

## How different are the British in their willingness to move? Evidence from International Social Survey Data

Drinkwater, Stephen; Ingram, Peter

Postprint / Postprint

Zeitschriftenartikel / journal article

Zur Verfügung gestellt in Kooperation mit / provided in cooperation with:

[www.peerproject.eu](http://www.peerproject.eu)

### Empfohlene Zitierung / Suggested Citation:

Drinkwater, S., & Ingram, P. (2009). How different are the British in their willingness to move? Evidence from International Social Survey Data. *Regional Studies*, 43(2), 287-303. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00343400701827378>

### Nutzungsbedingungen:

Dieser Text wird unter dem "PEER Licence Agreement zur Verfügung" gestellt. Nähere Auskünfte zum PEER-Projekt finden Sie hier: <http://www.peerproject.eu> Gewährt wird ein nicht exklusives, nicht übertragbares, persönliches und beschränktes Recht auf Nutzung dieses Dokuments. Dieses Dokument ist ausschließlich für den persönlichen, nicht-kommerziellen Gebrauch bestimmt. Auf sämtlichen Kopien dieses Dokuments müssen alle Urheberrechtshinweise und sonstigen Hinweise auf gesetzlichen Schutz beibehalten werden. Sie dürfen dieses Dokument nicht in irgendeiner Weise abändern, noch dürfen Sie dieses Dokument für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, aufführen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Mit der Verwendung dieses Dokuments erkennen Sie die Nutzungsbedingungen an.

**gesis**  
Leibniz-Institut  
für Sozialwissenschaften

### Terms of use:

This document is made available under the "PEER Licence Agreement". For more information regarding the PEER-project see: <http://www.peerproject.eu> This document is solely intended for your personal, non-commercial use. All of the copies of this documents must retain all copyright information and other information regarding legal protection. You are not allowed to alter this document in any way, to copy it for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the document in public, to perform, distribute or otherwise use the document in public.

By using this particular document, you accept the above-stated conditions of use.

Mitglied der  
  
Leibniz-Gemeinschaft



**How Different are the British in their Willingness to Move?  
Evidence from International Social Survey Data**

Journal:	<i>Regional Studies</i>
Manuscript ID:	CRES-2006-0101.R2
Manuscript Type:	Main Section
JEL codes:	J61 - Geographic Labor Mobility Immigrant Workers < J6 - Mobility, Unemployment, and Vacancies < J - Labor and Demographic Economics, R23 - Regional Migration Regional Labor Markets Population < R2 - Household Analysis < R - Urban, Rural, and Regional Economics
Keywords:	Great Britain, Willingness to move, International differences, Microdata

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

# How Different are the British in their Willingness to Move? Evidence from International Social Survey Data

STEPHEN DRINKWATER\* and PETER INGRAM<sup>+</sup>

Corresponding author

\* Department of Economics, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, GU2 7XH, UK;

WELMERC, University of Wales Swansea, UK;

IZA, Bonn, Germany.

Email: [s.drinkwater@surrey.ac.uk](mailto:s.drinkwater@surrey.ac.uk)

<sup>+</sup> Department of Economics, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, GU2 7XH, UK.

Email: [p.ingram@surrey.ac.uk](mailto:p.ingram@surrey.ac.uk)

First submitted: May 06. Accepted: September 07

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The British Social Attitudes Survey and the International Social Survey Programme have been provided through the Data Archive at the University of Essex. We would like to thank seminar participants at the Universities of Leicester and Sussex, David Blackaby and Peter Scott and three anonymous referees for helpful comments. Errors are the responsibility of the authors.

## ABSTRACT

Our paper analyses people's willingness to move (WTM) using data from the 1995 British Social Attitudes Survey and International Social Survey Programme. We identify the personal characteristics and sub-regional indicators that are important in explaining the WTM within Britain. We also find that the WTM is only higher in a few other countries, including the United States. The equivalent desire to move is found to be much lower in Eastern European countries and in several other European Union member states. Compositional effects, such as age and education, are generally important in explaining differences in attitudes towards migration in comparison to other Western economies. However, structural effects such as institutions, history and culture tend to play a more dominant role in explaining differences compared to countries in Central and Eastern Europe.

JEL Classifications: J61, R23.

Keywords: Great Britain; willingness to move; international differences, microdata.

Les différences entre les britanniques dans leur  
consentement à la mobilité – Résultats d'une enquête  
sociale internationale

STEPHEN DRINKWATER et PETER INGRAM

## RESUME

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Nous analysons le consentement à la mobilité (WTM) des Britanniques en utilisant les données d'une enquête sur les comportements sociaux des Britanniques et d'une enquête sociale internationale de 1995. Nous identifions les caractéristiques personnelles et les indicateurs subrégionaux qui sont importants pour expliquer le consentement à la mobilité en Grande-Bretagne. Nous constatons également que le WTM n'est supérieur que dans un petit nombre de pays, notamment les États-Unis. Le désir équivalent de mobilité est beaucoup moins important dans les pays d'Europe orientale et dans plusieurs Etats membres de l'Union européenne. Les effets de la composition, comme l'âge et l'éducation, sont généralement importants pour expliquer les différences de comportement envers la migration, en comparaison avec d'autres économies occidentales. Toutefois, des effets de structure comme les institutions, l'histoire et la culture ont tendance à jouer un rôle plus important pour expliquer les différences comparées avec des pays d'Europe centrale et orientale.

Classifications JEL : J61, R23.

Mots-clés : Grande-Bretagne; consentement à la mobilité, différences internationales, microdonnées

## **Wie unterschiedlich fällt die Umzugsbereitschaft unter den Briten aus? Belege aus dem International Social Survey**

### **STEPHEN DRINKWATER and PETER INGRAM**

#### **ABSTRACT**

In unserem Beitrag analysieren wir die Umzugsbereitschaft anhand von Daten aus dem British Social Attitudes Survey und dem International Social Survey Programme von 1995. Wir identifizieren die persönlichen Merkmale und subregionalen Indikatoren, die zur Erläuterung der Umzugsbereitschaft innerhalb von Großbritannien von Bedeutung sind. Ebenso stellen wir fest, dass die

1  
2  
3 Umzugsbereitschaft nur in wenigen Ländern (darunter den USA) höher ausfällt. Die  
4 entsprechende Umzugsbereitschaft liegt in osteuropäischen Ländern sowie in  
5 mehreren anderen Mitgliedsstaaten der EU deutlich niedriger. Bei der Erklärung der  
6 unterschiedlichen Einstellungen zur Migration im Vergleich zu anderen westlichen  
7 Ökonomien spielen kompositionale Effekte wie Alter und Bildung in der Regel eine  
8 wichtige Rolle. Zur Erklärung der Unterschiede im Vergleich zu den Ländern in  
9 Mittel- und Osteuropa sind hingegen meist die strukturellen Effekte, wie z. B.  
10 Institutionen, Geschichte und Kultur, von größerer Bedeutung.  
11  
12

13 JEL Classifications: J61, R23.

14  
15  
16 Keywords:

17 Großbritannien

18 Umzugsbereitschaft

19 Internationale Unterschiede

20 Mikrodaten  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 ¿En qué medida son diferentes los británicos en la movilidad voluntaria? Ejemplos de datos de  
28 estudios sociales internacionales

29 STEPHEN DRINKWATER and PETER INGRAM  
30

31 ABSTRACT

32 Con datos recabados del Estudio británico de actitudes sociales y el Programa Internacional de  
33 Estudios Sociales de 1995, en este artículo analizamos la movilidad voluntaria de las personas.  
34 Identificamos las características personales y los indicadores subregionales que son importantes para  
35 explicar la movilidad voluntaria en el Reino Unido. También observamos que la movilidad voluntaria  
36 es sólo superior en unos pocos países, por ejemplo en los Estados Unidos. Vemos que el deseo  
37 equivalente de desplazarse es mucho menor en los países de Europa del este y en otros estados  
38 miembros de la Unión Europea. Los efectos de composición social, tales como la edad y la educación,  
39 son generalmente importantes a la hora de explicar las diferencias en actitudes hacia la emigración en  
40 comparación con otras economías occidentales. Sin embargo, los efectos estructurales, como son las  
41 instituciones, la historia y la cultura, tienden a desempeñar un papel más dominante al explicar las  
42 diferencias en comparación con otros países de Europa central y del este.  
43

44 Keywords:

45 Gran Bretaña

46 Movilidad voluntaria

47 Diferencias internacionales

48 Microdatos  
49  
50

51 JEL Classifications: J61, R23.  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

*“I grew up in the 1930s with an unemployed father. He did not riot. He got on his bike and looked for work, and he went on looking until he found it”.*

Norman Tebbit, Employment Secretary, Summer 1981

## INTRODUCTION

The quote by Norman Tebbit from 1981 was to become an employment narrative that stayed with him thereafter. This reflected one of the Thatcher government's views towards unemployment - people were not readily prepared to move to find work. The comment encapsulates some of the issues that we hope to examine in this paper, namely the factors that influence an individual's willingness to move (WTM) within Britain to improve their personal circumstances and also how the WTM compares with that of people from other countries. Although this is a very specific reference to the potential importance of internal migration as a mechanism through which the impact of economic shocks can be reduced, internal migration has also been identified as a key element of labour market flexibility (EICHENGREEN, 1993; PENCAVEL, 1994).

