RELOCATION PATTERNS OF YOUNG ALUMNI

by

NICOLE LEAH LECHENE

(Under the Direction of Laura A. Dean)

ABSTRACT

This non-experimental quantitative study administered a survey to recent college graduates and examined correlations among their reported quality of life, experience of close relationships, job satisfaction, and demographic characteristics. The role of relationship as a lens in the decision-making of new college graduates to relocate was supported in the literature. The results showed no significant correlations between their choice to return to their hometown after graduation and their quality of life, experience of close relationships, or job satisfaction. Additional correlations among demographic characteristics demonstrated significance, but not strength. Suggestions for future research include a qualitative study, inclusion of social justice components, and expansion to populations in other states.

INDEX WORDS: Career, Georgia, Hometown, Job satisfaction, Millennials, Place attachment, Quality of life, Relocation, Relationship, Social justice, Student development, Transition

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DEDICATION

To Mom – the greatest counselor I have ever known.

To Scott Williams – for making this journey possible.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Historically, traditional college graduates finished formal education and entered the workforce or continued professional development (Peterson & Devlin, 1994). Because of academic training and learned skills, college graduates, in particular, gained access to jobs with higher wages and leadership responsibilities (Davis, 2010; Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003). With multiple professional opportunities to consider, earnest career decision-making gained importance during the forced transition after college. For college graduates who desired full-time employment, available work and types of opportunities varied among geographic regions (Florida, 2009). Employers, and the campus recruiters who represented them, may offer job opportunities that require relocation.

Though college alumni associations may track graduate relocation for future fundraising and development efforts, the motivations for moving among college graduates have not received concerted research focus or documentation. Post-college employment may drive relocation choices for many, but the power of relationship is emerging as a factor in career decision-making among graduating students. The research available about college students projected the need for continued study of this population after they leave college campuses.

College campuses present a unique opportunity to study the behavior of students. Student records are rich with demographic information, and the concentrated geographic campus environment increases accessibility to students. Even students who learn online

or from distant campuses are accessible through e-mail provided by most colleges. This access has allowed researchers to understand better the transition experience of students coming to and through college by collecting detailed and descriptive information about their behaviors and attitudes (Taylor & Keeter, 2010).

As part of the research on the college experience, student affairs literature confirmed that the college experience prompted personal development (e.g., Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Harper & Quaye, 2009; Komives & Woodard, 1996; Rentz, 1994). Among the key principles of the student affairs profession is the premise that the experience of higher education fundamentally changes students. Beyond learning classroom knowledge, students experienced stages of personal growth (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Naturally, maturation occurred between the ages of 18 and 22, regardless of college attendance. However, the college experience presented unique opportunities for development in areas such as interpersonal relationships, managing emotions, and career choice (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Researchers began to uncover and understand the patterns of student growth and decision-making. With that information, student affairs practitioners and college faculty could better prepare students for the many choices ahead regarding future life and career.

However, graduates became more difficult to study as a collective population after they exited college and their paths diverged. They dispersed geographically and psychographically, a marketing term that defines target markets by similarities in thinking despite the demographic dis-similarity of that group's members (Kotler & Keller, 2009). College graduates became difficult to track when they moved locations,

and even more difficult to describe when they pursued different careers, lifestyles, and interests. Though studies on alumni behavior have not matched the breadth and comprehensive nature of studies on students, existing research on the current generation of students provided predictive insight to patterns of change for the future (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Taylor & Keeter, 2010).

The latest generation of college students, dubbed "Millennial," marked their coming of age at the turn of the century (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). Generally born in the late 1980s and 1990s, Millennials developed a reputation for entitlement and dependency on parents, nicknamed "helicopter parents" for hovering over the affairs of their adult children. The closeness of the parent-child relationship, to the point of friendship, received attention in recent studies about the Baby Boomer parent generation's interactions with their Millennial children (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Taylor & Keeter, 2010). As part of the research on Millennials, this generation earned a secondary moniker of "boomerang kids" because increasing percentages of students moved back into the family home with their parents after college (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Taylor & Keeter, 2010). The boomerang phenomenon introduced the changing social acceptability of moving home again. That shift in attitude and behavior marked a change in decision-making patterns of young college alumni.

Many students sought employment as a way to apply the education they earned, but the financial compensation for work also motivated the job search. Because of graduation, student loan money or other subsidized income eligibility ended. Health insurance providers may also terminate coverage for traditional students who previously accessed benefits as a dependent through a parent's insurance policy. On most campuses,

graduates must vacate on-campus housing and relinquish tuition-sponsored privileges such as Internet and computer access. Whether the impetus was logistical, financial, or developmental, many graduates navigated some kind of job search (Zunker, 2006).

Statement of the Problem

As the priorities of Millennials changed from the patterns of previous generations, the need to understand the new paradigm increased. Employers wanted to understand these students in order to improve their recruiting strategies and hiring practices (Davis, 2010; Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003).

> Ideally, everyone is looking for the candidate with a great record of accomplishments and stable employment history who is open to relocation, has reasonable expectations regarding compensation, and is currently employed. Realistically, there aren't many of those out there. (Click, 2008, p.30)

Employers encountered resistance to relocation, which was symptomatic of the shift in priorities for decision-making by Millennials (Click, 2008; Howe & Strauss, 2000). Commerce wanted to understand Millennials to better market to them and realize economic return (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Kotler & Keller, 2009).

Most salient to this study, colleges and universities wanted to understand the motivations and challenges faced by these students in order to better educate, serve, and support human development (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). The times changed, the students changed, and the circumstances changed in such a way that educators could not rely on former ways of working with students.

Broad generational studies, such as the work of The Pew Research Center or the research done by Howe and Strauss, introduced the big picture of Millennial behavior and

attitudes (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Taylor & Keeter, 2010). However, the topic of relocation and post-college career decisions has not received specific attention from the perspective of motivations for moving. Notably absent from previous studies is the role of relationship as a factor in career decision-making and relocation for graduating students.

Educators, including faculty and student affairs practitioners in higher education, need information to understand the new patterns of moving after college and the reasons behind those choices by new graduates. Understanding the picture of relocation for young adults after college will inform professionals who serve in academia to adapt current teaching methods to better prepare current students for an inevitable transition within the present-day model they face.

Purpose and Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study was to take a quantitative exploratory snapshot of the migration patterns of college graduates and examine the factors and influences behind their decisions to relocate after graduation. Although alumni continued to relocate beyond their first residences after college and throughout their lives, this study captured one period in time by examining relocation during the first year after graduation. Surveying the future plans of current college students would not sufficiently assess mobility. While students report intentions to move or not move, demonstrated behavior from the perspective of alumni illuminated the real picture of relocation. True data comes from retrospect, viewing what graduates actually did and where they actually went (Smith, 2009.)

Researchers should revisit previous studies and existing research about the factors that trigger job mobility (Anderson & Stark, 1988; Black, 1980; Brown, 1998; Estler, 1982; Ferman & Aiken, 1967; Hachen, 1990; Kimmel, 1972; Podgursky & Swaim, 1990; Stump, 1976). While these studies included a breadth of reasons for relocation, few mentioned the role of relationship in a person's choice to relocate. Chang, Johnson, and Lord's (2010) concept of velocity introduced that the work environment changes constantly; therefore, previous studies of static snapshots in time did not accurately represent the present-day workplace. This changing landscape indicated the importance of gauging the current conditions for college graduates. This study looked at the factors influencing college graduates to move, giving special attention to the role of relationship as a theoretical lens.

The scope of this study included graduates from a research-intensive, state flagship, public university in the Southeastern United States. Alumni from the graduating classes of May 2007- May 2011 received a survey about their relocation decisions after college. This study specifically surveyed the factors affecting relocation as grounded in the literature, with particular attention to the lens of the role of relationship.

Research Questions

To meet the purpose of taking an exploratory snapshot of this population, the following three research questions (RQ) guided the research.

RQ1. What is the correlation among relocation to the hometown after college and A) adult attachment patterns, B) job satisfaction, and C) quality of life?

RQ2. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences of close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who returned to the hometown after college?

RQ3. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences of close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who report a high likelihood of *anticipated* relocation to the hometown?

Operational Definitions

The following applied definitions will clarify the commonly used terms throughout this document.

Corporate Relocation: Forced move sponsored by the employer, typically mandated and paid for by the company (Anderson & Stark, 1988).

Home: The usual residence of a person, family, or household; the place in which one's domestic affections are centered; the place or region where something is native or most common (Home, 2011).

Job Mobility: Ability to move from job to job or one work role to another, typically meaning promotion or lateral moves. Does not necessarily imply geographic relocation (Podgursky & Swaim, 1990).

Mobility: Broadly used in this context as the ability to move residences or jobs; ability to relocate (Smith, 2009). Does not refer to individual ability to ambulate.

Recruiters: Companies that hire large numbers of college graduates may have a college recruiting team as part of their Human Resources office. These recruiters visit college campuses to find candidates for training programs and entry-level positions at the employer. Typical behavior includes participation in career fairs on campus and

collaboration with college career centers (http://www.gradstaff.com/outsourced.html). These are not the same recruiters who work for college admissions offices to visit high schools and solicit applications to their college. These are not the same recruiters that work in sports to draft new players and athletes. These are not the same recruiters that work at employment agencies to match unemployed with job openings, also referred to as headhunters, sourcers, and third-party recruitment firms.

Relationship: Any significant personal connection in the form of family member, partner, friend, or significant other of influence or support. An emotional connection of mutual feelings. This study refers to the role of relationship as a concept, not as the literal link between two people with an intimate bond.

Relocation: Moving to a new zip code within the US, presumably to another city or state. Moving to a new apartment in the same area or within the same town does not constitute relocation. Both a measure of distance and time, this means geographically moving from one primary domicile to another one that is 50+ miles or at least one-hour's car drive away (Taylor, & Keeter, 2010).

Significance of the Study

This study contributed to the body of knowledge about student development in the area of understanding student career decisions. Career development theory and student development theory cover a wide range of topics, but this study brought light to the unique contribution of relationship's role in the career decisions of young adults. Richard Florida's popular book "Who's Your City?" (2009) extolled the cultural significance of where educated professionals chose to live. Like-minded people came together in communities and spurred each other on to imagine, invent, and create. His work asserted

that geography directly affected access to healthcare, education, and creative communities (Florida, 2009).

For a graduating student, the imminent decision about where to live and what career to pursue after college is very important. Campus career counselors help students navigate their options by understanding how they make decisions. This study examined the present factors behind the relocation decision, to provide insight for college faculty and student affairs professionals who work closely with this student population. With more recent and relevant information about the patterns of relocation for new graduates and the rationale behind them, educators can better help students to articulate their interests, make better-informed decisions, and achieve their goals.

Tangentially, this new data may be useful for peripheral populations with an interest in young alumni. College admissions recruiters could identify geographic areas where alumni have returned or were likely to return after graduation. Universities may have an interest in promoting educational opportunities in the places where they already have a presence from a pipeline of alumni who have demonstrated success. Employers also have an interest in understanding regional needs of graduates and their propensity or proclivity to relocate for a job offer. Results of this study could help recruiters better target their efforts to identify and invest in the right candidates. With a host of applications, this research will inquire about the nature of college graduates today. The results will provide a more visible, relevant picture of this constantly changing population.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

To understand students' career-related relocation decisions, it is important to examine existing research related to relocation, college students, career decisions, and the role of relationship. The following three sections present the literature: *Relocation in History, Theoretical Lens-the Role of Relationship*, and *Relocation Economics*.

Relocation in History first addresses social justice by introducing the role of under-represented populations in the literature. The next sub-section "Young Adults in the Workplace" focuses on the specific population of new graduates and the existing research on their characteristics in careers. "Relocation, Across Disciplines" examines the topic of relocation as presented in various industries and career fields. Finally, "Corporate Relocation" distinguishes this commonly researched topic in workforce studies from the lesser researched topic of relocation by choice, which is of particular interest in this study as it relates to college graduates.

The second section presents the theoretical bases for the design of this study. *Theoretical Lens –The Role of Relationship* presents four categories of relevant theory: student development and career theory, transition theory, relational cultural theory, and place attachment. The explanation of each theory provides a consideration for the role of relationship.

Relocation research included information about the dynamics of moving, but the third and final section of this chapter presents three categories that discuss *Relocation Economics.* Relocation economics included the considerations before and after a move,

which involved leaving a place of familiarity or establishing a new life somewhere different. First, "moving for money" shares existing research about compensation as a popular motivator for relocation. Next, "housing mobility" introduces the complexities of economics when the housing market affects career choices and mobility. Finally, the "recruiter's perspective" section shares the literature among professionals who frequently work with job candidates in relocation.

Relocation in History

Relocation and Social Justice

Relocation for work is not a new idea. A 1973 study examined *willingness to commute* among Latin and Anglo workers in New Mexico. Findings showed that Latin employees, the term used in the study at that time, preferred staying close to family by making a long commute as opposed to moving. Anglo employees were more willing to move in order to be close to the job (Carruthers, 1973). This early research exposed the social justice issues present in the practicality of job mobility and relocation for work. The needs of different populations dictated different decisions when it came to working, moving, commuting, and changing jobs. In this case, cultural differences between Latin and Anglo residents of the same state provided enough differentiation to alter behavior around choosing employment and therefore access to work.

As research continued in the field, the literature in job mobility addressed the intersections of many underrepresented populations over time (Eacott & Sonn, 2006; Gross, 2008; Kimmel, 1972; Mouw & Kalleberg, 2010; Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976; Smith, 2009). In retrospect, social science appeared to be among the first research disciplines paying attention social justice, even before social justice came into its own.

Social justice is "action designed to change societal values, structures, policies and practices, such that disadvantaged or marginalized groups gain increased access to these tools of self-determination" (Goodman, Liang, Helms, Latta, Sparks, & Weintraub, 2004, p.795).

Prior research in most disciplines involved subjects that represented the dominant group, typically heterosexual white males of Christian religious views with some level of socioeconomic affluence. The dominant group influenced the perspective of the research, leading research outcomes to ignore or overlook the nuanced contributions of marginalized groups. The research on job mobility, however, examined work (in)-equality issues for disadvantaged sub-populations (Eacott & Sonn, 2006; Gross, 2008; Kimmel, 1972; Mouw & Kalleberg, 2010; Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976; Smith, 2009).

