

Intentions to move and place attachment of lower educated in a declining rural region

Abstract

Much research has focused on intentions to move related to work. Little is known about intentions to move of lower educated and the role place attachment plays. This research tried to find an explanation for the low intentions to move of lower educated and explored what place attachment theory can add to current knowledge on intentions to move. The life course approach, the human capital theory and place attachment theory are discussed and compared in explaining intentions to move. The research was conducted in the declining region East Groningen in the Netherlands, where unemployment is high. A questionnaire was spread in the area amongst 1000 lower educated unemployed. A multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data. Results show that place attachment and having a spouse are significant predictors of intentions to move of lower educated. The place attachment model receives support by the found results. However, the overlap between the human capital theory, the life course approach and place attachment theory is of importance. Support of one approach does not strictly result in rejection of the other approaches. It is striking that the found predictors of intentions to move are all of social nature. Social factors seem to be of greater importance in the decision to move than economic factors in the classical sense.

Keywords: tendency of moving, place attachment, life course approach, human capital theory, lower educated, East Groningen

Introduction

Unemployment is high in the current European economy (CBS, 2013; NOS, 2013). This has negative consequences for lower educated (Wolbers, 2011). The unemployment rates for lower educated increase at a faster pace, compared to higher educated. Lower educated are pushed aside by higher educated. Because of the high unemployment rates, employers have a large choice in who they hire for a job. It is more likely for the employer to hire someone with more skills for the job, even though the skills are not actually necessary. Higher educated are therefore more likely to be employed. During times of high unemployment lower educated have a greater risk of becoming or staying unemployed.

Work and income are important for satisfaction in life and wellbeing. (Peiró, 2005; Salinas-Jiménez, Artés & Salinas-Jiménez, 2010; Gudmundsdottir, 2011). High unemployment rates influences the wellbeing of a population. Since unemployment

is relatively high among lower educated, they have a higher chance to experience a decrease of satisfaction and wellbeing.

Attention is needed for lower educated in declining rural regions. When unemployment is high, the pull towards larger cities in order to find a job becomes stronger. The negative effects of decline in the region will be enforced: the population declines further because of the move towards cities, facilities disappear because there are less people making use of them and as a result the area becomes less attractive to live in, leading to devaluation of houses (Haartsen & van Wissen, 2012). However, lower educated are less likely to move to the larger cities for work (Antolin & Bover, 1997). The higher educated pull towards the larger cities while the lower educated remain in the declining region. Because of the decline chances of finding a job in these regions are becoming smaller for the lower educated.

Much research concerning mobility and intentions to move related to employment has been carried out (Antoling & Bover, 1997; Bücher & van Ham, 2003; Cooke, 2008; Edzes, Broersma & van Dijk, 2010; Faggian & McCann, 2009; de Groot, Mulder & Manting, 2011; Sjaastad, 1962; Venhorst, van Dijk & Wissen, 2011). So far, little is known about why lower educated have lower intentions to move and about the relationship between place attachment and intentions to move. Looking into these topics is of importance. Being willing to move for a job can improve the chances of finding a job and therefore improve the employment rates of the lower educated in times of high unemployment.

Also place attachment might be of importance here. In times of high unemployment it is more likely one has to move in order to find and get a job. Being attached to the place you live might prevent one to be willing to move for a job. This can restrict the search area and can result in staying unemployed.

This research will contribute to the knowledge of intentions to move of lower educated. The research is centered around the following question: *which factors influence the intentions to move of lower educated?* First, theories of intentions to move will be dealt with. Attention will be given to the human capital theory and the life course approach. Factors influencing intentions to move and the role of place attachment will be further discussed. Second, the data collection methods will be presented. The data were collected through a questionnaire and analyzed using a multiple regression analyses. Third, the found results will be presented. Finally, the conclusions of the research will be drawn and points for discussion will come forward.

Intentions to move

There is no impairment of the labor market position of the lower educated in the Netherlands. However, lower educated do have a lower labor participation compared to higher educated. Furthermore, lower educated have a greater chance of being unemployed than higher educated (De Beer, 2006; Edzes, Broersma & Van Dijk, 2010; Gesthuizen, 2008). For lower educated, finding work is more difficult in some cases since they possess fewer skills and knowledge compared to higher educated.