Despite the fact that unemployment in Britain is currently relatively low by recent historical standards, the ability to respond to economic shocks remains important, especially because the very nature of business cycles implies that economic conditions fluctuate and are likely to deteriorate in the future. In particular, at times of high unemployment, migration flows become important since the jobless (especially the low skilled) may be able to find work or receive better returns to their labour supply by moving to more prosperous areas. However the impact of any recession on migration may depend on variations in the spatial incidence of such economic downturns. In addition, there may also be a larger difference between the desire to

1  
2  
3 move and observed migration in an economic downturn. This is because migration  
4 rates typically decline in a recession, whereas the desire to move may increase but  
5 remain unfulfilled.  
6  
7  
8  
9

10 Although spatial unemployment differences have narrowed in recent decades,  
11 large income and wage differentials, as well as differences in employment rates due to  
12 differential rates of economic inactivity, currently exist across Britain and internal  
13 migration should help to reduce these disparities.<sup>1</sup> In particular, BORJAS (2001a)  
14 notes that migration and economic efficiency are closely linked in a competitive  
15 economy since the migration of workers from a low wage to a high wage region will  
16 bring about convergence in workers' value of marginal products in the two regions.  
17 BARRO and SALA-I-MARTIN (1991) and BLANCHARD and KATZ (1992)  
18 provide some empirical evidence that migration has reduced regional income and  
19 employment differentials in the United States (US). However, despite the relatively  
20 large internal migration flows in the US, BORJAS (2001b) argues that these  
21 movements are insufficient to ensure the rapid elimination of income differentials.  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37

38 It has also often been argued (e.g. PENCAVEL, 1994; EICHENGREEN,  
39 1993; HUGHES and MCCORMICK, 1987) that the level of internal migration in the  
40 Britain and other European countries is too low, especially when compared to the US.  
41 It follows that given the smaller volume of migration in Britain, then it will take far  
42 longer to remove regional differentials (PISSARIDES and MCMASTER, 1990).  
43 Moreover, labour mobility also varies across different types of individual, with those  
44 holding manual occupations being the least mobile, according to HUGHES and  
45 MCCORMICK (1987), despite this group experiencing the highest unemployment  
46 rates. In particular, they estimate that the rate of inter-state job-related migration  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 amongst US manuals was 18 times higher than the equivalent rate of inter-regional  
4 manual migration in Britain.  
5  
6

7  
8 Given the importance of migration to labour market flexibility and the  
9 performance of local and regional labour markets, it is important to be able to  
10 compare how internal migration rates differ across countries. However, there is  
11 relatively little evidence available on international differences in migration within  
12 countries. The OECD does periodically publish figures on internal migration rates by  
13 collating data from national statistical agencies (e.g. OECD, 1990; OECD, 2000) but  
14 there are several problems with using these data. These include that the rates have  
15 only been published for a relatively small number of countries (e.g. 11 in 1990 and 17  
16 in 2000). Comparisons of internal migration rates between countries are further  
17 complicated by the fact that rates are reported between areas of different sizes and  
18 significance by country since they normally relate to the administrative units that exist  
19 there.<sup>2</sup> Moreover, comparisons across different demographic groups are seldom  
20 presented and there is also variation in the information reported by country.<sup>3</sup> As a  
21 result of these problems, there have been relatively few studies which have attempted  
22 to examine differences in internal migration patterns between countries.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 There are however a few notable exceptions, some of which compare  
44 migration between several countries. These include VAN DIJK *et al.* (1989), who  
45 analyse migration in the Netherlands and the US, whilst BELL *et al.* (2002) examine  
46 differences in migration between Australia and the UK and LONG *et al.* (1988), who  
47 contrast the situation in the UK, US and Sweden. REES and KUPISZEWSKI (1999)  
48 undertake a more extensive exercise by documenting internal migration patterns in 10  
49 European countries using administrative and Census data. LONG (1991) also  
50 compares overall internal migration rates across a range of mainly developed  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 countries. Our paper takes a different approach by analysing differences in the WTM  
4  
5 between countries using a consistent set of questions from a cross-national dataset.  
6  
7 This dataset also has the advantage of containing information on some developing and  
8  
9 Central and Eastern European countries.  
10  
11

12  
13 The aims of this paper are therefore to identify the factors influencing an  
14  
15 individual's WTM within Britain and to compare the WTM of Britons with those of  
16  
17 individuals from other countries. We place particular emphasis on the extent to which  
18  
19 these differences can be explained by observable personal characteristics and how  
20  
21 much of the remaining difference is unexplained, potentially reflecting cultural or  
22  
23 institutional differences. For the British data, we are also able to examine the  
24  
25 influence of sub-regional labour and housing market conditions. The questions that  
26  
27 are analysed in our study also allow the attitudes of individuals towards moving over  
28  
29 different distances to be examined, thus enabling the effect of characteristics on  
30  
31 prospective moves of varying distances to be explored.  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

## 39 DATA

40  
41 The datasets used in this paper are the 1995 *British Social Attitudes Survey (BSAS)*  
42  
43 and the *International Social Survey Programme (ISSP)*. The *BSAS* is a representative  
44  
45 sample of adults aged 18 and over living in private households in Great Britain.<sup>4</sup> The  
46  
47 *BSAS* forms the British entry to the *ISSP*, which is a cross-national data set that  
48  
49 collects information on a particular issue each year. In 1995, respondents were asked  
50  
51 a series of questions associated with national identity and migration.<sup>5</sup> Since similar  
52  
53 data were obtained from 22 other countries (East and West Germany could still be  
54  
55 separately identified), it is therefore possible to use this dataset to compare the WTM  
56  
57 of Britons with those of individuals from other countries using a consistent set of  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 questions. Given that more detailed information is available in the *BSAS* compared to  
4 the information on British respondents in the *ISSP*, especially in terms of spatial  
5 identifiers, the *BSAS* is also used separately in the regression analysis. Inspection of  
6 the *BSAS* data also reveals that only around a third of respondents were asked the  
7 WTM questions.<sup>6</sup> Furthermore, since we are interested in labour migration, we  
8 constrain our data to include those individuals aged between 18 and 64 and this  
9 reduces the useable sample to less than 800 observations from Britain.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

19  
20 Table 1 provides an international comparison of the WTM within the  
21 respondent's own country using the *ISSP*. This information is collected for a number  
22 of different distances since respondents were asked how willing they would be to  
23 move away from their neighbourhood/village, town/city and county (or corresponding  
24 area in the country) if they could improve their living or working conditions.<sup>7</sup> The  
25 responses were given on a five-point scale, recoded so that a higher value indicates a  
26 greater WTM.  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

36 < Table 1 around here >  
37

38  
39 The first point to note from the table is that the WTM declines the further the  
40 prospective move is within each country, which is consistent with actual studies of  
41 migration that find that mobility decreases with distance. It is also noticeable that  
42 there is a high degree of consistency in the ranking of the countries' average WTM at  
43 the neighbourhood, town/city and county/equivalent area levels. This is despite the  
44 fact that the third internal level (i.e. county for Britain) is different within each  
45 country and will therefore relate to a different area in terms of size.<sup>8</sup> Even though it  
46 has been argued that the migration of Britons could be much greater, the statistics in  
47 Table 1 place Great Britain amongst those countries whose residents display a  
48 relatively high average WTM. More specifically, Britons are ranked sixth, fourth and  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 fifth in terms of their average WTM neighbourhood, town/city and county  
4 respectively. Respondents from the US had the highest WTM at each of these three  
5  
6  
7  
8 levels. This is in accordance with actual migration figures which indicate that the US  
9  
10 has the most flexible and integrated national labour market (PENCAVEL, 1994).  
11  
12 Canadians and the Dutch also display a relatively high WTM.<sup>9</sup> The lowest WTM is  
13  
14 observed in the former Soviet republics of Russia and Latvia. Respondents from other  
15  
16 East European countries such as Hungary, Slovenia, the Czech Republic and Bulgaria  
17  
18 also display a relatively low WTM within their own country. The WTM within some  
19  
20 European Union (EU) member states such as Austria and Ireland is also relatively  
21  
22 low.  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 Before analysing the factors that are expected to influence the WTM, it is  
28  
29 important to establish the link between migration attitudes and migration outcomes.  
30  
31 The most obvious way of doing this would be to compare actual migration rates and  
32  
33 expressed preferences regarding migration across countries, however this is difficult  
34  
35 given the heterogeneous nature of aggregate data on internal migration in different  
36  
37 countries. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify some consistencies between the  
38  
39 WTM figures reported in Table 1 and the internal migration statistics reported by the  
40  
41 OECD and other studies. Most notably, migration rates are highest in the US and  
42  
43 respondents from the US report themselves to be the most willing to move in the  
44  
45 *ISSP*. LONG *et al.* (1991) provide further confirmation of the high migration rate that  
46  
47 exists in the US by international standards. Those countries with high migration rates,  
48  
49 according to the OECD, also feature well up the WTM rankings, with Sweden,  
50  
51 Norway, New Zealand and the Netherlands all ranked in the top 10 in terms of their  
52  
53 respondents' WTM. The OECD reports low internal migration rates for Eastern  
54  
55 European countries such as the Czech Republic, who also have relatively low WTM  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 rankings in Table 1. The migration typology presented in REES and  
4  
5 KUPISZEWSKI (1999) is also consistent with the WTM rankings shown in Table 1  
6  
7 since they identify the UK, the Netherlands and Norway as high migration intensity  
8  
9 countries and Italy, Poland and the Czech Republic as low migration intensity  
10  
11 countries. They also note a very low internal migration rate in Estonia, which accords  
12  
13 with the low WTM seen in Latvia and Russia. In contrast, LONG (1991) notes that  
14  
15 migration rates are relatively high in the US, Canada and New Zealand and much  
16  
17 lower in Austria, Ireland and Japan, which is again consistent with the information  
18  
19 presented in Table 1.  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24

25 There is also strong evidence to suggest that individuals who have a more  
26  
27 favourable attitude towards migration are more likely to move. For example,  
28  
29 BOHEIM and TAYLOR (2002) examine longitudinal data from the British  
30  
31 Household Panel Survey and find that the actual propensity for moving was around  
32  
33 three times higher for respondents who had expressed a preference for moving as  
34  
35 compared to those who did not express such a preference in the previous wave.  
36  
37 GORDON and MOLHO (1995) also report evidence from a survey of actual and  
38  
39 potential British migrants in 1980 that at least 90 per cent of the potential migrants  
40  
41 moved within five years, of whom around a half moved within a year. Furthermore,  
42  
43 there is a substantial body of evidence to suggest that the impact of personal  
44  
45 characteristics is also consistent with actual studies of migration – see Section 4 for a  
46  
47 list of such studies. Thus we follow BURDA *et al.* (1998) who argue that intentions  
48  
49 should be viewed as a monotonic function of the underlying variables that drive the  
50  
51 motivation to migrate. The following section focuses on the influences on migration  
52  
53 decisions, which can then be used to inform on the variables to include in the  
54  
55 estimation of the WTM models.  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In terms of understanding the socio-economic factors that underlie the decision to migrate, perhaps the most important contribution has been provided by the human capital model, which was initially developed by SJAASTAD (1962). Therefore, in the discussion that follows, the human capital framework will be used to consider the impact of certain personal characteristics on migration.