Before the 1950s, men and women had great disparity in job mobility. Changes in United States history from World War II into the 21st century shifted the makeup of the occupationally mobile. Women gained more equity in some job areas, and their mobility increased to match that of men (Kimmel, 1972; Smith, 2009). Into the new millennium, social class became the greatest divide, with mid-level jobs dwindling and workers polarizing between low-wage manual jobs and management positions requiring higher education (Smith, 2009). Over the years, many studies addressed relocation through a social justice lens focused on demographics or career function and industry. Examples of those social justice perspectives included social class (Mouw & Kalleberg, 2010; Gross, 2008); gender (Kimmel, 1972); trailing spouses (Shahnasarian, 1991); international students (Tatar & Horenczyk, 2000); age and the elderly (Jungers, 2010); age and the generations – such as the milestone of turning 30 years old (Bureau of Labor Statistics (DOL), 1993); mid-career transition (Ferman & Aiken, 1967); and population density, both rural and urban (Eacott & Sonn, 2006; Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976). Career type,

industry, or function studies addressed areas such as education faculty (Estler, 1982; Moore & Gardner, 1992; Richardson, von Kirchenheim, & Richardson, 2006; Winter & Kjorlien, 2000); accountants (Butler, Sanders & Whitecotton, 2000); engineers (Wroblaski, 2011); nurses and healthcare (Critchley, 2003; Regional Briefs: South, 2009). As each population received attention for its unique relocation needs, the larger body of literature grew with an inherent consideration for social justice.

Although the segmented study of underrepresented groups may have been a victory for visibility in social justice, Smith (2009) argued that niche research failed to identify mobility and transition experiences of the masses, especially young adults. This identified need for larger scope research on young adult relocation guided the design of this current study. This exploratory survey aims to provide a broad perspective that is missing in the literature about the experiences of young adults and relocation.

Young Adults in the Workplace

In order to understand relocation experiences of young adults, their experiences in the workplace lend insight to their motivators for moving. Transitions among young adults, specifically job mobility in the early years of their careers, opened access to privileged opportunities later in their career paths (Hachen, 1990). As hiring continued throughout the lifespan, the accumulation of experiences widened the gap among socioeconomic strati. Simply put, the rich got richer and the poor got poorer. Limiting job mobility, which restricted the chance to grow and change throughout a career, contributed to stress (Long, 1995).

Fortunately for them, typical college graduates evaded some of that stress because they had the advantages of youth and education to support increased job mobility

(Carruthers, 1973; Vandersmissen, Séguin, Thériault, & Claramunt, 2009; Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976; Smith, 2009). The pursuit of education in various disciplines produced college graduates who had more job mobility (Hachen, 1990). More job mobility provided more access and opportunities for relocation, especially for young adults (Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976). At the same time when researchers across the world acknowledged the link between education and job mobility, researchers in the United States declared job-changing as an "American way of life" (Stump, 1976). The combination of access to education and vast geographic land mass with one national language has made relocation more common in the United States. Despite that popularity, much of the existing research on relocation has taken place in other countries, making a domestic study in the present day even more valuable to the body of literature (Becker, Bentolila, Fernandes, & Ichino, 2010; Chalmers, & Kalb, 2001; Critchley, 2003; Deding, & Filges, 2010; Eacott, & Sonn, 2006; Gross, 2008; Le, Tissington, & Budhwar, 2010; Long, 1995; Ryvkina & Koriakina, 1976; Tatar, & Horenczyk, 2000; Vandersmissen, Séguin, Thériault, & Claramunt, 2009).

Relocation Across Disciplines

Social science is not the only research discipline to notice the moving patterns of young adults. In the same way that relocation research has spanned the globe, it has also spanned academic disciplines. Relocation, a common experience among educated professionals across industries, produced various occupational lenses for examining the experience. Pursuant to research on other topics, some researchers have captured segmented data eliciting relevant information on relocation across many fields. For example, migration data from studies in geography reported that employment was the

primary reason that people moved or relocated, and young adults comprised the population most likely to move for employment (Vandersmissen, Séguin, Thériault, & Claramunt, 2009). In another field, industrial organization psychology researchers conducted a survey of college students about discrepancies between actual job characteristics and desired job characteristics (Chang, Johnson, & Lord, 2010). Although the two studies rooted their research in job satisfaction theories, they did not factor job location into the desired job or actual job satisfaction. These disciplines researched around the topic of relocation, but only one body of research focused on relocation exclusively—corporate relocation.

Corporate Relocation

Extensive research on the topic of corporate relocation examined the impact of moving employees for the purpose of corporate needs. In contrast with corporate relocation, the non-forced relocation examined in this study occurred by choice. Candidates in mid-career transition fared better when they controlled the circumstances of their career (Clarke, 2009). Choosing to relocate, for example, maintained a locus of control that fuels confidence. However, many working adults were required to relocate as a condition of their employment. The reasons include maintaining professional growth, fulfilling a company need in another location, or generally keeping a job. Although the factors behind corporate relocation differ greatly from the self-selected move after college, research on corporate relocation has contributed significantly to the field and was among the first to look at the role of relationship in the experience of moving.

Relationships and job satisfaction and performance are all bi-directional (Le, Tissington, & Budhwar, 2010). The family and its dynamic relationships reciprocally enhance or interfere with job performance, making it an important area of concern for employers. Happy employees with good relationships tended to perform well at work. Relocation changed the dynamics of a family by disrupting the roles of individuals within a larger system. Research on corporate relocation showed that change in family dynamics for nontraditional family structures was especially challenging and unique when companies required an employee to move and uproot the family (Anderson & Stark, 1988). The additional layers of ambiguity added unique stress in stepfamilies, single parent households, and dual-career families. Family roles required clarification before the move. Even the geographic distance between a child and a noncustodial parent directly affected the relationship (Anderson & Stark, 1988). Beyond the challenges presented from human connections, research on the role of relationship also included the relationship with a community where families benefitted from ancillary support, including cleaning services, food acquisition, and all the extras that integrate someone as part of a neighborhood (Anderson & Stark, 1988). Forced moves presented lifestyle obstacles to people who lost access to familiar resources.

While forced relocation appeared problematic in many reports, some forced relocation produced positive effects when the corporation's human resources department mapped intentional development outcomes for transferring an employee (Matthiesen & Tissington, 2008). To maximize retention and other variables, human resource professionals have applied decades of research to account for family status and other relationship factors in forced relocation (Smith, 1982). All of these factors, positive and

negative, may be hidden layers in the decisions made by college graduates about whether or not to move, or how far to move, for work. Considering the impact of relocation on significant relationships, and vice versa, the fields of education and student affairs provided underpinning theories to support a direct look at the overall picture of college graduate relocation in the new millennium.

Theoretical Lens: The Role of Relationship

Student Development & Career Theory

Student development theories provided a framework to understand the special growth opportunities that students experience during college. Chickering and Reisser (1993) noted seven developmental vectors: 1) developing competence, 2) managing emotions, 3) moving through autonomy toward interdependence, 4) developing mature interpersonal relationships, 5) establishing identity, 6) developing purpose, and 7) developing integrity. To some degree, each of these growth channels involved relationships, which "are labs for learning to communicate, empathize, argue, and reflect" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p.393). Through relationship with others, students learned more about themselves.

> Dialogue clarifies values and purposes. Many words are spent on mutual interests, plans, dreams, and existential questions. What my family is like, what they would have me be, and what I want to do – such questions are passed around, turned over, argued about, and applauded. In groups, we learn to care and to compromise, to play for the first time those roles we will refine throughout life. Thus, relationships with close friends and participation in student communities

> can be primary forces influencing student development in college; and all seven vectors for change are affected. (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 393)

Relationship profoundly affects student development. As students grow, learn, and make choices about future and career, their community of affiliation serves as something like a floor plan in the background of their actions and attitudes (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Bandura's theory of observable learning also pointed out the powerful influence of peers as models to copy or emulate (Zunker, 2006). The continuing impact of relationship did not escape post-graduation career choices.

Super theorized about career choices across a life span and life-stage continuum (Super, 1942; Super, 1957; Super, 1976). His life stage model outlined various life roles (child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, and pensioner) along the life stages. Work represented only one role in one area of a person's life. Super claimed that a more holistic perspective required the consideration of multiple life roles that evolved and progressed at different stages. Interrelated multiple roles affected each other. For example, a pervasive work role influenced the role of parenting. The life roles and life stage of each person offered a larger context for research on the role of work and work decisions like relocation (Super, 1942; Super, 1957; Super, 1976).

One survey of college students identified factors of a successful job search, including proactive personality, self-esteem, conscientiousness, self-efficacy, job search behavior, and job search effort (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006). The study did not include multiple life roles or the life stage of students as a consideration in the successful job search. While these graduates conducted a job search following the researchers' parameters for success, the absent variables of location or relationship may

have skewed their career options. Super's life stage model included the internal personal determinants like psychological and biological variables as well as the external situational determinants like historic and socioeconomic variables (Super, 1942; Super, 1957; Super, 1976; Zunker, 2006). A big picture view of career choices would incorporate all the factors in Super's model.

Super's model expanded over the lifetime and across the breadth and depth of the individual and the world around him or her. Krumboltz (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999) also theorized about the importance of individual factors for career counseling clients. The critical skills for clients to experience effective career counseling included curiosity, persistence, flexibility, optimism, and risk taking (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999). These personal skills were essential for Krumboltz's happenstance approach theory, which suggested "luck is no accident" and that preparing for and dealing with life's unplanned events and circumstances leveraged the most influence in positive outcomes. (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999; Zunker, 2006) Whether the change or opportunities came unexpectedly or as part of the next natural step, happenstance theory contributed a newer perspective on another established model of change – transition theory.

Transition Theory

Schlossberg's (1981) transition theory defined that, "a transition can be said to occur if an event or non-event results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one's behavior and relationships" (p. 5). Graduating from student status to the new identity of college graduate is a transition. Seeking and accepting a new job is also a major transition. Even if students did not

relocate for a job at a distance, as described in this study, most students moved after college, even if they were simply changing residences in the same town. All of these transitional elements created a maelstrom of change for new college graduates. Schlossberg's four S's outline the factors of moving through transition: situation, self, support, and strategies (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Schlossberg, 1981). Their assets and liabilities in each area may have affected how well a person coped with the transition.

Four S's.

Schlossberg's theory explained that the *situation* included a broad description of current circumstances, including how the person got to the point of transition and how much control he or she had in those circumstances. The *situation* also involved timing, duration, previous similar experience, and role changes or added stressors (Schlossberg, 1981). The situation in this study was linked to the timing of college graduation for mostly traditional students. Typically, young adults in their early twenties pursue a career or early professional experience after college, and their college experience has prepared them for expecting that graduation was imminent. The transition after college would be planned and expected, and the student would be expected to have a large amount of control regarding the specifics of their situation.

Self-factors included age, race, gender, and socioeconomic status, as well as psychological development, especially optimism and self-efficacy (Schlossberg, 1981). This study accounted for some of these variables, including age and the candidate's propensity for relocation. Many self-factors required research consideration from the lens of social justice to examine differences in relocation among lesser-represented

populations. The limited scope of this study did not include a broad look at social justice factors, but did account for relevant lenses of *self* in response to this transition theory.

Support factors included the social system of intimate relationships, friends, family, and community (Schlossberg, 1981). This particular variable of transition fit the primary lens for this study. The role of relationship and support is an essential factor in transition, and this study examined that role of relationship in the transition of relocation. Generational studies shed light on one changing area of support through relationship. Millennial students and their parents related differently than previous generations, and present day Baby Boomer parents have created the reputation for being friends with their child in contrast to the parent figures from previous generations (Taylor & Keeter, 2010; Howe & Strauss, 2000). The new dynamic of increasing connection in the parent-child relationship may have also changed the importance of proximity in maintaining the relationship. Thirty-eight percent of Baby Boomers will relocate in retirement for the purpose of being "closer to family" (Miller & Associates, 2007*).* Presumably, that family includes children, possibly millennial college graduates. Because Millennials learn from their parents, relocating for the importance of family may carry into the mindset and reasons behind young adult relocation.

The fourth "S" of transition addressed how people dealt with change. *Strategies* spanned categories of coping from modifying the situation, to controlling the meaning of the experience, or managing the stress after the transition. Information seeking, direct action or inhibition of action, and managing internally conflicting emotions or behavior were all strategies for coping (Schlossberg, 1981). This study did not include the scope

of how graduates cope with the transition of graduation, but instead looked at the decisions behind relocation from the important transition factor of support.

Social support necessary in relocation included emotional (intimacy, concern, attachment), instrumental (providing assistance), and informational (guidance), according to Tatar & Horenczyk (2000). College, a uniquely temporary experience, required many students to relocate for a short period. Most academic institutions ingrained social supports in the transition process. Where someone came from and how long they planned to stay somewhere new directly impacted the kind of support they needed, as exhibited in a study of student counseling needs based on culture of origin and permanence of relocation (Tatar & Horenczyk, 2000). Student development theory has done well to direct professionals at meeting those needs during the college years. Adult development theory also contributed Schlossberg's transition theory to the changes that college students faced before, during, and after college.

Relational Cultural Theory

While early research from student affairs theorists, such as Chickering, identified the importance of relationships in human development, they often did so from the singular lens of the white, male experience. As Schlossberg (1981) developed the relationship components of transition theory, the door opened to inclusion of multicultural perspectives. Relational cultural theory looked at the role of relationships from women's perspectives (Jean Baker Miller Institute, 2011). Relational cultural theory stated that relationships could be so important that they became critical even to healing traumatic incidents. As a champion for social justice concerns, relational cultural theory asserted that "racism, sexism, heterosexism, and classism impede all individuals' ability to engage

and participate in growth-fostering relationships" (Jean Baker Miller Institute, 2011). Relational cultural theory stated that chronic disconnection from relationship resulted in human suffering. When new graduates relocated for a new job without the social connections they need to foster healthy relationships, negative results could follow. Perhaps the anticipation of those lost connections prevented graduates from choosing to move or at least determined where to relocate based on relationship. Some graduates chose a new location without prior connections precisely for building new relationships, but even those considerations included the places and people they knew as a factor in the decision.

Place Attachment

Place attachment and place identity theory included the attachment, emotion, and closeness that a person has to place, as well as that place as part of the person's identity. Place attachment included the physical, the social (based on relationships), and even climate (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010). Relocation for the purpose of going to college introduced the idea of multiple place attachment. The college experience created a transient population among university students who temporarily moved for higher learning. This population, which physically and socially connected to a new location, became prone to multiple place attachment and homesickness.

