States of America. The most common methodology for studies was to use survey methods or to make deductions from government publications such as census data and immigration statistics. Subject areas in the literature have mainly considered demographic characteristics of migrants, general information and family and social networks (Chen, 1990).

As discussed, there has been much research into migration decision making, most of which has centred on distinguishing the personal reasons why people decide to migrate and what the factors are that influence their decision. In addition research by social scientists has concentrated on the characteristics of places to which people

migrate rather than on economic or employment related issues (Pampel, Levin, Louviere, Meyer & Rushton, 1984). They suggested that factors such as climate, recreation and family ties are important. Lansing and Mueller (1967) in their survey found that migrants generally considered seriously only one destination place. They commented that with international migration, destination selection may depend on the existence of relatives and friends as well as previous experience through vacations with a particular place. Williams and Sofranko (1979) supported their findings and suggested that such networks may be the most significant factor in selecting a destination place.

Furthermore, there is an intimate connection between the decision to move and the destination selection decision (Roseman, 1983). As stated previously little empirical evidence is available to identify the distinction (Roseman & Williams, 1980).

The explanations of migration reviewed in the following sections are separated into two main divisions. The first section examines studies that illustrate the role of economic issues in migration, while the second section incorporates studies with a non-economic perspective. These include social and demographic studies and studies of place attributes of selected destinations. Both divisions cite examples using internal and international migration to offer a broader range of the available literature. The primary focus of reviewing this literature is to isolate reasons proposed as explanations for migration and to assess their empirical support.

An Economic Perspective of Migration

One of the most common reasons given for migration are economic factors (Ziegler, 1980). Prospective migrants are said to be able to calculate economic benefits of moving and consequently only migrate if they can achieve maximum economic

advantage (Shaw, 1974). This cost-benefit migration model is though only concerned with those migrants who are part of the labour force where labour issues remain the most important reason for migration. Other reasons such as differences in wages are also offered. An empirical evaluation of the economic model by Shaw involved a survey of farm households in a low-income farming district in Saskatchewan. A survey method was used where respondents were asked to detail the costs and returns of moving to another area in monetary terms. The participants included people who intended to migrate as well as those who had already moved. The results did not support the cost-benefit migration model, as most of the participants who intended to move did not perceive mobility in terms of costs and returns. The results of this study may be due to the specific group of participants sampled, but the weighting of other alternative reasons needed to be considered (Haberkorn, 1981).

The movement of individuals in Brazil was explained by using the choice model based upon human capital theory that has been applied to migration analysis in developing countries (Wagner & Ward, 1980). They used a migration model that assumed that workers anticipate and weigh up the advantages of migration as opposed to remaining at their present location. They suggested that these choice models do not reasonably explain which factors play a decisive role in defining the range of choices available to the potential migrant. Through a historical description of the growth and industrialisation of Brazil, Wagner and Ward suggested that it was the structural change in the Brazilian economy which caused migration to the cities and it is these changes which will need to curb the population redistribution. In Brazil, moving to the cities was disastrous for most people due to a lack of knowledge of what awaited them. There was a lack of research information and too high expectations by the migrant. They concluded that the choice model was of little value in the analysis of these issues and

that other issues needed to be investigated such as the amount and type of information the potential migrants receive, employment opportunities at the destination place and the level of skill of the migrants.

Migration has also been regarded as an indication of how labor markets function. Where jobs are plentiful, there is a higher rate of migrants into a specific area as opposed to areas with high unemployment or fluctuations in opportunities for migrants, migration tends to be lower (Bailey, 1993). Concentrating mainly on youth who migrate, by obtaining longitudinal data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (1982), over 10,000 young adults were asked to document the time spent at each place of residence as well as other life-cycle events and characteristics. Bailey suggested that these participants were making their first independent migration decisions and therefore it was possible to capture the true reasons for their decisions.

The human capital theory considers migration as an investment in the future earning capacity of the person, and the need for jobs will necessarily extend the geographical search for the appropriate place for migration. Importantly when individuals make their first migration decision they do so in the absence of any relevant prior experience. It appears they consider the costs and benefits of the proposed decision and factor in information such as earning potential and employment prospects. Bailey showed a positive relationship between high migration levels and employment opportunities whereby the higher the education there is an increased likelihood of migration. Furthermore, the author exerted that the higher the unemployment rates in a region the more migration to that region is discouraged. In conclusion, it appears that there may be additional lines of research which need to examine education not only for the type of education (e.g., college educated) but also for the different skills which the migrants may possess given that this may make some people more likely to migrate than

others. These findings also relate to a specific age group of young adults and needs to be extended to include other population and age groups.

Research by Cushing (1992) suggested that social welfare programs and publicly supported employment training programs may increase the migration rates of people if they are given information regarding the programs and are told of the potential in increased earnings if they migrated. Data for this research was obtained from the 1920 Census of Population and Housing which provided detailed characteristics of individuals. The results indicated that personal characteristics, age and educational factors were important factors for migration. People were attracted to areas of increased employment opportunities, adequate residential housing, low crime rate and sunny climate. The role of place characteristics was significant, but it was suggested that this needs further study (Cushing).

The migratory economic literature predicts that migrants choose a particular destination place mainly for economic reasons. However, there are studies that consider an aggregation of reasons for migrating and choosing a particular destination place. These may include both economic and non-economic factors (Borjas, 1985, 1987, 1988; Bartel, 1989; Bartel & Koch, 1991). As an example of international migration, using data from the 1980 United States Census of Population, Funkhouser and Ramos (1993) considered Dominican and Cuban immigrants going to the United States and Puerto Rico. They observed that although economic gain and potential earnings were very important in selecting a destination place, these migrants also considered cultural networks in their choice. There was often a trade-off between earnings and culture and that they preferred a country where there were enclaves of similar culture to that in the source country even though wages were initially lower. A criticism of this approach

though, is that the basic inquiry of economic factors in the location decision may mask

other elements in the migration decision.

A further example of the role of economic factors and culture was evaluated by

Kontuly, Smith and Heaton (1995) using a survey-based approach. They found that

economic reasons for selecting Utah as a destination place by non-Mormons were

primary in their migration decision although Mormons were more likely to give cultural

and family reasons as explanations for moving and choosing Utah. The study evaluated

the trade-off between economic and cultural factors in the selection of a destination

place. They suggested that several factors might influence the reason for moving.

Economic reasons including employment, cost of living and schooling were considered

major reasons for moving there. Cultural reasons included needing to be near family

and religion. Political preference was offered, but primarily as secondary reasons for

moving. Other reasons cited included weather, outdoor recreation and health.

The distance of the move also needed to be taken into account (Lee, 1966;

Kontuly, Smith and Heaton, 1995). It appeared that those participants who gave cultural

reasons for moving were more likely to migrate long distances and it was probably the

unique characteristics of Utah, which motivated people to migrate there. It was likely

that these participants were Mormons. This suggested that cultural and family reasons

were more likely to be strong reasons for moving among Mormons than among non-

Mormons. It appeared that non-Mormons move to Utah primarily for economic and

employment opportunities. Gender showed no significant relationship for moving,

which is supported by Shumaker and Stokols (1982). The implication for this study in

understanding migration patterns is that even in an area which has a unique religious

heritage, economic and employment opportunities may predominate as reasons for some

moving. Kontuly, Smith and Heaton concluded that even though cultural preferences were significant, they tended to be secondary to earning a living.

The idea that migration might also occur through an aggregate of economic reasons and comparatively better conditions at the selected destination (such as climate) is illustrated in the following two examples. Sell (1983) considered migration decision-making using census data from the U.S. Annual Housing Survey (AHS) which is conducted by the Census Bureau. The survey questioned the main reason for moving by heads of the household. Migrants indicated their prime reasons for moving were for a change in climate or job related reasons. The results from this type of study, although interesting, should be regarded with caution because of the way that the data were obtained. There was also no facility to further confirm the responses of the participants to this type of survey. Similarly, Long and Hansen (1980) used data from the U.S. Annual Housing Surveys which asked participants why they moved and listed 30 predetermined potential reasons. As a reason for moving, job transfers, the taking of a new job or looking for work, ranked as the most important reasons. Other significant factors influenced the migration decision included moving closer to relatives and wanting a change of climate.

Linked closely to the economic model for migration is the idea that not only regional forces influence economic returns of migration, but they are also affected by marriage relations (Morrison & Lichter, 1988). Economic models suggested that people move to improve their economic prospects (Shihadeh, 1991) whereas Blood and Wolfe (1960) and Sell (1983) proposed that in a marriage, the balance of power is held by the partner with the largest resources which are commodities that can meet the needs and goals of the other partner. If micro-economic theory is adopted, migration may be seen as an investment that produces results.

Exploring this concept further, Shihadeh (1991) suggested that wives will be part of that human investment capital. Long distance migration may have little or no effect on the employment of the husband because the destination is chosen on the basis of the husband's employment. However, the employment returns for the wives will not be negligible. This research used data that was obtained from the 1987 Alberta Bureau of Statistics. Shihadeh found that the human investment capital of the wives was not a significant factor in the move and results suggested that they played a subsidiary role in family migration. He also found that families generally move in response to the economic considerations pertaining to the husband and not the wife. These results were similar to those obtained by Markham (1986) and Shaklee (1989) who suggested that migration was husband-centred mainly for job related or economic reasons. However, Morrison & Lichter (1988) suggested that in the cost-benefit analysis all the changes in the earnings of the family need to be considered including that of the wife which will then give an indication of the perceived gains of the intending migration. Shaklee suggested that two career couples usually locate in larger cities where each has the maximum chance to secure appropriate employment. Migration of a two earner couple is likely to be more costly than for a single earner couple. Migration decisions made at an individual level may be different.

In the economic literature on migration, the tendency is to classify migrants as moving for mainly economic reasons as opposed to non-economic reasons. Roseman (1983) suggested that this may be an oversimplification as it is possible that many of the individual migrant decisions may be based on a combination of contributing factors which may include employment, family, friends and environmental factors. The investment approach assumes that an individual make a cost-benefit calculation whereby the migrant weighs up any future potential income gains or increase due to

migration. This approach then leads to an interest in the characteristics of those

migrating. Age, education, skill, occupational level and any other factors which play a

role in the future earning capacity of the individual needs to be considered in evaluating

the migration decision. The following section examines some of the research that takes

different factors into account.

Studies with a Noneconomic Perspective of Migration

As discussed in the previous section, economic factors have been suggested as a

major reason for migration (Simmons, 1986; Long & Hansen, 1980). However, a

multifaceted approach which included a combination of approaches would provide a

better understanding of the structural framework for the decision to migrate (Harbison,

(1981). A number of studies have started to identify the growing importance of

different determinants of migration such as personal characteristics, socio-economic

status, family ties, social network systems, preferences for climate and quality of life,

recreation and previous place experience. Many of these may either impede or promote

migration (Cuba, 1991). Research has tried to isolate which of these variables play a

role in the decision making process of an individual who decides to migrate to a

particular place (Noe, Steffy and Barber, 1988). It is also worthwhile to determine

whether migrants choose a destination place which is as similar as possible to the place

of origin especially with regard to characteristics such as similar cultural and climatic

conditions or whether these factors are merely determinants of migration (Feldman,

1996). It has also been suggested that migration may also be influenced by personal

preferences especially for the selected place (Pampel, Levin, Louviere, Meyer and

Rushton, 1984). Consequently, it may well be useful to acknowledge not only the

characteristics of the destination place but also those of the place of origin (Greenwood, 1985).

Many of the studies using non-economic determinants of migration lack empirical evidence given that the data was obtained from census information data and conclusions were extrapolated from the aggregate data and not confirmed with any of the participants. Such studies can produce misleading results (Sandefur & Scott, 1981). Many of the studies reported here examined more than one factor simultaneously. These studies have only become possible since the development of databases, for example the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) and the U.S.A. Annual Housing Survey. Although the use of these data sets have been very valuable in looking at the aggregation of factors, the utilisation of average values of personal and other characteristics may have been overlooked as important determinants of an individual's decision to move (Greenwood, 1985).

An attempt to incorporate the characteristics of a place was evident in a theory proposed by Wolpert (1965). He suggested that it was a combination of personal as well as environmental factors that encouraged the movement of the individual. He also suggested that migration and residential mobility was a response to different social and economic conditions. However, it must be noted that he used the terms residential mobility and migration interchangeably. The extent to which this theory may apply to international migration has yet to be shown. The proposal of an aggregate of factors potentially contributing to the migration decision though, needs to be examined and this discussion points towards identifying the contribution of these factors within a general decision making framework of migration.

The model presented by Wolpert (1965) was further developed by Brown and Moore (1970), Speare (1974) and Speare, Goldstein and Frey (1975). Speare reviewed

how individuals chose and evaluated alternative destinations within a specific labor

market. Speare suggested that all voluntary movement used a similar decision making

process. He suggested that dissatisfaction with the present location might initiate a

search by the individual for an alternative place of residence. He also proposed that the

migrant considers information provided by family and friends and their own personal

knowledge in deciding to move and in choosing a destination. Speare did not find a

strong association between education and the decision to move. However, other

researchers (Fredrickson, Heaton, Fuguitt, Zuiches, 1980) suggested that education may

provide the clue to accessing information by the individual prior to selecting a

destination. In the Speare model, the possibility of increased or decreased income did

not have an effect upon the migration decision of the individual. This is in contrast to

the economic models of migration as previously described.

An important preference in making the destination selection may be the

connections people have with a specific place through friends and relatives. These

relationships may be both social and economic (Williams & McMillen, 1983). They

suggested that economically, family and/or friends may provide labor or financial

assistance to the migrants at the destination place. Socially, they may assist the migrant

with information as well as providing a secure social life. An example is provided by

Winchie and Carment (1989) who used survey methods in their research. They found

that in choosing a potential destination, the presence of relatives and friends was cited as

the most important reason for choosing Canada by a group of Indian participants.

DeJong, Root, Gardner, Fawcett and Abad (1986) examined the migration intentions of

people living in an area of the Philippines. They found that family ties, economic

resources and family pressure were the most important factors for international

destination decisions. They suggested that in migration studies it was important to

consider the decision to move and the choice of destination place. An appropriate

framework would be to consider a range of factors to explain destination selection.

There is an emerging interest in the role of family, friends and social networks in

migration as these relationships are highly relevant to migration trends (Massey, 1987).

According to Long and Hansen (1980) one of the main reasons for moving as

determined by the Annual Housing Survey in the U.S.A. was to "move closer to

relatives" (p.77). Seven and a half percent of respondents cited this as the main reason

for moving. This needs to be interpreted with caution as it includes university students

who return to their home town after graduation, divorced or separated persons who

move to be near relatives and elderly persons who want to live closer to their children.

As only household heads were asked about migration and their reasons for moving,

many respondents were possibly overlooked in the survey. Social and family networks

provide a method for information, social and financial assistance to filter through to the

potential migrant thus encouraging the migration decision making process and actual

migration (Choldin, 1973; Hugo, 1981; Lim, 1987; Salt, 1987). These networks

continue to develop over time and connect the migrants with people in the potential

country of origin providing information and assistance which promotes the decision to

migrate. As such, the link between the country of origin and destination place is

established and is self-perpetuating.

In addition to these factors migrants need to be aware of the immigration policies

in the destination country. Policies within countries such as Australia contain

provisions for family reunification which encourages the migration of other family

members (Boyd, 1989). He suggested that there were two approaches in this area which

need to be addressed. Firstly, the extent to which potential migrants are informed and

guided as to the current immigration law. For example, residents of the Ilocas Norte

area in the Philippines indicated that close family relationships between potential migrants and those already in the U.S.A. increase the likelihood of the potential migrant making the decision to migrate. The family acts as sponsors for the potential migrants as family migration is a provision in the immigration law in the U.S.A. (De Jong, Root & Abad, 1986). Secondly, research needs to examine how many migrants use this channel for migration and are influenced by family and friends (Jasso & Rosenzweig, 1987).

Linked to the phenomenon of the influence of family and friends, the study of the cross-cultural movement of individuals from the place of origin to the destination place is of prime concern from a psychological perspective. Because migration groups vary ethnically, their migration decision making processes needs to be studied in the correct cultural context (Rogler, 1994). An overview of five studies carried out in different locations (Kenya, Egypt, Philippines, Thailand and Seattle.) was reported by Simmons (1986). He suggested that the examination of the determinants of migration in different cultural and social contexts might help to understand the migration decisions of people in different settings. The respondents in all the studies were individual adults, both male and female. Again, this overview highlighted the difficulties of studies in migration. The term migration was defined differently in all five studies, which makes it difficult to compare their results with others. For example, migration was defined in the Seattle study as a residential shift within the city. The Philippine study used movement from a village or urban neighbourhood to another area. The Kenyan and Thai studies used any departure away from the home which may not necessarily have been permanent but did include international migration. The Egyptian study defined migration as any movement out of a rural village, implying a permanent move either internal or international.

The personal characteristics of the participants included age, gender, economic status, life cycle stages, education, income, presence of friends and relatives at the destination place and information about the destination place. Results of the Seattle, Philippine and Thai studies reported that owning a home and having a large social network in the place of origin may deter migration as does having no friends or family in the chosen destination place. The personal characteristics of the individuals appear to exert a positive role on the decision making of the migrant. From the review of this research it appears that not only is it important to include these characteristics in the survey but also one needs to take into account the cultural context of the research. It shows that results may differ for people coming from diverse areas.

Another explanation of migration is that migrants may be drawn towards certain geographical destinations because of their preferences for the various characteristics of those locations (Mueser, 1989). For example different climatic conditions, such as temperate weather, is said to attract certain migrants (Greenwood & Gormely, 1971; Schwind, 19745; Bass & Alexander, 1972; Cebula, 1974; Svart, 1974; Kincaid & Yum, 1987; Warnes,1993). According to Long and Hansen (1980, p.78) as determined by the U.S.A. Annual Housing Survey, respondents gave "the desire for a climate change" as a prime reason for migration. Of the different factors suggested for migrating, climate is certainly among the most important but not the only factor.

An example of investigating different place attributes was carried out by Peters (1989). The research focused attention on the reasons why people were moving to two specific arid communities of Lancaster and Victorville in California's high desert region. Participants were presented with a questionnaire with twenty-two reasons for moving and asked to select those reasons that applied to their decision to move to their present address. This research focused separately on the destination selection process, using

open-ended questions which gave participants the opportunity to indicate which factors

affected their decision to move to either of these communities. Their results indicated

that economic reasons were important but not always dominant. Better climate, less

crowded conditions and lower crime rates were frequently offered as reasons for

moving. The author suggested that the results confirm the importance of these attributes

in making migration decisions.

A further example of research into decision making was by Gustavus and Brown

(1977) who used different survey methods to examine the importance of thirteen place

attributes in the decision of people to migrate to Ohio. These included a Likert scale to

ascertain the importance of each attribute; a paired-comparison technique for

determining attribute trade off possibilities; measures of relevance and satisfaction with

each attribute at the place of residence and self report measures on reasons for moving.

The participants in the study were not a representative sample of the population, but

were obtained through the Model Cities Housing Opportunities Center and other

agencies. The results indicated that all thirteen attributes were regarded as moderately

determining why a destination was chosen. The authors stated that several criteria were

used to detect the attributes, but no description of how this was done was described.

Thirteen attributes represented major dimensions of urban areas in a migration decision,

which included housing, jobs, cost of living, welfare, shopping, fire protection and

schools. The study provided a descriptive account of attributes at the destination place.

They suggested that a method should be used to identify the weight of the contribution

of each characteristic in deciding the destination place and a more representative sample

of the population should be used.

Although characteristics of a destination have been offered as an explanation for

migration, consideration should also be given to different stages in the life cycle, for

example marriage, divorce, career opportunities and the stage of the children's

development (Greenwood, 1985). Consequently, migrants of different ages will display

different destination selection choices (Plane, 1993; Shumaker & Stokols, 1982).

Different personal circumstances such as age and gender of the individual migrating

should also be reviewed. Long and Hansen (1980) suggested that in investigating the

variable of age, one needs to examine closely the life cycle stage of the individual. For

example, they suggested that under the age of 55, employment reasons may be a

contributing factor.

This was not confirmed in a study by Feldman (1996) who examined the

movement of adult Caucasian residents between the ages of 25 and 65 in the Chicago

metropolitan area. Participants were randomly chosen so that poverty and race was not

a restriction to any decision to move. Unstructured, open-ended interviews were

conducted to ascertain their residential history including all the places they had lived.

No attempt was made to separate any participants who had come from an international

origin. Results indicated that most moves that had taken place (67.5%) were the result

of a change in the life cycle of the individual. However, these respondents indicated

that in choosing a new location they tried to find a place that was similar to the one they

were leaving. Respondents also indicated that they wanted a place with the same

cultural values as their place of origin that corresponds to a previous statement by

Rogler (1994).

Other determinants of large-scale immigration were studied by Jayme (1972).

These included demographic (age, education) and socio-psychological factors (attitudes

towards the Philippines and the U.S.A.) of people who moved from the Philippines to

the United States. Data was obtained through questionnaires completed by Filipino

graduate students. Regression analysis isolated the most important predictors of

migration among the 60 demographic and socio-psychological factors. The significant factors that related to this group were socio-economic status, family and friends in the U.S.A., gender, age and education. As suggested before there was not only one salient factor responsible for migration, but rather a combination of determinants in selecting the destination place.

As previously mentioned, many of the determinants of migration do not operate in isolation but in combination with one another. This was illustrated by Sandefur and Scott (1981) who included marital status and family size to investigate how they would relate to age. In previous research (Long, 1972,1973), married persons migrated less frequently than unmarried individuals and the larger the family, the less likely they would have migrated during a specified period of time. These results suggested that married people would have lower rates of mobility than unmarried people because as the number of people increases in the family unit, the higher the economic costs of migrating (Shaklee, 1989). Long suggested that if age is included in the analysis, the effect should decline but not disappear.

An alternative methodology to examine the role of marital status in the migration decision was reported by Sandefur and Scott (1981). They analysed retrospective narrative life histories to investigate the different variables involved in the migration decision. They found that married individuals do have a lower rate of migration than their unmarried counterparts. They suggested that this might be misleading as part of the life cycle such as changes in marital status may in fact cause an increase in migration. For example, people very often move after a divorce or immediately after a marriage (Grundy, 1985). Participants in this sample were all aged under 40 years. The results confirmed that for this age range, when other variables such as family and life cycle were included in the analysis, the indirect relationship between age and migration

was no longer applicable. More attention needs to be focused on different age groups to see if this inverse relationship still persists, as currently information does not provide data to examine what will occur beyond this age group.

The role of education is another factor examined by researchers. There may be different reasons why educated individuals and those in higher socio-economic groups move compared with less educated and poorer persons. The interdependence between educational level and other factors is less clear and not well documented in the literature. For example, climate has been suggested as a reason for migration, but this may signify the value placed on recreational facilities and the use of leisure time by more individuals with a higher socio-economic status. Perhaps it is not the climate per se that is the main reason for migrating, but that better weather conditions allows the individual further choices. The higher the education levels the more job opportunities are available and hence more choice is available to choose a destination place with the preferred climate (Long and Hansen, 1980). Sandefur and Scott (1981) regard education as a general resource that can be transferred from one destination to another and from one job to another. This was supported by Shumaker and Stokols (1982) who proposed that education and migration were interrelated and that the more educated the individual, the more likely it was that they will migrate. Research needs to examine these complex interrelationships to provide a framework from which to understand the migration decision.

Research has suggested that there were many ways in which economic and non-economic factors such as past experiences and ties to the place could combine to influence the selection of the destination place Roseman, (1983). He also proposed that the decision to move and the destination selection might be distinct decisions by migrants. This was supported by the results of a study by Roseman and Williams (1980)

who examined these two decisions in 499 households who moved from a metropolitan area to a non-metropolitan area. The analysis cross-classified the important reasons for moving with the important attributes of the destination selection. The results indicated that only 40% of the participants gave the same response, which indicated that the two decision processes might be separate.

This research has been supported by Cuba (1991) who suggested that the decision to move and the selection of the destination place may be influenced by different factors. The author also commented that the destination selection might well precede the decision to migrate. Roseman (1983), Law and Warnes (1982), and Gober and Zonn (1983) supported this and suggested that vacations may be an important factor in initiating the decision to move. In addition, vacations have been described as non-permanent, but one which may offer an understanding into permanent migration decision making (Longino, Marshall, Mullins and Tucker, 1991). Parts of the U.S.A. (e.g., Sunbelt States and Arizona) offer the opportunity to study the decision making of people who holiday in these areas and subsequently migrate there. Through examining case studies, life style reasons (e.g., climate, family and friends, recreational facilities) were given for initially visiting these areas.

Three ways in which people may become migrants has been proposed by Longino, Marshall, Mullins and Tucker (1991). Firstly, just because people want to move does not guarantee that they will move. This is the concept of self-selection. They suggest that the move may be too costly or not all members of the family may want to move (Wiseman, 1980). Consequently the proposed destination place will have its own appeal to different individuals (Lee, 1966). Secondly, different communities advertise for selected migrants. For example, there are places in Florida, which are retirement communities and advertise for "adults only". Thirdly, friends and families

serve as a network to encourage others to move from one place to another (Massey &

Espana, 1987). Vacations were also an important contributor to those migrants moving

to non-metropolitan areas (Roseman & Williams, 1980). However, further studies need

to determine whether the migration decision process which migrants used to determine

where to move is related to the demographics of those who moved.

Thus far different studies have been described which offer different explanations

as to why migration occurs and why migrants chose a particular destination. An

example of a study that offered a combination of reasons has been described by Sly and

Wrigley (1986). They examined the factors that make some people consider migration

as an alternative to remaining in their present place of residence. Participants were aged

between 13 and 21, resident in Kenya and were asked whether they had ever considered

moving to another place. The authors developed four groups of factors, which may

decide the issue of who migrates and who does not. These include dissatisfaction with

their present place of residence, attachment to the community, family, role of education

and previous migration experience. The study examined the role of life-cycle

development in migration decision making and how youth become more aware of

migration as an alternative as they became more exposed to outside influences. This

study offers further evidence that there may be a combination of factors to explain the

decision to migrate and choice of destination.

Preferences for satisfaction at the place of origin and preferences for future

destination places may be interrelated (Fredrickson, Heaton, Fuguitt, Zuiches, 1980).

Shaw (1975) suggested that dissatisfaction with the present community might be an

antecedent to migration. Toyama (1990) supported this, suggesting that if there was any

difference between the current and preferred place of location, the possibility of

migration was increased. The research reported by Fredrickson et al. does not use

migrants as participants but rather looks at the intention to migrate. Data was obtained

from the NORC's Amalgam Survey of the total non-institutional U.S. population 18

years and over. In addition, a question was added to the survey that asked respondents

in what type of community they would prefer to live in terms of size and location.

Consideration of the results suggested that the decision to migrate was not highly

correlated with the connection between relatives and friends. Nor did education

influence the decision to move. Of interest is that if individuals were satisfied with their

present location and with their friends then they were less likely to express an interest in

moving. Older people also expressed less of an interest in moving than younger adults

up to age 35 years. The authors acknowledged that there were potentially many

constraints on individuals migrating voluntarily and suggested that one needs to take

into account employment opportunities. It must also be remembered that people don't

always move to the place they want to and there may be some compromise necessary

but this does not mean that location preferences should be ignored.

The above discussion serves to illustrate the different concepts and theories that

have been suggested to interpret both the reasons why migration occurs and choice of a

destination. Since 1885 when Ravenstein proposed his "Laws of Migration", alternative

suggestions have been offered as explanations for migration. This research may be

applied as a framework within the context of Australian migratory theory.

The Australian Context

In Australia, much of the migration literature has concentrated on the factors

which influence government policy which in turn determines the intake of immigrants in

a particular year (Wooden, Holton, Hugo, & Sloan, 1994). Factors such as required

skills, composition of the migrant intake, unemployment, the current economic situation

There has been little research into why people migrate to Australia especially at the level

of the individual.

The potential role of factors such as social networks together with the influence

of family and friends, in persuading potential migrants to choose Australia as the

destination place have not been investigated. These networks have become well

established and perpetuate the migrant flow from one source country to Australia (Hugo,

1994). Such an understanding would aid future immigration and settlement policies. For

example, during the 1950s and 1960s many South Europeans migrated to Australia

under the auspices of previous migrants who were relatives and friends. With a shortage

of skilled and semiskilled labour, these migrants were easily employed. However, today

within the present rate of unemployment, it is difficult to sustain a high level of migrant

intake under the family reunion category. Family migrants must be sponsored by a

relative who is an Australian citizen or legal permanent resident living in Australia. The

Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (1997) defined two categories:

The Preferential Family Category which includes a spouse, child, child under 18 years

coming for adoption, parent, aged dependent relative, last remaining brother, sister or

non-dependent child, orphaned or unmarried relative under 18 years, and a special needs

relative. The Concessional Family Category includes a non-dependent child, non-

dependent brother or sister, non-dependent niece or nephew, and a parent of working

age. Arnold (1989) suggested that in Australia there was little information on the effect

of the family reunion policy and migration encouraged by family and friends. There was

also the need to develop better data sets with which to investigate migration issues

(Goering, 1989).

Australia has an immigration policy that regulates the intake and composition of

migrants on an annual basis. This policy has regulated migrants to Australia since the

Second World War with the establishment of the Department of Immigration and a Federal Minister for Immigration. This served to regulate annually the number and composition of migrants into Australia with strict selection criteria and a points system allocated for different categories. Potential immigrants are assisted through overseas migration officers and the availability of different settlement schemes.

As has been mentioned in the previous chapter, prior to 1945 the dominant group of migrants to Australia was British. Thereafter non-British migration increased especially after the abolition of the White Australia Policy in 1973 when there was universal acceptance of all migrants regardless of the country of origin (Hawkins, 1989). As demand for entry into Australia increased, it became necessary to devise a policy to select migrants based on the need within Australia, although family reunion, humanitarian and refugee categories are still current.

Most of the research into Australian immigration has examined the movement of the migrant within Australia (Hugo, 1994), but the reasons why these migrants decided to leave their place of origin and settle in Australia has not been investigated. By studying the reasons as to why people want to move, it will lead to a better understanding of current and future migration patterns. Although Australia's current interest is in immigration policy, the studies of migrants and their decision making process would provide useful information on how to encourage migrants with much needed skills. Research into the determinants of immigration, information received by the potential migrants and assistance provided to the migrant by different networks needs to be assessed with a view to modifying immigration policy and programs where necessary (Goering, 1989).

Summary

This review attempts to provide an understanding of the migration decision-making literature. The unifying theme in all these studies is the interest in how people make the decision to move and the selection of the destination place. In some approaches to explain migration, the decision to move and choice of destination are sequential, but distinctive stages in the decision making process. In special circumstances the decision to migrate would be preceded by the choice of destination. For example, a place may offer itself as a suitable destination for migration during a vacation, visit to family or a business trip. Research has not provided solutions as to which decision comes first. There is a need to further understand the function of personal preferences and lifestyle choices in migration decision-making and how they interrelate with the characteristics of the chosen destination place. Some researchers view migration decision making purely in terms of a location decision making task where different destinations are related to each other and the place of origin. The decision to move and the choice of destination place result from an integrated decision-making process where many factors are considered, such as different economic and non-economic variables, to arrive at the migration decision (Pampel, Levin, Louviere, Meyer & Rushton, 1984). Research needs to consider more rigorously the various factors and their role in the migration decision. These factors need to be defined more carefully and considered simultaneously in empirical research to determine their effects on migration.

In the past many studies have investigated different viewpoints, identified different variables, used different data and contrasting methods of analysis to develop theoretical models of the migration process (Harbison, 1981). These different approaches deal with different aspects of migration and no one theory claims to be universally accepted (Salt, 1987). Within the area of migration, researchers have considered the decisions that migrants need to make and models of the migration process

have been considered by population experts with economic, geographical, sociological

and psychological perspectives.

In many of the studies on migration, researchers did not distinguish between

personal and family decisions (Gould & Penley, 1985; Kincaid & Yum, 1987; Masaki,

1988; Cuba, 1991). It is suggested that there needs to be a more systematic treatment of

the context in which the migration decision occurs. The findings show that migration

decisions may be individual or made by a family. Each individual has a distinct

perception of the destination place yet there are commonalities among individuals

because of a similar cultural and shared experience (Ritchey, 1976). Research in the

migration area needs to develop both aggregate and individual models of migration

decision making. A more complete explanation of why people migrate, the contribution

of different social and demographic factors as well as the characteristics of the places of

origin and selected destination places that affect the individual migrant is required.

However, to explain personal choices of migrating and destination selection, the

necessary information can only be obtained from individual migrants (Winchie &

Carment, 1989).

Most of the results of the migration research has indicated that the majority of

migrants come from the young adult group of the population (18 - 35 year olds), are

relatively well educated and have high status occupations (Shaw, 1975). Rogers (1969)

suggested that migrants were more likely to have a personal and family history of

mobility. He also proposed that as migration required a person to leave their job,

migrants might be less than satisfied with their present work and be more willing to

leave. An awareness of all the above factors may help to identify which individuals may

be inclined to migrate, but it does not explain the migration decision process itself

(Winchie & Carment, 1988).

The above examples have indicated that studies in migration have attempted to examine the reasons why people move and how they choose their place of destination. Research into internal and international migration has suggested similar reasons for migration. These reasons may include economic factors and non-economic reasons such as weather or family support networks. The main methodologies used to obtain this data have been through surveys and questionnaires, which ask migrants about their reasons for moving. There has also been a reliance of researchers on public data sets. Ritchey (1976) suggested that a more stringent use of the data and an acknowledgment of their deficiencies would aid the explanations and findings of much of the research.   An appropriate methodology could be judgment analysis which is a research method that has been used in the decision making area. It is surprising that the methods discussed in human judgment research have not been applied to discover the complexities of the migration decision-making process. The following chapter examines the approaches of this technique and discusses the appropriateness of this methodology to migration decision making.

CHAPTER 4

Perspectives of Decision Research

Aims of the Chapter

This chapter provides a framework for the study of decision behaviour with an emphasis

on methodology and theory. An overview of the decision-making literature provides a

distinction between the use of Normative and Descriptive models of decision making.

A comparison between compensatory and non-compensatory models is described with a

suggestion that linear models are compensatory. Linear models may be objective,

which uses a regression approach, or subjective of which multiattribute utility models

(MAUT) are an example. An example is provided to illustrate the method for

constructing regression models of judgment as well as MAUT procedures. An

evaluation of linear models suggests that they may not offer a complete description of

the judgment process but provide a methodology to understand the judgment process

and evidence suggests that they provide an adequate description of the data.

Overview

There are many perspectives of migration studies. These studies have employed a variety of analytic processes and formulated different theoretical models. There remains however, a need to study the migration process from the micro perspective of individual decision making. In the previous chapter, an overview of some of the studies which have attempted to examine the reasons why people move and how they chose their place of destination was provided (e.g., Wagner & Ward, 1980; Winchie & Carment, 1988; Shihadeh, 1991; Cushing, 1992; Bailey, 1993; Kontuly, Smith & Heaton, 1995). These reasons may include economic factors and noneconomic reasons, such as weather or family support networks. In considering the importance of different attributes and factors which contribute to migration, it may be necessary to consider the preferences of people in order to forecast future migration. The main methodologies used to obtain this data has been either through surveys and questionnaires which asks migrants about their reasons for moving or through census data such as the Annual Housing Survey in the U.S.A. However, the applications of human judgment research to discover the complexities of the migration decision making process appear to have been ignored by researchers. Any attempt to explain this process through theories and models of migration needs to consider the research method of judgment analysis. While there is a separate literature dating back four decades that has looked at decision making, it is surprising that the methods discussed in this literature have never been applied to migration decision making. This chapter provides an overview of some of the models and methods used in human judgment research.

Judgment or choice

Judgment and choice are not easily distinguished in the decision making literature (Billings & Scherer, 1988). They represent different kinds of decision making which may give different results as well as employing different research methods (Tversky, Sattath & Slovic, 1988). In a judgment task, there is an evaluation of each alternative or attribute. Judgment is a comparison or matching task. For example, one may evaluate different brands of motorcycles on the basis of safety and handling. In this task, one is judging alternatives (motorcycles) on attributes. By rating the "importance" of different aspects of a photocopier, such as speed, size, resolution of copies, one is judging the importance of the attributes themselves. In a choice decision task, only one alternative is selected and the rest rejected. For example, one may wish to purchase a photocopier but rule out unsuitable ones on the basis of price and size and pick the first acceptable one. Different research methods are used to study judgment and choice. For example, judgment is used in policy capturing, whereas choice is used for information boards.

Normative and Descriptive Models

One of the distinctions suggested by Slovic, Fischoff and Lichtenstein (1977) when reviewing the research literature on decision making, was that decision models may be classified either as normative models or descriptive models. Normative models compare the mind to a blackbox (Hayes, 1968). Consider Figure 4.1, the model illustrates the connection between the input (stimuli) and the output (judgment) and focuses on finding a functional relationship between the two. A normative decision

model concentrates on how people will choose regarding a decision task or the way

people ought to think.

Stimuli→   →   ☐   →   →   Judgment
(Input)   Human Judgment   (Output)

Figure 4.1 Normative Decision Model

An underlying assumption of the normative model is that decisions are only

made on rational grounds (Keren, 1996). This implies that elements such as emotions

and motivations have no part in the decision making process unless they can be

rationalised (Keren). Normative models suggest actions for people in tasks and identify

the necessary conditions that need to be present in the environment. For example, the

task may be to develop a utility model to control water pollution and achieve a balance

of the ecosystem in the environment (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986).

In contrast, descriptive models try to provide insights into the cognitive

processes employed by decision makers and attempt to describe how decision makers

do choose in a decision task. A descriptive model endeavours to predict what decision

an individual will make, while a normative model is oriented towards how people

should choose. It suggests that individuals use a rational procedure for making

decisions. It is believed that decision makers have consistent preferences, are aware of

these preferences, any alternatives and have available to them information about the

results of selecting each alternative (Carroll & Johnson, 1990).

There is difficulty in classifying decision tasks only in terms of these two

models. In aiding people with their decisions, decision analysts use a combination of

models (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986). The distinction between the two models is

made mainly on analytic grounds. Coombs, Dawes and Tversky (1970) suggested that

"descriptive and normative theories are deeply interrelated in most applications"(p.114).

Comparatively, Von Winterfeldt & Edwards have suggested that normative models are

incomplete descriptive models. Both models provide a description of the environment

and the task required of the individual. However, in addition a descriptive model also

describes the "basic response tendencies the organism brings to that environment and

task" (p.16). Together, normative and descriptive models provide a way of categorising

decision models and although this may be useful at times research has suggested

alternative groupings based not only on diagnostic criteria, but using other methods.

Compensatory versus Noncompensatory Models

Another way of classifying models of judgment in human judgment research is

to compare modelling methods that follow either compensatory or noncompensatory

principles. As suggested by Cooksey (1996) a compensatory model is:

> "...any model which employs a linear organising principle in combining cue
> information to form a prediction. It is compensatory because low values for
> some cues can be partially offset in their contribution to prediction by high
> values in other cues. Adding and averaging are compensatory organizing
> principles." (p.368)

An example of using a compensatory approach to decision making may be

illustrated by the following:

A person wants to buy a new fridge. They decide on certain attributes that they

require the fridge to possess. For example, it should have a freezer compartment,

movable shelves, a compartment for the eggs, a vegetable crisper drawer and the cost

should not exceed $1000. The person may choose a fridge, which does not have an egg

compartment, because the fridge has an extra drawer for meat. They decided that the extra meat compartment compensated for the lack of an egg compartment.

A compensatory strategy exists when a low value on one trait can be compensated for by a high value on another trait. Ford, Schmitt, Schechtman, Hults and Doherty (1989) summarised two types of compensatory strategies. Firstly, the linear additive strategy whereby all the values given to the traits are added up to provide a total estimate of the choice and then the option with the highest assessment is chosen. Secondly, the additive difference strategy in which the difference between the choices on each trait are calculated and then are added and the trait with the largest numerical value is chosen (Westenberg & Koele, 1994).

In contrast to compensatory models, noncompensatory models use a nonlinear method of amalgamating cue information to structure a prediction (Cooksey, 1996). The decision making process is successive and more complex than compensatory strategies. The term noncompensatory refers to the fact that being high on one attribute does not compensate for being low on another attribute.

An example of a noncompensatory approach to purchasing a fridge may be illustrated by the following. A person decides to purchase a fridge with the following attributes: a freezer compartment, movable shelves, an egg compartment, a vegetable crisper drawer and the cost should not exceed $1000. If there were a fridge, which did not have the egg compartment, this fridge would be automatically rejected even if it was on special at a discount of $50.

Four basic models have been explored and reported by Ford et al., (1989). These were:

1.   A conjunctive model where there must be a minimum score on each attribute of an alternative otherwise the alternative will be rejected.

2.   The disjunctive model which implies that at least one attribute must be high otherwise the alternative will be rejected.

3.   The lexicographic strategy, which involves firstly arranging the attributes in order of importance and then choosing the alternative which has the highest value on the most important attribute (Westenberg & Koele, 1994).

4.   The elimination by aspects strategy proposed by Tversky (1972) combines the conjunctive and lexicographic strategy. All the attributes are arranged in order of importance and any alternative, which does not have a certain minimum value, is rejected.

These compensatory and noncompensatory models of decision behaviour have been referred to by researchers as competing models. Yet Newell and Simon (1972) suggested that instead of regarding them as opposing models, they should be seen as complementary. Perhaps it is dependent on the type of decision task as to whether a decision maker uses either a compensatory or noncompensatory strategy or applies a combination of both processes to the assignment (Payne, 1976). Compensatory models are illustrated by the linear model, which is a technique for modeling human judgment. An overview of linear models is provided in the following section (Westenberg & Koele, 1994).

Techniques in the Study of Judgment

Different approaches to the study of judgment have been identified by Hammond, McClelland and Mumpower (1980). These included decision theory, behavioural decision theory, psychological decision theory, social judgment theory, information integration theory and attribution theory. Abelson and Levi (1985) suggested that decision theory, behavioural decision theory and psychological decision

theory have an inclination towards economics and are concerned with probability and utility. Social judgment theory, information integration theory and attribution theory have their foundations in psychology as opposed to economics, and are not necessarily only concerned with modeling an individual's judgment against those expected if a normative model was used (Abelson & Levi). There are many useful approaches for looking at human judgment. This thesis uses two modeling techniques: multiattribute utility models (MAU) and a regression approach. This use of triangulation or multiple research methods to study the same problem has been suggested by a number of researchers (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979; Whyte, 1984). Triangulation is further discussed in Chapter 5.

Linear Models

The existence of linear models in the study of human judgment can be traced back to Benjamin Franklin's "Moral Algebra" in 1772 (Silverman, 1986). They were also referred to in the study of "what is in the corn judge's mind" by Wallace in 1923 (Brehmer, 1994, p.137). They owe their present existence and use to researchers such as Hammond (1955) and Hoffman (1960). There has been widespread application of the linear model to represent human judgment (Hammond, Hursch & Todd, 1964; Hamner & Carter, 1975; Zedeck & Kafry, (1977); Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz, (1979); Marques, Lane & Dorfman, 1979). Linear models are regarded as compensatory models as the person's decision is considered as a linear function of the attributes or information cues used in reaching the decision. A linear model contains two main features.

1.   It consists of attributes or characteristics of an item that may be combined with

        other attributes to form a judgment (Abelson & Levi, 1985).

2.   It consists of a weight that indicates the importance of the attribute. The

      judgment is determined when each attribute is multiplied by its weight and all

      the results are added together.

3.   The equation for the linear model is represented by:

$$Y = W_1 X_1 + W_2 X_2 + W_3 X_3 + \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots W_n X_n$$

W is the weight or importance of the attribute
X is the value of the attribute
Y is the best prediction of the individual's judgment

The following example illustrates the use of the above notation. Consider a

selector for the Australian cricket team who by virtue of their job acts as a decision-

maker. Y is the subjective judgment made by the decision-maker, such as whether a

cricketer should be selected as a batsman for the team. Y_1 is the selector's judgment of

the ability of the first player; Y_2 is the selector's judgment of the ability of the second

player. There are a number of attributes that the selector would consider: the average

number of runs made per game; the number of centuries made per season; career

average in runs. To predict Y_1 which is the rating of the first player as a team member,

multiply W_1 (which is the relative importance of X_1) and X_1 (average number of runs

made per game), add this to the product of W_2 (which is the relative importance of X_2)

and X_2 (number of centuries made per season), add this to the product of W_3 (which is

the relative importance of X_3) and X_3 (career average in runs). If Y_1 is greater than

Y_2, the selector will choose the first player to be in the team rather than the second

player.

Researchers in decision making may use a regression approach as a way of

determining the relationship between attributes and preferences or they may use

multiattribute utility models. Both are examples of linear models. The following

sections describe these techniques.

Policy Capturing and Linear Models

Policy capturing according to Cooksey (1996) originated from Hoffman (1960)

who described the concept of paramorphic representation of clinical judgements. The

linear model provides models of judgements and does not necessarily reflect the actual

psychological processes associated with judgment (Hoffman). Hoffman concentrated

on the ideographic use of linear models. The term policy capturing was first attributed

to Bottenberg and Christal (cited in Cooksey, 1996, p. 57) who used multiple regression

ideographically to represent human judgment. They used the term policy capturing

together with policy clustering that involved adding together the evaluations of all

judges with similar policies. Christal (1963) was described by Cooksey (1996) as

initially using the term Judgment Analysis to describe the use of policy capturing and

policy clustering methodology. As a methodology, Judgment Analysis has been used in

many studies where people make judgments about familiar problems, and is always

aimed at the ideographic level. It has also been used to study unfamiliar problems such

as judging the benefits of alternative prospects for a city (Stewart, 1988). According to

Stewart (1988, p.41) "Judgment Analysis externalizes judgment policy by using

statistical methods to derive algebraic models of the judgment process. The goal of

Judgment Analysis is to describe, quantitatively, the relations between someone's

judgment and the information, or 'cues', used to make that judgment".

An individual, when carrying out a judgment task, may consider some attributes

more favourably than others. The construction of the linear model takes into account

the weighting of the values attached to the attributes. Decision researchers (Westenberg

& Koele, 1994) may use multiple regression as one way to model an individual's

judgment and establish a connection between the attributes and preferences of the judge.

In a regression approach, an individual judge is presented with a number of cues that

need to be evaluated to provide a response. There are many advantages to be gained

from using this statistical technique of regression which includes gaining a description

of the individual's behaviour, obtaining a model of the decision maker and evaluating it

(Carroll & Johnson, 1990). Table 4.1 provides a description of the process in creating a

regression model of decision making. This includes an example from Carroll and

Johnson concerning the decisions made by a loan officer who evaluates mortgage

applications on a three-point scale:

1.   Do not issue the loan

2.   Perhaps issue the loan

3.   Definitely issue the loan

Table 4.1

Summary of the Method for Constructing Regression Models of Judgment

1.	Define the problem	What judgment is being modelled. This example is modeling judgements of risk, rather than whether this is a good customer because they do a lot of business with the bank.
2.	Identify the attributes accessible to the decision maker	The required information may be ascertained by questioning other representative loan officers or by consulting the relevant files e.g., applicants age, occupation, years living in the community, previous repaid loans
3.	Compile a set of preferences with alternatives	Through observation determine which loan applications are allocated to the three categories over a specific time period. Mark down the values of the attributes for each application.
4.	Alternative methods of collecting preferences	May be determined from hypothetical or previous decisions.
5.	Devise a model	The variables used by the loan officer can be regressed against the possibility that a loan will be issued. The value of Y, the judgment, will vary from 1, do not issue a loan to 3, and definitely issue a loan.
6.	Assess the model	Examine how well the model predicts the outcomes it has been given. R^2 measures the amount of variance in the judgements the model describes. A good model adequately predicts the loan officers' preferences.

The use of linear models of decision making may not appear to be very useful as we may not consider our own judgments to be mathematical combinations (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). For example, a cricket selector would consider the importance of the number of runs made by a batsman if he was being selected as a batsman rather than as a bowler in the team. Decision-makers relate that they construct different combinations of cues where the value of one may depend on another. Therefore, there may be nonlinear relationships between cues and decisions and the linear models may not be adequate representations of the decision-maker. Hammond, Stewart, Brehmer and

Steinmann (1975) suggested that regression models are fairly accurate predictors of

choices. These models may be referred to as policy capturing because they "capture"

the rules that a decision-maker uses.

A concept of significance to linear regression models was suggested by Einhorn,

Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) and is known as the process of vicarious functioning.

It holds that similar judgments may be obtained from different patterns of cues two

sentences needed. They suggested that linear regression models capture the process of

vicarious functioning in four ways:

1. Linear regression models are additive which implies a compensatory mechanism of

operation.

2. The environment in which the judgment is made is of great importance as it

determines the mechanism by which cues are considered in the judgment process. This

is reflected by the β (beta) weights. Beta weights are devised by examining all the cues

and their levels in a particular situation, that is, compensating for one cue with another

is the way in which a linear model produces the same judgment for different cue

combinations. Beta weights indicate how compensation of the cues can be made and

how it depends on the given task (Brehmer, 1994).

3. Cue redundancy needs to be considered as these influence the β weights. Cue

redundancy means that the cues may be related to each other as well as to the

judgments.

4. Regression is able to take into account inconsistency and random error of the judges

because of insufficient cognitive awareness.

An example of research that used a regression approach is offered by Zedeck

and Kafry (1977) who asked participants to examine nurse's evaluations of effective job

performance. Judges (participants) were presented with 40 hypothetical profiles of

nurses that described specific skills and performance criteria of the nurses. These included interviewing skills, ability to make relevant recommendations, expertise in diagnosing physical and emotional problems and the competence to make the correct recommendations for the patient. Multiple regression analysis was used for each judge's evaluations of the forty profiles. Most of the variance (R^2) was accounted for by four cues, R^2 was statistically significant for all the judges and the weights given by the judges to the cues varied greatly. The results of this study raised questions as to whether these studies captured the policy of a judgment as depicted by the linear regression model. Other issues included whether the weights suggested by the results of the regression analyses conveyed the true significance of those cues used in the judgment process by the participant. These and other matters related to linear models are discussed in the section "Evaluation of Linear Models".

The success of linear models over a period of time suggests that some basic aspect of the judgment analysis has been captured (Goldberg, 1968). Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) suggested that this might be due to vicarious functioning which considers the significance of the environment. Regression is one way to model an individual's judgment, multiattribute utility models are another example.

Multiattribute Utility Theory (MAUT)

According to von Winterfeldt & Edwards (1986), the main ideas of multiattribute utility may be attributed to Raiffa in 1968. They suggested that Edwards had also been considering the problem of utility assessment with others (Miller, Kaplan & Edwards, 1967, 1969). A paper published by Edwards in 1971 called SMART was his first attempt to realise Raiffa's multiattribute utility idea. In multiattribute utility

theory (MAUT), the preferences of the alternatives of a decision-maker is measured

(Keeney, 1977). A decision making task is presented to a decision-maker who must

examine the alternatives and order the preferences provided. Utility theory presents

these preferences in a numerical form. Yilmaz (1978) states this as:

> ...find a mapping (utility function) from the set of alternatives into a subset of
> real numbers such that between any two alternatives the one which is preferred
> is assigned a larger number (utility). When this can be done, utilities will
> represent the relative values of alternatives to the decision-maker. (p.317)

Many of the earlier studies considered an overall preference without considering

that different factors or attributes may influence overall preferences. This approach was

known as the unidimensional utility theory (Yilmaz, 1978). For example, when

choosing a washing machine one may consider factors such as the initial cost of the

machine, the operating efficiency, size and type such as a front loader or a top loader. If

one considers only one attribute, such as the size of the machine, it is not as difficult to

evaluate the alternatives (large, medium sized or small machine) as when one considers

all the factors simultaneously.

An example of where MAUT may be applied is when a decision maker is

considering a job and may need to consider salary, location, benefits, colleagues,

promotion prospects and location (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986). MAUT has also

been used when important personal decisions need to be made and may provide the

decision maker with a decision aid or help design interventions which may influence

these personal decisions (Carter, Beach & Inui, 1986). For example, MAUT was used

to identify the different characteristics of participants who had or had not received

influenza vaccinations. A brochure was designed to encourage those at risk to

participate in the vaccination program. Another example that used MAUT was reported

by Beach, Mai-Dalton, Marshall and Beach (1981) which describes how they developed

an MAU intervention after ascertaining the reasons why people used public transport or

their private car. Free bus tickets were sent to members of both groups and those who

had identified cost as an important factor started to use the bus whereas the tickets did

not influence participants for whom cost was not a factor.

MAUT was developed to aid the decision-maker in these complex tasks where

an overall evaluation is a difficult task. A careful consideration is given to weighting

the attributes. Firstly, the decision-maker orders the preferences in terms of importance

by carefully comparing the attributes. Secondly, the decision-maker decides how much

more important the first attribute is than the second. There are different methods of

response here, but ratio is one method commonly used. This process is repeated across

the attributes and a set of attribute weights is determined. These weights may be scaled

so that they add to 1 (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). The equation is additive. The overall

evaluation is determined by the weight multiplied by the value. The value is a function

of the actual x's termed a utility function. As suggested by von Winterfeldt & Edwards

(1986), the most common model used is the weighted additive model that may be

illustrated by:

$$Y = W_1 U(x_1) + W_2 U(x_2) + W_3 U(x_3) + ... + W_n U(x_n)$$

x is the value of the attribute
W is the weight or importance of the attribute
U is the single-attribute value function
U(x) is the utility function of x
n is the number of attributes
Y is the overall evaluation

According to von Winterfeldt & Edwards (1986, p.273) there are five general

steps in all MAUT procedures:

1. Define alternatives and value-relevant attributes.
2. Evaluate each alternative separately on each attribute.
3. Assign relative weights to the attributes.
4. Aggregate the weights of attributes and the single-attribute evaluations of alternatives to obtain an overall evaluation of alternatives.
5. Perform sensitivity analyses and make recommendations.

In the above description, approaches may differ in the procedures for single

attribute evaluations (step 2), different weighting procedures (step 3) and the models for

aggregation (step 4). There needs to be a more careful consideration of the weighting

procedures that may be used. The different MAUT weighting techniques may be

divided into numerical estimations and indifference methods (von Winterfeldt &

Edwards, 1986). They suggested that numerical estimations include a ranking

procedure where participants may rank the attributes on order of their importance; a

ratio method where participants decide the importance of an attribute as compared to the

least important one; a version of direct rating is when the participant allocates 100

points to the attributes as a measure of their importance; swing weights is where the

participant decides the contribution of an attribute to the overall value of all the

alternatives as compared to the other factors. Swing weights imply that the alternatives

may swing between the top and bottom levels of each attribute. Weights and single

attribute utilities may be represented by different models of which the weighted additive

model is the most commonly used.

An example of a MAUT analysis by Galotti (1995) considered students about to

go to college and investigated on what basis they selected their choice of college. The

MAUT analysis consisted of the following procedure:

1.   The decision was broken down into different attributes e.g., cost, size of student body.

2.   The weights for each attribute were ascertained.

3.   Alternative colleges were listed

4.   The alternative colleges were rated on each attribute e.g., how did University X rate on the size of their student body

5.   A value for each alternative was calculated by multiplying the ratings by the weightings

6.   The college with the highest value was chosen.

Under certain conditions MAUT has been considered a normative model of decision making (Baron, 1988; Keeney, 1992). In a decision making task, people often try and do the best they can, and behave as a normative model would suggest (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986). Furthermore, the more significant the decision to that person, the greater the likelihood that the decision-maker will carefully identify the likely results of each act and make a normatively correct decision. If a MAUT procedure is utilised, the decision maker optimises their own utility to achieve their goals (Galotti, 1995). In the college example, the students are able to decide on the best options and compare them. MAUT represents a more sophisticated method of decision analysis and there are many examples in the literature where it has been applied to business and public policy. It has been used to analyse complex decisions such as the thirty-year plan for the development of an airport in Mexico City (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). In general MAU models are useful for policy analysis as an effective policy tool. More importantly they also provide a theory about how people integrate information.

Evaluation of Linear Models

The models of decision making as a result of multiple regression and

multiattribute utility theory, are both examples of linear models. Irrespective of the

method that is to be used in the decision analysis, one needs to determine what kinds of

tasks are used in the study of human judgment. As suggested by Brehmer (1994), linear

models are used in judgment where an individual is presented with a number of cues

and needs to combine these into a response. Firstly, one needs to distinguish between

studies that require the judge to evaluate an object and those which require a judge to

make a prediction from a set of provided cues. The original use of linear models was

for studies involving prediction. Brehmer suggested that studies using linear models

have been used for both these kinds of judgments, but one cannot assume that the

underlying psychological processes would be the same for both. He suggested that

more progress might be made in the area if researchers distinguished between

evaluation and prediction studies and did not consider them as being the same.

Secondly, linear models do not provide a distinction between the judgments of

experienced and inexperienced judges (Lusk & Hammond, 1991; Brehmer, 1994) which

may hinder theoretical progress in the area. For example, studies using experienced

judges such as clinical psychologists, have been compared with studies using

undergraduate students doing a created task for the first and only time. In a judgment

involving prediction, the participant's experience with the task is significant (Brehmer).

One of the areas where linear models have been successful is in predicting

judgments (Slovic & Lichtenstein (1971); Dawes & Corrigan, 1974). For example

Hammond (1955) and Hoffman (1960) both suggested that linear models may help to

study cognitive processes methodologically, such as a clinician making a diagnosis from

observations. As there is a problem in that participants are unable to report these processes confidently, a tool was needed with which the researcher could make inferences about these processes. Hammond and Hoffman suggested that a linear model such as regression would be useful. However, Brehmer and Joyce (1988) noted that research with linear models has shown that judgments were inconsistent. The achievement of consistency depended on how predictable the judgment task was; there was inconsistency in judgments which varied with the judgment task; differences existed in the way judges weighed cues, and whether they were experienced or inexperienced in the task.

Furthermore, Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) suggested that the additive combination in a linear model is compensatory and cues can be offset against each other. They recognised that perhaps not all individuals use additive, compensatory strategies all the time and that sometimes noncompensatory, nonlinear procedures are used. Even in these cases, linear models may provide good predictions of an individual's judgment (Hammond & Brehmer, 1973; Brehmer, 1979). The process of vicarious functioning, as described by Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) proposed that linear models captured the process of vicarious functioning and explain how it occurred. Participants learnt that there may be compensation of one cue for another and linear models captured this form of cognitive functioning (Brehmer, 1994).

If an individual's decision is regarded as a linear function of the attributes or cues used in reaching the decision, Brehmer (1994) suggested that certain properties of the cues need to be considered.

1.   The utilisation of different cues in the task by the judge. This is

      determined by the weights attributed to the cues by the judge.

2.   Importance of the cues is determined by the cue weight. Different

methods for determining cue weight are available such as the simple

correlation between the cue and the judgment; the semipartial

correlation; the standardised regression coefficient associated with a cue

and the raw score of the regression weights. If the cues are uncorrelated,

the various indices will yield similar results.

3.   The linearity or nonlinearity of the cues used in the task.

4.   The method of combination of the cues in the final judgment

Linear models provide ways of answering these questions as well as providing a

clear and distinct method to understand judgment processes as they appear to provide an

adequate fit of the data (Rohrbaugh, 1988).

Previously it has been assumed that the different types of tasks that researchers

were investigating led to the inconsistency of judges (Brehmer, 1988). One needs to

distinguish between tasks for which the judge has experience and those with no

experience (Brehmer, 1994). If a judge has no experience with a task, they cannot have

any prior memories or results on which they can depend during the task. It may be

assumed that they use a given set of rules in solving the judgment task (Brehmer, 1994).

Slovic (1969) suggested that the use of insight might provide an alternative way of

explaining the judgment process of inexperienced judges. In the experiment, he used

novice and experienced stockbrokers as judges. Inexperienced stockbrokers applied

previously learnt rules to the judgment task whereas experienced stockbrokers were able

to draw on personal experience. However, even taking into account the experience of

the judges, does not explain why on the same task there are large inter-individual

differences in cue weights (Brehmer & Joyce, 1988), although Brehmer (1994)

suggested that one should focus on the judgment and not only on the cue weights.

These cue weights may be determined by the linear regression models or they

may be obtained by asking participant judges to distribute 100 points among the cues

depending on the importance of that cue to the judgment task (Slovic, Fleissner &

Bauman, 1972; Cook & Stewart, 1975; Zedeck & Kafry, 1977). The relationship

between these cue weights has been suggested as a way of examining the judges' insight

into the way that they used the given cues in a judgment task (Abelson & Levi, 1985).

Results indicated that judges overestimated the significance of minor cues and

underestimated the importance on major cues (Slovic, Fleissner & Bauman, 1972). The

correlations between these two weights tended to be lower than expected (Brehmer,

1994). For example, Slovic, Fleissner & Bauman found a correlation of .34 between the

subjective and objective weights, although the subjective weights accounted for as much

variance as the objective weights. Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979)

suggested that a judge may think that a particular cue was very important and would pay

more attention to that cue when in fact it had little variance and obtained a low weight

in the regression equation. Nisbett and Wilson (1977) proposed that perhaps judges

used "implicit theories" to determine the values of the cues rather than reflect on how

they used the cues.

Limitations of Linear Models

Linear models obtained by regression analyses do not capture all facets of the

human judgment process (Brehmer, 1994). They do not describe the process between

the input (stimuli and presentation of cues) and output (the judgment), nor do they

provide a description of the experience of the judgment process (Reidpath, 1995). The

researcher always predetermines the number of cues presented to a judge. This means

that a judge is not required to ascertain all the different cues and information for

themselves. It was Kahneman and Tversky (1979) who suggested that of the three processes of judgment analysis that they identified: information search, information combination and feedback and learning, only information combination is present in linear models. The role of the number of cues utilised by the judge may also have been overestimated (Phelps & Shanteau, 1978). In linear models, all the cues are presented to the judge, and therefore, linear modeling is unlikely to provide a complete representation of the process, and perhaps more complex models are needed (Reidpath). There has been concern expressed by researchers as to whether the linear model adequately describes the judgment process of the participant or decision-maker (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986). Instead of using a simple weighted additive model, the decision maker may combine the cues in a different arrangement and then be able to approach decision making in a sequential manner (Nielsen, 1995). There may also be concern that linear models are not a complete description of the judgment process.

Summary

In this chapter, a framework for the study of decision behaviour with an emphasis on the method and theories rather than only on empirical results has been presented. Presently, the trend in decision making is towards examining decision making in real life situations, which may differ from experimental situations (Galotti, 1995). MAU schemes have been used in real life studies to determine the factors that influence personal decisions. Identifying these factors may provide help in designing interventions to influence those decisions. The experimental situation is artificial but may offer some potential to generalise to realistic settings. However, in order to accomplish this, it is necessary to investigate decision making in areas where the participants have some expertise in the area of interest. In this research, migrants from

the United Kingdom will be used as participants to examine their decision making

process.

In the research presented here, the decision making of migrants as to why they

made the decision to migrate and how they choose where to move will be examined.

Judgment analysis has not been used to investigate these issues previously, yet it offers

opportunity to provide insight into the decision making process of destination selection.

As well, many decision-making models have been described in different areas, but none

have been applied to migration. Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) suggested

that there were advantages of using a multimethod approach in decision analysis as

combined methods provided a completeness of the data that may not otherwise be

available.

The following chapter describes the underlying methodological approach taken

in this study.

CHAPTER 5

MIGRANT RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Aims of the Chapter

The intention of this chapter is to provide the reader with a clearer understanding of the methodological underpinnings of the study and the rationale guiding the process. The aim of this thesis is to highlight different issues and controversies within psychology, which have arisen due to a growing dissatisfaction with the traditional approaches that underpin much psychological research. Alternative viewpoints are discussed to show the reader the range of methodological approaches within community psychology. The work of researchers such as Newbrough, Dokecki and Wicker have contributed to this area. The second section describes the proposed methodology in some detail that incorporates triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods to serve both completeness and confirmation of the research. The overarching framework consists of four stages that help gain an holistic understanding of the broad area of decision making in migrants.

Overview

The aim of this chapter is to describe the principles guiding the methodology

chosen in order to identify the reasons why people migrate and their choice of

destination. Questions need to be asked of the migrant regarding their reasons for

migration and settling in Australia. These questions can be asked in many ways,

resulting in adopting several strategies to improve the quality of the information

gathered and help overcome certain methodological limitations of previous research.