The human capital model views mobility as an investment decision, in which costs are borne in the initial period(s) and returns accrue over time. In this model, the costs of migration can be explicitly incorporated into the potential migrant's decision making process as follows:

$$V_{AB}(t) = \int_{t_0}^T e^{-\rho t} (W_B(t) - W_A(t) - N_{AB}(t)) dt - C_{AB}(t_0), \quad (1)$$

where  $V_{AB}$  is the present value of the net benefit of moving from region A to region B, where B is the more prosperous region. The  $W$ 's are the expected income levels in the two regions and  $\rho$  the subjective rate of time preference or discount rate. The costs of migrating from the lower wage region A to higher wage region B are split into pecuniary costs ( $C_{AB}$ ) and non-pecuniary costs ( $N_{AB}$ ).  $C_{AB}$  consist of the direct costs of migration such as moving possessions to a new location, whilst  $N_{AB}$  are often referred to as the indirect or psychic costs of migration since they involve the costs associated with moving away from friends, family and familiar surroundings. Time (t) runs from the current period ( $t_0$ ) to the period that individuals stop working (T) - this could be retirement or a shorter period of residence. In this framework, the individual will migrate if  $V_{AB} > 0$  and if more than one possible destination offers a positive net benefit then they will choose the location that offers the highest net benefit. It is

1  
2  
3 assumed here that  $C_{AB}$  are only incurred in the initial period but  $N_{AB}$  can persist (but  
4 probably decay) over time. Evidence of the latter is provided by VANDERKAMP  
5  
6 (1971) who suggests that one of the main reasons for return migration is that psychic  
7  
8 costs are higher than initially expected.  
9  
10

11  
12 Given the nature of the questions that we use, which assume that opportunities  
13 are available elsewhere, we do not consider the existence of search costs within this  
14 context. Moreover, the wording used in the questions also implies that the financial  
15 costs aspect of a prospective move may also be of lesser important in this context.  
16  
17 Thus we primarily focus on the impact of psychic costs in the migration process.  
18  
19 GORDON and MOLHO (1995) build on the psychic costs argument and emphasize  
20 the duration dependence of staying in a particular location.  
21  
22

23  
24 The human capital model has been used to explain the selective nature of  
25 migration and to emphasize the importance of characteristics in the migration process,  
26 especially in relation to their impact on psychic costs. As a result, this implies that it is  
27 important to examine the effect of personal characteristics, especially as this will  
28 guide us as to which variables to include in the regression models. Firstly, migrants  
29 tend to be young since not only should they enjoy the greatest potential returns from a  
30 human capital investment, because they have a longer period over which they can  
31 accrue the benefits and pay back the pecuniary costs, but one might also expect  $N_{AB}$   
32 to be lower for young people since they are likely to have looser ties with their  
33 communities because more is invested in friends and family during the process of  
34 ageing (SCHWARTZ, 1973). Secondly, DE JONG *et al.* (1996) argue that there may  
35 be gender differences in intentions to move because of traditions such as men being  
36 motivated to move by employment and income considerations and women by a desire  
37 to create or reunite a family. Although they also note that changes in gender roles  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 within the household in developed countries over time are likely to have reduced  
4 such differences.  
5  
6

7  
8 Those with families are also expected to be less likely to migrate. This is  
9 because, in addition to the increased financial costs of a move, the psychic costs for  
10 individuals with families are also likely to be higher as its more likely that one of the  
11 family members will not adjust to life in the new location and because families may  
12 have established more ties in their current area of residence. Migration also tends to  
13 increase with the level of education that an individual has. In addition to the greater  
14 expected financial returns to migration for the more highly qualified, given that many  
15 well qualified individuals will have studied away from home e.g. at a school or  
16 university outside their locality then they may have already severed some of their ties  
17 - thereby reducing their psychic costs and making them more prepared to migrate.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31

32 As with financial costs, the psychic costs of a move should increase with  
33 distance. For example, long distance migration also tends to increase  $N_{AB}$  because  
34 migrants are further away from their friends and family. For example, GRANT and  
35 VANDERKAMP (1976) found that Canadian inter-regional migrants required  
36 additional income greatly in excess of the pecuniary marginal cost of migrating in  
37 order to induce them to migrate an additional mile. This also explains why individuals  
38 often engage in long distance commuting rather than bearing the full costs of  
39 migration. There is also evidence to suggest that the adverse effects of distance on  
40 migration are diminished for educated individuals (SCHWARTZ, 1973).  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52

53 Apart from these individual characteristics, the migration literature has also  
54 focused on the effect that the housing market and conditions prevailing in local labour  
55 markets may have on the migration decision. In terms of housing, OSWALD (1996)  
56 argues that compared to those living in private rented accommodation, migration is  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 lower for owner occupiers because of the higher financial and psychological costs of  
4 moving that they normally incur. HUGHES and MCCORMICK (1981) also suggest  
5 that council house (social) tenants are less likely to move longer distances (outside of  
6 their local authorities) because of the institutional arrangements that local authorities  
7 use to allocate housing. House prices may also be expected to have an impact on  
8 migration since individuals may be less inclined to move to areas where house prices  
9 are higher. However, THOMAS (1993) notes that this may not be the case for job-to-  
10 job movers, who may be more concerned with nominal wage differences rather than  
11 house prices. Moreover, the extent to which housing circumstances will affect an  
12 individual's WTM is unclear and it is a matter that we will go onto explore in our  
13 empirical analysis.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28

29 Local labour market conditions also influence the migration decision. For  
30 example, JACKMAN and SAVOURI (1992) develop a theoretical model to show that  
31 increased employment opportunities at the regional level boost net migration. In  
32 addition, PISSARIDES and MCMASTER (1990) discuss the importance of relative  
33 wages at the regional level as a determinant of migration. However, the availability of  
34 suitable jobs in particular areas is likely to vary according to skill level. In particular,  
35 people with certain skills may have to move further because employment  
36 opportunities may not be as common in their chosen fields as they are for unskilled  
37 workers. On the other hand, individuals with lower skills may face the prospect of  
38 moving longer distances because they may be confronted with less employment  
39 opportunities more generally compared to more skilled workers.  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54

55 In addition to these influences, migration can also be affected by a range of  
56 other factors. For example, VAN DIJK *et al.* (1989) examine the impact that  
57 institutions can have on migration. They note that the differing influence of labour  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 market institutions across countries has received little attention in the literature. They  
4 attempt to remedy this by examining the impact that the different institutional  
5 arrangements that exist in the US and the Netherlands have on migration efficiency. It  
6 is found that institutions do play a role in the efficiency of migration and also produce  
7 different responses to local or macro labour market conditions. Cultural differences  
8 could also explain variations in migration rates across countries. BORJAS (1999)  
9 argues that family considerations, tradition and language differences could explain the  
10 lower migration rates of individuals from certain countries. Apart from language  
11 differences, these cultural influences are also likely to affect internal migration rates  
12 between different countries. For example, GIULIANO (2006) finds that culture plays  
13 a major role in explaining differences between Western European countries in the  
14 proportion of young adults who live at home with their parents.  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

### ECONOMETRIC METHODOLOGY

34  
35  
36 Econometric models of an individual's movement intentions or their WTM have been  
37 estimated by several authors, including AHN *et al.* (1999) for Spain, BURDA *et al.*  
38 (1998) for Germany, FAINI *et al.* (1997) for Italy, YANG (2000) for China, DE  
39 JONG *et al.* (1996) for Thailand and HUGHES and MCCORMICK (1985) and  
40 GORDON and MOLHO (1995) for Great Britain. Most of these studies estimate  
41 dichotomous dependent variable (i.e. logit or probit) models but given the categorical  
42 and ordered nature of the WTM variable, these are not appropriate in the current  
43 context. Instead, an ordered probit model may be suitable but given that an  
44 individual's actual migration decision rather than their WTM is unobserved since they  
45 state their WTM on a five-point scale then we use Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)  
46 regressions.<sup>10</sup>  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 We estimate three different specifications, mainly because of differences in  
4 the data available in the *BSAS* and *ISSP*. In terms of the cross-country comparisons,  
5 the set of explanatory variables contains only a relatively small number of control  
6 variables. This is the case because of the need to use a consistent set of variables for  
7 all countries. Therefore the covariates mainly comprise of a standard set of personal  
8 characteristics, especially those identified in the previous section as potentially  
9 important influences on migration preferences and decisions. Thus the models include  
10 controls for gender, age, marital status, household size, employment status and  
11 education. The length of residence in the respondent's current town or city is also  
12 included because of the importance of this variable in previous empirical studies  
13 (GORDON and MOLHO, 1995; HUGHES and MCCORMICK; 1985; PICKLES *et*  
14 *al.*, 1982). Thus the first specification just includes basic personal characteristics.  
15 Means of the explanatory variables are reported in Table A1 in the Appendix.  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

34 Ideally, one might like to include a greater range of control variables. For  
35 example, authors such as MINCER (1978) have emphasized the importance of the  
36 household in the migration process. Unfortunately, the *ISSP* does not contain very  
37 detailed information at the household/family level, so it is only possible to control for  
38 marital status and household size on a consistent basis across countries. This  
39 relatively parsimonious specification does however reduce the problems associated  
40 with endogeneity and multicollinearity that may affect some of the explanatory  
41 variables.  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52

53 However, given that the *BSAS* contains a wider set of variables than are  
54 included in the *ISSP*, as well as containing detailed spatial identifiers, it is therefore  
55 possible to control for a wider set of factors using only the British data. In terms of  
56 personal and household characteristics, we can also include ethnic group and housing  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 tenure dummies, whilst to further control for housing market influences, we add  
4  
5 county level house prices in specification 2.<sup>11</sup> Similarly for the labour market factors,  
6  
7 we include variables indicating county-level differences in wages, the unemployment-  
8  
9 vacancy ratio and the economic activity rate.<sup>12</sup> Finally, we control for the influence of  
10  
11 other spatial factors in specification 3, namely the population density rate for the ward  
12  
13 that the individual lives in and their perception of crime in the local area, to examine  
14  
15 the sensitivity of the labour and housing market variables. Since aggregate variables  
16  
17 have been included, conventional standard errors may no longer be appropriate  
18  
19 because the residuals are not independent and the standard errors are likely to be  
20  
21 biased downwards (MOULTON, 1986). Therefore standard errors that correct for the  
22  
23 common component in the residuals are reported in specifications 2 and 3.  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28