High intentions to move for work could make finding a job easier for lower educated. Intentions to move imply a person's wish to move within two years (Ministerie van BZK, 2011). If someone is prepared to move, a job does not have to be in the direct vicinity which may increase the chances of actually finding a job.

The search area people adopt in their search for a job is related to their intentions to move. Someone can enhance the search area when he or she is willing to move. One can look for jobs outside of their region because of the willingness to move. Someone with high intentions to move will adopt a larger search area compared to someone with lower intentions to move. Moving for a job is not a great obstacle when the intentions to move are high.

However, people are inclined to search for jobs in their own region (Büchel & Van Ham, 2003). A smaller search area is adopted because the intentions to move are lower. As a result, someone will sooner accept a job within their region, even though the job does not fit the wishes, skills or knowledge level. The job is accepted whilst another job could be available in other regions which suits the education level or job wishes. A smaller search area is adopted when the intentions to move are lower, this increases the risk of unemployment or dissatisfaction with a job.

The intentions to move are related to actual moves (De Groot, Mulder & Manting, 2011). People who already prefer to move, have higher chances of actually moving. When someone does not intend to move, it is unlikely he or she will actually move. Higher educated have higher intentions to move and are more likely to move for a job (Venhorst, Van Dijk & Van Wissen, 2011). Lower educated have lower intentions to move compared to higher educated, and are less likely to move (Antolin & Bover, 1997).

In order to explain the lower intentions to move of lower educated and the lower likelihood of moving for a job, the factors influencing intentions to move should be considered. Within the theory of intentions to move, two currents can be distinguished. First, there is the human capital theory. Second, there is the life course approach.

The human capital theory provides an economic approach to the decision to move. When the benefits compensate the costs of moving, someone will move (Sjaastad, 1962). Moving can be seen as an investment which will be undertaken only when it is worth the effort. The costs and benefits of moving are considered. The decision to move or not is based on this consideration.

The life course approach views the decision to move as dependant of mutually dependent events (Cooke, 2008). Different life domains are connected with each other. Examples of these domains are work, marriage and family. Events in the different life domains influence decisions made in other domains. Losing a job, or a divorce can result in someone making the decision to move.

Finally, it deserves attention that the decision to move is hardly ever taken alone. Often someone is connected with others, like a spouse or family. These persons influence the decision to move as well.

Despite the differences at first glance, the human capital theory and the life course approach are coherent. According to both approaches, a consideration will be made to determine whether moving is worthwhile. However, the cause of considering to move differs in both approaches. In the human capital theory the cause is of

economic nature (for example, potentially enhancing the income). According to the life course approach the cause lies in an event that took place, like a divorce, a marriage or losing a job.

Following both theories, factors influencing intentions to move will be discussed. The factors are of economic as well as social nature. Also, attention will be paid to the role of place attachment in intentions to move.

Factors influencing intentions to move

Men and women differ in their intentions to move (Faggian, McCann & Sheppard, 2007). Women have higher intentions to move and are more likely to move for a job compared to men.

The place where one's parents live is of influence on intentions to move as well (Michielin, Mulder & Zorlu, 2008). When children are in need of care or help from their parents they will base their place of residence on the vicinity of their parents. When there is need for help from the parents, children will live close by their parents. When someone lives near their parents and makes use of the help from their parents, this person will have lower intentions to move.

There is a difference in the intentions to move of home-owners and of house-tenants (De Groot, Mulder & Manting, 2011). Home-owners are more likely to move to another self-owned house compared to house-tenants moving to another rental house. Home-owners have higher intentions to move than house-tenants.

Being *unemployed* influences the intentions to move as well. People without a job have lower intentions to move compared to working people (Antolin & Bover, 1997). Even though moving to another region could provide a job, other factors are of greater influence on the decision to move. Think of the family composition, like having a *spouse* or having *children* (Bartel, 1979; Cooke, 2008). Families have lower intentions to move compared to singles (PBL, 2013). This is in line with the life course approach of intentions to move. An event, like losing a job, can be a cause to move. Different events, like a marriage or having children, influence the decision to move. Moving would not only have consequences for an unemployed person: finding and getting a job. Moving also contains consequences for the spouse and children of the unemployed person. The spouse could potentially become unemployed because the distance between the new house and their work has become too large. Finding a new job in the new region might be more difficult for the spouse. Furthermore, the *spouse could be unemployed* as well, in that case moving could result in potential benefits for both members of the couple. However, as a result of moving, the children would be forced to change schools and leave their former friends. The different domains of someone's life are mutually connected and influence the intentions to move.