This chapter describes, analyses and attempts to explain the use of multiple methods to

study this phenomenon. The use of multiple procedures to gather information has a long

history in the social and behaviour sciences (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Denzin, 1978;

Dreher & Hayes, 1993) and allows the researcher to combine different sources of data

collection and compare the results obtained from each.

A Framework for Analysis

The following review provides a description of the different perspectives that

have influenced the research process in this thesis, representing the essential ingredients

on which this research was based. Emphasis is not placed on one approach rather each

approach is viewed informing the methodological framework used in this thesis.

Aspects of the different strategies presented were incorporated and each strategy

contributed uniquely to the final methodology used in this thesis. The desire to merge

different aspects of alternative paradigms forms the basis of this research. Consequently

the first part of the chapter begins by summarising the underpinning of the experimental

approach and examines the relationship between knowledge and theory. Then moves on

describing approaches, including pragmatism, postmodernism, substantive theorising and a systems approach.

Empirical Approach

The experimental paradigm is the dominant methodological approach of the positivistic philosophy (Gergen, 1984). Proponents of the logical positivistic approach have supported the notion that their theories were all-inclusive and their findings could be generalised without much hindrance (Coakes, 1995). However, Drew (1997) suggested that psychological research has been concerned mainly with the search for dominant theories and universal truths rather than trying to interpret human experience. Alongside this Jahoda (1981) suggested that the notion of developing all encompassing theories, which would act as an overall explanation of empirical research, is fruitless. She argues that there is no connection between empirical knowledge and theories. Rather, the fact that there are many different theories which answer different questions should indicate to researchers that there is not one all encompassing theory. Yet the search for this universal truth continues.

The relationship between the scientific method and knowledge is apparent by Gergen's (1973) remark that "social psychology is primarily an historical inquiry"(p.310). However, the idea of value free and objective research has been objected to as unfounded and invalid (Wicker, 1989; Mishler, 1991), supporting Gergen's (1984) assertion that knowledge should not be regarded as objective because it is in fact "value laden and culturally determined" (p. 310). Mishler further suggested that psychological knowledge might be prescriptive in providing procedures for thinking and acting. That is not to say that the research findings of the empirical tradition and the developed theories have not had a significant impact on disciplines such as psychology, indeed they have contributed substantially to the development of knowledge in many

areas. Perhaps the problem is not so much the knowledge itself, but the way this knowledge is founded in mainstream psychology (Gergen, 1984; Wicker, 1984).

Perhaps a key element to this debate is that to continue to search for universal theories and laws which can explain human behaviour may be a futile exercise as basically the study of social psychology is an historical approach (Gergen, 1984; Jahoda, 1981). Furthermore, it would be better to base the development of theory and knowledge tangibly in the social and political domains that may incorporate the experience and information held by other professionals in the real world (Syme & Bishop, 1993). This notion is supported by Gergen who is concerned that studies be more aware of the context in which they occur and argues that researchers should attempt to provide individuals with a range of important factors possibly influencing behaviour and therefore increase the options that they may consider. It is evident that there is a close connection between contextual issues and the nature and uses of scientific knowledge. The empiricist methodologies should not necessarily be disregarded but there are other approaches and techniques, which may be added to the research process to complement the dominant empiricist paradigm.

The problem of knowledge and theory

Commentators such as Gergen (1982) and Rosnow (1981) have discussed the possibility of alternative approaches to study fields such as psychology. The central issue pertains to methods and the question of whether a variety of research approaches is needed, rather than relying on one method. These different approaches may aid the researcher's effort to construct meaning from the experiences of the participants and provide a fuller and more adequate understanding of the research (Mishler, 1991). The other issue closely related to this idea is the fact that knowledge based on the empiricist approach is far from value-free (Altman & Rogoff, 1987; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This

idea can also be traced back to Gergen (1973) who pointed out that it was all very well

researchers describing their findings, but they also engaged in informing their readers

what they ought to be and referred to this as "valuational baggage" (Drew, 1997, p.41).

In fact Gergen argued that much of the psychological knowledge was purported to have

been objectively obtained, when in fact it was not value free and culturally determined.

It may be more fruitful to build up a knowledge base by researchers developing the

competence and expertise to frame new questions rather than spending their time

proving or disproving theories (Jahoda).

Knowledge and migration

In the context of migration, this issue is currently attracting much interest in the

media as it influences the population in the country and reflects recent changes in

society. As a consequence researchers need to determine the reasons for the movement

of different population groups in international migration as this has implications for

policy formulation both in Australia and the country of origin. The consequences of

international migration may be observed in the social, political, cultural, technological

and economic spheres. Previously demographers, sociologists and geographers

conducted this research resulting in descriptions rather than detecting underlying

psychological issues. Alongside empirical evidence there is a need to bring some

structure while at the same time we have a duty to contribute to and increase the

knowledge base. Following the argument that if psychology should to become involved

in the area of migration, then there is a need to use appropriate methodologies and

analyses to answer these questions (Jahoda). She believed that it really depends on

"what one wants to know, and that, in turn, determines the nature of the concepts as

much as the appropriate units of analysis and research methods" (p.185). In pointing

this out she challenged researchers to use appropriate methods and search for multiple

levels and viewpoints within which to conduct real world research.

One implication of the above discussion is that researchers need to understand

the significance of a world view as there are different perspectives inherent in our ways

of thinking (Sarason, 1981). In her description on work and related issues, Jahoda

(1981) proposed three basic world views which are not unique but have common

elements, these are: conservative, reformist and radical. She suggested they possess

assumed principles about "...what is right and what is wrong in the way societies

function, how change came about in the past, and how it should be managed for the

future. ...All are moral positions committed to positive values, differing only in what

they regard as most important" (p.185). In summary the conservative world view

reflects freedom of the person, particularly powerful people, the radical world view

espouses social justice and equality for all individuals whereas the reformist world view

seeks equalisation between liberty and social justice.

This description by Jahoda (1981) emphasised that most discussions are

ultimately about values even if one takes into account the technical content of each

view. She commented that just as one is unable to apply rational solutions to this debate

so there is the difficulty in applying rational explanations to uniting the different

theories. As Sarason (1981) remarked one of the difficulties is recognising that every

individual has a worldview and that "...the knowledge one receives from others, and the

way one receives and organizes such knowledge, reflects a view of man and the world."

(p.46).

It is the world view that one holds which may alter one's theoretical position and

support of a particular theory (Jahoda, 1981). The worldview is holistic and integrative

and infiltrates all areas of the lifestyle of an individual (Hecht, Ribeau & Sedano, 1990).

Psychologists are interested in finding out about people and the world, and this requires the development of theories and the proposal of hypotheses that can either prove or disprove the theories (Sarason, 1981). These theories are not free from the personal characteristics of the researcher, and as such researchers need to take into account their worldviews which would then give "...form, substance, and direction of psychological theory and research" (p.58). This research takes the view that we need to move forward and develop an appropriate body of knowledge, which takes into account the values and orientation of the researcher.

The foregoing discussion emphasises the perspective that researchers in psychology should avoid supporting a belief only in the power of the empiricist methodology and its objectivity. Researchers need to be aware of all the results, theories and value implications of research and value contradictions and these need to be taken into account rather than only attempting to generalise or develop theories on the basis of limited data (Jahoda, 1981). We need to develop a more eclectic approach towards theory and methodology, thus providing a leading role for psychological research (Gergen, 1982; Rosnow, 1981; Syme & Bishop, 1993; Tyler, 1981; Wicker, 1984). In order to elaborate further, the following section reviews another approach that has a history as a philosophical framework.

Pragmatism

It is generally considered the philosophy which appears to underpin the scientific method is pragmatism which suggested that an idea should be evaluated by how it works not by its visual appearance or sound (Hook, 1971). Pragmatists believed that nothing was self-evident and that an idea could only be considered true if it worked, otherwise it was false. Leaders of this philosophical movement have included William James (1842-1910), considered as the founder of pragmatism, Charles Peirce (1839-

1914) and John Dewey (1859-1952). Different questions needed to be investigated by examining the consequences of the different points of view and researchers should not only examine a single point of view (James cited in Hook, 1971).

To understand an idea, Peirce (1878) discussed that one needed to consider the behaviour of objects to which the idea referred. For example, if a diamond is considered a hard substance, researchers need to examine the notion of the word 'hard' and understand what it means under different circumstances. Similar to the other pragmatists, Peirce wanted to connect thought and action. Dewey (1929) who was a philosopher and educator, also concentrated on the same problem of narrowing the distance between thought and action. He considered science as the bridge between thought and action as science could be used as a method of inquiry into the study of man in society similar to the scientific study of physical nature. He also considered that learning needed to be related to current problems and should be connected to experience (Dewey). Any inquiry and research should be regarded as incomplete if it ignored these experiences. One of the most distinguishable characteristics of Dewey's philosophy has been his use of the word 'experience'. He stated that researchers needed to go to experience for their basic material and to validate their findings. Dewey introduced a program of educational reform and social reconstruction in which he always maintained a loyalty to science.

Although there are differences among the different pragmatic philosophers, there are a number of fundamental principles:

• Nothing is fixed or final and may always be altered

• The acknowledgment that everything occurs within a context which must always be taken into account

- The methodology of science should be used in all problem solving areas

A major contribution of this approach is the suggestion that all findings should be validated by returning to the people who underwent the experience. This leads to less bias in research and encourages a dialogue between the researcher and the participant.

Postmodernism

One way of looking at the goals of community psychology is that it has adopted as part of its basic conceptual framework objectives which are consistent with a post modernist, multiple perspectivist knowledge base (Drew & Bishop, 1997). A definition of postmodernism is uncertain, indefinite and vague. It has been described by Newbrough (1992) as the age, which succeeds the modern period of the last 300 years. Newbrough described the use of the term by different authors. He suggested that the use of the term "postmodern" has been ascribed to Peter Drucker in the 1950s to explain the required changes needed in businesses and organisations and their ramifications. Postmodernism has been used to describe the end of the independent nation-state (Nisbet, 1990) and Toulmin (1990) used it "...as a transition...to a quest for global survival through the establishment of an ecology of institutions" (Newbrough, 1992, p. 11).

Heron (cited in Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.30) advanced six arguments in support of the new paradigm:

- The argument from the nature of research behaviour. This suggests that researchers cannot apply one model of behaviour for themselves and another for the respondents. The same model needs to be applied to both.

- The argument from intentionality. The researcher needs to confirm with the participant that their intentionality coincides with the researchers interpretation.

- The argument from language. The prototype for research is language. Researchers and respondents need to agree on the rules of language to be adopted because it is language itself that contains the model of cooperative inquiry. As Heron suggested:

  > I can use the language to make statements about persons who have not contributed or assented to the formulation of those statements....but to use language in this way is to cut it off from its validating base....The result is a set of alienated statements hanging in an interpersonal void: statements about persons not authorised by those persons....My considered view of your reality without consulting you is a very different matter from our considered view of our reality. (p. 30)

- The argument from an extended epistemology. The process of scientific inquiry includes practical knowledge (e.g., skills, proficiencies) as well as experiential knowledge (e.g., getting to know the respondent through a reciprocal relationship and open inquiry).

- The argument from axiology. The outcome of research depends upon the shared values of the researcher and participant.

- The moral and political argument. Knowledge is power that can then be used against those people from whom it was generated. This can be avoided by people becoming involved in the quest for knowledge.

The most salient themes emerging are, postmodernism moves away from the empirical foundations of the more traditional approach to one of uncertainty and the discovery of meaning is embedded both in culture and society (Drew, 1997). The

postmodern period has allowed for a greater exploration of the interrelationship between

the individual's behaviour and his or her context. Further, the period offers implications

for the way research is conducted and shall be conducted in the future by implying that

each individual, group or event must be studied within its own unique context (Jahoda,

1981). This era can be described as "a transition period to a New World; one that

transitions from the modern period of certainty through science into a period of

uncertainty and confusion" (Newbrough, 1992 p.10). Postmodernism also

acknowledges the value biases of researchers within psychological investigations and

places less emphasis on objectivity (Gergen, 1988; Kvale, 1992). It prescribes a belief

that people and events are embedded within an historical, political and cultural context

(Kvale, 1992; Newbrough, 1992; Wicker, 1989).

Further, in order to understand all these new developments and additions one

needs to employ multiple perspectives (Tyler 1981). This review is merely a summary

and a fuller account of postmodernism is given in Gergen (1988). The following section

deals with Wicker's (1989) research paradigm that makes some of these ideas concrete.

Substantive Theorising – Wicker's Research Paradigm

Although the debate on the conceptualisations and themes of postmodernism has

been raging for the past few decades, the majority of research within psychology is still

being carried out within a logical positivistic paradigm. Due to much criticism of the

empirical methodology, an ecologically oriented approach to theory and research titled

substantive theorising which allowed for a connection between principle and method

was developed (Drew & Bishop, 1995; Wicker, 1989). Wicker also alluded to the

assumed universality of theories and the way generalisations were made on the basis of

limited information and offered an approach which includes both "scientific and

humanitarian values" (p.532). He does not necessarily exclude the assumptions and

core values of the scientific approach but does offer an approach which "entails close, empirically grounded scrutiny of assumptions, concepts and propositions" (Wicker & August, 1998, p.1 in press).

Brinberg and McGrath (1985) and Wicker (1989) argued that the three components of research, namely, (1) the conceptual domain (containing the ideas and concepts as seen by the literature) (2) the methodological domain (containing the methods, techniques and strategies for examining phenomena) and (3) the substantive domain (the processes and problems as seen and experienced by the individuals involved) operate together to give a complete picture of what is happening. Wicker further suggested that the selected methods were partially dependent on the substantive domain (or context) and that many researchers failed to acknowledge the importance of context when conducting research. It depended on which of these three facets were significant to the researcher as this determined the resultant methodology (Brinberg & McGrath). Contextualised research is a necessary part of understanding the phenomena under investigation and the failure to do this only servs to hinder any proper understanding of the complexity of relationships (Wicker).

This ties in directly with Jahoda's (1981) emphasis on articulating the area of interest by asking research questions first. It is through substantive theorising that the area of interest is emphasised and takes on an importance beyond methodological and conceptual considerations (Drew & Bishop, 1995). Substantive theorising involves complex and active interrelationships between conceptual frameworks, methodologies and data (Wicker, 1989). If one embraces the concept of substantive theorising, then the substantive domain is chosen first and the appropriate methodology is selected afterwards, rather than in traditional research where the substantive domain is chosen last (Gergen, 1984). The methodology is determined both by the chosen substantive

domain and the conceptual framework (Wicker). The salient points concerning

substantive theorising are presented below.

Main Features of Substantive Theorising

1. Selection of substantive domains and conceptual/theoretical development take priority over methodological issues.

2. Social significance is a major consideration in choosing substantive domains.

3. Investigations focus on limited substantive domains.

4. Psychological and social processes are examined in relation to their social, spatial, and temporal contexts.

5. Substantive domains are explored in depth using multiple methods.

6. Substantive theorising is a continuous, open process that is grounded in a particular domain.

7. Knowledge claims are limited to the substantive domains examined.

8. Theoretical and empirical contributions can take a variety of forms.

(Wicker, 1989, p.534)

One of the advantages for choosing substantive theorising over more traditional

methods is the importance of exploring the substantive domain in order to get a better

understanding of the elements and theory involved, and provide a more direct way to

deal with phenomena at hand (Wicker,1989). It is important to understand and

incorporate aspects of the culture in research being conducted (Hughes, Seidman &

Williams, 1993; Rogler, 1989; Sarason, 1973; 1979; 1981; 1982; 1985; 1989). Hence,

this research set out, firstly, to examine the contextual features and experiences of the

migrant.

The post modernist period has brought to a head a resurgence of contextualised

research. However, the methods used to achieve this end need to be further developed

and conceptualised. To date substantively theoretically driven research (Wicker, 1989; Wicker & August, in press), use of narratives (Rappaport, 1995: Mankowski & Rappaport, 1995), and critical multiplism (Newbrough, 1992) represent a number of pre-paradigmatic alternatives which serve to contextualise research.

Researchers such as Newbrough (1992) expounded the view of necessitating broader strategies to research and action that he termed 'critical multiplism' and should be based on practical consequences. It developed from the criticisms of the empirical approach with the desire to be relevant to and inform social policy. Critical multiplism is "...multiple perspectives, multiple tasks, multiple methods are intrinsic to critical multiplism" (Drew & Bishop, 1997, p.30). It offers external validity, a variety and range of complexity of knowledge and a movement away from prescription to debate (Cook, 1985). Limitations may include "...the potential for bias and charges of mindless relativism. He rejected both on the grounds that critical multiplism is a reflective, discursive approach, where debate and argumentation should guard against both" (Drew, 1997, p.67).

The challenge today is to ask new questions and thereby build a body of knowledge which may contribute to the further development of "understanding of the problems in the world around us, and perhaps even to policy change" (Jahoda, 1981, p.185). Research should be substantive and embedded in the social, political and cultural milieu (Wicker, 1989). In order to achieve these goals, a variety of methodological tools can be used to explore the substantive domain. Triangulation or the use of multiple research methods to study the same problem has been supported by a number of researchers interested in integrating different methodologies (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979; Whyte, 1984).

Triangulation and multiple methods

Historically, the term triangulation has been used in navigation as a technical term to describe a process whereby two visible points may be used to discover a third (Breitmayer, Ayres & Knafl, 1993). In 1956, Campbell applied the term to research methodology when he studied the leadership qualities of naval commanders and used the term triangulation to describe his use of different methods of data collection to measure the single construct of leadership effectiveness (Breitmayer, Ayres & Knafl). He termed this methodology multiple operationism or the multimethod/multitrait method (Mitchell, 1986). These ideas were used as a basis for research by Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest (1966), as they considered all research methods were inherently biased. They argued that by incorporating the use of multiple methods this would help eliminate the biases of each single method. They proposed the use of triangulation of measurement processes to secure the validity of theoretical propositions. Denzin (1978) developed the work of Webb et al., and also argued for the use of multiple methods as he commented that each method offered a different perspective of empirical reality.

> No single method is always superior. Each has its own special strengths and weaknesses. It is time for sociologists to recognise this fact and to move on to a position that permits them to approach their problems with all relevant and appropriate methods, to the strategy of triangulation. (Denzin, 1970, p. 471)

In this way triangulation is used for confirmation of the data collected. In contrast, it can be used to indicate completeness of the research (Fielding & Fielding, 1986). This means that different methodologies may be used to cover as much of the

phenomenon of interest as possible and so achieve a more complete understanding both of the object under investigation and the context in which it occurs.

The use of triangulation or multiple measures was advocated to reduce the deficiencies and biases of one particular method and also to overcome any problem of validity (Blaikie, 1991). This has been supported by Morse (1991), who indicated that when a single research method is inadequate, triangulation or multi-methods research can be used to ensure a more comprehensive approach to solving the research problem. Importantly, combining approaches helps fill the gaps left by each method (Connidis, 1983). For example, by incorporating field methods as part of a multi-method approach assists in their ability to investigate substantive theory and to develop ideas and insights (Glaser & Strauss, 1965). The combination of methods could provide a greater degree of accuracy in the research undertaken (Coakes, 1995). Apart from scaling, reliability and convergent validation, triangulation can provide a more encompassing holistic and contextual representation of the phenomenon under investigation (Jick, 1979). Multiple methods may also discover unique variance that may have been overlooked by single method approaches. The aim of triangulation is to achieve results that reflect the trait being studied rather than the methodology being used.

There are four different types of triangulation: data, investigator, theoretical and methodological (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A triangulated study is one which may include several data sources, or use many investigators, or include different methods of data collection, for example, qualitative and quantitative methods (Mitchell, 1986). Data triangulation means multiple sources of data are collected within a single study and are all focused on the same dimension of a research problem. The use of multiple observers, interviewers, coders or analysts is referred to as investigator triangulation. Theoretical triangulation involves different perspectives and hypotheses within the same

study. Alternative explanations of the results may be tested on the same set of data resulting in more confidence in the results (Mitchell). The most common and complex form of triangulation is methodological triangulation where several different methods or procedures for data collection and analysis are included within a single study (Murphy, 1989). Sequential triangulation is used if the results of one method are essential for planning the next method. That is, the qualitative method is completed before the quantitative method is implemented or vice-versa. Researchers such as Jick (1979), Connidis (1983), Bednarz (1985), Patton (1990) support the idea of methodological pluralism and suggested that research should employ methods suitable to the questions and circumstances.

In his discussion on the role and importance of knowledge in informing a community, Dokecki (1992) also outlined an approach to research which advocated the use of multiple and complementary methods. Furthermore, he suggested that the methodological framework developed should act as a liaison between practical action and knowledge. He deliberated that it was unlikely that we can gain knowledge which is definitely objective but that does not mean that we cannot gain knowledge that is practical and beneficial, citing Polkinghorne (1983) who conceived of knowledge as "assertoric" (p.28) which means that no knowledge is certain, it is just that some knowledge is better than others. Based on this notion of knowing, he developed a methodological framework for the human sciences.

Table 5.1

A Human Science Methodological Framework for Community Psychology (Dokecki, 1992)

	Types of Inquiry	
Scope of Inquiry	Quantitative/Impersonal	Qualitative/Personal
Micro-Level	Experimental and Functional Studies	Interpretive Studies
Macro-Level	Systems-Analytic Studies	World-View Studies

The structure of Dokecki's methodological framework suggests that investigation incorporates four types of inquiry: evaluation research (micro-quantitative), phenomenology (micro-qualitative), behavioural systems analysis (macro-quantitative) and political philosophy (macro-qualitative) (see Table 5.1). As suggested inquiry may be narrow and focused (micro) or broad and inclusive (macro). Dokecki (1992) emphasised that he has produced a typology that provides a description of different frameworks from which the researcher may operate and provides examples of studies that operate at the different levels. He stressed that all of these types of inquiry should be regarded as complementary rather than unique. Most researchers have tended to ignore the world view studies, but in order to obtain more balanced research, this area needs to be taken into account.

Traditionally people have accepted the common discourse in psychology as the empirical approach. Researchers have grown more disaffected with this methodology and an approach to research that grew out of this disaffection was suggested by Wicker

(1989). One should not abstract people from their context and that substantive domains may be explored using a multiple methods approach (Wicker). Similarly, Dokecki (1992) commented that researchers should not limit themselves to "experimental" or "interpretive" studies but needed to be more pluralistic in their methods. Systems theory offers the researcher a clear framework and further provides the opportunity to take both the person and the environment into account.

Systems as a Framework

Migration impacts on a number of levels, for example, political, social and psychological. The experience of migration for individuals from countries to places like Australia, where the environment is one of diversity, has a significant impact on the psychological experiences of the migrant. The methodology adopted by this study intends to explore the substantive domain using multiple levels of analysis within a systems framework.

A systems perspective identifies the connections and interrelationships that impinge upon the psychological processes of the individual and as such forms a basis for community psychology (Thomas & Veno, 1992). Von Bertallanfry (1968) commented that systems theory might be characterised by a group of approaches with a variation of definitions of systems with no one accepted version. For example, Plas (1986) regarded a system as an organised set of relations that comprise an organic whole. Although these definitions emphasise different elements, within both significance is placed on the system itself and the parts of the system that may interact with each other.

It was during the Swampscott Conference (1967) when the idea of community psychology became reality, that new programs and roles for the psychologist emerged, one of which was to intervene at the level of the social system rather than at the

individual level thus providing a further definition of systems. A social system could be defined as the family, an organisation, an institution, a neighbourhood, a community or a nation (Reiff, 1968).

During this conference different ideas were proposed for community psychology which stressed alternative levels of analysis (Reiff, 1968). These included behaviour change for individuals at all levels in the system. The community psychologist needed to become involved and participate fully to be able to engage in the "theory and technology of social intervention" (Reiff, 1968, p.525). This suggested that there was also a need to look at different aspects of theory and methods. Furthermore, Reiff commented that the community psychologist could make a valuable contribution to psychology by incorporating a systems approach as part of the concepts and skills that they use.

The notion of incorporating context within a systems perspective can be readily seen when examining the life cycle that remains consistent from birth to death over generations, but with a change in context. With each context bringing a New World view (Elder & Caspi, 1991; Sarason, 1989). The notion of person in context originated in biological and ecological theory (Darwin, 1859) and expanded into human social environments (Durkheim, 1897) and psychology (Dewey, 1929; Lewin, 1951). From this historical backdrop, two main approaches have emerged: Firstly, the settings approach (e.g., Barker & Gump, 1964; Barker, 1968; Wicker, 1979) and secondly, the interpersonal systems approach (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977). A number of assessment techniques have been developed to address these approaches. Since the development of community psychology, there have been movements towards more eclectic approaches by authors such as Holahan and Spearly (1980) and Seidman, Allen and Aber (1994,

1995). However, it may be possible to argue that there still remains a problem of appropriately addressing the person and the context to an equal extent.

The true beginnings of this approach can be traced back to ecological theory that focused on the fit between an organism and its environment and how that relationship changes over time. Rooted in biology, Darwin (1859) and others picked up on it to describe changes in human populations.

One of the key sociologists in this area was Emile Durkeim (1858-1917) who looked at the relationship between individual abnormal behaviour and variations in the social environment. He concluded that an act even as private as suicide was not only dependent on the individual's decision but also had some degree of group or environmental influence.

Other researchers such as Henry Murray in 1938 examined the interaction between the person and the context and argued that behaviour was determined by both an individual's needs and the demands of their environment. This view was later expanded on by Kurt Lewin (1951) with his classic formulation of human behaviour as a function of the interaction between the person and environment $B=f(P, E)$.

Field theory considered the importance of a person's lifespace (Lewin, 1951). By this he referred to the researcher's interpretation of the participant's view of the situation or experience. This was described in terms of what occurred within the social or physical environment or the sphere of influence it had within a boundary, was called the lifespace. He also emphasised the role of past experiences, goals and milestones of the individual in order to understand the person in context. All of these facets form part of the whole system of an individual. In order to understand the person or system one needs to take into account all these different sub-systems which impinge upon them.

An attempt was also made to apply ecological theory to community intervention (Kelly, 1966). He emphasised that the lack of harmony or mismatch between the person and the environment can lead to maladaptation and psychological ill health of the person within their context. He proposed four principles from biological ecology that could be useful guides for community intervention. These included interdependence, the cycling of resources, adaptation and succession. By interdependence, Kelly argued that whenever a component of an ecosystem is changed, there are alterations between all other components of the system as well. Basically, the community needs to be the unit of concern (Kelly). This is similar to the idea expressed by Reiff (1968) who suggested that community psychologists may develop a set of skills to function within the community and to help initiate social change which has not previously been the traditional role of clinicians.

In terms of the cycling of resources, Kelly (1966) suggested that the transfer of community resources is an important aspect of community functioning. Adaptation refers to the way the individual alters their behaviour in response to varying environmental situations and the habitat in which a person lives which is of the utmost importance.

The term succession by Kelly (1966) may be reminiscent of Darwin's concept of survival of the fittest where those individuals who are well adapted to the environment, will continue to exist, whereas less adapted individuals would no longer continue in the present environment. It is not that these people are no longer useful in the environment as they become an available source of information for people who continue to live in that environment.

The view that you cannot look at a person in isolation or in a vacuum and one always needs to take into account the environmental context was proposed by

Barker (1968). Settings linked the physical features of the settings to a person's behaviour with the behaviour setting being the basic environmental unit of ecological psychology. The major points concerning Barker's viewpoint may be summarised as follows:

- He believed that there was not necessarily any direct influence of the physical environment on the behaviour.

- He explained that to some extent individuality is lost with behaviour settings.

- In identifying the ecological environment of the behaviour setting, the person is insignificant and the events around them are observed (cited in Bell, Fisher, Baum & Greene, 1990, p. 16).

Major criticisms of Barker have included that he did not properly consider the impact of change on settings in his theory (Heller, Price, Reinharz, Riger & Wandersman, 1984), nor did he adequately consider the person in his behaviour settings (Orford, 1992).

There was also concern with the imbalance in psychology between the close attention being paid to concepts of individual personality and developmental stages and the relative neglect of the environmental side of Lewin's classic equation by researchers such as Bronfenbrenner (1977). The core of Bronfenbrenner's theory of development in context was a set of nested structures, which he referred to as the micro-meso- exo- and macro systems. He regarded a micro system as any context, such as a child's school, or a person's home of which the developing person has immediate experience. To some degree the micro-system roughly corresponded to Barker's behaviour setting. However, the relationship ends there. Unlike Barker, Bronfenbrenner was mainly concerned with the person rather than the environment in his theory. The meso-system refers to the set

of linkages that exist between micro-systems or settings that the person enters or will enter later in development. Bronfenbrenner proposed that development would be enhanced if two settings in which the developing person is involved in are strongly rather than weakly linked.

By including exo- and macro-systems in his theory, Bronfenbrenner (1977) recognised the influence upon human behaviour and development of the wider environment and of higher order systems. The exo-system consisted of interconnections between those systems with which the person has direct experience (the micro- and meso-systems) and those settings, which the person may nevertheless affect within his or her immediate environment. The school board or governing body of a parent's place of work might be good examples. The macro-system was concerned with the underlying ideology and social structure common to a particular social class, ethnic group or culture to which the person belongs. Thus Bronfenbrenner recognised the social-cultural influence and the importance of social change. A good example is the influence of gender roles on society. Bronfenbrenner has been criticised by Sarason (1977) and Orford (1992) for not properly considering the interaction between the various levels of systems. He also tended to address the person at the expense of the environment in his theory.

A social system model involving four levels, namely, intra and inter personal level, individual social system network, population social system transactions and the intersystem level was described by Murrell (1973). The intra and interpersonal level is concerned with four forces (affiliation and control, cognitive image, social norms and perceived outcomes) acting on the person in relation to his or her particular style of responding in interpersonal situations. Together these forces shape the person's

personality or particular way of responding in different situations in an attempt to get a best fit or adaptation to the social environment.

Historically, research has acknowledged the role of both the person and the context of the environment. However, in practice analysts have generally concentrated on either the person or the environment to the exclusion of the other. The post-modernist period has brought to a head a need to redress the balance between the person and context within real world research, which emphasises the complexity of relationships. Systems theory offers the researcher a framework and provides the opportunity to take both the person and the environment into account. What can be concluded from this is that to understand the complexity of migration decision making processes one needs to take into account the context within which the migrant operates. This framework enables the researcher to not only deal with the complexity of issues but also illustrates interdependence of systems with the individual and vice-versa.

The following section moves on to the overarching methodologies used in this research.

Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

In using multi methods an important distinction is that between qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative research has been defined by Strauss and Corbin (1991) as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p.17). It attempts to understand the experience of the participants feel as far as possible (Patton, 1990). Qualitative research permits a variety of approaches for both data collection and interpretation. Jacob (1988) commented that there are several characteristics that are common to qualitative approaches:

Qualitative research has been characterised as emphasizing the importance of conducting research in a natural setting...as assuming the importance of understanding participants' perspectives...and as assuming that it is important for researchers subjectively and emphatically to know the perspectives of the participants...Qualitative research is also seen as free from predetermined theories and questions, with questions and theories emerging after data collection rather than being posed before the study begins... (p.16)

This was reinforced by Miles & Huberman (1994, p.10) who commented that qualitative methodology acquires information with full awareness of the context within which it is emerged and thus provides a "richness and holism" which would otherwise be lost. Furthermore, qualitative data emphasises the real experience of the participants and is therefore significant in attaching meanings to the events, processes and structure of their lives as well as their perceptions, assumptions all of which provide a link to their social world. Qualitative methodology is an ideal tool for preliminary investigation of a new area.

On the other hand, quantitative oriented approaches use statistical analysis to determine the results of the research, which are reported in an unbiased and objective way. These two approaches are not mutually exclusive and should be regarded as complementary rather than competitive methods (Patton, 1990). In spite of the differences between the two methods, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods provides a more complete picture of the phenomenon under investigation (Sechrest & Sidani, 1995). Qualitative methods may also be useful when there is the need to explain, validate, supplement or reinterpret quantitative data. The contribution of qualitative research should not be underestimated and their use should not only be

valued as a means for corroborating quantitative findings because by using qualitative

methods as an additional data source the researcher may even discover divergence in the

findings (Jick, 1979; Connidis, 1983).

The foregoing discussion develops a methodological framework that

encompasses a more holistic approach to studying the substantive domain of migration.

It advocates combining qualitative and quantitative approaches to explore migration but

recognises a number of issues must be confronted, namely those of reliability and

validity.

Issues of Reliability and Validity

The goal of triangulation in any study is to increase confidence in the

trustworthiness of the obtained data and its interpretation. The use of multiple methods

of data collection maximises both the amount of usable data and the degree of

confidence in the validity of the obtained data (Glik, Parker, Muligande &

Hategikamana, 1987). As suggested by Miller and Fredericks (1987) triangulation may

be viewed as a combination of a number of strategies which when used together

increases the reliability and generalisability of the findings of the research. Reliable

experiments are concerned that when repeated, the same results will be obtained. Both

Denzin (1978) and Jick (1983) proposed that the overlap between the two approaches

constitute a form of qualitative validity. The issue of validity deals with the concept that

an instrument is valid only when it measures what it claims to measure. Characteristics

of sound experiments include the external and internal validity as well the reliability of

the experiments.

External validity refers to the generalisability of the experiment to other participants, settings and conditions whereas internal validity provides for the rejection of alternative explanations for the obtained results. Within research based on the empiricist methodology, the concept of validity tends to be embedded in methodology rather than being concerned with the participants (Cook & Campbell, 1979). This has been supported by Sandelowski (1986) who suggested that in employing the scientific method, validation appears to be reduced to a set of procedures. In addition, Mishler (1990) commented that validity should be a social process rather than a technical one and if embedded in a cultural and historic framework there would be less reliance on universal principles and more dependence on the context of the research.

The aim of research is to answer questions and the reason for conducting an inquiry is because of uncertainty about the area of research or to produce information that can add to the knowledge base (Sechrest & Sidani, 1995). No matter what perspective one adopts in this quest to answer the proposed questions, it is necessary to be aware of the context in which this is accomplished (Downey & Ireland, 1979). In this vein Coakes (1995) characterised this notion that discussions of research methodology tend to illuminate either objective or subjective measures and that the major value is attached to research that is "objective". No matter which orientation is adopted by researchers, problems are likely to be perceived. In acknowledging the role of validity, reliability and objectivity, research should also consider the knower as well as the known (Reason & Rowan, 1981). In this way the relationship between the observer and the observed is of mutual benefit in the discovery of answering the proposed questions and neither are assumed to be independent of the other (Coakes).

The elaboration and development of research methodology has been concerned with the flow between the two camps, quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Traditionally quantitative methods have been concerned with verification, whereas

qualitative research has been associated with applied research (Patton, 1990).

Quantitative research has been linked with rigid, scientific practice and concerned with

the 'objectivity' of the research (Lather, 1986). Criticisms of qualitative research have

included the trustworthiness of the work and the carelessness about issues of objectivity.

This denial of the validity of the obtained data from one research framework to another

has led researchers to evaluate the misunderstandings of the two positions. The ultimate

aims of the two approaches are similar in that they describe the data, interpret it and

suggest reasons for the obtained information (Dzurec & Abraham, 1993). However, as

previously suggested, no matter which method is selected during the research, questions

should always be asked and considered within the context of the setting (Henwood &

Pidgeon, 1994).

In general when conducting any form of research, the traditional concepts of

validity and reliability need to be addressed. In quantitative approaches, reliability and

validity require high burden of proof (Drew, 1997). These conventional issues of

internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity have their respective

analogues of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability in qualitative

research (Lincoln & Guba, 1981, 1985). Lather (1986) suggested that in the quest for

greater rigour in qualitative research "...our best shot is to construct research designs

that push us toward becoming vigorously self-aware" (p.66). Not only does the

researcher need to view the research from the perspective of the participants but they

also need to develop an awareness of their own objectivity as part of the research

process (Coakes, 1995). Three procedures for establishing the internal validity

(credibility), external validity (transferability), reliability (dependability) and objectivity

(conformability) of the research have been proposed (Reason and Rowan, 1981).

1. Awareness of the researcher as to all aspects of the research

2. Feedback loops and repetition of the research cycle

3. Convergent validity (comparable conclusions are reached after using different measures) and contextual validity (sections of data contributing to the whole).

The research process needs to be open and accessible to others (Nagy & Viney, 1994) which is best accomplished by providing an audit trail (Guba, 1981) and enables others to review, evaluate and form their own assessment of the research. Furthermore, adequate descriptions of the context need to be provided (Nagy & Viney). No matter what methodological framework is chosen, the methods used need to suit the questions and circumstances. When investigators design research to make use of triangulation so that data are obtained by combining qualitative and quantitative approaches they take an important step in developing a more holistic approach to research. As suggested by Jick (1979):

> In this sense, triangulation is not an end in itself and not simply a fine-tuning of our research instruments. Rather, it can stimulate us to better define and analyze problems in organizational research. (p. 610)

Having outlined the debate between the two approaches, the following section outlines the tools used in this thesis.

Quantitative Techniques – The Survey Method

Surveys are a method of social research which provide an accurate and effective manner for discovering what people think, believe and their attitudes. In any particular study the range of methods used depends on their appropriateness for the phenomenon under investigation. As with any other methodology, surveys should only be used when

they are appropriate and alternative methods should be used if they are more fitting.

Survey research is a method for collecting, organising and analysing data. It is a useful

procedure which based on a representative sample of the identified population, the

researcher is then able to describe the population of interest. The main advantage of the

survey design is that it enables the researcher to sample members of the population who

may otherwise have no other form of representation (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister,

1990).

There are many criticisms of surveys which may be divided into three classes:

philosophical, technique based and political (de Vaus, 1995).

Philosophically based criticisms include the following:

- There is a problem of interpreting causal relationships with surveys.

- There is no adequate means of identifying the significant bases for social action.

- Surveys are a narrow instrument that ignores the context in which people's beliefs and
  actions are formed.

- Surveys place too much emphasis on external forces and ignore the role of human
  consciousness, goals, intentions and values of the individual.

- Survey research is associated with the logical positivistic paradigm and is devoid of
  imagination and creative thought.

- Not everything can be measured by surveys.

Technique based criticisms include the following:

- The questionnaire is one of the most common forms of survey design that may be too
  structured and limited, as there may be pressure on participants to provide socially
  acceptable responses. In addition there is no way to determine whether people will do
  what they say they will do.

- There is too much reliance on the statistical analysis of survey results without taking into account the individual and the context.

- Results from research should not be regarded as true 'facts' which represent the only reality because they are only important when interpreted within a certain context (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981).

Political criticisms include the following:

- Surveys may be manipulative in that the information they provide may be an advantage to those in power that could lead to an abuse of that power.

- Often the results provided by the research has led to an unclear differentiation between the social sciences and "practical, directed social change" (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981, p. 132).

As de Vaus (1995) espouses:

> The course that a piece of research actually takes will be peculiar to that piece of research: it is affected by the research topic, the technique of data collection, the experience and personality of the researcher, the 'politics of the research', the types of people or situation being studied, funding and so on....the prime goal of research should be to gain accurate understanding and as a researcher use methods and techniques which enhance understanding. Use the method: do not let it use you. (p.9)

A number of techniques can be used to collect survey data of which the questionnaire is the most widely used and usually consists of a set of predetermined questions. The advantage of this technique is that the participants can fill it out or it may be administered. In constructing a questionnaire it is assumed that the researcher has sufficient information to prepare the questions. The problem with the questionnaire

according to Beebe (1995) is that unless the context of the data is understood, the answers provided by the respondents may not reflect those assumed by the question. The argument is to support this methodology but not as a first step in research. The researcher first needs to discover the relationships within the relevant systems as well as paying attention to the context before proceeding with the research. One of the ways this is possible is through interviews.

Qualitative Techniques – The Interview Method

Interviews allow much greater flexibility in asking questions than questionnaires. The participant can seek clarification on any point and the interviewer can gain explanation on any incomplete or ambiguous answers to open ended questions. Such an approach is liable to afford the researcher data which has a "richness and holism, with strong potential for revealing complexity ....thick descriptions that are vivid, nested in real context, and have a ring of truth that has strong impact on the reader" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10). Although there are many different types of interviews which include formal structured interviews; semi-structured interviews which is the informal conversational guide interview; the general interview guide approach; the standardised open ended approach (Patton, 1990). Interviews need to be culturally appropriate otherwise if the content or style is unsuitable the interview may be misunderstood, objected to and even terminated (Lipson & Meleis, 1989). For example they suggest that in some cultural groups direct questioning is more appropriate as is confrontation, therefore the format and style of the interview needs to reflect the communication style of the immigrant group. In deciding which interview technique to adopt for the research, the researcher needs to consider both the type of information

required as well as the cultural background of the participants. For the purposes of the present research, semi-structured interviews were initially considered the most appropriate.

Semi-structured interviews use short guidelines when talking to participants and are useful in obtaining information from interested participants. These have been referred to as "unstructured interviewing", "conversation" or "conversation with a purpose" (Beebe, 1995). Participants are encouraged to express thoughts, opinions and experiences that may be inhibited in the formal interview situation. It is important that time is available to build sufficient rapport with the participants in order to obtain information. As Kidder and Fine (1987, p. 60) recommended, "...rely on authentic participants, the people who belong there, to discover which questions make sense." The semi structured interview allows the interviewer flexibility but is simultaneously controlled (Burgess, 1984). The interviewer needs to allow the participants to relate their experiences and attitudes. The limitations of this approach are that the success of the interview depends largely on the ability of the interviewer to demonstrate the necessary understanding and sympathy for the participant's viewpoint. The strength of this type of interview is that the participant may talk on the subject without the interviewer asking a series of preset questions. As Burgess (1984) commented:

They need to follow their informant's responses and to listen to them carefully in order that a decision can be made concerning the direction in which to take the interview. In short, researchers have to be able to share the culture of their informants. (p. 108)

A limitation of this interviewing technique is that the use of different interviewers may hamper the type of information collected as well as create problems for comparability of data. This may be avoided by using only one interviewer (Beebe, 1995). The use of this method of obtaining qualitative data aims to elicit as much information as possible from the respondent as to their beliefs, attitudes, feelings, opinions and experiences concerning a particular topic (Coakes, 1995). This information obtained from the participants is not available elsewhere (Stage & Russell, 1992) and "the first hand knowledge is centrally reflected in the interpretation process" (Jick, 1979, p.608). This type of interviewing is just one method available to the researcher. In principle through the use of qualitative techniques the researcher is aiming to discover knowledge through an intensive study of particular settings or people (Hammersley, 1981). Another qualitative technique used to understand the migrants' perspective of their decision to move is through the use of narratives.

Narrative Discourse

With narratives there is the belief that telling stories is one of the important ways that individuals construct and express meaning (Mishler, 1991). The assumption is that everyone has within themselves a story and the way individuals make sense of their experiences is through shaping and telling the events in narrative form. In contrast to other interviewing techniques where participants are required to answer specific questions or confine their answers within a relevant framework, story telling offers a more natural mode of communicating. This does not mean that narratives have a place only in studies using unstructured interviews or where participants are encouraged to elaborate their responses (Mishler). Narratives may be used as a direct source of

gathering data similar to other qualitative methods. Individuals may be encouraged to relate stories when asked direct questions as long as the interviewer does not interrupt the telling of the event or ask for clarification too often in the discourse (Cohler, 1982).

Other disincentives to relating the full story of events may be a shortage of time, interviewers may disregard some stories as irrelevant or the stories may not even be recorded (Mishler, 1991). Furthermore, he proposed that researchers may be interested in different parts of the narrative such as the structure, meaning and context and may be concerned with how the parts of the story fit together to provide a coherent and continuous account. By forming a collaborative partnership between the participant and the interviewer, this interview technique transfers control of the continuity and content of the interview to the participant. Within this methodological framework, interviewees provide a wealth of information within the context of their experience. As so aptly described by Hecht, Ribeau and Sedano (1990):

> Within these stories are embedded the relational themes that are meaningful in the lives of individuals and which emerge out of human experience to guide interpersonal interaction. The themes capture the 'actor's view of 'how things operate', identifying what is important versus unimportant, acceptable versus unacceptable, etc. Our task, then was to collect stories and identify relational themes that are significant in the cultural experiences... (p. 34)

Summary

This chapter reviews developments in terms of methodological, theoretical and paradigmatic responses to the problems confronting the proposed research.

1. Knowledge needs to be advanced by asking new questions rather than through verifying or falsifying theories.

2. Traditional mainstream empirical approach to research is based on the experiment as the ideal research method. This should be used in conjunction with other methodological frameworks rather than be regarded as the only form of accepted research.

3. The acceptance that research is value laden and culturally determined.

4. The acceptance that all individuals have a worldview, which needs to be acknowledged in order to establish and create relationships.

5. The use of pragmatism and Dewey's notion of experience allows the researcher to incorporate this strategy into the thesis.

6. Postmodernism has offered alternatives to the traditional empirically based research such as Wicker's substantive theorising and Dokecki's Human science methodological framework. The context of the research needs to taken into account.

7. Research should adopt the idea of multiple pluralism and multiple levels of analysis should be conducted within a systems framework.

8. Researchers should make use of the methodological technique of triangulation in which both quantitative and qualitative data collection is undertaken to find answers to the same set of questions.

The following section proposes a methodology that incorporates unique aspects of the foregoing discussion into a methodological framework for exploring decision making in migrants from the United Kingdom.

Proposed Methodology

Consistent with the interactionist underpinnings of the study, the research design incorporated triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods to confirm information and thus increase credibility of the obtained information. It was also used to obtain a more complete understanding of the broad area of decision making in migrants by revealing different aspects of the participant's responses as well as providing an indepth explanation of the different aspects of the migrant's decision.

The methodological components were linked by a common conceptual framework that included substantive considerations about the nature of the information and the tools required to address the substantive questions. This multi-method study afforded an opportunity to study the problems and possibilities of a design employing a range of quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

The proposed methodology reflects the issues and themes that have emerged from the previous discussion. Using the approaches suggested by Wicker (1989), Dokecki (1992) and incorporating a systems approach and aspects of pragmatism, the research consists of four stages (see Figure 5.1). Each level provides more detail and specificity moving from the macro to the micro level of inquiry. The following is an outline of the approach taken at each stage of the research process.

1. Stage one consists of two phases:

- phase one consists of preliminary semistructured interviews

- phase two is the interpretation and development of decision trees

2. Stage two is an experimental design to judge the desirability of moving to hypothetical locations.

3. Stage three represents two phases:

- the first phase is concerned with the development of a questionnaire based on the decision model developed in stage 1

- the second phase is the testing and implementation of the questionnaire to two groups of U.K. migrants

4. Stage four represents a series of narratives which concludes the research process which has moved from the macro level to the micro level of analysis with increasing specificity and detail (Drew & Bishop, 1997). This culminates a triangulated approach to the research where elicited information would converge and confirm information obtained into an integrated and holistic study. The context is acknowledged throughout each stage of the research process.

Stage 1   Stage 4

Substantive Domain: Substantive Domain
Identify and determines attributes
that contribute to migration
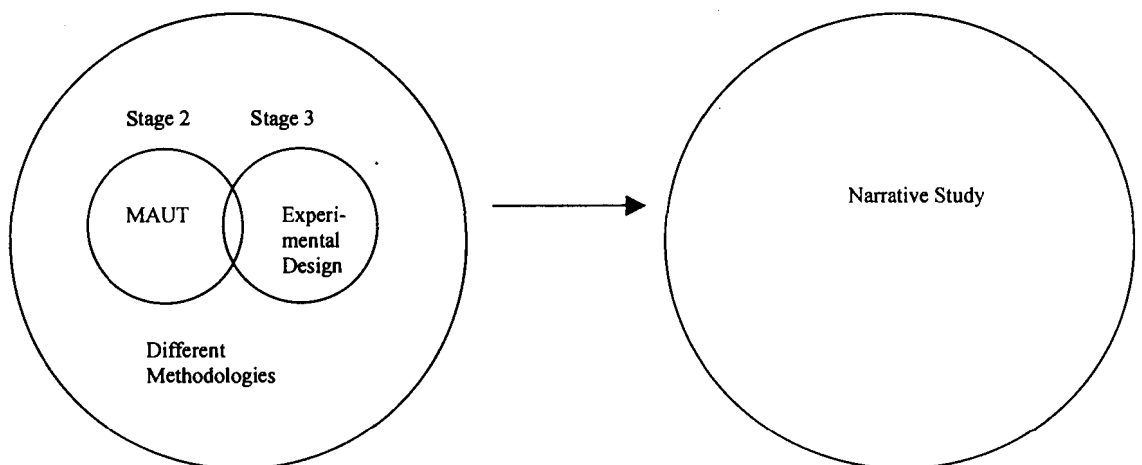
Figure 5.1 A four stage methodology

Stage 1: Preliminary Key Informant Study

The first stage of the research is presented in two distinct but related parts based on a systems approach during which migrants were interviewed as part of a tentative exploration of the substantive domain of migration. Based on Dokecki's (1992) methodological framework, the scope of inquiry of this phase is qualitative semi-structured interviews with a focus on an interpretive and descriptive analysis of potential reasons why people decided to leave the United Kingdom and why they chose Australia as their destination. These interviews represent a source of information which informs the researcher about the migration decision making process and as such increases the knowledge base of decision making in the domain.

The second part of stage one of the research examines the preliminary information obtained in phase one in order to develop information decision trees. These provide an ordered structure to represent broad categories and more specific dimensions of the possible reasons for the migration process. In developing the decision trees the context within which the decision was made is considered (Newbrough, 1992; Syme & Bishop, 1993; Wicker, 1989). The main function of the decision trees developed in this phase is simplification of the obtained information (von Winterfeld and Edwards, 1986). The results of this stage of the research were used to inform the following two stages.

Stage 1: Research aims and objectives

1. To explore possible reasons why migrants left the United Kingdom and came to settle in Australia

2. Identify migrants from the United Kingdom already living in Perth, Western Australia and establish why they migrated.

Analyse and classify these perspectives into a decision tree based on the diverse perspectives provided by the participants.

Stage 2: Specific Analysis of the Substantive Domain

This study examines the influence of a number of attributes of hypothetical places on the migration decision making of a group of migrants from the United Kingdom. This study uses an experimental design with the research process being similar to Dokecki's micro-level scope of inquiry where the type of inquiry is quantitative. It draws upon Bronfenbrenner's (1977) systems framework and represents the microsystem, as the focus of the research is the individual in a specific context. As suggested by Wicker (1989) it is unnecessary to reject the scientific, empirical approach as it is appropriate to use an empirical methodology if it aids conceptual clarification (Gergen, 1978). In accordance with Newbrough's (1992) critical multiplism, this stage adds a further methodology to the range of methods used in this triangulated study. The situations examined here are also connected to the previous stages as the attributes used in the hypothetical locations are systematically drawn from those developed in stage one and two of the research. The overall aim of this stage is to add both completeness and confirmation to the research of the decision-making processes of migrants (Knafl & Breitmayer, 1991).

> **Stage 2: Research aims and objectives**
>
> 1. To design a quantitative study which is part of the triangulated design of the research to aid conceptual and theoretical clarification.
> 2. To conduct an experimental study to gather information for testing individual decision-making.
> 3. Consider the preferences of migrants to ascertain the importance of preferred locational characteristics.

Stage 3: Specific Analysis of the Substantive Domain: Integration of Preferences

In this stage the information accumulated from the previous stages is examined in more detail. This stage consists of two parts: firstly a questionnaire will be developed and pretested; secondly, the main study questionnaire will be administered to a large group of migrants both in Western Australia and the United Kingdom. This stage uses multiattribute theory to measure the preferences of the alternatives of the migrants.

> **Stage 3: Research aims and objectives**
>
> 1. To select a representative sample of U.K. migrants living in Western Australia.
> 2. Use multiattribute utility theory (MAUT) as a method of decision analysis.
> 3. Construct a quantitative measure by integrating the attributes into a questionnaire.
> 4. Examine different aspects of the decision process using MAUT.
> 5. This procedure is used for an evaluation of the attributes by the migrants prior to migrating and post migration.
> 6. Examine the satisfaction of the move by the migrants to Australia.

Overall, this stage of the research will allow the researcher to integrate the above findings and arrive at a description of the decision making process used by migrants.

Stage 4: Specific Analysis of the Substantive Domain: Narratives of Migrants from the United Kingdom

The purpose of this final stage of the research is to use a methodological strategy that will enhance the knowledge of decision making in the domain of migration. As suggested by Mishler (1991), the use of narratives helps to construct and express meaning. Following Dokecki's (1992) methodological framework, this level of inquiry is at the micro-level and is an interpretive approach to the study of decision-making perspectives. It acknowledges the role of worldview as suggested by Dokecki (1992) and recognises that there are different perspectives in our ways of thinking (Sarason, 1981). This stage also takes into account the pragmatic view of Dewey (1929). It acknowledges that experience is important and validation of the inquiry needs to take place by returning to the people who have undergone the experience.

Stage 4: Research aims and objectives

1. To conduct a study to present real life episodes through the use of language to represent the beliefs, emotions and attitudes and the perceptions of the participants.
2. To allow participants to recall their experience of migration in the context of time.
3. To use the narrative approach to provide a better understanding of the factors influencing the migration decision and choice of destination.
4. To complete the triangulated design of the research as the final measure of the migration decision and choice of destination.

Historically, research has suggested economic and job related requirements as the main reasons for migration (Shaklee, 1989). Previously migration tended to be studied by using aggregate data and the results of the individual migrant was inferred from this collective information. Therefore this research is aimed at the level of the

individual migrant which still allows the formation of aggregate behaviours from the information obtained. From a review of the decision making literature, different models of choice have been suggested (Keeney & Raiffa, 1976; Montgomery & Svenson, 1976; Brehmer, 1988) yet there has been no evidence that these models will adequately reflect the decision making process. Therefore, migration is an ideal context for studying the decision-making process.

In responding to the plea made by Jahoda (1981) for researchers to ask new questions and add to the knowledge base rather than attempt to verify or falsify theories, this research starts by defining the questions. Also, a triangulated design using a multi methods approach of data collection that combines both quantitative and qualitative methodologies is adopted. In response to this view this research answers the challenge to ask some of these questions in the hope that it will then provide information which will contribute to build a body of knowledge which may contribute to the further development of "understanding of the problems in the world around us" (Jahoda, 1981, p.185).

Research Questions

This research emerged as an attempt to clarify the main preferences that influence the desire to migrate and to establish the identity of the main attributes of the selected destination place and the main questions asked were:

1. What factors influence the decision to migrate?

2. Are there any differences in the decision making process between migrants from the U.K. living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K.?

Subsidiary Questions

1. How satisfied are migrants living in Australia?

2. What are the major sources of information for migrants prior to migration?

3. Are there any covariates (e.g., age, gender) associated with the migration decision?

The following chapter begins the research process through using key informant interviews. These interviews represent the first stage in the multimethod approach of this thesis.

CHAPTER 6

Study 1: Preliminary Key Informant Study

Aims of the chapter

The aim of this stage of the research was to identify the issues that migrants

consider when migrating and in particular why they chose Australia as their place of

destination. This was accomplished through the use of semistructured interviews that

provided a rich descriptive database for developing content elements for the decision

model. The purpose of this stage of the research was:

1.   To derive a description of the various issues pertaining to the migration decision

      process.

2.   To organise the data into main categories through the use of independent

      investigators.

3.   To develop an information tree based on the data obtained that best represents

      the factors considered by migrants in the decision-making process.

Overview

The aim of this study is to understand and identify issues that migrants consider when migrating, in particular why they chose Australia as their place of destination. People have direct experience and knowledge of the issues involved in migrating and therefore many of these are the major source of information. In order to ascertain this information directly from migrants it is necessary to use appropriate methods. Qualitative information can supply an account of the experiences, intentions, appreciation, awareness and impressions of the participant in the past, present and future (Hasse & Meyers, 1988). They also suggested that the research method is ideographic. The method chosen has to be appropriate to the research objectives by producing the kind of information needed in answering the questions that have been posed (Meyers & Hasse, 1989).

This study was undertaken in order to provide an understanding of what Wicker (1989) called the substantive domain. Wicker in his discussion on substantive theorising suggested a new approach where the domain of interest becomes as important as methodological and conceptual concerns. Wicker suggested that the substantive domain be explored using multiple methods. This study represented the first attempt by the researcher to tentatively explore the substantive domain of migration. Wicker's approach of substantive theorising was based on the suggestions by Brinberg and McGrath (1985). They proposed that researchers might follow three paths when conducting research. Drew (1997) summarised these stages and suggested that traditional psychological research is conducted in stage two. There appears to be neglect of the first stage that has often been dismissed as 'planning'. However, as he proposed this is the stage where the foundations for the research are laid with attention

being paid to the methodological, conceptual and substantive domains of interest. Stage

three as described by Brinberg and McGrath is where researchers should engage in

replication of the research to investigate the ecological validity of their results.

This first stage was exploratory in order for the researcher to develop a

"holistic" overview of the migration area (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Knowledge of

the issues that were relevant to migrants and were considered in the migration decision-

making process were uncertain and as suggested by Drew (1997, p. 65) "knowledge is

conceived of as "assertoric" (after Polkinghorne, 1983). Where knowledge is not

certain, it is developed in an historical and cultural context. Furthermore, it is not

additive and is developed by argumentation not consensus. It is through this process of

knowing that the praxis of community psychology can develop". As indicated by

Dokecki (1992), the methodological framework guiding this stage was both

collaborative and facilitative. As proposed by Drew and Bishop (1997) an important

aspect of this approach depended on establishing collaborative research relationships

with rejection of the empiricist search for universal and objective truth. To achieve this

end and accomplish real world research (Jahoda, 1981), the context within which the

migration occurred was acknowledged.

This chapter describes the interview method used; an analysis of the content of

the interviews; classification of these perspectives into an information decision tree

based on the diverse perspectives provided by the participants; and a discussion of the

results in terms of the literature and methodology.

Interview Methodology

An interview has been described as a conversation with a purpose (Lincoln and

Guba, 1985; Fowler and Mangione, 1990). Definitively, it may be construed as a

beforehand planned goal oriented action. It is flexible, allows specification and is better

suited to explore emotional and personal matters than a questionnaire (Everett &

Boydell, 1994). The method also allows the researcher to better understand the reasons

for migration from the perspective of the migrant (Patton, 1987). The key aim of these

interviews was to discover possible reasons why migrants left the United Kingdom and

decided to settle in Australia. It acknowledged that the migrant has their own

perspective on their reasons for migrating and there is an assumption "that the

perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit"(Patton,

1990, p.278).

A semi-structured interview was used to gain information during this stage.

This involved preparing a short interview guide with questions to probe the subject and

topic areas which the researcher then explored in depth with each participant (Patton,

1987). The interview guide serves as a checklist to ensure that all the topics were

covered during the interview. The advantages of this type of interview is that the

researcher is able to be responsive to individual differences, makes optimal use of the

time available, produces a focus for the interview yet allows for individual's

experiences to emerge (Patton). A disadvantage of the interview is that one to one

interviews are time consuming and may be subject to the skills and biases of the

researcher. Therefore, the interviewer needs to be careful not to impose their own

interpretations on the respondent's answers nor to phrase questions that may be

misinterpreted.

As stage one of this research was essentially exploratory, there is an argument

for using a semi-structured interview rather than a predesigned structured instrument

which may limit the researcher as well as overlooking important phenomena if they are

not represented in the instrument (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Rigid interview

schedules may also deny the researcher the opportunity of investigating the context of

the research. It is the acknowledgment of the context which differentiates this

qualitative research from the traditional theoretical approaches (Wicker, 1989). Wicker

emphasised the need for identifying the substantive domain (context) as this would

determine the type of methodology appropriate for understanding the phenomenon

under investigation. This research follows the suggestion where the concept of

migration was chosen first and semi-structured interviews were considered as the most

appropriate methodology to initially explore that domain.

Qualitative semi-structured interviews

Method

Participants

There were two groups of respondents for this study. The first group consisted

of 22 participants who were recruited in Western Australia through the technique of

snowballing or chain sampling. There were 12 males and 10 females, whose age ranged

from 25-52 years (mean age = 36.9 years, $\underline{SD}$ = 6.42).

The second group of 19 participants was recruited in the United Kingdom from

the Greater London area. All these participants had already obtained their visas for

migration to Australia, but had not yet left the United Kingdom. There were 10 males

and 9 females, whose age ranged from 27-48 years (mean age = 32.3 years, $\underline{SD}$ = 5.28).

Prior to each interview, participants in both groups were informed about the

purpose of their participation, the nature of the inquiry and the intended use of the

information. All participants were assured confidentiality and anonymity of their input

and were instructed that they may withdraw from the interview at any stage.

Instrument

After a contact person granted access, the primary means for data collection were individual interviews. The interview schedule served as a semi-structured guide, and additional probes were developed according to the nature of the responses and experiences described by the participants (see Appendix 1). The interview guide was developed so that the same information would be ascertained from each participant. The instrument consisted of five main issues which included why the participant decided to leave the United Kingdom, whether they had considered migrating to any other countries besides Australia, names of those countries if relevant, the reasons that attracted them to Australia, and whether they had ever visited Australia prior to immigrating. Participants were also asked demographic questions about age, marital status, education, occupation, length of residence at the place of origin and in Australia.

Procedure

Both groups of participants were recruited using a snowball method of sampling which allowed for divergence of the sample (Patton, 1990). The approach permitted accumulating a sample of respondents by first contacting people who may be key informants or well known to the researcher. These participants were initially identified by asking the questions: "Who knows a lot about...? Who should I talk to?" (Patton, 1990). Once initial participants were identified, they were asked to recommend other U.K. migrants who might be able to assist with the research. Through this technique more people were subsequently identified and interviewed. Interviews were conducted until the researcher had reached saturation point and no new information was forthcoming.

In the United Kingdom, a male researcher trained in interviewing techniques was recruited through the University of London. This researcher initially identified five

potential migrants living in London all of whom were personally known to the

researcher. Through a snowball method of sampling, these participants recommended

other migrants who were willing to assist with the research. Again interviews were

conducted until no new information was forthcoming.

Comments from the interviews from both groups were recorded verbatim and

each interview took between 30 and 45 minutes.

Ethical Considerations

The ethics committee of Edith Cowan University approved this research with the

stipulation that the following ethical procedures were implemented.

1.   Participants were guaranteed that confidentiality and anonymity would be

maintained at all times.

2.   Prior to each interview, participants in both groups were informed about the

purpose of their participation, the nature of the inquiry and the intended use of the

information.

3.   Participants were advised that they could refuse to take part in the research

without penalty. They could also decline to answer any question and withdraw from the

study at any stage.

Analysis of the Data

The interview guide served as a conceptual framework for analysing the content

of the interviews (Patton, 1990). Responses to each exploratory interview were

reviewed systematically to identify all the comments relating to the reasons for

migration and why they chose Australia as their place of destination. Comments from

different participants were grouped together and a cross-case analysis was then

performed. This meant that information was gathered together (Merriam, 1988). All

these answers were then transcribed onto separate cards. There were 30 cards that were

then sorted by the researcher into similar content categories (e.g., economic factors, weather, language). In order to sort the cards into appropriate categories, the cards were then given to 12 people who belonged to a university research group. They were asked to independently sort the information into groups and to give each group a label.

When this process was completed, in order to determine inter-rater reliability 10 other independent investigators (staff and students from the School of Psychology) reviewed the categories. These people were aware of the thesis topic and the overall purpose of the study, but there was no discussion as to particular areas of interest by the researcher. Agreement was reached on the content categories, and the final concerns were arrived at by consensus. This process yielded nine main categories or themes with some containing sub-categories. Categories were reviewed for clarity by five additional staff at the university. In this manner six trees were developed (see Appendix 2) which were further analysed. These six trees were developed by the staff and students of the School of Psychology and were agreed upon as the most representative of the various categories. From these initial six trees, three trees (see Appendix 3) were chosen which were deemed representative of the information thus far. The trees were then shown to the original interviewees to determine whether they were representative of what they had verbalised during the interview. A consensus was obtained from each interviewee and one tree was chosen as the most representative (see Figure 6.1). This information tree used the nine main identified themes or categories as the basic analytic structure (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986). Each category represented a potential factor that may be considered in the migration process.