29  
30 The econometric estimates report an individual's WTM to another location  
31  
32 within their own country at the two longer distances presented in Table 1 i.e.  
33  
34 prospective moves from the individual's own town/city and county/equivalent area.  
35  
36 This has been done because only longer distance moves are likely to have an impact  
37  
38 on labour market flexibility. Moves from the neighbourhood are more likely to be for  
39  
40 housing reasons or because of the desire to move from a specific area (BOHEIM and  
41  
42 TAYLOR, 2002). The use of estimates relating to the WTM town/city have the  
43  
44 advantage of being directly comparable across the countries in the dataset, whilst the  
45  
46 estimates for county or equivalent areas are more likely to be affected by the varying  
47  
48 sizes of geographical areas that the prospective move relates to, across the different  
49  
50 countries.  
51  
52  
53

54  
55 To summarize the differences between the countries, decomposition analysis  
56  
57 is undertaken to determine how much of the observed difference in the WTM between  
58  
59 Britain and the other countries in the *ISSP* can be explained by individual  
60

characteristics using specification 1 (excluding the regional and ethnic group dummies) and how much remains unexplained. The approach is based on the original framework developed by OAXACA (1973) and uses the OAXACA and RANSOM (1994) weighting matrix to overcome the index number problem. Specially, the difference in the average WTM between Britons and residents from other countries can then be decomposed as follows:

$$\bar{y}^{-GB} - \bar{y}^{-C} = [\hat{\beta}^* (\bar{x}^{-GB} - \bar{x}^{-C})] + [\bar{x}^{-GB} (\hat{\beta}^{GB} - \hat{\beta}^*) - \bar{x}^{-C} (\hat{\beta}^C - \hat{\beta}^*)] \quad (2)$$

where the GB superscript relates to Great Britain and the C subscript to the comparison country, therefore  $\bar{y}^{-GB}$  and  $\bar{y}^{-C}$  are the average levels of the WTM in Great Britain and the comparison country respectively and likewise  $\bar{x}^{-GB}$  and  $\bar{x}^{-C}$  are the average characteristics in each country.  $\hat{\beta}^*$  is obtained by taking a weighted average of the least squares estimates from the individual WTM equations. Therefore, the first term in square brackets in (2) refers to the part of the average WTM difference that can be explained by differences in observable characteristics between individuals in Great Britain and each comparison country. The second term in square brackets in (2) is the contribution of the differences due to coefficients.

Following O'LEARY *et al.* (2005), who analyse regional differences in labour market outcomes in the UK, the characteristic and coefficients components can be thought of as compositional and structural effects respectively. This is because differences in the WTM between individuals from different countries are partly due to differences in the make-up of each country's population (the compositional effect), whilst the remainder is accounted for by the extent to which otherwise identical individuals differ in their WTM (the structural effect). O'LEARY *et al.* (2005) argue that structural effects are made up of cultural factors that have a specific regional

1  
2  
3 dimension as well as demand side influences. Therefore, in this context, the  
4 structural component will capture country-specific influences, once differences  
5 between individuals have been netted out.  
6  
7  
8  
9

## 10 11 12 RESULTS

13  
14  
15 Table 2 reports estimates for the WTM within Britain based on the three  
16 specifications discussed above. As a consequence of the relatively small sample size,  
17 some of the estimated coefficients reported in Table 2 do not reach the commonly  
18 used levels of significance. However, many of the findings are consistent with the  
19 earlier theoretical discussions and there are also some interesting differences between  
20 the models. For example, it can be seen that as the distance of the potential move  
21 increases so the influence of personal characteristics appears to become more  
22 important. This can be seen from the better fit of the models, as measured by the R-  
23 squared statistics using Specification 1, as the distance of the prospective move  
24 increases. This suggests that the importance of personal characteristics increases for  
25 longer distance moves in Britain.  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

41 < Table 2 around here >

42  
43  
44 Considering firstly specification 1, which just includes personal  
45 characteristics, it can be seen that females are less willing to move after controlling  
46 for other influences. However the gender difference reaches only the margins of  
47 significance at the 10 per cent level (p-value of 0.147) for moving to a different  
48 town/city and but is significant at the 5 per cent level for moves to a different county.  
49  
50  
51 Younger people are more willing to move but the age dummies only have a  
52 significant effect in the WTM town/city model. In terms of marital status,  
53 widows/divorcees view migration a more attractive proposition than married people,  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 which for prospective moves at the town/city level is significant at the 10 per cent  
4 level. Household size and ethnic differences are not significant for either of the  
5  
6 distances.  
7  
8

9  
10 The qualifications dummies are not significant for prospective moves over the  
11 shorter distance. However, the impact of the qualification dummies increase  
12 substantially as the distance of the prospective move increases and the coefficients  
13 attached to the degree and A-levels dummies in the WTM county regression are  
14 positive and highly significant. This indicates that those with qualifications are far  
15 more prepared to move longer distances, which is consistent with empirical models of  
16 inter-regional migration (PISSARIDES and WADSWORTH, 1989; BOHEIM and  
17 TAYLOR, 2002). In accordance with the results of GORDON and MOLHO (1995), it  
18 is found that Scottish residents are least willing to move. Although the only  
19 significant regional effect in the WTM town/city model concerns the more favourable  
20 attitude towards migration displayed by individuals living in the North West  
21 compared to those living in Scotland. For the WTM county model, the WTM is  
22 significantly higher at the 10 per cent level in the North West and Greater London  
23 than in Scotland and at the 5 per cent level in the North. In each of these regions the  
24 unemployment rate was above the national average in 1995 and was highest of all in  
25 the North, at almost 11 per cent. However, to explore the impact of spatial economic  
26 conditions further we use the more detailed geographical information contained in the  
27 *BSAS* by replacing the regional dummies with several labour and housing market  
28 variables in specification 2.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53

54  
55 Despite the significance of some of the coefficients on the aggregate labour  
56 market variables, their inclusion does not tend to have much of an impact on the  
57 estimates or significance levels of the personal characteristics. As might be expected,  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 individuals living in counties with poorer job prospects, as measured by the  
4 unemployment-vacancy ratio, display a significantly higher WTM. This difference is  
5  
6 significant at the 10 per cent level in the WTM town/city model and at the 5 per cent  
7  
8 level in the WTM county model. Perhaps surprisingly, it is found that individuals  
9  
10 living in counties where average wages are higher are also more willing to move,  
11  
12 significantly so in both models. In contrast, individuals living in counties with higher  
13  
14 house prices display a significantly lower WTM. Although insignificant, the activity  
15  
16 rate in the county where the individual resides has a positive impact on their  
17  
18 willingness to move. This is consistent with the findings of DRINKWATER and  
19  
20 BLACKABY (2004), who report that migration rates are by far the lowest in areas  
21  
22 with the highest levels of economic inactivity, such as the South Wales Valleys.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28

29 Specification 2 also includes housing tenure dummies. In line with the  
30 findings of HUGHES and MCCORMICK (1985) and GORDON and MOLHO  
31  
32 (1995), it can be seen that individuals living in private rented accommodation view  
33  
34 migration more favourably than owner-occupiers. However, this difference is not  
35  
36 significant in either of the models, despite the large differences that are observed in  
37  
38 the raw data.<sup>13</sup> This implies that controlling for factors such as age and education  
39  
40 reduces the impact of this variable. In addition, it should be noted that some of the  
41  
42 other explanatory variables in the models are correlated with the housing tenure  
43  
44 dummies. This particularly relates to the variable that indicates the length of time an  
45  
46 individual has been in the town where they currently reside given that private renters  
47  
48 are likely to have moved more recently. As found by HUGHES and MCCORMICK  
49  
50 (1985), social housing tenants display a higher WTM over shorter distances but a  
51  
52 lower WTM over longer distances, but neither of these differences is significant in our  
53  
54 models.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Specification 3 adds other area characteristics to observe how sensitive the estimates reported in specification 2 are to the inclusion of population density and the individual's assessment of the level of crime in their area. The coefficient on population density is significant at the 5 per cent level in the WTM town/city model and at the 1 per cent level in the county model. Although the perception of crime dummies are correctly signed, they do not have a significant impact on an individual's attitude towards migration.<sup>14</sup> Furthermore, the inclusion of these variables has the effect of reducing the impact of average wages and house prices since they are no longer significant in the WTM county model and only the latter is significantly different from zero at the 10 per cent level in the WTM town/city model. This is because high income areas are often located in cities, which also have higher population densities and levels of crime. In contrast, the employment variables continue to exert an influence on the WTM county since the unemployment-vacancy ratio is significant at the 10 per cent level and activity rate becomes significant at the 5 per cent level.

Turning our attention to comparing the WTM in Britain with that in other countries, we firstly discuss the regression estimates which are presented separately for each country in Tables A2 and A3 in the Appendix since this will aid the interpretation of the decomposition results. These tables reveal that the estimates for each country display some consistent patterns, with 16-29 year olds, unmarried people, graduates and people with shorter periods of residence displaying the highest WTM in virtually every country in both the WTM town/city and county/equivalent area models.