To understand better the multiple place attachment among college students, 200 students in Rome, Italy completed a survey using the Homesickness Vulnerability Questionnaire (HVQ) (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010). Divided in half by men and women, the group represented students at various universities, divided in half again by students from Rome, studying in their hometown, and students from other regions of Italy who

had relocated much further for college. This study examined multi-causal factors in the homesickness of university students in Rome, and three factors affected the student perception of hometown: 1) the physical location was part of their identity, 2) their hometown included resources that matched with their needs and interests, 3) the social relations of friends and family created a strong bond of place attachment. These three factors show up in research referenced throughout this study (Anderson & Stark, 1988). In the results, male and female students experienced homesickness at the same rate. However, the distance of the student's hometown from Rome presented a significant factor in homesickness. The further away, the more likely they were to be homesick (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010). The dimension of *social relations* as part of their attachment to home dominated the statistical significance over mere distance from home (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010). These results indicated that relationship played a role in happiness and satisfaction and implied that a person making a choice to avoid homesickness or discomfort would not move far from the relationships that mattered to them.

Homesickness meant more than just missing a place. Homesickness meant missing the people and the relationships and the social experience of those connections. Australian youth faced with career decisions wanted stability and good relationships at work (Taylor, 2005). Another study in Australia examined the decline of young adults in the rural areas because of their migration to the city for better jobs with bigger pay (Eacott & Sonn, 2006). Also using place attachment as an undergirding theory, this qualitative study

> confirmed the lack of educational and employment opportunities as the main influences on rural youth migration. Interestingly it was found that all participants felt a sense of community satisfaction and attachment to place but still decided to relocate. Most expressed a desire to return to rural Victoria in the future. (Eacott & Sonn, 2006, p.199)

Although these students relocated for gaining employment, many of them still dreamed of returning home.

Relocation Economics

The desire to return "home" rose in popularity among many young adults who relocated for college. The temporary nature and impermanence of the educational experience built the expectation among students that they would be able to return home. Early employment experiences do not usually come with a specified time frame, and this study inquired about the experiences of alumni who held a desire to return home. Returning home in this context meant returning to the hometown, but many graduates literally returned to the residence of origin to live with parents again. A study in Europe showed that students in less secure jobs were more likely to live with parents. Parents in less secure jobs were also more likely to live with their children (Becker, Bentolila, Fernandes, & Ichino, 2010). "Coresidence" indicated that graduating students, who chose to relocate for work, creating time and distance between the familiar places and people in their lives, must have done so for a career-position that would be stable and long term (Becker, Bentolila, Fernandes, & Ichino, 2010).

Stability and tenure subsequently defined the kind of people willing to move for work. Those with a history of moving were more likely to move again thanks to their

proclivity for relocation (Black, 1980). Low socio-economic status candidates were also more like to relocate, indicating that poor students would move for work (Black, 1980). The expectation that people looking for work would move for the right opportunity overlooked the importance of relationship and location (van den Berg, 1992). Not every candidate showed willingness to relocate for a job, meaningful work, or even just a paycheck. While some students expected to relocate for their first job with the hopes of returning home, many made the choice to stay home at all costs, including underemployment.

Moving for Money

Historically, people voluntarily chose to relocate for better pay and better jobs than what was economically available in their previous region. The dollar drove a lot of moving decisions, and money became the primary reason for relocation (Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003). College educated candidates typically drew in higher earnings and were likely to have the money to move for a job that improved their opportunities to make even more money (Ludwig & Raphael, 2010), which partially explained the positive link between education attained, earnings, and job mobility.

However, many educated workers experienced layoffs and unemployment during times of a depressed economy in the United States. A study of displaced workers revealed that relocation for new work did not significantly alter re-employment over the long term (Podgursky & Swaim, 1990). Moving for money failed to attract displaced workers with longer tenure and higher earnings at their previous jobs (Podgursky & Swaim, 1990.) High earners would wait out the dry spell, taking a transitional job during career employment gaps to get back to work (Chalmers & Kalb, 2001). Relocation as a

choice did not enter the picture except for skilled workers, who were overall less likely to relocate, unless forced out of work (Zippay, 1991).

Researchers in Denmark recognized the competing forces of money and relationships in their study of relocation.

> Theories either implicitly or explicitly assume that individuals readily move to places that improve their financial well-being. Other forces, however, offset these tendencies; for example, people often wish to remain close to family and friends. We introduce a methodology for determining how individuals weigh these countervailing forces, and estimate how both financial and social factors influence geographic mobility in the Danish population. Our results suggest that individuals respond to opportunities for higher pay elsewhere, but that their sensitivity to this factor pales in comparison to their preferences for living near family and friends. (Dahl & Sorenson, 2010, p.633)

Housing Mobility

Researchers recognized that it took more than money to affect a candidate's decision to take a job. Multiple factors carried importance, and location ranked among them because of the preference to live near family and friends. One study of Danish dual-earner couples revealed that the choice of residence trumped the decision about which job to take (Deding & Filges, 2010). In terms of mobility, seekers also took jobs near their residence or chose a residence near their job to eliminate commute time. Increasingly, location, whether in the form of a house, a town, or other static factors, took importance over the job or earning potential (Critchley, 2003; van Ommeren, Rietveld, & Nijkamp, 2000). Relocation reluctance also swelled because of the housing market and

the lowered chances of selling a home. Housing mobility and job mobility shared multiple dynamic factors in changing markets, whether studied independently or in conjunction with each other (Minton-Eversole, 2009). Those studies clarified that home and property ownership strongly correlated to job mobility on many variables. Evaluated only in terms of dollars and cents, the decision factors for job relocation became job pay, cost of living, home sale cost and time frame, and calculations including the years until retirement (van den Berg, 1992, p.1118). Only the "psychic cost" of relocation accounted for the role of relationship and the importance of location. When housing and property ownership was involved, money appeared to be the measure of moving.

Recruiter's Perspective

Money may have driven a lot of decision-making about relocation, and recruiters used high compensation packages as a way to entice preferred job candidates to move for positions in less desirable locations (Davis, 2010). However, recruiters learned not to assume that every candidate chased the highest salary, and increasing the salary offer did not necessarily lead to acceptance of the job offer (Davis, 2010; Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003). For the right candidate, a host of variables influenced the decision to take a job. Recruiters studied the variables that encouraged graduating college students to accept or decline a job offer (Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003). They provided benefits packages based on research or based on what the recruits said they wanted as benefits. Despite research on the topic, no definitive results reveal which benefit would hook a desired candidate to commit to a position. Recruiters and researchers also discovered differences among variables that would entice a candidate to accept a job versus the factors that support retention to stay at the job (Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003).

Jennings, Werbel, & Power (2003) studied college graduates' interest in traditional benefits for a hypothetical position and found that offers with great benefits packages increased recruitment, but not retention. A 401K plan and vacation days were among some of the traditional benefits that attracted graduates to the job offer. Ultimately, new graduates wanted total compensation, and mostly in wages, not benefits (Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003). However, adults and other employees in the same study placed more value on non-traditional benefits because of their multiple life roles as parent, caretaker, and more. For example, they appreciated flextime scheduling so that they could pick up their children from school. As recruiters learned more, recruiting practices adapted to the changing environment where college graduates also wanted alternatives for employment.

> For example, young, single employees who appear to be easily mobile may be primary caregivers for elderly parents or grandparents. Relocation experts suggest tactics like these:
>
> • Detailed demographic reviews of the employee population to identify perceived obstacles or budget considerations.
>
> • Assessments of alternative work options such as extreme commuting, job-sharing, consultant teams or short-term assignments. (W., S., 2010, p. 12).

College students may not be as mobile as recruiters expected, and alternative recruiting practices have become important to account for the variety of needs in job acceptance. Thought money certainly motivated career choices and may have even prompted relocation of new graduates, salary did not necessarily keep them there, according to a study of retention drivers (Davis, 2010). Opportunities for advancement, a

"good employer" reputation and *then* salary; they all fall behind the key to retention – an inspirational manager. The inspirational manager as a key to staying in a job demonstrated the importance of relationship (Davis, 2010). Job security and promotion potential may have also been keys to sealing the deal on a new job offer.

One study surveyed 25 accounting students and the recruiters who pursued them for job opportunities (Butler, Sanders, & Whitecotten, 2000). The study referenced variables that influenced their decision to take a job. Forty-four undergraduates at another institution reported those variables, and "location" ranked among the responses. When the researchers contextualized this into their own survey, they connoted location as "city size" --large or small. While this study hinted that location was very important to college graduates as a factor of accepting a job, the researchers silenced the true meaning behind the voice by allowing the surveyed participants to choose only the researchers' own interpretation of whether young graduates wanted a vibrant bustling city life or a smaller town. They did not take into effect the actual location, how far it was from home, family and friends (Butler, Sanders, & Whitecotten, 2000).

It is understandable that some recruiters only considered the city size when evaluating a college student's relocation for work. When business people and economists looked at mobility from a business perspective, they acknowledged, "The largest predictor of economic well-being in cities is the percent of college graduates. To do well, cities must be attractive to educated people" (Miller & Associates, 2007).

Chapter Summary

Among the literature regarding relocation, few studies directly addressed the experiences and needs specific to graduating college students. The changing nature of

the workplace showed in the social justice considerations of sub-populations over time. The link between education and job mobility brought notice to college graduates (Hachen, 1990). However, moving patterns and relocation issues received attention largely under corporate relocation (Matthiesen & Tissington, 2008; Smith, 1982). To understand the decisions of new graduates, student development theory, specifically career and transition theories, acknowledged the unique life stage of this population (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Schlossberg, 1981; Super, 1976). Combined with relational cultural theory (Jean Baker Miller Institute, 2011) and place attachment theory (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010), the role of relationship in relocation appeared evident. However, relocation research predominantly considered money (Davis, 2010; Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003), housing (Deding & Filges, 2010), and recruiter incentives (Butler, Sanders, & Whitecotten, 2000) as the primary factors in relocation decisions.

This study looked at the factors that influenced the decision to relocate during the first year after college, including whether it was the city or the rural area, the money or the benefits, or the relationship dimension that mattered most to college graduates. Taking into consideration all of the existing research reviewed to this point, the following section outlines the research design for this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the survey research principles behind this research design and the participants and process of data collection. The section on participants gives special attention to the demographics in the state of Georgia. The section on the process of data collection explains the YALSS instrument used in this study and provides descriptions of additional instruments from which it derived. This chapter closes with information about the data analysis and inherent limitations.

Survey Research Principles

The researcher selected quantitative survey design as the best research method to examine a snapshot of relocation patterns, using cross-sectional data collection at one point in time and identifying relocation attributes for college graduates (Creswell, 2009). The data collected from this nonexperimental study was descriptive, based on retrospective and demographic research questions (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Electronic distribution of the survey provided maximum reach to collect data from geographically dispersed graduates. The electronic collection of data allowed for efficient analysis lacking in a mailed survey that required more turnaround time to process. Efficient analysis provided the most current data in a timely manner. Without the associated mailing costs and labor, electronic survey distribution was also economical.

Participants

The participants for this study graduated from a large, public, state-flagship, research institution in the Southeast. Alumni from the graduating classes of May 2007 through May 2011 were included if they earned a Bachelor's degree during that time. Undergraduates could earn any of 22 undergraduate degrees among more than 140 academic disciplines offered at this institution (Allen, 2010). Among alumni with an active email address on file, 24,033 graduates fit the research parameters. This population reflected undergraduate alumni within the past 5 years. Only recent alumni were included in the study to provide recent and relevant data.

Instrumentation

Three instruments, combined with demographic data, addressed the research questions by way of the Young Alumni Life Satisfaction Survey (YALSS) instrument used in this study. The first part of the instrument used two subscales from the Quality of Life Index (QLI) (Ferrans & Powers, 1985). The second section used the 9-item abbreviated Experience of Close Relationships-Relationship Structure (ECR-RS) assessment (Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2012). The third section administered the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in its entirety. The final and fourth section asked for categorical and continuous demographic data associated with age, race, gender identity, graduation year, and program of study, hometown, and more. In total, the full questionnaire presented 81 items for response. The researcher piloted the instrument on a small focus group to assess for question clarity. Participant responses were self-reported, which presented some question about the reliability of hindsight perspective on subjective motivators in prior decision-making. Each section of this

instrument is explained in this chapter. See Appendix B for the Young Alumni Life Satisfaction Survey (YALSS) instrument used in this study.

Quality of Life Index

Carol Estwing Ferrans and Marjorie Powers developed the Quality of Life Index (QLI) in 1984 to assess life satisfaction based on the factors that were important to a person within four areas: health and functioning, psychological/spiritual domain, social and economic domain, and family. For the purposes of this study, only 12 items from two sub-scales (social/economic and family) contributed to the YALSS instrument. All responses spanned a six point Likert-type scale rating satisfaction and importance. This research instrument has been translated into many languages and used in more than 200 studies globally (Ferrans & Powers, 1985).

Cronbach's alphas supported the internal consistency reliability of the complete QLI instrument ranging from .73 to .99 across 48 studies. Test-retest correlations supported temporal reliability of .87 with a two-week interval and .81 with a one-month interval (Ferrans & Powers, 1985). An acceptably high rating using the Content Validity Index also supported content validity (Oleson, 1990). Convergent validity of the QLI was supported by strong correlations between the overall (total) QLI score and Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers' (1976) measure of life satisfaction ($r = .61, .65, .75, .77, .80, .83, .93$) (Anderson & Ferrans, 1997; Bliley & Ferrans, 1993; Ferrans, 1990; Ferrans & Powers, 1985; Ferrans & Powers, 1992).

Experiences in Close Relationships

The Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) instrument originally assessed adult attachment in relationships, specifically anxiety and avoidance. Fraley (2011) revised the instrument (ECR-R) with 36 items rated on a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from one=strongly disagree to seven=strongly agree. He also developed the Relationship Structure scale (ECR-RS) as a shortened version of the ECR-R with nine items. This study administered the ECR-RS shortened version. The ECR-RS identifies participants who demonstrate avoiding or anxious behavior in relationships. Many of the studies performed using any of these three versions of the ECR used college students or college graduates as participants, making this instrument an appropriate match for the population in this study. According to studies formulated by investigators such as Lopez & Gormely & Simko (2001), Vogel & Wei (2005), and Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh (2011), the Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) instrument showed high reliability. The test-retest had Cronbach alpha rating of .93 for the Anxiety scale and the .95 for the Avoidance scale. The test-retest reliability (over 30 days) of the ECR-RS individual scales is approximately .65 for the domain of romantic relationships (including individuals who experienced breakups during the 30-day period) and .80 in the parental domain (Fraley, et.al., 2011).