- Language

- Climate

- Politics ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Democracy

  Stability

  Racism

- Children ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Better life for children

  Better opportunities for the children

  Better education for the children

- Social networks ⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Friends

  Family

- Knowledge of the community ⎯⟶ Expatriate

- Environment ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Crowding

  Pollution

  Traffic

  CBD

  Distances in the city

- Economic ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Jobs

  Housing

- Open spaces ⎯⎯⎯⎯⟶ Beaches

  Parks
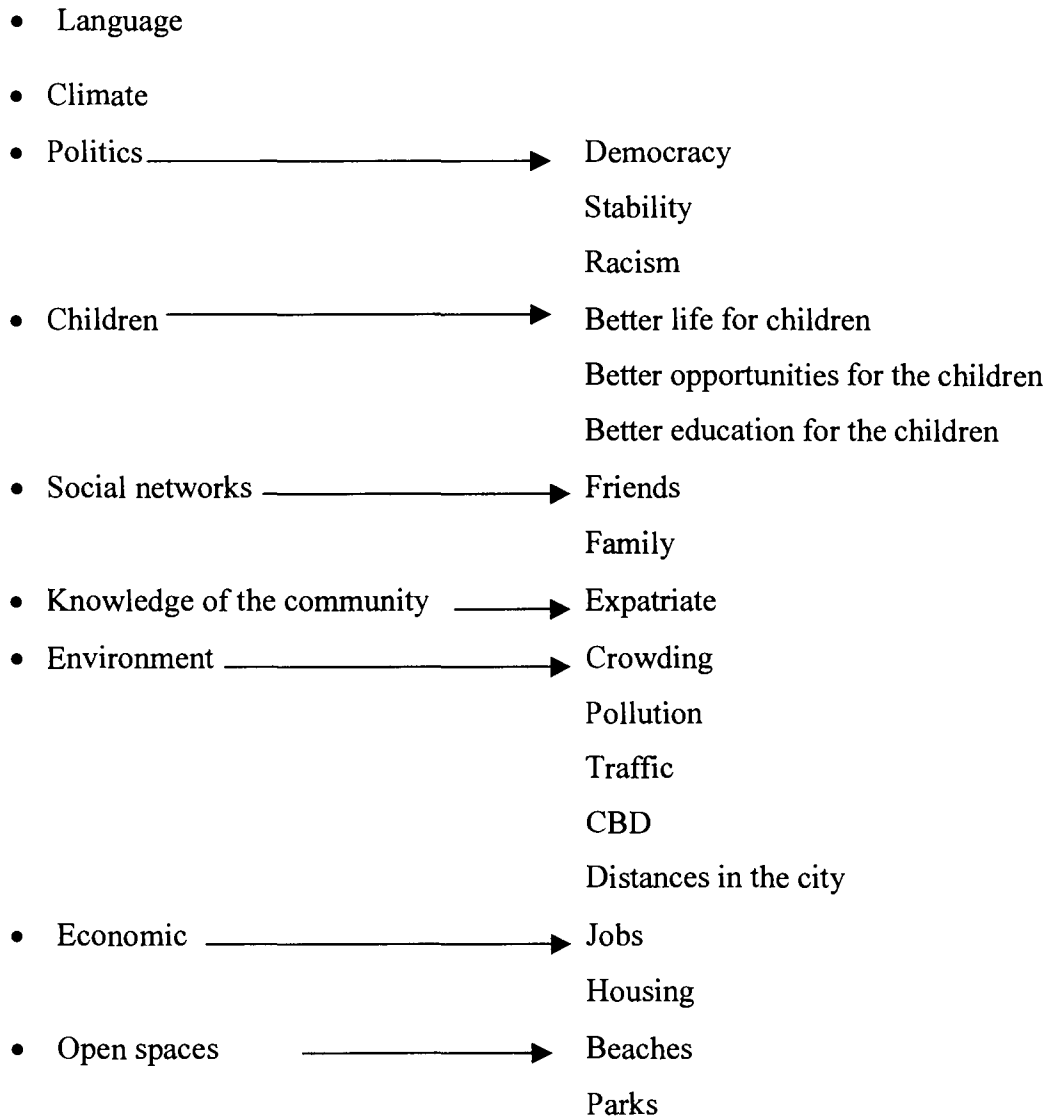
Figure 6.1 Generalised information decision tree for United Kingdom migrants

Results

The results section details the preliminary information obtained from the participants. It describes how the information may be ordered into broad categories and specific dimensions to illustrate possible reasons for the migration decision process. The following categories represent those used in developing the information trees.

Language

An area that was identified as being very important and was always mentioned as an exclusive entity was language. Almost every participant interviewed touched upon this factor. For example, participants who may have considered moving elsewhere where the official language was not English, such as Spanish, suggested that: *"language was going to be a problem, and we wanted to move somewhere where they spoke English"*. This was reinforced by other comments such as:

"We wanted to move where we didn't have the added problem of the language barrier"

"We decided to choose a place where they at least spoke English so that was one less thing we had to worry about".

These comments illustrate the importance of language to the migrant when considering a destination.

Climate

Dissatisfaction with the climate in the United Kingdom appeared to be an important precursor to a participant's desire to move. This was well illustrated by the comments:

"The climate in Australia is pretty good compared to where we came from".

Some participants who had considered other places might have eliminated them as a potential destination because of the weather. This is suggested by the remarks:

"If we were going to move, we certainly weren't going to consider a place like Canada, the climate didn't appeal to us very much. We may as well have stayed where we were". Respondents suggested that climate was a significant factor in the decision to move.

"We decided the winters in London were getting worse and we had had enough of getting snowed in, not being able to get the car out. Do you know what that's like, day in and day out."

"The weather was getting the family down. We had some awful winters and it was enough. We never came for economic reasons but for the weather".

"The climate in Perth really appealed to us. At least we have a decent summer here".

"I decided that I had had enough of London especially its weather. Came on holiday to Australia and the weather really appealed to me except that it rained quite a lot in Sydney".

Politics

Expressions of democracy, stability of the country and racism were placed under the general heading of politics.

"We felt that Australia was the furthest away from it all and Australia isn't embroiled in political turmoil." Comments also included the perception that Australia was democratic.

"Australia is one of the few countries where there is a true democracy. That's very rare you know".

Perceived racism was also raised by participants.

"My wife wanted to leave the country as she thought it was becoming too racist".

Children

Issues relevant to children were particularly emphasised by most participants. This was also true of participants who had not yet had a family, indicating that they were concerned about these factors.

"We decided that London was not the place for children. It was very difficult and competitive and we wanted to make sure the kids had every opportunity".

Respondents were concerned about numerous factors relating to the children. The first quote illustrates the idea that Australia offered a better life and opportunity for the children. The following illustrates general concern for the children.

"The U.K. is going to the dogs. If you can't afford to live in a decent area, then the children just grow up and everything starts again. It's really hard for them to get away from it all. We decided we had to try for the sake of the children".

"London is so overcrowded who'd want your children growing up there. "

Respondents who didn't have children indicated that:

"We made up our minds that before we had children we should try and move and give our kids a better chance".

Education was also considered.

"Our only regret is that we never came years ago. The boys have a wonderful education here and university is affordable, not like back in the U.K. ".

Social Networks

Factors such as the presence of friends and relatives in the chosen place appear to be significant when considering moving between countries. There is the possibility that people contemplate moving to a place because of contact with friends or relatives already living in the country. Some participants indicated that they had come for a holiday to visit friends and then decided to move to Australia.

"We had some good friends who moved to Perth about 2 years before and they kept sending us glowing reports of how well they were doing. They made us so jealous, sending us pictures. We came for a holiday to visit them and see what this place was really like. We were so impressed we decided this was it. And here we are. "

Another respondent came on holiday without knowing anyone.

"Came to Brisbane, Melbourne, Sydney and Perth. Met a lot of fellow Britons when on holiday and made some good friends. Went back to London and applied for a visa with no problems."

"I had cousins living in Sydney and Perth. I went to Sydney first but my aunt in Perth said I should come and visit her before settling down in Sydney. I never went back. I'm still in Perth."

Knowledge of the community

Participants expressed the idea that they felt more comfortable in the knowledge that there was an expatriate community living in Australia. They suggested that this would provide a source of information and comfort if they were ever in need.

"We had been told that there were a large number of Britons in Australia, so we thought it might make life easier".

"When we were out here for a holiday, we met some fellow Britons, and they said we should come and live here as there were so many of us already here. That's when we realised just how big the community was".

"We knew there was a large British contingent out here and we knew a few people through mutual contacts".

"Knowing there were so many of us here, made it much easier to settle down"

Environment

There were a number of environmental issues that were of interest to the migrants. The problem of crowding in the larger cities of the United Kingdom was a point of debate. For example:

"Perth was small compared to the number of people in London. There weren't even that many people in the streets. It was fantastic."

Other participants suggested that:

"*You can walk in the streets without getting bumped all the time. Quite a new experience for me*".

"*We wanted to move somewhere where they spoke English and it wasn't overcrowded*".

"*We went with some friends to Kings Park for a picnic and that really made up my mind for me. It was just so peaceful without the hustle and bustle of the big city*".

Pollution was another environmental question raised through the interviews.

"*You should just see how much smog there is in London. It is filthy, just a big, great, dirty city.*"

"*When we landed in Perth it looked like such a new city with clean rivers and blue skies.*"

"*We loved the place especially the parks that we noticed were every few streets.*"

Another theme that emerged was the concern for traffic on the roads. Participants highlighted the point that in the United Kingdom the traffic was very dense and there were too many cars on the roads. Comments included that in Perth:

"*…also there weren't so many cars on the road and distances weren't so great.*"

This topic was linked with distance especially that it seemed to take a shorter time to travel longer distances in Australia.

"*All that traffic and it takes all day to get from one place to another. It used to drive me mad and we really didn't want to live like that*".

"*It was wonderful that we didn't have to travel 2 hours to get to work.*"

"*I enjoyed the freedom and being able to get places by car.*"

"*You know what I really like about it here, there aren't so many cars on the road and the distances aren't so great*".

"We really like going into the city, at least you can walk around there and breathe at the same time, it's a fantastic feeling".

Economic Issues

These issues emerged from the interviews and were considered significant by all participants. This section included economic factors that related to the concepts of employment and housing.

"Of course I had to be able to work in Australia and I had no problem because of my experience with the travel industry".

"We came here because my friend could organise me a job in a men's clothing store. We had no problems getting a visa and we love the lifestyle here. It's so casual."

"Perth was one of the few place which offered me the chance of a job."

Participants commented that the housing in Australia appeared to be affordable and offered them a chance to improve their standard of living.

"The house we have here we could never have afforded in London. We're so lucky here to be able to afford all this."

"I couldn't wait to get into a house. We had been living in a small flat on a housing estate and we would never have been able to get such a lovely house, and with such big grounds."

Another participant commented:

"I had a lovely home in London, but everything is so cramped. Here I have a house with space and room for the kids to each have their own room. They even have a games room to play in".

Open Spaces

The abundance of open spaces with concern for outdoor activities raised

questions about the presence of beaches and parks within Australia. Examples of

comments that emerged from this section included the following:

"If I was going to leave London it would be for a nice quiet lifestyle where there'll be

all the amenities of a big city, but with a nice lifestyle. Also it was such a pretty town

with a real emphasis on outdoor living and sport. My wife and I love golf. What more

could you ask for?"

"Every square had a park. Big open spaces. A lot had play stuff for the kids to play

with, slides and climbing things, you know."

"The sand was white, no oil like I'm used to seeing all the time. Beautiful white sand,

warm water, it's fantastic. The kids love going to the beach. We try and go every day

in summer".

"This is the best place on earth. Look at all the country, the beaches the areas where

you can go and walk and cycle. Not to mention that we can afford to live in a decent

house here, not one of those semis we would have lived in for the rest of our lives."

"We live along the beach and we couldn't live like this anywhere else in the world".

"Perth has ideal living conditions such as climate, friendly people and it has big parks

and lots of bushland as we love to go camping. We certainly wouldn't consider moving

from here now".

Discussion

The above discussion illustrates the themes that emerged from the preliminary

interviews. These themes were organised into an information decision tree (see Figure

5.1). This enabled the researcher to organise the categories into a framework that better represented the possible reasons for the migration decision.

Study one of this research represents stage one of the research as suggested by Brinberg and McGrath (1985). This is the prestudy phase where the foundations of the research are laid (Drew, 1997). As indicated by Dokecki (1992) the scope of inquiry of this stage were qualitative semi-structured interviews that served as a starting point to investigate the domain of migrant decision making. The results of the interviews supported the notion that the variables suggested by the participants were representative of those identified in the literature. However, some approaches to conceptualise the migration process have emphasised economic factors as being more significant than other factors, such as personal reasons (Liaw & Kanaroglou, 1986). The concept behind these economic approaches has been the notion that people migrate to better their financial circumstances. This means that people will migrate only when the economic advantages at the destination place are better than at the place of origin (Zlotnick, 1992). This was not reflected in the results of this study.

However, a related approach has been that people migrate because of "push" or "pull" factors (Glick, 1993). For example, people move away from areas which are overcrowded or overpopulated and move to areas where the economic situation is more appealing (Yaukey, 1985). Participants in this study did mention that these factors might have played a part in the migration decision-making process. The literature identified other factors for moving such as better prospects for the children (Luthke & Cropley, 1990) which was emphasised by many of the participants. There might be many variables which promote migration such as family ties, social network systems, preferences for climate and recreation (Cuba, 1991). These were suggested as possible significant factors in this study.

Caution must also be used when interpreting the failure to elicit all the different approaches as suggested by the literature. For example, changes in life cycle were not suggested as a reason for migration (Plane, 1993; Hoggart & Buller, 1995; Uhlenberg, 1995). On the other hand, additional reasons were stressed by the participants such as 'quality of life issues', which have not been emphasised in the literature but rather discussed in terms of expected benefits of the proposed migration (Bailey, 1993). One reason for this could be that much of the research examining migration decision making has not involved direct interviews with the migrants, but relied on census data or the Annual Housing Survey in the USA (Cushing, 1993). It may be reasonable to conclude that this direct interview approach to determine the reasons for migration may have been more inclusive. The responses could be accepted as reliable as interviews were conducted with migrants already living in Australia as well as those who had not yet migrated. It may be plausible to suggest that as interviews were conducted with migrants until no new factors emerged from the discussions. These factors adequately represented the reasons for the migrant decision in this group. The results may indicate that the factors that contribute to the decision to migrate may apply to this group of migrants whereas one might suppose that there might be alternative reasons for a different group.

Summary and conclusions

The overall aims of this stage of the research were firstly, to explore possible reasons why migrants left the United kingdom to settle in Australia and secondly, to develop an information decision tree which would provide the basis for the development of a questionnaire which would allow further study of the different variables.

Interviews of 41 migrants yielded 30 potential factors that contributed to the decision to move from the United Kingdom to Australia. The list of 30 factors was systematically organised to produce an information decision tree with ten main categories and different subcategories. The largest proportion of factors mentioned related to language, climate and children, followed by employment opportunities and environmental issues.

The approach adopted in this research informed the researcher about the decision making process and increased the knowledge base in the area. It was an exploratory stage that gathered information to be used in a further stage of the research. The following experimental study used the factors identified in this study to investigate the significance of these factors.

CHAPTER 7

Study 2: Experimental Design

Aims of the chapter

The purpose of this study is to use an experimental design in which participants judge the likelihood of migrating to various hypothetical countries. The researcher may gain insight into the relative importance of these factors to the migration decision making process as well as determine significant combinations of the attributes. The study also allows for an evaluation of linear models to determine whether they are an adequate representation of the judgments.

Overview

The previous study determined those factors that were most important to the migration-decision process. These were identified empirically using semi-structured interviews with two groups of participants: the first group were respondents who had already migrated to Australia from the United Kingdom, the second group were people who were in possession of their visas to migrate to Australia but had not yet left the United Kingdom.

The results of study one indicated that there were nine main categories or themes and 18 sub-categories and each represented a potential factor that may be considered in the migration process. The main themes were language, climate, politics, children, social networks, knowledge of the community, environment, economic issues and open spaces. These categories together with their sub-categories were retained as the basis for study two as they represented the possible reasons for the migration decision. These were then clustered into ten factors as the categories for two of the themes naturally fell into their own factors. They were represented by the following:

1. Language
2. Politics
3. Life and education offered to children
4. Family or friends
5. Community from the United Kingdom
6. Climate
7. Employment opportunities
8. Housing
9. Open spaces
10. Environment

The migration literature has offered different reasons as to why people migrate voluntarily and "historically" has concentrated on economic factors (Graves, 1979; Roseman, 1983; Kontuly, Smith & Heaton, 1995). The importance of noneconomic factors in migration and the destination selection process is only being realised now. Many studies have showed an increase in migrants to an area because of weather (Kincaid & Yum, 1987; Hoggart & Buller, 1995), language (Ziegler, 1980) and quality of life issues (Porell, 1982; Greenwood, 1985), therefore indicating the significance of these factors in migration decision-making. Other studies have shown the importance of social relationships such as the existence of family and friends at the destination place (Gustavus & Brown, 1977; Williams & McMillen, 1983) which may influence decision-making. Also, migrants may be attracted to different countries because of previous experience such as vacations (Brown, Malecki and Philliber, 1977; Hazelrigg & Hardy, 1995; Hoggart & Buller, 1995). The existence of a similar community at a destination place may also contribute to the decision to move (Litwak, 1960; Choldin, 1973).

Many of these studies suggested that these factors played a part in the migration decision, although it has been difficult to separate their significance from the influence of other factors in the migration decision (Pampel Levin, Louviere, Meyer & Rushton, 1984). As has been discussed previously, much of the information on migration has been inferred from census data and therefore from aggregate knowledge on migration. For example, Beale and Fuiguitt (1978) analysed the number of people moving from urban to rural areas. A large number of people had moved in this direction and they inferred that this movement was because they preferred the rural way of life. Another example was provided by Rosenbaum and Buttons (1989) who investigated the number of people who moved to the sunbelt of the USA such as Florida. He presumed that

people moved to these areas because they enjoyed a warmer climate. The problem with these studies was that inferences were made from aggregate data and indirect conclusions were drawn. Subsequently some researchers interviewed migrants about the factors that were important to their decision to move (Williams & Sofranko, 1979; McCarthy & Morrison, 1977). Other researchers (Golant, 1982) have suggested using a more direct method for determining which factors are significant in the migration decision.

Human judgment research is an area that may provide insight into migration decision making. The use of this technique is that "A subject makes a judgment regarding each of a series of cue profiles; these judgments are then regressed on the cues in order to derive a weighted linear composite which represents (captures) the subject's method (policy) for combining cue information into a judgment" (Cooksey, 1996, p.57).

This technique has been used in areas such as residential choice and transportation use (Levin & Louviere, 1981; Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). It has also been applied in the area of retirement migration but not to the general area of international migration (Pampel et al. 1984).

As described in Chapter 4, Judgment analysis has been used to describe policy capturing methodology (Cooksey, 1996), and is always aimed at the ideographic level and used mainly in areas where people make judgments about familiar problems. In a judgment task, some attributes may be considered more favourably than others. The linear model has been used to account for the weights of the values of the attributes. Multiple regression has been used as a way of producing a statistical model to represent an individual's judgment. A detailed description of this process can be found in Chapter 4.

The decision making approach adopted in this research viewed the decision to migrate as well as the choice of a destination place as a combination of the different factors that were determined in the previous study. The research question was to determine how migrants consider these different attributes in the decision to migrate. Study one identified the salient factors that influence migration decision-making. This study used a controlled experimental design to investigate the significance of these factors.

When individuals make the decision to move it is assumed that they consider all the available alternative destinations. Each destination has a series of attributes that the individual may consider important relative to that place. Research needs to determine how migrants incorporate the different factors to form an overall judgment. The concept behind this technique is that if combinations of the different levels of the factors are presented to the participants, one may be able to determine how migrants combine these factors when evaluating a potential destination place.

Experimental Design

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 20 (11 Female, 9 Male) migrants from the United Kingdom who had not been in Australia longer than five years and less than 18 months. They were recommended by participants from study one and were not known personally to the researcher. The mean age of participants was 37.4 years (SD = 4.2).

Materials

A set of 100 hypothetical migration destinations were developed using the UnixStat utilities (Pearlman, 1986). A copy of the case may be found in Appendix 4. One hundred and twenty cards measuring 12cm by 6cm were produced. A sample card is provided in Figure 7.1. A number in the top left-hand corner of each card identified the hypothetical country. The extra 20 cards were identical to the first 20 cards but numbered differently. The ten factors previously identified were listed on each card. These factors were constructed so that the cue intercorrelations were approximately zero. The correlation matrix for all ten cues is presented in Table 7.1. For example, the correlations range between a low of -.08 and a high of .20. The majority of the correlations are less than 0.1 and this was sufficiently low to reduce any problems associated with multicollinearity to acceptable levels (Cooksey, 1996). For each factor there were two levels. For politics, life and education offered to children, climate, employment opportunities, housing, open spaces and the environment, either "very good" or "very poor" was used. For community from the United Kingdom, either "present or "absent" was applied. For family or friends, "none" or "many" were utilised. For language, either "English" or "Not English" was adopted.

Table 7.1

Correlations between attributes

Variables	Language	Politics	Children	Family/ Friends	Community From U.K.	Climate	Employment	Housing	Open Spaces	Environ- ment
Politics	-0.10									
Children	-0.08	0.10								
Family/ Friends	-0.15	-0.04	0.10							
Community From U.K.	-0.05	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03						
Climate	-0.04	0.10	-0.00	0.14	-0.01					
Employment	0.06	-0.04	0.06	0.08	0.10	0.10				
Housing	0.06	0.08	-0.02	0.08	-0.06	0.10	0.20			
Open Spaces	-0.00	0.18	-0.04	0.02	0.04	0.08	0.02	0.02		
Environment	0.02	-0.12	-0.03	0.03	-0.11	-0.11	0.12	-0.12	0.14	1.00
Cue Mean	0.47	0.48	0.47	0.46	0.45	0.47	0.48	0.52	0.49	0.46
Cue SD	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50

4.

Language	English
Politics	Very Good
Life and education offered to children	Very Good
Family or friends	None
Community from the U.K.	Absent
Climate	Very Good
Employment opportunities	Very Poor
Housing	Very Poor
Open spaces	Very Poor
Environment	Very Poor

Figure 7.1 Copy of card for hypothetical country four

Procedure

After an introductory contact with participants, the details of the study and the

experiment were explained. If respondents agreed to participate in the experiment, arrangements

were made to meet them in their homes. Permission was obtained from the participants and all

signed the required ethics form (see Appendix 5). Participants were guaranteed that

confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained at all times. They were advised that they

could refuse to take part in the research without penalty. They could also decline to participate

in any part of the procedure. They could withdraw at any stage.

Participants were presented with 120 cards. They were asked to sort all the cards into ten

piles. The piles were to range from countries where they would be least likely to migrate,

through to countries where they would be most likely to migrate. As there were a large number

of cases to be sorted, Stewart (1988) recommended the following procedure be adopted.

Participants sorted 50 cases followed by a break of 10 to 15 minutes. This was followed by the

next 50 cases followed by another break of 10 minutes. This was followed by 20 repeated cases from the first 50. All judges required less than 2 hours to complete the task.

Results

The research question concerned which attributes were the most important in the decision to migrate. In order to answer this question, correlations and multiple regression were employed to determine which attributes or linear combination of attributes were most important in migration decision-making.

Multiple linear regression was performed in which the rating of the country (i.e., the pile into which the country was sorted) was the dependent variable and the ten attributes for each hypothetical country were the independent variables. All the analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows.

To evaluate the assumptions of regression, the guidelines outlined in Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) and Cooksey (1996) were followed. The data were examined for univariate outliers by examining standardised scores and histograms. Cases with standardised scores in excess of ± 3.00 were considered potential outliers. The following outliers were identified and presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2

Identified Scores for Potential Outliers

Participant	Case Number	Standardised Score
1	80	4.6585
	99	4.8235
2	97	4.8789
4	50	3.2955
	80	5.0199
7	69	4.8668
9	49	3.1362
12	4	3.1581
13	44	3.6313
14	45	3.9707
	91	4.3562
15	40	5.0316
16	80	4.8740
	99	3.7025
17	86	6.4306

Cooksey (1996) suggested that it would be valid to query the judgments made on these profiles but that further investigation was required before a decision was made as to the validity or deletion of that judgement from further calculations. He proposed that in addition to examining the studentised deleted residuals, leverage values be computed. Leverage is an indicator used to measure the amount of influence of a profile of cue values. Judd and McClelland (1989) proposed that values exceeding 0.2 should be examined if the number of cue profiles being examined exceeds 30. In this study participants judged 100 profiles. Although the cases mentioned above were initially identified as outliers, examination of the leverage values

for each case suggested that 'the cue values themselves exerted no undue leverage on the

regression process" (Cooksey, 1996, p.197). No transformation of the data took place.

Mahalanobis' distance ($p<.001$) identified no multivariate outliers. Univariate normality,

linearity and homoscedasticity were established by examining residual scatterplots (see

Appendix 6). Multivariate normality was also checked through standardised residuals (see

Appendix 7). The results of the multiple regression should be interpreted with caution. No cases

had missing data.

Table 7.3 illustrates the standardised regression coefficients (β), multiple correlation

coefficient (R) and the variance accounted for by the model (R^2) for all the participants. If one

examines the R^2 in the table, participants 8 and 10 had values of .22 and .26 respectively which is

very low. A low value was found in participant five (.31). This means that for these participants

the linear model doesn't account for much of the variance. This is in contrast to participant three

with a value of .96 and for whom the linear model accounted for most of the variance. For the

majority of the participants, the R^2 values indicated that the linear model did account for a

reasonable amount of the variance.

If one now examines the β weights, they give an indication of which cues were the most

important. This varies for each participant but for the majority of participants, language and a

better life and education were significant factors, followed by employment opportunities and

climate. The presence of a community from the U.K. and the environment were significant for

only one participant. Interestingly for participant three, most of the factors were significant

except for the presence of family and friends and the presence of a community from the U.K.

Participant eight only had one significant factor that was language. This is not surprising, as the

R^2 was only .22, so either the decision process is not well modeled by a linear model, or there is a

lot of random variation in the decision process. For the majority of participants at least three or four of the factors were significant.

The test-retest reliability of the participants was examined. This provided some measure of the adequacy of the linear model as a model of the decision process. If, for instance, the test retest reliability of a participant were high, but the variance accounted for by the linear model were low, this would suggest that there is a consistent process driving the decision making, but this process is not well modeled by a linear model.

Table 7.3

Standard Multiple Regression of the Ten Attributes for each Participant

| | Cues | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | β | | | | | | | | | | R² | R |
Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	.67***	.03	.22**	.05	.03	.33***	.10	.07	.05	-.05	.62	.79
2	.84***	.02	.25***	-.05	.05	.15**	-.01	.07	.01	-.03	.77	.88
3	.86***	.13***	.13***	-.01	.03	.17***	.19***	.17***	.16***	.15***	.96	.98
4	.53***	-.01	.39***	-.08	-.02	.23**	.12	.15	.12	-.01	.56	.75
5	.13	-.13	.18*	.16	.47***	.06	-.09	-.03	.08	.01	.31	.55
6	-.04	.59***	.27***	-.02	.05	.00	.51***	.01	.04	.02	.73	.86
7	.40***	.10	.01	.78***	.14*	.01	-.01	.11	-.16**	.04	.71	.84
8	.36***	.14	.17	.02	-.03	-.13	-.11	-.16	.04	-.03	.22	.47
9	.17*	.41***	.34***	.21**	.04	-.01	.13	-.08	.03	-.11	.46	.68
10	.31**	.15	.30**	.04	.04	.08	.06	.05	-.05	-.17	.26	.51
11	.59***	.15	.23**	.05	-.09	-.05	.02	-.05	.32***	.00	.53	.73
12	.87***	.05	.12**	.07	-.03	.01	.30***	.05	.00	.02	.89	.94
13	.81***	.05	.16***	.07	-.03	-.03	.33***	.09*	.06	.04	.84	.92
14	.72***	.06	.28***	.08	-.07	-.02	.40***	.14**	.07	.03	.84	.92
15	.24***	.04	.03	.06	.00	.09	.81***	-.04	-.07	-.07	.77	.88
16	.70***	.01	.40***	.18**	-.01	.07	.07	.11	.04	-.04	.67	.82
17	.89***	.01	.25***	.04	.01	.12**	.03	.06	.07	-.07	.85	.92
18	.87***	-.06	.04	.07	.03	.15***	.27***	.01	.00	-.05	.88	.94
19	.03	-.02	.50***	.58***	.03	.16**	.06	.01	.02	-.05	.71	.84
20	.76***	-.08	.21***	.12*	.02	.09	.33***	.08	.02	-.03	.79	.89

*p<.05   **p<.01   ***p<.001

Note: Cue 1=Language; Cue 2=Politics; Cue 3=Better life and education for children; Cue 4=Presence of family or friends; Cue 5=Community from the United Kingdom; Cue 6= Climate; Cue 7= Employment opportunities; Cue 8=Housing; Cue 9=Open spaces; Cue 10= Environment

Table 7.4 shows the test-retest reliability of the participants i.e., the correlations for each participant between the first 20 cards and the last 20 cards that were repeated.

Table 7.4

Test-retest reliability of each participant i.e., scores of the first 20 stimuli and the last 20 stimuli.

Participant		R^2
1	.99	.98
2	.88	.77
3	.97	.94
4	.95	.90
5	.85	.72
6	.96	.92
7	.97	.94
8	.76	.58
9	.97	.94
10	.96	.92
11	.77	.59
12	.96	.92
13	.97	.94
14	.96	.92
15	.95	.90
16	.83	.69
17	.97	.94
18	.97	.94
19	.94	.88
20	.97	.94

These participants have very high test-retest reliability, which varies from .76 to .99.

The variance that is accounted for in the second test by the first test is given by the square of

the correlation coefficient (i.e., r^2). Thus the variance accounted for by participants' results

on the first occasion accounted for 59% to 98% of the variance of scores on the second

occasion.

As Table 7.4 illustrates, most of the participants have a high test-retest reliability.

Table 7.3 indicates the variance in the participant's judgment. As some of the variance is

unexplained, an examination was made to determine whether there was a significant

difference between the multiple R and the test retest correlation coefficient for each

participant at the 95% confidence level (Edwards, 1954). Correlation coefficients were

transformed into z-scores and the standard deviation for each z score was calculated. This

provided the researcher with the upper and lower bounds for the 95% interval for the

correlation coefficient. Examination of these levels indicated that there was a significant

difference between the multiple R and the test retest correlation for six participants, namely,

participants number 1, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 10 (the results are presented in Table 7.5). This means

that for those participants, there is a significant proportion of the variance that is not

explained by the linear model, but is not error variance. This is surprising because according

to other studies using the linear model, they account for all but a small proportion of the

explainable variance.

Table 7.5

Relationship between the Multiple R and Test Retest Correlation for each Participant at the 95% confidence level

Participant	Multiple R	95%Confidence Levels	Test Retest Correlation	95%Confidence Levels
1	.79	.70, .97	.99	.85, .99*
2	.88	.83, .72	.88	.91, .95
3	.98	.97, .92	.97	.99, .98
4	.75	.65, .87	.95	.83, .98*
5	.55	.40, .65	.85	.67, .93*
6	.86	.80, .90	.96	.90, .98
7	.84	.77, .92	.97	.89, .98*
8	.47	.30, .48	.76	.61, .90
9	.68	.56, .92	.97	.77, .98*
10	.51	.35, .90	.96	.64, .98*
11	.73	.62, .50	.77	.81, .90
12	.94	.91, .90	.96	.96, .98
13	.92	.88, .92	.97	.95, .98
14	.92	.88, .90	.96	.95, .98
15	.88	.83, .88	.95	.92, .98
16	.82	.74, .61	.83	.88, .93
17	.92	.88, .92	.97	.95, .98
18	.94	.91, .92	.97	.96, .98
19	.84	.77, .85	.94	.89, .98
20	.89	.86, .92	.97	.93, .98

*$p < .05$

Discussion

This methodology was used to establish the significance of the different cues because it enabled the researcher to look at the way each participant combined the different cues. Through the use of this experimental technique, the researcher was able to determine the most significant factors in the decision to migrate. Table 7.3 indicates an overall result for all the participants in the study. The goal of using multiple regression for capturing the judgment for each participant is to produce a linear equation "which optimally weights each cue in terms of its predictive contribution to the judgment" (Cooksey, 1996, p. 160). Each

participant exhibited different patterns and the judgment policies are reported here on an individual basis. This means that by using beta weights it was possible to determine the importance of the various factors to individual respondents. However, as linear models were the methodology used, it was interesting to determine whether these linear models adequately reflected the judgment process of the participants. If there was a non-linear process operating, then the linear model will not explain this process and there may be serious deviations from this model for some participants. The next step was to determine whether the judges differed in preferences for the different factors.

It appeared that language was a significant factor for each participant except for participants 5, 6 and 19. A better life and education for the children was significant for 15 of the participants. The next most frequently cited factor was employment opportunities ($n=8$) followed by climate ($n=7$), the presence of family and friends ($n=5$), housing ($n=4$), open spaces ($n=3$), politics ($n=83$), community from the United Kingdom ($n=2$) and the environment ($n=1$).

If one examines the combination of these factors, language and a better life and education for the children were both important factors for 13 of the participants. Climate was often seen in combination with these two factors ($n=6$). Only in participant 19 was climate combined with family and friends and better life and education for children. The combination of language and climate was seen in participants 1, 2, 3, 4, 17 and 18. A better life and education was also significant for these participants except for number 18. Employment opportunities, which ranked as the third most frequent significant factor for participants was found in combination with language and better life and education in participants 3, 12, 13, 14 and 20. If it wasn't significant with this combination then it was

found in combination with better life for children (participant 6 and 18) or language (participant 15). Family and friends was ranked first as significant by participants 7 and 19. It was also significant for participants 9, 16 and 20. However, if one examines the Beta weights of this cue in the other participants, the value of these weights is similar for most participants varying from .05 to .07 for six other participants.

Housing as a significant factor was always found in combination with language and better life for children as seen in participants 3, 4, 13 and 14. On examination of the beta weights for participant 3, it appears that the difference in value between housing, open spaces, environment, and politics is small and ranges from .16 to .15. Similarly for participant 4, the difference in value between housing, open spaces and employment opportunities are .03. A similar result may be seen in participants 13 and 14 where the difference between housing and other cues is very small. Although these other factors were not found to be significant in the regression, it must be realised that with such a small difference between the beta weights there was not such a marked difference between the different factors.

Two participants numbers 6 and 9 with beta weights of .58 and .40 ranked the factor of politics first respectively. Although politics was significant for participant number 3, the beta weight was .13, which was not significantly different from other factors such as politics and the environment. On examination of the beta weights of other participants, it appears that numbers 8 (β=.13), 10 (β=.14), and 11 (β=.14), all have similar beta weights for politics as participant number 3, yet they were not significant. Although it is important to determine which factors were significant for each participant, it is also important to examine the beta weights.

Open spaces was never ranked as the most important factor in decision making but was always found in combination with language in participants 3,7 and 11. A community from the United Kingdom was the only significant factor for participant 5 whereas it was found in combination with other significant factors for participant 7. The environment was only found to be significant by participant 3 and on examination of the beta weights of the various factors for this participant, it was noted that there was a very small difference between the significant factors.

A number of relationships of interest were observed. Most participants (80%) considered language as a significant factor in the migration decision. Certain themes do emerge such as the combination of language and a better life and education for the children was significant. The addition of climate to these factors was also found to be significant for participants. For all participants, except number 5, there was a combination of factors that contributed to the decision to move. The only significant factor was community from the United Kingdom. An examination of the beta weights of the different factors revealed a small difference between them for many of the participants. However, because factors were not significant it does not mean that they should not be considered as part of the decision making process of migrants. These results may be due to the heterogeneous nature of the sample or it may be that individual differences were associated with different variables over which this study had no control, for example differences across sociodemographic groups in the population.

A further aim of this study was to examine whether the linear model was adequate to predict the individual's judgments. The multiple correlation (R) may be used as one measure to achieve this, but it is not sufficient to only use this measure, as one also needs to examine

the correlation between the multiple R and the test retest correlation. Table 7.5 shows the upper and lower bound levels for each participant. It appears that for six participants (1, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 10) the correlations were significantly different. For these participants, the linear model does not capture the judgment process. It may also be that there are other factors that contribute to their decision making process which were not represented by the factors presented to these participants. For the majority of the participants, the results indicate that the linear model (Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz, 1979) has captured some basis of the judgment process and fits the judgment data quite well (Brehmer, 1994).

Different explanations may be offered to explain these findings. The judging task in this study required the participants to sort 100 hypothetical countries into ten piles. Participants may have been bored by the task or found it tedious with the result that they paid little attention and completed it without much thought. It may also be that these participants were attending to the task but they were not good judges and countries were allocated to the different piles randomly rather than in any systematic way. These explanations are unlikely as indicated by the high test retest correlation as shown in Table 7.5. Finally, it may be that the linear model is not good at predicting the judgments for some participants and that some other form of analysis may be more appropriate (Stewart, 1990). For example, Carroll and Johnson (1990) suggest that there may be nonlinear relationships between the factors and the decisions and that the linear model may not be an adequate representation of the decision-maker. For the majority of people it appears that the linear model is adequate.

Linear regression models are an example of a compensatory approach to decision making. The regression approach is used as a way of determining the relationship between the attributes and preferences of the participant. The results of this study suggest that for

most participants, the linear regression model is a fairly accurate predictor of the decision-maker. Brehmer (1994) suggested that linear models might be affected by the experience of the judges. In this study all judges were migrants from the United Kingdom who had been in Australia between 18 months and 5 years. It is assumed that all the participants had the same level of experience with the task. It has also been noted by Brehmer and Brehmer (1988) that with linear models there may inconsistency in the judgments, which may vary with the judgment task. They found differences in the way judges weighed the cues.

In addition, Einhorn, Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz (1979) proposed that the additive combination in a linear model was compensatory and cues could be offset against each other. Perhaps not all participants used additive, compensatory strategies continually and that sometimes noncompensatory, nonlinear procedures were used. Even under these circumstances, researchers have found the linear model to be a good predictor of an individual's judgment (Hammond & Brehmer, 1973; Brehmer, 1979). This position did not find unequivocal support in this study.

Summary

The results of this study provide a good example of the potential application of ideographic decision-making models and methods to migration decision making. The objective of this study has been to model the preferences of migrants from the United Kingdom to understand the basis of the migration decision and the factors that contribute to that decision. Linear regression models are useful tools to accomplish this but do have some disadvantages.

Results of this study indicated that linear models obtained by regression analyses do not capture all facets of the human judgment process (Brehmer, 1994). In many cases they provide an adequate description of the decision and the contribution of the cues to that decision. However, they do not describe the process that occurs between the time the cues are presented and the actual judgment. Furthermore, as all the cues are presented to the decision-maker, there may be a number of cues that have been omitted (Phelps & Shanteau, 1978). Under these circumstances, the regression equation may not be an adequate representation of the process and perhaps more complex models are required.

Notwithstanding that the linear model failed to capture a significant proportion of the variance for some participants, the judgments of two thirds of the participants were well modelled by the linear model. Further investigation using linear models was undertaken for the following reasons.

1. The literature on linear models suggests that they are good representations of the decision-making process

2. In this study, the judgment policy of two thirds of the participants was captured by the linear model

3. This study was conducted at the same time as study three and therefore the results of this stage were as yet unknown

4. This thesis uses triangulation of data and therefore different methods were used to investigate the decision-making process of migrants. This enabled both completion and confirmation of the obtained results.

This thesis uses two types of linear models. This experimental study used a regression approach as a way of determining the relationship between different factors and

the preferences of participants. In the following chapter the contribution of the different

attributes to the decision making process are explored further using another example, namely

the multiattribute utility model.

CHAPTER 8

Study 3: Survey Design

Aims of the chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the migration decision-making processes in a large group of migrants from the United Kingdom and to compare them with a group of potential migrants who have obtained their visas for Australia but have not yet migrated. Initially this chapter describes the development and piloting of the questionnaire to investigate these processes. After the successful completion of this stage, the main study is specified to generate the significance of the different factors in the decision to migrate. After reading this chapter, readers should have a clear understanding of the role of each factor in the decision-making process, the relationship between the importance of a factor and its value as determined by each migrant, the emergence of distinct groups of migrants from the results of the study. The reader should also develop an appreciation of the methodology used in these studies as a means of investigating the decision-making processes of migrants.

Overview

As has previously been stated, researchers have applied different analytic processes and developed alternative theoretical models to examine migration. However, researchers have ignored the use of human judgment research to uncover the intricacies of the migration decision making process. There are many approaches that have been developed for examining human decision making. The experimental study outlined in chapter seven used a regression approach. This was the first of two modelling techniques of judgment analysis used in this thesis. This present study uses multiattribute utility models (MAU) as an alternative approach. Both techniques examined which attributes were important to the decision making process of migrants. The same factors that were determined by the key informant interviews in study one and were used in the experimental study were used in the questionnaire.

In previous studies that examine factors influencing migration (Ritchey, 1976; Bardo & Bardo, 1980; Long & Hansen, 1980; Peters, 1989; McDevitt & Gadalla, 1986; Winchie & Carment, 1989) migration research has been characterised by using aggregate data from annual population surveys. This form of data collection includes the whole population without specifically targeting a migrant group. This study uses a sample of migrants from the United Kingdom ($\underline{n}$ = 446) in a population survey of United Kingdom migrants living in Western Australia. The research also adopts a comparison approach by examining a group of migrants already living in Western Australia and a specific group of migrants with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K.

This is an innovative approach as no previous migration study had looked at these two groups concurrently or used the MAU approach. The advantage of using this

methodology is that a numerical estimation is obtained when participants rank the

factors in order of their importance (Keeney, 1977). In other words, a set of ten

alternative factors are presented to the participants who are required to place these

choices into order of preferences (Yilmaz, 1978).

This chapter begins with a description of the pilot study that sought to examine

the methodology for clarification with the aid of a questionnaire developed specifically

for this research. A second study is reported which is an application of the

questionnaire to a large number of migrants from the U.K. who have settled in

Australia. A third study was conducted to assess the decision-making processes of a

specific group of participants who had obtained their visas but had not yet migrated

from the U.K. This study used a modified version of the same questionnaire.

Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the results of the studies. The

three studies are not presented as separate units, but are linked in that they all provide an

explanation of how migrants consider different factors in the decision-making process.

They illustrate how the same methodology may be used with different groups to

investigate the migration process.

Stage 1

The Pilot Study

Purpose of the Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the main study several issues needed to be examined. Firstly, the pilot study needed to test a methodology previously not tested in the migration area. As no suitable instrument was available to collect the data, a new one had to be developed for this purpose. The first aim of the pilot study, therefore, was to test the methodology to determine whether the participants had any difficulty with responding to the questionnaire.

A second consideration concerned the range of responses and potential problems in answering the questions. There was concern that participants may answer the questions for each section of the questionnaire in the same manner, as they may think that a particular response "should" be given. For example, in response to the statement "the language spoken in Australia" participants may circle the same number in response to how important this factor was to their decision making before migrating, as well as to the question which asked the importance of the factor if they were to migrate again (even if this was not the actual situation). The second aim of the pilot study, therefore, was to determine whether there was a range of responses for each of the questions in the questionnaire.

A third consideration concerned the reliability of the questionnaire. A three-week interval between responses established whether they were stable over time, and to establish test-retest reliability of the questionnaire.

The fourth aim of the pilot was to receive comments from the participants regarding any aspect of the questionnaire. A section was provided at the end of the questionnaire for participants to provide feedback and comments on the questionnaire in general.

As stated in chapter four, no previous research has examined the migration decision making process using the multiattribute utility model. The fifth aim of the pilot, therefore, was to obtain a preliminary look at the order of the preferences in numerical form using multiattribute utility theory (MAUT).

Method

Participants

The questionnaire was tested on a convenience sample of 48 migrants from the United Kingdom (23 women and 25 men, mean age = 36.13 years, $\underline{SD}$ = 8.4) who were known to the researcher. The sample represented a diversity of occupations and length of time in Australia. The demographic data are summarised in Table 8.1. To avoid overlap with the main study, none of the participants in the sample was asked to participate or recommend others for the main study. All had expressed their willingness to participate in the pilot testing of the questionnaire.

Table 8.1

Demographic Data for Participants

Variables	Migrants from the United Kingdom
Mean Age[1]	36.13 (8.4)
Length of time in Australia[1]	6.4 (3.96)
Gender[2]	23 (47.9%)
Married[2]	37 (77.1%)
Separated[2]	5 (10.4%)
Single[2]	3 (6.3%)
Defacto[2]	3 (6.3%)
Managers and administrators[2]	2 (4.1%)
Professionals[2]	14 (29.1%)
Para-professionals[2]	1 (2.0%)
Tradespersons[2]	9 (18.8%)
Clerks[2]	6 12.5%)
Salesperson and personal service[2]	11 (22.9%)
Labourers and related workers[2]	5 (10.4%)

[1]Means and standard deviations are given for these variables as follows: $\underline{M}$ $(\underline{SD})$
[2]Frequencies are given with percentages inside parentheses. In the case of gender, number and percentages of females are given.

Instrument

This study used a self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix 8) consisting of four categories of questions, compromising a total of 40 questions. A front-page cover (see Appendix 9) introduced the study and addressed issues of purpose and confidentiality, accompanied each questionnaire. A demographic section of 11 questions was also included.

The first section of the questionnaire provided a measure of the importance of each factor listed in their decision to move to Australia. Participants were asked to consider the importance of each factor by checking a number on a Likert Scale. The responses were coded from –5 (Strongly against) to +5 (Strongly for). At the end of this section space was provided for participants to include any other factors which they considered important in their decision to move, but had not been included in the given list.

The second section required the participants to rate how important each factor was to them prior to migrating on a 7-point scale. For example, if participants thought that Australia was completely English speaking prior to migration, and they still think it is English speaking after migration, they may enter a score of 7 for that factor.

In the third and fourth sections, participants were asked to reflect on the factors from a post migration perspective. Section three asked participants to rate each factor as to its importance if they were to migrate again. Likert scales similar to that in section one were used. Section four asked participants to indicate on a 7 point scale, their current beliefs of each factor now that they were living in Australia.

The fifth section of questions comprised a section on demographic data that included items on gender, age, place of birth, marital status, occupation and length of time in Australia. At the end of the questionnaire a section was provided for comments concerning the format of the questionnaire, the difficulty of the questions as well as any other remarks the participants wished to make.

Procedure

Questionnaires were handed to the participants, and each required about 10-15 minutes to complete. In order to determine test-retest reliability of the questionnaire,

the participants were given the same questionnaire after a period of three weeks had

elapsed. The researcher then collected completed questionnaires.

Results and Discussion

The first aim of the pilot study was to examine the research methodology as it

had not been previously used in the migration area. In the pilot study, the participants

found no difficulty when asked to complete the different sections in the questionnaire.

They were readily able to use the same factors to finish the required tasks.

The second aim of the pilot study was to determine whether the responses

provided a range of values for each of the questions. The responses to the questions in

section one indicated that there was a distribution of values from -5 to $+5$. In the

second section, there was a range of responses to the questions from 1-7. A similar

pattern was observed for sections three and four of the questionnaire. As an example,

Table 8.2 indicates the mean scores of all the questions for sections one and two of the

pilot study.

Table 8.2

<u>Mean Scores of Items for Sections One and Two of the questionnaire</u>.

Item Number	M (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Section A			
1	3.98(1.49)	-1.67	2.37
2	1.23(2.21)	0.24	-0.22
3	3.83(1.96)	-2.33	5.80
4	1.94(2.26)	0.25	-1.40
5	1.60(2.58)	-0.39	-0.34
6	4.06(1.77)	-2.56	6.94
7	3.83(1.98)	-2.82	8.91
8	3.48(1.64)	-1.61	3.97
9	2.75(2.27)	-1.17	0.78
10	2.71(2.67)	-1.06	-0.14
Section B			
1	6.17(1.06)	-1.02	-0.24
2	5.31(2.03)	-0.87	-0.78
3	5.88(1.57)	-1.62	1.91
4	3.48(2.68)	0.18	-1.47
5	4.85(1.81)	-0.67	-0.05
6	6.21(1.29)	-2.03	3.82
7	5.54(1.58)	-0.86	-0.41
8	5.46(1.44)	-0.77	-0.35
9	5.69(1.67)	-1.26	0.55
10	2.71(2.67)	-1.06	-0.14

The third aim of the pilot study was to establish the test-retest reliability of the questionnaire. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to establish test-retest reliability between the first and second administrations of each

section of the questionnaire. The results of the Pearson r are presented in Table 8.3

which shows the responses were very stable over the three-week period of the study.

Table 8.3

Test-Retest Reliability

Variable	r (46)
Section A	.92***
Section B	.94***
Section C	.95***
Section D	.97***

***p<.001

The fourth aim of the pilot was to receive comments from the participants

regarding the questionnaire in general. All the participants found the questionnaire easy

to follow and answer. The only comment received was to add the internet into

demographic question number 11 as an additional source of information for migrants.

The fifth aim of the pilot study was to enable the researcher to take a preliminary

look at the results. Although the pilot study was based on only 48 participants, some of

whom had been in Australia in excess of 10 years, it provided an opportunity for a

preliminary exploration of the results.

Part A of the questionnaire examined which factors weighed more strongly in

the decision to migrate. Therefore by examining the means of each factor, it was

possible to determine how important each factor was to their decision to move. Table

8.4 shows the rank ordering of the means and standard error for each factor in section A

of the questionnaire. An examination of these results shows that the least important

factor appeared to be politics whereas climate was the most significant.

Table 8.4

Means and Standard Error for each Factor

Factor	Mean	Standard Error
1. Politics	1.23	0.32
2. Community from the United Kingdom	1.60	0.37
3. Presence of family or friends	1.94	0.33
4. Environment	2.71	0.39
5. Open spaces	2.75	0.33
6. Housing	3.48	0.24
7. Employment opportunities	3.83	0.29
8. Better life and education for children	3.83	0.28
9. Language	3.98	0.22
10. Climate	4.06	0.26

Further analysis of the questionnaire, produced the utility scores for the participants prior to and post migration (see Appendix 10). The notion of utility is captured in the following way. In the questionnaire, Part A represents the weight of each factor and Part B represents the value of each factor. The utility for pre migration was obtained by the product of the weight (Part A) and the value (Part B) of the questionnaire. Similarly, the utility after migration was obtained by the product of weight (Part C) and value (Part D). The utilities should have a range between 0 and 1 for each participant. Interestingly, two participants, numbers 45 and 46 had a negative utility for prior and post migration (-.05, -.19; -.13,-.13). This means that both these participants had a negative impression of Australia yet they still came to live there and have been in the country for four and twelve years respectively. The correlation between the utilities for pre and post migration was r (46) = .87, p<.01 which indicated that to a reasonable extent the impressions people had of Australia prior to migrating

were realised once they had migrated. Again, this finding may or may not be confirmed by the main study.

Utility scores can also be used to examine satisfaction. Although this was not a main research question, it is interesting to note the level of satisfaction of the migrants with Australia after a period of time. The mean score for satisfaction was $\underline{M}$ = 5.90 ($\underline{SD}$ = 1.35), out of a possible score of 7. The correlation between the utility scores and satisfaction is shown in Table 8.5. The scatterplots between satisfaction and the overall utilities indicate an essentially linear relationship as seen in Figures 8.1 and 8.2. This means that the higher the utility, the higher the level of satisfaction for most migrants. Note that the two participants who had negative utility scores were also very low in satisfaction.

Table 8.5

Correlations between Overall Utilities and Satisfaction for all Participants

Variable	Utility One	Utility Two
Satisfaction	.68***	.82***
Utility One		.87***

***$\underline{p}$<.001
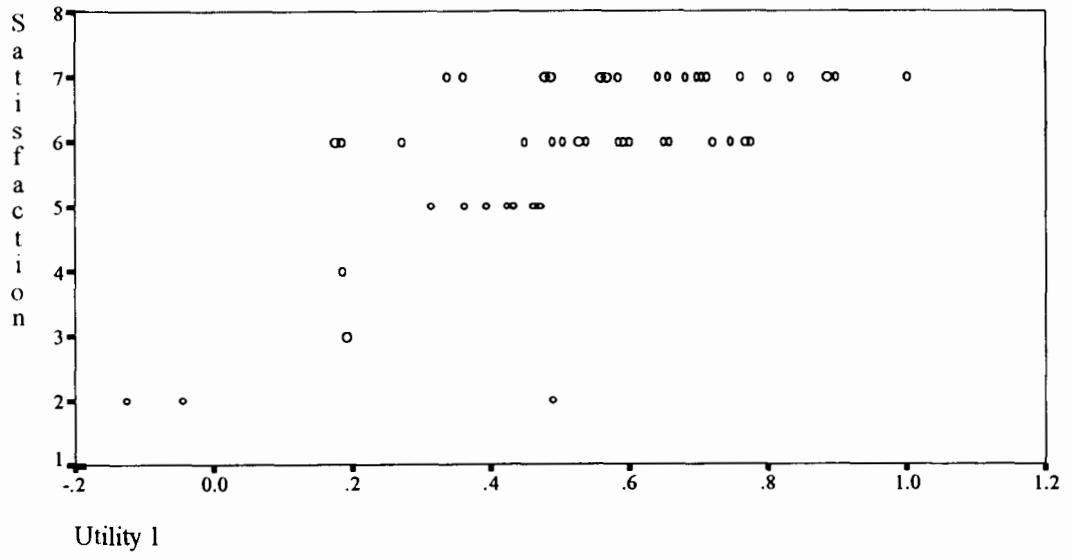
Figure 8.1 Scatterplot of utility one and satisfaction
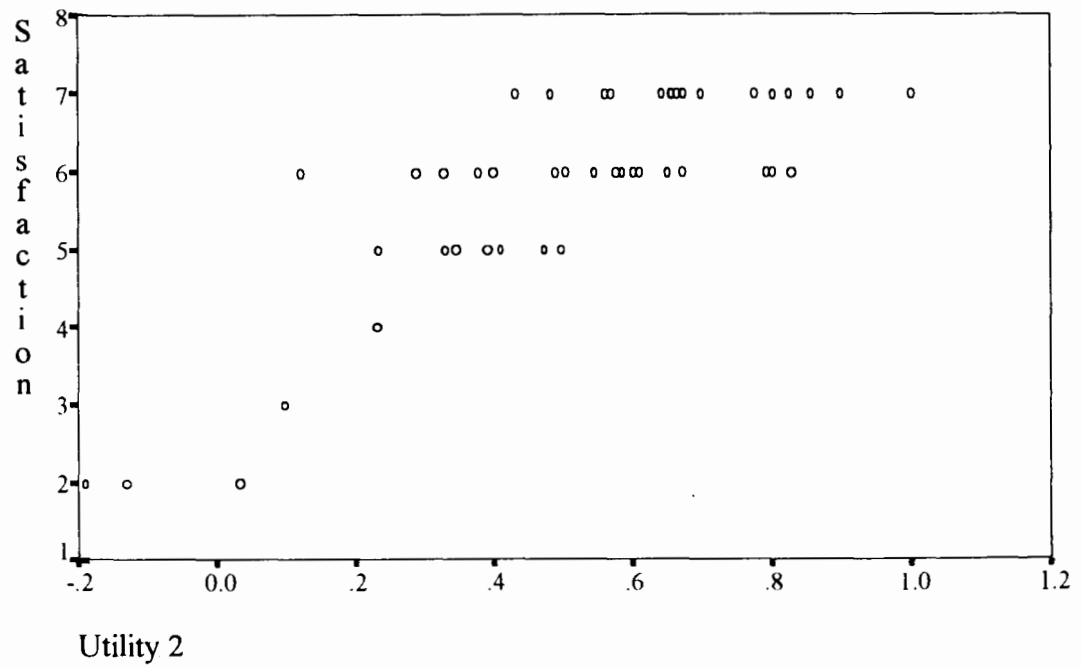
Figure 8.2 Scatterplot of utility two and satisfaction

Conclusions

As a result of the pilot study, the questionnaire was modified to reflect the extra category in the demographic data. The pilot study provided good test-retest reliability of the questionnaire. The results of this study indicate that climate was the most important factor considered in the decision to migrate, followed by language and a better life and education for the children.

The following section reports the method and results of the main study in which the modified questionnaire (see Appendix 12) was administered to a larger sample of migrants from the United Kingdom as well as a group of potential migrants who had obtained their visas but had not yet migrated.

Stage 2

The Main Study: Part 1

Method

Participants

The participants in this survey were 446 migrants from the United Kingdom who had not been in Australia less than 18 months or longer than five years. Research has shown that the average settling in period for migrants is between 6 and 18 months (Grossman, 1983). Participants were recruited in a variety of ways. Questionnaires were sent to sporting clubs, distributed at shopping centres, local community centres, recreation centres, public libraries and health centres throughout the metropolitan region. A total of 600 questionnaires were sent to potential participants and of these 446 were returned and completed, which represented a 74.3% response rate.

Demographic Data

The demographic data are summarised in Table 8.6. There were 446 migrants from the United Kingdom who participated in the study. The sample consisted of 247 women and 199 men, whose age ranged from 20 to 59 years (mean age = 38.01 years, $\underline{SD}$ = 9.02). At the time of the study, participants had been in Australia for an average period of 3.79 years ($\underline{SD}$ = 1.36). Of the total sample, 363 participants (81.4%) were married, while 78 (17.4%) were either single or in another relationship. There were three cases of missing data. Occupations were recoded to comply with the categories used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1998). The largest single group of participants was professionals representing 18.4% ($\underline{n}$=82), which included professions such as doctors, lawyers, dentists, accountants and engineers. This was followed by labourers and related workers 80 (17.9%) many of whom were employed in the in the building industry. There were 70 (15.7%) tradespersons, which included plumbers, bricklayers and electricians. Para-professionals ($\underline{n}$ = 61, 13.7%) included

physiotherapists, occupational therapists and speech therapists. A comparison between

the occupations of the United Kingdom born and the sample of participants used in this

research based on the 1996 census is shown in Figure 8.3. The graph indicates that the

occupational categories of U.K. migrants to Australia are fairly well represented in the

participant sample.

Table 8.6

Demographic Data for Participants

Variables	Migrants from the United Kingdom
Mean Age[1]	38.01 (9.02)
Length of time in Australia[1]	3.79 (1.36)
Gender[2]	247 (55.4%)
Married[2]	363 (81.4%)
Separated[2]	18 (4.0%)
Single[2]	37 (8.3%)
Defacto[2]	13 (2.9%)
Divorced[2]	10 (2.2%)
Managers and administrators[2]	43 (9.6%)
Professionals[2]	82 (18.4%)
Para-professionals[2]	61 (13.7%)
Tradespersons[2]	70 (15.7%)
Clerks[2]	51 (11.4%)
Salesperson and personal service[2]	55 (12.3%)
Labourers and related workers[2]	80 (17.9%)

[1]Means and standard deviations are given for these variables as follows: $\underline{M}$ ($\underline{SD}$)
[2]Frequencies are given with percentages inside parentheses. In the case of gender, number and percentages of females are given.

O
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Value Percentage
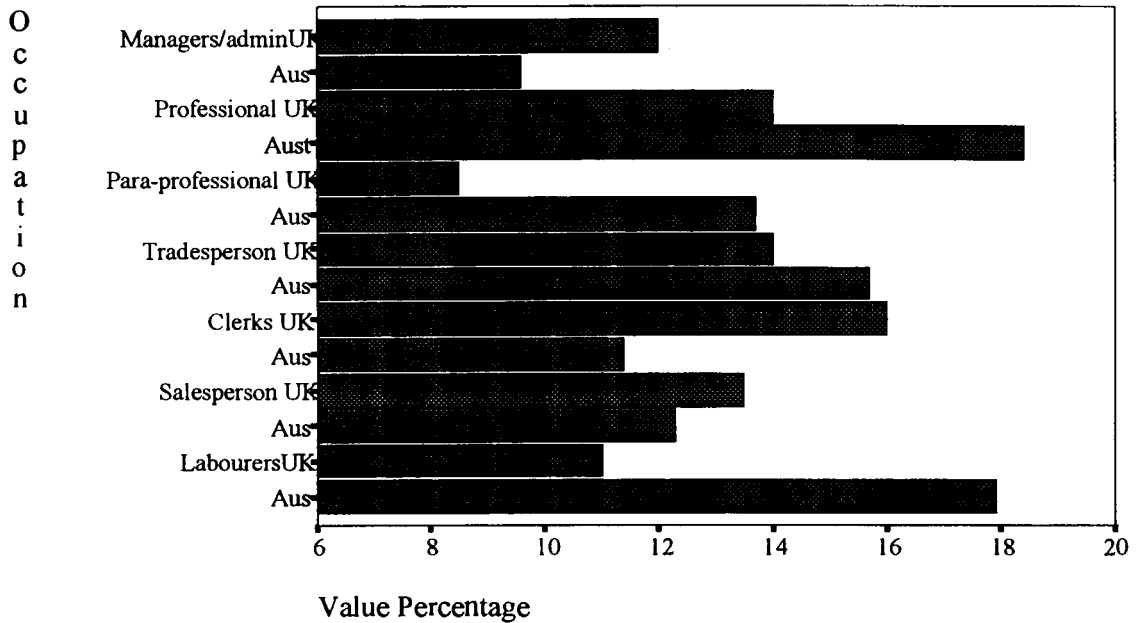
Figure 8.3 Comparison of occupations between U.K. born and Sample participants

Instrument

This study used a self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix 11) which

consisted of 12 pages and five sections, comprising a total of 51 questions and requiring

10-15 minutes to complete. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter

(see Appendix 12) which introduced the study and addressed issues of confidentiality.

No identifying information was required of the participants, and they were assured of

total anonymity. The name and contact number of the researcher and a supervisor were

also included.

The first two sections of the questionnaire were concerned with the decision

made by the migrants prior to migration. Part A of the questionnaire provided a

measure of the significance of each factor, which the participants may have considered

in their decision to move. Part B asked participants to rate the extent to which they

believed each factor prior to migrating. This was similar to that described in the pilot study.

The last two sections concerned the salience of the factors after migration. Part C asked migrants to what extent they would consider these factors if they were to migrate again. Part D asked participants to indicate their beliefs about each factor now that they were living in Australia. This was described in the pilot study.

The final section requested general demographic information as in the pilot study.

Procedure

In order to acquire participants, a list of sporting clubs, shopping centres, community centres, recreation centres, public libraries and health centres throughout the metropolitan region was obtained from the yellow pages telephone book, local shire councils and the Health Department of Western Australia. Detailed information on the centres was obtained by telephoning many of the centre managers.

Questionnaires were delivered to the different centres and approximately 20 questionnaires were left at each venue. The researcher personally handed out questionnaires at different shopping centres after permission was obtained from the manager of the centre. Some participants completed the questionnaire immediately and others took them away to be returned by post. Attached to each questionnaire was a letter explaining the nature of the study and addressing the issues of confidentiality (Appendix 11). Only migrants from the United Kingdom who had been in Australia between 18 months and 5 years were invited to participate in the study. A separate self addressed and stamped envelope was also attached to each questionnaire. A label on the front of this envelope gave the following instructions:

1. Place completed questionnaire in this envelope.

2. Mail this envelope as soon as possible. The envelope is already addressed
   and postage is paid.

Data Coding

The questionnaires were coded and scored by the researcher. In all four parts of
the questionnaire, new variables were computed for the utilities. For example, for Parts
A and B, new variables were computed by multiplying the weight (Part A) by the value
(Part B). This created ten new variables for the first part of the questionnaire and ten
new variables for the second part. Subsequently a new variable for each person's
overall utility score was computed. This was done by adding the ten new variables
obtained and dividing by 350 because each utility variable can range between -35 and
35. In this manner two new utility scores were obtained for each participant: utility
score prior to migration and a utility score post migration.

The data were entered onto a computer spreadsheet by the researcher using
SPSS for Windows. A colleague of the researcher, who had been trained in the scoring
procedure, then checked data entry and all calculations. Three errors were identified by
the colleague and amended prior to the statistical analysis of the data.

Ethical Considerations

The Ethics Committee of Edith Cowan University approved this research with
the stipulation that the following ethical procedures were implemented.

1. Participants were guaranteed that confidentiality and anonymity would be
   maintained at all times. To ensure this, a covering letter clearly identified this issue
   and participants were specifically instructed that no names or addresses or other
   identifying information was required. In addition, this information was repeated on
   the first page of the questionnaire.

2. The researchers and one of her supervisors were clearly named on the front of the questionnaire with their respective telephone numbers. Participants were encouraged to contact the researcher or her supervisor in the event of any query regarding the research in general or the questionnaire.

3. The qualifications of the researcher were stated together with the institution and the degree being undertaken.

4. Participants were advised that they could refuse to take part in the research without penalty. They could also decline to answer any question and withdraw from the study at any stage.