However, the magnitude and significance of these coefficients does vary by country. For example, although in general more educated people display a far higher

1  
2  
3 WTM, this effect is less noticeable in many Central and Eastern Europe countries. In  
4  
5 particular, there is no significant difference between the WTM longer distances of  
6  
7 graduates and those with no qualifications in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia,  
8  
9 Poland, Russia and the Slovak Republic. In fact for Russia and Latvia, the coefficient  
10  
11 attached to each of the qualifications dummies is negative in comparison to those with  
12  
13 no qualifications and Russian graduates have a significantly lower WTM town/city. In  
14  
15 contrast, only in Ireland and Norway amongst the 'Western' countries is the  
16  
17 difference between the WTM county/equivalent area of graduates and individuals  
18  
19 with no qualifications insignificant.  
20  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 There are also some other noteworthy findings amongst the variables which  
26  
27 display less consistent patterns across countries. These include that the female dummy  
28  
29 tends not to be significant in most countries despite the fact that it is for Britain.  
30  
31 Canada is the only other country in which gender has a significant effect in both  
32  
33 models. The unemployed dummy also tends to be insignificant for most countries and  
34  
35 is also negative in some. However, there are some exceptions, with unemployed  
36  
37 respondents in Spain and Ireland reporting a significantly higher WTM in both  
38  
39 models.  
40  
41  
42

43  
44 Table 3 summarises the cross-country differences by reporting the results of  
45  
46 decomposing WTM differences between Britain and the 22 other countries into the  
47  
48 compositional and structural effects. It can be seen from the table that the  
49  
50 compositional effect accounts for a fairly high percentage of the differential between  
51  
52 Britain and those countries that display a higher WTM, although there are some  
53  
54 variations depending on which model is being examined. For example, just over a  
55  
56 third of the differential in the WTM town/city compared to the US can be explained  
57  
58 by individual characteristics but this rises to over two-thirds for the WTM  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 county/state differential. The difference in the results for the two models is most  
4 likely due to the improvement in the relative fit of the WTM county model for Britain  
5 in comparison to WTM town/city model and the equivalent models for the US and  
6 other countries, as shown in Tables A2 and A3. The overwhelming majority of the  
7 differential with the Netherlands can be attributed to compositional influences in both  
8 models, whilst characteristics are also important in explaining the differential with  
9 Canada, especially for the WTM county/province. Therefore, although structural  
10 factors account for some of the WTM differences, compositional factors are important  
11 in accounting for why British residents are more reluctant to move than individuals in  
12 these countries.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 < Table 3 around here >  
28

29  
30 Compositional factors are also important in explaining why Britons are more  
31 willing to move than individuals in some of those countries where the average WTM  
32 is lower. For example, the compositional effect explains more than a half of the  
33 differential with respect to some countries, including Austria, Ireland, Italy, Spain and  
34 Germany. Meanwhile, the WTM differential compared to many of the Central and  
35 Eastern European countries is mainly accounted for by structural factors. For  
36 example, less than a third of the differential with Hungary, Latvia and Russia can be  
37 explained in each of the models. Given the earlier discussion of the country specific  
38 results, it appears that differences in attitudes towards migration of the more educated  
39 between countries in the West and in Central and Eastern Europe seems relevant in  
40 this regard. By contrast, a possible institutional explanation is housing since  
41 GHATAK *et al.* (2004) argue that a shortage of suitable housing is an important  
42 factor in accounting for the low levels of internal migration in Eastern European  
43 countries such as Poland. Furthermore, ANDRIENKO and GURIEV (2004) suggest  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 that labour mobility may be lower in countries such as Russia because of historical  
4 factors including the restrictions on mobility imposed by past Communist  
5 governments.  
6  
7  
8  
9

## 10 11 12 13 CONCLUDING COMMENTS

14  
15 Internal migration remains integral to labour market flexibility, especially as an  
16 adjustment mechanism during economic downturns. However, despite the potentially  
17 beneficial effects of migration, it is generally thought that migration rates are too low  
18 in Britain, especially in comparison to countries such as the US. This paper has also  
19 shown that, consistent with this fact, the willingness to move (WTM) in Britain is  
20 lower than it is in some countries, including the US. However, it has also been found  
21 that the WTM is higher in Britain than it is in many other countries, including several  
22 EU member states and particularly in comparison to countries in Central and Eastern  
23 Europe. Our findings also suggest that there is some evidence that local labour market  
24 conditions have an impact on an individual's WTM. In particular, those living in areas  
25 with poorer job prospects have a higher WTM, although those living in high wage  
26 areas display a higher WTM. However, given that other local level variables also  
27 influence attitudes towards migration and the fact that these variables are correlated,  
28 this affects the precision of the estimates of the sub-regional variables.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47

48 This paper has also shown that although the WTM is not generally low  
49 compared to people from most other countries, it is low amongst some sections of the  
50 British population. For example, one of the main findings is that educated people are  
51 far more willing to move longer distances, whereas there is less variation between  
52 qualification levels over shorter distances. A likely explanation for this finding is that  
53 graduates face lower psychic costs as they have been to university and hence have  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 already cut some of their ties with their local communities. Thus there may be a  
4  
5 positive spillover from the UK government's aim to get 50 per cent of young people  
6  
7 through higher and further education by 2010 since this should be conducive to  
8  
9 improving labour mobility. Government initiatives more generally to increase  
10  
11 educational attainment should also assist migration since it should reduce the reliance  
12  
13 on the local area to find work. Our findings also provide some support to the housing  
14  
15 market reforms recommended by OSWALD (1996) and HENLEY (1998) because of  
16  
17 the higher WTM displayed by private renters. However, it is found that some of the  
18  
19 effect of housing tenure is due to other variables which are correlated with housing  
20  
21 tenure decisions.  
22  
23  
24  
25

26  
27 Characteristics, as measured by the compositional effect, explain a relatively  
28  
29 large amount of the differences in the attitudes towards migration in comparison to  
30  
31 individuals living in other countries. This particularly applies to the WTM over longer  
32  
33 distances, where the characteristics component dominates for 12 out of the 22  
34  
35 pairwise comparisons, and especially relative to Western economies. In contrast,  
36  
37 institutional, historical and cultural factors appear to be more important for many  
38  
39 countries in Central and Eastern Europe. The difference in the impact of education on  
40  
41 the WTM between Western countries and those in Central and Eastern Europe shown  
42  
43 in the country specific regressions is particularly noticeable.  
44  
45  
46  
47

48  
49 One final policy issue related to these findings concerns immigration. In  
50  
51 particular, if migration to take advantage of the better employment prospects in  
52  
53 another part of the country is not viewed as an attractive proposition then immigration  
54  
55 may be able to play a role in improving labour market efficiency. There is evidence in  
56  
57 support of this argument from the US since BORJAS (2001b) finds that there is a  
58  
59 disproportional movement of immigrants to high-wage areas and this movement  
60

1  
2  
3 speeds up the process of regional wage convergence. This effect is accentuated by  
4  
5 the ageing population in Britain, especially given the fact that older workers display a  
6  
7 much lower WTM. Furthermore, BLANCHFLOWER *et al.* (2007) argue that the  
8  
9 large influx of Eastern European migrants to the UK since EU enlargement has  
10  
11 reduced inflationary pressures by filling labour shortages in some areas and exerting  
12  
13 downward pressure on wages.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

---

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup> There are also regional differences in employment rates, which have mainly been caused by relatively high levels of economic inactivity, especially long-term sickness, in some peripheral regions (FOTHERGILL, 2001).

<sup>2</sup> See LONG *et al.* (1988) and LONG (1991) for a more detailed discussion of this issue.

<sup>3</sup> For example, OECD (1990) reports that migration rates in the UK in the 1970s and 1980s were generally of the order of 1 per cent. These statistics were generated using data from the Labour Force Survey. In contrast, it is reported in OECD (2000) that the migration rate for the UK in 1998 was 2.3 per cent. This is because a different data set, the National Health Service Central Register, is used to obtain this statistic.

<sup>4</sup> The achieved sample size in 1995 was 3633, although females were slightly over-represented. The higher proportion of females has been a feature of each *BSAS* since its introduction in 1983. A separate survey is carried out in Northern Ireland but is not analysed in the present study. Areas north of the Caledonian canal are also excluded because of their dispersed population. For further details of the sample design, see LILLEY *et al.* (1997).

<sup>5</sup> The 2003 *ISSP* also focused on national identity. Unfortunately, however, the questionnaire did not contain any questions on an individual's WTM, so it is not possible to use the 2003 survey in this way or to compare it with the 1995 survey. For a list of countries included in the *ISSP* see <http://www.issp.org/members.shtml>. However in any given year, some of the member countries may not participate in the survey. For example, Australia, Israel and Northern Ireland did not participate in the 1995 survey.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

---

<sup>6</sup> Each individual who was identified to take part in the survey was allocated to the A, B or C third of the sample. Only those individuals allocated to the A version of the questionnaire were required to answer the questions on national identity and migration (LILLEY *et al.*, 1997).

<sup>7</sup> The precise wording of the questions from which this information is derived can be found in the Appendix. Questions were also asked on the WTM from Britain and Europe but these questions are not analysed here. Examples of the corresponding areas to counties in some other countries are also given in the Appendix.

<sup>8</sup> Interestingly, these rankings do change if the WTM country variable is analysed. For example, Americans are ranked 14<sup>th</sup> in terms of the WTM to another country. For a detailed examination of international differences in the willingness to emigrate, see DRINKWATER (2003). Unfortunately, no question on the WTM region is asked in Britain.

<sup>9</sup> Canadians have the 2<sup>nd</sup> highest WTM from their neighbourhood and town/city but their lower ranking in terms of their WTM further afield could be due to the fact that the next level specified in the Canadian questionnaire is province (13 in total). Therefore, given that Canada is such a vast country, especially compared to Great Britain, where the next level specified is county (64 in total), it is not surprising that the relative ranking of Canada falls.

<sup>10</sup> We are grateful to a referee for making this point. OLS estimates are also easier to interpret given that marginal effects from an ordered probit model need to be calculated for each outcome of the dependent variable. The ordered probit estimates are in fact very similar both in terms of the magnitude and significance of the individual variables. These estimates are available from the authors on request.



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

---

<sup>11</sup> The ethnic group dummy is included in specification 1, whilst the housing tenure dummies appear in specification 2 along with house prices. House prices relate to the average house price in each county, and are reported in pounds. This information has been obtained from the Halifax House Price Index.

<sup>12</sup> Earnings data relate to the gross average weekly earnings of full-time employees and have been taken from the New Earnings Survey. We use the unemployment-vacancy ratio as our measure of local job prospects because counties are not considered as self-contained labour markets and also because of the importance of vacancies in determining aggregate migration (JACKMAN and SAVOURI, 1992). Unemployment is measured by the claimant count and vacancies by the number of unfilled vacancies in the county. The economic activity rate relates to just the working age population and has been obtained from the Labour Force Survey.

<sup>13</sup> The raw difference between the mean WTM for private renters compared to owner occupiers is 0.435 for the WTM town/city and 0.528 for the WTM county, both of which are significantly different from zero at the 1 per cent level. Thus controlling for the other explanatory variables almost halves the difference in the WTM town/city regression and more than halves it in the WTM county regression. The p-value attached to the private renting dummy is 0.178 in the WTM town/city model and 0.228 in the WTM county model.

<sup>14</sup> There is some correlation between the variables included in Specification 3 because some of the crime dummies become significant if the population density variable is excluded.

