Reasons for Leaving Home: Comparing Predictors of Wanting to Migrate and Travel in Croatian Undergraduates

SUMMARY

Previous research has relied on the assumption that people migrate from a poor to a rich country. This study instead looks at predictors of desires for migration away from a relatively well-off country in Eastern Europe. Predictors for both long-term, permanent international migration and short-term, leisure international travel are compared. A survey was administered to 323 undergraduates in Osijek, Croatia. Power motivation, career orientation, neophilia and place attachment were examined as predictors. As predicted, career orientation, place attachment, and neophilia are significant predictors for desires for long-term international migration for both men and women. Power motivation, career orientation and neophilia predicted women’s travel intentions, but only neophilia predicted men’s travel intentions. Gender differences in travel intentions are discussed. The role of economic and noneconomic factors and predictions for future migration in Croatia are examined. The data allow better understanding of the reasons why Eastern Europeans want to leave their home country. It also has implication for gender differences on reasons for traveling. Such gender differences might relate to more effective marketing strategies targeting male and female tourists from Eastern Europe.

KEY WORDS: migration, travel, Croatia, neophilia, power motivation

INTRODUCTION

Much of the research on why people choose to migrate from one country to another focuses on the role of economic factors (e.g. Rumbaut, 1994) and argues that people from a poor country tend to migrate to a richer country. The studies have

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1 The authors would like to thank the Russian and East European Studies Program of the University of Pittsburgh for partial funding for this project.
generally omitted psychological factors in such decisions. However, in a recent study on German skilled migrants, although primarily looking at economic factors, Verwiebe, Mau, Seidel and Kathmann (2010) also looked at social predictors of migration, such as social network. There is also a small, but growing literature on psychological factors in migration desires (e.g. Frieze, Hansen and Boneva, 2006). Such work addresses why some people choose to stay in their home region, even when the economic situation is bad, while other people choose to leave, even if their place of origin is very wealthy (e.g. Van Dalen and Henkens, 2007; Boneva and Frieze, 2001).

Croatia, where the current study takes place, is a country where a relatively large number of people choose to leave the country and work in other countries. According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2007), 16% of the total population, or 726,031 Croatians, emigrated to other countries, including the US, Germany, Australia and other European countries by the year 2005. However, although the emigration rates have been high for Croatia for many years, we suspect that reasons for migration may be changing as the economy and other factors in the country change. Thus, Croatia becomes a very interesting place for the current study to look at additional psychological variables that move beyond past studies’ scope to predict migration desires.