5. No letters of consent were completed by the participants, but completion of the questionnaire was regarded by the researcher as consent to participate in the study.

Results

Part A of the questionnaire examined the importance of each factor in the decision to migrate. Initially by rank ordering the means for each factor, it was possible to examine on average how important each factor was in their decision to move. Table 8.7 shows the rank ordering of the means and standard error for each factor in Part A of the questionnaire. An examination of these results shows that on average the least important factor appeared to be the presence of a community from the United Kingdom and climate was the most significant.

Table 8.7

Means and Standard Error for each Factor in Part A of the Questionnaire

Factor	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Limits
1. Community from the United Kingdom	1.67	0.11	1.45, 1.89
2. Presence of family or friends	2.17	0.11	1.95, 2.39
3. Politics	2.28	0.12	2.04, 2.52
4. Environment	3.57	0.08	3.41, 3.73
5. Housing	3.83	0.08	3.67, 3.99
6. Open spaces	3.95	0.07	3.81, 4.09
7. Employment opportunities	4.08	0.07	3.94, 4.22
8. Language	4.09	0.08	3.93, 4.25
9. Better life and education for children	4.12	0.08	3.96, 4.28
10. Climate	4.35	0.06	4.23, 4.47

These results provided an overview of how the participants ranked the attributes in order of importance. Further examination of the data was made using the 95% confidence limits that are displayed in Table 8.7 and a graph may be found in Appendix 13. By using this method, the different factors may be examined to determine whether there is a difference in their ranking. Detailed inspection showed the following results for each of the factors:

1. Politics and the presence of family and friends are interchangeable.

2. Environment and housing are interchangeable.

3. Housing, open spaces, employment opportunities, language and a better life and education for children are interchangeable.

4. Climate, language and employment are interchangeable.

This means that although climate was ranked as the most significant factor overall for the participants, language and employment may be equally important. Similarly, even though the presence of family and friends was rated as less significant than politics, neither may be regarded as less significant than the other. The data from Table 8.7 show that the factors are ranked by the participants with climate being the most important factor and the presence of family and friends as the least significant. Further examination of the 95% confidence limits indicates that these factors are important, but others may be equally important.

The above results do not distinguish between migrants or groups of migrants. Hierarchical cluster analysis was used to determine whether there were groups of migrants with similar decision making processes. These results provided an overview of the results for the whole sample, but it does not distinguish between judges or groups of judges. In order to determine statistically whether groups of participants exist, each of which comprise members who share similar judgment policies, the technique of cluster analysis is useful (Cooksey, 1996). Initially there was no indication that there may be groups of participants with similar decision making processes. There are many different types of clustering methods, each of which provides an alternative perspective of the data (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). It was decided to use hierarchical cluster analysis as it is frequently used in Judgment Analysis research (Cooksey).

Hierarchical cluster analysis aggregates the participants sequentially into clusters eventually resulting in one large cluster. In hierarchical clustering, once the cases have been assigned to a cluster they are unable to split from the cluster (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). A common way of determining the numbers of clusters using this method is the dendrogram or tree diagram (Cooksey, 1996). There are many methods that may be used to decide on cluster formation. This research adopted Ward's method

(Ward, 1963) or the method of minimum variance, as it is the most commonly used in hierarchical clustering and Judgment Analysis (Cooksey). Ward's method optimises the minimum variance within clusters with the result that those clusters that are joined together have the smallest increase in the within-groups sum of squares or the error sum of squares (Aldenderfer & Blashfield). Cooksey suggested that Ward's method might be used with confidence for the following reasons:

1. The method is fairly robust when used with different types of data.

2. It commonly identifies clusters of a similar size and shape.

3. If the components of the cluster are identified a priori, this method is very successful at identifying the clusters.

Hierarchical Cluster analysis for this data was performed using SPSS for Windows using Ward's minimum variance method. Cues that were used for the analysis were the ten factors presented in Part A of the questionnaire. Examining the dendrogram produced by the analysis identified a three-cluster solution, as visually it appeared that at least three clusters were present. An inverse scree plot of distance versus number of clusters appears in Figure 8.4. It seems quite appropriate to interpret three clusters of participants. Cluster analysis was also performed in which the cues used for the analysis were the ten factors presented in Part A, multiplied by the values of the variables in part B of the questionnaire. As the results were similar, only the one analysis is reported here.
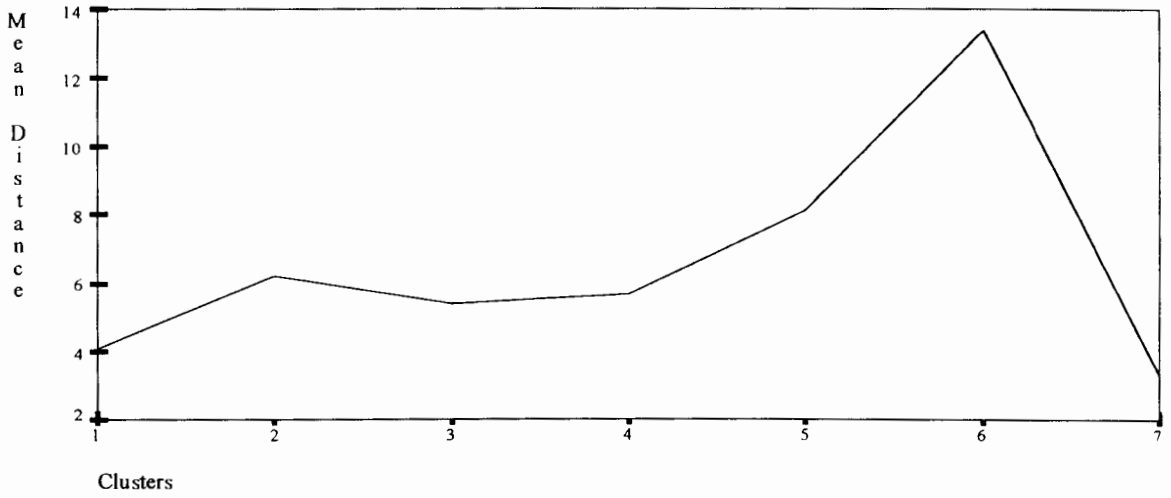
Figure 8.4 Inverse scree plot of distance versus number of clusters

A comparison of the three clusters (cluster 1 with 217 participants, cluster 2 with 152 participants, and cluster 3 with 77 participants) is shown in Figure 8.5.
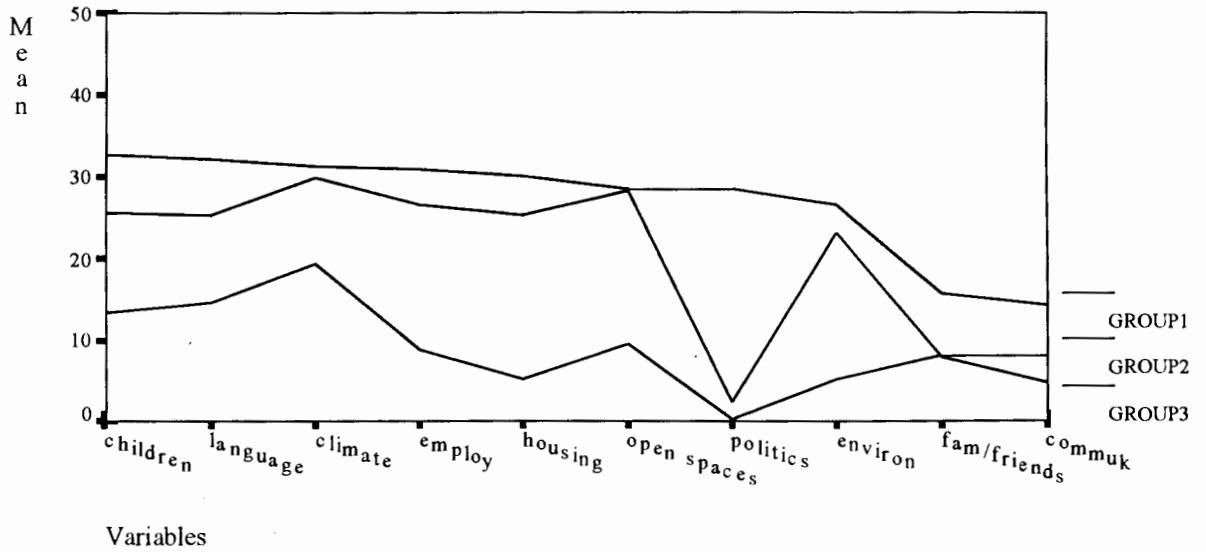
Figure 8.5 Mean factor weight profiles for the three clusters of migrants

From the above graph it appears that there are three clusters of migrants with similarities between them. For example, cluster three is different from clusters one and two especially on climate, employment, housing, open spaces and the environment. Clusters one and two appear to be more similar especially with the attributes of children, family or friends, community from the United Kingdom, climate, employment, housing, open spaces and the environment. This result was reflected in the pilot study. Table 8.8 shows the factors for each cluster in descending order of importance.

Table 8.8

Cluster membership for three-cluster solution

Cluster	Group Mean
Cluster 1:	
Better life and education for children	4.67
Language	4.59
Climate	4.56
Employment opportunities	4.49
Housing	4.45
Open spaces	4.34
Politics	4.16
Environment	3.99
Presence of family and friends	2.99
Community from the United Kingdom	2.62
Cluster 2:	
Climate	4.37
Open spaces	4.13
Employment opportunities	4.09
Better life and education for children	3.86
Housing	3.55
Language	3.37
Environment	3.36
Presence of family and friends	3.09
Housing	1.24
Community from the United Kingdom	0.39
Politics	0.35
Cluster 3:	
Climate	2.69
Language	2.12
Better life and education for children	0.96
Open spaces	0.65
Employment opportunities	0.62
Presence of family and friends	0.39
Community from the United Kingdom	0.38
Environment	0.04
Housing	-0.5
Politics	-1.7

Now that the analysis has examined the weights in detail, the next stage is to

examine the relationship between the weights and the values that the participants placed

on each of the factors. Essentially the values inform one about how the participants

viewed Australia. The utility is the term used for combining the weight and the value

for each factor.

The utility for pre-migration was obtained from the product of the weights (Part

A) and the values (Parts B) of the questionnaire. Similarly, the product of the weights

(Part C) and values (Part D) obtained the utility for post-migration of the questionnaire.

Utility scores should be in the range between 0 and 1 and are a useful way of examining

the data because it provides an overall score of what the participants thought about

Australia before they came here and the overall impression after they had migrated.

Utility scores are provided in Appendix 14. The correlation between the utility prior to

migration and after migration was r (446) = .76, p <.001. This suggests that to a

moderate extent, participants had realistic expectations for when they migrated to

Australia. Figures 8.6 and 8.7 shows the histogram of the utilities.
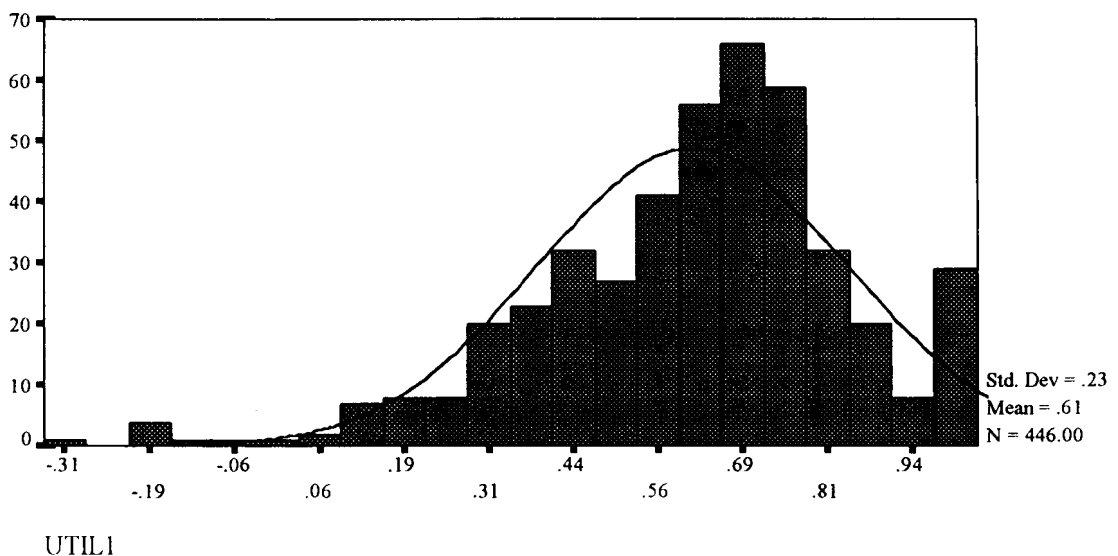
Figure 8.6 Histogram of utility one (prior migration)

UTIL2
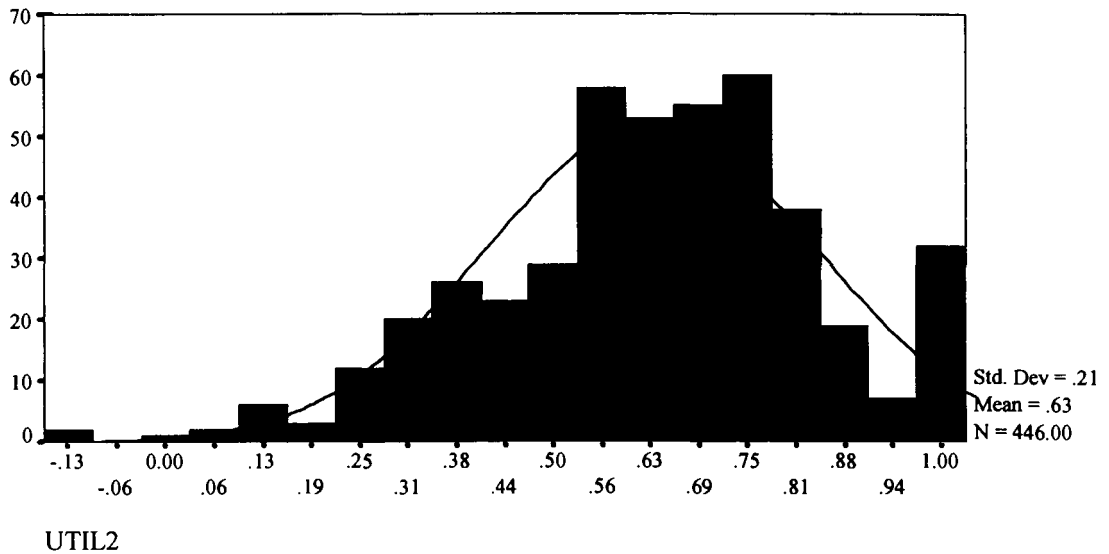
Figure 8.7 Histogram of utility two (after migration)

An examination of the histograms shows that there is some random fluctuation

in the scores, but generally on examination of utility two, it appears that the participants

felt that Australia lived up to their expectations once they arrived.
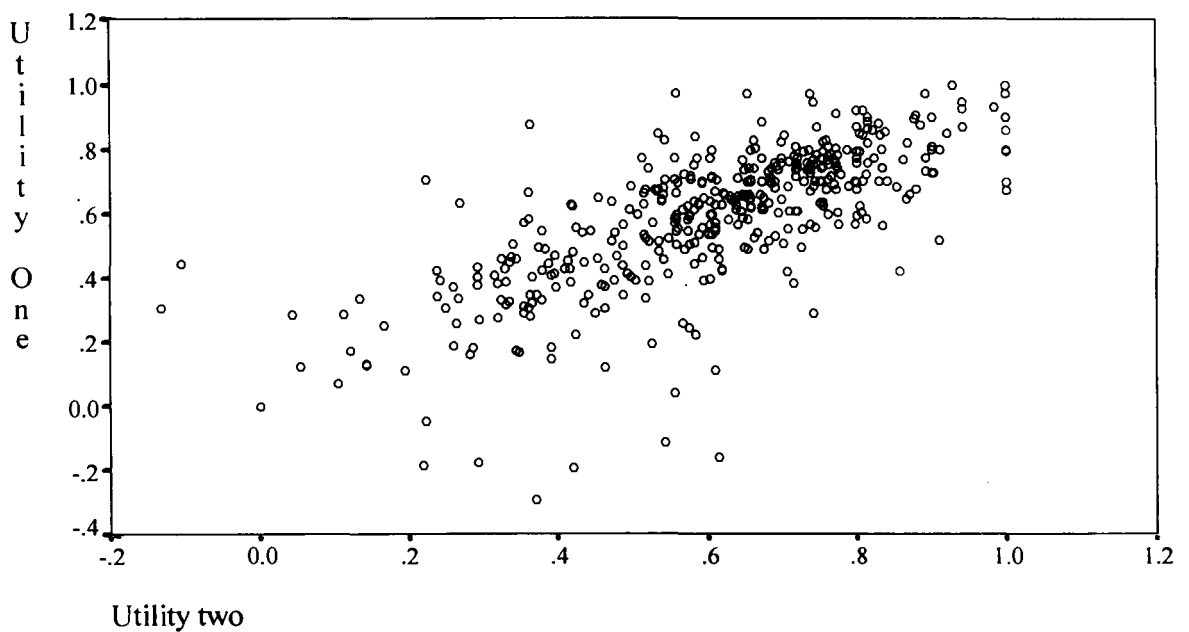
Utility two

Figure 8.8 Scatterplot between utility one and utility two

Further examination of the scatterplots of the two utilities indicates a linear relationship. Some participants had a more positive or a more negative utility after migration. However, it does not appear as if the participants had radically changed their view once they had migrated (see Figure 8.8).

The utilities for the overall sample prior and post migration has been examined. However, it has been established through cluster analysis that there were three clusters or groups of migrants, which were formed by the order in which the participants combined the different factors. Therefore an ANOVA was performed to see whether there was a significant difference between the utilities of these three clusters or groups. The results are displayed in Table 8.9.

Differences were detected between all three groups. Tukey's honestly significant difference tests showed that there was a significant difference ($p< .05$) between groups one, two and three for both utilities one and two.

Table 8.9

Summary of Differences between Groups One, Two and Three in Utility One and Two

	Group One M (SD)	Group Two M (SD)	Group Three M (SD)	F (2,443)
Utility One	0.74(0.18)	0.61(0.12)	0.28(0.21)	209.49
Utility Two	0.71(0.19)	0.63(0.16)	0.37(0.18)	102.81

*$p<.05$

Having established that there is a significant difference between the three groups, it is important to consider the values that the participants placed on the different attributes before they moved and after they moved to Australia for all three groups. For example, to determine what participants thought about climate before and after

migration. They may have thought the climate in Australia to be hot and sunny, but having lived here for a period of time the weather may in fact be too hot and unpleasant. A comparison of the means of the values of each of the three groups prior and post migration was undertaken by means of independent sample t-tests, the results of which are shown in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10
Combined Mean Value of Each Variable Prior and Post Migration

Factors	Group 1	(t) (df=196)	Group 2	(t) (df=175)	Group 3	(t) (df=72)	Total	(t) (df=445)
1. M (SD)	0.40 (0.96)	5.85***	0.57 (1.13)	6.67***	1.73 (2.11)	6.99***	0.68 (1.36)	10.62***
2. M (SD)	0.37 (1.27)	4.14***	0.61 (1.59)	5.06***	1.68 (2.28)	6.30***	0.68 (1.66)	8.66***
3. M (SD)	0.15 (1.03)	2.00*	0.05 (1.18)	0.57	0.59 (2.02)	2.49*	0.18 (1.31)	2.93**
4. M (SD)	0.51 (1.47)	4.84***	1.55 (2.21)	9.30***	0.64 (2.47)	2.23*	0.94 (2.03)	9.81***
5. M (SD)	0.16 (1.29)	1.77	0.76 (1.74)	5.75***	0.56 (2.09)	2.29*	0.46 (1.65)	5.92***
6. M (SD)	0.03 (1.12)	0.38	0.22 (0.78)	3.77***	0.21 (1.53)	1.15	0.14 (1.08)	2.62**
7. M (SD)	0.59 (1.29)	6.45***	0.60 (1.18)	6.76***	0.79 (2.66)	2.55*	0.63 (1.56)	8.53***
8. M (SD)	0.09 (0.97)	1.25	0.11 (0.77)	1.87	0.09 (1.87)	0.44	0.01 (1.11)	0.21
9. M (SD)	0.02 (0.73)	0.29	0.01 (0.80)	0.09	1.13 (1.85)	5.25***	0.18 (1.11)	3.38**
10. M (SD)	0.42 (1.08)	5.46***	0.25 (1.38)	2.41*	0.84 (2.34)	3.05**	0.42 (1.48)	6.02***

*p<.05   **p<.01   ***p<.001

Note: Factor 1=Language; Factor 2=Politics; Factor 3=Better life and education for children; Factor 4=Presence of family or friends; Factor 5=Community from the United Kingdom; Factor 6= Climate; Factor 7= Employment opportunities; Factor 8=Housing; Factor 9=Open spaces; Factor 10= Environment

Further analysis was undertaken to examine the demographic data. Although this was not a main research question, the level of satisfaction of the migrants after they have been in Australia for a period of time, was examined. The mean score for satisfaction was high (M = 6.18; SD = 1.16) out of a possible score of 7. Utility scores were also used to examine satisfaction and the correlation between the utility scores and satisfaction is shown in Table 8.11. The scatterplots between satisfaction and the overall utilities indicate a moderate relationship as seen in Figures 8.9 and 8.10.

Table 8.11

Correlations between the Overall Utilities and Satisfaction for all Participants

Variable	Utility 1	Utility 2
Satisfaction	.30***	.45***
Utility 1		.76***

***p<.001

Utility 1 Premigration
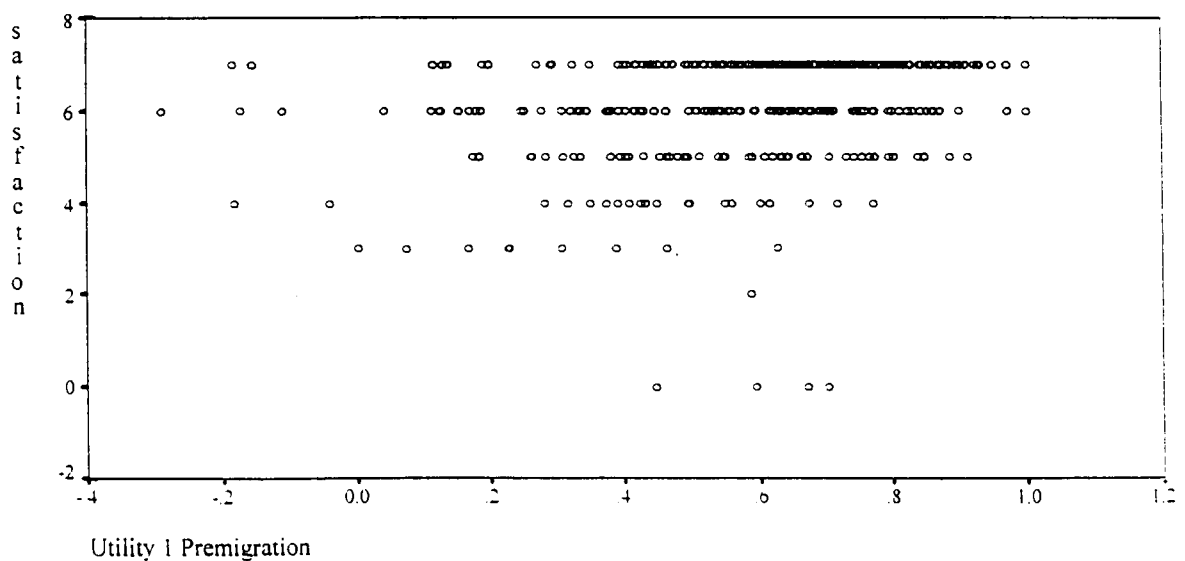
Figure 8.9 Scatterplot of utility one and satisfaction

Utility 2 Post Migration
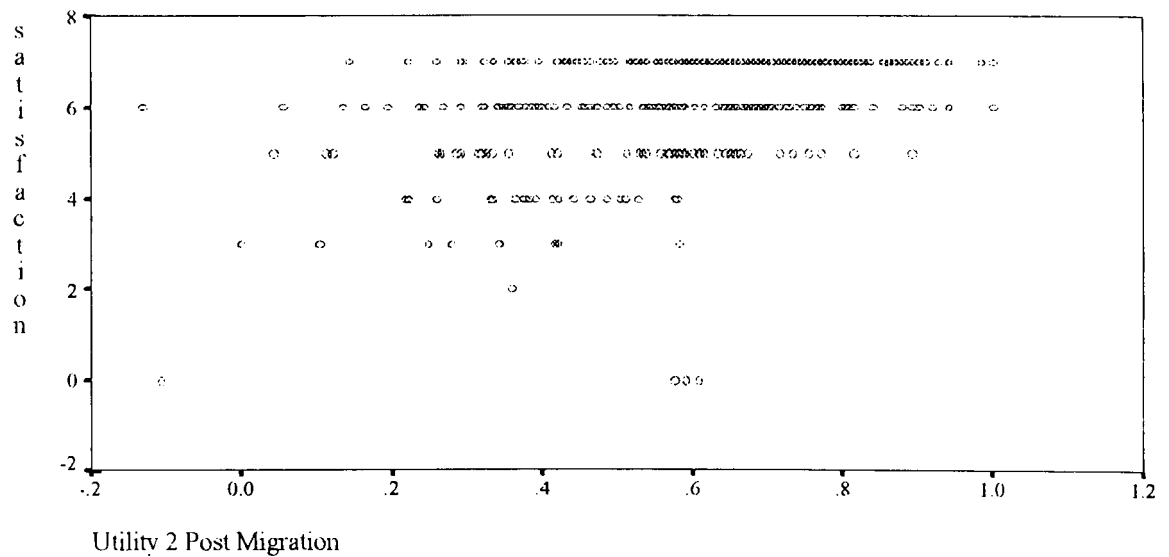
Figure 8.10 Scatterplot of utility two and satisfaction

Having examined the relationship between the utilities and satisfaction, an

assessment was made to determine whether there was a connection between any of the

covariates and satisfaction. Finally, a linear multiple regression was performed to

determine whether the demographic variables of age, number of children, gender or

length of time predicted satisfaction. To evaluate the assumptions of regression, the

guidelines outlined in Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) were followed and the data were

examined for univariate outliers by examining standardised scores and histograms.

Four cases were found to be univariate outliers; these cases were identified through

Mahalanobis' distance as multivariate outliers with $p<.001$. All four outliers were

deleted. Univariate normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were established by

examining residual scatterplots (see Appendix 15). Multivariate normality was also

checked through standardised residuals (see Appendix 16). No cases had missing data.

Table 8.12 displays the correlations between the variables for all participants. It is apparent from this table that. satisfaction was not significantly correlated with any of the variables. The results of the multiple regression are shown in Table 8.13. The multiple $\underline{R}$ for regression was not significantly different from zero, $F (5,426) = 1.46$, $p>.05$. None of the variables contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction with their lives in Australia once they had migrated.

Table 8.12

Correlations between Variables for All Participants

Variable	Children	Gender	Marriage	Satis	Time
Age	.20***	-.04	-.24***	-.04	.09
Children		-.02	-.28***	.06	.04
Gender			.03	.01	-.08
Marriage				-.08	-.09
Satisfaction					.00

***$p<.001$

Table 8.13

Linear Multiple Regression of Age, Marital Status, Gender, Number of Children and Length of Time in Australia on Satisfaction for all Participants

Variables	B	β
Age	-.01	-.07
Marital Status	-.12	-.09
Gender	.11	.05
Number of Children	.03	.05
Length of Time in Australia	-.00	-.00
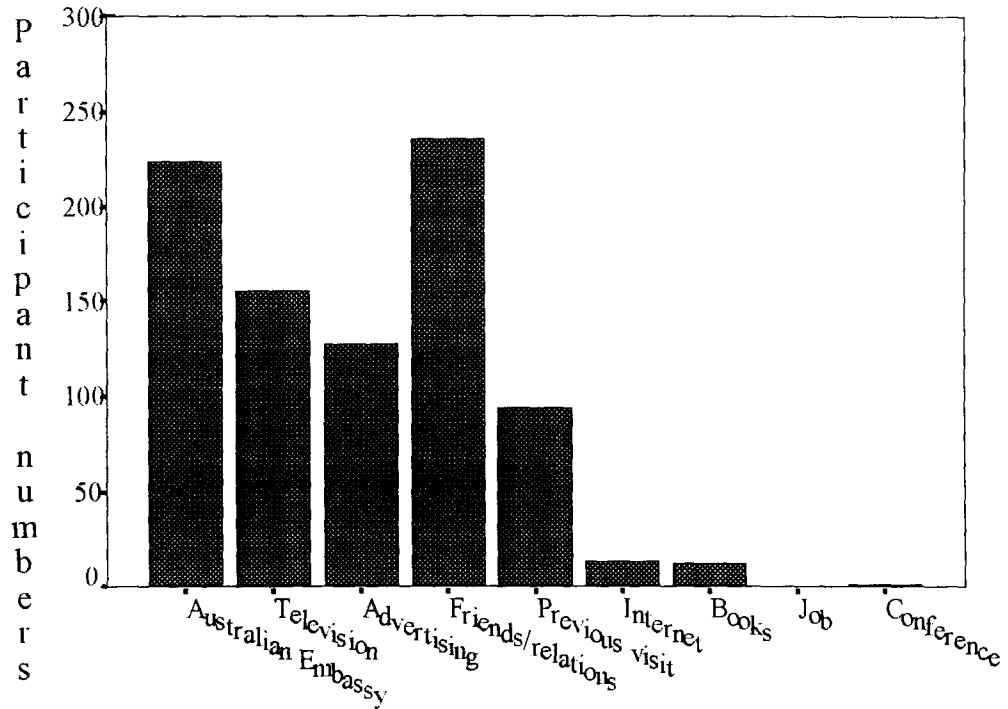
Figure 8.11. Sources of information for participants prior to migration

Finally, migrants obtained information on Australia prior to migrating. The majority of participants obtained their information from friends or relations (n = 236) and from the Australian embassy (n = 244) whereas only 14 migrants obtained their information from the internet and 13 from books (see Figure 8.11). No participants received information through a job and only two participants received information from attending a conference in Australia. This has implications as to how embassies disseminate information about Australia to potential migrants.

Discussion

The first research question concerned which factors influenced the decision to migrate. Results from the whole sample indicate that climate and a better life and

education for the children were the most important factors and politics, the presence of

family and friends and a community from the U.K. were the least important. The study

determined that there were three clusters or groups of migrants, and in all of these three

groups, climate was a significant factor. For groups one and three, language and a

better life and education for the children were important factors similar to the results for

the whole sample. Group two was different in that open spaces and employment

opportunities were salient factors. The presence of family and friends and a community

from the U.K. were ranked low for all three groups.

Utilities are the product of the weight and the value assigned to each factor. The

correlation between the utility prior and post migration showed that to a moderate extent

participants were aware of the migration they were to undertake. The utility post

migration indicated that their expectations were fulfilled once they had migrated which

is supported by a moderate correlation between satisfaction and the post migration

utility. The overall satisfaction score for living in Australia was high ($\underline{M} = 6.18$ out of a

possible score of 7). None of the demographic variables significantly predicted

satisfaction of the migrants after they had moved to Australia.

Before discussing the implications of these results in detail, the following

section reports the next study, which examined the decision-making processes of a

specific group of potential migrants who had their visas to migrate but had not yet left

the United Kingdom for Australia.

Stage 3

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The Main Study: Part 2

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Method

Participants

The participants in this survey were 151 potential migrants who had obtained

their visas for Australia but have not yet migrated. The Department of Immigration and

the office of the Australian Consulate in Manchester, United Kingdom provided support

for this part of the research. This office provides diplomatic and visa services to the

United Kingdom, as all visa applications for Australia are processed there. Participants

were recruited for this study through the Manchester Office of the Australian Consulate.

In total 500 questionnaires were mailed to Manchester, and of these 151 were

returned and completed, which represented a 30.2% response rate. A sticker was

attached to each questionnaire that provided the potential participant with the name and

address of the researcher. Participants were advised that it was the intention of the

researcher to do a longitudinal study of migrants once they had migrated to Australia.

Participants were encouraged to keep the name and address of the researcher and to

contact her once they had migrated if they were interested in participating in this future

research. Participants were advised that this was voluntary and not a requirement of

participating in this part of the research.

Demographic Data

The demographic data for the participants are summarised in Table 8.14.

Participants in this study were 151 potential migrants from the United Kingdom who

had already obtained their visas. The sample consisted of 93 men and 58 women,

whose age ranged from 21 to 66 years (mean age = 33.27 years, $\underline{SD}$ = 8.00). Of the

total sample, 88 participants (58.3%) were married, while 63 (41.8%) were either single

or in another relationship. There was no missing data. Occupations were recoded to

comply with the categories used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1998). The

majority of participants were professional ($\underline{n}$ = 51; 33.8%) which included lawyers,

dentists, accountants and engineers. This was followed by managers and administrators

($\underline{n}$ = 41; 27.2%) and tradespeople ($\underline{n}$ = 41; 27.2%) who were electricians and plumbers.

Para-professionals ($\underline{n}$ = 3; 2.0%) were represented only by occupational therapists.

Table 8.14

Demographic Data for Potential Migrants

Variables	Potential Migrants from the United Kingdom
Mean Age[1]	33.27 (8.00)
Gender[2]	58 (38.4%)
Married[2]	88 (58.3%)
Separated[2]	1 (0.7%)
Single[2]	46 (30.5%)
Defacto[2]	14 (9.3%)
Divorced[2]	2 (1.3%)
Managers and administrators[2]	41 (27.2%)
Professionals[2]	51 (33.8%)
Para-professionals[2]	3 (2.0%)
Tradespersons[2]	41 (27.2%)
Clerks[2]	5 (3.3%)
Salesperson and personal service[2]	6 (4.0%)
Labourers and related workers[2]	4 (2.6%)

[1]Means and standard deviations are given for these variables as follows: $\underline{M}$ ($\underline{SD}$)
[2]Frequencies are given with percentages inside parentheses. In the case of gender, number and percentages of females are given.

Instrument

This study used a self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix 17) which consisted of seven pages and three sections, comprising a total of 29 questions and requiring 5-10 minutes to complete. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter (see Appendix 18) which introduced the study and addressed issues of confidentiality. No identifying information was required of the participants, and they were assured of total anonymity. The name and contact number of the researcher and one supervisor in Australia were also included.

The questionnaire was similar to the one used in the previous study with a group of migrants already living in Australia. However, it differed in that this questionnaire only included Parts A and B, as Parts C and D were excluded. Part A of the questionnaire provided a measure of the importance of each factor, which the potential migrants may have considered in their decision to move. Part B again asked these participants to rate the extent to which they believed each factor.

The final section requested general demographic information as previously described in the pilot study. For this questionnaire, question 7 (How long have you been in Australia?) and question 10 (How satisfied are you with your move?) were excluded.

Procedure

In order to recruit participants for this part of the study, the assistance of the Department of Immigration in Australia was sought, and they agreed to provide help and support for the research through the Office of the Australian Consulate in Manchester, United Kingdom.

In total 500 questionnaires were boxed and posted by courier to the Office of the

Australian Consulate in Manchester, United Kingdom. Attached to each questionnaire

was a letter explaining the nature of the study and addressing issues of confidentiality.

Participants were also told to return the questionnaire to the Office of the Australian

Consulate in Manchester. The distribution of the questionnaires was solely at the

discretion of the staff at the Consulate. In agreement with the staff, potential migrants

were to be invited to participate in the study when they came to collect their visas from

the Consulate Office. Only if these people agreed, were they handed a questionnaire for

completion.

All questionnaires were placed in a sealed envelope, and returned to Perth in the

diplomatic bag. They were then mailed to the researcher at the university from the

Department of Immigration in Canberra. Questionnaires were returned over a period of

nine months.

Data Coding

The questionnaires were coded and scored by the researcher. The notion of

utility was again used for this group and obtained by multiplying the weight (Part C)

and the value (Part D) for each variable. This created ten new variables, which were

used to obtain the utility score for each participant prior to migration.

The data were entered onto a computer spreadsheet by the researcher using

SPSS for Windows. The same colleague, who checked the data in the previous study,

repeated the process. No errors were identified.

Ethical Considerations

The same guidelines were adhered to as described in the previous study.

Results

Part A of the questionnaire examined the importance of each factor in the decision to migrate, and rank ordering allowed a preliminary analysis of the significance of each factor in the decision to migrate. Table 8.15 displays the rank ordering of the means and standard error for each factor in the first part of the questionnaire. The results indicate that the least important factor appeared to be the presence of a community from the United Kingdom whereas open spaces was the most significant.

Table 8.15

Means and Standard Error for each Factor in Part A of the Questionnaire

Factor	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence limits
1. Community from the United Kingdom	0.64	0.19	0.27, 1.01
3. Politics	1.33	0.15	1.04, 1.62
2. Presence of family or friends	2.79	0.18	2.44, 3.14
5. Housing	3.04	0.14	2.77, 3.31
9. Better life and education for children	3.20	0.16	2.89, 3.51
8. Language	3.25	0.17	2.92, 3.58
7. Employment opportunities	3.31	0.12	3.07, 3.55
10. Climate	3.96	0.10	3.77, 4.16
4. Environment	4.23	0.08	4.07, 4.39
6. Open spaces	4.29	0.08	4.13, 4.45

As with the previous study, this is one method of examining the data. The data may also be inspected using the 95% confidence limits as shown in Table 8.15 or examined graphically (see Appendix 19). By using this method, the different factors

may be examined to determine whether there is a difference in their ranking. Detailed

inspection showed the following results for each of the factors:

1.   Presence of a community from the U.K. and politics are interchangeable.

2.   The presence of family and friends, housing, a better life and education for

        children, language and employment opportunities are interchangeable.

3.   Climate and environment are interchangeable.

4.   Environment and open spaces are interchangeable.

        Although open spaces was ranked as the most significant factor overall for the

participants, climate and the environment may be equally important. Similarly, even

though the presence of a community from the U.K. was rated as less significant than

politics, neither may be regarded as less significant than the other.

        The above analysis provides a description of which factors were important in the

decision to migrate, and does not distinguish between migrants or groups of migrants.

As three distinct groups were identified in the previous study, hierarchical cluster

analysis was used to determine whether participants in this group of potential migrants

could also be divided into different clusters or groups. The analysis was performed

using SPSS for Windows using Ward's minimum variance method (Ward, 1963). The

cues used for the analysis were the new variables created by the product of the factors in

Part A and the values in Part B of the questionnaire. The dendrogram produced by the

analysis revealed a three-cluster solution. An examination of the inverse scree plot of

distance versus number of clusters shown in Figure 8.12 supports that a three-cluster

solution was appropriate.
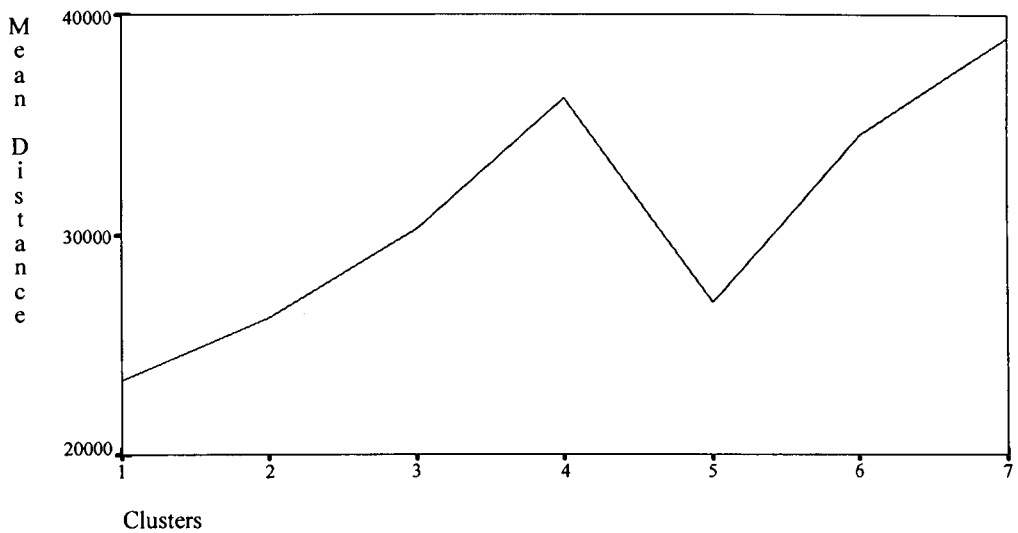
Figure 8.12 Inverse scree plot of distance versus number of clusters

A comparison of the three clusters (cluster 1 with 58 participants, cluster 2 with 68

participants and cluster 3 with 25 participants) is shown in Figure 8.13.

Variables
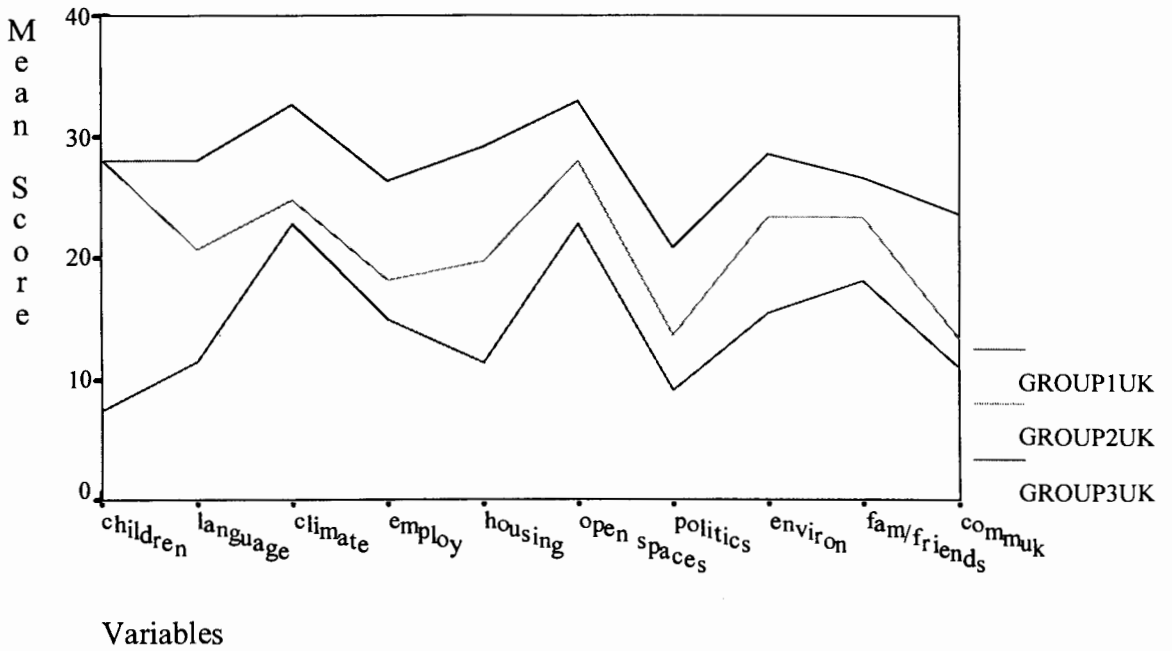
<u>Figure 8.13</u> Mean factor weight profiles for the three clusters of migrants

The above graph illustrates that there are similarities and differences between

the three groups. For example, all three groups differ on language, politics and housing.

Clusters one and two have similar mean values for the presence of a community from

the United Kingdom and climate. Clusters two and three have similar mean values for

children, open spaces and environment. Clusters one and three are dissimilar in all the

mean scores. Table 8.16 shows the factors for each cluster in descending order of

importance.

Table 8.16

Cluster membership for three-cluster solution

Cluster	Group Mean
Cluster 1	
Open spaces	4.46
Better life and education for children	4.38
Environment	4.36
Climate	4.08
Language	4.04
Housing	4.02
Employment opportunities	3.72
Presence of family and friends	3.51
Politics	3.06
Community from the United Kingdom	1.87
Cluster 2	
Climate	3.98
Open spaces	3.87
Environment	3.70
Employment opportunities	3.53
Presence of family and friends	3.11
Language	2.48
Housing	2.43
Better life and education for children	2.20
Politics	1.04
Community from the United Kingdom	-0.96
Cluster 3	
Open spaces	4.63
Climate	4.48
Housing	4.11
Environment	3.83
Language	3.69
Better life and education for children	3.16
Employment opportunities	2.98
Presence of family and friends	1.13
Community from the United Kingdom	0.26
Politics	0.12

From the cluster analysis, the potential migrants were divided into three clusters

or groups. The group that participants were allocated to depended on the cluster

analysis. The utility for each participant was calculated. Another way of examining the three groups is to determine whether there is a significant difference between the utilities of these three groups. The results are displayed in Table 8.17. Differences were identified between all three groups. Tukey's honestly significant difference tests showed that there was a significant difference ($p<.05$) between groups 1, 2 and 3 for utility one. This shows that there is a difference between the three groups and it is statistically significant.

Table 8.17

Summary of Differences between Groups One, Two and Three for Utility One

	Group One $\underline{M}$ ($\underline{SD}$)	Group Two $\underline{M}$ ($\underline{SD}$)	Group Three $\underline{M}$ ($\underline{SD}$)	$\underline{F}$ (2,443)
Utility One	0.43(0.13)	0.63(0.10)	0.83(0.09)	116.03*

*$p<.05$

Finally, potential migrants needed to obtain information about Australia. Figure 8.14 illustrates that the majority of participants obtained their information from a previous visit ($\underline{n}$ = 119, 78.8%), from family or friends ($\underline{n}$ = 115, 76.2%) and from the Australian Embassy ($\underline{n}$ = 103, 68.2%). Very few participants received information from attending a conference, exhibitions or an immigration consultant.
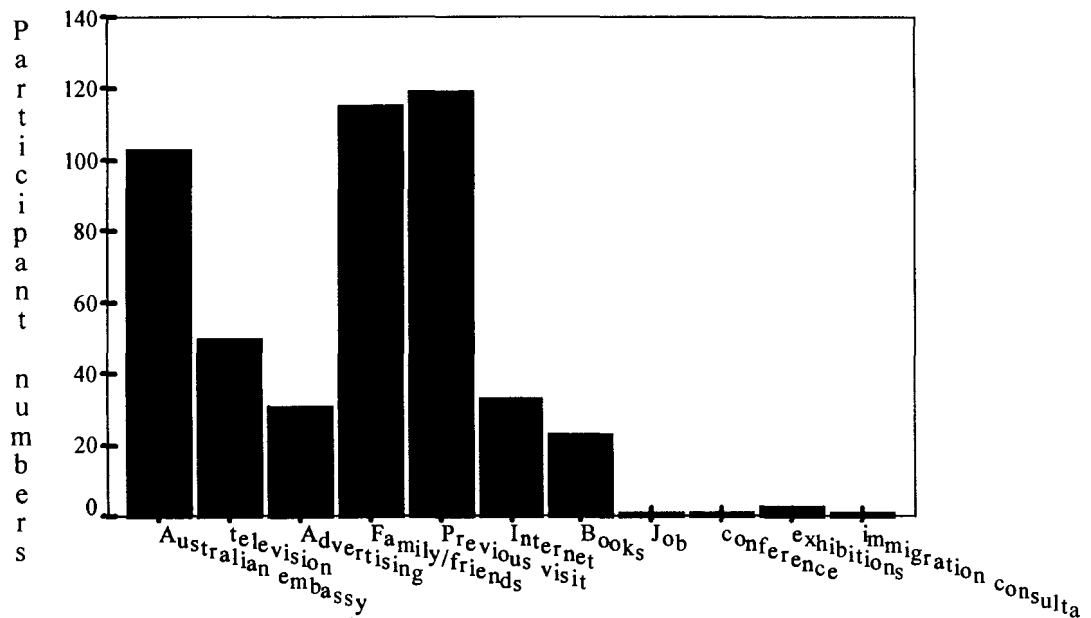
Figure 8.14 Resources of information on Australia for potential migrants

The aims of this study were to investigate the decision-making processes of a specific group of participants who had obtained their visas but had not yet migrated from the U.K. The results showed that for the whole sample open spaces, the environment, climate, employment opportunities and language were the most significant factors. The presence of family or friends, politics and a community from the U.K. were ranked as being less significant. Participants could clearly be divided into three groups using cluster analysis. The utility scores indicated a statistically significant difference between the groups. Migrants needed information about Australia and the main source was from a previous visit, family or friends and from the Australian embassy.

In summary, the results of this section are simple, yet have significant

implications. Participants could be divided into three groups that need to be examined

to determine whether they are similar to the three groups obtained in the previous study.

The following section discusses the implications of the results for both studies.

Discussion

This section considers each of the research questions in turn, starting with the different factors that influence the decision making process of migrants. Leading from this, the differences between the decision making processes of migrants from the United Kingdom living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate but have not yet left the United Kingdom, will be considered. Further discussion on satisfaction with migration, the association of covariates (e.g., age, gender) with the satisfaction of migration and the major sources of information for both groups of participants will be presented. This will be followed by a summary of the overall findings.

Factors which influence the decision to migrate

The first research question concerned which factors influenced the decision to migrate. For ease of this discussion, migrants already living in Australia will be known as the 'Australian migrant group' and the specific group of potential migrants with a visa intending to migrate but have not yet left the United Kingdom will be known as the 'U.K. migrant group'.

Part A of the questionnaire was aimed specifically at determining the significance of each factor in the migration decision. In the Australian migrant group, climate was the most important factor closely followed by better life and education for the children, language and employment opportunities. However, in the U.K. migrant group, open spaces, the environment, climate and employment opportunities were most significant. Therefore, climate was important for both groups. Explanations may include that migrants coming from the U.K. were looking for a country with a warmer climate than their place of origin that supports research by Kincaid and Yum (1987) that a warmer climate might be a significant contribution for some people to migrate. They

used the example of people from the Pacific Island who migrated to Hawaii especially for a better climate. Sunshine may also play a part in some migration decisions (Greenwood, 1985) especially for people coming from the United Kingdom to Australia. Although climate may be a desirable factor, there are other factors that are significant in the decision. For example, the environment and open spaces are related salient issues (Greenwood).

The Australian migrant group, however, considered a better life and education for the children as the most important factor after climate. This finding may be related to the research sample of migrants living in Australia where 88.4% had children as compared to 38.4% in the U.K. migrant group. As the majority had children, this factor may be more salient and significant. Perhaps when people consider migrating which involves uprooting children, they need to be assured that the destination place offers suitable education and better opportunities for their children (Hausman & Reed, 1991). Employment was a significant factor for both groups, which is not surprising as the prospect of acquiring a job on arrival is important to most migrants. The literature suggested that people move because of employment (Long & Hansen, 1980). They may be transferred or seek better jobs. This may be true for some migrants, but the decision to move is based on multiple factors and employment may be one contributor (Noe & Barber, 1992). There is an assumption in the literature that people will not move to a country where there is little chance of entering the workforce (Swanson, Luloff & Warland, 1979). The ability for people to be given permission to migrate to Australia is dependent on government policy that determines priority employment categories. For this reason, although employment is an issue (Hall & Richter, 1990), employment opportunities for migrants granted visas might be greater in Australia than in other countries.

Further, for the 'Australian migrant group' climate is the most significant factor. Although there is a difference between the means for the next five factors, they are in fact interchangeable and after climate, a better life and education for the children, language, employment opportunities, open spaces and housing are interchangeable. Housing and the environment are also interchangeable, as are politics and the presence of family and friends. A community from the U.K. is the least significant factor for the whole group. This important finding indicates that although it appears that the factors are ranked in a specific order for the whole group, many of the factors are in fact interchangeable and are not necessarily ranked at a particular position.

Interestingly, the three factors that were least important were the same for both groups, namely: the presence of a community from the U.K., the presence of family or friends and politics. Again there may be different explanations for this result. A suggestion is that the two countries have a similar culture. Migrants coming from the U.K. to Australia were unconcerned about making friends or 'fitting in' as they perceived the two countries to be similar. The idea of considering the cultural context of migration has not received much attention (Koser, 1996). Based on the studies by Simmons (1986), migrants prefer to move to places where there is a similar culture to the host country. Failure to do so often results in stress from social isolation and cultural conflicts (Kuo & Tsai, 1986; Furnham, 1986). There is not a wide gap in the culture between the U.K. and Australia. Consequently, as migrants may not move to a different culture they do not consider the issue as salient, because they just don't think about it.

Many migrants may not have had family or friends in Australia and therefore this factor did not concern them. Alternatively, as many participants indicated that they received information from family and friends, perhaps this factor was taken for granted.

The research does suggest (Choldin, 1973) that the presence of friends or relations in the destination country potentially encourages migration. Voluntary migration necessarily involves disrupting established social network systems which need to be re-established (Back, 1980). If the potential for extended families and friends exists in the destination country, then migrants already have the basis for forming networks prior to migration (Choldin) which is advantageous for restoring these social networks (Marris, 1980).

Politics was found to be less important in the migration decision which may be explained by different reasons. For example, both the U.K. and Australia have a strong similarity in their political systems. People are coming from a politically stable country to another country where a similar situation exists. For this reason politics was unimportant as they may have assumed the two were the same or similar. Another reason may be that these migrants were unconcerned with political matters and therefore this factor was rated as less significant. The case may be quite different for people who move less voluntarily due to political instability such as "violence, repression, human rights violations and ethnic tensions" (Russell, 1998, p.7).

Different groups of migrants

Through performing a hierarchical cluster analysis for both the Australian migrant group and the U.K. migrant group, three clusters or groups of migrants within each sample could be identified. These results do not mean that there are three distinct groups of migrants, but that there are groups of migrants who consider the factors differently. The three clusters for the Australian migrant group will be examined first. Based on the above discussion, it is not surprising that climate is amongst the first three significant factors for all the three groups. Language is important for cluster one and cluster three but less important for cluster two. It is interesting to note that all three

clusters had the same factors, which were least important. These were the same factors as discussed above for the whole group. Cluster one has a similar result to the overall Australian migrant group. Clusters one and two were more similar than cluster three. This illustrates that the migrants considered the same factors, but some in a slightly different way. This is an important finding as it lends weight to the idea that there are different groups of migrants who consider the factors in different ways. There may be individual variation and one can't generalise that every migrant will fit in to one of the three groups. The factors that affect individual selection of the different factors may also be dependent on the education level of the migrant, job skills or the influence of family.

The above description may be compared with the clusters for the U.K. migrant group. If one examines the actual means for each factor, it is apparent that the three clusters determined for the U.K. migrant group and the Australian migrant group are similar. Cluster one of the U.K. migrant group is similar to cluster one of the Australian migrant group. Similarly, cluster two of the U.K. migrant group is similar to cluster two of the Australian migrant group, and cluster three for both groups are similar. This suggests that for migrants coming from the United Kingdom to Australia, there appears to be three groups who consider certain factors in different ways.

Utility Scores

The utility scores were examined to provide some measure of whether migrants had any notion of whether their expectations were supported once they had migrated. For the Australian migrant group, two utility scores were examined. It was possible to determine the correlation between the utilities prior to migration and after migration. The result was a moderate correlation (r (446) = .76, p<.001). An examination of the histograms in Figures 8.6 and 8.7 shows that the two utilities were fairly similar

($\underline{M}$=.61; $\underline{SD}$ =.23; $\underline{M}$=.63; SD = .21). This means that the expectations of the migrants were to some extent fulfilled when they migrated.

The utilities for each of the three groups can also be examined. It appears from Table 8.9 that the difference between each of the groups is not very large. This may mean that for all the groups, migrants were aware of the difficulties and problems associated with migration as well as the benefits and were not migrating without considering different factors.

In the U.K. migrant group, it was only possible to calculate the utility before migration. As there was a difference between all the three clusters or groups, the results support the idea that there are different groups of migrants who consider the factors differently in the decision making process.

Values before and after migration

It is interesting to compare the values of each of the factors, for the three groups, present in the Australian migrant group. Firstly, consideration of the factors that were significant for all three groups. For language, there was a significant difference for all three groups. This means that for all the groups the perception of language changes after migration. Migrants may consider language to be very important prior to migration, yet once they are in an English-speaking country they are less likely to be concerned by this issue. However, if they had moved to a country where English was not the official language, then they would have been more concerned about language after they had moved.

For all groups, the perception of politics also altered after they migrated. As has previously been discussed, migrants may have perceived that they were coming to a country politically very similar to their country of origin. This perception may have changed once they arrived in the country where they considered the country to be

politically different or they placed more or less emphasis on the political issues once

they had migrated. The presence of family and friends may have altered in two ways.

Firstly, if it was significant prior to migration but once they had moved, it was no longer

an issue. Secondly, the results found previously that this factor was one of the least

significant for all groups. Perhaps migrants did not consider this an issue when

migrating, but afterwards found that not having friends or relations in the country made

it more difficult to settle down and adjust (Ng, 1998). Research has shown that social

networks are important in adjustment processes (Westin, 1995) which was not

addressed.

Employment opportunities may not have been crucial before migrating, but the

need to find employment to support oneself or family becomes crucial after migrating.

Many migrants may have felt comfortable in being told by the Australian Embassy that

their particular skills were in short supply in Australia. Migrants may have perceived

that there would be little difficulty in obtaining employment prior to migration, but on

arrival the reality may have been quite different. The environmental factor may not

have been as significant prior to migration. After migration, migrants may become very

concerned about environmental issues. For example, local issues are raised in the

newspapers and gain media attention, such as logging in native forests, water quality

and conservation (Suhrke, 1994).

Better life and education for the children was significant in the decision to move

for groups one and three. The expectation of achieving this goal may not have been

fulfilled, which led to an altered perception after migration. Alternatively, migrants

may have accepted this factor as being important. Their goal was being realised and

therefore there was no need to consider it significant any longer. The presence of a

community from the United Kingdom changed for groups two and three. The idea of

having an expatriate community was unimportant prior to migration, but may have

played a more important role after migration to help with the settling in process and

adjusting to a new environment and country (Boyd, 1989).

The perception of climate only altered for group two. This was the most

important factor for this group. Perhaps the idea of a different climate was appealing

before migration. However, it may be that once they lived in the new country, climate

was no longer ideal. For example, the summers may be too hot and unpleasant which

could have led to a change about ideal climatic conditions (Long & Hansen, 1980).

Housing was one factor that remained unaltered and not significant for all three

groups. Different types of housing may be a concern for some migrants (Berry, 1996),

as houses differ in all parts of the world. For example, many of the houses in the U.K.

would be of an older style with high ceilings and very often close together or semi-

detached. Culture and climate may affect the type of housing built in terms of layout

and design (Bochner, 1975; Pandey, 1990). However, this does not appear to be the

case with this sample.

Open spaces changed for group three. Although this factor was ranked fourth

for this group, the mean ($\underline{M}$ = 9.48) was much less than the first three significant

factors. This group could have viewed open spaces as being far more attractive and

valuable once they had the experience (Mueser, 1989). Alternatively, coming from the

United Kingdom where the topography is very different to Australia, they may not

enjoy the vastness of the Australian landscape.

This study offered evidence to support that the different factors considered prior

to migration might change after migration. Perhaps most importantly, the study

indicates the significance of considering the context within which the decision was

made. By acknowledging the substantive domain, the idea that the perception of some factors may alter after migration, is plausible.

Satisfaction

Subsidiary research questions asked:

1. How satisfied are migrants living in Australia?

2. Are there any covariates (e.g., age gender) associated with satisfaction of migration?

Both these were supplementary research questions. This thesis did not investigate the issue of satisfaction and adjustment with migration. However, it was interesting to note whether the participants were satisfied with their move to Australia. The mean score for satisfaction was $\underline{M}$ = 6.18, ($\underline{SD}$ = 1.16). A maximum score of 7 indicates participants were overall very satisfied with their move, but when one examines the correlations between the utilities and satisfaction, there was a low but significant correlation. The correlation between utility one and satisfaction was lower ($\underline{r}$ (446) = .30, $\underline{p}$<.001) than the correlation between utility two and satisfaction ($\underline{r}$ (446) = .45, $\underline{p}$<.001). A person can understand that prior to migration it would be very difficult to have an indication of how satisfied one was going to be with the move. Migrants were obviously cautious prior to migration, but after migration, they appeared to be fairly satisfied with their move. An examination of the scatterplot (Figure 8.10) did indicate that for many of the migrants, the higher the utility after migration the higher the level of satisfaction with the move.

An interesting finding was the relationship between satisfaction and age, marital status, gender, number of children and length of time in Australia. None of these variables significantly predicted satisfaction with the move to Australia. This result is noteworthy, as one would have expected at least one of the variables to predict satisfaction. This suggests that age may be irrelevant when it comes to satisfaction, and

is not a determinant as to whether migrants will be satisfied with the move. Similarly,

marital status, gender and number of children do not influence satisfaction, and being

married and migrating with a family and therefore a support system, does not

necessarily guarantee satisfaction with the move. People who are single have just as

much chance of being satisfied. One would have expected that those migrants who had

been in Australia longer would be more settled and therefore more satisfied with their

move. This may indicate that migrants can live in a country for a period of time and be

well settled, but does not mean they are satisfied with the move. It may reflect that they

have adjusted to the new country and are making the best of living here, without being

totally satisfied with living in the new country.

Gathering of Information

Migrants needed to obtain information about Australia prior to migrating, which

may have been significant in helping them decide which country best suited their needs

(Shumaker & Stokols, 1982). Alternatively, migrants may have needed to clarify issues

such as the climate, schooling and education in Australia, landscape of the country or

issues about housing availability. The results for both the Australian migrant group and

the U.K. migrant group were similar, suggesting that these results may be accurate. It

appears that the majority of migrants receive information from the Australian embassy

or from friends or relations. The implication is that the embassy should provide as

much information on Australia as possible to prospective migrants.

Summary and overall conclusions

The main aims of this research were firstly, to examine the decision making processes of a group of migrants from the United Kingdom to determine the importance of different factors in this process and secondly, to compare these migrants with a specific group of potential migrants from the United Kingdom who had not yet left for Australia.

For migrants from the United Kingdom, climate, better life and education for the children and language were the three most important factors, compared to open spaces, environment and climate for the group of potential migrants from the United Kingdom. The presence of a community from the United Kingdom, family and friends and politics were the three least significant factors for both groups.

Hierarchical cluster analysis yielded three groups of migrants, which could be distinguished on the basis of the importance of the different factors. The three clusters were similar for migrants from the U.K. already living in Western Australia, and for the group of potential migrants.

Satisfaction was examined for the migrants from the United Kingdom already in Australia and most migrants were very satisfied with their move. It was revealed that gender, length of time in Australia, age, marital status and number of children did not predict satisfaction in this group of migrants. Migrants need information prior to migrating and the Australian Embassy, friends and relations were the prime source of this information for both groups of participants.

A discussion of the above results suggested that the factors presented to the migrants were salient to the decision-making processes. The difference appeared to be in the way the migrants combine and use the different factors. The emergence of three

distinct groups of migrants is an important development in migration research. To better understand the decision-making processes of migrants, multiattribute utility theory is a useful methodology (von Winterfeldt & Edwards, 1986) and this is the first time it has been applied to the decision-making processes of migrants.

This study represents part of the multi method approach of the research to investigate the decision-making processes of migrants from the United Kingdom. The regression approach outlined in chapter seven, and the multiattribute utility model used in this study, both contributes to the experimental methodology for this research. This study completes the experimental methodologies for this research. As Dewey (1929) suggested the final task is to return to the migrants themselves. This is reported in the next chapter, which describes the stories of some migrants to provide both completeness and confirmation to this research (Knafl & Breitmayer, 1991).

CHAPTER 9

Study 4: Narratives

Aims of the Chapter

This narrative study was a further methodological tool used to provide insight into the decision-making processes of migrants. The use of narratives was part of the methodological pluralism of the thesis and were chosen for three reasons:

1.   To return to the migrants themselves to validate the inquiry

2.   To provide more complete and complementary knowledge of the factors which contribute to the decision to migrate. For example there may have been other factors that had not been previously identified.

3.   If possible, to provide confirmation of the results obtained in the previous studies.

Research Questions

What factors influence the decision to migrate?

What is the level of satisfaction of migrants living in Australia?

Overview

The preceding chapters have attempted to investigate the research questions using both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In this final study, the use of narratives was employed as a methodological strategy to produce information relevant to the domain of decision making. As suggested previously, the use of methodological pluralism is a strategy adopted by researchers which suggests that different methods may be employed to answer questions as long as these methods are relevant to the questions and circumstances concerning the research (Lincoln & Guba, 1981; Patton, 1990).