## REFERENCES

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6 AHN N., DE LA RICA S. and UGIDOS A. (1999) Willingness to move for work and  
7  
8 unemployment duration in Spain, *Economica* **66**, 335-57.  
9  
10  
11 ANDRIENKO Y. and GURIEV S. (2004) Determinants of interregional mobility in  
12  
13 Russia, *Economics of Transition* **12**, 1-27.  
14  
15  
16 BARRO R. and SALA-I-MARTIN X. (1991) Convergence across states and regions,  
17  
18 *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, No. 1, 107-82.  
19  
20  
21 BELL M., BLAKE M., BOYLE P., DUKE-WILLIAMS O., REES P., STILLWELL  
22  
23 J. and HUGO G. (2002) Cross-national comparisons of internal migration:  
24  
25 Issues and measures, *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series A* **165**,  
26  
27 435-64.  
28  
29  
30 BLANCHARD O. J. and KATZ L. F. (1992) Regional evolutions, *Brookings Papers*  
31  
32 *on Economic Activity*, No. 1, 1-75.  
33  
34  
35 BLANCHFLOWER D. G., SALAHEEN J. and SHADFORTH C. (2007) The impact  
36  
37 of the recent migration from Eastern Europe on the UK economy, IZA  
38  
39 Discussion Paper No. 2615.  
40  
41  
42 BOHEIM R. and TAYLOR M. (2002) Tied down or room to move? Investigating the  
43  
44 relationships between housing tenure, employment status and residential  
45  
46 mobility in Britain, *Scottish Journal of Political Economy* **49**, 369-92.  
47  
48  
49 BORJAS G. J. (1999) Economic research on the determinants of immigration:  
50  
51 Lessons for the European Union, World Bank Technical Paper No. 438.  
52  
53  
54 BORJAS G. J. (2001a) Economics of migration, in SMESLSER N. J and. BALTES  
55  
56 B. (Eds) *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences*,  
57  
58 Elsevier, Amsterdam.  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 BORJAS G. J. (2001b) Does immigration grease the wheels of the labor market?,  
4  
5 *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, No. 1, 69-133.  
6  
7  
8 BURDA M. C., HARDLE W., MULLER M. and WERWATZ A. (1998)  
9  
10 Semiparametric analysis of German East-West migration intentions: Facts and  
11  
12 theory, *Journal of Applied Econometrics* **13**, 525-41.  
13  
14  
15 DE JONG G. F., RICHTER K. and ISARABHAKDI P. (1996) Gender, values and  
16  
17 intentions to move in rural Thailand, *International Migration Review* **30**, 748-  
18  
19 70.  
20  
21  
22 DRINKWATER S. (2003) Go West? Assessing the Willingness to Move from  
23  
24 Central and Eastern European Countries, FLOWENLA Working Paper No. 5,  
25  
26 HWWA, Hamburg.  
27  
28  
29 DRINKWATER S. and BLACKABY D. (2004) Migration and labour market  
30  
31 differences: The case of Wales, IZA Discussion Paper No. 1275.  
32  
33  
34 EICHENGREEN B. (1993) European monetary integration and regional  
35  
36 unemployment, in ULMAN L., EICHENGREEN B. and DICKENS W. T.  
37  
38 (Eds), *Labor and an Integrated Europe*, The Brookings Institution,  
39  
40 Washington DC.  
41  
42  
43 FAINI R., GALLI G., GENNARI P. and ROSSI F. (1997) An empirical puzzle:  
44  
45 Falling migration and growing unemployment differentials among Italian  
46  
47 regions, *European Economic Review* **41**, 571-9.  
48  
49  
50 FOTHERGILL S. (2001) The true scale of the regional problem in the UK, *Regional*  
51  
52 *Studies*, **63** 241-6.  
53  
54  
55 GRANT K. E. and VANDERKAMP J. (1976) *The Economic Causes and Effects of*  
56  
57 *Migration 1961-71*, Economic Council of Canada, Ottawa.  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 GHATAK S., MULHEARN A. and WATSON J. (2004) The dynamics of inter-  
4 regional migration in Poland, Department of Economics, Kingston University,  
5 Discussion Paper No. 2004/4.  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10 GORDON I. R. and MOLHO, I. (1995) Duration dependence in migration behaviour:  
11 Cumulative inertia versus stochastic change, *Environment and Planning A* **27**,  
12 1961-75.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17 GIULIANO P. (2006) Living arrangements in Western Europe: Does cultural origin  
18 matter?, IZA Discussion Paper No. 2042.  
19  
20  
21  
22 HENLEY A. (1998) Residential mobility, housing equity and the labour market,  
23 *Economic Journal* **108**, 414-27.  
24  
25  
26  
27 HUGHES G. A. and MCCORMICK B. (1981) Do council housing policies reduce  
28 migration between regions?, *Economic Journal* **91**, 919-37.  
29  
30  
31  
32 HUGHES G. A. and MCCORMICK B. (1985) Migration intentions in the UK: Which  
33 households want to migrate and which succeed?, *Economic Journal* **95**, 113-  
34 23.  
35  
36  
37  
38 HUGHES G. A. and MCCORMICK B. (1987) Housing markets, unemployment and  
39 labour market flexibility in the UK, *European Economic Review* **30**, 615-45.  
40  
41  
42  
43 JACKMAN R. and SAVOURI S. (1992) Regional migration in Britain: An analysis  
44 of gross flows using NHS Central Register data, *Economic Journal* **102**, 1433-  
45 50.  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50 LILLEY S. J., BROOK L., PARK A. and THOMSON K. (1997) *British Social*  
51 *Attitudes 1995 Survey: Technical Report*, Social and Community Planning  
52 Research, London.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57 LONG L., TUCKER C. J. and URTON W. L. (1988) Migration distances: An  
58 international comparison, *Demography* **25**, 633-40.  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 LONG L. (1991) Residential mobility differences among developed countries,  
4  
5  
6 *International Regional Science Review* **14**, 133-47.  
7  
8 MINCER J. (1978) Family migration decisions, *Journal of Political Economy* **86**,  
9  
10 749-73.  
11  
12 MOULTON B. R. (1986) Random group effects and the precision of regression  
13  
14 estimates, *Journal of Econometrics* **32**, 385-97.  
15  
16 OAXACA R. (1973) Male-female wage differentials in urban labor markets,  
17  
18 *International Economic Review* **14**, 693-709.  
19  
20 OAXACA R. and RANSOM M. (1994) On discrimination and the decomposition of  
21  
22 wage differentials, *Journal of Econometrics* **61**, 5-21.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27 OECD (1990) Supply and demand in regional labour markets: Population growth,  
28  
29 migration, participation, and earnings differential, in *OECD Employment*  
30  
31 *Outlook 1990*, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development,  
32  
33 Paris.  
34  
35  
36  
37 OECD (2000) Disparities in regional labour markets in *OECD Employment Outlook*  
38  
39 *2000*, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris.  
40  
41 O'LEARY N., MURPHY P. D., LATREILLE P., BLACKABY D. H. and SLOANE  
42  
43 P. J. (2005) Accounting for differences in labour market outcomes in Great  
44  
45 Britain: A regional analysis using the Labour Force Survey, WELMERC  
46  
47 Discussion Paper 2005-01, University of Wales Swansea.  
48  
49  
50  
51 OSWALD A. (1996) A conjecture on the explanation for high unemployment in the  
52  
53 industrialised nations, The Warwick Economics Research Papers Series No.  
54  
55 475.  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 PENCAVEL J. (1994) British unemployment: Letter from America, *Economic*  
4  
5  
6 *Journal* **104**, 621-32.  
7
- 8 PICKLES A., DAVIES R. B. and CROUCHLEY R. (1982) Heterogeneity,  
9  
10 nonstationarity, and duration of stay effects in migration, *Environment and*  
11  
12 *Planning A* **14**, 615-22.  
13
- 14 PISSARIDES C. A. and MCMASTER I. (1990) Regional migration, wages and  
15  
16 unemployment: Empirical evidence and implications for policy, *Oxford*  
17  
18 *Economic Papers* **42**, 812-31.  
19
- 20 REES P. and KUPISZEWSKI M. (1999) *Internal Migration and Regional Population*  
21  
22 *Dynamics in Europe: A Synthesis*, Council for Europe Publishing, Strasburg.  
23  
24
- 25 THOMAS A. (1993) The influence of wages and house prices on British interregional  
26  
27 migration decisions, *Applied Economics* **25**, 1261-68.  
28  
29
- 30 SCHWARTZ A. (1973) Interpreting the effect of distance on migration, *Journal of*  
31  
32 *Political Economy*, **81** 1153-69.  
33  
34
- 35 SJAASTAD L. (1962) The costs and returns of human migration, *Journal of Political*  
36  
37 *Economy* **70**, 80-93.  
38  
39
- 40 VANDERKAMP J. (1971) Migration flows and their determinants, *Journal of*  
41  
42 *Political Economy* **79**, 1012-31.  
43  
44
- 45 VAN DIJK J., FOLMER H., HERZOG H. W. and SCHLOTTMANN A. M. (1989)  
46  
47 Labour market institutions and the efficiency of interregional migration: A  
48  
49 cross-nation comparison, in VAN DIJK J., FOLMER H., HERZOG H. W. and  
50  
51 SCHLOTTMANN A. M. (Eds), *Migration and Labour Market Adjustment*,  
52  
53 Kluwer, Amsterdam.  
54  
55
- 56 YANG X. (2000) Determinants of migration intentions in Hubei province, China:  
57  
58 Individual versus family migration, *Environment and Planning A* **32**, 769-87.  
59  
60

Table 1. Average willingness to move by country: 1995

	Neighbourhood		Town/City		County/Equiv. Area		N
	Average	Rank	Average	Rank	Average	Rank	
Austria	2.731	19	2.354	20	2.160	20	721
Britain	3.520	6	3.193	4	2.868	5	748
Bulgaria	2.810	16	2.737	14	2.552	14	796
Canada	3.797	2	3.376	2	2.916	4	1241
Czech Republic	3.062	14	2.517	19	2.427	16	844
East Germany	3.211	11	2.741	13	2.573	12	440
Hungary	2.610	21	2.296	21	2.019	21	777
Ireland	2.806	17	2.531	18	2.338	18	814
Italy	3.261	9	2.776	12	2.565	13	955
Japan	2.691	20	2.554	17	2.397	17	959
Latvia	2.188	22	1.919	23	1.704	23	751
Netherlands	3.584	4	3.317	3	3.019	2	1660
New Zealand	3.508	7	3.058	7	2.937	3	813
Norway	3.600	3	3.171	5	2.651	11	1163
Philippines	2.976	15	2.886	10	2.728	8	1058
Poland	3.081	13	2.688	15	2.538	15	782
Russia	2.124	23	1.987	22	1.705	22	1242
Slovakia	3.221	10	2.854	11	2.664	10	1121
Slovenia	2.791	18	2.601	16	2.330	19	855
Spain	3.136	12	3.000	8	2.759	7	979
Sweden	3.459	8	2.906	9	2.685	9	1017
United States	3.871	1	3.522	1	3.142	1	1088
West Germany	3.541	5	3.065	6	2.772	6	933

Source: ISSP

Notes: Region, state or province used instead of county for some countries - see the Data Appendix for examples. The varying size of these geographical units between countries is likely to make the comparison of this variable more difficult. The table just uses those observations in which individuals answer all three of the WTM questions.