Past research evidence on psychological variables and migration suggested that people who were high on basic psychological motives such as power motivation or achievement motivation (and low on affiliation motivation) tended to leave places where the economy was suffering (e.g. Boneva et al., 1997, 1998; Matter, 1977). It was suggested in these studies that people seek to better fulfill their motives by re-locating geographically to another area, and that they choose to migrate when they feel their motives can be better expressed in another region. In a Croatian study, Šakaja and Mesarić (2001) found that more than half of the high school student participants said that they wanted to leave Croatia. In the city of Osijek, even more high school students (62%) wanted to migrate. Other studies found that people’s personal values toward work and family affect their desire to migrate (e.g. Frieze, Hansen and Boneva, 2006). For example, Frieze et al. (2004) found that people who were high in work centrality, that is, valuing work as the central of one’s life, and power motivation chose to leave their home and move to another place when the economy of their place of origin was suffering. In a Croatian study, Božić and Burić (2005) found that younger Croatians who were unemployed or unmarried were more likely to migrate. They also found that people who were highly educated were more likely to migrate.
Although these studies recognized the role of individual differences in migration desires and suggested that those who had high power or achievement motives or high work centrality would leave when motives were frustrated, they still argued that a basic factor in migration desires was people being deprived by a poor economic situation or lack of work opportunities in the place of origin. These studies looked at migration desires in places where the economic situation was depressed. They did not address directly why some people still wanted to leave even if the economic situation was relatively good in their place of origin. As the Croatian economy has improved since these earlier studies on Croatians’ migration desires (e.g. Boneva et al., 1997, 1998; Šakaja and Mesarić, 2001), we suspect that motivational factors based on poor economic conditions may now have less impact on migration desires. Croatia’s economy improved after 2000 primarily because of the growth of tourism, a credit boom, capital investment, and the growth of small and medium sized enterprises (U.S. Department of State, 2009). The gross domestic product (GDP) of Croatia grew 35% between 2001 and 2008 (World Bank, 2011). The overall unemployment rate also dropped from 20.5% in 2001 to 8.3% in 2008; the youth (ages 15 to 24) unemployment rate fell from 45.3% to a still high level of 21.9% over the same period (World Bank, 2011). Perhaps because of the better domestic economy, data from the Croatian Employment Service (CES) showed that the total number of Croatians working abroad decreased from more than 7,000 in 2000 to about 5,000 in 2006 (IOM, 2007). Unfortunately, beginning in late 2008 and during the year of our survey (2009) Croatia’s economy was affected by the global financial crisis. Croatian GDP fell by 6% in 2009 and the overall unemployment rose to 9.1% (World Bank, 2011). However, the economic crisis was worldwide and also had a substantial negative effect on the European Union as well; the EU’s GDP fell by 4.3% in 2009, overall EU unemployment rose from 6.9% in 2008 to 8.9% in 2009, and overall youth unemployment in the EU rose from 16.2% to 20.7% (World Bank, 2001). Therefore, the EU was unlikely to have become a more attractive destination for immigration in 2009. Assuming that the students in our sample were primarily affected by the general pattern of improved economic conditions in the country and not by the events of one year (2009), we suggest that other psychological variables, rather than frustration of basic motives, should become important in migration desires.

Therefore, our current study aims to identify additional variables that predict people’s migration desires when the economy in their place of origin has generally improved. Specifically, in this paper, we examine three new variables, including career orientation, neophilia and place attachment, in addition to the previously studied power motivation variable. Achievement motivation is not included in the current study due to the high correlation between achievement and power motiva-
tion, leading to a multicollinearity problem with the data. Therefore, power motivation is used as a representative measure for basic motives. We will investigate how these new and old variables play a role in people’s migration desires in Croatia, a place with relatively high mobility and where the economy was steadily improving from 2000 until the recent global financial crisis.

The second goal of the present study is to examine different types of migration. The studies mentioned above focus primarily on long-term or permanent migration, but there are also other studies that focus primarily on short-term or temporary migration desires (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Gustafson, 2001; Ryan and Glendon, 1998). For example, McGuiggan (2000) suggested that choices of leisure activity, including travel, are determined by one’s personality and motivations. Tran and Ralston (2006) also studied the relationship between basic motives, such as power motivation, and tourist preferences. This indicates that basic motives do influence people’s style and even frequency of traveling and that they may be predictors for wanting to engage in leisure travel as well as for predicting emigration desires.

Our study compares interest in leisure travel to voluntary long-term international migration. People who like to travel are believed to have some similarities with people who desire long-term migration (Bell and Ward, 2000, Frieze and Li, 2010). However, we expect that this is not always the case. One important difference between these two overlapping groups is believed to be a psychological feeling of attachment to one’s home region (Frieze and Li, 2010). Therefore, our study combines the two streams of migration studies and compares people who desire long-term migration to those who desire short-term migration, and looks at how our model predicting migration desires from power motivation, career orientation, place attachment and neophilia differs for each type of migration. Potential effects of each predictor variable on both long-term international migration and short-term leisure travel desire are next discussed.