Job Satisfaction Survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) includes 36 items to evaluate nine dimensions of job satisfaction including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Responses range across a six point Likert-type scale from “strongly disagree” to

"strongly agree." Paul Spector developed the JSS in 1985, which has since become well established among job satisfaction surveys demonstrating reliability and validity. The nine subscales related with an overall internal consistency of 0.70 from a sample of 3,067 individuals. This study administered the JSS in its entirety.

Demographics

This questionnaire ended with 12 demographic questions to account for confounding variables. For example, academic areas of study had the potential to result in differences about attitudes toward relocation or job availability in those career paths (Peterson & Devlin, 1994). The age at graduation could have indicated a difference between traditional students and adult students who were in a different life stage, which may have affected relocation motivators (Silverman, Aliabadi, & Stiles, 2009). Receipt of the state scholarship program may have correlated with staying in state after graduation (HOPE Scholarship Joint Study Commission, 2010). Experiences of moving during childhood increased a person's willingness to relocate later in life (Florida, 2009). Any of these variables could have skewed the data; therefore, the demographic section accounted for these factors.

The demographic section also captured the participant's hometown for mapping the picture of young alumni migration. Additional questions asked whether the participant moved back to the hometown after college or planned to move back in the future, accounting for relocation permanence. Each item on the questionnaire referenced a specific finding in the research and was referenced as a correlation or confounding variable with the other items or demographic information. Most questions had continuous (Likert-type scale) or categorical (yes/no) response options.

Process of Data Collection

A private company called Campus Labs, formerly known as Student Voice, administered the survey questionnaire via email. Campus Labs is "the leading platform and service provider for assessment in higher education" (Campus Labs, 2012). Campus Labs worked with many departments at this institution and ensured the security of data, accessibility for users, data ownership for the researcher, and compliance with the Buckley Amendment protecting the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) (Campus Labs, 2012). Deleting the email address column from the downloaded report of data results stripped responses of personal identifiers. Each record's non-identifying responder ID provided confidentiality of individual data for aggregate reports of results.

As part of the research process, the researcher collaborated with the Alumni Association and Alumni Records to gain permission and access for disseminating the questionnaire via alumni email addresses on file. The institutional review board reviewed and approved the study (project number 2012-10555-0). Alumni received a link to the questionnaire via email, and Campus Labs securely collected the data, which the researcher could access online to compile and analyze during the data collection period.

Data Analysis

Because of the non-experimental nature of this study, the retrospective research data analysis employed statistical tests to examine the results (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The demographic data showed an overall representation, in raw numbers and percentages, of the descriptive characteristics of the respondents. Then, Pearson Product Moment Correlations (PPMC) examined the relationships between variables and

intersections of demographics. For example, the researcher isolated the correlation between state scholarship recipients and a positive response on returning to the hometown. Collectively, these results controlled for extraneous variables to produce descriptive data sets and inferential statistics regarding the population of young alumni.

RQ1. What is the correlation among relocation to the hometown after college and A) adult attachment patterns, B) job satisfaction, and C) quality of life?

Ferrans and Powers (1985) supplied instructions to calculate the QLI. In addition, Spector (1985) provided scoring instructions for the Job Satisfaction Survey. Likewise, Fraley's key (2011) informed the scoring for the ECR-RS. The Pearson correlation identified significance comparing scores of those who moved home and those who did not.

RQ2. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences of close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who returned to the hometown after college?

RQ3. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences of close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who report a high likelihood of anticipated *relocation to the hometown?*

For research questions two and three, the data analysis section again used the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient to detail some of the intersections of data that research question one explored. Demographic markers determined significance when compared with each of the scores. These descriptive statistics provided depth for understanding any patterns in the data.

Collectively, these specific perspectives on the data directly addressed the research questions and provided a picture of relocation patterns and influencing variables for recent graduates.

Limitations

Quantitative data analysis was limited in its ability to elicit new responses to the issue under study. All data referenced existing literature and responses were within the set parameters of the research design. Future qualitative research may uncover new reasons behind *why* the landscape appears the way it does, not just the descriptive qualities that quantitative data can provide. Although quantitative data does not provide the in-depth results like its counterpart, it provided the breadth needed to answer these research questions within the scope of this study.

Due to the expansive nature of the topic, this study did not explore the areas of relocation roadblocks or motivators based on socio-economic status, various forms of identity, family history, and the myriad of social justice issues present today.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the patterns of relocation among young alumni from a large, public research university. The researcher aimed to identify patterns in job satisfaction, quality of life, and experiences in close relationships with whether or not the participant lived close to the hometown after college. The research questions that framed this study were:

RQ1. What is the correlation among relocation to the hometown after college and A) adult attachment patterns, B) job satisfaction, and C) quality of life?

RQ2. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences in close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who returned to the hometown after college?

RQ3. Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult attachment patterns through relationship anxiety or avoidance), which characteristics commonly link graduates who report a high likelihood of anticipated *relocation to the hometown?*

This chapter outlines the data collection process and description of the sample.

Data Collection

The total population of Baccalaureate graduates from this state institution between the years 2007 and 2011 was 24,033. Campus Labs, the assessment company that administered the survey and collected the data, sent the invitation email, including the survey link, to the entire population. The email message appeared to come from the

researcher, who included her university email address in the "from" and "reply to" fields to reinforce confidence in the legitimacy of the message to the recipients. The researcher received 1,674 bounce back messages indicating undeliverable email addresses. Therefore, 22,359 people received the invitation to participate in this study. Among those who received the invitation, 2,532 (11.3%) clicked on the link to open the survey, but 827 of those did not complete the survey. After two weeks of data collection with one invitation email and one reminder email message to prompt participation, 1,709 completed data sets were collected at 7.6% response rate.

Respondents had the option to skip any questions at any time, and many of the 1,709 records had missing items. However, scoring for each scale accounted for missing values preserving the usefulness of those records. Respondents without a job, as indicated in the QLI survey in part one, did not receive the Job Satisfaction Survey. Of the 1,709 total participants, 1,506 completed the JSS, indicating that 203 participants were unemployed.

Demographics and Description of the Sample

Of the 1,706 respondents who gave their graduation year, 21.7% (371) graduated with the class of 2011, 22.6% (385) from the class of 2010, 17.7% (302) from the class of 2009, 18.0% (307) from the class of 2008, and 20.0% (341) from the class of 2007. This spread was relatively even so that each class year received fairly even representation. Age, however, received very uneven representation with 94.8% (1620) in the range of 18-25 years old at graduation. Only 5.2% (89) of respondents were age 26 or older at the time of graduation, marking the small population of non-traditional or adult learners at this campus. Non-white students also made up a minority, 12.3% (21), of the

predominant population in the study, which identified as 87.7% (1499) White/Caucasian. Nearly twice as many women, 64.4% (1094), as men, 35.6% (604), completed the survey. See Table 1.

The areas of study also varied by college with 34.5% (588) respondents from arts and sciences, 25.4% (433) respondents from the business school, and fewer than 10% from each of the other major disciplines on campus – journalism and communications 10% (170); agriculture, ecology, engineering, and forestry 7.2% (122); public health, public and international affairs 8.7% (148); education and social work 7.1% (121); family and consumer science 7.1% (120). See Table 1.

The participants who indicated a hometown in the state of Georgia made up 83.4% (1426) of the study while the other 16.6% (233) identified a hometown in another state or country. At some point during college, 85.5% (1453) of respondents utilized the state scholarship program. Ten participants did not respond to the question about the scholarship, and 14.4% (246) responded that they did not receive it at any time.

When asked about their experience of relocation over their lifetime, 57.8% (987) indicated that they did not move much during childhood and that college marked a major relocation experience for them. If they moved or changed schools as a child, 28.7% (489) considered their relocation experiences to be average and about the same as other people. Only 13.2% (225) moved frequently, such as military or foster families, or far, such as an international or cultural move. In their first year after college, 41.7% (709) lived in or near their hometown and 58.3% (992) did not for at least six of the twelve months after graduation. Fewer graduates, 57.9% (990), live in the state of Georgia in

2012 than they did after graduation. Out of state and out of country residents comprised 42.1% (719) of the population in 2012. See Table 1.

Alumni appeared split evenly about the likelihood that they would live near their hometown in the future. The most popular responses were 22.1% (376) "disagree very much" and 22.6% (384) "agree very much." The middle responses reported were 15.2% (259) "disagree moderately," 8.9% (152) "disagree slightly," 15.0% (257) "agree slightly," and 15.9% (272) "agree moderately." See Table 1.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variable		Size (n)	Percent
Graduation Year			
	2011	371	21.7
	2010	385	22.6
	2009	302	17.7
	2008	307	18.0
	2007	341	20.0
Age at Graduation			
	25 and Under	1620	94.8
	Over 25	89	5.2
Racial Identity			
	White/Caucasian	1499	87.7
	Not White/Caucasian	21	12.3
College of Study			
	Arts & Sciences	588	34.5
	Business	433	25.4
	Journalism	170	10.0

	Agriculture, Ecology, Engineering, Forestry	122	7.2
	Public Health & Int'l Affairs	148	8.7
	Education & Social Work	121	7.1
	Family & Consumer Science	120	7.1
Hometown			
	In Georgia	1426	83.4
	Outside Georgia	233	16.6
State Scholarship			
	Recipient	1453	85.5
	Non-Recipient	246	14.4
Current Residence			
	In Georgia	990	57.9
	Outside Georgia	719	42.1
First Year After College			
	Lived Near Hometown	709	41.7
	Did Not Live Near Hometown	992	58.3
Relocation Experiences in Childhood			
	Not Much	987	57.8
	Average	489	28.7
	Many	225	13.2
Plan to Live Near Hometown In Future			
	Disagree Very Much	376	22.1
	Disagree Moderately	259	15.2
	Disagree Slightly	152	8.9
	Agree Slightly	257	15.0
	Agree Moderately	272	15.9
	Agree Very Much	384	22.6

Analysis of Scales

Scales from three instruments, either components or complete versions, comprised the YALSS instrument used in this study (See Appendix B). This section explains the scoring for each of these three parts.

QLI

The Quality of Life Index (QLI) in its complete form is comprised of four subscales (Ferrans & Powers, 1985). This study used the social and economic subscale and the family subscale. The participants first rated their satisfaction with each of 12 items using one of seven responses: very unsatisfied, moderately unsatisfied, slightly unsatisfied, slightly satisfied, moderately satisfied, and not applicable. Next, they rated the importance of the same 12 items using the same scale adjusted for importance level. Microsoft Excel was used to score the results using a formula provided by Ferrans and Powers (1985), which produced weighted scores that eliminated bias due to missing data. The possible range for final scores was 0-30 with the low end of the scale representing low quality of life and the high end of the scale representing high quality of life. See Table 2.

ECR-RS

The Experiences in Close Relationships – Relationship Structures (ECR-RS) is a nine item shortened version of the complete 36-item ECR (Fraley, et. al, 2011). The YALSS instrument administered the ECR-RS as part two. The first six items produced a score for anxiety in relationships. The last three items produced a score for avoidance in relationships. For the purpose of this study, the average of the two scores produced an ECR-RS score ranging from one through six with the low end of the scale representing

low levels of anxiety and avoidance. The high end of the scale represented higher levels of anxiety and avoidance. See Table 2.

JSS

The YALSS instrument administered the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), a 36-item questionnaire, in its entirety as part three. Spector's (1985) instructions to reverse score the data created averages for a JSS score ranging from lowest satisfaction at one and highest satisfaction at six. See Table 2.

Table 2
Frequency Responses for Scales

	(QLI) Quality of Life	(ECR-RS) Experience of Close Relationships	(JSS) Job Satisfaction
N valid	1707	1708	1508
N missing	2	1	201
Mean	23.72	3.03	4.22
Median	24.36	3.00	4.30
Mode	*	3	4
Std. Deviation	3.809	0.961	0.855
Variance	14.506	0.923	0.731
Range	23	5	5
Minimum	7	1	1
Maximum	30	6	6

* multiple modes exist

Data Results

Research Question One

What is the correlation among relocation to the hometown after college and A) adult attachment patterns, B) job satisfaction, and C) quality of life?

The data showed no significant correlation between relocation to the hometown after college and any of the three scales under review. The Pearson correlation with QLI

(quality of life index) was *r* (1699) = 0.025 with significance level at *p*=0.296. The Pearson correlation with ECR-RS (experiences of close relationships – relationship structure) was *r* (1700) =0.000 with significance level at *p*=0.995. The Pearson correlation with JSS (job satisfaction survey) was *r* (1501) =0.023 with significance level at *p*=0.363.

Research Question Two

Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult experiences in close relationships), which characteristics commonly link graduates who returned to the hometown after college?

As determined by the results of RQ1, the QLI, ECR-RS, and JSS scales did not link graduates who returned to the hometown after college. However, this population did share some demographic characteristics. See Table 3.

Table 3
Correlations with Living Near the Hometown After College

	PPMC= r	Sig.*
State Scholarship	0.080	0.001
Relocation in Childhood	0.093	0.000
Hometown State	0.135	0.000
Current State	-0.396	0.000
Future in Hometown	0.277	0.000

* p > . 01 (2-tailed)

Graduates who returned to the hometown after college were significantly likely to have received the Georgia state scholarship incentive for college as indicated by *r* (1691) = 0.080 at 0.001 significance. Because Georgia state residents are eligible for the scholarship program, the correlation with their hometown state being Georgia was also very high at *r*(1701) = 0.135, p=0.000. Those who did not relocate much through their

childhood were also likely to return to the hometown after college with *r* (1693) = 0.093, p=0.000. Conversely, those who did relocate far or frequently were least likely to live in or near their hometown after college. The negative correlation of *r* (1693) = -0.396 with current state shows an indirect relationship between moving home after college and currently living in Georgia, significant at 0.000. Again at 0.000 significance level, most graduates who lived in or near their hometown during most of their first year after college were not living in Georgia in 2012 from *r*(1701) =0.277. Finally, their plans to live in or near their hometown in the future were significantly linked to whether they lived in or near their hometown after college, as evidenced by *r* (1693) = -0.396, *p*=0.000. Those who did live in the hometown after college agreed most with the likelihood of living in the hometown in the future. Those who disagreed most with living in the hometown in the future did not live in the hometown after college.