Table 2. OLS estimates of the willingness to move, Britain: 1995

	Town/City			County		
	Spec. 1	Spec. 2	Spec. 3	Spec. 1	Spec. 2	Spec. 3
Female	-0.153	-0.174*	-0.186*	-0.248**	-0.247**	-0.257**
Aged 18-29	0.475**	0.383**	0.297*	0.242	0.124	0.062
Aged 30-44	0.359**	0.343**	0.252	0.219	0.171	0.083
Aged 45-54	0.350*	0.362**	0.263	0.177	0.146	0.101
Widowed/Divorced	0.292*	0.253	0.211	0.228	0.274**	0.308**
Single	0.013	-0.007	-0.004	-0.103	-0.086	-0.115
Number in household	-0.019	-0.021	-0.008	-0.052	-0.050	-0.036
Ethnic Minority	0.069	0.019	-0.144	0.043	0.003	-0.177
Unemployed	-0.015	-0.045	-0.060	0.013	0.030	-0.001
Inactive	-0.138	-0.163	-0.165	-0.063	-0.038	-0.066
Degree	0.044	0.032	-0.037	0.552***	0.525***	0.369**
Other higher education	0.001	0.060	0.048	0.175	0.166	0.114
A-levels	0.223	0.291	0.296	0.501***	0.530***	0.504***
O-levels	-0.042	0.016	0.013	0.118	0.181	0.176
CSE	-0.229	-0.167	-0.182	0.058	0.127	0.051
Foreign qualifications	-0.065	-0.006	-0.037	-0.422	-0.362	-0.421
No. of years spent in current town	-0.011***	-0.011***	-0.014***	-0.017***	-0.018***	-0.020***
North	0.314	–	–	0.657**	–	–
North West	0.418*	–	–	0.403*	–	–
Yorkshire and Humberside	0.304	–	–	0.218	–	–
East Midlands	0.124	–	–	0.072	–	–
West Midlands	0.250	–	–	0.181	–	–
East Anglia	0.223	–	–	0.358	–	–
South West	0.205	–	–	0.312	–	–
South East	0.196	–	–	0.224	–	–
Greater London	0.375	–	–	0.460*	–	–
Wales	0.324	–	–	0.265	–	–
Social housing	–	0.091	0.010	–	-0.084	-0.147
Renting privately	–	0.237	0.170	–	0.245	0.221
County unemp./vacancies ratio	–	0.024*	0.019	–	0.029**	0.025*
County earnings	–	0.006**	0.003	–	0.007**	0.003
County house prices/1000	–	-0.012**	-0.009*	–	-0.012**	-0.008
County activity rate	–	0.020	0.021	–	0.028	0.032**
Population density	–	–	0.004**	–	–	0.007***
Fairly high crime area	–	–	0.070	–	–	0.085
Average crime area	–	–	-0.040	–	–	-0.132
Fairly low crime area	–	–	-0.220	–	–	-0.165
Very low crime area	–	–	-0.310	–	–	-0.252
Constant	2.968***	0.176	0.869	2.893***	-0.815	-0.153
R-Squared	0.066	0.073	0.083	0.107	0.116	0.135
N	758	737	726	750	731	720

Source: BSAS

Notes: \*  $p < 0.1$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$  (two-tailed tests). The p-values are calculated using heteroscedastic consistent standard errors. The reference categories are aged 55-64, married, employed, no qualifications, Scotland, owner occupier and lives in what is perceived to be in very high crime area.



Table 3. Decomposition of the willingness to move: 1995

	Town/City			County/Equivalent Area		
	Total	Comp.	Struct.	Total	Comp.	Struct.
Austria	0.809	0.424	0.384	0.683	0.409	0.274
Bulgaria	0.437	0.187	0.250	0.321	0.161	0.160
Canada	-0.200	-0.062	-0.138	-0.047	-0.081	0.035
Czech Republic	0.654	0.230	0.424	0.459	0.196	0.264
East Germany	0.395	0.222	0.173	0.311	0.224	0.087
Hungary	0.879	0.240	0.640	0.863	0.280	0.584
Ireland	0.640	0.307	0.333	0.532	0.286	0.246
Italy	0.402	0.207	0.195	0.317	0.226	0.090
Japan	0.655	0.264	0.390	0.514	0.225	0.288
Latvia	1.235	0.334	0.901	1.156	0.274	0.882
Netherlands	-0.152	-0.124	-0.028	-0.148	-0.142	-0.006
New Zealand	0.110	0.012	0.098	-0.046	-0.080	0.034
Norway	0.017	0.030	-0.013	0.244	0.055	0.189
Philippines	0.292	0.114	0.177	0.151	-0.033	0.183
Poland	0.515	0.151	0.364	0.352	0.168	0.185
Russia	1.173	0.325	0.848	1.175	0.297	0.878
Slovakia	0.313	0.160	0.153	0.207	0.155	0.052
Slovenia	0.558	0.166	0.392	0.554	0.192	0.362
Spain	0.135	0.131	0.004	0.079	0.131	-0.053
Sweden	0.273	0.082	0.191	0.187	0.034	0.153
United States	-0.346	-0.131	-0.215	-0.257	-0.177	-0.080
West Germany	0.096	0.145	-0.049	0.083	0.133	-0.050

Source: ISSP

Notes: Decompositions are reported relative to Great Britain. The mean differentials in the WTM are slightly different from those reported in Table 1 because only individuals answering all three WTM questions are included in Table 1 and because of item non-response.

## DATA APPENDIX

The WTM questions asked in the *BSAS/ISSP* were:

- If you could improve your work or living conditions, how willing or unwilling would you be to move to another *neighbourhood* or *village*?
  1. Very willing (recoded as 5)
  2. Fairly willing (recoded as 4)
  3. Neither willing nor unwilling (coded as 3)
  4. Fairly unwilling (recoded as 2)
  5. Very unwilling (recoded as 1)
  
- If you could improve your work or living conditions, how willing or unwilling would you be to move to another *town* or *city* within this county (different geographical area specified for some other countries in the *ISSP* – see below for examples)?
  1. Very willing (recoded as 5)
  2. Fairly willing (recoded as 4)
  3. Neither willing nor unwilling (coded as 3)
  4. Fairly unwilling (recoded as 2)
  5. Very unwilling (recoded as 1)
  
- If you could improve your work or living conditions, how willing or unwilling would you be to move to another *county* (different geographical area specified for other countries in the *ISSP* – see below for some examples)?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 1. Very willing (recoded as 5)
- 5
- 6 2. Fairly willing (recoded as 4)
- 7
- 8 3. Neither willing nor unwilling (coded as 3)
- 9
- 10 4. Fairly unwilling (recoded as 2)
- 11
- 12 5. Very unwilling (recoded as 1)
- 13
- 14
- 15
- 16
- 17
- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24
- 25
- 26
- 27
- 28
- 29
- 30
- 31
- 32
- 33
- 34
- 35
- 36
- 37
- 38
- 39
- 40
- 41
- 42
- 43
- 44
- 45
- 46
- 47
- 48
- 49
- 50
- 51
- 52
- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59
- 60

The county-level equivalent areas specified in other countries include:

Province: New Zealand, Canada, Netherlands and the Philippines.

Region: Italy and Slovenia.

States: United States

Table A1. Means of explanatory variables

	Britain	Other Countries
Female	0.579	0.523
Aged 16/18-29	0.269	0.243
Aged 30-44	0.395	0.382
Aged 45-54	0.190	0.210
Aged 55-64	0.146	0.166
Married	0.627	0.691
Widowed/Divorced	0.140	0.081
Single	0.233	0.229
Number in household	2.815	3.453
Ethnic Minority	0.028	–
Employed	0.683	0.655
Unemployed	0.079	0.067
Inactive	0.238	0.278
Completed university (Degree)	0.121	0.135
Semi higher (Further/other higher education)	0.149	0.126
Completed secondary (O levels/GCSE and A levels)	0.401	0.331
Incomplete secondary (CSE)	0.100	0.211
No qualifications	0.229	0.197
No. of years spent in current town	22.054	24.743
North	0.054	–
North West	0.095	–
Yorkshire and Humberside	0.096	–
East Midlands	0.081	–
West Midlands	0.105	–
East Anglia	0.045	–
South West	0.103	–
South East	0.200	–
Greater London	0.095	–
Wales	0.045	–
Scotland	0.080	–
Owner Occupier	0.680	–
Social housing	0.215	–
Renting privately	0.105	–
Unemployment-vacancy ratio	16.610	–
Weekly earnings	326.750	–
House prices	74191.490	–
Economic activity rate	78.440	–
Population density	25.000	–
Very high crime area	0.118	–
Fairly high crime area	0.136	–
Average crime area	0.351	–
Fairly low crime area	0.255	–
Very low crime area	0.139	–
N	726	20442

Sources: BSAS and ISSP

Notes: An indication of the percentage of respondents from each country for each of the ISSP models can be obtained from Table 1. Educational qualifications in other countries in the ISSP have been recoded so that they are roughly equivalent to UK qualifications (see Drinkwater, 2003, for further details).