**POWER MOTIVATION**

Power motivation is defined as a concern about having control, impact and/or influence over another person, a group, or the world as a whole (McClelland, 1987; Winter, 1973). In other words, people who are high in this dimension seek prestige or high status in a group. Those high in power motivation are more willing to take risks and endure dangers in reaching their goals than those low in power motivation (Fersch, 1971). The general disposition of power-oriented people is dissatisfaction with oneself, and with one’s position in the society (McClelland, 1975; Winter, 1973).
Power motivation was found to be a significant predictor of long-term migration desire in several studies. For example, a series of studies of university students in Central and Eastern Europe, including Croatia, found that people who were high on power motivation had higher desires for long-term migration (Boneva et al., 1997, 1998; Frieze et al., 2004). It was suggested that these people’s power motivation was being frustrated by the poor economic situations in Central and Eastern Europe at that time in the 1990’s and early 2000’s when these countries were transitioning from state-controlled socialist economies to market economies. Thus, they were motivated to leave. However, as mentioned earlier, the Croatian economy has improved significantly since these earlier studies. Given the improvement in the Croatian economy until late 2008, people who have high power motivation may not necessarily want to leave since it is increasingly likely that their power motives can now be fulfilled in their home country. Therefore, although power motivation was thought to be a major variable affecting long-term migration in poor economic times, we no longer make this prediction. Instead, other personality factors and career orientations may be more influential to people’s long-term migration desire.

For short-term migration, or leisure traveling, power motivation may, however, still be a significant predictor, regardless of the economic situation. Dann (1977) argued that people may use traveling as a mean of ego-enhancement or fulfilling their need for high status, implying that people with high power motivation may want to travel more. Crompton (1979), in an interview, found that people travel for prestige. Cheong and Miller (2000) suggested that traveling usually involves socioeconomic differences between travelers and locals. Thus, it is possible that traveling may serve to satisfy desires to feel powerful. Therefore, we propose that power motivation will be a significant predictor for leisure travel, but not for long-term migration within this relatively positive economic situation being studied.

CAREER ORIENTATION

Career orientation concerns people’s career goals and plans and, for this student sample, is related to having high aspirations with respect to one’s job after graduation. We define high career orientation people as wanting to be the best in their field of work. These people also focus on gaining the highest salary or the most recognition in their field. They aim at developing their career, not just finding a job. On the other hand, low career orientation people only aim at finding a job that can sustain their living costs, but not a demanding career. Being the best or being recognized in the field does not matter to them. Working life may not be the most important thing for these people.
Given the importance of work in most adult lives, people’s orientation and plans for their career may be highly related to their migration desires. For example, low career orientation people may easily be satisfied with their lives and not care about having a demanding career. They may be more likely to stay in their position in their place of origin and not seek promotions or be willing to relocate for their jobs. However, high career orientation people may be attracted by different opportunities that can better help achieve their career goals, even if these opportunities lie in another city or country. These people may be more attentive to career opportunities outside their own regions. Since their goal is to be recognized by the field, with the globalized economy, this would also mean that they want to be known in other countries. Therefore, even if the unemployment rate is low in their place of origin and they are able to get a well-paid job in their country, they still do not want to be restricted to their home regions and may want to look for a better long-term opportunity that can facilitate their career. We propose that these people may be more likely to migrate to another country.

Career development was found to be a major reason why people stay or leave a place (Mak, 2006). For example, Wiskow (2006) reported that most of the medical school graduates in Croatia decided to emigrate to other countries for reasons such as “better earning”, “better opportunities for career advancement” and “more respect for the medical profession in the society”. It was suggested that these people would consider leaving the country if they cannot do the specialty they want, but not because they cannot get any job in Croatia. This kind of career orientation of wanting to get respect, meeting their own goals in the field and having better career advancement may motivate these people, those high in career orientation, to seek possible opportunities elsewhere. Career orientation appears to be important in other countries too. Studies of people who are most willing to accept transfers to other parts of the country within the United States have shown to be higher in job involvement (Brett and Reilly, 1988). It is also well known that a major reason for choosing to move to another part of the country is to enhance work opportunities (e.g. Fassmann and Münz, 1994). In a Croatian study, Adamović and Mežnarić (2003) also identified career-related variables as related to why people want to stay or leave the country. A previous qualitative study showing that people who had a high desire for career success and development had higher mobility might provide direct supporting evidence for the proposed relationship between international migration and career orientation. In their study, Findlay and Li (1999) reported on a person who migrated to and from economically advantaged areas several times to seek a place where he could fulfill his desire to attain a more successful career. This case study of such a high mobility person may suggest that people who focus on achieving their career goals are more mobile and open to migration. However,
the qualitative data from this study are not adequate to provide clear evidence for a relationship between migration and career orientation. Nevertheless, based on the evidence in previous studies, we now predict that people with a high career orientation will be more likely to be interested in long-term migration.