Research Question Three

Among the variables studied here (demographics, job satisfaction, quality of life, adult attachment patterns through relationship anxiety or avoidance), which characteristics commonly link graduates who report a high likelihood of anticipated *relocation to the hometown?*

As discovered in research question 2, correlations existed among the demographics of state scholarship participation (r = -0.055, p = 0.024), relocation in childhood (r = -0.134, p=0.024), the hometown state in Georgia (r= -0.137, p= 0.000), living in or near the hometown after college (r= -0.396, p=0.000), and the current state or residence (r= -0.272, p=0.000). Those areas are shaded in Table 4. The direction of those relationships is similar to the results found in research question two. Graduates who agreed strongly

with plans to live in the hometown in the future were also more likely to have received the state scholarship, have a hometown in Georgia, have lived in the hometown after college, have not moved much through childhood, and to be currently living in the state of Georgia.

Table 4
Correlations with Plan to Live Near Hometown in the Future

	PPMC = r	Significance
Age	-0.51	0.036
State Scholarship	-0.055	0.024
Relocation in Childhood	-0.134	0.000
Hometown State	-0.137	0.000
Hometown After College	-0.396	0.000
Current State	-0.272	0.000
QLI	0.070	0.004
ECR-RS	-0.062	0.011

** p > . 01 (2-tailed)
* p > . 05 (2-tailed)

Three additional variables of significance correlated with plans to live in the hometown in the future – age and scores on the QLI (quality of life index) and ECR-RS (experience of close relationships). Traditional college students who graduated by the age of 25 were more likely to agree with planning to live near the hometown in the future ($r = -.051$, $p = 0.036$). Graduates who reported a high quality of life (QLI score) were also more likely to have plans in the hometown in the future ($r = 0.070$, $p = 0.004$). Graduates with high levels of anxiety and avoidance in close relationships as determined by high scores on the ECR-RS were least likely to agree with plans to live near the hometown in the future ($r = -0.062$, $p = 0.011$). Conversely, graduates with healthy

experiences of close relationships and low levels of anxiety and avoidance in close relationships were most likely to agree with plans to live near the hometown in the future.

Additional Findings

The exploratory nature of this non-experimental study also allowed for the discovery of additional correlations in the variables under review. Beyond the specific data related to the research questions, the following variables also had a significant correlation with scores on the scales.

Scale Findings

The QLI (quality of life index), ECR-RS (experiences of close relationships), and JSS (job satisfaction survey) scales showed significant correlations with some demographic items. See Table 5.

Table 5
Correlations Among Scales and Demographics

	(QLI) Quality of Life	(ECR-RS) Experience of Close Relationships	(JSS) Job Satisfaction
Grad Year	0.067**	-	-0.077**
Age	-0.078**	-	-
Hometown in Future	0.070**	-0.062*	-
Current State	0.091**	-	0.061*
Gender	-	-0.126**	-0.054*
Race	-0.132**	0.100**	-0.070**

** p > . 01 (2-tailed)
* p > . 05 (2-tailed)
- not significant

Correlations with moving to the hometown in the future, shaded in Table 5, were addressed by research question three and discussed in that section. Additionally, QLI (quality of life index) scores significantly correlated with graduation year, age at graduation, current state of residence, gender and race. Graduates from earlier years in

the survey (2007 and 2008) reported higher quality of life than reported by recent graduates from 2010 and 2011 ($r = 0.067$, $p > .01$). Traditional graduates at age 25 and younger reported higher quality of life than adult learners who graduated over the age of 25 ($r = 0.078$, $p > .01$). Graduates who lived outside the state of Georgia in 2012 reported higher quality of life scores than those who lived in Georgia ($r = 0.091$, $p > .01$). Graduates who did not racially identify as White or Caucasian reported higher quality of life ($r = 0.132$, $p > .01$).

Beyond the correlation with plans to live in the hometown in the future, the ECR-RS (experiences in close relationships) scale correlated also with gender and race. Men ($r = 0.126$, $p > .01$) and non-white/non-Caucasian ($r = 0.100$, $p > .01$) respondents were more likely to experience anxiety and avoidance in close relationships. Women ($r = -0.054$, $p > .05$) and non-white/non-Caucasian ($r = 0.070$, $p > .01$) were more likely to report high job satisfaction. Like quality of life, job satisfaction also correlated with living outside of Georgia in 2012 ($r = 0.061$, $p > .05$). Also like quality of life, job satisfaction was higher for earlier graduates (2007 and 2008) than more recent graduates from the classes of 2010 and 2011 ($r = 0.077$, $p > .01$).

Demographic Findings

Table six shows additional significant correlations based on demographic responses alone. Of notable mention in Table 6 is the significant correlation of recent graduates (2010 and 2011) to have a hometown in Georgia ($r = 0.071$, $p > .01$) and to reside in Georgia in 2012 ($r = 0.094$, $p > .01$). The data reinforced literature about the shared characteristics among those who did not move much in childhood (Florida, 2009). Fewer experiences of moving correlated with living in the hometown after college ($r =$

0.093, p>.01), planning to live in the hometown in the future (r = -0.134, p>.01), and presently residing in the state of Georgia (r = 0.095, p>.01).

Table 6
Demographic Correlations

	Grad Year	Age	College	State Scholarship	Relocation in Childhood	Hometown State	Hometown After College	Hometown in Future	Current State	Gender	Race
Grad Year	-	-	-	-	-	0.071**	-	-	0.094**	-	-0.102**
Age	-	-	-	0.113**	0.051*	0.101**	-	-0.051*	-	-0.049*	-
College	-	-	-	-	0.053*	-	-	-	-	-0.078**	0.049*
State Scholarship	0.55*	0.113**	-	-	-0.073**	0.752**	0.080**	-0.055*	0.218**	-	-
Relocation in Childhood	-	0.051*	0.053*	-0.073**	-	-	0.093**	-0.134**	0.095**	-	0.102**
Hometown State	0.071**	0.101**	-	0.752**	-	-	0.135**	-0.137**	0.226**	-	-
Hometown After College	-	-	-	0.080**	0.093**	0.135**	-	-0.396**	0.277**	-	-
Hometown in Future	-	-0.051*	-	-0.055*	-0.0134**	-0.137**	-0.396**	-	-0.272**	-	-
Current State	0.094**	-	-	0.218**	0.095**	0.226**	0.277**	-.0272**	-	-	-
Gender	-	-0.049*	-0.078**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Race	-0.102**	-	0.049*	-	0.102**	-	-	-	-	-	-

** p > . 01 (2-tailed)
* p > . 05 (2-tailed)
- not significant

Location Findings

Three open-response questions collected qualitative data related to hometown, current town, and the relocation motivation after college. ARC-GIS software mapped the hometowns of participants. See Figure 1. To represent migration visually, Figure 1 contrasts with Figure 2, which shows the current place of residence for participants in 2012. The dot for each state is proportional to the data.

Figure 1

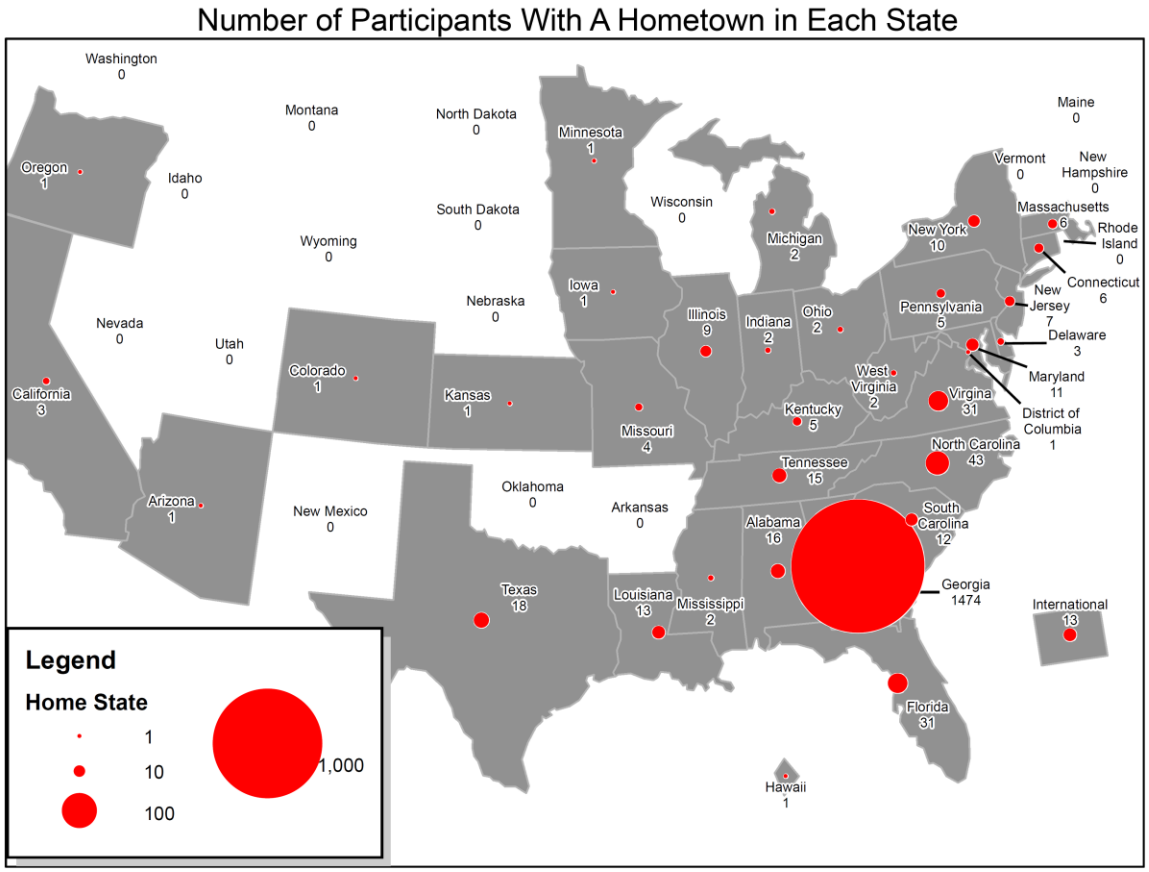
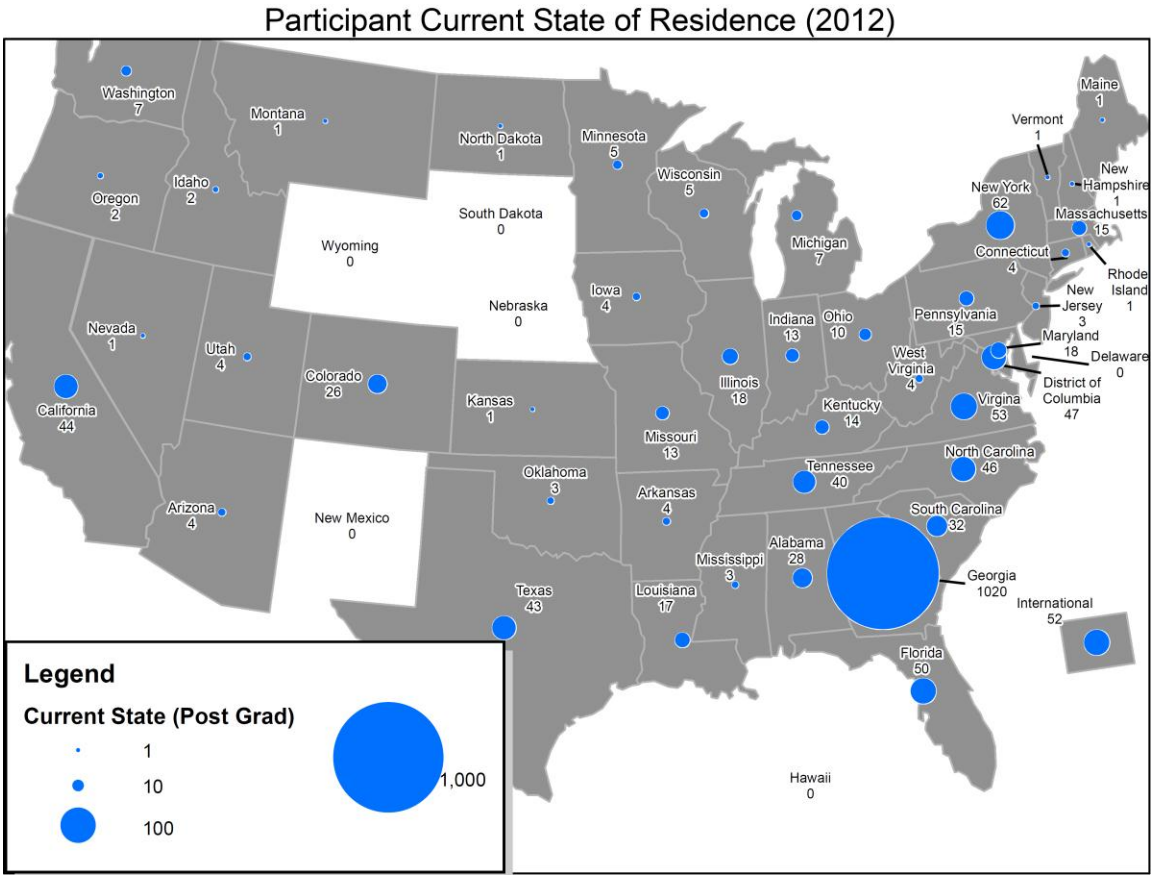

Number of Participants With A Hometown in Each State
Washington 0
Oregon 1
Idaho 0
Montana 0
North Dakota 0
Minnesota 1
Maine 0
Vermont 0
New Hampshire 0
Massachusetts 6
Rhode Island 0
Connecticut 6
New Jersey 7
Delaware 3
Maryland 11
District of Columbia 1
Virgina 31
North Carolina 43
South Carolina 12
Georgia 1474
Florida 31
Alabama 16
Louisiana 13
Mississippi 2
Tennessee 15
Kentucky 5
West Virginia 2
Pennsylvania 5
New York 10
Wisconsin 0
Michigan 2
Illinois 9
Indiana 2
Ohio 2
Iowa 1
South Dakota 0
Wyoming 0
Nebraska 0
Nevada 0
Utah 0
Colorado 1
Kansas 1
Missouri 4
Oklahoma 0
Arkansas 0
Texas 18
New Mexico 0
Arizona 1
California 3
International 13
Hawaii 1
Legend
Home State
1
10
100
1,000