The use of different methodologies may result in completeness of the research as well as the possibility of uncovering as much knowledge of the domain of interest to develop a better understanding of the factors which contribute to the decision to migrate (Fielding & Fielding, 1986). The use of narratives was chosen not only to provide more complete and complementary knowledge of the factors which influence the decision, but also to validate the results obtained in previous stages of the research (Breitmayer, Ayres & Knafl, 1986). Use of narratives and analysing different individual stories completes the use of multiple methods to examine the research question.

Methodological and Conceptual Framework

One of the philosophical frameworks that guided this stage of the research was pragmatism. Underpinning this approach is the view that research results should be validated and linked to experience. Of significance is the view proposed by Dewey (1929) that researchers should return to the participants who have the experience to validate their inquiries. This stage of the research acknowledged this approach and enlisted the aid of narratives to help achieve this aim.

Using narratives in the social sciences has become more marked over the last few years and has manifested in an increasing number of publications utilising this approach. Narratives have been adopted by a number of disciplines resulting in a cross-disciplinary approach which has offered different theoretical and methodological frameworks for analysis and interpretation (Rappaport, 1995). There have been various definitions proposed by many researchers as to the exact nature of what constitutes a narrative. For example, Rayfield (1972, p.1085) suggested that there was "the assumption that there exists universally in the human mind the concept of a certain structure that we call a story". One of the most important ways that individuals make sense of their experience is through telling their story (Cohler, 1982). The term narrative has been used synonymously with story by Rappaport. He stated that narratives describe a series of happenings over a specific period of time. These stories are the person's cognitive representation of a particular event or series of events that are specific to that person, and has three distinct parts: a beginning, a middle and an end. Players in the story include a main character together with one or more secondary characters.

As previously suggested, the idea of narratives is not confined to one particular discipline but transcends the boundaries. As a linguist, Gee (1991, p.11) suggested that: "One of the primary ways, probably the primary way, human beings make sense of their experience is by casting it in narrative form. This is an ability that develops early and rapidly in children, without explicit training or instruction." As a psychoanalyst, Cohler (1982, p.207) described narratives as "the most internally consistent interpretation of presently understood past, experienced present, and anticipated future". The philosopher, MacIntyre (1977, p.197) gave an account of narratives which stated that: "It is because we all live out narratives in our lives and because we understand our own lives in terms of the narratives we live out that the form of narratives is appropriate for understanding the actions of others. Stories are lived before they are told-except in the case of fiction".

Traditionally narratives have focussed at the micro-level of inquiry and may be interpretive, as they offer a way for researchers to understand the "personal meanings, intentions, and interpretations of community situations" (Dokecki, 1992, p.33). As well as offering researchers the opportunity to access different levels of inquiry (Rappaport, 1995). He also proposed that not only do individuals have stories to tell, but also so do other organisations and communities. It is by understanding the story of the individual that one may become familiar with stories that are collective within a group or organisation. He suggested that it was important to understand the development of narratives within communities and organisations in order to determine their effect on the identity, behaviour and social change of people.

Narratives are important as a resource and in empowering individuals (Rappaport, 1995). Through allowing people to tell their stories, by listening to them and valuing their stories, they serve as an important resource to empower people rather

than disempower them. For example, people may be given the opportunity during special groups such as self-help organisations, religious communities and neighbourhood arts programs to express and tell their own stories (Mankowski & Rapaport, 1995). By participating in these activities, people become part of the different groups or communities. If they are participating in research, they become part of that research and their stories are recognised and valued as a resource. The participants are empowered through the process by taking part in the conception, development and production of their stories. Their voices have been heard as the narratives provide meaning (Bruner, 1993), memory (Schank, 1990) and identity (Mankowski & Rappaport, 1995), and participants are no longer isolated from the process but are "equal and collaborative partners" (Kelly, 1990, p. 785).

A narrative analysis extends the traditional methods of interviewing by investigating first-person accounts of stories by the participants themselves (Riessman, 1993). This is in contrast to standard interviewing techniques where the responses of the participants may be limited to answering specific questions, arguments or other forms of discussion (Mishler, 1991). Typically qualitative interviews are not narratives although participants in an interview situation may enlarge upon their answers to certain questions. However, in analysis these replies are interpreted and may be misunderstood out of context (Reissman).

The idea behind story telling was to see how participants construct and express meaning, and how they tell the story of their particular experiences (Bruner, 1993). The researcher might be interested in examining the story to discover not only its content, but also the way it is constructed and the context within which the story is related (Riessman, 1993). People interpret their own experiences and the retrospective narrative suggests the story of what has actually happened to the individual (Angrosino,

1995). The essence of narratives was summarised by Rosenwald and Ochberg, (1992, p.1):

> How individuals recount their histories – what they emphasize and omit, their stance as protagonists or victims, the relationship the story establishes between the teller and audience, all shape what individuals can claim of their own lives. Personal stories are not merely a way of telling someone (or oneself) about one's life; they are the means by which identities may be fashioned.

As has previously been discussed, researchers have offered different approaches to the study of narratives, but there has not been one definitive framework rather a diversity which researchers can access to enhance their own work (Mishler, 1995). In order to understand and compare different approaches to the study of narratives, Mishler proposed a framework to understand the production and analysis of narratives. A representation of his models is presented in Figure 9.1, which is followed by a brief description of each model.

Reference and temporal order: The "telling and the "told"

    Recapitulating the told in the telling

    Reconstructing the told from the telling

    Imposing a told on the telling

    Making a telling from the told

Textual coherence and structure: Narrative strategies

    Textual poetics: Figuration, tropes and style

    Discourse linguistics: Oral narratives

Narrative functions: Contexts and consequences

    Narrativization of experience: Cognition, memory, self

    Narrative and culture: Myths, rituals, and performance

    Storytelling in interactional and institutional contexts

    The politics of narrative: Power, conflict, and resistance

Figure 9.1 Models of Narrative Analysis: A Typology (Mishler, 1995, p.90)

In his first model, Mishler (1995) referred to "Reference and Temporal Order" and proposed that narratives within this category are analysed in order to establish a connection between "a sequence of real events and their ordering in the narrative account. From this perspective, a story is a 'representation', in speech or writing, of a series of temporally ordered events" (p.90). The notions of a succession of events are not necessarily all referred to as stories. The presence of other criteria may also be included such as the ordering of themes or the issue of causality. Mishler suggested that social scientists were less concerned with temporal ordering than historians and anthropologists. Furthermore, social scientists needed to define the type of ordering used in the analysis as well as the relationship between the described events and their textual representations.

Also included in this first model is the application of a linguistic approach to study oral narratives. Researchers may use different types of data and multiple respondents to construct a narrative that then becomes the unit for further analysis (Mishler, 1995). Another strategy within this first model is the use of narratives by researchers interested in differences between culture, class or gender in the stories of the respondents. The above examples are all similar in that they rely on the written or oral narrative produced by participants. The final approach within the first model is used mainly by historians. For example, they develop and record historical sequences as narratives in what Mishler referred to as "making a telling from the told".

The second model focussed on the construction of narratives and the way language is used to develop meaning. The main difference between this model and the one previously described is the manner in which the sequence of events is viewed. In this model temporal ordering is not used as a main reference source for analysis of the narrative. Within this model researchers distinguish between the story and the text. As suggested by Rimnon-Kenan (1983) the 'story' describes the events and characters within it in some form of temporal ordering. However, the text is the only constructed form in which the story is available to the researcher. In the text, the descriptions of events do not necessarily have to be in temporal sequence and the described characters may be scattered throughout and not necessarily in any order. Also classed under this model is a linguistic analysis for oral narratives.

Models in the final category pay less attention to the form and structure of narratives. They stress the task that the narratives accomplish, the framework within which the narrative is produced and the results they achieve (Mishler, 1995). This model incorporates approaches by psychologists who regard narratives as an important part of self- development and achieving one's identity. For example, Polkinghorne

(1988) suggested that a "narrative is a scheme by means of which human beings give meaning to their experience of temporality and personal actions" (p. 11). Incorporated in this category are models that might come from psychotherapy, family therapists and personality theorists who provide the opportunity for clients to tell their stories (Mishler). The narrative serves to provide meaning to different experiences and aid future development of the client.

Narratives from the domain of anthropology may also be included in this model, and include myths, rituals and stories that are culturally based. Researchers need to be aware of who owns the narrative, as they are symbolic of a particular event and care needs to be taken when researchers interpret these narratives. For example, gender may be an issue when interpreting narratives as women may have been excluded from different aspects of activities depending on the culture involved (Haraway, 1991).

The above description provides an analysis of one way in which narratives may be viewed. This was not intended to be a definitive typology, but rather an illustration that there are different ways to study narratives and that researchers may learn and adopt different approaches in their own search (Mishler, 1995). He commented that each approach has its limitations and one needs to diversify and include other strategies to gain a better understanding of the role and function of narratives within research.

Other frameworks have been proposed in which narratives may be conceptualised. Guidelines for studying personal narratives were developed by Reissman (1993) who suggested different stages in examining the narrative process. Although her approach was different from Mishler (1995), it must be noted that she dealt with one form of narrative, namely personal narratives. Some of her stages and descriptions are reflected in the first and second models of Mishler's typology. The

study in this thesis used personal narratives, so it is useful to examine this approach in

detail.

When using narrative analysis one needs to be concerned about representational

decisions (Reissman, 1993). Researchers made decisions at various points during the

research, because they were the ones that listened to the participants, recorded the

interview and subsequently interpreted what had been said. It was impossible to be

neutral and objective when interpreting the world (Peller, 1987). This echoed

Reissman's concerns and she suggested five levels of representation for the research

process (see Figure 9.2).

| Reading
Level 5 |
| Analyzing
Level 4 |
| Transcribing
Level 3 |
| Telling
Level 2 |
| Attending
Level 1 |

↖↑↗

Primary Experience

Figure 9.2 Levels of Representation in the Research Process (Reissman, 1993, p.10)

Level 1 refers to attending to the experience and alludes to initial contact that the

individual has with their happening or the experience. This may include gathering the

information into their perceptions through "reflecting, remembering and recollecting"

(p.9). Level 2 tells about the experience, which is the narrative or story about the

occurrence. This includes people asking questions about the event and the way the

story is retold may also depend on the listener. Level 3 includes capturing the story

through a medium such as video or tape recordings. Reissman suggested that no matter

which method was used, elements of the encounter would necessarily be lost. The story needs to be transcribed which is an interpretive practice. It is the researcher's decision as to the level of detail required in the transcript (Mishler, 1991), which are then analysed in the fourth level according to the values and theoretical approaches of the researcher to determine similarities across interviews and the significance of the content of the interviews. The fifth level represents the final report that is circulated and read by other researchers, colleagues and the participants who contributed their stories. This stage helps to empower the participants as they participate in the process (Rappaport, 1995). One cannot divorce the researcher from the interpretation, as the two were inextricably entwined, therefore, the reader will include their interpretations and understandings when reviewing the text (Reissman).

Interpretation of narrative research offers a viewpoint that one needs to be aware of the implications of using this research and understand that there are limitations with such an approach. The storyteller is central to the process but so are the actions of others involved in the process of listening, transcribing, analysing and reading the text. Reissman suggested that: "Interpreting experience-and this happens at all five levels…involves representing reality; we create and recreate voices over and over again during the research process. Nowhere is this more evident than in studies of personal narratives" (p.16).

The above descriptions of Mishler (1995) and Reissman (1993) indicate alternative views on narrative study, however, they both share a common theme in that they regard narratives as a resource (Rappaport, 1995). As such, narratives help to understand and lend meaning to different events and personal stories of participants. As suggested by Mishler (1995), researchers need to adopt amore reflective approach, because researchers also act as storytellers. It is through the procedures, frameworks

and methodologies adopted by the researchers that they develop the story and its meaning. Each narrative has at least two authors, the participant and the researcher both of whom acknowledge the context of the story and any historical significance either to the participant or the researcher.

Finally, this study used the methodological framework provided by Reissman (1993) and Mishler (1995) so that a comprehensive approach to the narrative study could be achieved. The study of narratives has been subjected to criticisms that it does not conform to scientific research. Therefore the following section provides an overview on the issue of validity,

Issue of Validity in Qualitative Inquiry

As has been previously suggested in Chapter 4, qualitative research has been criticised for its lack of validity. Internal validity was concerned with how closely the results of research match reality (Merriam, 1988). Recommendations for achieving high internal validity and therefore producing more credible results and interpretations of the research have been offered by Cohen and Manion (1989) and Lincoln and Guba (1985). These proposals included prolonged engagement, persistent observations, triangulation, peer debriefing and member checking. An attempt was made to incorporate most of these suggestions into the present research.

Prolonged engagement suggests that the researcher invest sufficient time into the study. Considerable time was spent with each participant prior to the interview so that the researcher could "become oriented to the situation…" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.302). This also provided an opportunity for the researcher "to demonstrate to the respondents that their confidence will not be used against them; that pledges of anonymity will be honored; that hidden agendas…are not being served; that the interests

of the respondents will be honored as much as those of the investigator; and that the

respondents will have input into, and actually influence, the inquiry process" (Lincoln &

Guba, 1985, p.303).

Besides using prolonged engagement, the researcher had also subscribed to

persistent observation to enhance internal validity. According to Lincoln and Guba

(1985, p.304) "If prolonged engagement provides scope, persistent observation provides

depth". As key informant interviews had also been conducted as part of the initial study

for the research, it was felt that the researcher had become part of the situation being

studied (Sanday, 1983). The researcher had the opportunity to meet with many

migrants prior to this study. Persistent observation provided depth to the study as

elements that were most relevant to the study were explored in detail through the use of

repeated interviews. As suggested by Laslett and Rappaport (1975, p.968):

Repeated interviews may achieve a different content and quality of information

when they are intentionally directed at getting below a preliminary description

of events and opinions and seek to elicit an understanding of the respondent's

meanings in relation to the topics being discussed".

Another strategy used in this research to achieve high internal validity was

triangulation. As previously mentioned, studies relying on single data sources,

investigators or methods are more vulnerable to errors linked to that source. For this

reason to avoid errors, multiple data sources were used in this research, and in this

particular study narratives were used representing the final technique to collect data.

Peer debriefing was also used whereby the researcher disclosed as much

information as possible about the inquiry to a peer group. These sessions provided an

opportunity to "explore aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.308). These sessions served to keep the researcher cognisant of her actions, and enhance the overall quality of the study.

Finally, member checking was used as a process to examine and review the information collected by the researcher. It also allowed the meaningfulness of the researcher's findings and interpretations to be examined. This was accomplished through the use of peers, university researchers experienced with qualitative research and those study-participants who were the source of information. This provided a unique opportunity for the different parties to correct errors and challenge incorrect interpretations by the researcher. "The investigator who has received the agreement of the respondent groups on the credibility of his or her work has established a strong beachhead toward convincing readers and critics of the authenticity of the work" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.315).

The ability to generalise the findings of the study refers to the external validity. As suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.316):

> The naturalist can only set out working hypotheses together with a description of the time and context in which they were found to hold. Whether they hold in some other context, or even in the same context at some other time,...depending upon the degree of similarity between sending and receiving...contexts. Thus the naturalist cannot specify the external validity of an inquiry; he or she can provide only the thick description necessary to enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility.

This study together with other studies in this thesis provides the "thick description" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10) which will provide the basis for further research in the migration area in order to understand the different factors which may contribute to the decision to migrate.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 10 (5 Female, 5 Male) migrants from the United Kingdom who had not been in Australia longer than five years. They were recommended by participants from study one and were not known personally to the researcher. The mean age of participants was 35.8 years ($\underline{SD}$ = 6.3).

Materials

1.   The interviewer read the following paragraph to each participant.

Tell me in your own words the story of why you decided to leave the United Kingdom. I have no set questions to ask you. I just want you to tell me about why you decided to leave and how you came to choose Australia as your place of destination. Just tell it to me as if it were a story with a beginning, middle and how you ended up in Australia. There are no right or wrong ways to tell your story. Just tell me in any way that is most comfortable for you.

2.   To facilitate recall if necessary, the interviewer presented a storyboard to the person:

To help you think of your story, this describes most people's storyline. You see that a storyline for immigration may include some of these parts: when you decided to move; why you decided to move; what factors led to the decision to move; was there a specific incident that triggered the decision to move; how did

you come to choose Australia; did you consider other places before making a decision; what factors were important when deciding on a country to which you might immigrate; what factors were unimportant in your decision to migrate; how satisfied are you with the move to Australia; would you ever return to live in the United Kingdom; now lets hear the story of your migration experience. How did it all begin?

Procedure

Previous participants were asked to recommend people not personally known to the researcher, but whom they were confident of being able to tell their stories in English. After an introductory contact, arrangements were made to meet the new participants in their home. This was an informal meeting to secure permission from the participants and all signed the required ethics form (see Appendix 19). All participants agreed to have the accounts of their stories recorded on tape.

Participants were asked to provide a narrative describing in detail their migration experience and the factors that contributed to that decision. The interviewer read the initial paragraph as well as the storyboard as indicated above. This gave respondents the freedom to express their thoughts in their own words and provide an effective record of their migration experience. All tape-recorded narratives were transcribed and analysed. After analysis of the narratives, participants were contacted to review and comment on the results and ensure that they were representative of the stories they told, and all participants supported the results.

Method of Analysis.

Narrative form may be categorised in many ways, but this analysis relies primarily on a scheme derived from Glesne and Peshkin (1992). The data were content analysed separately by two peers, and the results were discussed, combined and where

necessary, modified with the agreement of both researchers. Final results were also checked by a third researcher, a university lecturer experienced in qualitative research. Finally, the participants in this study were shown the analysis and asked for further comments and whether they thought the results were accurate reflections of their migration decision making experience.

Tape-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. Transcripts were read individually during which the researcher noted any biases and reactions to the transcript. A journal was kept in which memos and notes were recorded as this formed part of the audit trail (Drew, 1997). While reading the transcript, significant statements were underlined (e.g., we moved because we had family and friends in Australia). From these statements a list of categories were developed which emerged from each interpreters' version of the data and were intended to reflect the issues raised by the participants (e.g., social reasons for moving). Significant statements were written on separate index cards which were then sorted into these relational categories (Collier, Ribeau, & Hecht, 1986; Hecht, & Ribeau, 1987). Common categories were then grouped together to represent a theme (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). These categories were conceptually similar regarding the experience (e.g., Australia offered our children a better lifestyle as well as a better education. These were grouped into a theme of issues concerning children). A description of three or four sentences was written by the researchers integrating themes where possible. For example, issues relating to political reasons for moving, comments and descriptions about the problems of living with the threat of bombings, from the Irish Republican Army, were placed under the one theme of politics. For example one participant commented that:

My husband was in town one day and suddenly the whole area was being

evacuated as a bomb had been discovered in a car. Thankfully no one was hurt,

but it is not very pleasant living like that. Things are much better now, but not

really safe you know. It is just as bad as living in the Middle East as you never

know when they will let off another bomb.

Each interview was analysed according to the above plan. Thereafter the

investigator would go back to the previous interview to ensure that any new themes,

which had emerged from the new transcript, had not been missed in previous

transcripts. This ensured maximum analysis for each narrative. Figure 9.1 represents

the procedure for analysis diagrammatically.
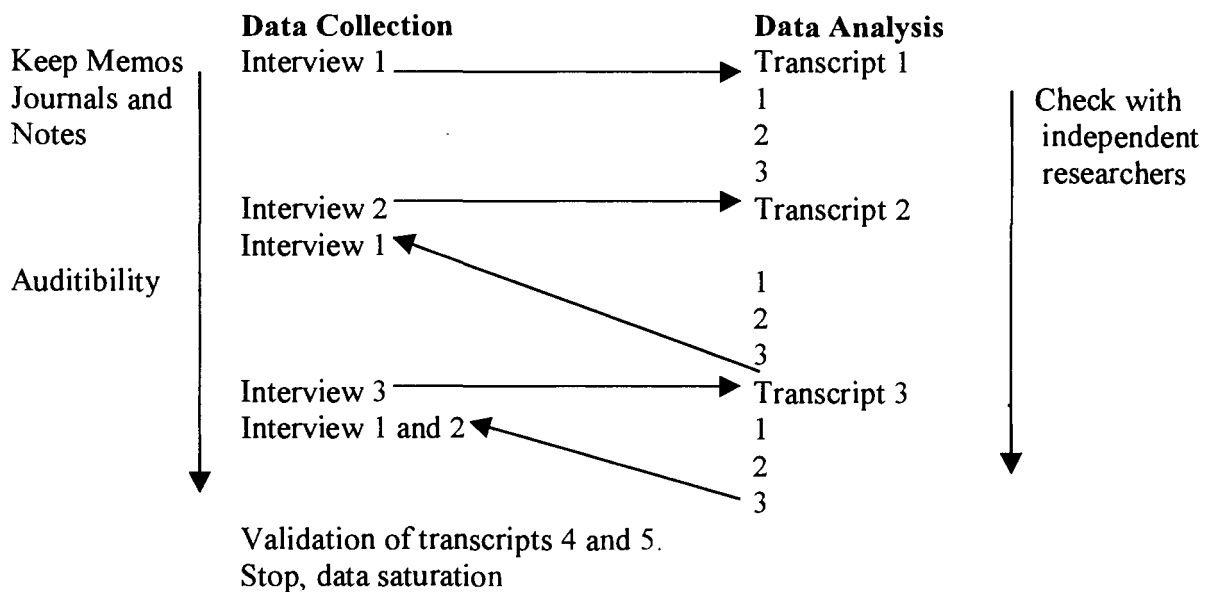
Figure 9.3 Representation of data analysis

Finally, the investigators compared their analyses to identify whether responses

had been placed under similar categories. The researchers compared the names

allocated for the themes and thematic descriptions were discussed until consensus was reached on achieving the most economical and analytical description. Themes that emerged were not mutually exclusive but adequately represent the main factors that contributed to the participants' migration decision making experience (Agar & Hobbs, 1982). A decision was made to use similar themes and categories that had emerged during study one, as these were essentially reflected in the above analysis.

It was decided to present the participants' stories in the form of vignettes. This was to ensure that their confidentiality and anonymity was maintained. Each vignette represents a variety of migration experiences as described by the migrants. The vignettes are not stories of specific migrants but were structured so that the reader was able to obtain a more accurate picture of the factors that contributed to the decision-making processes of the migrant.

Results: Description of Vignettes

Vignette 1

Barbara is 32 years of age and has been in Australia for 3 years. She is a secretary and has 2 children between the ages of 5 and 7. She and her husband considered moving to other places such as Canada but decided that one really needed a lot of money to be able to live there comfortably. Also the weather wasn't much better than the U.K. The weather in England was really very miserable. "It was very cold and you would get up in the morning and it was black, you'd get home at night and it was black and we thought why are we living here?" The main catalyst for thinking about Australia was that she had a good friend who had been born in Australia and had since returned home. She had shown them pictures of Australia and sent them glowing reports of life in

Australia. Another issue that concerned them was racism, which they thought

was increasing, and were worried about raising children in such an atmosphere.

They have been very happy in Australia and have never regretted the move.

Vignette 2

Cheryl is 35 years of age and has been living in Australia for 4 years. She is a

nurse and is married to an engineer. They have 3 children between the ages of 2

and 10. They considered that leaving the United Kingdom was an adventure

with both positive and negative aspects to the experience. They wanted a better

quality of life, because in the United Kingdom life was difficult and they both

had to "...work very hard for our standard of living and what we earned didn't

seem to go all that far in giving us a reasonable quality of life". They were only

prepared to consider English speaking countries. She commented that the

climate was not ideal in the United Kingdom especially if one has small children

and are unable to get out very often. Australia seemed a good compromise. She

was very confident about all the positive aspects of Australia such as the climate,

parks for the children to enjoy and less pollution in the cities. She was very

positive about the success she and her husband had made in their careers and the

opportunities that were available to them in Australia as compared to the United

Kingdom. The education for their children was very good in Australia and they

felt that "...looking back on our decision to emigrate, we could never have given

our children these opportunities." Also she felt that "Australia was a country

largely made up of migrants especially British ones, so there is a lot of support

in that respect once you get here".

Vignette 3

Kay is 30 years old and is married to a computer programmer. They have one child aged 7. She has been living in Australia for 2 years. They did consider other countries but wanted an English speaking country so it was either America, Canada or Australia. The pace in America was too fast and it was very difficult to obtain a visa for Canada. One of the reasons they decided to move was that economically she and her husband felt that things were getting very difficult in the United Kingdom. The political situation there also played a part. She commented that the uncertainty with the Irish Republican Army was very difficult to live with as"...you couldn't go into a shop without having a bomb alert and so it was getting pretty scary not being able to live in the city peacefully". An added attraction of Australia was that the lifestyle for children was ideal "...with plenty of parks, beaches and wide open spaces". They considered that they have made the right decision and enjoy the amenities that are available to them.

Vignette 4

Nicky is 28 years of age, single and arrived in Australia a year ago. She is a qualified remedial teacher. She had known for some time that she didn't want to spend the rest of her life in the United Kingdom. She felt that there was a feeling of a lack of a sense of the future. She had travelled extensively and had made friends with people from Australia who had encouraged her to come and live here. She also had good friends who had come to settle in Australia soon after they got married so she was very aware of the lifestyle and opportunities in the country. She used to envy places with a climate that had a good summer, outdoor sports and public facilities. A combination of factors in the United

Kingdom contributed to her decision to migrate, but primarily the weather and traffic congestion were major contributing reasons. Crime was increasing in the U.K. and she felt very vulnerable. Housing was an added issue as she commented that "...I would end up in one of those semis just like the rest of my family and everything is squashed, housing, shopping, roads and traffic". She considered Australia as a country with growing opportunities including the employment area.

Vignette 5

Roger is 39 years old, a dentist, and has been living in Australia for 4 years. His wife is a computer programmer and they have 3 children aged between 8 and 12 years. They came from a good area in London and financially were doing well. He had family and very good friends living in Australia and came here for a holiday. On their return to the United Kingdom, they realised just how limited things were where they lived, especially in terms of quality of life. They had come to Australia in the summer and left behind the freezing cold, rain and snow and came to the sunshine. They enjoyed the lifestyle especially the beaches, outdoors and the parks. Also it was so easy to get into the city from where their family and friends lived as the distances were not so great. The houses were all on reasonable sized blocks of land and not on top of one another. The children enjoyed the beaches and were able to participate in sporting activities. He also commented that "...the educational facilities were far superior than where we lived and the children have more opportunities here". Employment prospects were very good for both his wife and himself. Neither he nor his wife really considered other places of destination, as Australia "...sort of fell into our laps".

Vignette 6

Allan is 36 and has been living in Australia for 3 years with his wife but no

children yet. He is a tradesman and has worked in the building industry for most

of his working life. He and his wife considered migrating to America, France

and Japan. He always came back to thinking about Australia because it was an

English speaking country and he felt that he could make a living there. They

chose Australia because of the good climate, the language, the opportunities to

make a successful life and economic reasons. He also commented that "…the

racism in the United Kingdom was getting worse and was very marked. I

wanted somewhere more stable, less crime, no racism". Neither he nor his wife

had friends or relations in Australia, but both were aware of a large expatriate

community, which they hoped, would provide support if necessary. His wife is

expecting their first child and they felt that the opportunities for children were

better in Australia. In Australia, he can afford a comfortable home with all the

amenities, close to schools, parks and the beach. He suggested that they

wouldn't have done so well in the United Kingdom.

Vignette 7

Jim is 28 years old, married with one child aged 2 years. He is a salesman and

his wife a nurse. They have been in Australia for 2 years. They did consider

Canada and South Africa but chose Australia because he had a sister that lived

here. After they were married Jim had difficulty obtaining a mortgage for a

house "…just hassles, so my sister asked why we wanted to stay there. I put in

the application for Australia and we migrated a year later." We didn't have such

a good life in the United Kingdom. "There are far more advantages to living in

Australia than disadvantages". Jim and his wife enjoy outdoor living and

camping, which was rather limited in the United Kingdom. He also enjoys a good standard of living "...well most people like nice things and you like to be comfortable and you like to have something at the end of the day to show for what you're putting in and I think that's what we've got". He mentioned that Australian cities were clean with little pollution as compared to the United Kingdom. It was easier to travel around the cities here because distances within them were not so great. Economically he felt there was more opportunity than if they had stayed in the United Kingdom. They both found it difficult to leave family behind, but felt they were doing the best for their future and for their children. He commented that "...there are far more opportunities for the children here than where we came from. Also the adults, if you are prepared to work hard, you can get places here. There's nothing stopping you".

Vignette 8

Bob is 40 years old and married with one child aged 14. He is a pharmacist and his wife a radiologist. They settled in Australia 5 years ago. He and his wife started thinking about moving when they saw a video of Perth sent to them by friends, and comments "...when I saw their houses, the way they lived and the weather...I had always wanted to live in a warm climate and this seemed the perfect place. London was so overcrowded, lack of public facilities, lack of maintenance of the facilities that were there." They didn't want to go to a country where they would have to learn another language as he felt he was too old already. They were concerned about the political situation and the ability of the government to continue in a responsible manner. Their daughter was only 9 years old at the time they moved, but they felt that they owed her a better chance at success. Australia offered a superior education system as well the chance to

live in a better area compared to where they could afford to live in London.

When talking about housing, he said"…you get more for your money over here

and the homes are just so much better designed. Where else in the world could

you live like this". He also suggested that there were other factors which

contributed to their decision to move and commented "I felt I was living in a

country with a glorious past and as I said not much to offer for the future.

Because of the poor weather, I used to see my daughter roller-skating in the

street holding an umbrella. This really annoyed me and I felt that this was not a

satisfactory environment in which to bring up kids". Bob talked about the

economy and how everything seemed so cheap compared to the United

Kingdom, for example the houses, food, dining out and even the quality of the

food seemed better. He felt that in a country where such a high percentage of

people were migrants, it would be very easy to access support systems and this

has in fact proved to be the case. He commented "…granted we did have friends

before we moved, but there are so many exBritish people here, there's always

someone around". Neither Bob nor his wife had problems obtaining

employment. They both enjoy walking and cycling and felt that the outdoor life

and climate in Australia lends itself to these types of activities. Bob suggested

that the quality of life is far better in Australia and he and his wife are

completely satisfied with their move.

The stories described above discuss different factors, which may have

contributed to the decision to move. These attributes have been combined to compile

stories, which represent all ten of the participants interviewed. Different themes have

been identified and combined to form the vignettes for an individual in an attempt to

provide an overview of all the themes mentioned by the migrants. In this study the researcher has used the particular stories and combined them into representative narratives of the migrants.

In general, Allport (1962) used the term "nomothetic" to identify the search for general laws whereas "idiographic" refers to concepts concerning the individual. He suggested that psychology has been concerned mainly with the nomothetic approach with an emphasis on arriving at general statements rather than studying a single individual. In a nomothetic approach, participants are considered imitations of one another and the results are averaged which better indicates the trend in the overall results (Cooksey, 1996). Researchers (Zavalloni & Louis-Guerin, 1979) have proposed studying psychological processes directly from the individual instead of inferring them from aggregate responses.

Critics of the nomothetic approach such as Lamiell (1981) commented that the nomothetic approach does not produce knowledge that is sufficiently individualised or idiographic in nature. This has led to a change in emphasis from the traditional nomothetic approach to a neo-idiographic one, which concentrates, on the individual rather than on average levels of performance (Cooksey, 1996). However, Judgment Analysis and Decision Theory are examples of where a nomothetic and an idiographic approach are linked together (Cooksey). For example in Judgment Analysis, idiographic analysis is used first and then results may be aggregated across judges. Therefore, the use of an ideographic approach for documenting the experience of the migration decision-making process, may be seen as appropriate (Hermans, 1988). Hermans further suggested that "knowledge of the individual from the perspective of the general and knowledge of the individual from the perspective of the particular are mutually complementary and therefore should be combined..." (p.791).

In addition, a particular finding in one participant may be investigated in other people so that a new generality may be obtained (Hermans, 1988). It may be acceptable to assume that individuals interpret and comprehend phenomena in similar ways, and as such nomothetic patterns need to be identified in the data (Coakes, 1995). Psychological research can benefit from a combination of nomothetic and idiographic research as the two are not mutually exclusive as Miles and Huberman (1984) indicated that it was complex "to draw an arbitrary line between idiographic and nomothetic approaches to research" (p.20) as both represent valid methods (Ottenbacher, 1984).

The qualitative data obtained from the participants' stories provides an important interpretive context for the issue of further understanding the factors that contributed to the migration decision making process. As Reissman (1993) commented "Narratives are interpretive and, in turn, require interpretation" (p.22). The Personal Narratives Group (1989) wrote that narratives "do not speak for themselves or provide direct access to other times, places or cultures" (p.264). As previously discussed, both idiographic and nomothetic interpretations have been incorporated into the interpretation of these results. The following section discusses these factors, as documented by two independent raters and checked by a third researcher which has contributed to the validity of the findings (Patton, 1990).

Discussion: Factors Affecting the Decision to Move

The analysis produced nine relational themes in the narratives of factors that may influence the decision to migrate: language, climate, politics, children, social networks, knowledge of the community, the environment, economic factors and open spaces. In order to demonstrate and explain these themes, examples are quoted from respondent's descriptions. These quotes are not meant to prove or verify the themes,

merely to elucidate the conclusion derived from intensive analyses of the participant's

descriptions of their migration decision making process.

Language

Historically, there have been a number of reasons cited for why individuals and

families choose foreign countries as a destination place. Language emerged as a central

category possibly due to the intensity of phenomena associated with it (Aroian, 1990).

Communication was an important factor in securing information as well as being able to

speak with people in the new country (Regis, 1988). English was needed to ensure

employment, for daily living tasks and for social needs (Aroian). Most studies in

migration have failed to acknowledge the importance of language in the decision to

migrate and the choice of a destination place. Language helped to foster the

attachments to the new country and can help the migrant both to process information as

well as seek the required information in the new country (Regis). Further, Glick (1993)

implied that people may migrate to certain countries because of the possibility of

"...drawing on the bonds of...language" as this may help them in their efforts to settle

down successfully in the new country. This has been supported by Portes and Rumbaut

(1990) and Funkhauser and Ramos (1993) who commented that language was an

important factor in the assimilation process of the migrant.

The impact of language on migration has been examined in many groups such as

the Latinas (Espin, 1987) and Asian migrants (McLeod, 1986) in the USA. Research

with these groups indicated that language skills might act as a stress buffer in a new

cultural environment (Nicassio, Solomon, Guest & McCullough, 1986). Poor command

of the English language has also been related to somatic complaints in migrants from a

Mexican-American sample (Delgado-Gaitan, 1994). In general, it appeared that

inadequate mastery of the language and a poor communication in the new environment might provide the new immigrant with many difficulties. Therefore it was not surprising that Feldman (1996) proposed that in intercountry migration, individuals were more likely to choose an environment that was as similar as possible to the previous place of residence, with the language in the new country likely to be similar to their own.

As illustrated by the vignettes, respondents indicated that their preferences regarding the type of country they wished to live in, was based on the premise that English was the main language spoken. For example:

Well, we thought of other places to live in, but really if you can't speak the language you're in real trouble. How can you get around?

It needed to be an English speaking country, that's what we wanted.

I only speak English, imagine not being able to read a newspaper. It had to be an English speaking country.

From the participants interviewed, 80% of the sample referred to the idea that they had wanted to move to an English speaking country. As one participant explained:

I only speak English but my husband speaks French quite well. When we have gone abroad on holidays he can converse quite well with the locals. We decided we wanted to go to a place where English was the official language.

Climate

This theme references the expression of climatic factors by a participant.
Prevailing climate in the United Kingdom was of concern to 90% of participants. It was
not unreasonable to assume that many factors including climate and especially sunshine
may contribute to the decision to migrate (Greenwood, 1985; Mueser, 1989).
Consistent with Sell (1983) and Peters (1989) participants cited better climate as a
frequent reason for moving. As some participants commented:

One day we just decided when our son was about two, the weather was

miserable, it was cold and you would get up in the morning and it was black,

you'd get home at night and it was black and we thought what are we living here

for.

The weather was really a big thing. The weather more than anything."
"We wanted a good reliable climate.

One winter I was desperate to see the sun. Can you imagine that?

The participants in this study noted that it was the weather in the United Kingdom,
which was a contributing factor to the decision to move. However, expected weather
was more of concern to a migrant (Graves, 1979). In choosing a destination place,
participants elected Australia where the perceived temperatures were much higher than
where they were from:

I suppose it was essentially the weather. We felt that Australia had the added

attraction of the climate. It was ideal for us.

Then there was the issue of the weather. Although both of us had lived all our

lives in the United Kingdom we would have been very happy to see sunshine for

a greater part of the year.

We had been married three years when my partner decided that he was going to

live in Australia. He had had enough of the English winters. It was after one of

our particularly bad winters when we had been inside all the time and it had not

stopped snowing for days. Nobody went out. The streets were treacherous.

We came to Perth in the summer so we left behind the freezing cold, rain and

snow and came to all this glorious sunshine.

I suppose you could live in any country if the weather was lovely or if you like

the weather that you have here. If you had summers like you have here, I mean I

don't particularly like it when it is in the forties but if you had six months of the

year like it is, you would probably live there because that was the big push for

everyone coming from the U.K. was the weather. The winter was very bad and

cold. You'd have icicles hanging from your windows and your central heating

would be on morning, noon and night and your bills would be astronomical.

As suggested in the above comments, Australia has a climate that is especially attractive

to those migrants coming from the United Kingdom and its significance may not be

reflected by other migrant groups (Kincaid & Yum, 1987).

Politics

As many of the vignettes suggested, racism, stability of the country and democracy were issues that influenced the decision. The contribution of political factors is well documented in the migration literature concerning refugees. As suggested by Article 1 of the 1951 Geneva Convention, a refugee is someone who is forced to migrate internationally because of "a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion" (Koser, 1996, p.408). This was not the case with migrants emigrating from the United Kingdom to Australia. Their perception of a more democratic, less racist society in Australia may be as a result of being unhappy about a current situation in the United Kingdom and the search for better opportunities elsewhere (Gertsen, 1990). Political reasons were not suggested as the main variable in migration decision-making but were nevertheless mentioned.

Politically we had a big problem with the IRA, bombings you know. It was getting pretty scary not being able to live in the city peacefully.

One day my husband was in Oxford Street and the police cordoned off and evacuated a whole area because of a car bomb which had just gone off. Thankfully no one was killed but to be honest he was really shaken when he came home. It is all very well reading about these things in the newspapers and seeing it on television but when you come face to face with it, it really brings home just how fragile life really is and what can happen to you in a split second. So that really started a discussion on the politics and democracy of the area. You don't have that sort of political trouble in Australia.

The place we came from was so racist and not very nice things were happening

to people in the area. It was just not right.

There were so many problems with the conservative government and the things

they were doing. They were creating so many problems for everyone. Granted

had we stayed we would just have lived with it, but it really became very

annoying. I suppose they thought they were doing the best for the country, but

really the place was going only one way.

Children

Respondents describing events in this category felt that issues relating to

children were crucial to their decision to migrate. The explanation provided by the

respondents was embedded in a concern for the future of the children (Ziegler, 1980).

These findings are consistent with a number of studies (De Jong, Root, Gardner,

Fawcett, & Abad, 1986; Winchie & Carment, 1989; Cushing, 1993). However, there is

research that suggests that families with children are less likely to migrate than those

without children (Gould & Penley, 1985; Glick, 1993). This idea has proved useful to

explain mobility in many cases (Speare, 1974), but the usefulness of such a concept has

been brought into question by Landale and Guest (1985). Personal factors such as the

welfare of their children and educational prospects, were potential contributors to the

decision to migrate (Carlisle Frank, 1992). This concept is illustrated by the following

comments:

I think a lot of people did really want the best for their children and a better way

of life for the children. And when your kids are young that is the best time to do

it.

I don't think we could have given our children nearly as much as we have over

here.

...I think the education is far superior over here than it was over in the U.K. In

all fairness and I'm not knocking the schools over there, the education wasn't as

good as the school my son went to over here. There is a high standard of

education over here. The education is in a different class over in the U.K.

Maybe if you go to one of the upperclass boarding schools it's different, but not

the ordinary local schools. Maybe it's changing over there... The one comment I

can make is that the children over there seemed to have more respect for their

teachers... but that could be changing as well.

"It was getting to be really unsafe living in London and we were very afraid for

the two boys. We both felt that it was time to move for the sake of the children.

We wanted them to grow up in an environment that was safe and stable and not

be afraid if they wanted to play in the garden. The education is fantastic for the

children and it is so much freer here for them. The education is far broader

over here with more subjects to choose from".

We had no children when we moved here but really we were thinking of the

future. Things are much better here for children. It is the most wonderful

country to grow up in. We have two small children now and we wouldn't move

back to the U.K. for the world.

The children are so lucky here. They have the most wonderful life. There are so

many opportunities for them. You just have to take advantage of what is

available. For example, the community recreation centres offer so many

activities for the kids. They can learn so much. You don't get that everywhere

you know.

Social networks

Social networks were perceived as a source of support as well as information for

the migrants. As many of the vignettes illustrate, the decision to move to Australia was

based on the fact that the migrant had family or friends already living in Australia.

Respondents saw the presence of friends or relations as a potential support system in the

new community (Hausman & Reed, 1991). Some research has found that family ties at

the place of origin tended to deter migration as people don't want to leave the family

unit (Mincer, 1978; Veiga, 1983). In this research, family ties at the chosen destination

place appears to have played a part in the decision to migrate. This was supported by

findings in a number of studies which suggested that the destination may be chosen on

the basis of connections established through friends and relatives (Goldscheider, 1971;

Price & Sikes, 1975; Ziegler, 1980; Roseman, 1983; DeJong et al. 1986). Some

researchers have found that the most significant attribute for a chosen destination place

was the presence of relatives and friends in that place (Williams & Sofranko, 1979).

This finding was supported by Winchie and Carment (1989) who found that the most

frequently suggested reason for choosing Canada as a destination place was the

presence of friends or relatives in Canada. It appears that the existence of family and

friends underlies much of the migration to Western countries (Boyd, 1989).

One mitigating factor seems to be that there was a benefit for migrants to move

to countries where they had friends or relations provided this network was well

established prior to the migration (Choldin, 1973). These networks provided

advantages such as offering different forms of assistance to the migrant, helping them

establish new social networks and finding employment. These factors were expressed

by the migrants interviewed as well as their desire to be near relatives and friends:

We came to Perth because we had very good friends there and we didn't know

anyone in Melbourne or Sydney. It makes such a difference to know people

when you get off the plane. They have been fantastic to us. I don't know what

we would have done without them.

The main reason I migrated here was because of my sister, she lived here. She

had left England when I was quite young and I always wanted to visit. I got one

opportunity, but missed out and I had always wanted to come on holiday. The

main reason for coming to Perth was when she came back for my birthday, she

talked so much about where she lived. I know it was a big move, but I knew I

wanted more than I was going to have in England if I stayed there. With my

sister and her family here I couldn't go wrong. I had somewhere to stay when I

arrived, and had so many contacts that it was easy finding a job as well.

I think my family being in Australia was a contributing factor for us actually

arriving in Australia. Australia won out because of my family. They introduced

us to so many people that it was overwhelming and we have never looked back.

It is sad to leave your good friends behind that you've had all your lives, but we

had no trouble meeting others through the family.

I always knew I wanted to move to Perth when I saw a video of people who I

knew who had emigrated from the United Kingdom, when I saw their houses, the

way they lived and the weather ...In the meantime my brother and his family

migrated to Perth and I started making inquiries with his help. We made up our

minds to immigrate and we came here as opposed to other places because we

had family here as well as good friends from the U.K. It is much easier to come

to a place where you know people. I miss my friends but there is no way I would

go back to the U.K.

Knowledge of the community

Immigration to Australia is unique in that there is a large expatriate population

living in the country. Historically, previous governments have encouraged this and

presently the British are still the largest migrant group in Australia (BMPR, 1997).

Understanding of the relationship between kinship and migration has been researched

by Litwak (1960). He suggested that the interaction between people from the same

country or area persisted in a new country after migration; strong bonds may form

between members of the community who originated from the same country and these

people may help one another with various tasks. This is supported by Boyd (1989) who

maintained that community networks at the destination place were relevant in the

decision process. If people managed to re-establish social ties with individuals from the

homeland, they may receive much help from them. Some participants who were

interviewed suggested that the knowledge of an expatriate community aided the
decision to migrate, although this was never suggested as the primary reason for
moving:

> *We knew there were lots of people from Britain living here and we thought that*
> *was a good thing because there would always be someone who we could turn to*
> *and they would understand what we were saying. It has sort of worked out that*
> *way. A lot of our friends are from Britain.*

> *We knew there was a British Club in Australia with branches all over. It didn't*
> *matter much but it was nice to know that it was there, especially in the*
> *beginning we would go to a lot of functions as it was nice to mix with people*
> *from the same place as you. This also helped us settle a lot quicker.*

> *The first thing we did was join the British Club. That put us in contact with so*
> *many people from the U.K., and made us feel right at home.*

> *As a British colony, we knew there would be a lot of people from the U.K. here.*
> *I suppose that made us feel more comfortable because then we knew that the*
> *culture had to be pretty similar to what we were used to, as well as a similar*
> *way of life. I wanted to go somewhere where I would fit in and have people that*
> *could understand what I was saying. That was quite important for me.*

Environment

The decision to migrate often results in consideration of environmental

conditions (Schumaker & Stokols, 1982), such as pollution and overcrowding

(Greenwood, 1985; Kontuly, Smith & Heaton, 1995). Many negative aspects of living

in a place such as pollution and overcrowding were starting to be recognised as

contributing to the decision to migrate (Kontuly, Smith & Heaton, 1995). In addition,

amenity factors such as distances to the shops and schools may be important in the

destination selection (Gustavus & Brown, 1977). There has been evidence in the

literature that when people migrate, they try and relocate in environments that have

similar characteristics to their previous place (Churchman & Mitrani, 1997; Feldman,

1996). This concept differs from the idea of place utility (Wolpert, 1965) which

suggested that when people look for a destination place, they choose the place which

has the greatest utility from the available alternatives. In other words, it assumes that

people consider alternative destinations and choose one, which has the greatest utility.

This concept infers that people have adequate knowledge of all the selected

destinations.

In the search for a destination place, the migrant actively seeks knowledge about

different places (Brown, Malecki & Philliber (1977). This may include those places

with which the person has had personal contact through vacations, or they may gain

knowledge through the media or acquaintances. From the comments made by the

migrants, many had not previously been to Australia before and the knowledge that they

possessed regarding attributes of the environment was gained through other media,

family or friends. Participants made the following comments:

I mentioned the environment before, so let me go back to it. Firstly the traffic.

It is a pleasure to drive over here as the roads are not nearly as busy as in

London. Secondly, the centre of the city where it is a pleasure to be able to walk

in the town without getting bumped and to have some space to yourself. London

especially Oxford Street is like having wall to wall people...also from where I

live now it takes me no more than 15 minutes into the city and that's when it is

very busy. Oh and you can actually park in the city. That was quite a novel

experience the first time and its not even expensive.

...as for the pollution in London or any of the big cities in the U.K. It really

can't be healthy. In the winter it is so bad sometimes that there is this

permanent haze over the city. You never get to see a clear sky, although they

are trying to do something about it, and even the buildings have to be cleaned

from the pollution. It's a terrible situation. My child suffers from asthma and

sometimes it was too terrible.

...the cleanliness of the city was marvellous here, and you could really notice the

difference between Perth and London.

Economic factors

Under this theme, economic issues were considered. The economic explanation

of migration emphasises that migrants tended to move in order to improve their

economic position (Ziegler, 1980; Roseman, 1980; Winchie & Carment, 1989;

Shihadeh, 1991; Cushing, 1993) and choose destination places where they are likely to

find jobs (Fabricant, 1970; Wagner & Ward, 1980; Shaklee, 1989; Kirschenbaum,

1991). In a "push and pull model" better economic opportunities at the destination

place was likely to pull migrants towards that destination (DeJong & Fawcett, 1981).

Respondents did comment that economic issues were important.

my husband and I first came to have a look and ...economically things were

not so good in London. It was getting very expensive. We found the same items

cheaper here and my husband could earn more money here as well. So we were

going to be far better off here than in London.

I felt that Australia was a land of growing opportunities....as long as you were

prepared to work you could make a go of it. It's not that we weren't doing

financially well, but conditions were much better over here and we could both

get excellent jobs here with no problems. Add that to the wonderful climate and

it was near perfect. It wasn't just the economic factors but a combination of

economic, weather and even the politics...the lucky country.

My husband had done business with Australia so we knew this was a land of

opportunity and it was just waiting for us...we have done really well here with a

bit of hard work...although we had a good business back home, but it would

never have gotten so big...

I didn't have a job waiting for me when I arrived, but I knew the prospect of

finding one was not going to be a problem. With my experience I had no trouble

and now I earn more than I did in the U.K. There is so much opportunity here if

you are willing to work...

Housing has also been considered an important issue. Researchers have outlined that in a migration context, housing was one of the attributes of a destination place, which may be considered in the decision to move (Gustavus & Brown, 1977; Kontuly, Smith & Heaton, 1995).

...everything was small in London. The houses were small, the rooms were small...you always had somewhere to live because if necessary you could get a council house, but you had to be really rich to get a home like the one we live in over here.

We have a big house here as well as a big garden for the kids to play in. The whole area is so spacious, the house and the garden". It's close to the beach so in summer, and sometimes if the weather permits we go in winter. We go down there for walks or for the kids to play in the sand.

I can't believe that we could afford to buy such a wonderful house over here. We lived in this small flat with the two children in London. We were going to move and try and get a house, but it meant moving to one of the outer suburbs, which we would have had to do as we didn't have a choice. It was just getting too small for us. Yes there was a park nearby, but it's not the same as having your own garden. You can just see how marvellous this is for us.

Open Spaces

Perceived difference in outdoor factors between the host country and previous country will influence the migration decision (Hazelrigg & Hardy, 1995). Factors such as outdoor activities and recreation are often more important than economic considerations in the decision to migrate (Williams & Sofranko, 1979; Porell, 1982). This lends support to the idea that environments that were rich in amenities were also likely to be significant in international migration (Graves, 1979; Hoggart & Buller, 1995). For example, the presence of recreational spaces, bicycle paths, and recreational centres for citizens added to the quality of life of many respondents.

I love the outdoor life over here. We both enjoy playing sport and we get out as much as possible over here. Back in England you didn't get much of a chance to enjoy that sort of thing.

Well I said I'd be back in two years if it didn't work...but my mum said that I'll never come back, as I would love the outdoor life...I'm still here to tell the story.

You know what really appeals to us here is that every few blocks there is a park where the kids can go, play and we can go for a walk. Yes, we have enormous parks in London, but you have to get there. It's not very convenient. Maybe once a month or so but not on your doorstep like here. Here our local reserve even has a cycle path where we go and ride with the children. People get to know you and the weather is really conducive to doing all these activities. We've made some good friends through the park

The children love going to the beach especially during summer and we have

picnics on the grassed areas even in winter when it doesn't rain. We felt so

hemmed in London, and wherever you went it was almost always indoors.

There had to be something better and we've found it

Summary and Overview

It is evident from the above discussion that in order to determine the factors that

contribute to the decision to move, one cannot focus solely on only one attribute, as it

appears that it is a combination of factors which play a part in the decision to move.

Migration decision making is not unidimensional and a variety of issues play a part in

the individual migrants decision, including climate, politics and economic

considerations. The choice of a destination place such as Australia may depend upon

finding a place where the climate is better than at the place of origin as well as choosing

a place where English was the main language. Very often the reasons for moving and

reasons for destination selection were similar.

We had had enough of the weather in London. It was always grey and dark,

although you did get some nice sunny days in summer, but it was so short. If we

were going to move then it had to be somewhere where the sun shone and it had

to have reasonable weather. I mean look at the weather we have here as well as

all that sunshine especially in the middle of winter.

The most salient issues in selecting a destination place appeared to be climate,

language and better opportunities for the children, although it does seem that not many

factors were pertinent in the destination selection process. Once people have made the

decision to move, the destination place may be chosen on the basis of a combination of a few attributes such as ties to the place through family, friends or the weather (Goldscheider, 1971; Price & Sikes, 1975). The significance of personal contact through friends or relatives was emphasised as part of the migration decision.

> *...we considered Australia not only because our good friends lived there, but also because of the wonderful sunshine and the weather in general...English was very important because neither of us spoke another language and we just couldn't face learning a new language.*

Many of the migrants spoke of better opportunities and education for their children. As one migrant explained:

> *...we decided that the opportunities for the children were not as good in the U.K. as they were in Australia...there were fewer university places and that was going to be a problem especially for the oldest...the others had plenty of time to think about that...at the same time the education system is better in Australia. Children can get very lost in the system if they are not bright in the U.K. ...I don't know but the impression is that in Australia there is more emphasis placed on doing the best for each individual child...*

Other factors such as the political considerations both in the U.K. and Australia were discussed. Many of the migrants saw the environment as an issue together with a perceived better quality of life in Australia as opposed to remaining in the U.K.

Although there were not many factors that were mentioned as being significant in

choosing a destination, the selection of a place depended on a combination of them.

The issue of satisfaction for all participants appeared to be prominent. All

participants reported being extremely content with the move to Australia and no

participants commented that they regretted the decision to migrate, although some had

left families behind in the United Kingdom. This was a source of anguish for them, but

they were still happy to be living in Australia and had settled down well into their new

life. Some had moved because they had family and friends living in Australia and this

had contributed to their successful adjustment to Australia. Others suggested that

because there was such a large expatriate community, it was easy to make friends with

whom they were able to relate. The presence of a British Club also helped the settling

in process and contributed to the overall satisfaction of living in Australia.

Conclusion

This study validates the finding of the other three stages of the research by

returning to the people who have undergone the migration experience. It contributes to

understanding the factors that impact on the decision to move and the choice of

destination place. The relationship between the decision to move and the choice of a

destination place may be difficult, as this distinction has not yet been thoroughly

investigated (Roseman, 1983). The evidence provided by the migrants in this study

suggests that there are two decisions, but they are inextricably linked. Migrants tend to

determine attributes at the point of origin that may be unfavourable and they select a

destination place with the positive attribute in mind. For example, the inclement

weather in the United Kingdom was cited frequently as a factor that contributed to the

decision to move. However, Australia was chosen specifically for its perceived

favourable weather. The words of the participants in this study support the notion that

respondents develop ideas about what they desire at a particular destination place and

associate the destination place with those factors (Feldman, 1996).

Previously the literature tended to focus on economic factors as being the main

cause of migration and their destination place was chosen on the basis that it would

provide better opportunities for the migrants (Gang & Stuart, 1996). This classification

does not do justice to the noneconomic factors that play a role in either the decision to

move or in destination selection. For example, there are families and individuals who

do not migrate because they are forced to because of a job transfer, but move for

familial, personal or social reasons (Carlisle-Frank, 1992). This suggests that migration

does not occur within a social vacuum, but that social factors may intervene to aid a

migrant's decision making process. For example, the presence of a good friend may

encourage the individual to seriously consider that place as a possible destination. It is

also the presence of these social networks which help in re-establishing connections to

find new friendships and social support networks (Noe & Barber, 1993). These factors

then contribute to the overall satisfaction of living in a new country (Thomas &

Thomas, 1990).

One also needs to take into account the unique characteristics of the participants

in generalising from these results. Migrants in this study were not required or forced to

migrate but did so because they perceived better opportunities or characteristics of the

destination place. Research also needs to take into account the context within which

migration occurs (Uhlenberg, 1995). Collectively the categories and themes that

emerged from this study represent a profile of the factors that contribute to the

migration decision within the context of migrants coming from the U.K. These may

differ for migrants coming from different geographic locations. In this study, individual

migrants told stories. Returning to the people who had the experience validated

knowledge obtained from previous studies. Such data has added to better understanding

of the decision-making unit, the individual, and their experiences prior to migration,

which has previously not received much attention (Greenwood, 1985).

CHAPTER 10

Final Discussion

Aims of the Chapter

The key aim of this research was to describe, analyse and explain migration decision making of U.K. migrants choosing Australia as a destination place. This chapter presents an overview of the research findings and also the contribution that this research has made to the area of migration. The methodology used and the accumulation of knowledge is highlighted. This final discussion also focuses on the context, connections and unresolved issues in an attempt to draw together the key threads underlying the research. Finally, the researcher shares with the reader some personal reflections on the research process together with positive suggestions for future research directions.

This thesis addressed the issue of why U.K. migrants decide to move to Australia. Different philosophical approaches and methodological tools guided the approach towards this thesis, with the result that the research process integrated a multi method framework using a triangulated approach that allowed the researcher many significant opportunities. The research sought to merge alternative paradigms and acknowledged the empirical approach. At the same time the research was influenced by pragmatism, postmodernism, substantive theorising and a systems approach. As these different philosophies and approaches contributed uniquely to the research, it encompassed a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal of migration decision-making (Stage & Russell, 1992). A major benefit of the multimethod approach was that it allowed the researcher to be more confident in the results of this research (Jick, 1979). The triangulation approach to data collection included collecting quantitative and qualitative data using interviews, narratives, survey research and an experimental design. Results obtained from this multimethod study inform explanations of migration decision making.

The research consisted of four stages and addressed the following main questions:

1.   What factors influenced the decision to migrate?

2.   Are there any differences in the decision making processes between migrants from the U.K. living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K.?

Also the following supplementary questions were asked:

1.   How satisfied are migrants living in Australia?

2.   What are the major sources of information for migrants prior to migration?

3.   Are there any covariates (e.g., age, gender) associated with the migration decision?

The key findings are presented in the four stages.

Summary of Results

Stage 1

The first stage of the study was presented in two well-defined phases. The first phase was the initial exploration of the substantive domain of migration. Semi-structured interviews were used to explore the reasons for migration and why participants chose Australia as their place of destination. Thirty factors were indicated, the most salient being warmer climate, beaches, wide-open spaces, better housing and better employment opportunities. This stage addressed the question as to what were the factors that influence the decision to migrate.

The second phase consisted of organising these factors into ten appropriate content categories, namely, language, climate, politics, children, social networks, knowledge of the community, environment, employment opportunities, housing and open spaces. Sub-divisions were included in some of the categories. For example, the "Environment" category included issues of crowding, pollution, traffic, the central business district and distances to the city. Some of these issues have been raised in the literature as possible reasons that may contribute to migration. Using this information, a representative information decision tree was developed which was used as the basis for stages two and three of the research. This stage provided the initial scoping of the issues that served to increase the knowledge of the salient factors

which contribute to the migration decision. It also led directly to the second stage of
the research.

Stage 2

This stage addressed the question as to what were the salient factors that
influence the decision to migrate. This study used an experimental design to examine
the significance of the ten main categories, which were determined in stage one, in
migrant decision making. Results indicated that the factors uncovered in stage one
were relevant to the migration decision. This stage was ideographic to determine the
preferences of individual migrants of preferred location characteristics. This study
used linear regression models as a tool to understand the preferences of migrants.
Results indicated that for two thirds of the participants, the linear model was adequate
for modelling the judgment process. However, for some participants linear models do
not capture all aspects of the human judgment process. This may be because each
participant combined the cues in different ways. For example, language and a better
life and education for the children were important for most participants. This was
followed by employment opportunities, climate, the presence of family and friends,
housing, open spaces, politics, the presence of a community from the U.K. and the
environment. This highlights the complex interaction between the many factors
involved in migration decision making. Previous research has focussed on individual
factors and this study takes the research a stage further and examines a combination of
the various factors. As the study was ideographic it sought to understand decision
making at the individual level and this result was expected as it was likely that
different participants would combine the factors in different ways (Cooksey, 1996).
However, this stage represented a different method to investigate the decision-making
process of migrants as part of the triangulated design of this thesis.

Stage 3

This stage comprised two quantitative studies that were part of the multi-method design of this thesis. This stage addressed the following questions: what were the factors that influence the decision to migrate; and were there any differences in the decision making processes between migrants from the U.K. living in Australia and a specific group with a visa intending to migrate who have not yet departed from the U.K.?

Migration decision making was explored using these two different groups of participants. The most salient factors that contributed to the decision-making process for migrants already living in Australia were climate, better life and education for the children and language. For the specific group of potential migrants, open spaces, environment and climate were most important. The least important factors for both groups were the presence of a community from the U.K., the presence of family and friends and politics. These are similar to those identified in stage two of the research.

It is interesting to note that three clusters or groups of migrants were identified using hierarchical cluster analysis. This results was applicable to migrants already living in Australia and for a specific group of potential migrants who had not yet left the U.K. but did have visas to migrate. All the three groups considered the ten factors, but combined them in different ways. For all three groups, climate is amongst the first three significant factors. Language is important for cluster one and cluster three, but less important for cluster two. All three clusters had the same factors that were least important, which included the presence of a community from the U.K., the presence of family or friends and politics.

This stage also addressed the following supplementary questions: (1) How satisfied are the migrants living in Australia? Contrary to expectations, most migrants

were very satisfied with their move to Australia. (2) What are the major sources of

information for migrants prior to migration? Results indicated that migrants received

information mainly from the Australian Embassy and friends and relations. This has

implications for how the government disseminates information about Australia to

prospective migrants. (3) The final question determined whether there were any

covariates (e.g., age, gender) associated with the migration decision. Results

indicated that satisfaction with the move to Australia could not be predicted by

gender, length of time in Australia, age, marital status or number of children.

Embassy and friends and relations. This was not expected as previous research

indicated that married persons and those with children were likely to be more satisfied

with the move than other migrants (Litwak, 1960; Long, 1972; .Lucas, 1987). This

could indicate that for some migrants this was not necessarily the case, as different

groups of migrants have alternative reasons for moving which are not essentially tied

in with demographic factors, but rather with motivational issues.

Stage 4

The major purpose of this final stage was to acknowledge the approach

suggested by Dewey (1929) that to ensure that the knowledge obtained in an area

through research is validated. The use of a narrative approach also provided the

opportunity to understand more clearly the factors that contribute to migration.

Participants were asked to provide a story of the migration experience and the factors

that contributed to that decision. The themes that emerged from this stage were

similar to that previously identified and provided confirmation of the previous

research. These included the importance of language, climate, employment

opportunities, life and education for the children, the presence of family and friends,

the environment, the presence of a community from the U.K., housing, open spaces

and politics.

However, the use of this narrative approach provided a richer feel for the

decision making processes and provided a more comprehensive understanding of the

context of migration and the factors which contribute to the decision to migrate. It

provided the researcher with the opportunity to view the 'reality' of migrant decisions

from a different perspective to obtain a more definitive picture. It also enabled a

reflective look at the process of decision making and importantly the consequences

(such as adjustment and problems) and background of the actual decision. Other

stories in the literature have examined ethnic identity and life history, amongst others.

This approach has not been used in migrant research.

The research process

This thesis used a multi method approach as part of a triangulated research

design. One of the fundamental approaches underlying this research has been the

notion that all research should be available to anyone which is contingent upon the

openness and accessibility of the research process (Nagy & Viney, 1994). This is best

realised by leaving what Guba (1981) calls an audit trail which then allows others to

examine the research, evaluate it and form their own opinions and decisions based on

the presentation of the research.

The audit trail for this research began with Jahoda's (1981) premise that in

order to increase the knowledge base in any area, it was necessary to ask new

questions not simply to verify or falsify existing theories. By keeping this approach

in perspective, this research addressed the main question of what factors influence the

decision to migrate. The research was proposed in four stages.

The first stage provided the initial opportunity to explore the substantive
domain of migration. It provided an interpretive and descriptive analysis of
significant reasons people give as to why they migrate from the U.K. to Australia and
why they chose Western Australia as the destination. In order to achieve this goal,
qualitative semi-structured interviews were. Also of importance was the organisation
and simplification of the obtained information into categories and themes. Drawing
on Wicker's (1989) substantive theorising, this process allowed the context of
migration decision-making to be explored. This first stage represented the basis from
which the other stages could follow. This first stage informed stages two and three
and thus formed the link to these stages.

The methodology used in stage one was informed by Dokecki's (1992)
methodological framework, which focused on interpretive studies at the micro-level
of inquiry. Most migration research has depended on the use of aggregate data
because in many situations it is the only data available. This means that the use of net
or gross measures of migration have been the prime source of data. This provides one
perspective that may be useful but does not take into account the dynamic nature of
migration. Aggregate data tends to conceal differences that exist between people as
well as the places they choose. For these reasons there appeared to be a need to
examine migration from the perspective of the individual (Greenwood, Mueser, Plane
& Schlottmann, 1991; Longino, 1992; Warnes, 1992;). Dokecki's methodological
framework was useful for this preliminary stage of the research that needed
information about significant factors contributing to the migration decision-making
from migrants themselves.