The relationship between leisure travel and career orientation is less clear. Inkson and Myers (2003) found that career development is one of the reasons people go for short-term oversea experiences. However, those oversea experiences may involve working opportunities, which are different from leisure travel, the form of short-term migration examined in this research. It is also possible that leisure travel could increase understanding of other cultures, a matter of increasing concern for companies that operate in many countries. Given the unclear evidence here, we propose only that career orientation will be significant predictor for long-term migration, but explore the relationship of this variable to desires for leisure travel.

PLACE ATTACHMENT

Another variable that we propose as a negative predictor of desires for long-term migration is place attachment. Place attachment has been defined in a number of different ways in the existing literature (see Scannell and Gifford, 2010, for a review of this field). In our study, we define place attachment as a psychological involvement associated with one’s place of origin (Gustafson, 2001; Low and Altman, 1994). We study the affective aspect at attachment, particularly whether they enjoy being there in Croatia. This affective aspect has been suggested as part of place attachment (Scannell and Gifford, 2010), and this aspect appeared to be a key component in place attachment (Kaltenborn, 1997).

The concept of place attachment is believed to negatively relate to long-term or permanent migration by previous scholars. For example, people who have high place attachment to a certain area or region are thought to be less likely to leave that place (Frieze and Li, 2010). In a Croatian study, Adamović and Mežnarić (2003) found that love for homeland was one of the reasons why Croatians did not want to leave the country. However, leisure travel desire is not expected to relate to place attachment (Frieze and Li, 2010). McHugh and Mings (1996), in their study discussing the trajectory of migration in people’s life-course, also suggested that people temporarily leave their home to engage in leisure travel to satisfy their needs without disrupting their place attachment feelings. Other research has also suggested that place attachment only affects certain types of migration. Gustafson (2001), in his interview study, discussed the relationship between mobility and place attachment and suggested that different types of migration should be looked at and that
not every kind of migration would be affected by level of place attachment. For example, he found that people who were high in place attachment also traveled a lot. However, the study, which was based on qualitative data, did not statistically compare different types of migration. Therefore, our current study looks at the effect of place attachment in long-term migration and leisure travel, and proposes that place attachment will only be a significant (negative) predictor for a greater desire for long-term international migration.

NEOPHILIA

A final variable that we examine in the present study is neophilia, a novelty-seeking personality. According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, neophilia is defined as the “love of or enthusiasm for what is new or novel” (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/neophilia). People who are high on neophilia are more willing to try new things (Dawley, 2006), and more likely to try novel food (Sabry, 1996). Lepp and Gibson (2003) found that people who were high in neophilia perceived that there was less risk in new environments, implying that these people are more open to new environments.

To our knowledge, the relationship of neophilia to migration has not been directly examined. However, evidence gathered from research on traveling might support the relationship between liking new things and physical movement from one area to another. In an early study of traveling, Crompton (1979) interviewed 39 individuals and content analyzed factors related to traveling. Liking new things or novelty was identified as one of the factors affecting people’s travelling choices, among other factors such as traveling for relaxation and prestige. They found that people who indicated a novelty orientation were less likely to return to the same destination, even though the initial experience in that destination was satisfying. In another study, Yoon and Uysal (2005) found that excitement, such as “finding thrills and excitement”, and seeking knowledge, such as “experiencing new/different lifestyles” and “trying new food”, explained the largest variances in motivation for leisure travel. These push factors also predicted whether people would return to that location. This suggests that experiencing new things and excitement, or neophilia, might be highly related to people’s intention to travel.

Although these data only support the relationship between leisure travel and neophilia and are not directly related to long-term migration, they do suggest that high neophilia people have higher mobility and are more likely to visit new and unfamiliar places. This in turn implies that high neophilia people will also have higher desire for long-term migration, a possibility we examine in this study.
HYPOTHESES

Therefore, in the present study, we hypothesize that higher career orientation, lower place attachment and higher neophilia predict higher desires for long-term migration. We also hypothesize that higher power motivation and higher neophilia predict desire for short-term leisure travel.