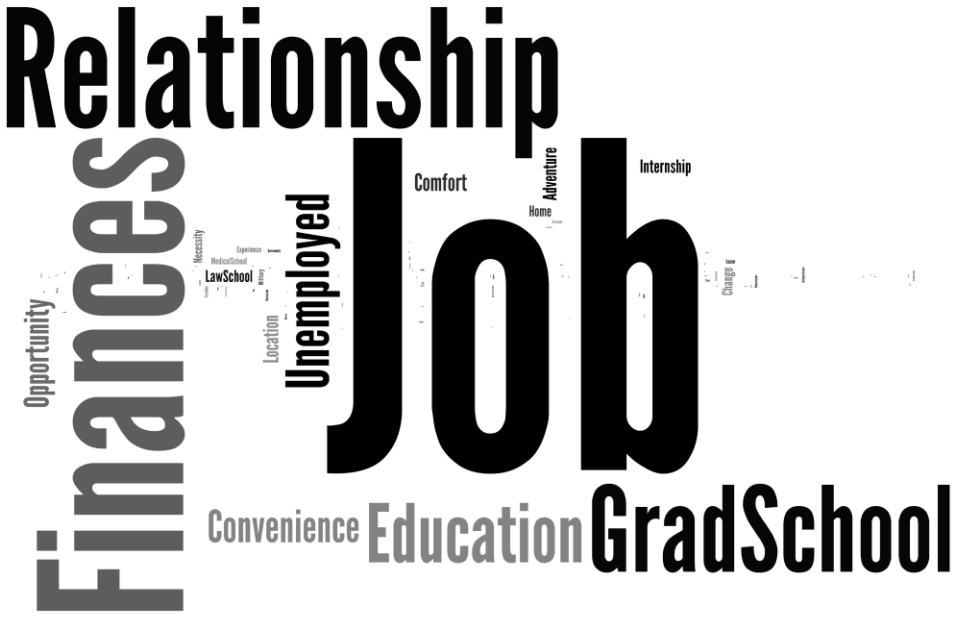
Figure 2



Finally, one survey question asked participants to type one word that explained their reason for living where they lived during the majority of their first year after college. The researcher coded these responses for consistency. For example, the coded response of "finances" included responses such as "financial" and "finances." Responses including "husband, wife, boyfriend, girlfriend, marriage" and "partner" were each coded as "relationship." A word cloud program available on the Internet at www.wordle.net used the coded responses to create a visual representation of the results. Higher frequency responses appear proportionately larger in the word cloud. See Figure 3.

Figure 3

Reason for Moving After College



The results clearly indicated that job, finances, relationship, and continued education or graduate school rated as the strongest motivators and most popular reasons for college graduates' choices about where they lived during their first year after college. The most popular words included adventure, boyfriend, career, change, convenience, education, employment, family, finances, free, friends, graduate school, home, internship, job, jobless, law school, location, marriage, money, opportunity, parents, save, school, unemployed, and work.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the quantitative survey, which addressed the research questions of this study. The chapter began with descriptive statistics about

the population that completed the questionnaire, which represented the population from this public institution. Nearly 95% were traditional students who graduated by the age of 25. Nearly 88% identified racially as white/Caucasian. Women outnumbered men 2:1. Class years received even representation with roughly one fifth of respondents from each class of 2007 through 2011.

Choice of major, represented in this study by academic college, did not have many significant correlations. The largest college on campus is arts and sciences, which represented more than one third of respondents. Next largest was the college of business which had 25% representation. Each of the other colleges had less than 10% representation each. Race and gender appeared to be the only significant correlations with more white/Caucasian graduates from the agriculture, engineering, forestry, and education colleges. Women were underrepresented in the business college.

The majority of respondents claimed a hometown in Georgia and took advantage of the state scholarship program. More than half of them did not move much through childhood and may still have parents at the same home in which they grew up. Less than half, roughly 41%, moved back to the hometown after college. The rate of people who lived in Georgia dropped from 83% before college to 57% in 2012. The geographic maps showed a dispersion of graduates across the United States. Despite that change, a significant proportion of people liked to remain in familiar territory. If they lived in or near the hometown after college, they agreed strongly with plans to live in the hometown in the future.

In response to the research questions, the scales for quality of life, experiences in close relationships, and job satisfaction did not correlate significantly with whether a

person lived near the hometown after college. Only demographic factors demonstrated significance among graduates who lived in or near the hometown after college, but even those correlations proved weak. Those who lived near the hometown were most likely to have a hometown in Georgia, currently live in Georgia with plans to live in or near the hometown in the future, to have received the state scholarship, and not to have moved much through their childhood. The same factors hold true among those who plan to live near the hometown in the future, in addition to a significant correlations with younger age, close experiences of relationships, and higher quality of life scores. One notable correlation in the additional findings is the correlation between those who lived out of Georgia in 2012 and report a high quality of life and high job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the findings of this study and identifies limitations as well as implications for practice. The researcher also provides recommendations for future research from this exploratory study.

Summary of Study

This study examined the relocation patterns of young alumni from a large, public, research extensive, state institution within five years of their college graduation. Under review among those relocation patterns were the connected factors among graduates who moved near their hometown after college or who planned to live near their hometown in the future. Existing literature addressed related concepts such as corporate relocation or moving for money, but did not include the lens of relationship in the relocation decisions of college graduates (Jennings, Werbel, & Power, 2003; Matthiesen & Tissington, 2008). Niche research promoted understanding about small segments of the relocating population, but the narrow interests and concerns of one sub-set of the population did not unveil the whole picture (Smith, 2009). This study layered theories of student development and career, transition, relational culture, and place attachment research to provide a lens for the role of relationship in career decisions and relocation after college.

The researcher administered the YALSS survey instrument to all graduates from the previous five years via an email link through Campus Labs, the assessment company that collected the data for this study (See Appendix C). The YALSS instrument included 81 items in four sections, one sub-scale for quality of life, one sub-scale for experiences

of close relationships, one sub-scale for job satisfaction, and a final section with demographic items (See Appendix B). Data collected over a two-week period resulted in 1,709 completed records for analysis. Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficients identified correlations among the scales and demographic items.

Hometown Happiness Myth

Literature reflects the role of relationship as a critical influence in career decision-making for college graduates (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Schlossberg, 1981). To approximate the importance of relationship, in lieu of an existing scale for that purpose, the YALSS instrument combined three existing scales. The quality of life index measured quality of life, specifically using subscales regarding family and social/economic questions that indicated quality of life due to relationships. The experiences of close relationships scale measured levels of anxiety and avoidance in close relationships to distinguish healthy experiences of relationship from unhealthy ones. Low scores on this scale indicated healthy relationships, while high scores designated high levels of anxiety and avoidance in relationships. The job satisfaction survey measured job satisfaction on nine dimensions, and one average score reported overall satisfaction. Together, these three scales represented the role of relationship when compared with other factors.

The findings revealed no significant correlations for research question one, which explored the connection between living in the hometown after college and relationship, job, or life satisfaction. Neither living near the hometown after college, nor not living near the hometown after college, significantly correlated with young alumni experiences of close relationships, job satisfaction, or quality of life. From a practical perspective,

this data may reassure graduates who struggle to choose between the hometown and somewhere else when making career decisions for themselves and their futures. In the scope of this research, their decision did not determine quality of life, the closeness of their relationships, or job satisfaction.

Place attachment theory explained that these young alumni would have relationship attachments to the hometown and to the college town (Scopelliti & Tiberio, 2010). Given that framework, the researcher expected that alumni who returned to their hometown and place of relationship attachments would report comparatively higher levels of job, relationship, and life satisfaction. However, these results did not show that correlation. This study assumed that the hometown did in fact serve as a place for relationship attachment. It may have been possible that recent graduates used technology to take their relationships with them, lessening the connection to physical place. College students have been able to maintain relationships and interpersonal support through virtual connectivity to their communities of interest. Technology tools like social media and personal computers or mobile phones provide multiple ways to connect instantly with others using text, voice, or video. The reasons behind changes in hometown place attachment, whether they were generational or technological, present opportunity for continued research.

Georgia Boys and Georgia Girls

Female students at this institution commonly display bumper stickers and vanity license plates that proudly boast "Georgia Girl," and young men who have family lineage in the region are many times referred to as a "Georgia Boy." The meaning of these terms often goes deeper than declaring a connection with the university. These nicknames

designate students who grew up in the state and share a long-standing history with their hometowns. Research questions two and three isolated the variables representing those who lived near their hometowns after college and those reporting a high anticipation of living near their hometowns in the future, respectively. These Georgia boys and Georgia girls with a hometown in Georgia did not move throughout their childhood and attended college on the state scholarship, likely living near the hometown after college and planning to live near the hometown in the future. Traditional students who graduated by the age of twenty-five especially exhibited the behavior of continuing to live in Georgia, indicated by a significant correlation not due to chance. These data reinforced the Pew Research Center's study on Millennials, specifically the tendency of younger generations to stay close to home and foster close relationships with family (Taylor & Keeter, 2010).

While college graduates nationwide had a reputation for unwillingness to relocate, Georgia gained attention for its stalwarts. The state's flagship institution classified nearly 29,000 students as Georgia state residents in 2010 (See Appendix C). Fewer than 6,000 came from other states and countries (Allen, 2010, p. 26). The Pew Research Study (Taylor & Keeter, 2010) reported that high school students in the Southeast were more likely to attend a college within fifty miles of home, which was a higher geographic clustering rate than for any other students in the nation. Students raised in Georgia tended to stay in Georgia for college. A state-sponsored scholarship program may have been largely responsible for the trend. The state lottery program funded college tuition scholarships for state residents who demonstrated academic achievement during high school with grades above a "B" average. The legislation aimed to keep bright students in state for higher education and subsequently contribute to the brain trust of the local

economy after college (HOPE Scholarship Joint Study Commission, 2010). The program may have worked. Eighty-three percent of arriving students at the state's flagship institution met the conditions for in-state status (Allen, 2010, p. 64). Among nearly 265,000 living alumni from the state's flagship university, more than half resided in the state of Georgia during 2011 (Allen, 2010). The scholarship presented a factor with the potential to influence significantly the data about personal motivators for relocation.

Discussion of Findings

The scholarship program raises many possibilities for discussion because of the influence it may have on high school students from the state of Georgia to attend a college in Georgia. The scholarship provides tuition funding for students who may not otherwise pursue higher education. However, although the scholarship provides access to education, students could continue to struggle with limited economic resources and even increasing debt from college living expenses. Unless a new graduate secures employment with high earnings and expense reimbursement to bridge the gap for relocation, their financial constraints may limit their options to returning home or somewhere familiar within the safety net of accessible resources. The scholarship may keep graduates in the state of Georgia at the expense of limiting the student's career potential.

Study abroad, internships, and exposure to new experiences contribute to a student's personal development and career exploration. This study did not include these variables, which might show more patterns in the data separating graduates who relocated and those who stayed near the hometown. At this institution, nearly twenty-five percent

of students participated in study abroad. Future research could look for correlations among relocation choices and study abroad experiences in college.

Relocation may also begin on a small scale at the local level through college internships. Internships provide introductions to careers and serve as proving grounds for job candidates because employers frequently hire interns for full time professional positions after graduation. Students with access to local internships may subsequently accept job offers from those local employers. From the employer's perspective, many Georgia companies may also participate in exclusive hiring practices with preference for local candidates. It is possible that hiring organizations do not have a culture of attention to transition, orientation, onboarding, and intentional diversification of the work force.

In contrast, some industries have a culture of relocation. For example, military personnel recognize that the government will station them in multiple various locations throughout their career. Corporate relocation research gained prominence because many industries shared a culture of relocation with similar expectations. This study did not collect information about industry, which could receive attention in future research. Similarly, working professionals at different pay grades may face relocation opportunities on a different scale. Corporate leadership and high-level positions may involve long durations in one location or require relocation for career growth. The entry-level opportunities that young alumni receive may also fit into patterns based on salary.

Additional Findings

Beyond the scope of the research questions in this study, the data provided insight to additional correlations for further investigation. Notable among the significant correlations, graduates who lived outside of Georgia in 2012 reported a high quality of

life and high job satisfaction. Since the majority of participants in this study were originally from Georgia, these happy people out of state have likely relocated since they graduated in Georgia. Florida (2009) advocated that creative communities draw like-minded people together, and that aligning with the right city would dramatically improve the quality of life for the people in that cluster. In support of that research, these data could indicate the job and life satisfaction of graduates who relocated and found their city match. It is also possible that other factors not studied in this report influenced the young alumni decisions to relocate. For example, self-efficacy in the job search correlates to higher job satisfaction, and the people who moved out of state may have more confidence in themselves and their ability to secure good employment. Patterns of immigration also show the development of pipelines when one person ventures to a new location and their family and friends follow thereafter. Young alumni who relocate may set trends among the people they influence and experience higher quality of life by helping others achieve their goals. With so many variables to consider, the findings in this study raise more questions than answers and add to recommendations for future research.

Implications for Practice

This study illuminated the patterns of relocation among alumni from one institution. Other academic institutions can learn from these data for academic and student development work on their campus. Academic advisors and career counselors should convey the findings from this report in their advice to students. The choice of college major did not significantly affect alumni relationship, job, or life satisfaction. The choice about whether to move home after college or try somewhere new also had no significant connection to relationship, job, or life satisfaction. Faculty, advisors, and

counselors could provide students with diverse exposure to majors as well as careers after college. They could reassure students that fears about moving away may not carry the consequences they think. Students can make relocation choices that are best for them, independent of perceived job and life satisfaction.

Institutions should use this data in conjunction with their mission and goals. This institution was in a state that had passed legislation for a scholarship with the purpose of keeping graduates in state. Consequently, the data showed correlations that might not exist in populations from other states. College admissions offices typically track the number of students recruited from regional high schools and from out of state. If the institution's goal is to keep graduates in state, the admissions office should also collect data about how frequently that student moved throughout life. In-state students who did not move much in childhood were the most likely to stay in state after college.