The life course approach is connected with the human capital approach of intentions to move. The mentioned consequences of moving, like the spouse losing their job and a new school for the children, can be seen as costs that need to be compensated by benefits, like finding a new job. But there are other costs that need to be taken into account as well. Moving itself brings along *moving costs*, but also the costs of losing a *social and professional network* (Sjaastad, 1962). When someone estimates

the costs of moving as high, the benefits might no longer compensate the costs. This can concern actual costs like renting a moving truck, hiring movers or the costs of furnishing a new home. However, it can also concern psychological costs. Someone can think of moving as complicated. Many administrative affairs have to be taken care of, which could be an obstacle. Furthermore, it is possible that someone loses his or her social contacts in the neighborhood because of their moving house. The distance to current friends might increase which will adulterate the contact. Someone with many social contacts might give up on moving because he or she values the social contacts so much that moving is not worth the effort. This goes for professional contacts as well. Because of the moving, the distance to the professional network becomes larger, this makes it more difficult to maintain the network and make use of it. The risk of losing a professional network can result in someone turning away from moving for a job.

Opposite to the costs of moving are the benefits that moving provides. One can think of *enhancing the search area for work, a larger chance to get a job or a higher income* (Sjaastad, 1962). It is possible that someone increases the search area and consequently has a larger chance to find a new job because of moving. Wage plays a role in the decision to move as well (Bartel, 1979). When someone expects to find a job more easily when he or she moves and also expects a higher income, this person will sooner decide to move for a job. A job does not only provide economic benefits, like a higher income. A job also increases happiness and wellbeing (Layard, 2005). Someone who has been unemployed for a longer period will value the benefits of moving, the income and an increase in wellbeing, to a greater extent. Someone who has been *unemployed for a longer period of time* will move sooner for a job compared to someone who is currently employed or who has recently become unemployed.

Place attachment

Apart from the human capital theory and life course approach of intentions to move, place attachment theory is of importance as well. There are many different definitions and approaches of place attachment available (Lewicka, 2011; Raymond, Brown & Weber, 2010; Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Here, the definition of Altman and Low will be adopted. According to this definition, place attachment refers to the positive feelings people have concerning specific places (Altman & Low, 1992).

Place attachment can refer to places at different scales (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Someone can feel attached to his or her house, neighborhood or city. The attachment to a neighborhood is the weakest compared to the attachment to a house or city. People feel more attached to their own house or city where they live.

There are three elements that determine how people feel attached to a place (Gustafson, 2001). These elements are the individual, others and the environment. An individual attributes a personal meaning to a specific place. For example, a place can be of importance when someone has lived there for a certain period or when someone has a memory of that place. Other persons that are connected to a place can make sure someone is attached to a place as well. For example, neighbors in a place can contribute to a special meaning for the individual. Finally, the environment of a place can contribute to someone feeling attached to that place.

Here one can think of the physical environment of a place and the institutional environment, but of the location of the place as well. The type of inhabitant of a place or the mood of a place make that someone feels connected with the place.

The distinction of the three elements influencing place attachment is comparable to a distinction made in a different study. One can make a distinction in social and physical place attachment as well (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Social place attachment is based on the social relations someone has at the place. This is comparable to the elements 'individual' and 'others', according to the approach of place attachment of Gustafson (2001). The social compounds of the environment are part of social place attachment as well, like the type of inhabitant of a place. Furthermore, there is the physical place attachment. This contains the physical environment that was also distinguished by Gustafson (2001). Physical characteristics, like the interior design of a house or a monument in the neighborhood, can result in someone feeling attached to the place.

Generally, the social place attachment is stronger than the physical place attachment (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). The social factors are a stronger determinant of whether someone feels attached to a place compared to physical factors. The more good social contacts someone has in their neighborhood, the more someone will feel attached to the neighborhood (Mesch & Manor, 1998). Having good *social contacts* stimulates place attachment.

The *duration someone lives in their place of residence* influences place attachment (Bartel, 1979). When someone has lived in the same place for a long time, this person will experience a higher place attachment. This person has been able to build up many social contacts over time and set up the environment in a way he or she likes. It becomes more difficult to leave the place because the pleasurable living environment and social contacts would be lost.