While most of the studies reviewed above did not consider gender differences, research in the past, although limited, did find evidence of gender differences in traveling patterns. For example, Gustafson (2006) found an interesting gender difference in which men travel more if they have a cohabiting partner, while women travel less if they have a cohabiting partner. This difference may imply that men and women have different concerns and reasons for traveling. Frieze and Li (2010) also suggested that as there are often gender differences in predictors for migration, such as basic motives, men and women might have different predictors for general mobility. Therefore, it was suggested in their review that future studies should investigate whether there are gender differences for predictors of migration desires. Although there are insufficient data for us to formally propose specific hypotheses for gender differences in migrating reasons, we examine our data separately for men and women to investigate potential gender differences that may have been ignored by previous research.

METHOD

Procedure and Sample Characteristics

A total of 323 participants were recruited from Osijek, Croatia, in the fall of 2009. Data were collected from first-year university students in economics. The study was conducted during lectures for students in their first semester in the school. A survey in Croatian translated from English (and back translated to check the translation) was given to the participants, in a paper and pencil format. The questionnaire is part of the Cross-Cultural Survey of Work and Gender Attitudes Project, which started in Osijek in 1995. For the purpose of this study, only the 2009 questionnaire with 64 items were included in the analysis. For the sample characteristics, among the 323 participants, 206 were female (64%) and 117 were male (36%); 32 of them were refugees (10%) and 26 (8%) of them were exiles. Nineteen (6%) of them were both refugees and exiles. Four of them did not specify. As we suspected that refugees and exiles might have very different reasons for migration than non-refugees or non-exiles, these participants were excluded in this study, resulting in a total of 242 participants, among whom 78 were male (32%) and 164 were female (68%). Therefore, the current sample consists of first-year university students in Croatia, majoring in economics, who had no refugee or exile experiences.
Measures

Dependent variables. Two dependent variables were used for measuring short-term and long-term international migration desires. A Desire to Travel scale was created and used to measure participants’ short-term migration desires. Participants were asked to rate the two items “I enjoy traveling” and “I enjoy travelling to other countries” on a 5-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Participants also answered an additional item of “Ideally, how often do you want to travel to another country?” from 1 (never), 2 (once per year), 3 (2–3 times per year), 4 (4–6 times per year), to 5 (more than 6 times per year). The three items were combined to be a scale, with Cronbach’s alpha 0.73. Scores for the three items were averaged to create the Desire to Travel scale score.

Long-term international migration was measured by a scale which consisted of three items: “If I am given the opportunity, I would like to live in a different country at some points of my life”, “If I am given the opportunity, I would like to immigrate to another country”, and “Once I complete my education here in the university I expect to leave Croatia and move to another country”. Participants rated these statements on a 5-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is 0.77. Scores for the three items were averaged to create the interest in long-term migration score.

Power motivation. The Power Motivation scale (Frieze and Boneva, 2001; Schmidt and Frieze, 1997) was employed to measure power motivation. Sample items include, “If given the chance, I would make a good leader of people”; and “I find satisfaction in having influence over others”. A 20 item version of this scale has been successfully used in previous studies of university students in Central and Eastern Europe (Boneva et al., 1997, 1998). Participants rated the items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for this study was .73. Items were averaged to create the score.

Career orientation. Career orientation was measured by four items tapping the importance of career achievement to participants. Two of them were taken from Olson et al. (2006). Items were “After graduation, it is important to me that I have a career, not just a job”; and “I want a job that pays well”. Two other items measure the desire to have upward development in one’s career, including “It is important to me that I become recognized in my field of work”, and “It is important to me that I become one of the best in my field of work”. All of the items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale is 0.78. Factor analysis showed one factor, which supports the internal consistency of this scale.
Place attachment. As mentioned above, affective aspect of place attachment is measured. To simplify the survey and as previous research has suggested that liking or enjoyment in a place is a major factor for place attachment (Kaltenborn, 1997), place attachment to Croatia was measured by a single item “I enjoy living in Croatia”. Participants rated from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