Other institutions may have specific goals to serve adult learners or underrepresented populations, and these data provided insight for those correlations as well. Gender and race carried significant correlations with other data, which indicated that social justice considerations remain major influences. Institutions must continue to attend to variables not studied here that affect equity and access for all students. This data revealed largely homogenous populations at this institution. Without making assumptions about those populations, colleges and universities can address their common experiences and present exposure to new learning opportunities through curriculum and programming on campus. Presenting a wider view of learning through exposure to new ideas and new experiences enhances student development, which is a major goal in most academic environments.

Institutions could also use this data to prepare new graduates for the career choices they will face in the labor market. Career success with many companies requires openness to corporate relocation. From a recruiter's perspective, this openness to relocation is also especially important for college graduates seeking their first career move after college. Employers want the best candidates with the expectation that the company can relocate them to meet the organization's needs. Graduates have the education and skills to gain employment through relocation (Smith, 2009), but are opting in some cases not to move. Despite challenges in securing good employment, some graduates abandon the job search or fail to extend their search parameters beyond the community that is familiar and comfortable to them—either "home" or the college town. Student affairs professionals can challenge students with this data that revealed the correlation between living out of state and positive job or life satisfaction.

Sanford's student affairs principle of "challenge and support" relied on the practitioner's effort to meet students where they are (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). More specifically, 'meeting them where they are' means to challenge their current level of understanding or their current stage of development with one step forward in growth. Understanding where students came from - psychologically, developmentally, culturally, and even geographically - allows faculty and student affairs professionals to create the best learning experiences for students. This study contributed to the understanding of where students came from at this institution and provided information from which educators and administrators can create meaningful experiences.

Limitations of Study

The study's inherent limitations are in its design. Non-experimental research design is not optimal to understand cause and effect relationships (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). This study sought to understand the present-day picture of young alumni in the context of relocation choices, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and relationships. By looking first for only significant correlations among many variables, the assessment limits the study's opportunity to examine *how* sub-groups differ in their relocation decisions. This exploratory study resulted in descriptive data to direct and guide future research on the topic of relocation and relationship.

Through the trial and effort of designing and conducting this research, the researcher also discovered changes to make for similar future research or replication of this study. Consultation with statistical analysis experts would lead to a redesign of the questionnaire for consistent response scales. Depending on the data analysis, response items could be continuous with at least seven responses for more granular data analysis. Categorical data would have fewer than nine response options for analysis using statistical software like SAS or SPSS, in which statisticians typically reserve the numeral nine to represent missing data. This data set may also benefit from analysis using Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient for non-linear relationships. The Pearson Product Moment Coefficient is most appropriate for correlations among linear relationships, not categorically ranked information.

Time was an additional limitation during the data collection period. The survey was available for response during a two-week window. The survey population was also limited to graduates from one institution. This population may not necessarily generalize

to other schools or other regions because of unique characteristics of students who attend this state school, such as scholarship eligibility.

Recommendations for Future Research

The nature of this study provides a host of opportunities for continued and further research. A broad array of social justice considerations - such as socioeconomic class, religion, sexual orientation, gender expression, or health, for examples - would provide valuable insight for the next step of research. Using any one of those considerations as a variable, the following recommendations open up additional avenues to explore this topic.

- Contrast the career and relocation decisions of multiple groups in an experimental study.
- Inquire about how many times someone has moved, at what ages, and tie together the developmental stage of that experience with the ability to form close relationships as adults.
- Study students from other states and regions to determine if the experience of moving or staying in the hometown is similar to the results from this study.
- Examine the dimension of study abroad experiences to see if a temporary experience in another culture or country influences the openness to relocation.
- Dig deeper into understanding job satisfaction. If so many students move for jobs or are so happy with jobs that they choose to move for, look for correlation among those factors to the jobs that are available in state.
- Conduct a long-term study to look at the shifting patterns of relocation as related to history through economic, social, and political factors.

- While this data analysis raised questions for follow up, the stories *behind* the findings will provide a more comprehensive picture as part of a future qualitative study.

Conclusion

This large-scale study included five years of recent graduates from a state flagship university and produced decidedly conclusive results. Living at home after college did not show significant correlation with relationship, job, or life satisfaction. Literature endorsed the heavily influential role of relationship in career decisions and transitions, but those relationships did not appear to hinge on living near the hometown. Factors that presented the strongest correlations came from demographic elements such as age at graduation, race, gender, and even relocation experiences throughout childhood. These demographic variables fit into the niche research lenses of social justice considerations and must have continued examination to understand the comprehensive picture and unique characteristics of student populations. Based on these findings, academic institutions could collect information about the relocation experiences of students to support institutional diversity and enhance the admissions process, academic and career advising, and even post-graduate alumni affairs. Future research would benefit from a qualitative study to examine the reasons why people moved.

Young alumni from Georgia tend to stay in Georgia. Though the state's flagship institution may offer unparalleled opportunities to study a variety of subjects, not all learning takes place in the classroom among lectures and textbooks. Student development occurs through new experiences by exposure to a variety of ideas, people, and situations. While universities commonly bring together this diversity for a rich

learning environment, graduates in this study exhibited reduced mobility in comparison with graduates from schools in other parts of the country. University faculty and administrators should question how the limited experiences of these students may hinder future personal growth and career potential. These inquiries should also lead to intentional student programming that fills the gap on campuses with a largely homogenous population. Education fundamentally changes a person by transforming thoughts through knowledge, subsequently affecting behavior. Educators have a strong role in that transformation by way of the learning opportunities they create for students who stay in state. It is imperative that the college experience exposes students to a broad array of diverse experiences beyond academics. Theory has shown that education changes students as individuals. This study reveals the power within that transformative education as these individuals go on to shape the workforce and communities in Georgia.

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APPENDIX A

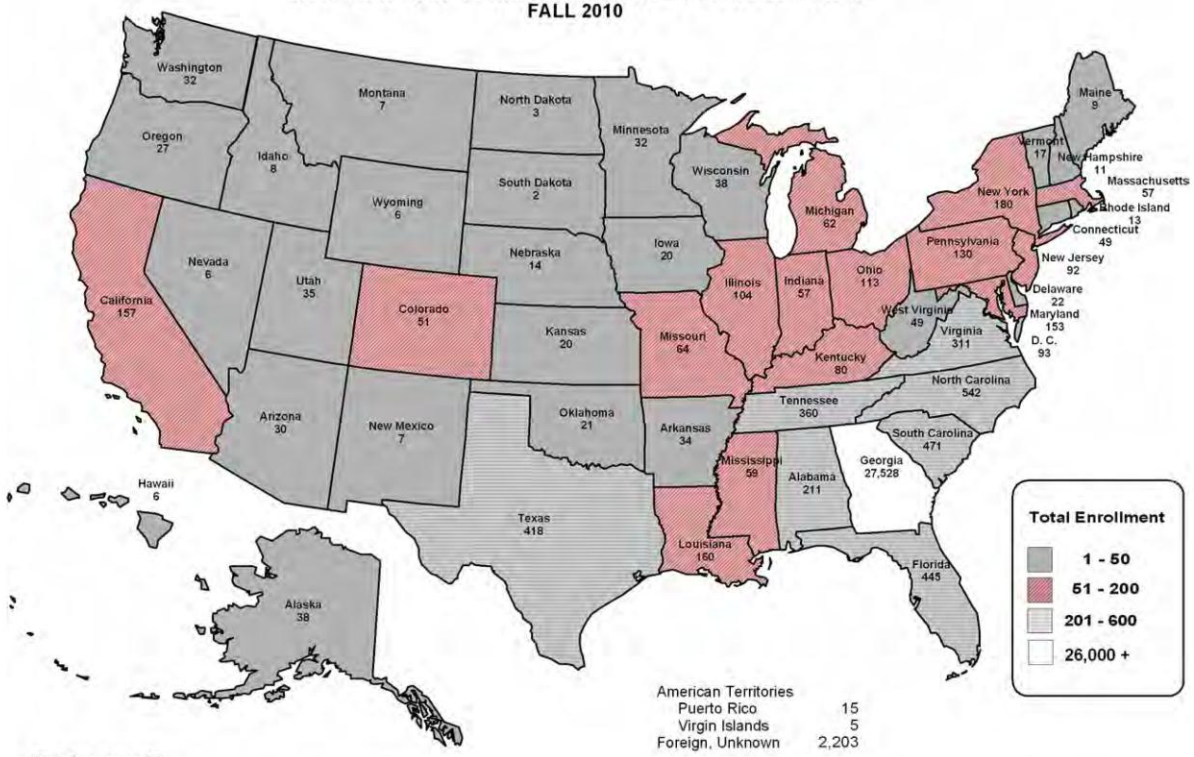
ENROLLMENT BY STATE OF ORIGIN AND UGA STUDENT LEVEL
FALL 2010

State	Under-graduate	Grad/ Prof	Total	State	Under-graduate	Grad/ Prof	Total
Alabama	122	89	211	New Hampshire	4	7	11
Alaska	6	32	38	New Jersey	48	44	92
Arizona	6	24	30	New Mexico		7	7
Arkansas	10	24	34	New York	56	124	180
California	56	101	157	North Carolina	330	212	542
Colorado	16	35	51	North Dakota		3	3
Connecticut	28	21	49	Ohio	46	67	113
Delaware	8	14	22	Oklahoma	9	12	21
District of Columbia	75	18	93	Oregon	8	19	27
Florida	227	218	445	Pennsylvania	51	79	130
Georgia	22,447	5,081	27,528	Rhode Island	6	7	13
Hawaii	1	5	6	South Carolina	203	268	471
Idaho		8	8	South Dakota	1	1	2
Illinois	43	61	104	Tennessee	235	125	360
Indiana	17	40	57	Texas	325	93	418
Iowa	2	18	20	Utah	7	28	35
Kansas	7	13	20	Vermont	5	12	17
Kentucky	48	32	80	Virginia	191	120	311
Louisiana	110	50	160	Washington	6	26	32
Maine	2	7	9	West Virginia	6	43	49
Maryland	95	58	153	Wisconsin	7	31	38
Massachusetts	24	33	57	Wyoming		6	6
Michigan	13	49	62				
Minnesota	12	20	32	American Territories			
Mississippi	18	41	59	Puerto Rico	5	10	15
Missouri	27	37	64	Virgin Islands	5		5
Montana	4	3	7	Foreign, Unknown	963	1,240	2,203
Nebraska	2	12	14				
Nevada	4	2	6	TOTALS	25,947	8,730	34,677

Note: State of origin is the state of residence at the time of application to the University.

Source: Office of Institutional Research

Figure 5
DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT BY STATE OF ORIGIN
FALL 2010