As was the case for intentions to move, age and gender have a role in place attachment as well (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Women have a stronger place attachment than men. Furthermore, elderly have a stronger place attachment than youngsters. This is connected to the duration someone lives in the current place of residence. Elderly have more often lived in the same place for a long period of time compared to youngsters. Elderly have built up more social contacts in this place and have many memories of the place. As a result, elderly often have a higher place attachment.

When someone is attached to the place where he or she is currently living, this person is not inclined to move. The wish to stay in the current place is possibly that strong that it surpasses the wish to find a job. Someone with a high place attachment will prefer to live in their current place of residency, despite the higher chances of finding a job in a different region.

Data and methods

Sample and research area

The research has been conducted in the Eastern part of the province of Groningen in the Netherland (Figure 1). This area was chosen because of certain characteristics of

the area. East Groningen is an official highly declining region (*'Topkrimpregio'*) and special policies are adopted for the region in order to reduce the decline (Haartsen & van Wissen, 2012). In comparison with other areas, East Groningen has the strongest economic decline in the Netherlands (CBS, 2012). Unemployment in East Groningen is high, work participation is low and there is a relatively high number of lower educated (Broersma & van Dijk, 2005; LEADER Actiegroep Oost-Groningen, 2007). Because the region deals with decline and a greying population, different utilities are in danger of disappearing (CBS, 2010).



Source: Leader (2008).

Figure 1. *East Groningen in the Netherlands.*

A questionnaire was spread in order to collect the data. In cooperation with the Dutch UWV the questionnaire was spread nonselective under 1000 lower educated in East Groningen in order to create a representative sample. The UWV is the organization that executes the policies on employment insurances (UWV, 2013). The UWV decides on and provides firing permits, pays out the social security for unemployed and helps unemployed in finding a new job.

In the sample of 1000 persons, both unemployed and people with a WAJONG-income supplement were prevalent. A WAJONG-income supplement is meant to make working possible for people with a disability (UWV, 2013). The UWV makes it attractive for employers to hire someone with a disability. The UWV compensates the employer for the extra effort that is needed to hire someone with a disability. Further, the UWV pays the income supplement to the employee (a *'WAJONGER'*). The questionnaire was sent to the respondents by mail and a return envelope was added to the questionnaire to make sure the respondents could return the questionnaire free of costs. In order to guarantee anonymity, it was not possible to send a reminder to respondents who had not yet returned the questionnaire.

Therefore, a reminder would have been sent to all respondents. Because of the costs that sending the questionnaire twice would lead to, the questionnaire was sent to the respondents once.

203 questionnaires were filled out and returned (response 20,3%). Of these 203 respondents, 78,8% was unemployed and 21,2% had a WAJONG-income supplement. 51,7% of the respondents was female and 48,3% male. The average age of the respondents was 46 years.

Variables

The research focuses at the factors influencing intentions to move and the role of place attachment on intentions to move. The questions were related to the different factors that are important to intentions to move based on the literature: costs of moving, search area, chances of finding work, income, being unemployed, social network and place attachment.

Intentions to move was measured through the question: 'Are you planning on moving within two years?' (Encyclo, 2013). Respondents could answer this question on a five-point scale: very likely, likely, neutral, unlikely and very unlikely.

Being unemployed was measured through the questions 'Do you have a paying job at the moment?' and 'Are you looking for a paying job?'. The respondents could answer these questions with 'yes' or 'no'. This variable contains three categories: employed, looking for work (unemployed and looking for work) and unemployed (unemployed and not looking for work). This variable was added in the analysis as a dummy with two possible scores (yes-1/no-0) per category.

Duration of unemployment was measured by asking for how long the respondent has not had a paying job. The respondent could indicate in months for how long he or she was out of a paying job. This variable consists of three categories: employed, unemployed for less than 6 months and unemployed for longer than 6 months. This variable was added in the analysis as a dummy with two possible scores (yes-1/no-0) per category.

The respondents were asked whether they are married, living together or single. If the respondent indicated to be married or living together, a *spouse* is present. Subsequently, these respondents were asked whether their spouse has a paying job. A variable *Spouse/employment* was constructed with three categories: having an employed spouse, having an unemployed spouse and being single. This variable was added in the analysis as a dummy with two possible scores (yes-1/no-0) per category.