A focus of the research presented in this thesis is an acceptance that the logical
positivist approach is not the only approach to research, but nor should the

experimental paradigm be disregarded. Rather, it is argued, many approaches should be used in a complimentary holistic way. Postmodernism heralded the move away from the traditional laboratory methods to a clamour for more naturalistic inquiry, for research to become interdisciplinary and not compartmentalised with the implementation of alternative theoretical approaches (Altman & Rogoff, 1987). Researchers such as Tyler (1981) and Wicker (1989) have suggested the idea of contextualising research and not being constrained by the boundaries imposed by traditional methodologies, resulting in a research process which combined useful approaches reflecting a richness of data and knowledge. Rosnow (1981) and Gergen (1988, 1994) have been at the forefront in proposing different philosophical approaches to conduct psychological research. It was Gergen (1973) who discussed the idea that research was not value free and that researchers brought to the investigation their own biases and worldviews and this needs to be acknowledged when conducting research.

Acknowledging the above points, the second stage of the research used information accumulated from stage one to further investigate how migrants evaluate these attributes within the migration decision-making process. The evaluative component led to the adoption of a quantitative methodology to provide insight into whether migrants can effectively process all the factors and information available to them. The most appropriate technique available was judgment analysis that allowed a focus on a number of destinations with a manageable subset of characteristics identified in stage one. The significance was that this could be taken into a laboratory setting for the first time. The quantitative study provided empirical evidence pertaining to an individual's decision to migrate and again reflecting Dokecki's

(1992) emphasis on the micro-level of inquiry and what Bronfenbrenner (1977) termed the microsystem.

The third stage of the research was informed by stage one as it used the information ascertained in stage one as the basis of the inquiry. This survey study enabled a large sample to be questioned and enabled the results to be generalised as well as allowing different analyses and comparisons of the data for different groups of participants. Stage three provided the opportunity to examine the role of demographic factors such as age and marital status. Both stages were complimentary by providing different opportunities to study the substantive domain of decision-making processes of migrants, enabling a more complete exploration of the area and providing confirmation of the research results.

There is an inextricable link between stages one, two and three with a shared understanding between stages two and three. They both investigate information obtained in stage one and examine the different factors in more detail. In this manner the findings could be integrated to arrive at a description of the decision making process of migrants. All three stages contributed to the triangulation of the study by using different methodologies to investigate the decision-making process of migrants.

Stage four moves out of the laboratory to the real world and focuses on migrants themselves to look at their migration experiences and how they arrived at the decision to migrate, through the use of narratives. This stage provided a reality check for previous stages and ensured that the meaning and interpretation of the decision making process had been readily understood by using the framework of Dewey (1929). This stage also ensured that the researcher was aware of exactly what was going on for the migrant in terms of the decision-making process, the implications, and background.

At the time when the narratives were recorded, there was no expectation as to

the results that may eventuate. However, by going directly to the migrants and their

stories, this study served both to validate the other stages and add to the knowledge

base through understanding the meaning and relevance of the narratives. In this

manner the researcher was able to determine the 'trustworthiness of the obtained

observations, interpretations and generalizations' of the previous stages of the

research (Mishler, 1990).

A benefit of this type of approach was outlined by Rappaport (1995) who

suggested that using narratives empowered the people telling the stories. Not only

was the content of their stories of interest, but the lines of communication between the

researcher and the migrants were changed from the traditional role of researcher and

participant to one of more equal status. This reflects the notion of empowerment

whereby the participant is valued and not seen as fragmented and separate

(Rappaport, 1987; Newbrough, 1992). These stories captured the migrant's point of

view and embedded in these stories are themes on their migration decision-making,

which are meaningful, to them. They tell the researcher what is important and

unimportant, what factors contributed to the decision-making process and which were

irrelevant, and as such are a valuable resource. As with any approach, there are

disadvantages for example, the method is very personal, with a very narrow

perspective, participants generally have not been trained and sometimes the

descriptions may not be precise and concise (Hecht, Ribeau & Sedano, 1990).

However, when viewed as part of a triangulation strategy, this methodology

complements other approaches and provides a more integrated and holistic view to

studying the substantive domain of migration.

The overarching impetus for the research process adopted in this thesis came from Jahoda (1981). Key issues were clarified, new questions posed, and appropriate methodologies were used to derive the answers. Reconciliation of the quantitative and qualitative approaches in this thesis was enabled via Wicker's (1989) substantive theorising, Dokecki's (1992) methodological framework, and by acknowledging that there are different systems that impinge upon an individual. These approaches allowed the researcher to seek out the answer to the key question of which factors contributed to the decision-making process of migrants. Furthermore, by adopting Newbrough's (1992) critical multiplism, this research used a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies and employed different methods to gain knowledge and validity of that knowledge. The resulting framework goes beyond traditional triangulation of data but rather looked at the evidence using different lines of inquiry and multiple viewpoints. This thesis allowed the researcher to combine traditional positivistic research with qualitative semi-structured interviews and narratives, resulting in findings that are more robust and can be confidently used in policy making.

Summary

The implications of exploring and adopting the above approaches contributed to the underlying process of this research in the following manner:

1. The use of the empiricist framework as part of the research process and not as the only process available.

2. Knowledge is not objective because it is not value free. Intrinsic to this idea is the methodological framework proposed by Dokecki (1992). He outlined that there should be a connection between action and knowledge and that research should take the worldview into account.

3. The researcher holds a worldview that ultimately reflects her values and orientation.

4. The need to be aware of the context in which the study is conducted, and how this changes when using different methods.

5. The acceptance that the substantive domain is chosen initially prior to selecting a methodology.

6. The rejection of purely experimental or merely interpretive studies (Dokecki, 1992) and the adoption of more pluralistic approaches: the use of multiple research methods to examine the same issue in order to gain a better understanding of the object under investigation and the context in which it occurs.

7. The adoption of a systems perspective as part of the basic conceptual framework, taking both the person and the environment into account. Each migrant is part of a migration network which may also be regarded as part of an economic social system. This complexity needs to be acknowledged.

Contributions of this research

Contributions to policy

A main task of this research was to discover how the steps leading to a migration decision are made, by whom they are made and understand the parameters that guide the decision. If researchers understand this process and take into account the social and historical context, the results can lead directly to policy making. Service providers and policy makers need to be aware of the connections migrants have both with the local community and with the homeland. Policy intervention programs which provide basic infrastructure and economic and social systems, may be more readily directed if decision making is better understood. For example agencies could be funded to provide social support groups to help the migrant establish new social support networks. Migrant flows and future population growth will be better understood if the roles the different factors play in the migrant decision are taken into account. This will also help to project the net migration in the future as well as the breakdown for different age groups. Linked to this factor would be the ability to predict future demand for public services relative to the future tax base.

It is also important to understand how time alters perceptions and refines these connections to the homeland. An understanding of the different factors that contribute to the decision to migrate will greatly facilitate the development of programs and determine the level of help that the different migrants will require. By understanding these issues, new opportunities for helping recently arrived migrants adapt to new social conditions will be easier and appropriate intervention by human service professionals can be adopted. For example, if people are moving for opportunities for children, then distress could result if these are not available. Migrants need to cope with differences between their old and new environment with

respect to the physical and social aspects. With respect to employment, it would be fruitful for employers to investigate the kinds of communities that employees find desirable, especially if they are looking to recruit specific personnel from overseas.

·This research also has practical implications in that it feeds directly into facilitating adjustment of migrants and providing programs that are geared towards the needs of particular ethnic groups, rather than generic programs.

The results of this research have highlighted the role of the environment, such as pollution, traffic congestion in cities and distances to the central business districts (CBD). Social factors emphasised the significance of friends and family in the new country and economic issues included employment opportunities and the availability of better housing. It is important to note that the environment, social issues and economic factors all contributed to the decision to migrate.

Contribution to theory

Firstly, this thesis provided a community psychology contribution to the study of a multi faceted, problematic area such as migration. It acknowledged that it is the migrants themselves who have the experience of migration and as such goes directly to the people concerned, rather than inferring results from aggregate data such as census data. It therefore, gives a voice to the migrants themselves, and seeks to empower migrants through valuing their participation and contribution to the research.

Secondly, this research provided the opportunity to apply the technique of judgment analysis in a new domain of migration and merge the areas of migration and judgment analysis. This enabled the researcher to examine the area of migration decision making more systematically by investigating the salience of different factors within that decision. Furthermore, through the use of a triangulated research design, it

provided the opportunity to apply the methodology of judgment analysis alongside

other techniques, such as narratives. This has therefore expanded the application of

judgment analysis not only into a new area, but also so that it can be used in

conjunction with other methods. This combination of the different methods with

judgment analysis contributes to the development of a framework for moving in

general, as well as for migrating.

Thirdly, in terms of contribution to the area of migration, this research

compared two groups: namely, a group of migrants from the U.K. who were already

living in western Australia and a group of potential migrants who had their visas but

had not yet migrated. This research also provided the opportunity to elevate interest

in the area. This was the first time that research in the area of migration has

undertaken a comparison between such groups, which facilitates a greater

understanding of the domain.

Through the use of a triangulated study, the research demonstrates that there is

not one complete theory of migration decision-making, but rather a complex set of

factors that contribute to the decision process.

Contribution to methodological advancement

This research has emphasised a triangulated approach but endeavoured to go

beyond the boundaries of traditional triangulation by combining traditional empirical

research with narrative studies and other qualitative research that added to the

richness of the data produced. Alternative methods of inquiry involve different

patterns of thought and behaviour that together generate results that ease wide-ranging

speculation. The varieties of methodologies selected have provided another

dimension to the research in line with the interactionist underpinnings of the study.

No previous research has combined the use of judgment analysis with semi-structured

interviews and narratives to investigate migrant decision-making. A combination of these methodologies has allowed significant contributions towards our understanding and knowledge of the decision to migrate.

Furthermore, throughout the research, the research acknowledged different perspectives and used the relevant sections where appropriate. The context of the research was acknowledged through the use of Wicker's (1989) substantive theorising. Dokecki's (1992) methodological framework allowed the research to focus on interpretive studies at the micro-level of inquiry. Newbrough's (1992) critical multiplism encouraged the use of different methodologies such as the combination of judgment analysis and qualitative research. Triangulation provided the opportunity to accept the results and not minimise them for the population under investigation. In this way evidence of migrant decision making can be collected from different groups of migrants to provide evidence of the salient factors which contribute to the decision. Drawing upon the relevant approaches enabled the researcher to develop a methodological framework that may be used for investigating similar areas.

Reflections on the research

The focus of this research was to examine migration decision making. A central issue was to examine the factors that contribute to the decision to migrate and the selection of a destination place. These issues provided an interesting challenge as to the choice of methodological approaches that may be used to investigate these factors and resulting questions. One of the difficulties of investigating migration is the methodological inadequacy because migrants have generally already moved and results are inferring pre migration decision making. This means that reasons for moving may well be rationalised by the migrants. This issue was considered and

resulted in using two groups. In addition to the group of migrants from the U.K. who were already living in Western Australia, this thesis also surveyed a group of potential migrants before moving. Including a longitudinal study of the potential migrants once they have arrived in Australia would be extremely useful and enhance the research

Furthermore, it is important to note that different methodologies were examined and the final choice of the different methods used in this thesis was, to some extent, arbitrary. In choosing the methodological tools that were to be used in this research, the researcher needed to be aware of these difficulties in the development of the research design and become familiar with appropriate methodologies. This was the first time in a research project that the technique of judgment analysis was undertaken in combination with qualitative methodologies such as narratives. As there was no guiding literature to attest to its success in the migration area, the implementation of these approaches was very difficult, with difficult choices. It was also thought that the use of a traditional approach such as judgment analysis together with a narrative approach might be a source of friction and conflict between the different methodologies, and advocates of each. However, on examination, the combination of these very different approaches was successful and has provided an effective resource for further studies.

Importantly, it must be noted that this sample did not include previous migrants who had returned to the U.K. Hence, the sample is limited. Although this study used a systems approach, it was limited and static focusing mainly on the microsystem of the migrant. It, therefore, cannot be regarded as a complete systems approach, which would need to take into account other systems impinging upon the migrants. However, placing the migrants viewpoint in a systems framework provided a useful way of conceptualising the person in the wider context.

Reflecting about the research process, this thesis was a real attempt to try and understand the migrant decision.

Future research

This thesis provides the starting point for further research. It began with the challenge by Jahoda (1981) that there is a need to build a body of knowledge through asking questions, then appropriate methodologies were chosen. Future researchers could be guided by this approach, but it need not be limited to the particular methods used in this research, but could examine the use of other methodologies such as behavioural approaches or the use of archival data as a way of diversifying available tools for incorporation into the research.

The area of migration research could also benefit from a longitudinal study with migrants. This would provide the opportunity to examine the adjustment processes of the migrants and the relationship between successful adjustment and the decision-making processes of the migrants.

As has already been mentioned, the systems approach used in this thesis was limited, an alternative and far more practical framework can be obtained from totally embracing a systems perspective. Research could examine the effect of other systems on the migrant decision. This would allow the possibility to contextualise the individual's psychological processes within a number of levels and allow for a more articulated understanding of the direct and indirect relationships that may impinge upon the individual within any particular environment. This would then provide a theoretical underpinning as well as a process model for the researcher.

Although migrants from the U.K. represent the largest number migrating to Australia, there has been a shift in the composition of migrants entering Australia especially in the last ten years. In the past, migrants from English-speaking countries

have represented the largest number entering Australia, but as Australia moves

towards policies of non-discrimination and multiculturalism, research needs to be

undertaken with other migrant groups to understand and compare the decision-making

processes of different cultural groups which today are an integral part of the diverse

population of Australia.

Future research could also focus on migrants who make a decision to return to

their country of origin. Potential reasons for returning could include disillusionment

or dissatisfaction.

Finally, as Australia has a developing tourism industry, this methodological

approach could be undertaken with tourists and potential tourists to Australia in order

to further understand why they choose Australia as a destination place. This would

have the possibility of influencing future advertisements to encourage tourism to

Australia as well as providing the necessary services expected by the tourists.

Personal post script

This thesis has been more than progress towards the achievement of a degree,

but rather provided a learning process where I became thoroughly aware of the gap

between the ideal and reality. Migrants arrive in a new country and sometimes the

settling in process difficult, but as time proceeds the adjustment becomes easier. It is

unrealistic to hope that all migrants will have an easy passage in adapting to their new

home, however, I hope that this research goes some way to aid this problem. If

migrants can be made aware of the factors which contribute to their decision making

process, they can ensure that their chosen country goes somewhat to meet their

expectations.

One of the most difficult tasks in this thesis was in choosing the

methodologies that were to be used in the research. Once I had decided to use a multi

method approach to the research, the main priority lay in deciding which methods

were appropriate. The range of methods available to any researcher is diverse and the

frustrating experience is in deciding which would be most appropriate and provide the

best result. My decision to use the traditional approach of judgment analysis with

qualitative techniques such as narratives, made the methodology aspect of the

research a very demanding exercise. In employing this diversity of techniques, I

needed to become experienced in a range of methodologies that often required a panel

of experts. Perhaps at times my expectations were too high as I had to learn many

things about my potential and limitations, strengths and weaknesses, and likes and

dislikes. Most importantly, this diversity provided me with a personal appreciation of

the different methods and that it was up to me to use the best methods available.

Participation in this research has allowed me the opportunity to become familiar with

different methodologies and it is indeed possible to combine successfully different

approaches and work with people from different orientations.

Many times I wondered whether I had a realistic expectation of what I was

trying to accomplish. I was very fortunate to have three supervisors who were totally

committed and dedicated to this research project, but this proved to be very difficult at

times. Each supervisor had their own expectations and visions for the research as

well as their own orientation to research and a distinct preference for either

quantitative or qualitative research. The attempt to combine these methodologies at

times provided me with challenges beyond my imagination. Trying to find a balance

between the different approaches nearly proved impossible. It was through being

flexible and through continual assessment and reflection on the research process, that

I reached a professional maturation and effectiveness for which I am grateful. In

addition, commitment and dedication from my supervisors and myself ensured the

best possible outcome for the research was accomplished. I learnt that through understanding personal agendas and knowing one's own personal and professional limits, one is able to move forward to the fulfilment of a vision, my vision was the successful completion of this research.

This was an opportunity to make a contribution to the advancement of knowledge in the migration area, in the hope that such research will help future migrants and a multicultural Australia. This research did not occur in a vacuum, but was guided by real migrants in the real world, and to them I am extremely grateful.

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Appendix 1

Interview Schedule for Participants

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE:

1.   Why did you decide to leave UK?

2.   Did you consider migrating to any other countries besides Australia?

3.   If so could you name them.

4.   What were the reasons that attracted you to Australia?

5.   Did you ever visit Australia prior to emigrating?

Characteristics of respondents:

1.   Age

2.   Age at time of move

3.   Gender

4.   Marital status

5.   Education

6.   Occupation

7.   Length of residence at place of origin

8.   Length of residence in Australia

Appendix 2

Six Information Decision Trees

Information Decision Tree 1

CLIMATE

LANGUAGE

CHILDREN ———————————————→ BETTER LIFE
                                      EDUCATION

GOVERNMENT AND ————————————→ DEMOCRACY
POLITICAL SITUATION   RACISM
                                       STABILITY
                                       CRIME

NETWORKS ———————————————→ FAMILY
                                       EXPATRIATES
                                       FRIENDS

PRIOR INFORMATION ————————————→ EMBASSY
                                       ADVERTISING
                                       TV
                                       FRIENDS
                                       FAMILY
                                       PREVIOUS VISIT

ECONOMIC FACTORS ————————————→ JOBS
                                       HOUSING
                                       OPPORTUNITY
                                       ECONOMY

ENVIRONMENT ————————————————→ POLLUTION
                                       TRAFFIC
                                       QUALITY OF LIFE
                                       PARKS
                                       DISTANCES IN CITY
                                       BEACHES
                                       OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
                                       SIZE OF CBD
                                       CROWDING

Information Decision Tree 2

AFFINITY ————————————→ LANGUAGE
                                                               EXPATRIATES

FIRST HAND ————————————→ PREVIOUS VISIT TO AUSTRALIA
RELEVANT INFORMATION   FRIENDS IN AUSTRALIA
                                              FAMILY IN AUSTRALIA
                                                INFORMATION ON AUSTRALIA
                                                FROM FAMILY
                                                INFORMATION ON AUSTRALIA
                                                FROM FRIENDS

PROPOGANDA ————————————→ INFORMATION ON AUSTRALIA
                                                FROM BRITISH EMBASSY
                                                ADVERTS
                                                TV

POLITICAL ISSUES ————————————→ STABILITY
                                                DEMOCRACY
                                                RACISM

LIVING STANDARDS ————————————→ HOUSING ————————→ CROWDING
                                                                  DISTANCE
                                                                  IN CITY
                                                                  SIZE OF CBD
                                        JOBS ————————→ MORE
                                                                  OPPORTUNITY
                                        ECONOMY ————————→ EDUCATION
                                                                  FOR
                                                                  CHILDREN
                                                                  BETTER
                                                    LIFE FOR CHILDREN

                                                    FRIENDLY PEOPLE
                                                    CRIME

CLIMATE ————————————→ OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
                                                LESS POLLUTION
                                                BEACHES
                                                PARKS
                                                LESS TRAFFIC

Information Decision Tree 3

BETTER OPPORTUNITIES————————————►OPPORTUNITY
ECONOMY
JOBS
HOUSING

ADVERTS————————————————►ADVERTS
TV
BRITISH EMBASSY

CHILDREN————————————————► BETTER LIFE
EDUCATION

MANAGEABLE DISTANCES————————► SIZE OF CBD
AND POPULATION   DISTANCES IN CITY
DENSITY   TRAFFIC
CROWDING

ENVIRONMENT————————————————► POLLUTION
PARKS
BEACHES

POLITICAL MOTIVATIONS ———————► DEMOCRACY
RACISM
STABILITY
CRIME

QUALITY OF LIFE ——————————————► CLIMATE
OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
QUALITY OF LIFE

SOCIAL FACTORS ———————————————► PREVIOUS VISIT
FRIENDS
INFORMATION FROM FRIENDS
FAMILY
INFORMATION FROM FAMILY
EXPATRIATES
FRIENDLY PEOPLE

LANGUAGE

Information Decision Tree 4

LANGUAGE

CLIMATE ⟶ OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
BEACHES
PARKS

COMMUNAL NETWORKS ⟶ FRIENDS
FAMILY
EXPATRIATES

CHILDREN ⟶ BETTER LIFE
EDUCATION

POLITICAL FACTORS ⟶ DEMOCRACY
STABILITY
RACISM
CRIME

LIFESTYLE ⟶ DISTANCES IN CITY
HOUSING
JOBS
OPPORTUNITY
QUALITY OF LIFE

ENVIRONMENT ⟶ CROWDING
POLLUTION
TRAFFIC
SIZE OF CBD

INFORMATION ⟶ EMBASSY
FAMILY
FRIENDS
PREVIOUS VISIT
TV
ADVERTISING

Information Decision Tree 5

LANGUAGE
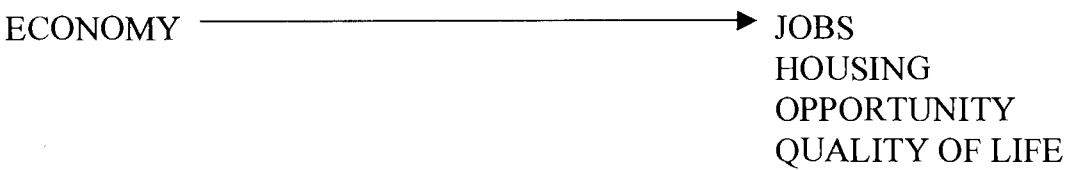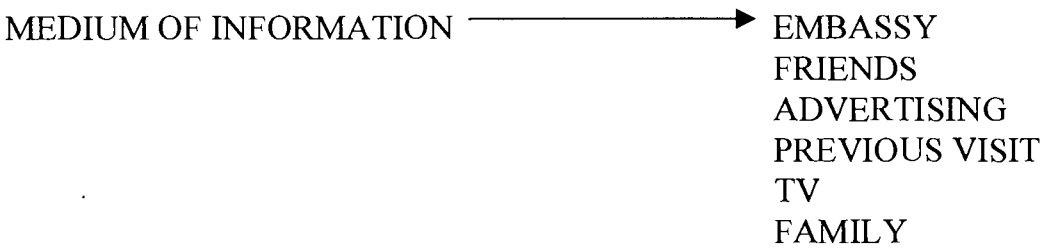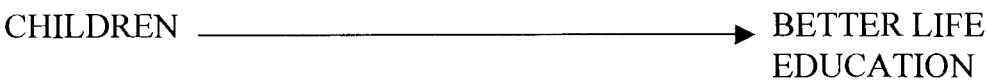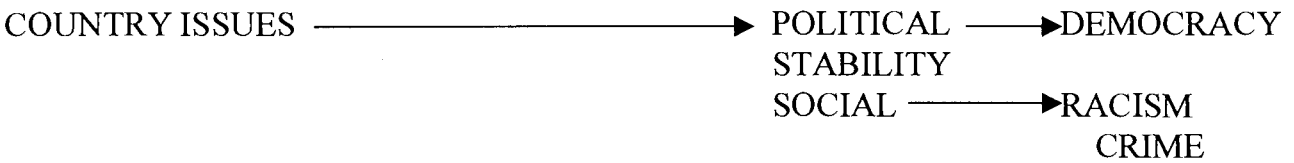
COUNTRY ISSUES ─────────────────► POLITICAL ───►DEMOCRACY
                                   STABILITY
                                   SOCIAL ───────►RACISM
                                                  CRIME
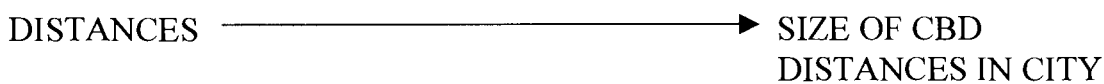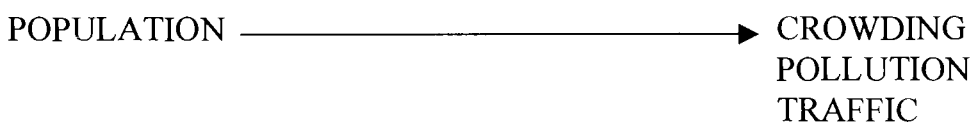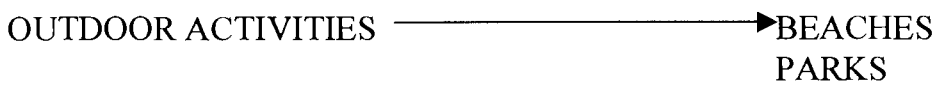
CHILDREN ───────────────────────► BETTER LIFE
                                   EDUCATION

COMMUNITY NETWORKS──────────────► FRIENDS
                                   FAMILY
                                   EXPATRIATES

MEDIUM OF INFORMATION ──────────► EMBASSY
                                   FRIENDS
                                   ADVERTISING
                                   PREVIOUS VISIT
                                   TV
                                   FAMILY

ECONOMY ────────────────────────► JOBS
                                   HOUSING
                                   OPPORTUNITY
                                   QUALITY OF LIFE

CLIMATE

OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES ─────────────►BEACHES
                                   PARKS

POPULATION ─────────────────────► CROWDING
                                   POLLUTION
                                   TRAFFIC

DISTANCES ──────────────────────► SIZE OF CBD
                                   DISTANCES IN CITY

LANGUAGE

CLIMATE

POLITICS ————————→ DEMOCRACY

STABILITY

RACISM

CHILDREN ————————→ BETTER LIFE FOR CHILDREN

BETTER OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE CHILDREN

BETTER EDUCATION FOR THE CHILDREN

SOCIAL NETWORKS ————→ FRIENDS

FAMILY

KNOWLEDGE OF

THE COMMUNITY ————→ EXPATRIATE

ENVIRONMENT ————————→ CROWDING

POLLUTION

TRAFFIC

CBD

DISTANCES IN THE CITY

ECONOMIC ————————→ JOBS

HOUSING

OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES ————→ BEACHES

PARKS

Appendix 3

Selection of Three Information Decision Trees

Information Decision Tree 1

CLIMATE

LANGUAGE

CHILDREN——————————————➤ BETTER LIFE
                                  EDUCATION

GOVERNMENT AND——————————➤ DEMOCRACY
POLITICAL SITUATION   RACISM
                                  STABILITY
                                  CRIME

NETWORKS————————————————➤ FAMILY
                                  EXPATRIATES
                                  FRIENDS

PRIOR INFORMATION ———————————➤ EMBASSY
                                  ADVERTISING
                                  TV
                                  FRIENDS
                                  FAMILY
                                  PREVIOUS VISIT

ECONOMIC FACTORS ——————————➤ JOBS
                                  HOUSING
                                  OPPORTUNITY
                                  ECONOMY

ENVIRONMENT ————————————➤ POLLUTION
                                  TRAFFIC
                                  QUALITY OF LIFE
                                  PARKS
                                  DISTANCES IN CITY
                                  BEACHES
                                  OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
                                  SIZE OF CBD
                                  CROWDING

Information Decision Tree 4

LANGUAGE

CLIMATE ⟶ OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES
BEACHES
PARKS

COMMUNAL NETWORKS ⟶ FRIENDS
FAMILY
EXPATRIATES

CHILDREN ⟶ BETTER LIFE
EDUCATION

POLITICAL FACTORS ⟶ DEMOCRACY
STABILITY
RACISM
CRIME

LIFESTYLE ⟶ DISTANCES IN CITY
HOUSING
JOBS
OPPORTUNITY
QUALITY OF LIFE

ENVIRONMENT ⟶ CROWDING
POLLUTION
TRAFFIC
SIZE OF CBD

INFORMATION ⟶ EMBASSY
FAMILY
FRIENDS
PREVIOUS VISIT
TV
ADVERTISING

LANGUAGE

CLIMATE

POLITICS ─────────────▶ DEMOCRACY

STABILITY

RACISM

CHILDREN ─────────────▶ BETTER LIFE FOR CHILDREN

BETTER OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE CHILDREN

BETTER EDUCATION FOR THE CHILDREN

SOCIAL NETWORKS ─────────▶ FRIENDS

FAMILY

KNOWLEDGE OF
THE COMMUNITY ──────────▶ EXPATRIATE

ENVIRONMENT ─────────────▶ CROWDING

POLLUTION

TRAFFIC

CBD

DISTANCES IN THE CITY

ECONOMIC ─────────────▶ JOBS

HOUSING

OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES ───────▶ BEACHES

PARKS

Appendix 4

Case of 100 Hypothetical Countries

```
Analysis for 100 cases of 10 variables:
Variable        A         B         C         D         E         F         G         H         I         J
Min         0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000    0.0000
Max         1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000
Sum        47.0000   48.0000   47.0000   46.0000   45.0000   47.0000   48.0000   52.0000   49.0000   46.0000
Mean        0.4700    0.4800    0.4700    0.4600    0.4500    0.4700    0.4800    0.5200    0.4900    0.4600
SD          0.5016    0.5021    0.5016    0.5009    0.5000    0.5016    0.5021    0.5021    0.5024    0.5009

Correlation Matrix:
A           1.0000
B          -0.1027    1.0000
C          -0.0839    0.0979    1.0000
D          -0.1455   -0.0434    0.0957    1.0000
E          -0.0463   -0.0241   -0.0060   -0.0282    1.0000
F          -0.0438    0.0979   -0.0036    0.1359   -0.0060    1.0000
G           0.0578   -0.0417    0.0578    0.0771    0.0966    0.0979    1.0000
H           0.0626    0.0817   -0.0176    0.0835   -0.0563    0.1027    0.2019    1.0000
I          -0.0012    0.1794   -0.0413    0.0185    0.0382    0.0790    0.0192    0.0208    1.0000
J           0.0153   -0.1237   -0.0249    0.0338   -0.1089   -0.1053    0.1173   -0.1173    0.1389    1.0000
Variable        A         B         C         D         E         F         G         H         I         J
```

Appendix 5

Letter and Ethics Form for All Participants

Information for Potential Participants.

Hello

My name is Lynne Cohen. I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University. My research is designed to find out why migrants chose to migrate and come and live in Australia as well as why people want to leave Australia and settle in other countries.

There are different stages to my project. In this stage of the project, there is a short exercise where I would show you cards with descriptions of different countries and ask you to choose which appeal to you and why. By agreeing to participate in this stage, you do not need to participate in any other stages.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time and you do not have to say anything that you do not wish to. All the information will be used for my thesis, and hopefully will be useful for potential migrants, as well as for the establishment of programs which will help all migrants.

Lynne Cohen

_____

If you wish to participate in the research then please complete the following:

I agree to participate in the research. I feel that I have been informed of all the details of the research and I understand it.

Signed:..Date:...........................

Please print name and address:
....
....

Appendix 6

Residual Scatterplots

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER1

Regression Standardized Residual (y-axis)

Regression Standardized Predicted Value (x-axis)
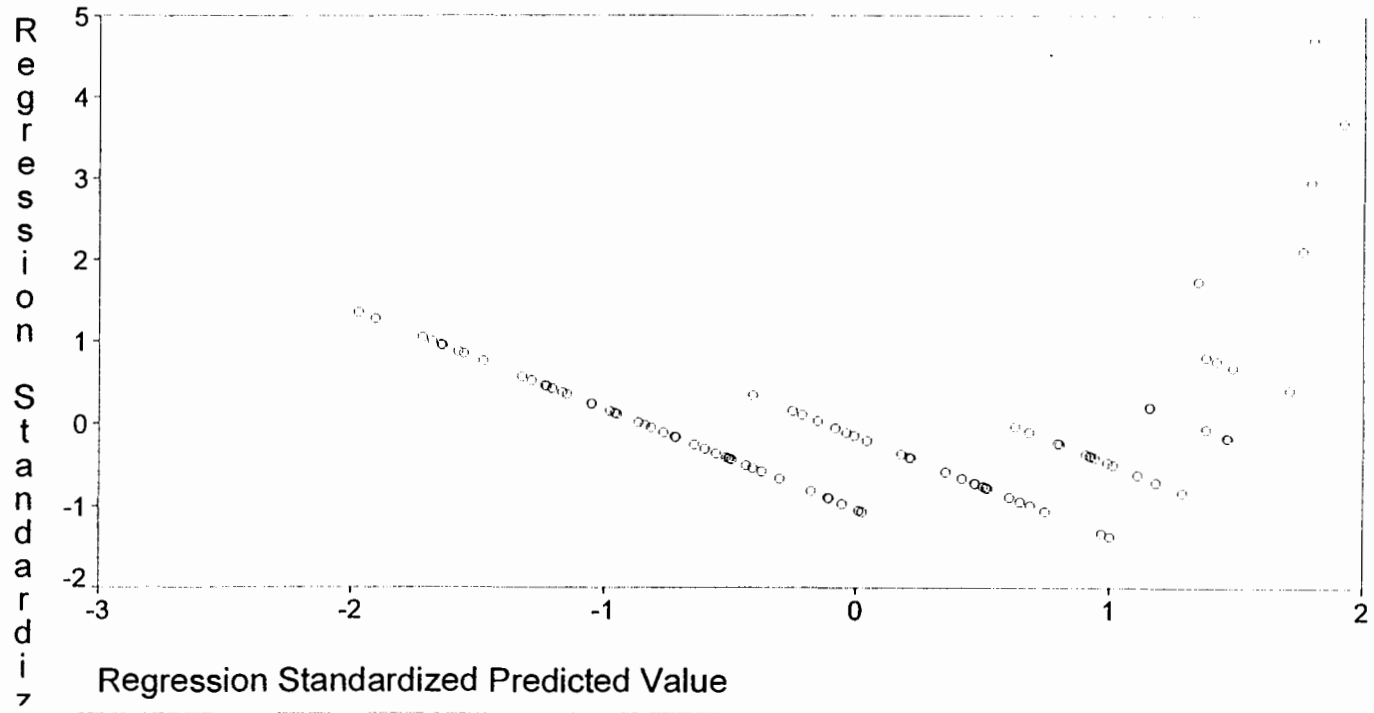
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER2
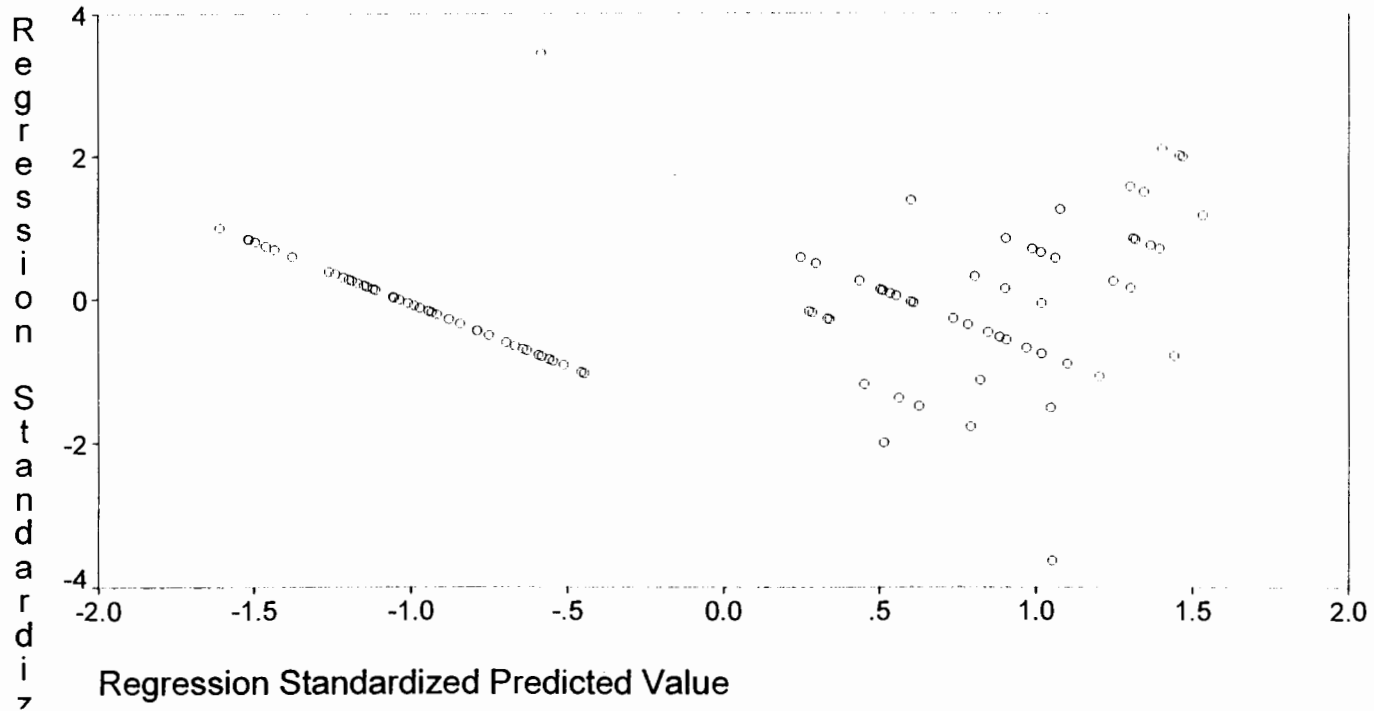
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER3
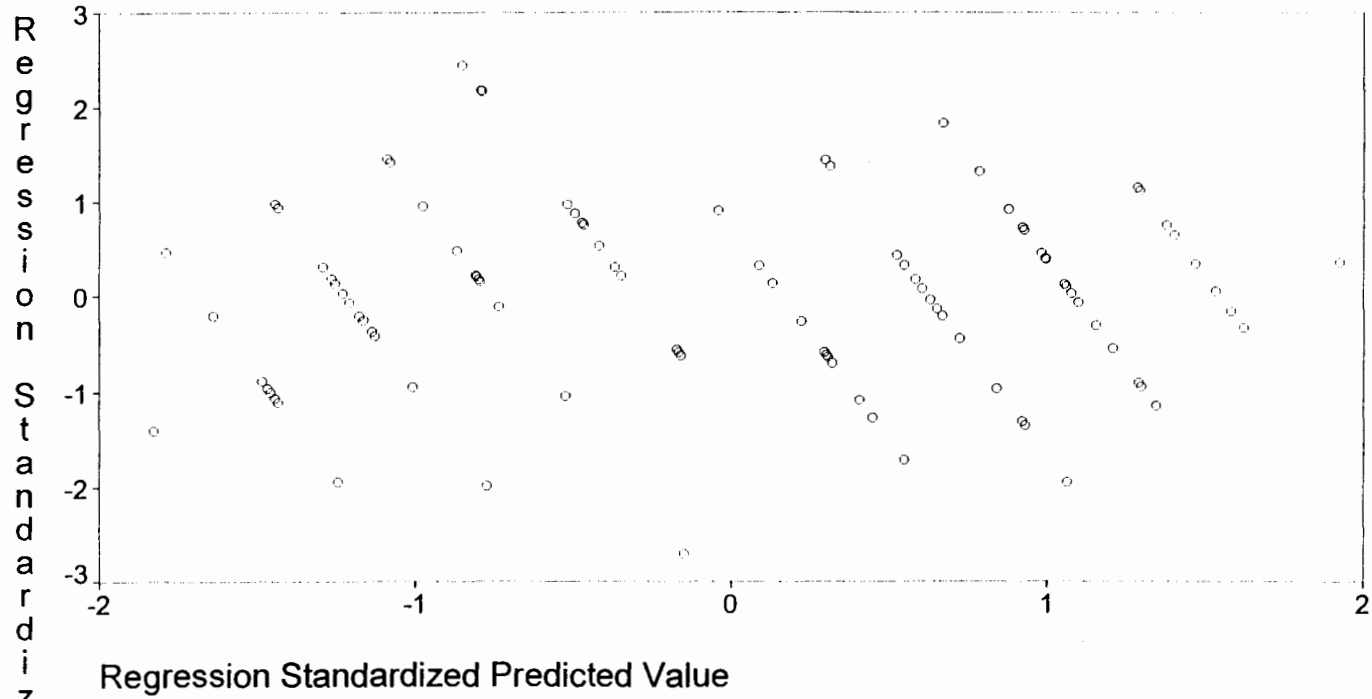
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER4
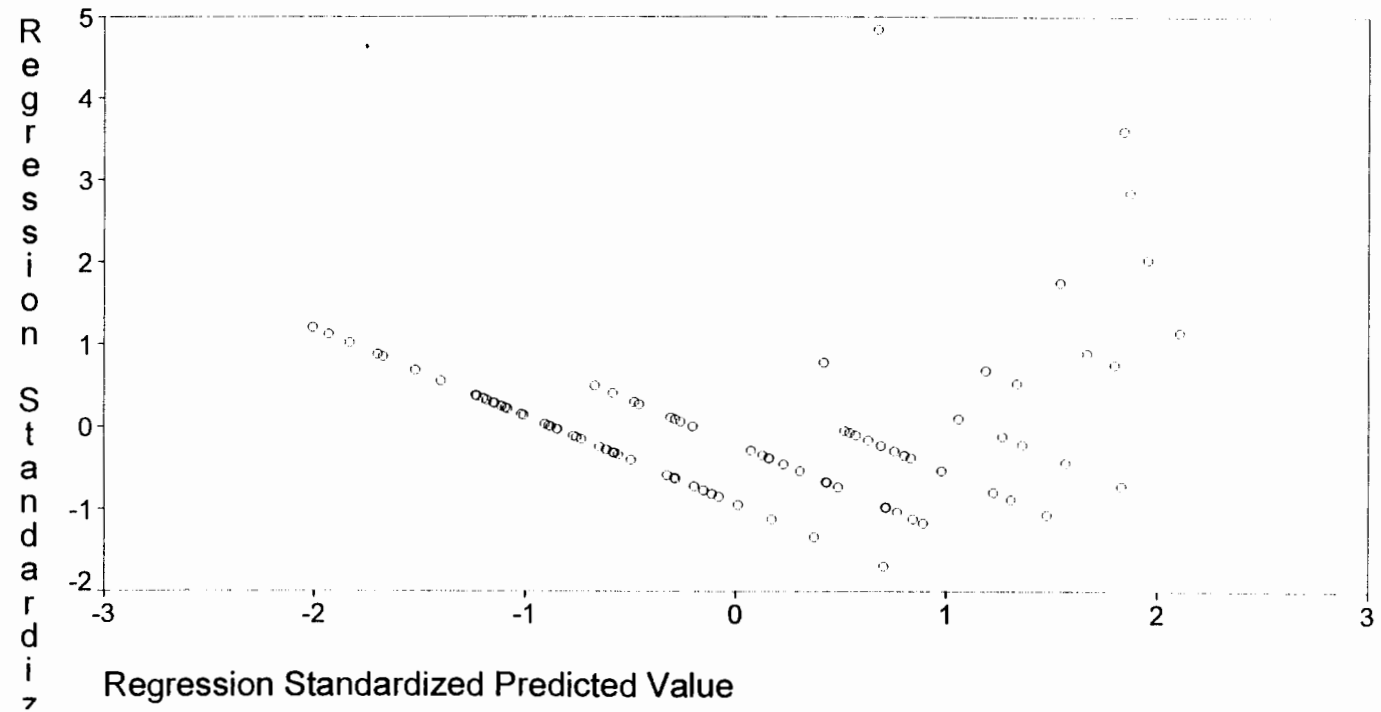
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER5
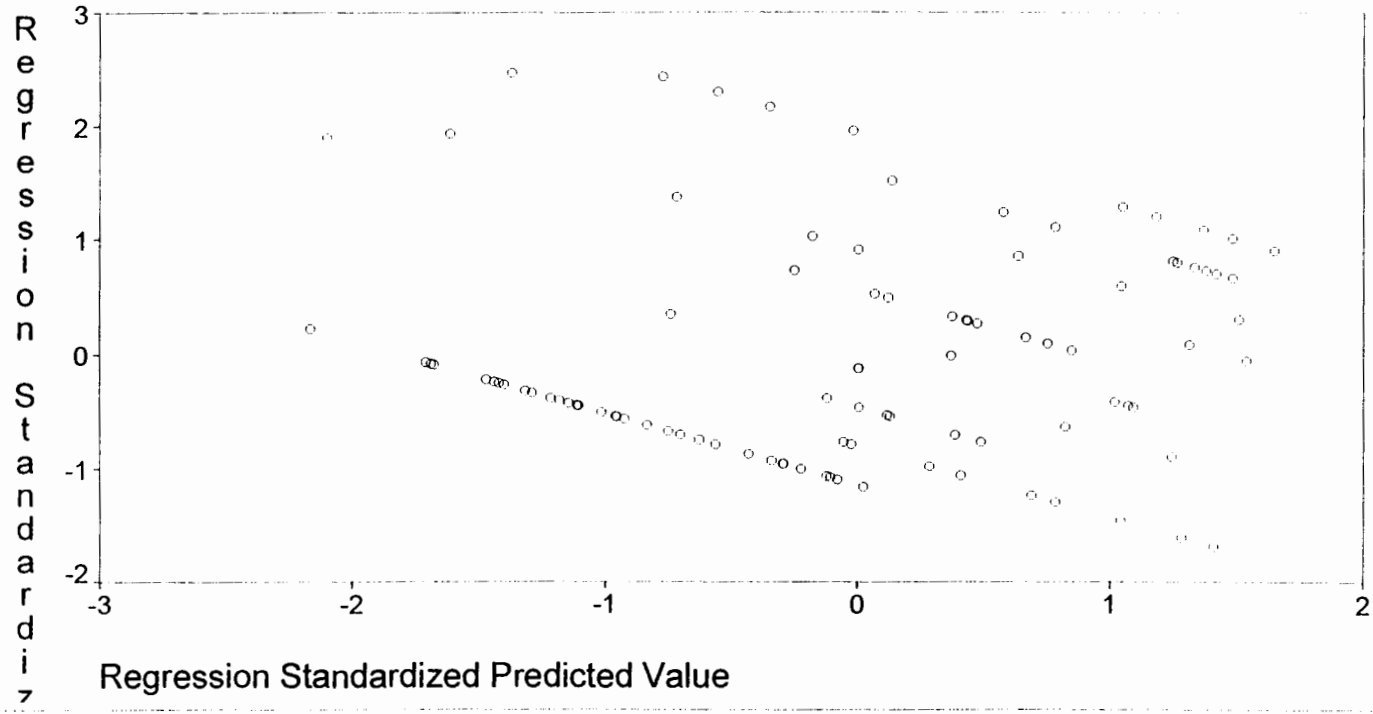
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER6
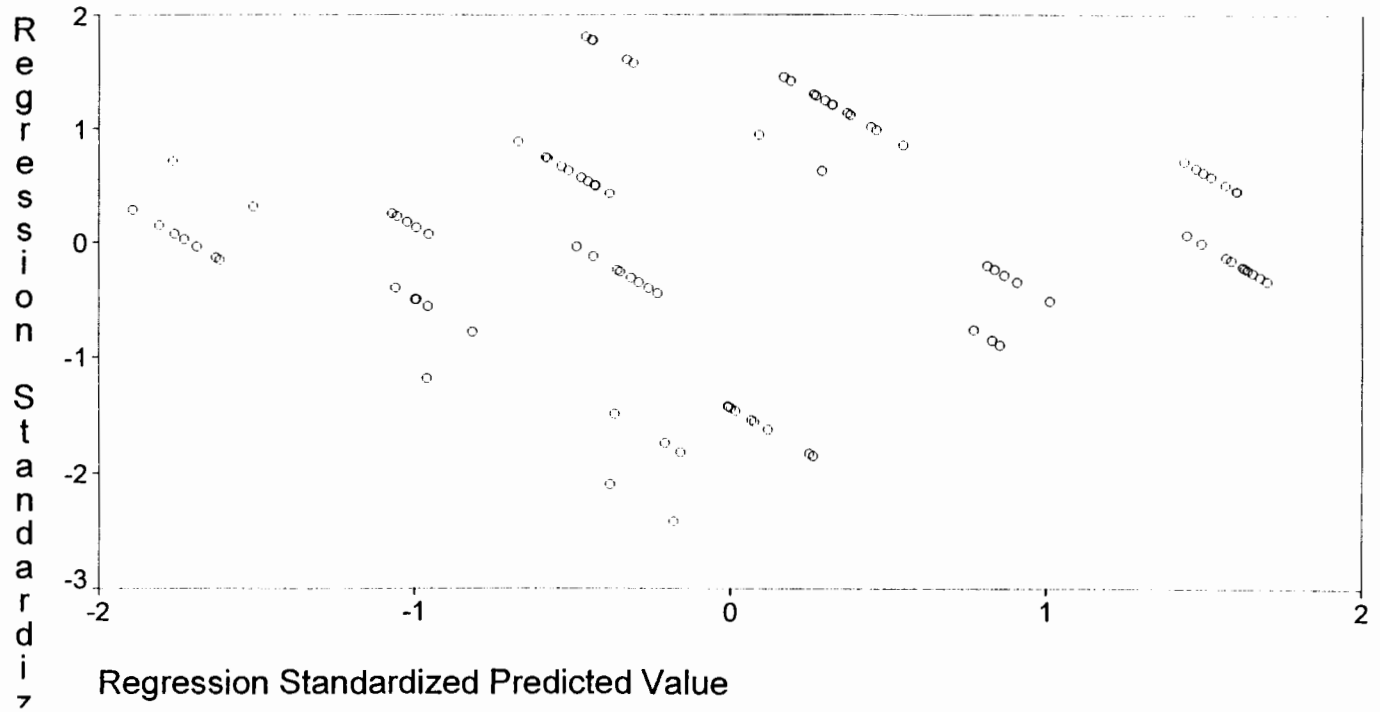
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER7
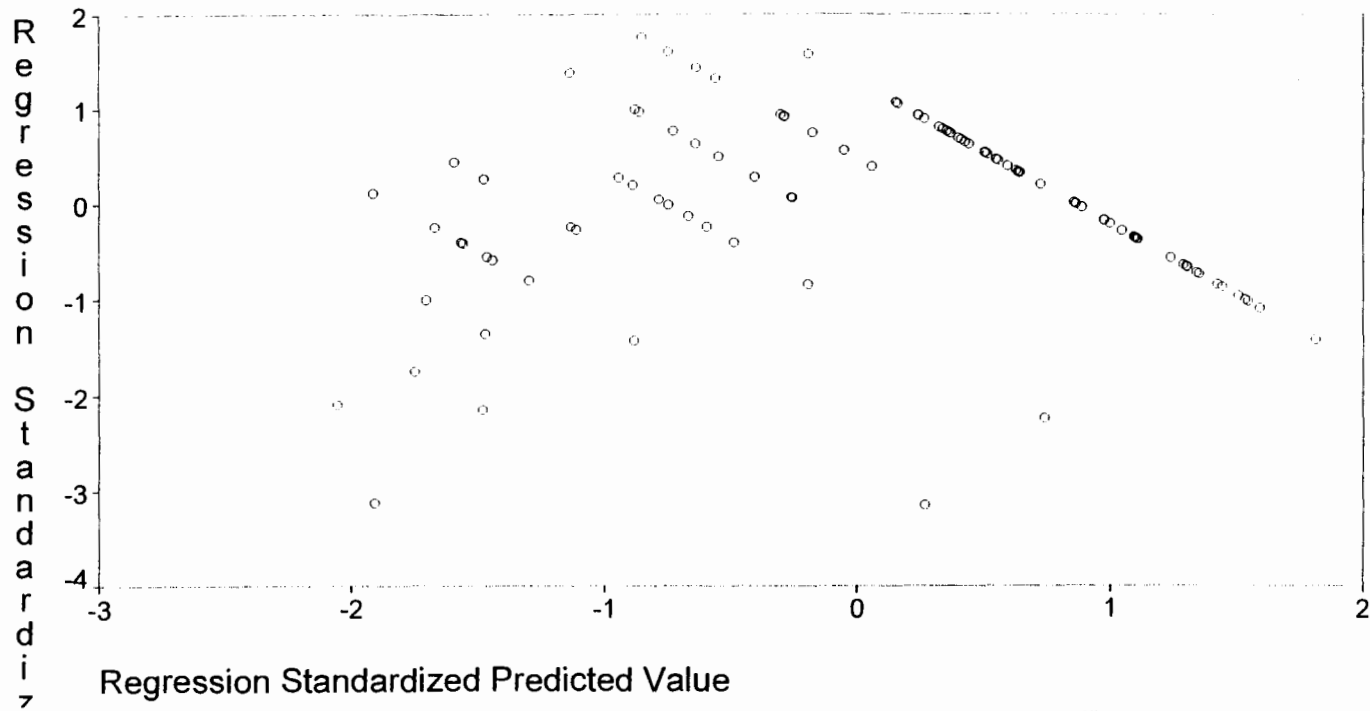
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER8
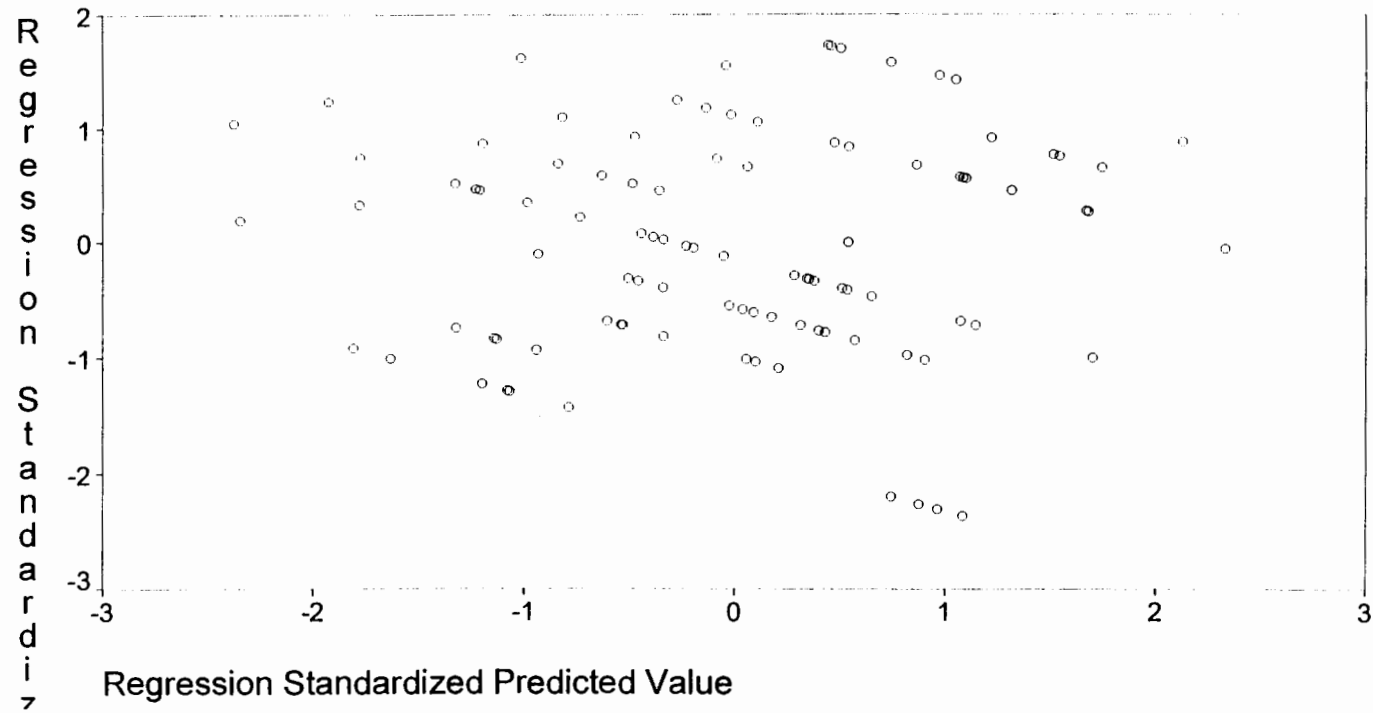
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILEPER9
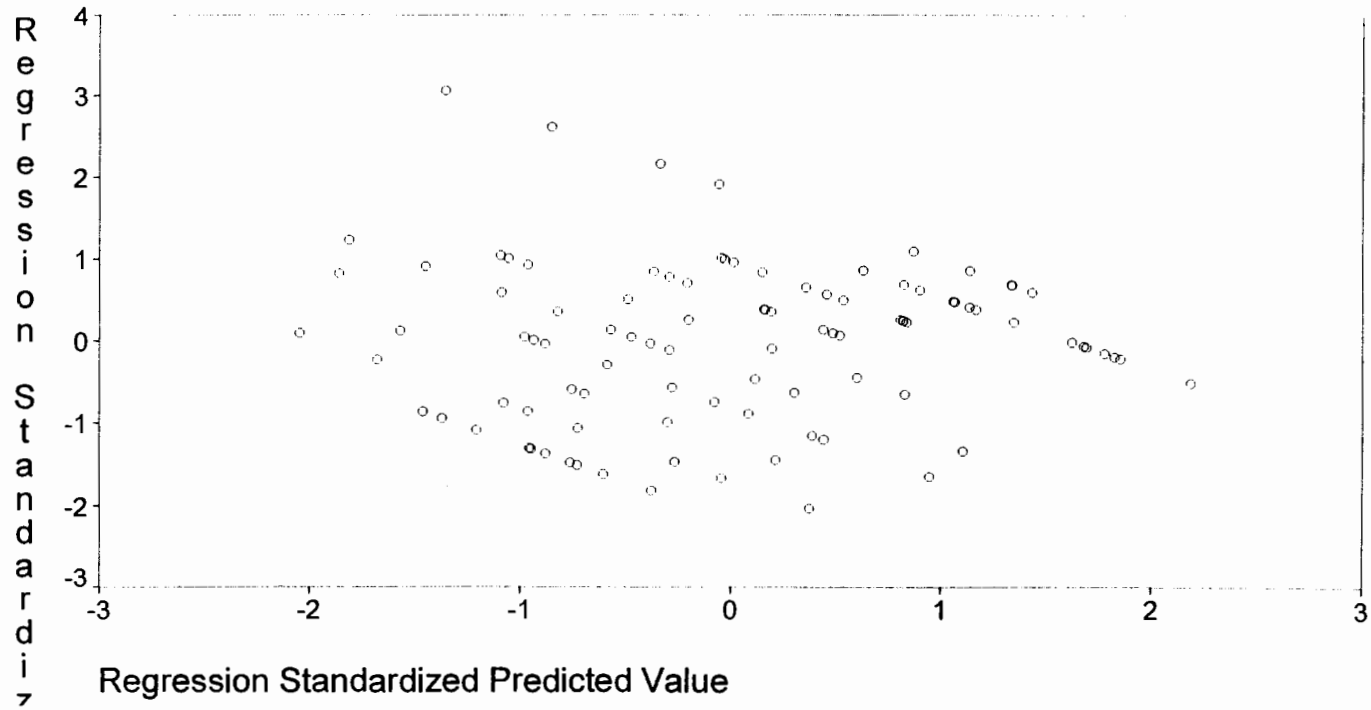
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER10
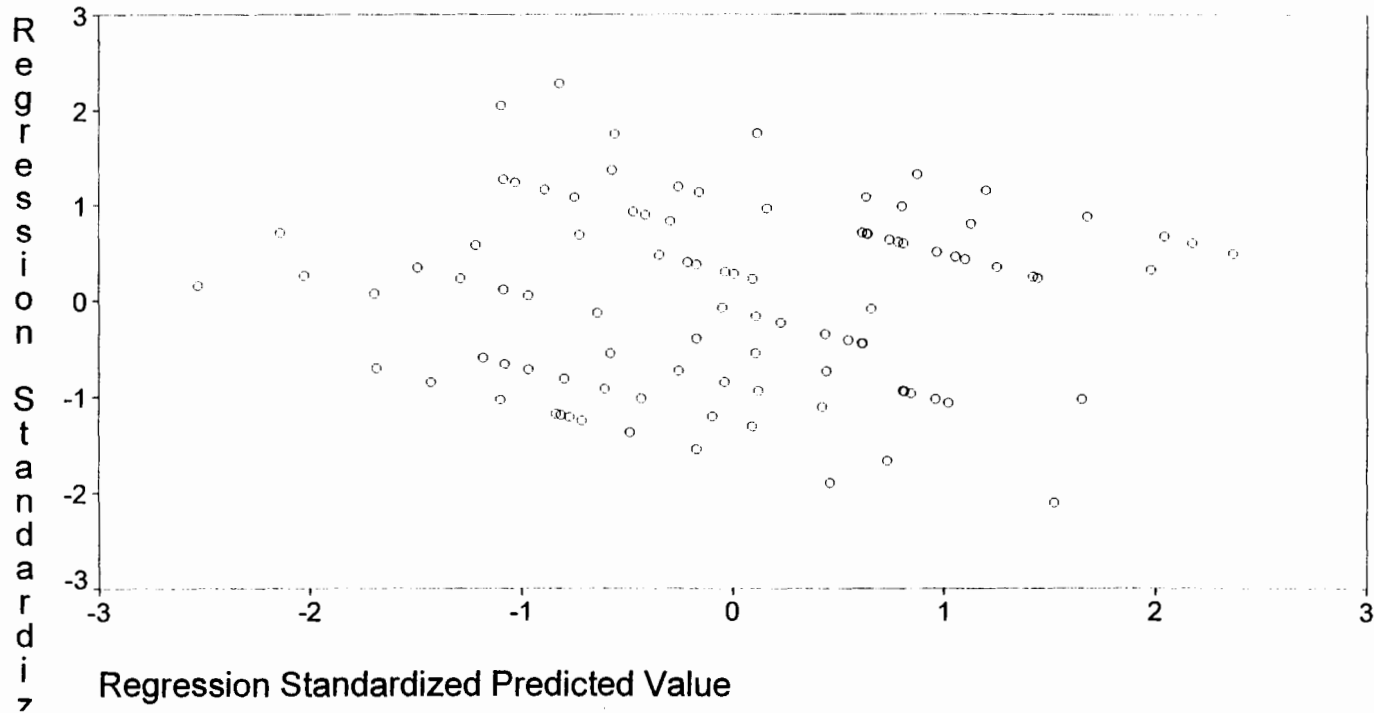
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER11
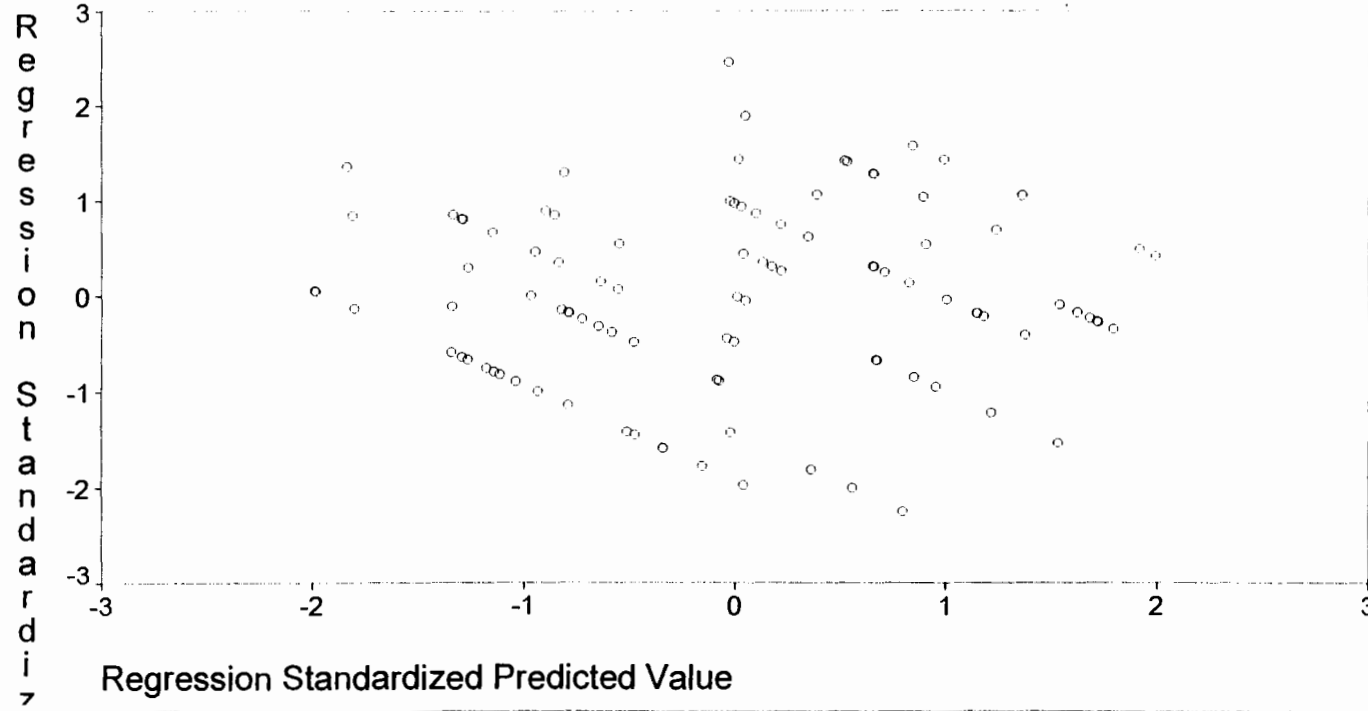
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER12
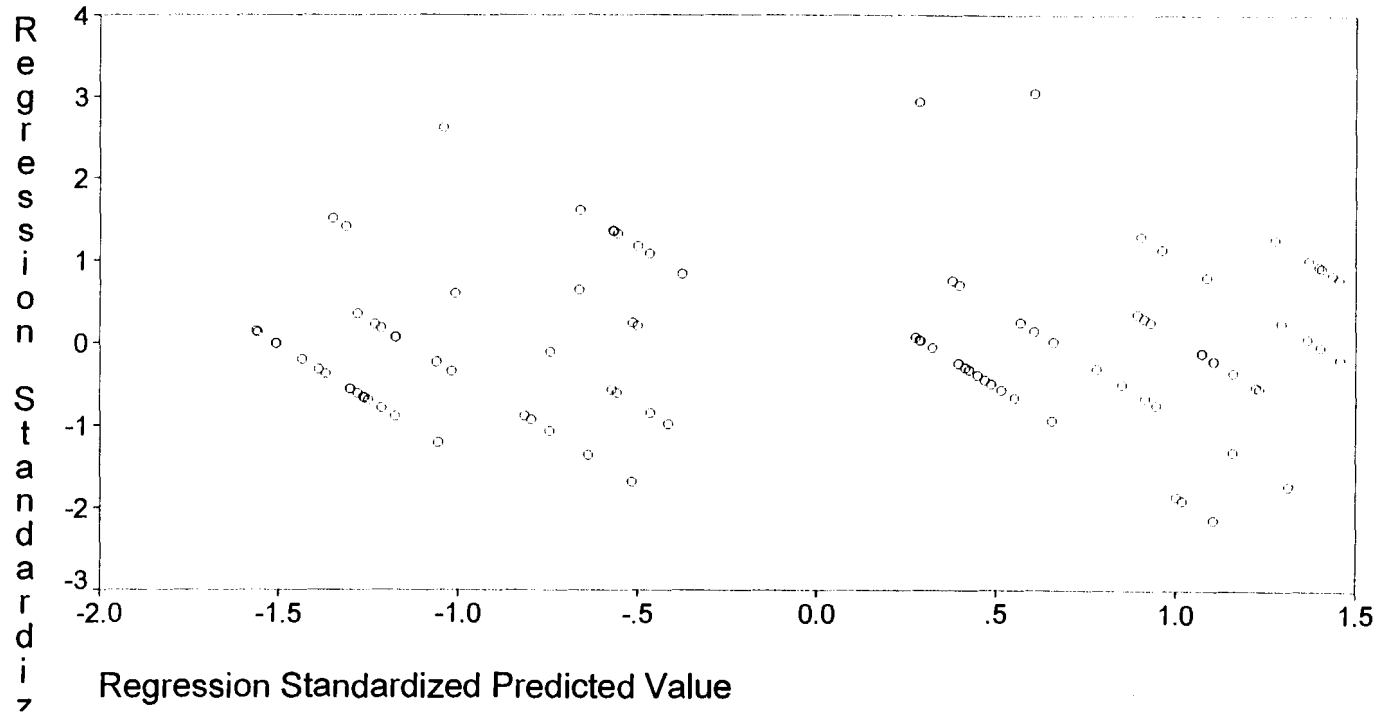
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER13
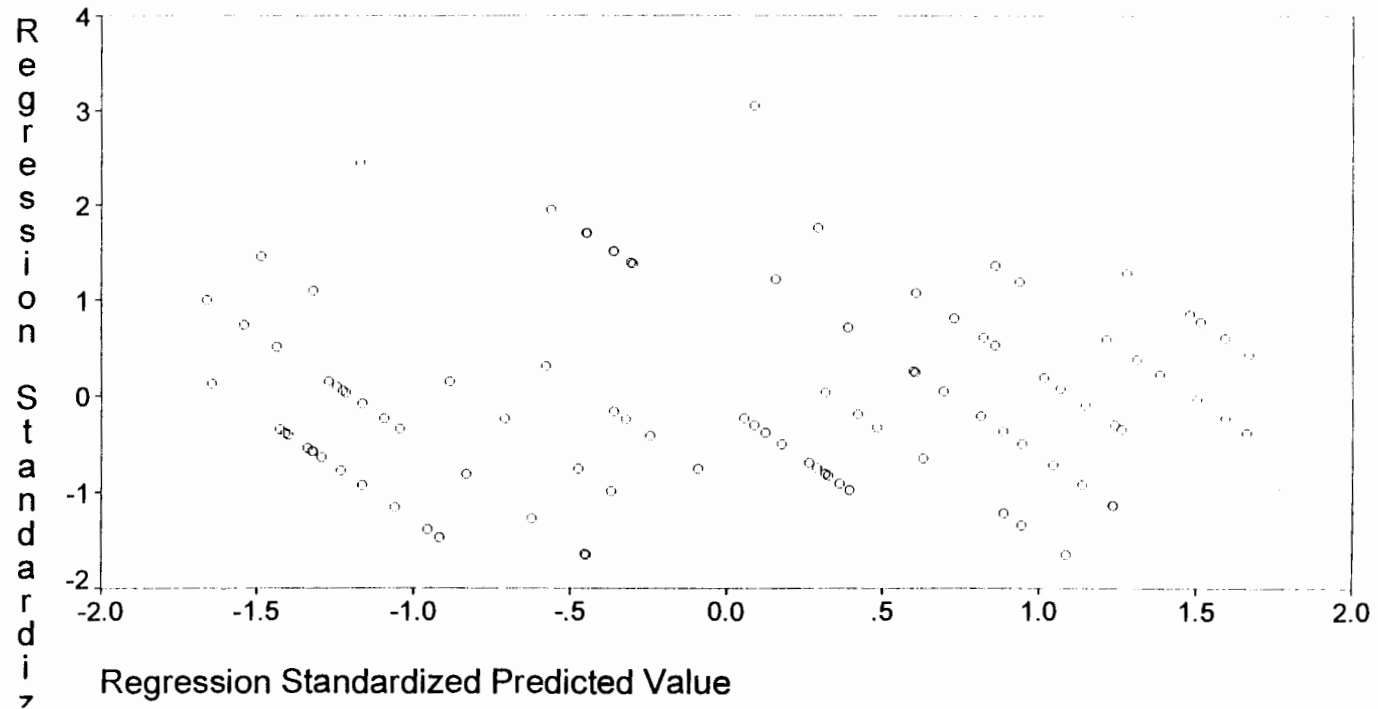
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER14
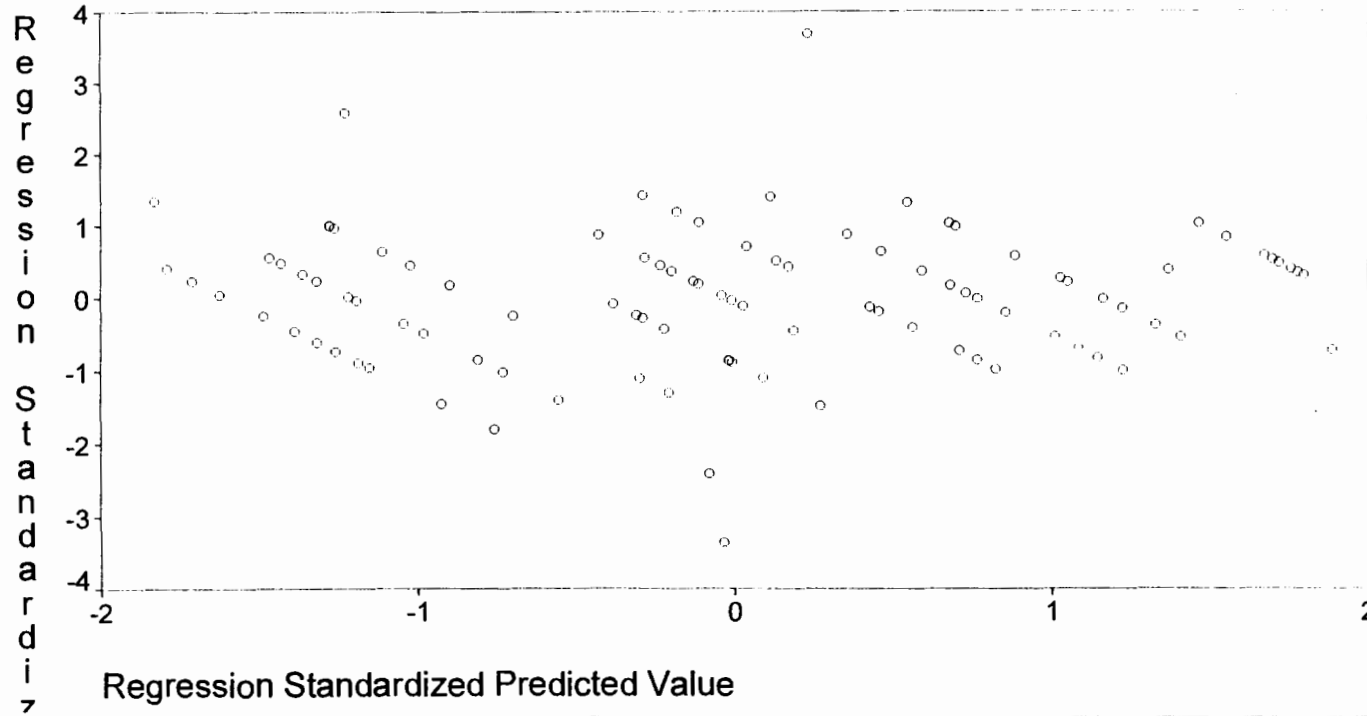
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER15
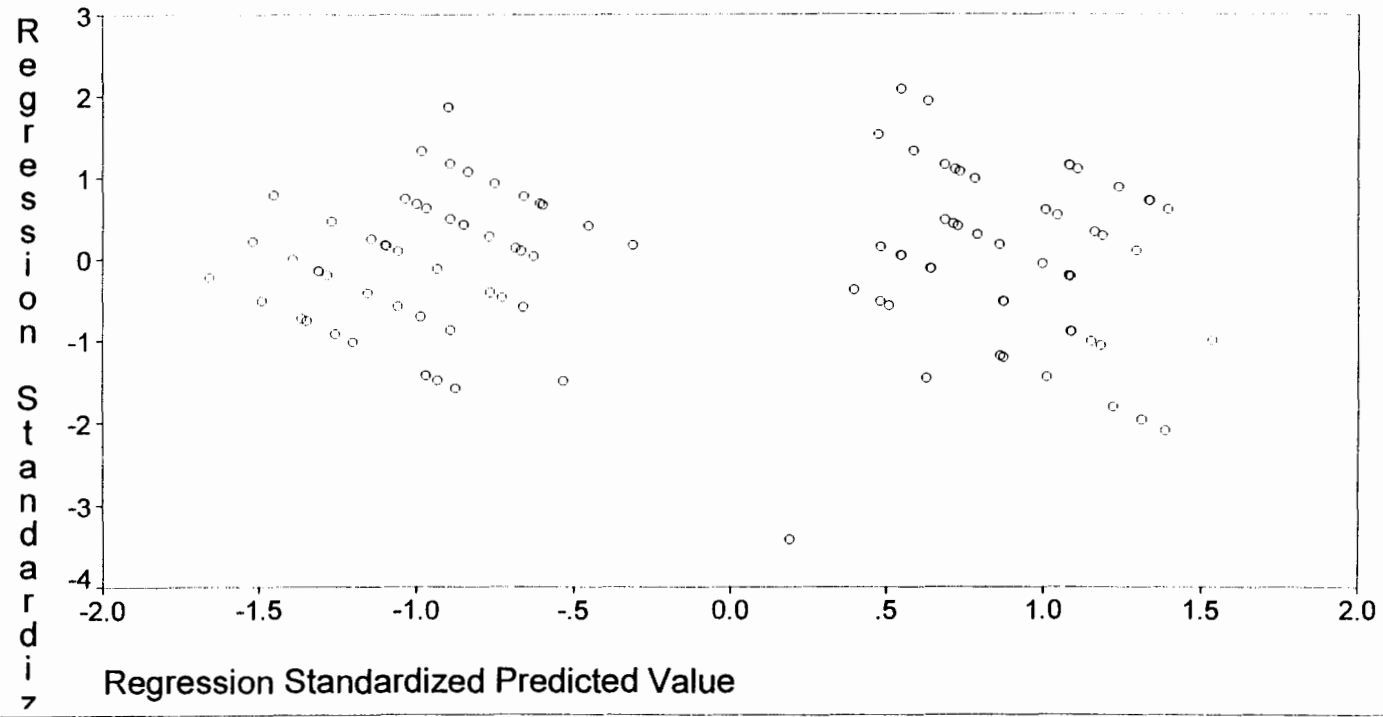
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Dependent Variable: PILPER16
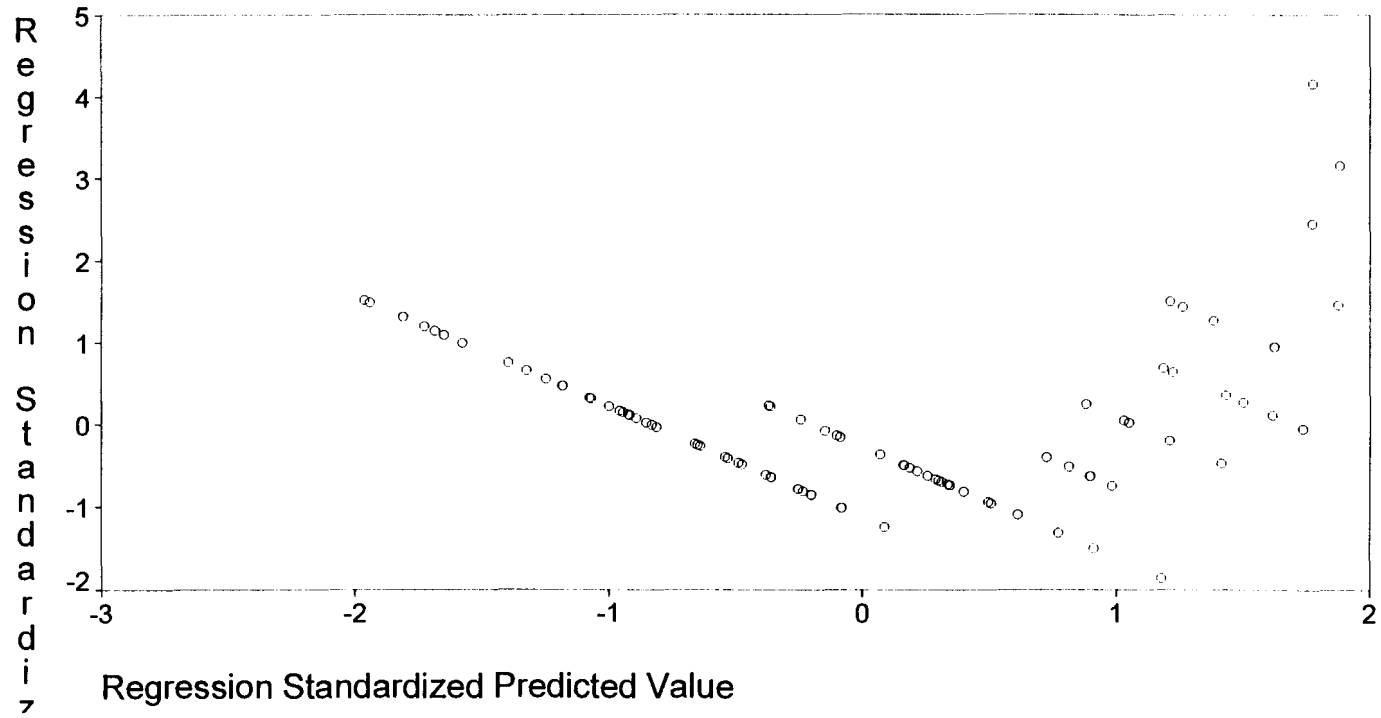
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER17
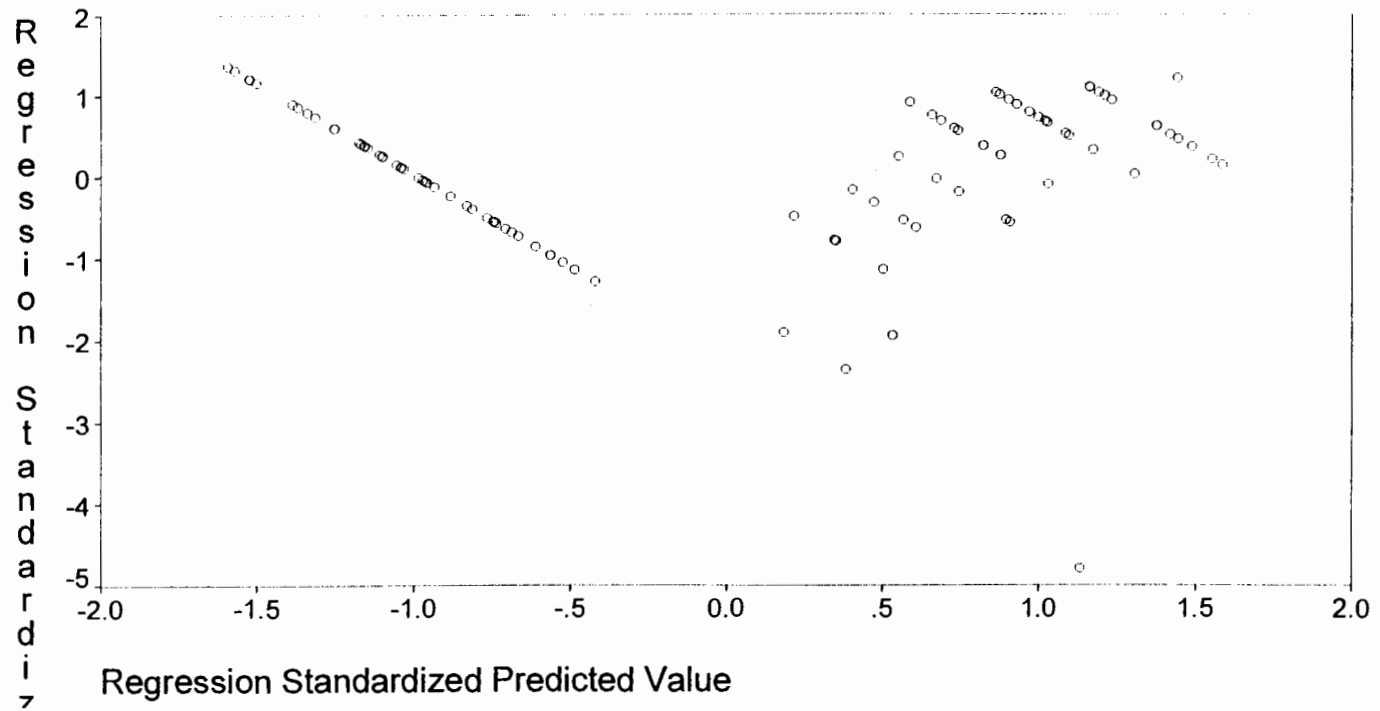
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER18
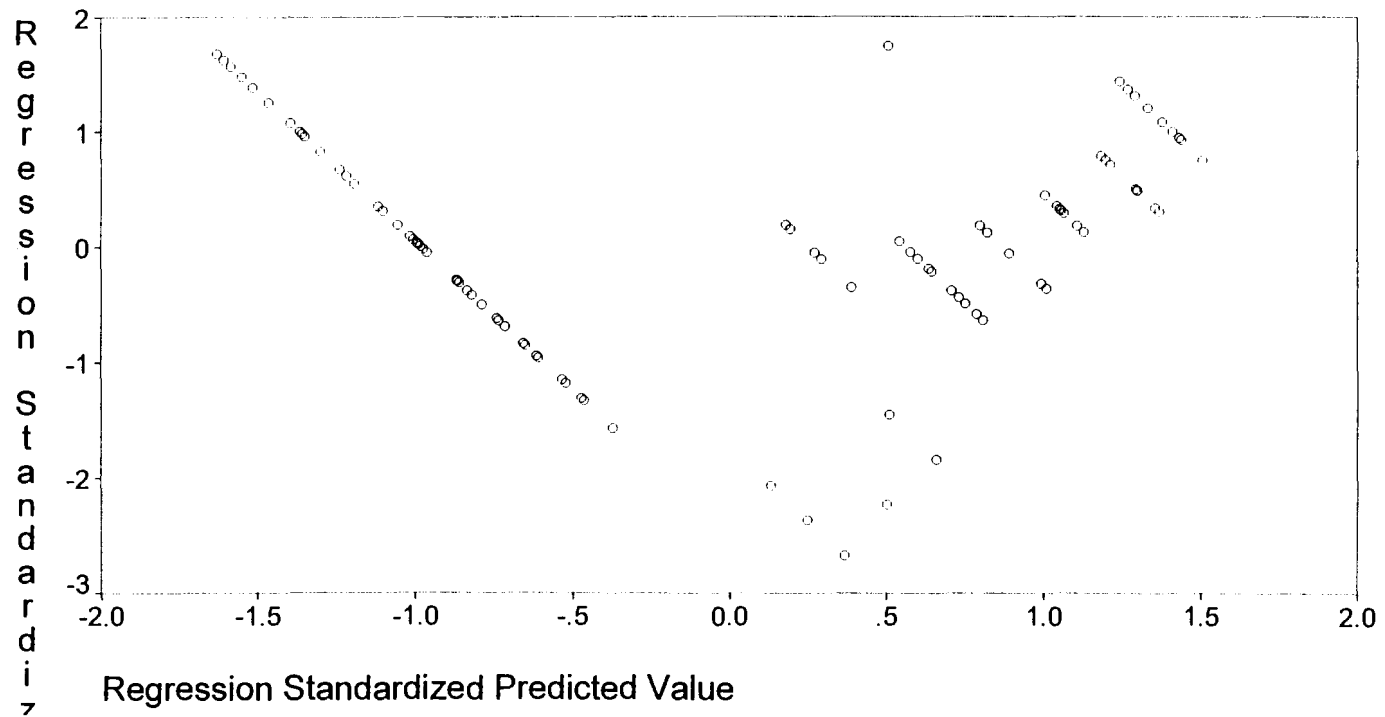
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER19
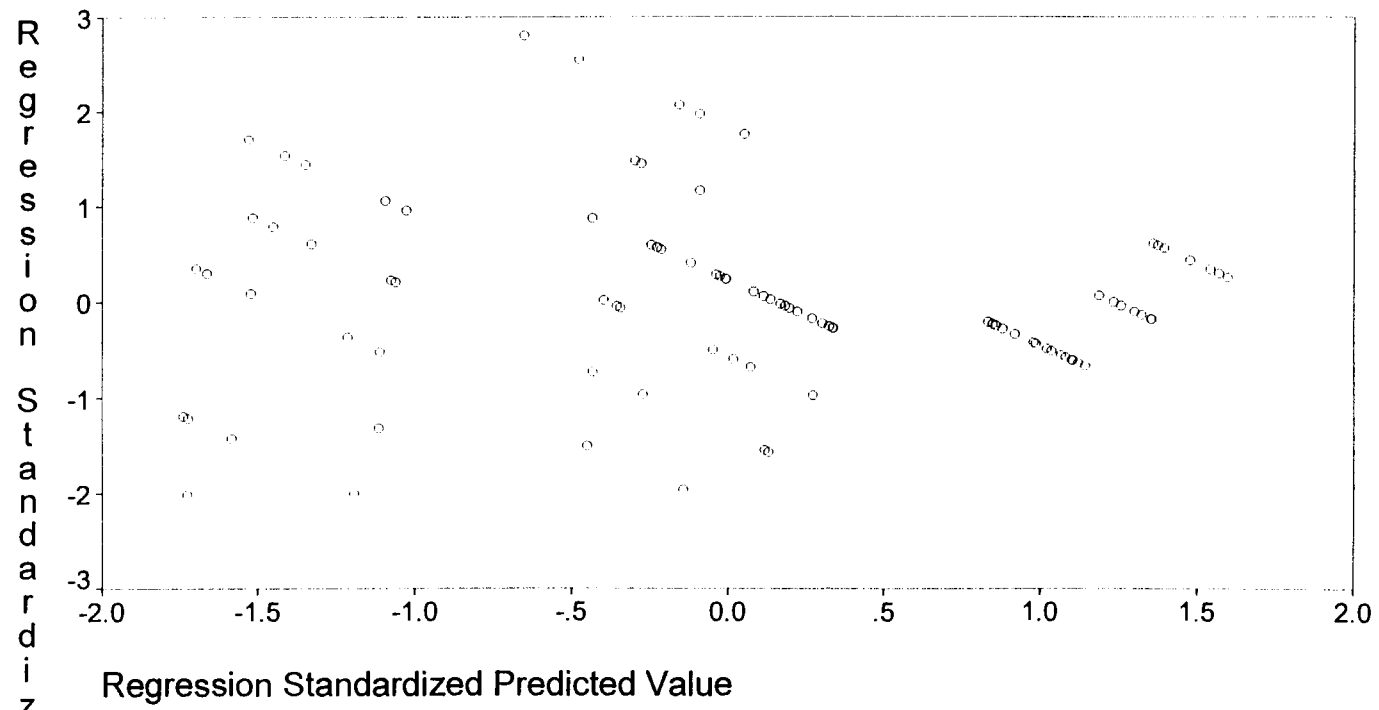
Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: PILPER20
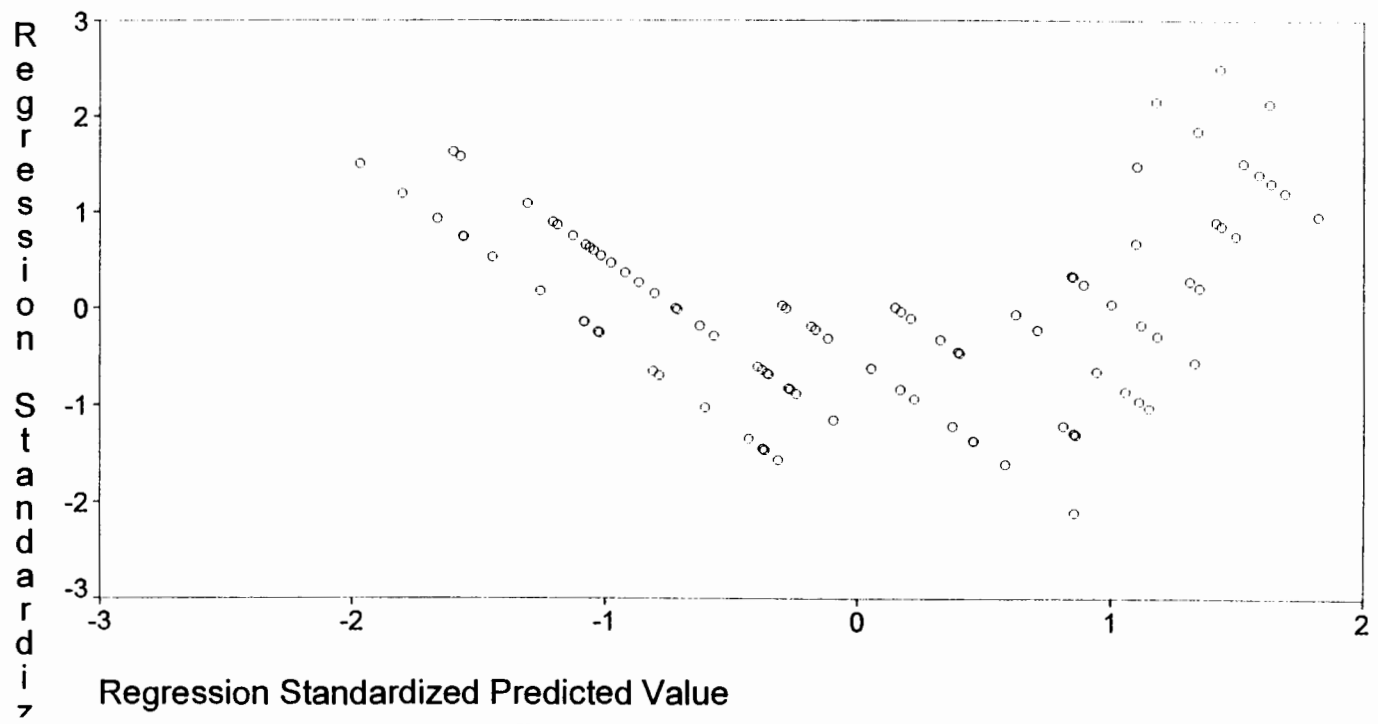
Appendix 7