Neophilia. The Neophilia measure was taken from Walker and Gibbins (1989). The neophilia scale consists of 32 items, each being rated on a 5-point Likert Scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Sample items are “I like change”, “People who know me seem to think that I am into strange and unusual things”, and “There should be less change in our society (reverse item)”. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale is 0.70.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics of all tested variables are shown in Table 1. Prior to examining the influence of predictors on the outcome of interest, overall gender differences were tested with MANOVA, using all variables as dependent variables. Results indicated that the multivariate effect for gender was not significant. Looking at the univariate effects, none were significant except for desire for leisure travel, in which men in our sample (M=3.80) showed significantly lower desire for travel than women (M=4.06), F (1,237)=4.79, p<.05. This further supports our intention to separately analyze for men and women.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics on all tested variables across genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Male Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Female Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Univariate test F (1,237)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire for long–term international migration</td>
<td>2.84 (1.07)</td>
<td>2.87 (1.07)</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire for leisure travel</td>
<td>3.80 (1.00)</td>
<td>4.06 (.76)</td>
<td>4.79*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicting variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power motivation</td>
<td>3.58 (.49)</td>
<td>3.49 (.57)</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career orientation</td>
<td>4.07 (.76)</td>
<td>4.09 (.68)</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>4.17 (1.10)</td>
<td>4.09 (1.06)</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neophilia</td>
<td>2.84 (.40)</td>
<td>2.78 (.34)</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Parameter estimates in each row that share subscripts do not differ significantly. All scores ranged from 1 to 5.

*p<.05
Correlations are reported in Table 2. Correlations among predicting variables are not significant except for the correlation between power motivation and career orientation. Given the presence of this correlation, tests for multicollinearity in the regressions were conducted. When multicollinearity diagnostics were examined, the Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were found to be low (VIF < 1.0). This suggests that multicollinearity was not of sufficient concern to warrant statistical control (Kleinbaum et al., 1998).

Table 2: Correlations among all tested variables across gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Desire for long-term international migration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Desire for leisure travel</td>
<td>.406(**)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Power motivation</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Career orientation</td>
<td>.278(*)</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.513(**)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>-.522(**)</td>
<td>-.156</td>
<td>-.006</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Neophilia</td>
<td>.226(*)</td>
<td>.303(**)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>-.140</td>
<td>-.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Desire for long-term international migration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Desire for leisure travel</td>
<td>.377(**)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Power motivation</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>.345(**)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Career orientation</td>
<td>.327(**)</td>
<td>.419(**)</td>
<td>.487(**)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>-.389(**)</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Neophilia</td>
<td>.391(**)</td>
<td>.237(**)</td>
<td>.170(*)</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>-.163(*)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Next, we tested the hypothesized predictors of long-term international migration. Multiple linear regression analysis was employed to test whether long-term international migration desires were predicted by having higher career orientation, lower place attachment and higher neophilia. Significant models emerged for both male, $F (4,71) = 12.28, p<.01$, and female participants, $F (4,158) = 22.73, p<.01$. The men’s model explained 37.6% of the variance (Adjusted $R^2 = .376$), while the women’s model explained 34.9% of the variance (Adjusted $R^2 = .349$). Table 3 presents information for the predictor variables entered into each model. Higher career orientation, lower place attachment and higher neophilia were significant predictors of higher long-term international migration desire for both men and women, as hypothesized.

**Table 3:** The unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients for the variables entered into the model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Desire for long-term international migration</th>
<th>Desire for leisure travel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male B (SE) Beta</td>
<td>Female B (SE) Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power motivation</td>
<td>-.248 (.233) -.113</td>
<td>-.124 (.137) -.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career orientation</td>
<td>.546 (.151)** .388</td>
<td>.550 (.114)** .352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>-.499 (.090)* -.513</td>
<td>-.369 (.065)** -.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neophilia</td>
<td>.529 (.252)* .197</td>
<td>.942 (.204)** .302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>F</strong></td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>22.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adjusted R^2</strong></td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td>76</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p<.05$  
** $p<.01$
Next, the hypothesized model predicting desires for leisure travel was tested. Again, linear regression was employed to test the hypothesis that higher power motivation and neophilia would predict higher desires for leisure travel. A significant model emerged for only females, $F(4,158) = 12.11, p<.01$. The model explained 21.5% of the total variance (Adjusted $R^2 = .215$). The model for males is marginally significant, $F(4,71) = 2.38, p = .06$. The model explained 6.9% of the total variance (Adjusted $R^2 = .069$). As hypothesized, high neophilia predicts higher desire for leisure travel for both men and women. For only women, high power motivation predicts high desire for leisure travel, as predicted. High career orientation was also found to be a significant predictor for women’s higher desire for leisure travel.