The respondents were asked whether they have *children* or not. If the respondent indicated to have children, the *age* of the youngest child was asked. The respondents could fill out the age in years. A variable with three categories was constructed: no children, children older than 18 years, children younger than 18 years. This variable was added in the analysis as a dummy with two possible scores (yes-1/no-0) per category.

The *social network* was measured by asking four questions. The respondents could indicate per category how often per month they have contact with family, friends,

acquaintances and neighbors. These scores were added and divided by four to construct a scale for social network. This scale has a Chronbach's alpha of 0,67. The *professional network* has been kept separate from the social network. The variable professional network was based on the number of times per month a respondent has contact with an (old)colleague or someone he or she has met through work.

Place attachment was measured by three statements derived from the research of Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001). The statements for place attachment were formulated on house, neighborhood and city level: 'I would feel sorry to move and leave my house/neighborhood/city. The respondents could indicate whether they strongly disagree, disagree, are neutral, agree or strongly agree with the statements. The scores (1-5) of the three statements were added to construct a scale. This scale for place attachment has a Chronbach's alpha of 0,91.

Also interaction terms with place attachment were calculated because place attachment correlated strongly with spouse/employment, duration of residence, social network and age. In order to control for the interactions of place attachment with these variables the interactions were added to the analyses.

Furthermore, the influence of the variables *gender*, *age* and *type of residence* (owning or renting a house) were controlled for.

Analyses

A multiple regression analyses was conducted to find out which factors influence intentions to move. Four different models were tested. The first model contained the place attachment variable and the control variables. The second model contained the variables related to the life course approach. The third model included the variables related to the human capital theory. To control for interaction effects the fourth model contained the interaction terms with place attachment. The different models were added one by one to the regression analyses in order to be mutually tested and compared.

Results

As a result of the different steps and model testing in the regression analyses, a model to predict and explain intentions to move of lower educated in East Groningen was found. In table 1 the results of the analyses are presented.

Table 1. Multiple regression on Intentions to move

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	R ² =0,237	R ² =0,224	R ² =0,188	R ² =0,243
Variable	F=9,003**	F=4,302**	F=2,587**	F=2,736**
Place attachment	-0,451**	-0,411**	-0,407**	-0,989**
Age	-0,065	-0,064	-0,020	0,148
Gender	0,007	-0,007	-0,010	0,001
Duration of residence	-0,149	-0,166	-0,177	-0,276
Working spouse		-0,234	-0,234	-1,335**
Unemployed spouse		-0,189	-0,212	-0,678**
Looking for work		0,055	0,050	0,050
Young children		0,036	0,044	-0,009
Adult children		0,095	0,087	0,093
Social network			0,027	0,036
Type of residence			-0,071	-0,021
Costs of moving			0,016	0,013
Professional network			0,058	0,045
Higher income			-0,075	-0,055
Duration of unemployment			0,025	-0,004
I PA x Spouse/employment				1,231**
I PA x Duration of residence				0,101
I PA x Social network				-0,056
I PA x Age				-0,241

** Indicates significant at the 1 per cent level; * indicates significant at the 5 per cent level.

The results show that the fourth model with the place attachment variable, the spouse/employment variable and the related interaction term is the best prediction model for intentions to move. The fourth model has the highest R² (R² = 0,243) and the model is a significant improvement of the preceding three models. The first model has one significant predictor: place attachment. Place attachment remains a significant variable in all the models. The second model represents the life course approach. The third model represents the human capital theory. In the second and third model no further significant variables are found. In the fourth model, the interaction terms of place attachment are added. The fourth model shows that place attachment and having a spouse (with or without work) influence the intentions to move. Further, place attachment interacts with the variable spouse/employment in predicting intentions to move.

A strong place attachment has a negative influence on the intentions to move. Having a spouse with work as well as an unemployed spouse, also is a negative influence on the intentions to move. However, having a spouse who works is a stronger negative influence on intentions to move compared to having an unemployed spouse. The positive effect of the interaction term of place attachment and spouse/employment on intentions to move is striking. One would expect that the effect of a strong place attachment and having a spouse would result in lower intentions to move. However, this result shows that one could have intentions to move, despite having a strong place attachment. For example, someone could be willing to move for the work of a partner and leave the place to which the person

has a strong place attachment. The social network, duration of residence, age and the other interaction terms are not significant influences in the model. Further, the human capital theory is not directly supported by these results. None of the human capital theory variables were found to be significant. The life course approach is partially supported because of the significance of the variable spouse/employment. However, looking for work and having children were not significant influences. The variable spouse/employment is only significant in the fourth model, after adding the interaction terms and is not significant in the second model. Place attachment together with the presence of a spouse are the best predictors and explanation factors for intentions to move. Searching for a job, having children, owning a house, the costs of moving, the professional network, a potentially higher income and the duration of unemployment are not a significant influence on intentions to move.