Standardised Residuals

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER1
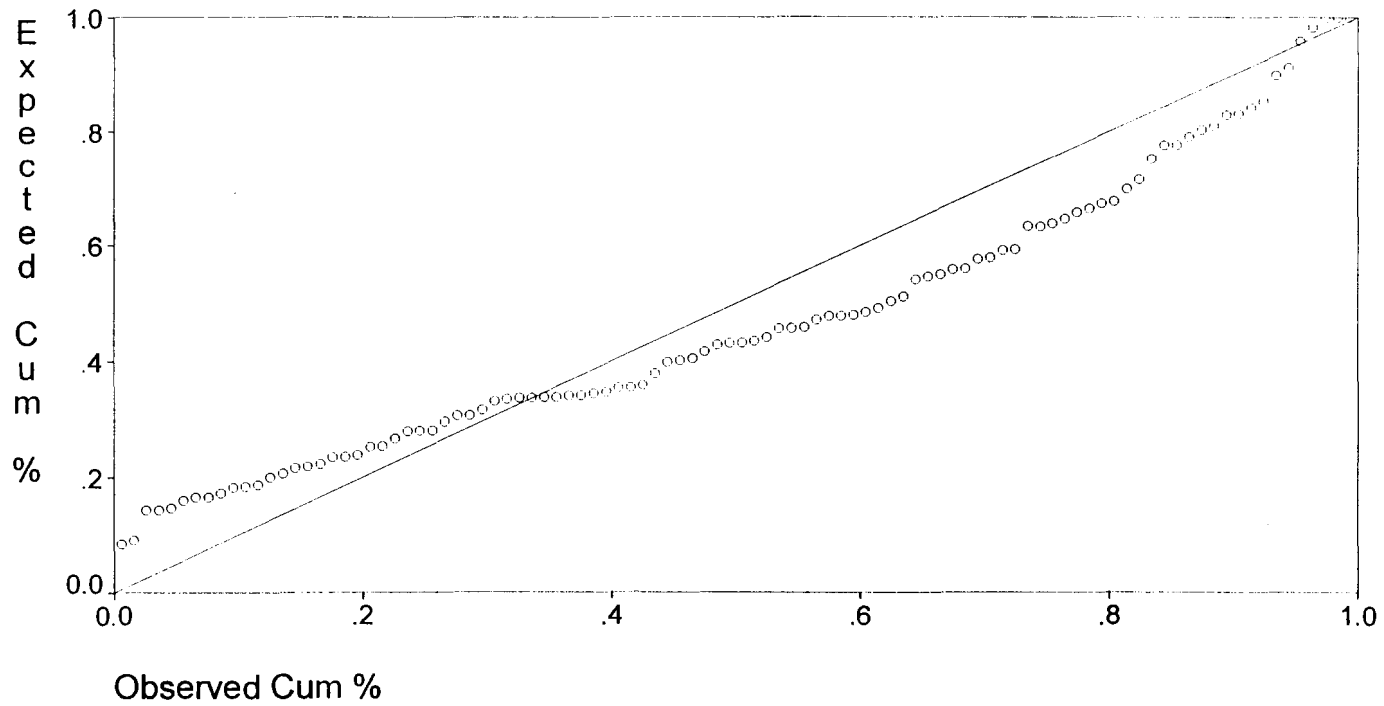
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER2
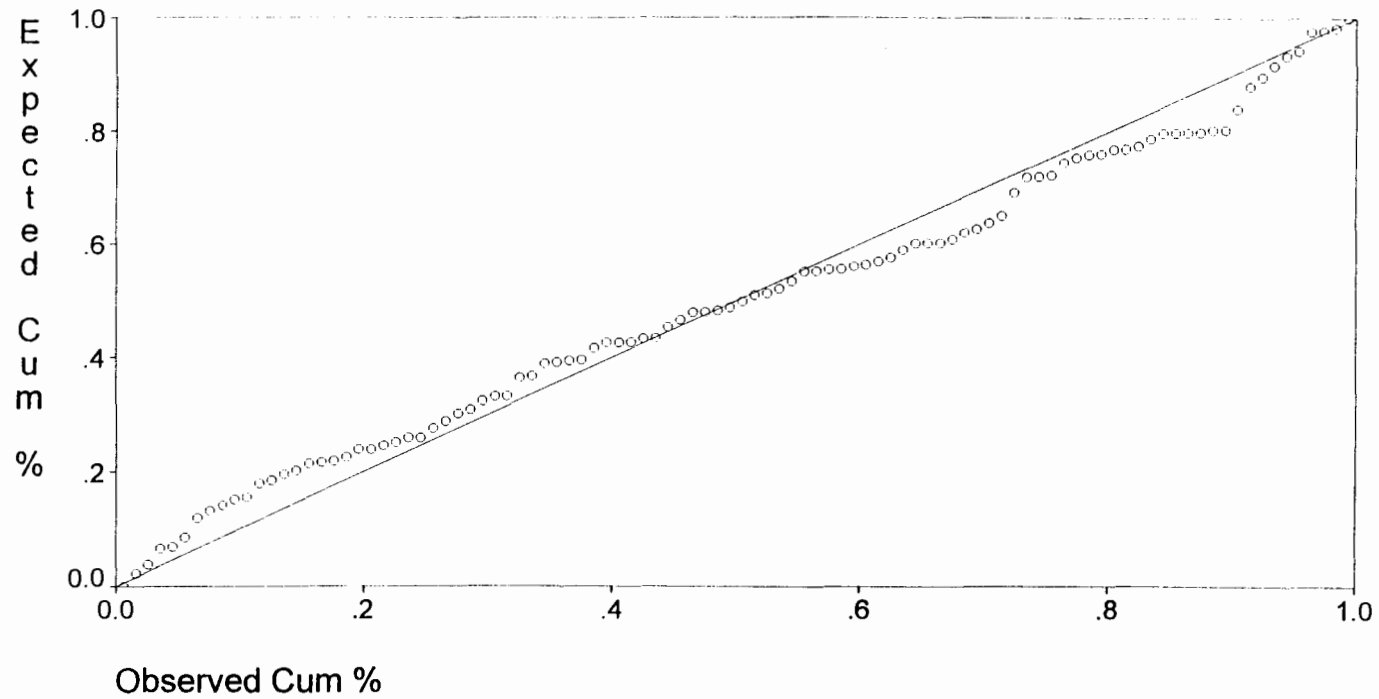
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER3
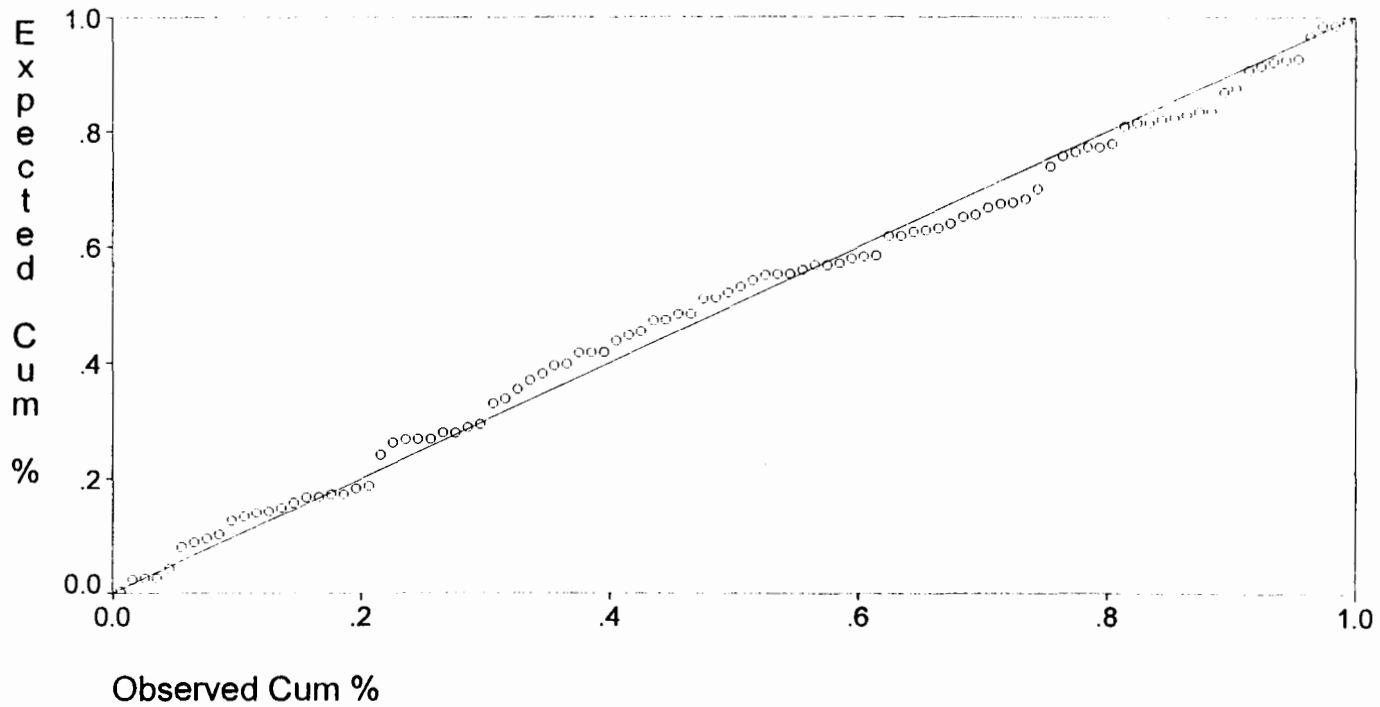
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER4
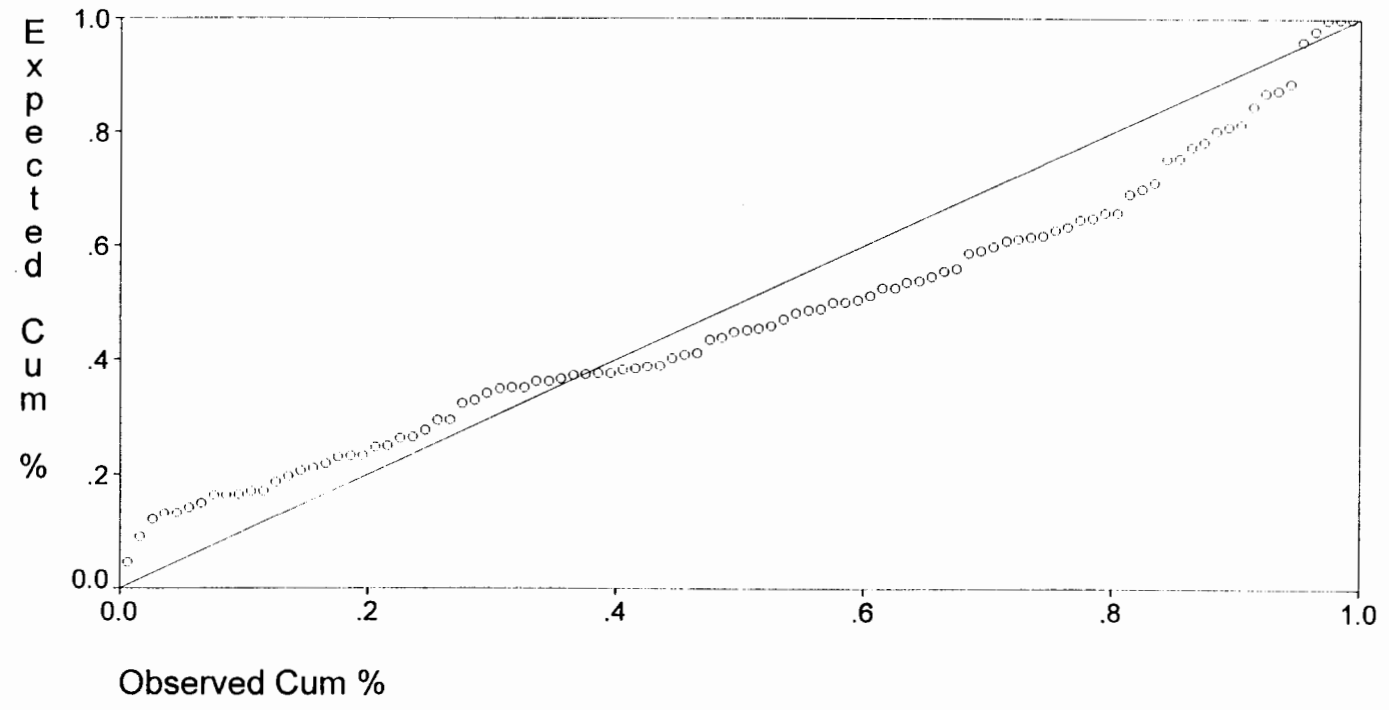
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER5
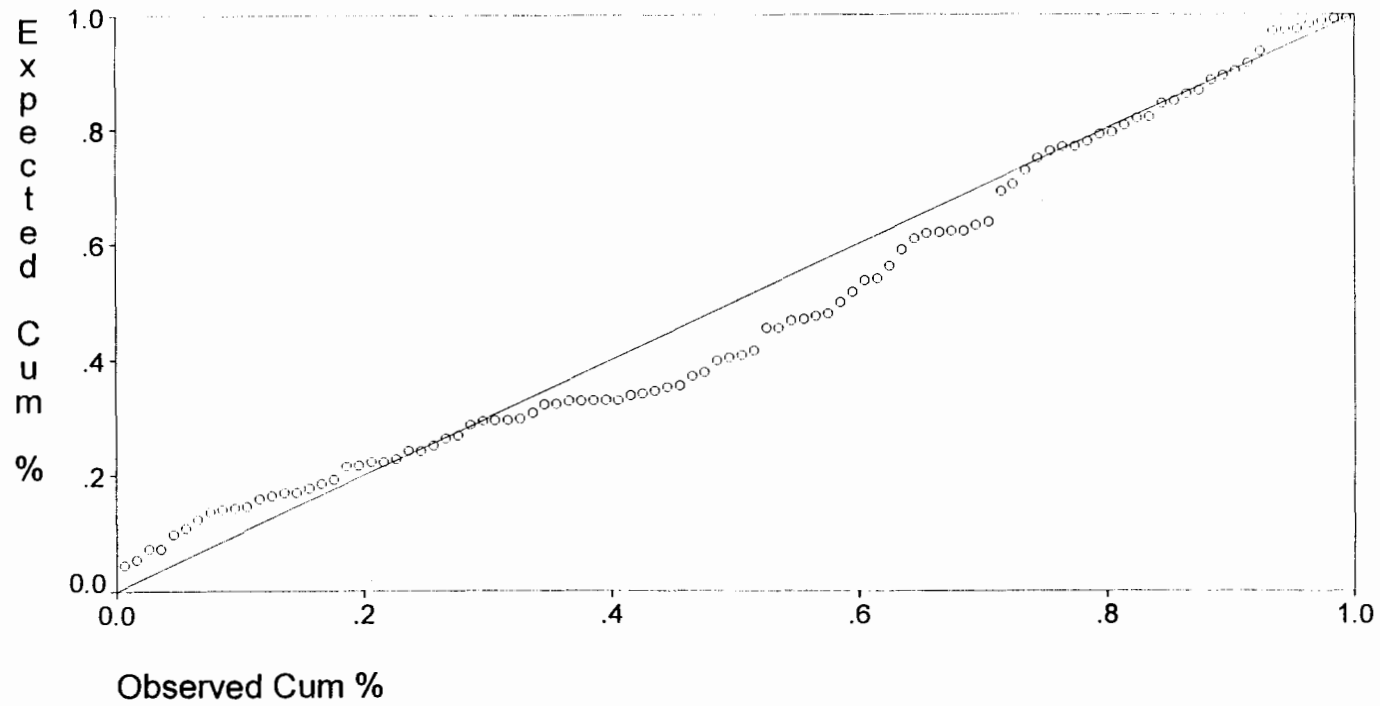
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: PILEPER6
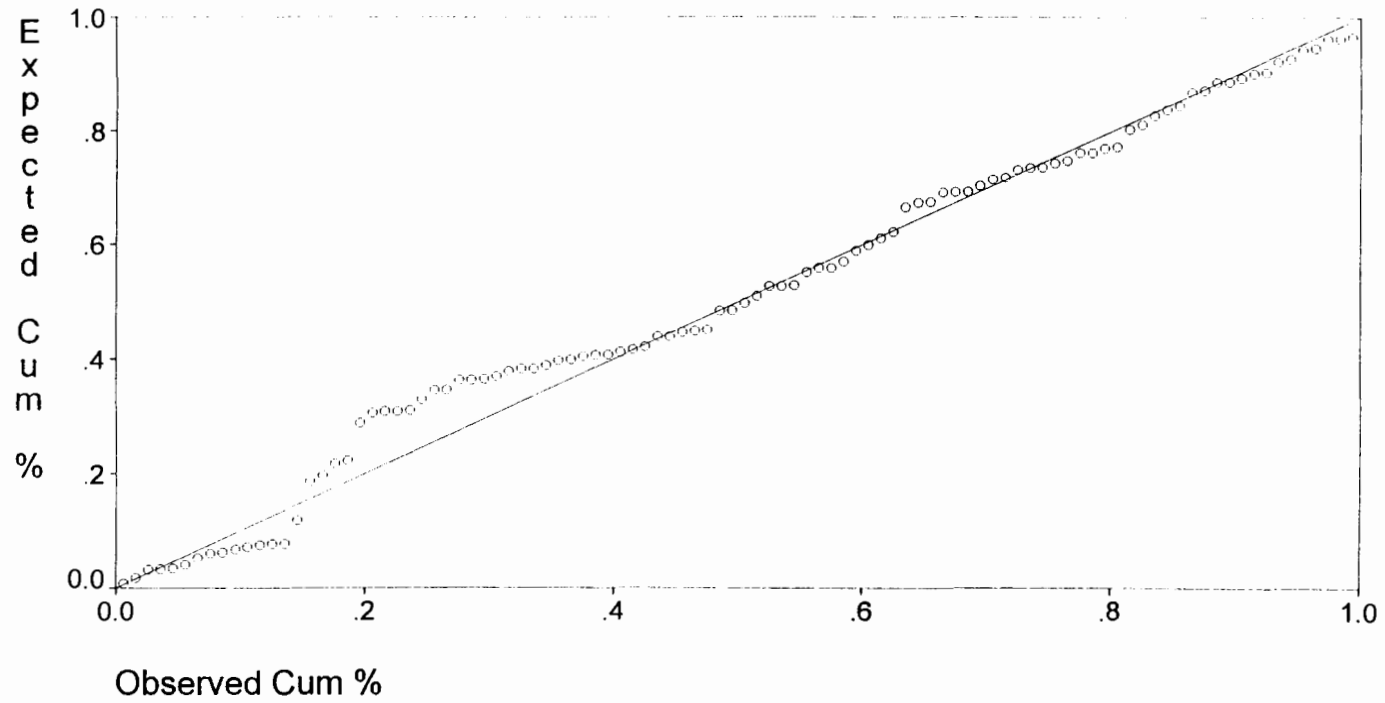
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
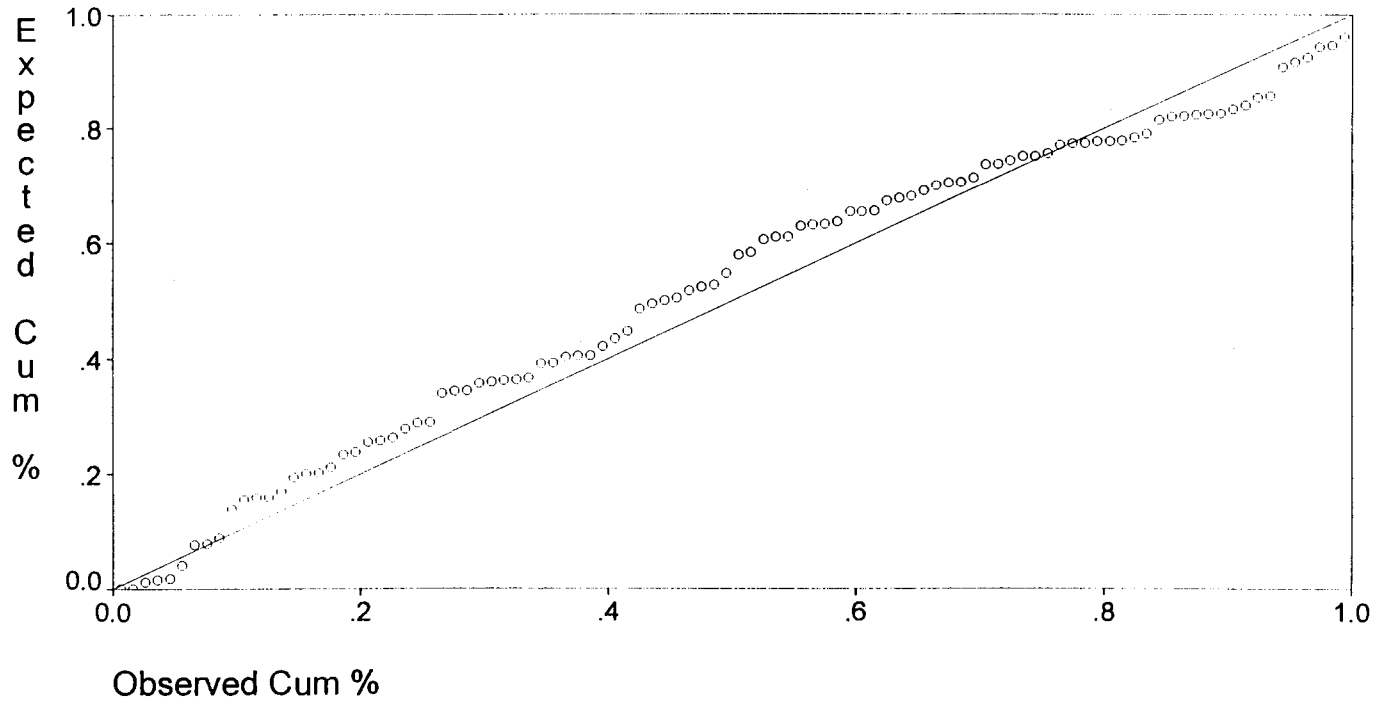
Dependent Variable: PILEPER7

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER8

Expected Cum %

Observed Cum %
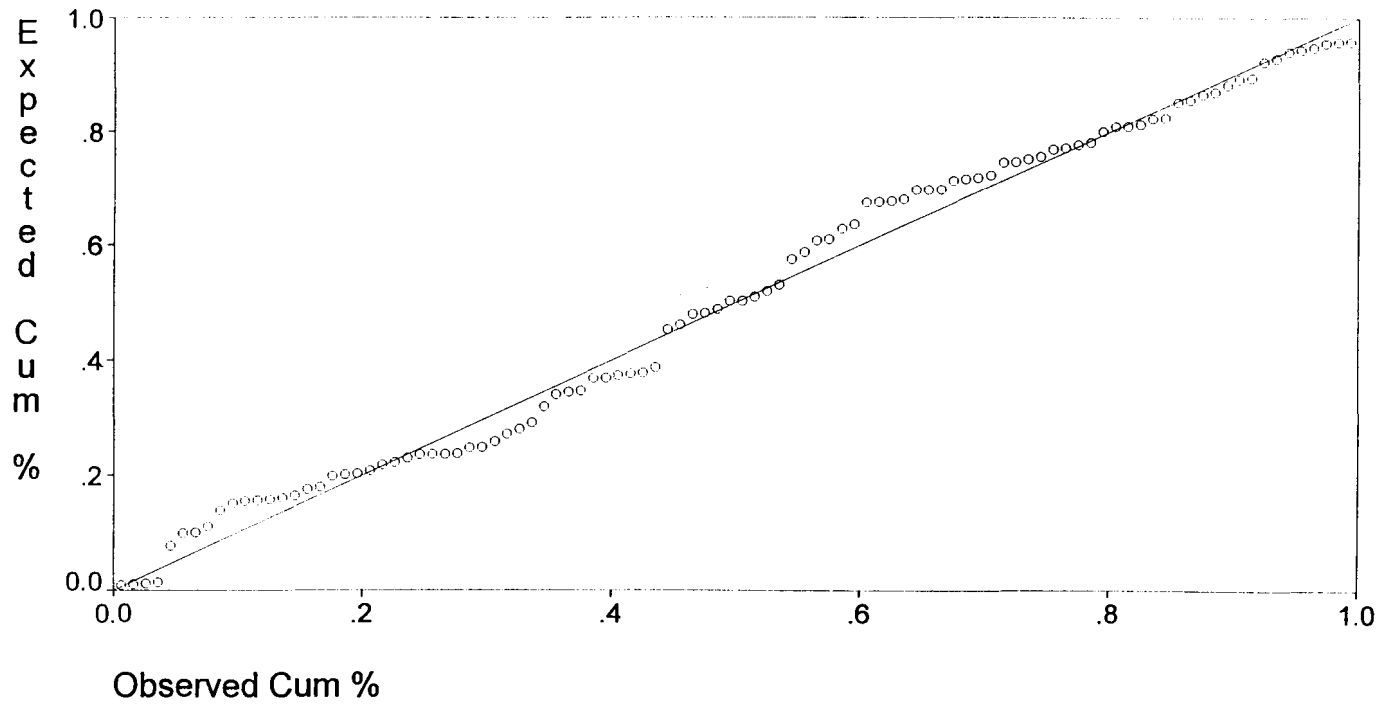
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILEPER9
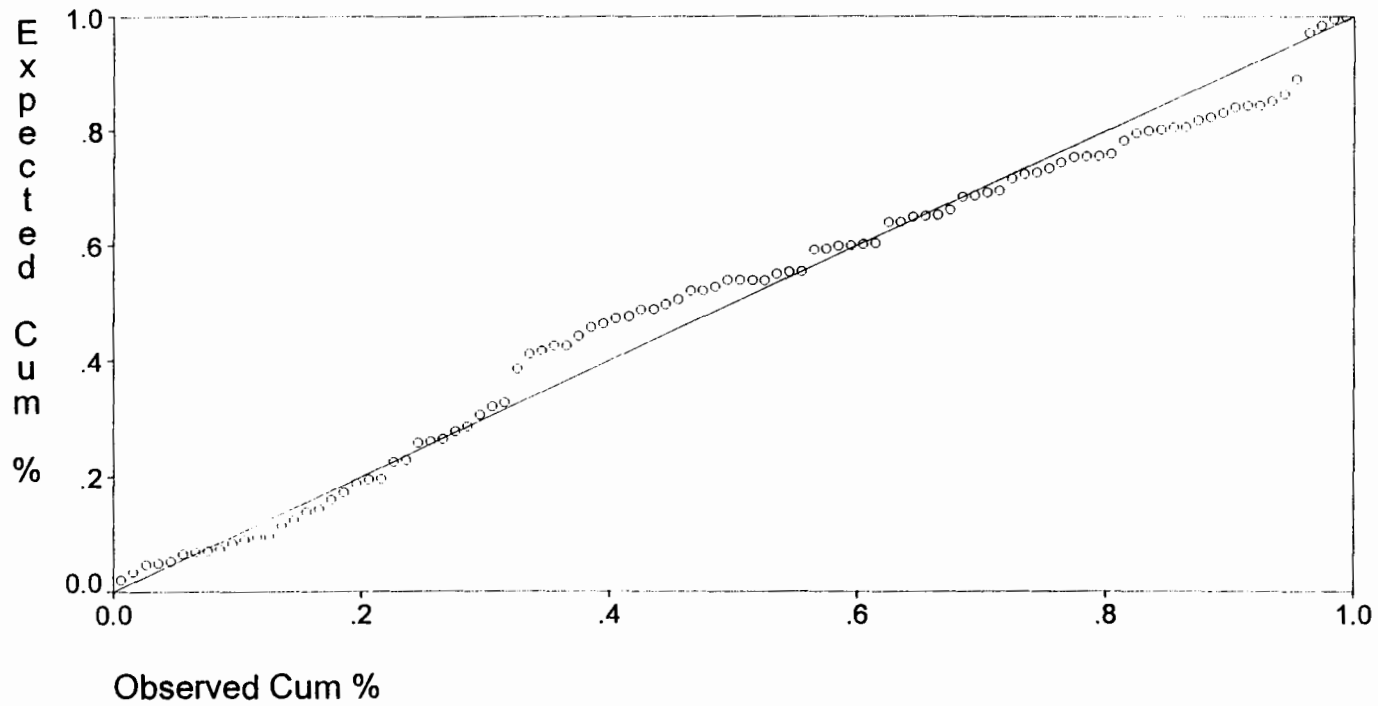
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: PILPER10
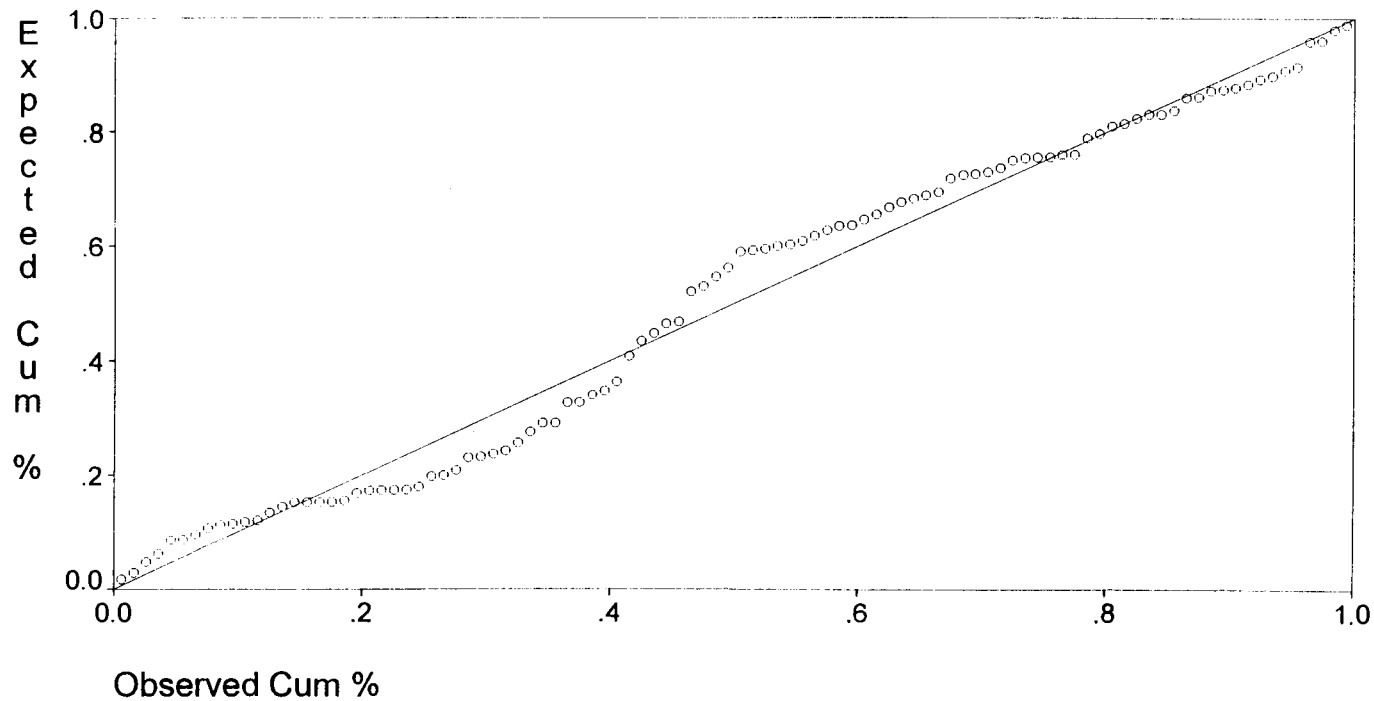
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER11
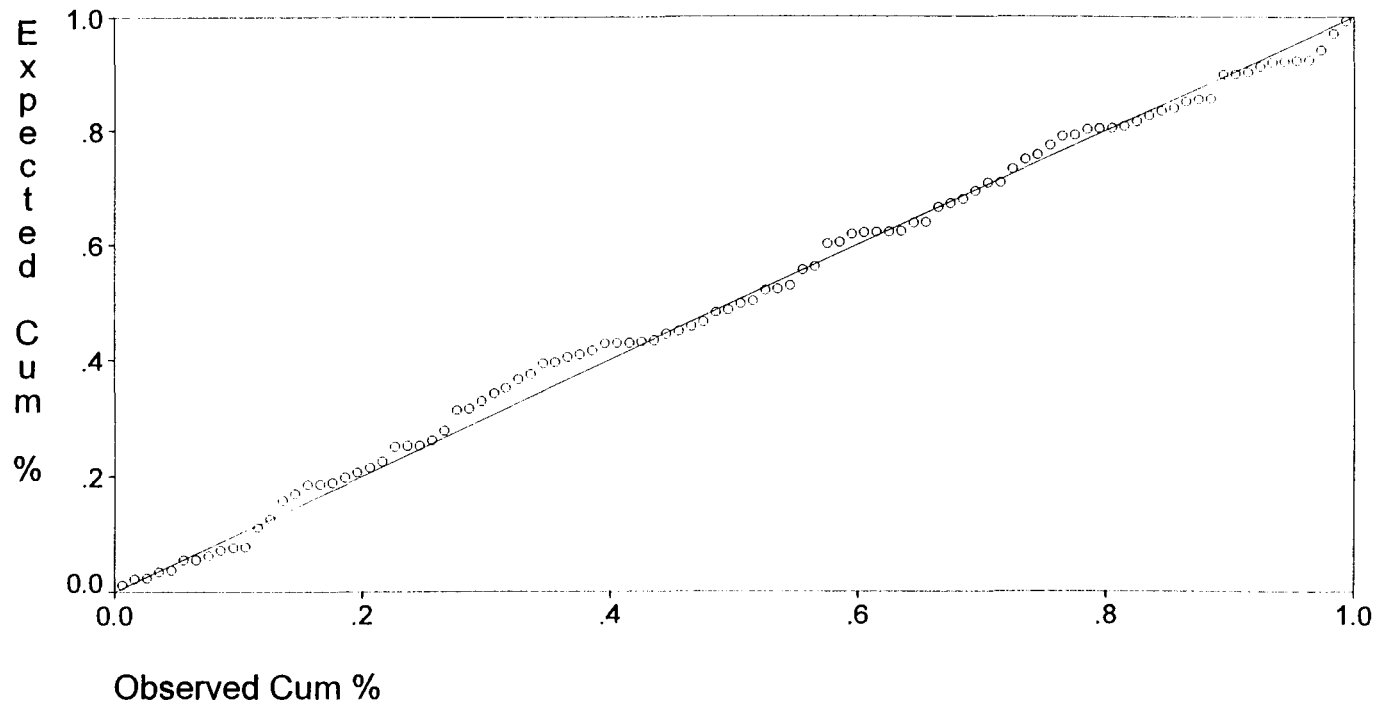
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
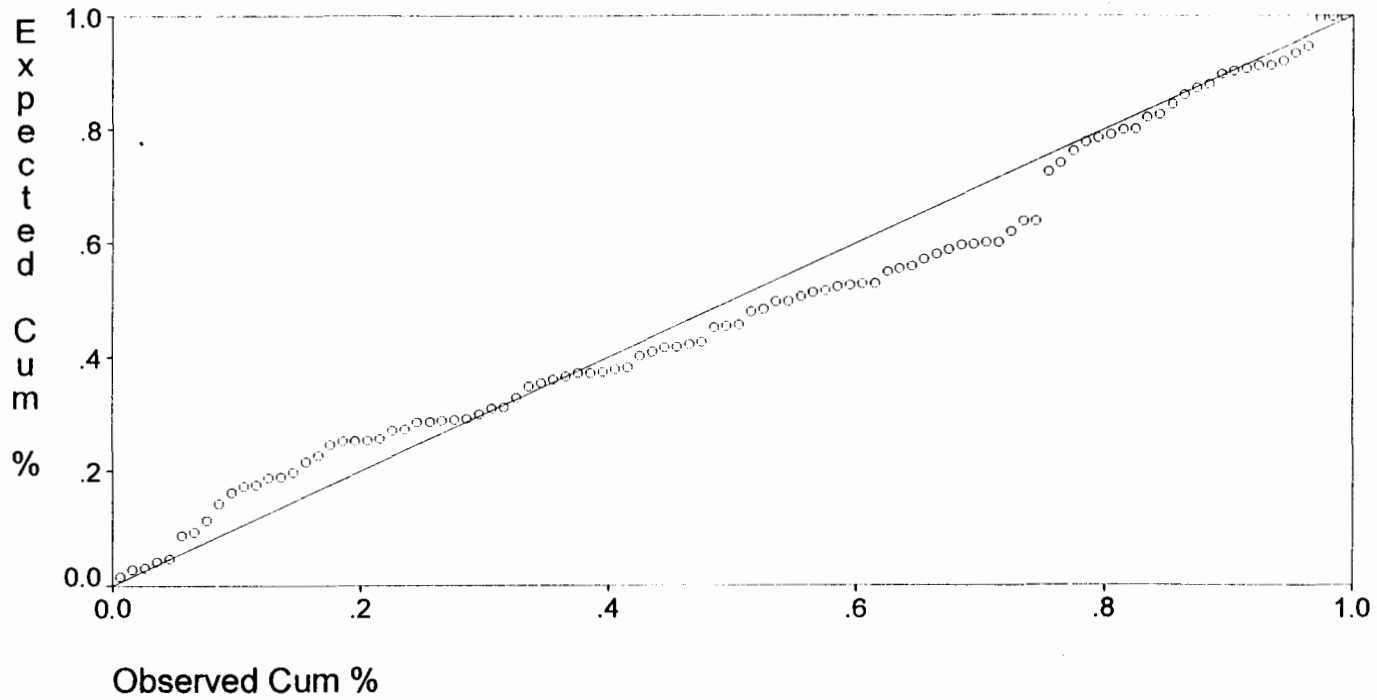
Dependent Variable: PILPER12