Table A2. OLS estimates of the willingness to move town/city: By country

	Austria	Britain	Bulgaria	Canada	Czech Rep.	East Germany	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Japan	Latvia	Neth.
Female	0.039	-0.174*	-0.017	-0.191***	-0.068	0.085	-0.097	0.203*	0.030	-0.047	0.011	-0.027
Aged 16-29	0.546**	0.496***	0.423*	0.166	0.434**	-0.086	0.681***	0.524**	0.447*	0.423**	0.347*	0.266*
Aged 30-44	0.368*	0.321*	0.007	-0.100	0.296*	-0.168	0.358**	0.270*	0.133	0.594***	0.264*	0.099
Aged 45-54	0.218	0.308*	-0.184	-0.163	0.248	-0.218	0.332**	-0.074	-0.072	0.424***	0.153	0.164
Widowed/Divorced	0.240	0.249	0.354*	0.307**	0.218	0.342	0.151	0.438	0.616*	0.168	0.003	-0.042
Single	0.577***	0.001	-0.086	0.040	0.203	0.413*	-0.104	0.414***	0.219	0.367**	0.103	-0.017
Number in household	-0.047	-0.013	0.017	-0.004	-0.009	0.053	-0.032	0.030	0.075*	-0.109***	0.028	-0.022
Unemployed	-0.120	-0.027	-0.033	0.542***	0.139	0.331*	0.095	0.415**	0.515*	0.171	-0.159	-0.029
Inactive	0.043	-0.155	-0.429***	-0.017	0.153	-0.002	-0.163	0.135	0.172	0.225**	0.086	0.088
Completed university	0.659**	0.039	0.454***	0.346**	0.106	1.136***	0.157	0.258	0.403**	0.353**	-0.267	0.613***
Semi-higher	–	-0.035	0.505***	0.320**	-0.045	0.631**	0.134	0.248	0.280	0.231	-0.143	0.664***
Completed Secondary	0.642***	0.010	0.285**	0.240	0.219	0.520**	0.109	0.122	0.100	0.070	-0.332**	0.347***
Incomplete Secondary	0.231**	-0.237	0.525*	0.335**	0.043	0.525***	0.032	-0.120	-0.061	0.463**	-0.267	0.211*
Years in current town	-0.005	-0.011***	-0.018***	-0.015***	-0.016***	-0.011**	-0.013***	-0.023***	-0.017***	-0.016***	-0.018***	-0.017***
Constant	1.913***	3.280***	3.009***	3.496***	2.586***	2.415***	2.459***	2.484***	2.626***	2.680***	2.351***	3.328***
R-Squared	0.139	0.054	0.127	0.072	0.080	0.122	0.100	0.175	0.112	0.172	0.076	0.105
N	711	753	754	1186	839	430	767	803	940	914	761	1540

Table A2 (Continued)

	New Zealand	Norway	Philippines	Poland	Russia	Slovakia	Slovenia	Spain	Sweden	United States	West Germany
Female	-0.105	-0.038	-0.103	-0.073	-0.035	-0.031	0.116	0.066	-0.001	0.059	0.062
Aged 16-29	0.727***	0.405**	0.489***	0.435*	0.311**	0.561***	1.040***	0.903***	0.366**	0.688***	0.536***
Aged 30-44	0.305**	0.224	0.316**	0.286	0.080	0.377**	0.643***	0.667***	0.083	0.445***	0.239*
Aged 45-54	0.294*	0.162	0.203	0.245	0.033	0.184	0.479***	0.713***	0.278*	0.265	0.231
Widowed/Divorced	-0.037	0.092	0.107	0.209	0.264**	0.145	-0.097	-0.216	0.094	0.063	0.127
Single	-0.135	0.046	-0.001	0.327*	0.270**	0.050	0.068	0.060	0.037	0.005	0.019
Number in household	-0.019	-0.041	0.011	0.030	0.033	-0.033	-0.055*	-0.002	-0.062*	0.041	-0.055*
Unemployed	-0.140	0.086	-0.043	0.070	0.343**	0.248	0.212	0.328**	-0.190	-0.024	0.158
Inactive	-0.061	0.260***	-0.091	-0.059	-0.118	-0.173	-0.204	-0.034	0.103	0.036	0.183*
Completed university	0.520*	0.169	0.519	-0.135	-0.620***	0.110	0.723***	0.466***	0.457***	0.088	0.869***
Semi-higher	0.842***	0.222	0.469***	0.073	-0.293	0.721***	0.631***	0.181	0.623***	-0.127	0.648***
Completed Secondary	0.687***	0.251*	0.218**	-0.061	-0.391*	0.029	0.546***	0.296**	0.245*	-0.019	0.341**
Incomplete Secondary	0.682***	0.127	0.193*	0.092	-0.404*	0.053	0.661***	0.215	0.133	-0.127	0.319***
Years in current town	-0.015***	-0.017***	0.474**	-0.007*	-0.016***	-0.024***	-0.001	-0.009**	-0.016***	-0.005	-0.007**
Constant	2.540***	3.201***	1.434***	2.483***	2.544***	3.218***	1.743***	2.440***	2.978***	3.059***	2.807***
R-Squared	0.085	0.106	0.040	0.056	0.119	0.147	0.166	0.108	0.099	0.039	0.106
N	778	1152	1023	832	1235	1096	823	869	1017	1074	898

Source: ISSP

Notes: Household size has been estimated for the Netherlands using the household composition variable. No information on semi-higher education is available in Austria.  
 \*  $p < 0.1$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$  (two-tailed tests). The p-values are calculated using heteroscedastic consistent standard errors.

Table A3. OLS estimates of the willingness to move county/equivalent area: By country

	Austria	Britain	Bulgaria	Canada	Czech Rep.	East Germany	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Japan	Latvia	Neth.
Female	-0.073	-0.254**	-0.152	-0.145*	-0.148	-0.050	-0.184	0.011	-0.075	0.023	-0.031	-0.041
Aged 16-29	0.544**	0.217	0.343	0.230	0.160	-0.180	0.606***	0.476**	0.214	0.329*	0.076	0.162
Aged 30-44	0.300	0.200	-0.011	-0.088	0.184	-0.166	0.486***	0.210	0.199	0.325**	0.051	0.075
Aged 45-54	0.108	0.151	-0.224	-0.153	0.295**	-0.156	0.286**	0.046	0.111	0.346***	0.077	0.182
Widowed/Divorced	0.054	0.161	0.497**	0.215	0.285*	0.236	0.116	0.591*	0.294	0.130	0.193	-0.032
Single	0.386**	-0.136	-0.055	-0.018	0.331**	0.329*	-0.100	0.422***	0.238	0.335**	0.286**	-0.045
Number in household	-0.037	-0.071	0.029	-0.018	0.013	0.004	-0.035	0.011	0.071*	-0.130***	0.092***	-0.025
Unemployed	-0.018	-0.001	0.179	0.261	0.483	0.079	-0.173	0.305*	0.451	0.254	-0.106	0.109
Inactive	0.134	-0.089	-0.261	-0.040	0.152	-0.117	-0.101	0.130	0.016	0.303***	0.151	0.112
Completed university	0.867***	0.573***	0.481***	0.380**	0.260	0.786***	0.443	0.188	0.507***	0.591***	-0.116	0.653***
Semi-higher	-	0.127	0.502***	0.326*	0.022	0.565**	0.405**	0.231	0.487**	0.368***	-0.126	0.604***
Completed Secondary	0.734***	0.256*	0.161	0.185	0.341**	0.755***	0.208*	0.032	0.215*	0.135	-0.206	0.245***
Incomplete Secondary	0.229*	0.058	0.355	0.282	0.065	0.461**	0.112	-0.275*	0.108	0.443**	-0.393**	0.175
Years in current town	-0.001	-0.016***	-0.014***	-0.013***	-0.020***	-0.012**	-0.008**	-0.027***	-0.013***	-0.015***	-0.010***	-0.018***
Constant	1.704***	3.256***	2.733***	3.070***	2.560***	2.570***	1.997***	2.680***	2.340***	2.568***	1.749***	3.125***
R-Squared	0.126	0.086	0.101	0.050	0.096	0.098	0.089	0.183	0.080	0.173	0.050	0.096
N	755	747	748	1170	856	433	767	803	934	912	756	1539

Table A3 (Continued)

	New Zealand	Norway	Philippines	Poland	Russia	Slovakia	Slovenia	Spain	Sweden	United States	West Germany
Female	-0.076	-0.055	-0.148*	-0.130	-0.093	-0.050	0.034	0.013	0.037	-0.072	0.045
Aged 16-29	0.356*	0.340*	0.518***	0.479**	0.275***	0.458**	0.603***	0.872***	0.417**	0.596***	0.272
Aged 30-44	0.223	0.281*	0.339***	0.320**	0.069	0.350**	0.440***	0.614***	0.134	0.242	0.200
Aged 45-54	0.305*	0.196	0.324**	0.254*	0.144*	0.176	0.364**	0.720***	0.436***	0.222	0.164
Widowed/Divorced	-0.068	0.094	0.015	0.275	-0.051	0.194	-0.283	-0.345	-0.160	0.073	0.208
Single	-0.022	0.043	-0.032	0.118	0.044	0.065	0.322**	-0.000	0.166	0.076	0.113
Number in household	0.023	-0.033	0.037**	-0.007	0.030	-0.039	-0.070**	-0.006	-0.068	-0.022	-0.009
Unemployed	0.139	0.136	-0.118	0.093	0.196*	0.353**	0.245	0.272*	-0.038	-0.184	-0.021
Inactive	-0.049	0.285***	-0.003	-0.048	-0.065	-0.061	-0.117	-0.040	0.142	0.099	0.117
Completed university	0.523*	0.215	0.659**	0.264	-0.292	0.174	0.545***	0.446***	0.407***	0.524*	1.015***
Semi-higher	0.784***	0.292*	0.334***	-0.134	-0.207	0.947***	0.520**	0.317	0.417**	0.328	0.442**
Completed Secondary	0.556**	0.302**	0.108	0.060	-0.201	0.124	0.483***	0.350**	0.239*	0.286	0.362**
Incomplete Secondary	0.623**	0.040	0.262**	0.091	-0.250	0.081	0.408*	0.277*	0.098	0.103	0.310***
Years in current town	-0.015***	-0.016***	0.178	-0.010***	-0.011***	-0.023***	-0.004	-0.010**	-0.011***	-0.008**	-0.006*
Constant	2.371***	2.598***	1.740***	2.529***	2.078***	2.985***	1.861***	2.326**	2.584***	2.701***	2.427***
R-Squared	0.054	0.100	0.038	0.059	0.069	0.123	0.127	0.104	0.083	0.035	0.086
N	782	1135	1017	1128	1236	1107	825	870	1014	1071	904

Source: ISSP

Notes: Household size has been estimated for the Netherlands using the household composition variable. No information on semi-higher education is available in Austria.

\*  $p < 0.1$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$  (two-tailed tests). The p-values are calculated using heteroscedastic consistent standard errors.