**DISCUSSION**

Our results supported our hypotheses that high career orientation, high neophilia and low place attachment to Croatia would predict higher desires for long-term international migration. The pattern of predictors was found to be the same for men and women. This may suggest that men and women are motivated by similar reasons to want to migrate to another country.

The results for leisure travel desire were more complicated. We hypothesized that high power motivation and high neophilia would predict people’s travel desires. However, our results showed that only women’s travel desire was predicted by these two factors, together with career orientation. Men’s travel desire was only predicted by neophilia. This appeared to indicate that men and women may have very different reasons for traveling, supporting the gender differences found in Gustafson (2006) that men and women were different in their preference for travel. However, Gustafson (2006) did not look at how men and women travel’s desires differed. Our study, on the other hand, further develops and investigates how gender plays a role in travel desires. Specifically, our results may be extended to imply that female students in Croatia may see travel as exhibition of power and opportunity for career development. Thus, it appears that women see travel as more instrumental than men, relating travel to their career and power motives. Male students in Croatia may see travel as a leisure activity to enhance their need for excitement. However, given the lack of significant predictors found for men’s desires for leisure travel and only a marginally significant model for men’s travel desire, it is clear that other possible predictors need to be examined in future research.

Nevertheless, our findings that men have different reasons for leisure travel than women may imply that marketing strategies for leisure travel to men and women should be different. For example, advertisement for travel targeting women may
emphasize the pride and sense of achievement that they can gain, while travel advertisement targeting men may emphasize excitement and novel experiences that they can get through the trip.

One limitation of our study lies in the measurement for place attachment. To simplify the study for our participants, only one item was used to measure place attachment and only the affective aspect of place attachment was examined. Therefore, our measure may not tap into all the dimensions of place attachment. Moreover, we notice that there is no consistent scale being used by researchers, and no scale could allow us to measure all aspects of the concept. Therefore, we suggest that future studies should develop a reliable and valid scale measuring the psychological process of place attachment. For example, the framework suggested by Scannell and Gifford (2010) could be used as a guide to develop a scale for affective, cognitive and behavioral aspects of place attachment. Despite this limitation, our study does contribute to understanding the effect of liking a place, a major factor for place attachment, on wanting to stay or leave that place.

Our study also contributes to understanding migration from places where their economy has improved. Although our study did not include economic variables in our analysis, it is among the few studies that look at why people still want to leave a country when the relatively long-term (eight years) performance of the economy was reasonably good (IHS Global Insight, 2009). Although Croatia’s economy was affected by the global financial crisis, we suggested that the effect in 2009 was probably small, since this problem was worldwide and Croatia’s economy was not doing much worse than other countries, especially in the European Union. Affirming this, our results supported the idea that the immediate impact on the motivations of Croatians to leave the country is small, as shown in our results that power motivation, which is usually fulfilled by relocating to another place (Boneva et al., 1997, 1998; Frieze et al., 2004), is no longer a significant predictor for migration desire. Our study also suggests that people may leave the country for different reasons in different economic situations. Supporting our hypothesis, we found that when the economy of a place is doing reasonably well, personal variables, such as neophilia and place attachment, become more important. However, if in the next few years, Croatia recovers more slowly than other European countries, there may be an increased interest in long-term migration again, and basic motives variables related to the economic situation, such as power motivation, would predict migration again. If this happens, Croatia may suffer from losing its valuable human resources. IHS Global Insight (2009) predicted 0.2% growth in GDP in Croatia in 2010 and 3.1% growth in 2011. IHS also predicted unemployment rate will start to fall again in 2011. This may keep those people with high motivations from leaving the country.
In this case, other variables, such as neophilia, career orientation and place attachment, may instead predict migration desires. On the other hand, actual GDP growth in 2010 was -1.2% (World Bank, 2011) and a recent US government publication notes that, as a transitioning economy, Croatia faces problems as a result of the global financial crisis with its “high foreign debt, anemic export sector, strained state budget and over-reliance on tourism revenue” (US Central Intelligence Agency, 2011, Economy – overview). Continued economic problems may again lead to the importance of basic economic motives.

These psychological profiles that our study found also provide important implications for Croatia as the country works on keeping these people in the country. Although our data only asked people’s intention to leave, this still provides us with more knowledge on motives behind people’s wanting to leave the country. Particularly, university students in the country hold skills and knowledge that can be valuable resources to the country. Also, previous studies suggested that highly mobile people usually have higher education level or skills than those who stay (Boneva and Frieze, 2001; Tartakovsky and Schwartz, 2001). In a survey asking graduating medical students whether they would stay or leave Croatia after graduating, 76% of them said they would consider leaving if they could not pursue their desired specialty in Croatia (Wiskow, 2006). Migration data of Croatia showed that 30% of the emigrants had a tertiary education level (IOM, 2007). Previous studies also suggest that people who leave usually work harder to strive for achievement (Frieze et al., 1997; Boneva et al., 1998; Matter, 1977). Their leaving would cause serious human resources loss to the country. Therefore, the current study on these potential emigrants’ psychological profile would allow policy makers to develop policies to keep these highly educated and valuable human resources, such as providing individuals with opportunities for upward career development, or organize activities to enhance people’s place attachment.

In conclusion, our study makes a contribution to the study of predictors for long-term international migration and short-term leisure travel, particularly from a place where the economy has been growing. Our study suggests that men and women may have different reasons for leisure travel, and that reasons for long-term migration might be different depending on the country’s environmental situation, e.g. economy. Future studies may extend to look at different kinds of short-term migration as well as different types of traveling. Also, our study excluded refugees and exiles; future studies may replicate the current study to look at migration and travel patterns of these groups of people. It is expected that variables such as place attachment to their home country may play a more important role in leaving their host country. Further studies on economic changes of the country or economic
perceptions of people and migration desire might also be meaningful in examin-
ing how psychological and environmental variables interact in predicting people’s 
motivation to leave.

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Razlozi napuštanja doma: usporedba prediktora želje za migriranjem i putovanjem u hrvatskih studenata

SAŽETAK

Prijašnja istraživanja oslanjala su se na pretpostavku da ljudi migriraju iz siromašne u bogatu zemlju. Predmet su ovog istraživanja, naprotiv, prediktori želje za odlaskom iz relativno bogate istočnoeuropske zemlje. Uspoređuju se prediktori dugotrajne, trajne vanjske migracije i kratkotrajnog puta u inozemstvo u slobodno vrijeme. Anketirana su 323 studenta u hrvatskom gradu Osijeku. Kao prediktori ispitani su motivacija za moći, usmjerenost na karijeru, neofilija (ljubav prema novome) i vezanost za mjesto. Kao što se i pretpostavljalo, usmjerenost na karijeru, vezanost za mjesto i neofilija značajni su prediktori želje za dugotrajnom vanjskom migracijom i u muškaraca i u žena. Motivacija za moći, usmjerenost na karijeru i neofilija objašnjavaju namjere putovanja u žena, dok je u muškaraca samo neofilija povezana s namjerama putovanja. Razmatraju se i rodne razlike u namjerama putovanja i ispituju ulogu ekonomskih i neekonomskih faktora te predviđanja migracija iz Hrvatske. Podaci omogućuju da se bolje razumije zašto istočni Europljani žele otići iz domovine, što također implicira rodne razlike u razlozima putovanja. One bi se mogle povezati s učinkovitijim marketinškim strategijama namijenjenima muškim i ženskim turistima iz istočne Europe.

KLJUČNE RIJEČI: migracija, putovanje, Hrvatska, neofilija, motivacija za moći