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: PILPER13

Expected Cum %

Observed Cum %
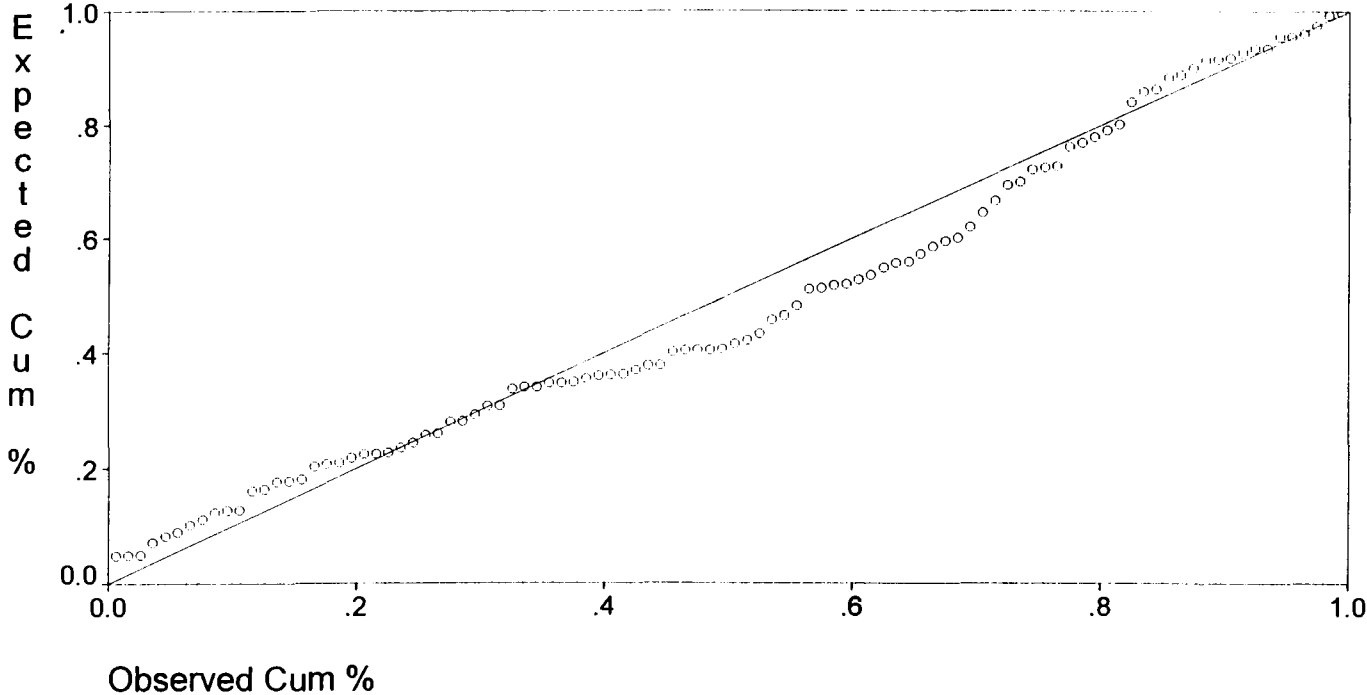
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER14
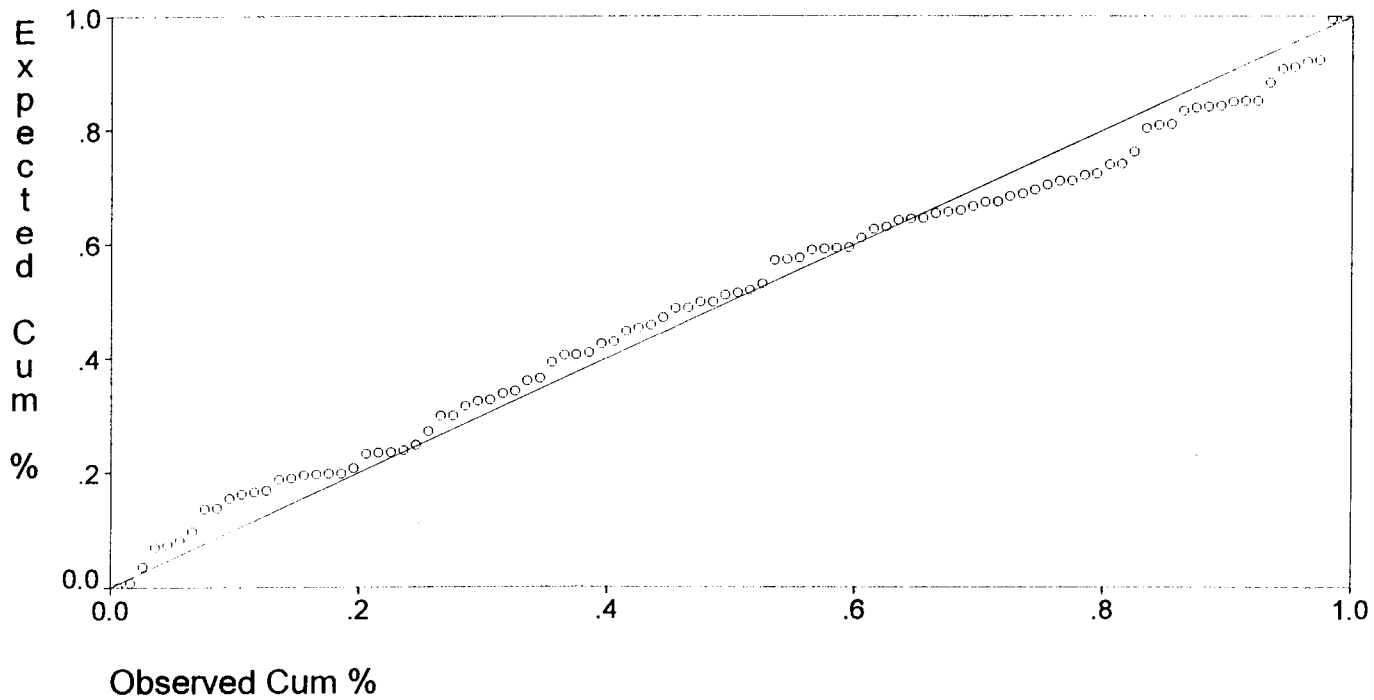
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
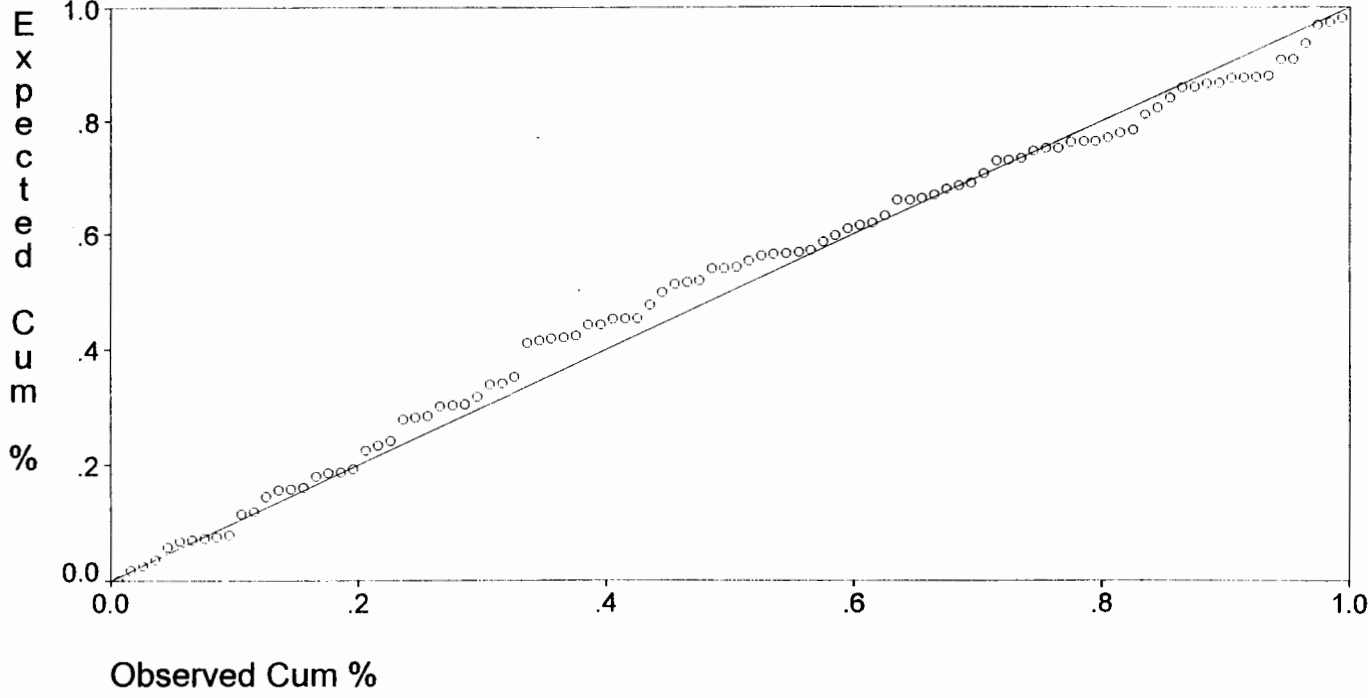
Dependent Variable: PILPER15

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
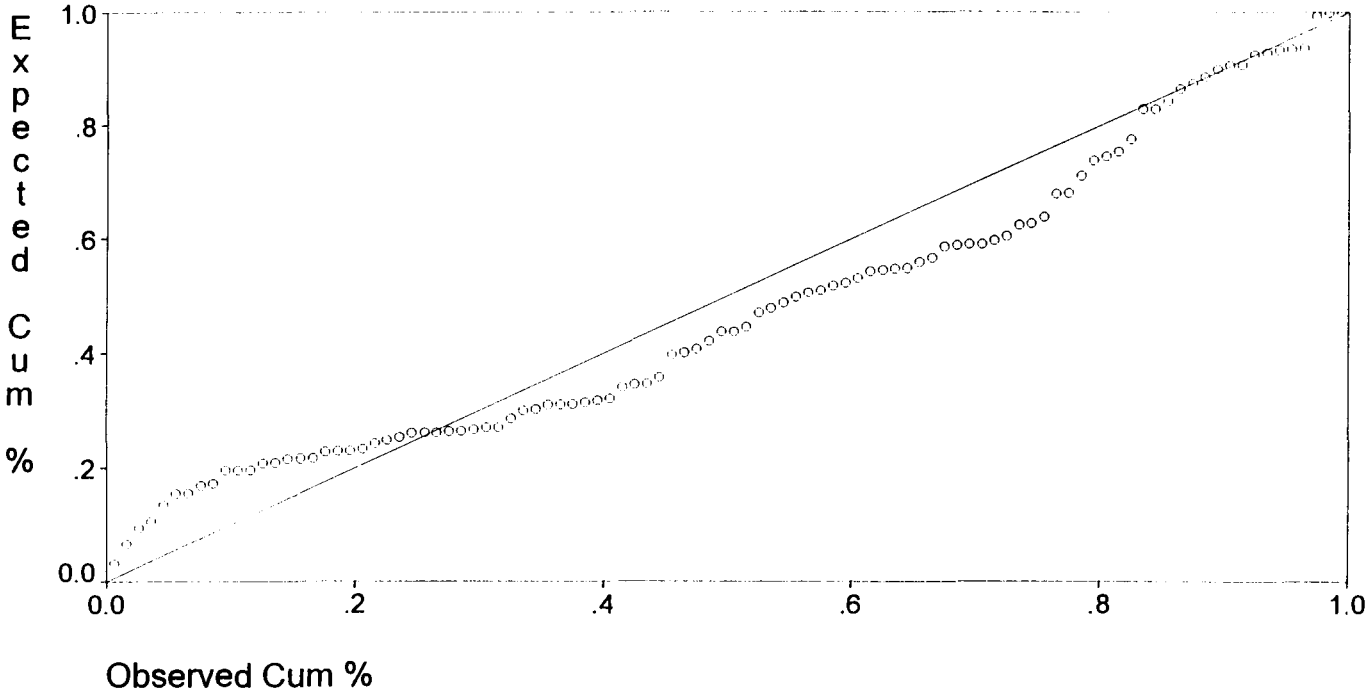
Dependent Variable: PILPER16

E
x
p
e
c
t
e
d

C
u
m

%

Observed Cum %

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER17

Expected Cum %

Observed Cum %
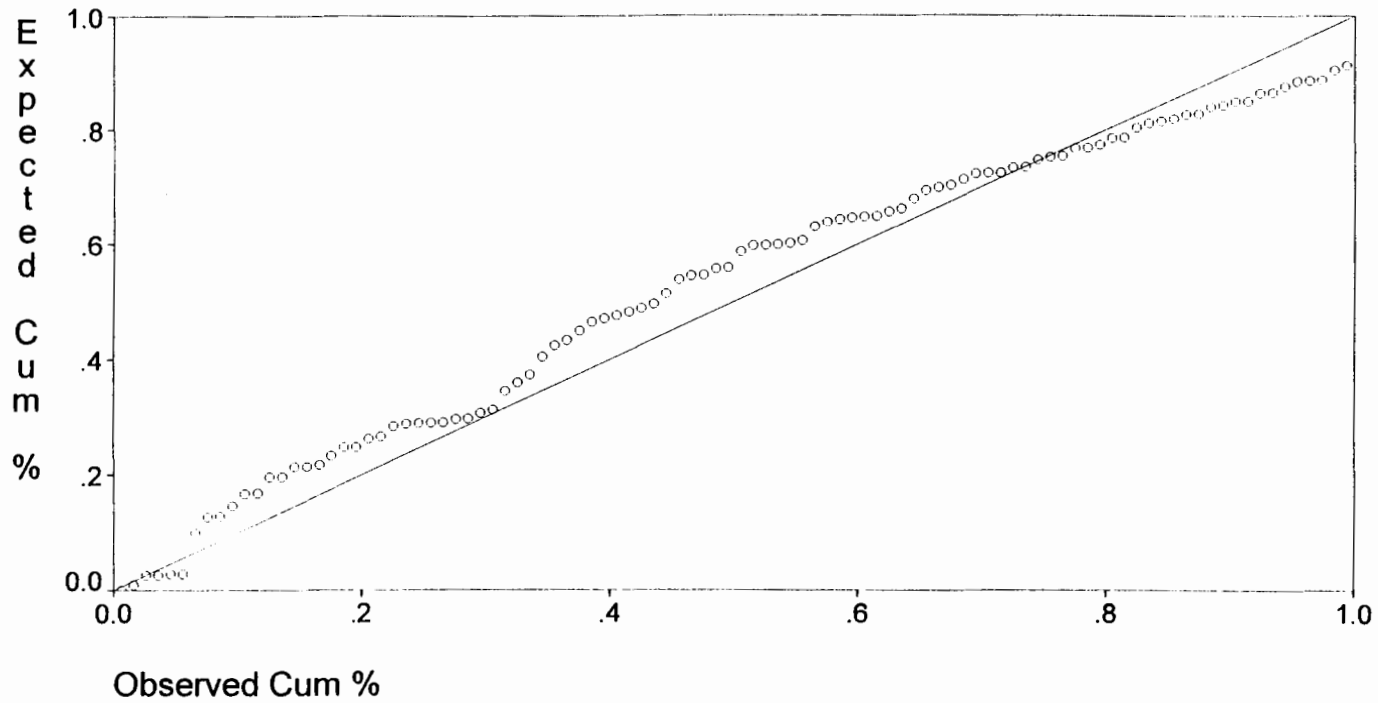
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER18
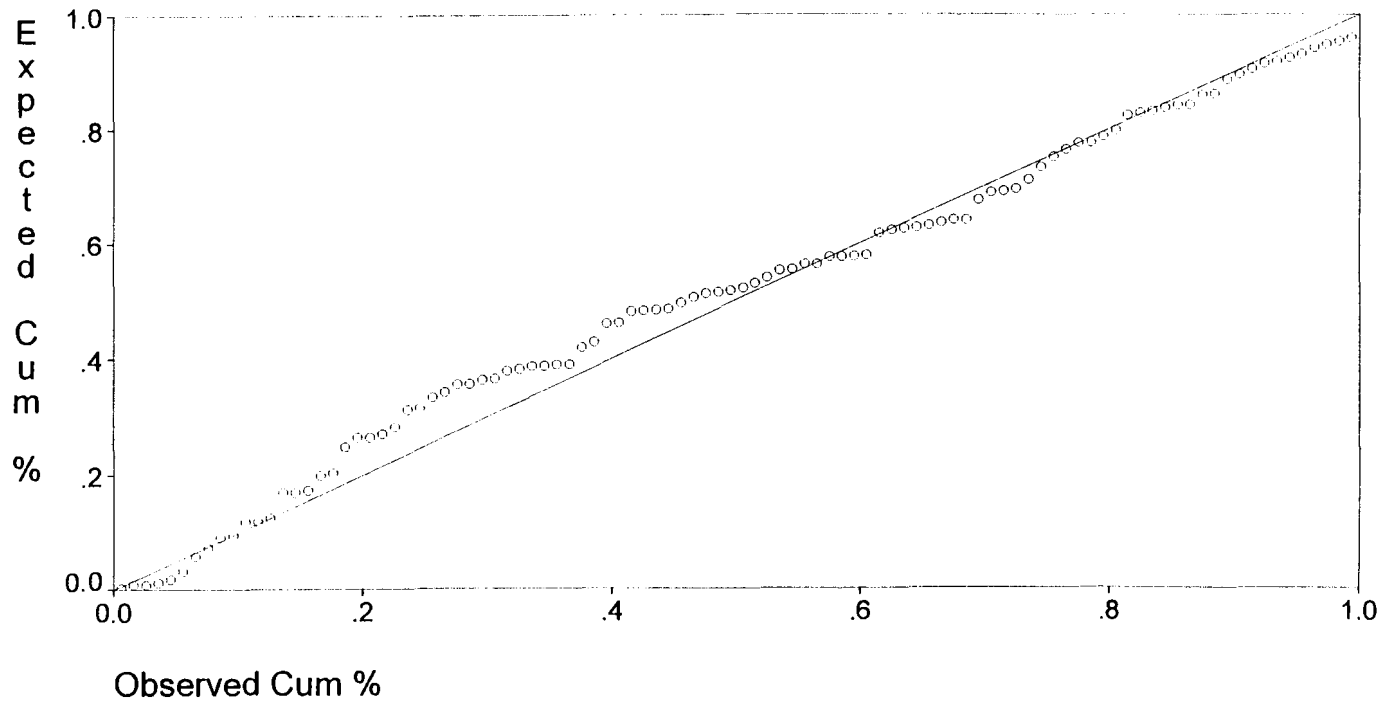
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER19
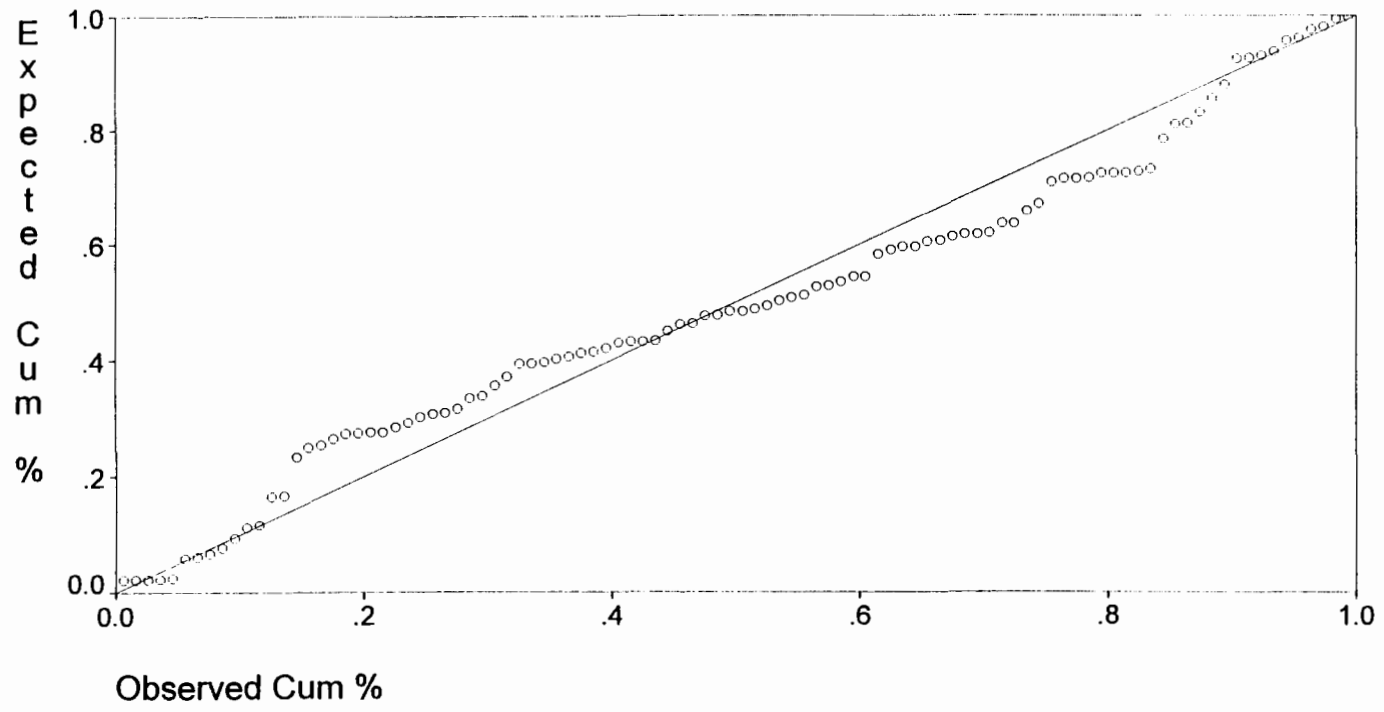
Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: PILPER20
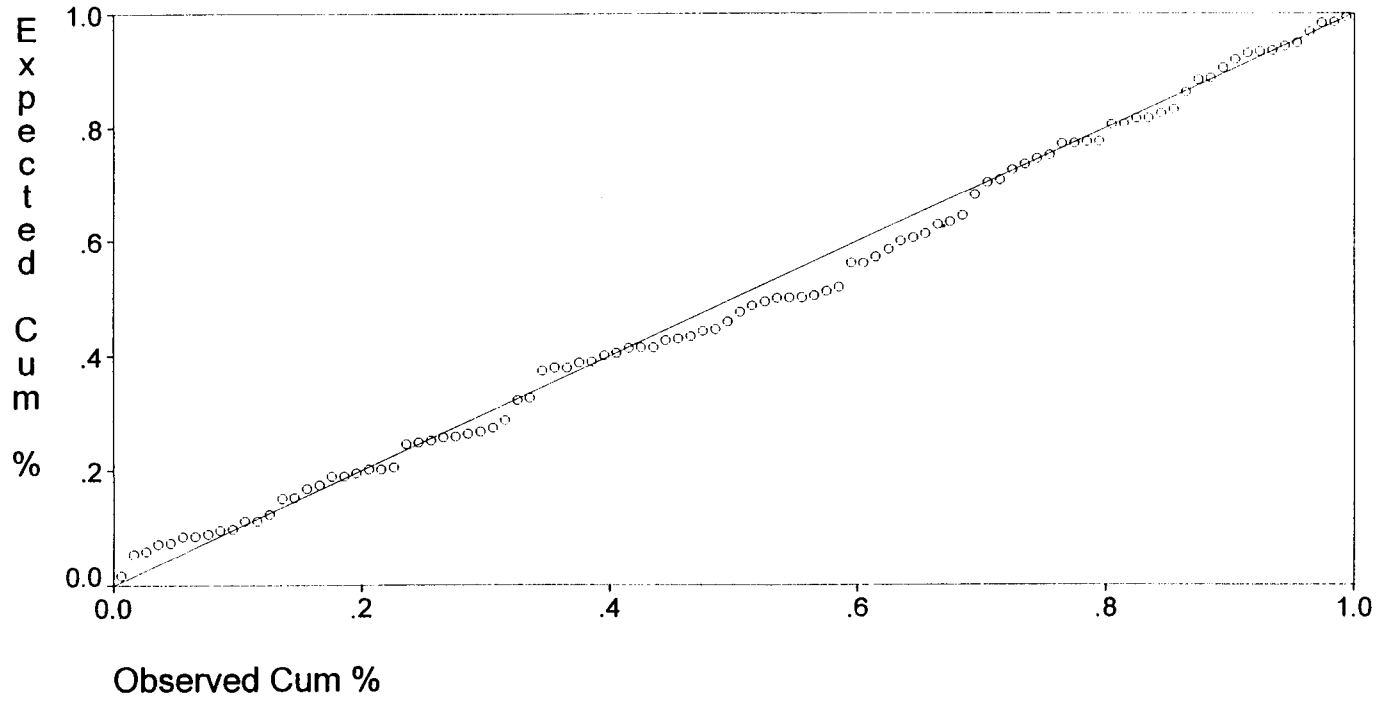
Appendix 8

.

Questionnaire for Participants in the Pilot Study

QUESTIONNAIRE

ON

MIGRATING TO AUSTRALIA

Questionnaire on Migrating to Australia

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. My name is Lynne Cohen and I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University. I am interested in finding out the reasons why you decided to move, and the reasons why you moved to Western Australia. Information will be used for my thesis and, hopefully, will be useful for developing programs which will help all migrants.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill out anything that you do not wish to.

You will find the instructions for completing the questionnaire below.
Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Instructions

There are four parts to this questionnaire (A,B,C & D). Each part contains a number of boxes. In each box is a statement which you may have considered in your decision to move to Australia. Below each statement is a scale.
In **Parts A and C** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

$$-5 \quad -4 \quad -3 \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad +1 \quad +2 \quad +3 \quad +4 \quad +5$$

- 5 means that the reason is least important
+5 means that the reason is most important
 0 represents neutral
You need to circle a number on the scale which best illustrates your response.

In **Parts B and D** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

$$0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

0 represents the lowest end of the scale
7 represents the highest end of the scale.
You need to circle a number on the scale which best shows your response.

Over the page you will see an example of each scale

Here are two Examples which are Not Related to Migration.

Example 1

When you decide to purchase a new house, there are many factors which you may consider, such as location. The location of the house may influence you strongly against the purchase of the house or it may influence you strongly for purchasing the house.

Location of the house										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	3	3	4	5

If this reason influences you strongly when purchasing a house, it would score 5. If it influenced you strongly against purchasing the house it would score -5. If this reason had no influence at all when purchasing the house, then it would score 0.
Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and how important the reason is to you in your decision.

Example 2

The doctor informs you that you need to have an operation. There are many factors which you may think about before having the operation, for example, the reputation of the hospital where you will have the operation.
At the time you were making your decision to have an operation, did you think:

The hospital had

Not a very good reputation							A very good reputation
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you thought that the hospital had a very good reputation, it would score 7. If it did not have a very good reputation it would score 0. If it had a fairly good reputation, then it might score 5.
Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and what you thought of the statement.

PART A

Below is a list of factors which you may have considered when deciding whether to move to Australia. I want you to circle a number on the scale (e.g., ③) which indicates how important each factor was to your decision making.
The scale ranges from -5, "Strongly Against" for factors that weighed strongly against the move to Australia to +5, "Strongly For" for factors that weighed strongly for the move to Australia.

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

The language spoken in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The politics of Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The life and education offered to children in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

Family or friends in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

A community from the United Kingdom in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The climate in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The employment opportunities in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The housing in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The open spaces such as beaches and parks										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The environment in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

If there are any other factors which you considered important in your decision to move which have not been included in the above list, please write them in the space provided below.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

PART B

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

At the time that you were making your decision to move to Australia, did you think:

Australia was:

Completely NonEnglish Speaking							Completely English Speaking
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia was:

Politically unstable and un-democratic							Politically stable and democratic
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad life and education for children							A very good life and education for children
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You had

No family or friends in Australia							Many family friends in Australia
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No community from the United Kingdom							A large community from the United Kingdom
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad climate							A very good climate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad employment opportunities							Very good employment opportunities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad housing							Very good housing
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities							Many open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A crowded and polluted environment							No crowded and polluted environment
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

End of Section B. Please now turn the page for Section C.

PART C

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

Knowing what you know now, if you were in a position to migrate to Australia again, how important would you consider the following:

The language spoken in Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The politics of Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The life and education offered to children in Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

Family or friends in Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

A community from the United Kingdom in Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The climate in Australia

Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The employment opportunities in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The housing in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The open spaces such as beaches and parks										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The environment in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

End of Section C. Please now turn the page for Section D.

PART D

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

Now that you are living in Australia, do you think:

Australia is:

Completely NonEnglish Speaking							Completely English Speaking
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia is

Politically unstable and un-democratic							Politically stable and democratic
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A very bad life and education for children							A very good life and education for children
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You have

No family or friends in Australia							Many family friends in Australia
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

No community from the United Kingdom							A large community from the United Kingdom
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A very bad climate							A very good climate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

Very bad employment opportunities							Very good employment opportunities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

Very bad housing							Very good housing
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

No open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities							Many open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A crowded and polluted environment							No crowded and polluted environment
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

End of Section D. Please now turn the page to complete the background information.

Please would you now complete the following background information

Please tick the correct box, for example ☑

1. Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. How old are you? _____

3. In which country were you born? _____

4. Are you:

    Married ☐

    Separated ☐

    Single ☐

    Defacto ☐

    Other ☐
    Please describe_____

5. How many children do you have? (please circle the correct number)
    0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7 or more

6. What work do you do? _____

7. How long have you been in Australia? [ ] Years [ ] Months

8. Do you intend staying in Australia permanently?   YES ☐   NO ☐

9. Have you previously migrated anywhere else other than Australia? YES ☐   NO ☐

10. Please circle the number that corresponds to how satisfied you are with your move to Australia.

    Not satisfied 0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Very satisfied

11. Please indicate with a tick in the correct box whether you received information about Australia from the following sources before you moved:

    Australian embassy   YES ☐
    Television   YES ☐
    Advertising   YES ☐
    Friends or relations   YES ☐
    Previous visit to Australia YES ☐
    Other   YES ☐
    Please describe_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

Please comment briefly on the questionnaire by answering the following questions:

1. Were any of the questions difficult to answer? If so, could you please explain why.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Please comment on the questionnaire in general. Your ideas will greatly assist with the final questionnaire.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Appendix 9

Letter for Participants in the Pilot Study

Information for Participants.

Dear Participant

I am currently doing a degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University looking at why migrants chose to migrate and come and live in Australia. Presently I am ready to pilot the questionnaire and I would be grateful if you would help by completing it on two separate occasions and then return them to me in the envelope provided.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill out anything that you do not wish to.

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Lynne Cohen

Appendix 10

Table of Utility Scores Prior and Post Migration for Participants in
the Pilot Study

Table
Utility Scores Prior and Post Migration for Participants in the Pilot Study

Participant	Prior Migration	Post Migration
1	.51	.57
2	.53	.55
3	.48	.43
4	.17	.12
5	.31	.41
6	.71	.65
7	.34	.56
8	.64	.77
9	.90	.90
10	.71	.80
11	.80	.64
12	.75	.83
13	.58	.66
14	.89	.90
15	.77	.80
16	.56	.57
17	.49	.67
18	.45	.49
19	.76	.66
20	.70	1.00
21	.1.00	1.00
22	.57	.70
23	.65	.79
24	.68	.85
25	.66	.67
26	.77	.59
27	.72	.60
28	.66	.65
29	.83	.83
30	.59	.50
31	.60	.67
32	.54	.61
33	.18	.29
34	.36	.34
35	.27	.40
36	.49	.33
37	.42	.23
38	.36	.48
39	.46	.39
40	.59	.38
41	.18	.23
42	.19	.10
43	.43	.47
44	.49	.03
45	-.05	-.19
46	-.13	-.13
47	.47	.50
48	.39	.33

Appendix 11

Modified Questionnaire for Migrants from the U.K.

QUESTIONNAIRE

ON

MIGRATING TO AUSTRALIA

Questionnaire on Migrating to Australia

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. My name is Lynne Cohen and I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University. I am interested in finding out the reasons why you decided to move, and the reasons why you moved to Western Australia. Information will be used for my thesis and, hopefully, will be useful for developing programs which will help all migrants.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill out anything that you do not wish to.

You will find the instructions for completing the questionnaire below.
Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Instructions

There are four parts to this questionnaire (A,B,C & D). Each part contains a number of boxes. In each box is a statement which you may have considered in your decision to move to Australia. Below each statement is a scale.
In **Parts A and C** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

$$-5 \quad -4 \quad -3 \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad +1 \quad +2 \quad +3 \quad +4 \quad +5$$

- 5 means that the reason is least important
+5 means that the reason is most important
 0 represents neutral
You need to circle a number on the scale which best illustrates your response.

In **Parts B and D** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

$$0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

0 represents the lowest end of the scale
7 represents the highest end of the scale.
You need to circle a number on the scale which best shows your response.

Over the page you will see an example of each scale.

Here are two Examples which are Not Related to Migration.

Example 1

When you decide to purchase a new house, there are many factors which you may consider, such as location. The location of the house may influence you strongly against the purchase of the house or it may influence you strongly for purchasing the house.

Location of the house										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	3	3	4	5

If this reason influences you strongly when purchasing a house, it would score 5. If it influenced you strongly against purchasing the house it would score -5. If this reason had no influence at all when purchasing the house, then it would score 0.

Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and how important the reason is to you in your decision.

Example 2

The doctor informs you that you need to have an operation. There are many factors which you may think about before having the operation, for example, the reputation of the hospital where you will have the operation.

At the time you were making your decision to have an operation, did you think:

The hospital had

Not a very good reputation							A very good reputation
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you thought that the hospital had a very good reputation, it would score 7. If it did not have a very good reputation it would score 0. If it had a fairly good reputation, then it might score 5.

Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and what you thought of the statement.

PART A

Below is a list of factors which you may have considered when deciding whether to move to Australia. I want you to circle a number on the scale (e.g., ③) which indicates how important each factor was to your decision making.
The scale ranges from -5, "Strongly Against" for factors that weighed strongly against the move to Australia to +5, "Strongly For" for factors that weighed strongly for the move to Australia.

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

The language spoken in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The politics of Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The life and education offered to children in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

Family or friends in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

A community from the United Kingdom in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The climate in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The employment opportunities in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The housing in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The open spaces such as beaches and parks										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The environment in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

If there are any other factors which you considered important in your decision to move which have not been included in the above list, please write them in the space provided below.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

PART B

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

At the time that you were making your decision to move to Australia, did you think:

Australia was:

Completely Non English Speaking							Completely English Speaking
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia was:

Politically unstable and un-democratic							Politically stable and democratic
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad life and education for children							A very good life and education for children
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You had

No family or friends in Australia							Many family or friends in Australia
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No community from the United Kingdom							A large community from the United Kingdom
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad climate							A very good climate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad employment opportunities							Very good employment opportunities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad housing							Very good housing
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities							Many open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A crowded and polluted environment							No crowded and polluted environment
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

End of Section B. Please now turn the page for Section C.

PART C

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

Knowing what you know now, if you were in a position to migrate to Australia again, how important would you consider the following:

The language spoken in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The politics of Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The life and education offered to children in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

Family or friends in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

A community from the United Kingdom in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The climate in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The employment opportunities in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The housing in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The open spaces such as beaches and parks										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The environment in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

End of Section C. Please now turn the page for Section D.

PART D

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

Now that you are living in Australia, do you think:

Australia is:

Completely Non English Speaking							Completely English Speaking
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia is

Politically unstable and un-democratic							Politically stable and democratic
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A very bad life and education for children							A very good life and education for children
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You have

No family or friends in Australia							Many family or friends in Australia
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

No community from the United Kingdom							A large community from the United Kingdom
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A very bad climate							A very good climate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

Very bad employment opportunities							Very good employment opportunities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

Very bad housing							Very good housing
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

No open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities							Many open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia has

A crowded and polluted environment							No crowded and polluted environment
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

End of Section D. Please now turn the page to complete the background information.

Please would you now complete the following background information

Please tick the correct box, for example ☑

1. Are you: Male ☐   Female ☐

2. How old are you? _____

3. In which country were you born? _____

4. Are you:

   Married   ☐

   Separated   ☐

   Single   ☐

   Defacto   ☐

   Other   ☐

   Please describe_____ -_____

5. How many children do you have? (please circle the correct number)
   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7 or more

6. What work do you do? _____

7. How long have you been in Australia?   ☐ Years ☐ Months

8. Do you intend staying in Australia permanently?   YES ☐   NO ☐

9. Have you previously migrated anywhere else other than Australia? YES ☐   NO ☐

10. Please circle the number that corresponds to how satisfied you are with your move to
    Australia.

    Not satisfied   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very satisfied

11. Please indicate with a tick in the correct box whether you received information about
    Australia from the following sources before you moved:

    Australian embassy   YES ☐

    Television   YES ☐

    Advertising   YES ☐

    Friends or relations   YES ☐

    Previous visit to Australia YES ☐

    Internet   YES ☐

    Other   YES ☐

    Please describe_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

.

Appendix 12

Letter to All Migrants in the Main Study

Hello

My name is Lynne Cohen. I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University looking at why migrants chose to migrate and come and live in Australia. I would be grateful if you would fill in the questionnaire which is attached to this letter and return it to me in the envelope provided.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill out anything that you do not wish to. Information will be used for my thesis and, hopefully, will be useful for future migrants, as well as developing programs which will help all migrants.

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Lynne Cohen

Appendix 13

Graph Showing the Ranking of Importance of the Factors for Migrants from the U.K.

Means

5

4.

confidence limits

3

2

1

0   0.5   1.0   1.5   2.0   2.5   3.0   3.5   4.0   4.5

Commuk

Politics

Presence of family or friends

Housing

Better life and education for children

Language

Employment opportunities

Climate

Environment

Open Spaces

Appendix 14

Table of Utility Scores Prior and Post Migration for U.K. Migrants in the Main Study

Table Appendix 14
Utility Scores Prior and Post Migration for Participants in the Main Study

Participant	Prior Migration	Post Migration
1	.95	.94
2	.93	.94
3	.77	.80
4	.70	.75
5	.75	.77
6	.80	.77
7	.91	.88
8	.62	.67
9	.66	.65
10	.65	.45
11	.75	.75
12	.97	.56
13	.59	.57
14	.74	.65
15	.67	.74
16	.63	.59
17	.68	.76
18	.67	.61
19	.57	.60
20	.69	.56
21	.64	.54
22	.70	.59
23	.97	.74
24	.63	.57
25	.69	.71
26	.57	.53
27	.74	.77
28	.74	.52
29	.87	.80
30	.90	1.00
31	.75	.74
32	.65	.66
33	1.00	1.00
34	.70	.81
35	.49	.61
36	.72	.57
37	.59	.57
38	.59	.65
39	.71	.64
40	.57	.49
41	.42	.71
42	.43	.41
43	.54	.60
44	.35	.44
45	.42	.71
46	.63	.68
47	.61	.67
48	.44	.52
49	.56	.42

50	.34	.27
51	.88	.83
52	.69	.79
53	.69	.79
54	.29	.04
55	.33	.33
56	.79	.80
57	.42	.86
58	.66	.63
59	.44	.49
60	.37	.26
61	.64	.63
62	.56	.59
63	.70	.69
64	.55	.56
65	.11	.19
66	.59	.56
67	.59	.57
68	.53	.52
69	.60	.61
70	.52	.47
71	-.16	.61
72	.57	.80
73	.73	.90
74	.27	.29
75	.77	.74
76	.38	.46
77	.55	.61
78	.51	.58
79	.29	.74
80	.80	1.00
81	.46	.45
82	.52	.68
83	.26	.57
84	.23	.42
85	.75	.69
86	-.29	.37
87	.49	.53
88	.60	.51
89	.87	.94
90	.77	.89
91	.77	.72
92	.46	.34
93	.51	.34
94	.49	.57
95	.54	.67
96	.50	.72
97	.46	.54
98	.56	.74
99	.43	.62
100	.13	.14
101	.93	.99
102	.19	.39
103	.31	-.13
104	.45	.58

105	-.17	.29
106	.34	.13
107	-.19	.42
108	.13	.46
109	.40	.29
110	.28	.36
111	.45	.41
112	-.04	.22
113	.31	.25
114	.63	.42
115	-.18	.22
116	.49	.65
117	.87	.89
118	.38	.71
119	.57	.83
120	.60	.56
121	.65	.64
122	.19	.26
123	.40	.47
124	.59	.36
125	.61	.57
126	.63	.66
127	.64	.60
128	.39	.50
129	.58	.63
130	.52	.91
131	.35	.37
132	.62	.67
133	.38	.32
134	.84	.58
135	.64	.58
136	.71	.58
137	.67	.56
138	.65	.54
139	.77	.55
140	.54	.61
141	.77	.60
142	.75	.58
143	-.11	.54
144	.64	.63
145	.64	.65
146	.89	.81
147	.32	.43
148	.55	.44
149	.50	.37
150	.15	.39
151	.11	.61
152	.70	.68
153	.39	.41
155	.20	.53
156	.48	.42
157	.07	.10
158	.43	.33
159	.43	.38
160	.41	.39

161	.23	.58
162	.37	.46
163	.63	.59
164	.49	.38
165	.91	.77
166	.49	.67
167	.41	.55
168	.40	.60
169	.61	.81
170	.85	.53
171	.13	.14
172	.26	.26
173	.57	.74
174	.61	.71
175	.47	.59
176	.59	.55
177	.35	.49
178	.54	.59
179	.77	.51
180	.55	.57
181	.54	.51
182	.50	.61
183	.80	.66
184	.67	.51
185	.12	.05
186	.71	.61
187	.17	.28
188	.61	.58
189	.72	.58
190	.63	.51
191	.66	.54
192	.64	.47
193	1.00	1.00
194	.74	.65
195	.69	.74
196	.66	.67
197	.63	.62
198	.95	.74
199	.63	.61
200	.71	.61
201	.92	.81
202	.80	.91
203	.59	.80
204	.75	.74
205	.68	.69
206	.75	.72
207	.51	.56
208	.54	.47
209	.55	.71
210	.69	.77
211	.72	.61
212	.72	.77
213	.74	.69
214	.65	.65
215	1.00	1.00

216	.65	.59
217	.76	.72
218	.82	.87
219	.79	1.00
220	1.00	1.00
221	.65	.87
222	.70	.66
223	.73	.68
224	.43	.62
225	.73	.68
226	.69	.50
227	.76	.70
228	.85	.92
229	.77	.82
230	1.00	1.00
231	1.00	1.00
232	.73	.89
233	.67	.80
234	1.00	1.00
235	.73	.90
236	.74	.74
237	.55	.73
238	1.00	1.00
239	.86	.84
240	1.00	1.00
241	.39	.42
242	1.00	1.00
243	.70	.69
244	.83	.66
245	.72	.78
246	.63	.64
247	.62	.49
248	.60	.60
249	.57	.55
250	.74	.69
251	.39	.52
252	.40	.50
253	.57	.61
254	.04	.55
255	.41	.37
256	.53	.66
257	.29	.45
258	1.00	1.00
259	.67	.52
260	.81	.76
261	.70	.84
262	.90	.90
263	.70	.73
264	.64	.70
265	.62	.80
266	.68	.88
267	.80	1.00
268	.74	.75
269	.80	.61
270	.56	.61

271	1.00	1.00
272	.67	.62
273	.80	.79
274	.78	.71
275	.80	.83
276	.71	.66
277	.70	.74
278	1.00	1.00
279	.70	.67
280	.59	.81
281	.81	.90
282	.76	.75
283	.65	.67
284	.71	.55
285	.68	1.00
286	.76	.81
287	.67	.53
288	.89	.67
289	.75	.76
290	1.00	1.00
291	.64	.75
292	.70	.75
293	.85	.80
294	.77	.76
295	1.00	1.00
296	.61	.72
298	.76	.71
299	.72	.72
300	.52	.52
301	.74	.83
302	.74	.69
303	.83	.76
304	.76	.69
305	.66	.82
306	.73	.74
307	1.00	1.00
308	.82	.70
309	.86	.81
310	.85	.83
311	.86	.82
312	.72	.81
313	1.00	.93
314	.71	.76
315	.97	.89
316	.79	.77
317	.71	.68
318	.74	.66
319	.74	.73
320	1.00	1.00
321	1.00	1.00
322	.77	.75
323	.76	.77
324	.77	.65
326	.83	.75
327	.60	.77

328	.81	.72
329	.64	.75
330	.74	.72
331	.79	.75
332	.84	.70
333	.61	.64
334	.79	.73
335	.92	.80
336	.97	1.00
337	1.00	1.00
338	.77	.77
339	.84	.81
340	1.00	1.00
341	1.00	1.00
342	.77	.70
343	.74	.72
344	.83	.54
345	.67	.53
346	1.00	1.00
347	.69	.59
348	.82	.81
349	.89	.88
350	.86	1.00
351	.71	.54
352	.77	.67
353	.87	.75
354	.97	.65
355	.62	.66
356	.60	.76
357	.50	.65
358	1.00	1.00
359	.59	.56
360	.79	.77
361	.61	.64
362	.70	.80
363	.76	.73
364	.70	.65
365	.78	.76
366	.79	.80
367	.80	.73
368	.77	.86
369	.90	.81
370	.70	.83
371	.33	.38
372	.69	.79
373	.29	.11
374	.53	.55
375	.42	.86
376	.51	.57
377	.17	.12
378	.31	.35
379	.66	.65
380	.34	.52
381	.53	.69
382	.66	.87

383	.68	.53
384	.68	.54
385	.70	.80
386	.46	.61
387	.80	.90
388	.76	.80
389	.56	.56
390	.39	.59
391	.39	.24
392	.71	.22
393	.70	1.00
394	.87	.36
395	.51	.70
396	.57	.77
397	.68	.85
398	.61	.67
399	.77	.59
400	.43	.24
401	.33	.32
402	.45	.43
403	.35	.24
404	.57	.64
405	.58	.65
406	.74	.73
407	.62	.75
408	.46	.32
409	.80	.66
410	.52	.53
411	.45	-.11
412	.32	.33
413	.25	.57
414	.18	.34
415	.57	.35
416	.66	.65
417	.18	.29
418	.00	.00
419	.45	.33
420	.61	.72
421	.41	.31
422	.61	.69
423	.60	.57
424	.63	.27
425	.42	.49
426	.67	.36
427	.28	.32
428	.31	.36
429	.63	.42
430	.29	.35
431	.17	.35
432	.38	.29
433	.35	.36
434	.25	.17
435	.47	.39
436	.31	.46
437	.37	.40

438	.47	.48
439	.45	.39
440	.50	.49
441	.44	.29
442	.55	.38
443	.33	.37
444	.47	.34
445	.43	.46
446	.54	.43

Appendix 15

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Residual Scatterplots

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: satisfaction with the move
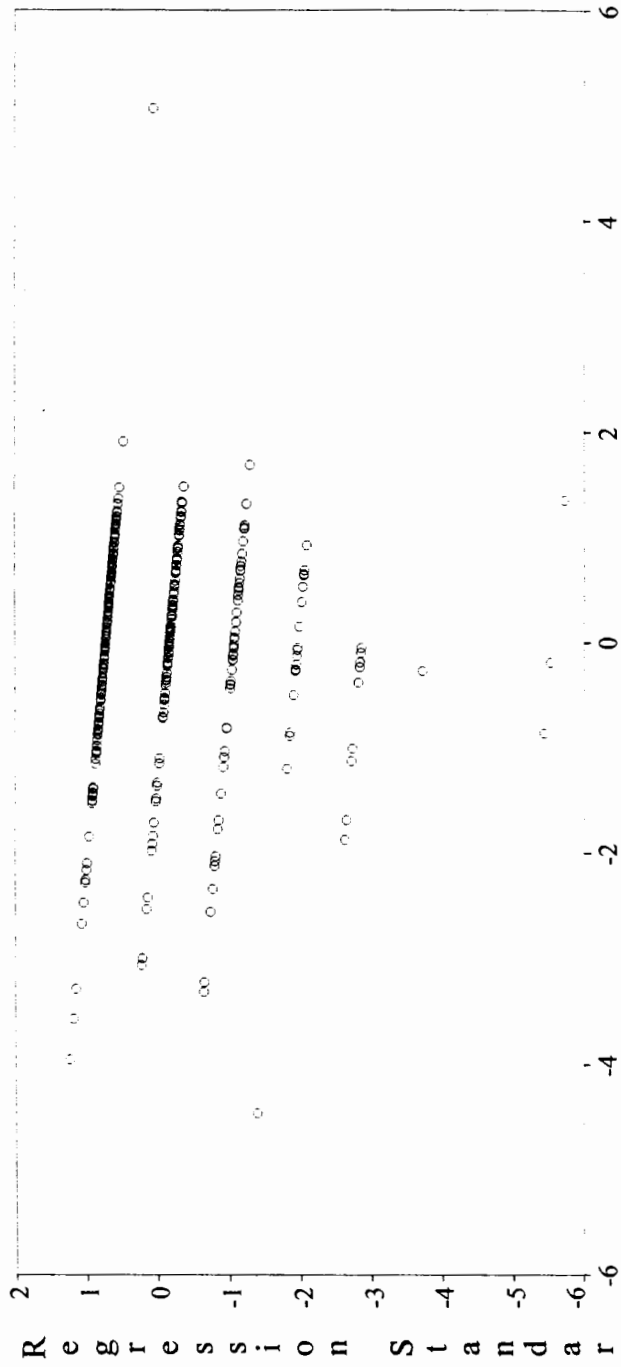
Regression Standardized Predicted Value

Appendix 16

Standardised Residuals

Normal Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: satisfaction with the move
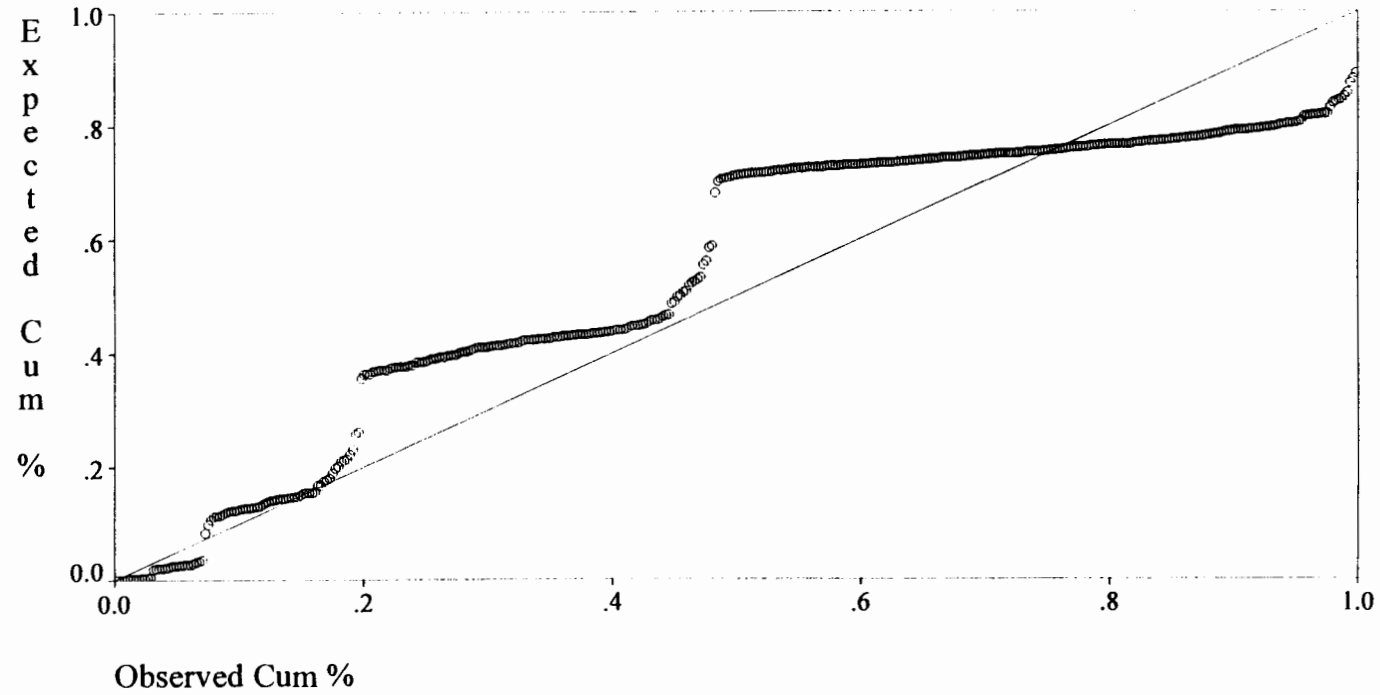
Appendix 17

Questionnaire for the Group of Potential Migrants who have Obtained their Visas but had not yet migrated

QUESTIONNAIRE

ON

MIGRATING TO AUSTRALIA

Questionnaire on Migrating to Australia

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. My name is Lynne Cohen and I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia. I am interested in finding out the reasons why you have decided to move from the United Kingdom and why you have chosen Australia. Information will be used for my thesis and, hopefully, will be useful for developing programs which will help all migrants.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill out anything that you do not wish to.

You will find the instructions for completing the questionnaire below.
Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Instructions

There are two parts to this questionnaire (A & B). Each part contains a number of boxes. In each box is a statement which you may have considered in your decision to move to Australia. Below each statement is a scale.
In **Part A** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

<div align="center">

-5   -4   -3   -2   -1   0   +1   +2   +3   +4   +5

</div>

- 5 means that the reason is least important
+5 means that the reason is most important
 0 represents neutral
You need to circle a number on the scale which best illustrates your response.

In **Parts B** of the questionnaire, the scale goes from:

<div align="center">

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

</div>

0 represents the lowest end of the scale
7 represents the highest end of the scale.
You need to circle a number on the scale which best shows your response.

Over the page you will see an example of each scale.

Here are two Examples which are Not Related to Migration.

Example 1

When you decide to purchase a new house, there are many factors which you may consider, such as location. The location of the house may influence you strongly against the purchase of the house or it may influence you strongly for purchasing the house.

Location of the house										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	3	3	4	5

If this reason influences you strongly when purchasing a house, it would score 5. If it influenced you strongly against purchasing the house it would score -5. If this reason had no influence at all when purchasing the house, then it would score 0.
Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and how important the reason is to you in your decision.

Example 2

The doctor informs you that you need to have an operation. There are many factors which you may think about before having the operation, for example, the reputation of the hospital where you will have the operation.
At the time you were making your decision to have an operation, did you think:

The hospital had

Not a very good reputation							A very good reputation
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you thought that the hospital had a very good reputation, it would score 7. If it did not have a very good reputation it would score 0. If it had a fairly good reputation, then it might score 5.
Remember there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your responses and what you thought of the statement.

Please complete Part A now.

PART A

Below is a list of factors which you may have considered when deciding whether to move to Australia. I want you to circle a number on the scale (e.g., ③) which indicates how important each factor was to your decision making.
The scale ranges from -5, "Strongly Against" for factors that weighed strongly against the move to Australia to +5, "Strongly For" for factors that weighed strongly for the move to Australia.

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

The language spoken in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The politics of Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The life and education offered to children in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

Family or friends in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

A community from the United Kingdom in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The climate in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The employment opportunities in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The housing in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The open spaces such as beaches and parks										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

The environment in Australia										
Strongly Against										Strongly For
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

If there are any other factors which you considered important in your decision to move which have not been included in the above list, please write them in the space provided below.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

End of Part A. Please complete Part B now.

PART B

Now would you please complete the following by circling the number that is the best answer for you.

At the time that you were making your decision to move to Australia, did you think:

Australia was:

Completely Non English Speaking							Completely English Speaking
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia was:

Politically unstable and un-democratic							Politically stable and democratic
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad life and education for children							A very good life and education for children
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You had

No family or friends in Australia							Many family or friends in Australia
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No community from the United Kingdom							A large community from the United Kingdom
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A very bad climate							A very good climate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad employment opportunities							Very good employment opportunities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

Very bad housing							Very good housing
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

No open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities							Many open spaces such as beaches and parks for recreational activities
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Australia had

A crowded and polluted environment							No crowded and polluted environment
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

End of Part B. Please complete the background information now.

Please would you now complete the following background information

Please tick the correct box, for example ☑

1. Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. How old are you? _____

3. In which country were you born? _____

4. Are you:

   Married ☐

   Separated ☐

   Single ☐

   Defacto ☐

   Other ☐
   Please describe_____

5. How many children do you have? (please circle the correct number)
   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7 or more

6. What work do you do? _____

7. Do you intend staying in Australia permanently?   YES ☐ NO ☐

8. Have you previously migrated anywhere else?   YES ☐ NO ☐

9. Please indicate with a tick in the correct box whether you received information about Australia from the following sources:

   Australian embassy   YES ☐

   Television   YES ☐

   Advertising   YES ☐

   Friends or relations   YES ☐

   Previous visit to Australia   YES ☐

   Internet   YES ☐

   Other   YES ☐
   Please describe_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

Appendix 18

Covering Letter for the Group of Potential Migrants who have Obtained their Visas but had not yet Migrated

Information for Participants.

Hello

My name is Lynne Cohen. I am currently doing a PhD degree in Psychology at
Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia, looking at why migrants chose
to migrate and come and live in Australia. I would be grateful if you would fill in
the questionnaire which is attached to this letter and return it to the embassy in
the envelope provided. All completed questionnaires will be forwarded to me in
Australia.

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any
time. You do not have to leave your name and address and you do not have to fill
out anything that you do not wish to. Information will be used for my thesis and,
hopefully, will be useful for future migrants, as well as developing programs
which will help all migrants.
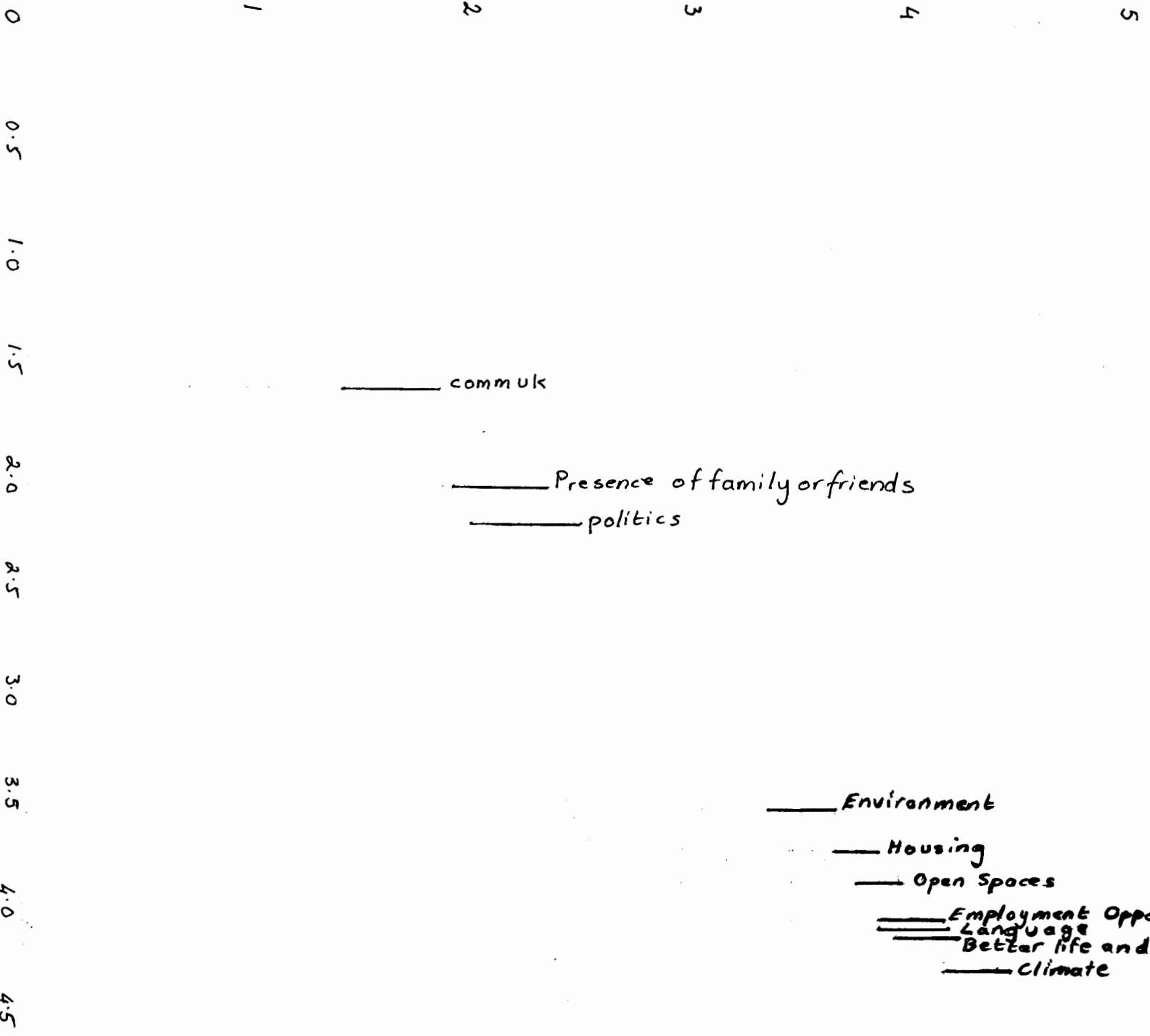

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Lynne Cohen

Appendix 19

**Graph Showing the Ranking of Importance of the Factors for the
Group of Potential Migrants who have Obtained their Visas but had
not yet Migrated**

Confidence Limits

Means

0   0.5   1.0   1.5   2.0   2.5   3.0   3.5   4.0   4.5

1   2   3   4   5

——————— commUK

——————— Presence of family or friends

——————— politics

————— Environment

——— Housing

——— Open Spaces

————— Employment Opportunities

———— Language

————— Better life and education for children

——— Climate