Discussion

It can be concluded that place attachment and having a spouse who is employed or unemployed influences intentions to move. The higher the place attachment, the lower the intentions to move. Having a partner, and especially a partner that has work, lowers the intentions to move. However, someone can be willing to move despite a high place attachment. This is remarkable because one would expect that having a partner and a high place attachment would further lower the intentions to move.

An explanation for this phenomenon can be found in the theory on tied movers (Cooke, 2003). Tied movers are individuals who moved, but who would not have moved if they did not have their spouse. The spouse can gain benefits from moving to a different place, for him or herself, as well as for the family as a whole. For example, moving for a new job and gaining a higher income as a result. The individual will follow the decision of the spouse, but would not have made the same decision when he or she had been single. Therefore, an individual can have a high place attachment but nevertheless have high intentions to move and actually move because the spouse can gain benefit from moving.

It is striking that the factors of influence on intentions to move, are all of social nature. The economic factors do not seem to play a role in the intentions to move here. The costs of moving, potentially losing the professional network and a higher income are not of influence on the intentions to move. Social factors, like being attached to a place and the presence of a spouse, are determinant for the intentions to move and play the most important role in the decision to move.

Place attachment together with the presence of a spouse form the best explanation for intentions to move compared to the other life course approach factors and human capital theory factors. It is striking that the long accepted theories concerning intentions to move, the human capital theory and life course approach, are not directly and fully supported by the results of this research. The role of place attachment in the intentions to move adds new insights in the theories on intentions to move.

However, the overlap between place attachment theory, the life course approach and human capital theory should be remarked here. Having a spouse who works or is unemployed belongs to the life course approach, but is part of the place attachment theory as well. Finding a spouse is a life event which determines future decisions an individual will make. And having a spouse can contribute to feeling more connected with the place one lives in. Furthermore, a high place attachment can be seen as a cost of moving according to the human capital theory. The attachment to a place has to be sacrificed when someone chooses to move. All approaches are interconnected and therefore it is difficult to confirm or reject one of the approaches. It is incorrect to separate the approaches and choose one approach over the other. Nevertheless, the importance of place attachment in intentions to move has been confirmed by the results of this research.

This research has tried to define the factors influencing intentions to move of lower educated. Attention for intentions to move has the potential to lower the unemployment rate of lower educated. When policy can adapt to the factors influencing intentions to move, finding a suitable job can become easier resulting in lower unemployment rates.

However, the complexity of unemployment under lower educated should not be overlooked. As mentioned earlier, lower educated are easily pushed aside by higher educated (Wolbers, 2011). Moreover, high unemployment rates are partially caused by the demand side as well (Adams, Greig & Mcquaid, 2001). There should be demand by employers for lower educated employees and their skills. A solution in reducing high unemployment rates is therefore not necessarily found in facilitating education possibilities to make employees higher educated. It is of great importance to create suitable jobs (Broersma & van Dijk, 2005).

In creating these jobs, suitable for lower educated, intentions to move should be taken into account. For example, this research showed that social factors are of greater importance compared to economic factors. The created jobs could on the one hand stimulate travelling larger distances between home and work. Lower educated are less inclined to leave the place they are attached to and might be willing to travel over larger distances to work, making moving for work no longer necessary.

On the other hand, the created jobs could contribute to making the decision becoming more based on economic factors. The provided social security could be lowered, making the importance of a higher income larger. The wages of the created jobs could be increased in making moving for the job more attractive. Following the cost-benefit consideration of the human capital theory, the economic factors can be made of significance to a thus large extent that it compensates for the social losses that moving would lead to.

Future research could consider the differences and commonalities between lower and higher educated regarding the role of place attachment in the intentions to move. This research focused on lower educated because of their known lower intentions to move. Further, the lower educated of one specific region were part of the research. Considering the new found influence of place attachment on intentions to move for higher educated or people from different (non declining) regions could

provide more insights and information on the connection between place attachment and intentions to move.

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