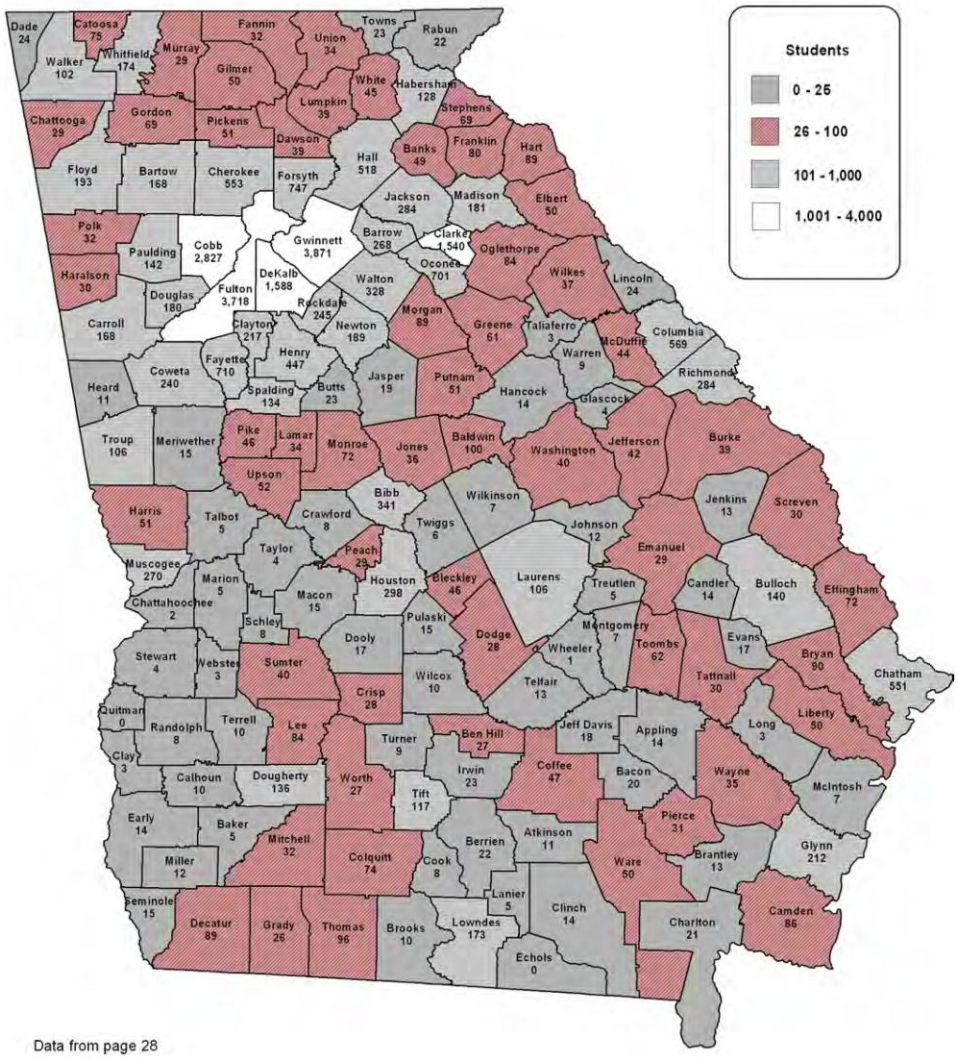
Data from page 26

ENROLLED GEORGIA RESIDENTS BY COUNTY OF RESIDENCE AND UGA STUDENT LEVEL
FALL 2010

County	Under-grad	Grad/ Prof	Total	County	Under-grad	Grad/ Prof	Total	County	Under-grad	Grad/ Prof	Total
Appling	13	1	14	Fannin	27	5	32	Oglethorpe	66	18	84
Atkinson	8	3	11	Fayette	620	90	710	Paulding	117	25	142
Bacon	19	1	20	Floyd	159	34	193	Peach	24	5	29
Baker	5		5	Forsyth	664	83	747	Pickens	40	11	51
Baldwin	75	25	100	Franklin	65	15	80	Pierce	29	2	31
Banks	42	7	49	Fulton	3,084	634	3,718	Pike	38	8	46
Barrow	204	64	268	Gilmer	46	4	50	Polk	24	8	32
Bartow	150	18	168	Glascock	3	1	4	Pulaski	12	3	15
Ben Hill	25	2	27	Glynn	177	35	212	Putnam	40	11	51
Berrien	20	2	22	Gordon	59	10	69	Quitman			0
Bibb	291	50	341	Grady	20	6	26	Rabun	20	2	22
Bleckley	38	8	46	Greene	48	13	61	Randolph	7	1	8
Brantley	11	2	13	Gwinnett	3,153	718	3,871	Richmond	218	66	284
Brooks	8	2	10	Habersham	93	35	128	Rockdale	194	51	245
Bryan	83	7	90	Hall	428	90	518	Schley	5	3	8
Bulloch	116	24	140	Hancock	14		14	Screven	24	6	30
Burke	35	4	39	Haralson	27	3	30	Seminole	14	1	15
Butts	15	8	23	Harris	49	2	51	Spalding	98	36	134
Calhoun	9	1	10	Hart	75	14	89	Stephens	50	19	69
Camden	76	10	86	Heard	10	1	11	Stewart	4		4
Candler	13	1	14	Henry	385	62	447	Sumter	30	10	40
Carroll	145	23	168	Houston	254	44	298	Talbot	5		5
Catoosa	68	7	75	Irwin	21	2	23	Taliaferro	3		3
Charlton	20	1	21	Jackson	230	54	284	Tattnall	25	5	30
Chatham	470	81	551	Jasper	17	2	19	Taylor	3	1	4
Chattahoochee	2		2	Jeff Davis	17	1	18	Telfair	11	2	13
Chattooga	24	5	29	Jefferson	37	5	42	Terrell	9	1	10
Cherokee	488	65	553	Jenkins	11	2	13	Thomas	85	11	96
Clarke	888	652	1,540	Johnson	9	3	12	Tift	95	22	117
Clay	2	1	3	Jones	28	8	36	Toombs	53	9	62
Clayton	159	58	217	Lamar	27	7	34	Towns	19	4	23
Clinch	12	2	14	Lanier	5		5	Treutlen	5		5
Cobb	2,416	411	2,827	Laurens	92	14	106	Troup	95	11	106
Coffee	39	8	47	Lee	72	12	84	Turner	5	4	9
Colquitt	69	5	74	Liberty	44	6	50	Twiggs	5	1	6
Columbia	487	82	569	Lincoln	20	4	24	Union	30	4	34
Cook	7	1	8	Long	3		3	Upson	46	6	52
Coweta	202	38	240	Lowndes	138	35	173	Walker	85	17	102
Crawford	7	1	8	Lumpkin	23	16	39	Walton	273	55	328
Crisp	27	1	28	Macon	11	4	15	Ware	43	7	50
Dade	19	5	24	Madison	136	45	181	Warren	8	1	9
Dawson	36	3	39	Marion	4	1	5	Washington	34	6	40
Decatur	80	9	89	McDuffie	34	10	44	Wayne	30	5	35
DeKalb	1,165	423	1,588	McIntosh	6	1	7	Webster	3		3
Dodge	24	4	28	Meriwether	14	1	15	Wheeler	1		1
Dooly	11	6	17	Miller	11	1	12	White	29	16	45
Dougherty	114	22	136	Mitchell	28	4	32	Whitfield	152	22	174
Douglas	144	36	180	Monroe	65	7	72	Wilcox	6	4	10
Early	13	1	14	Montgomery	7		7	Wilkes	30	7	37
Echols			0	Morgan	70	19	89	Wilkinson	5	2	7
Effingham	64	8	72	Murray	25	4	29	Worth	23	4	27
Elbert	45	5	50	Muscogee	231	39	270				
Emanuel	23	6	29	Newton	145	44	189	TOTAL	22,447	5,081	27,528
Evans	14	3	17	Oconee	596	105	701				

Source: Office of Institutional Research

Figure 6
DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLLED GEORGIA RESIDENTS BY COUNTY
FALL 2010



Data from page 28

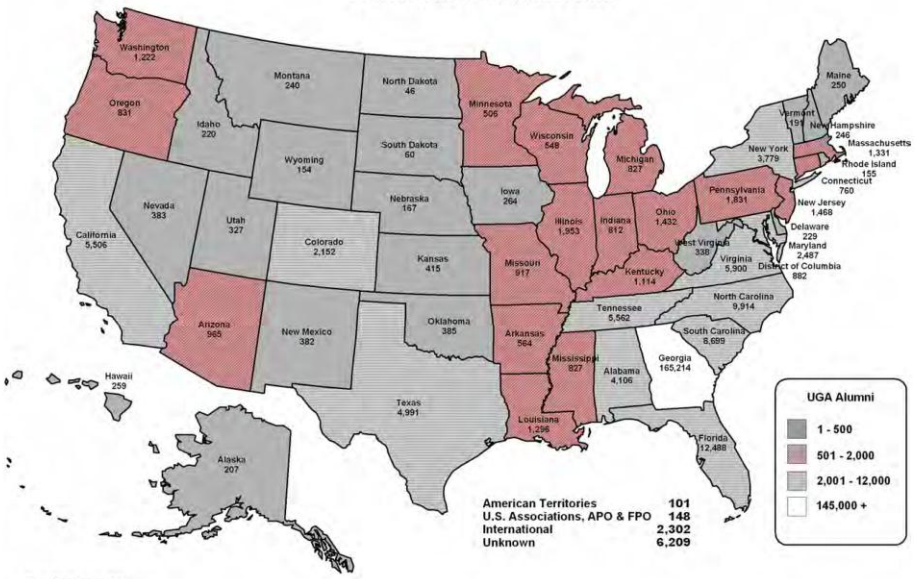
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA ALUMNI
BY STATE OF RESIDENCE

State	*Alumni*	*State*	*Alumni*
Alabama	4,106	New Hampshire	246
Alaska	207	New Jersey	1,468
Arizona	965	New Mexico	382
Arkansas	564	New York	3,779
California	5,506	North Carolina	9,914
Colorado	2,152	North Dakota	46
Connecticut	760	Ohio	1,432
Delaware	229	Oklahoma	385
District of Columbia	882	Oregon	831
Florida	12,488	Pennsylvania	1,831
Georgia	165,214	Rhode Island	155
Hawaii	259	South Carolina	8,699
Idaho	220	South Dakota	60
Illinois	1,953	Tennessee	5,562
Indiana	812	Texas	4,991
Iowa	264	Utah	327
Kansas	415	Vermont	191
Kentucky	1,114	Virginia	5,900
Louisiana	1,296	Washington	1,222
Maine	250	West Virginia	338
Maryland	2,487	Wisconsin	548
Massachusetts	1,331	Wyoming	154
Michigan	827	American Territories	101
Minnesota	506	U.S. Associations, APO & FPO	148
Mississippi	827	International	2,302
Missouri	917	Unknown	6,209
Montana	240		
Nebraska	167		
Nevada	383	TOTAL*	264,562

** As of October 11, 2010*

Source: Information Technology for External Affairs

Figure 13
DISTRIBUTION OF ALUMNI BY STATE



Data from page 64

APPENDIX B

Young Alumni Life Satisfaction Survey (YALSS)

This survey has 4 parts.

1. The Quality of Life Index and will ask you rate areas of your life through 11 statements based on satisfaction and importance.
2. The Experience in Close Relationships section will ask you rate your agreement with 9 statements about how you generally experience relationships.
3. The Job Satisfaction Survey will ask you to rate your agreement with statements about your job. (If you do not have a job, as indicated in the first section, you will skip this section of the survey.)
4. Demographic information related to the study.

Part 1 – Quality of Life Index

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING, PLEASE CHOOSE THE ANSWER THAT BEST DESCRIBES HOW ***SATISFIED*** YOU ARE WITH THAT AREA OF YOUR LIFE.	Very unsatisfied	Moderately unsatisfied	Slightly unsatisfied	Slightly satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very satisfied	
Your family's health	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your family's happiness	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your spouse, lover, or partner	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	
The emotional support you get from your family	1	2	3	4	5	6	
The emotional support you get from people other than your family	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your neighborhood	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your home, apartment, or place where you live	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	I do not have a job.
Your education	1	2	3	4	5	6	
How well you can take care of your financial needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	

Part 1 – Quality of Life Index, continued

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING, PLEASE CHOOSE THE ANSWER THAT BEST DESCRIBES HOW ***IMPORTANT*** THAT AREA OF YOUR LIFE IS TO YOU.	Very unimportant	Moderately unimportant	Slightly unimportant	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important
Your family's health	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your family's happiness	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your spouse, lover, or partner	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
The emotional support you get from your family	1	2	3	4	5	6
The emotional support you get from people other than your family	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your neighborhood	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your home, apartment, or place where you live	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your job	1	2	3	4	5	6
Your education	1	2	3	4	5	6
How well you can take care of your financial needs	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 2 – Experience of Close Relationships

THE STATEMENTS BELOW CONCERN HOW YOU FEEL IN EMOTIONALLY INTIMATE RELATIONSHIPS (I.E. WITH A PARENT, A BEST FRIEND, A ROMANTIC PARTNER, OR OTHER PEOPLE CLOSE TO YOU). WE ARE INTERESTED IN HOW YOU *GENERALLY* EXPERIENCE RELATIONSHIPS, NOT JUST IN WHAT IS HAPPENING IN A CURRENT RELATIONSHIP. RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT BY CLICKING A CIRCLE TO INDICATE HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE STATEMENT.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
It helps to turn to others in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I usually discuss my problems and concerns with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I talk things over with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find it easy to depend on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't feel comfortable opening up to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer not to show others how I feel deep down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often worry that others don't really care for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm afraid that others may abandon me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I worry that other won't care about me as much as I care about them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3 – Job Satisfaction Survey

PLEASE CHOOSE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSES TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
People get ahead as fast here as they do in	1	2	3	4	5	6

other places.						
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 4 – Demographics

What year did you receive your undergraduate degree?

2011
2010
2009
2008
2007

What was your age that year (at your college graduation)?

-18
19
20
21
22
23…
…40+

From which college did you receive your undergraduate degree? *(check all that apply)*

College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences
College of Education
College of Environment and Design
College of Family and Consumer Sciences
College of Pharmacy
College of Public Health
Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication
Franklin College of Arts and Sciences
School of Social Work
Odum School of Ecology
School of Public and International Affairs
Terry College of Business
The Faculty of Engineering
Warnell School of Forestry and Natural Resources

Did you receive HOPE scholarship at any time during college? If unsure, answer "no."

Yes
No

As you think about your experiences of relocation over your lifetime, how much did you move during your childhood compared with others? (This question refers to relocation, not travel.)

- I did not move much. (*example: Your family home may still be in the same town, and moving to college marked a major relocation experience.)*
- I experienced relocation about the same as most other people. *(example: You may have moved or changed schools as a child.)*

- I moved more than most people. *(example: You moved far or frequently, such as children in military families or foster care. You may have made one significant move, such as relocation from another country.)*

What is the name of your hometown and state?
(For the purpose of this study, "hometown" is where you lived while you attended high school or the place you consider your hometown because you predominantly grew up there or lived there the longest before college. Write it the same way it appears on letters that would be mailed to you. For example: Alpharetta GA.)
[blank text box to fill in city] [drop-down menu to select among states and "outside USA" as option]

Did you return to your hometown after college?
(This means you lived in, or very near (within 50 miles,) your hometown during at least 6 of the 12 months after graduation.)
Yes
No

Write one word that explains your primary reason for living where you lived during your first year after college.
[blank text box]

There is a high likelihood that I will live in or near my hometown (within 50 miles) in the future.
Disagree very much
Disagree moderately
Disagree slightly
Agree slightly
Agree moderately
Agree very much

Where do you live now?
Write it the same way it appears on letters that would be mailed to you. For example: Alpharetta GA. If you live in your hometown, repeat it here.
[blank text box to fill in city] [drop-down menu to select among states and "outside USA" as option]

Gender:
Man
Woman
[blank text box]

Do you identify as Caucasian/White?
Yes
No Please name your race/ethnicity: [Text box]

SUBMIT MY RESPONSES

I CHOOSE NOT TO SUBMIT MY RESPONSES

APPENDIX C

Invitation Email and Informed Consent

How is life? UGA wants to know!
Official research details are listed below with a link to the survey.

University of Georgia alumni records indicate that you earned a degree between 2007 and 2011. Please take a few minutes to tell us about your life since college!

I agree to take part in a research study titled "Relocation Among Young Alumni" which is being conducted by Nicole Lechene in the College of Education at the University of Georgia (phone: 404-814-8812) under the direction of Dr. Laura Dean in the department of Counseling and Human Development Services at the University of Georgia (phone: 706-542-6551). My participation is voluntary; I can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have information that can be identified as mine removed from the research records or destroyed.

The purpose of the study is to understand the relocation patterns and motivators of college graduates by asking about experiences with relationships and job satisfaction. I will not benefit directly from this research.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to complete a 79-item questionnaire which will take approximately 10 minutes. I can skip any questions I choose not to answer.

No discomforts or stresses are expected. No risks are expected.

This research is important to help researchers understand the relocation decisions of graduates. As an incentive for my participation, one person will be selected at random from the total population of this study to receive two tickets to the UGA Alumni Association Sky Suite during a home football game in Sanford Stadium for the fall 2012 season, or a similar prize. By receiving this invitation to participate in the study, I am automatically included in the drawing and am not required to complete the survey to be eligible for this prize. The winner will be notified by May 1, 2012.

Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However once the survey is received by the researcher, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with me will remain

confidential unless required by law. At the conclusion of the study, and after a participant has been identified to win the prize, all identifiers will be destroyed.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at: 404-814-8812.

By clicking on the link below, I indicate that I understand the procedures described above and I consent to volunteer for this study. I can print or save a copy of this form for my records.

[Link to the study will be included here.]

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 629 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu